Proceedings of the 8th National Conference on Private Higher Education Institutions (PHEIs) in Ethiopia

Major Theme: Invigorating the Work on Access, Equity and Quality of the Higher Education Sector in Ethiopia

Organized & Sponsored

By

St. Mary’s University College

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PREFACE

St. Mary’s University College is committed to enhance quality of education through investing in R & D. So far it has successfully organized eight national conferences on Private Higher Education Institutions (PHEIs) in Ethiopia in which the papers presented are made available to the readers as published documents. This proceeding is a compilation of 15 research papers presented at the 8th national conference on PHEIs in Ethiopia. The conference was organized under the theme of “Invigorating the work on access, equity and quality of the higher education sector in Ethiopia”. In the conference a broad spectrum of issues were covered including the place of corporate universities in Ethiopia, globalization of higher education, quality assurance practices, issues related to open and distance education, access and unemployment problems in Ethiopia and cross cutting issues like HIV/AIDS in Ethiopian higher education system.

The conference was conducted at the UN Conference Center on September 25, 2010. More than 250 individuals from private and public higher education institutions, national and international research organizations, civil service organizations, and representatives of government ministries participated in the daylong conference.

The Center for Educational Improvement and Quality Assurance of St. Mary’s University College would like to seize this opportunity to acknowledge and thank all participants, paper presenters, opening and keynote speakers, rapporteurs and reviewers of the papers who contributed for the successful accomplishment of the conference.
WELCOMING SPEECH
Wondwosen Tamrat (Asst. Prof)
President & Founder, St. Mary’s University College

Your Excellency Ato Eyesuswork Zafu
President of the Ethiopian chamber of Commerce and Sectoral Associations

Your Excellency Professor Luc Rukingama
UNESCO Country Representative-Ethiopia

Excellencies,
Ladies and Gentlemen:

On behalf of the St. Mary’s Community, I would like to welcome you all to the 8th Annual Conference on PHE organized and sponsored by St. Mary’s University College.

It is indeed a pleasure to see old and new faces gathering each year to deliberate on issues which relate to the achievements and tribulations of a sector that is covering a significant share of the technical and vocational, and 17 percent of the higher education stream.

No doubt, the expansion of higher education in Ethiopia owes a debt to the private higher education sector which has assumed a legal status through the 2003, and 2009 Higher Education Proclamations. With all the ups and downs, the sector has already made significant contributions.

Today’s conference focuses on invigorating the national discussion on access, equity and quality which continue to be major challenges despite the gains made in the higher education sector.

These issues are also the major concerns of many nations around the world. There is currently an increasing demand on HEIs to equip learners with the knowledge, skills and critical thinking that will ensure their employability and respond to national development goals.
It is indeed the responsibility of every citizen to make sure that Ethiopia makes significant strides in these areas as education, and higher education for that matter, holds the key to the envisaged development and poverty reduction strategy of Ethiopia.

As before, I hope today’s conference will answer the demand from the government and other stakeholders for ensuring quality of higher education. We have among us participants from all walks of life, and paper presenters and chairs from both the private and public sectors indicative of the growing cooperation between the two sectors.

Once again, let me welcome you to the conference and wish you a successful day with interesting presentations and lively discussions. We are looking forward to your very valuable inputs and deliberations which, I am sure, will go a long way in making this conference a great success.

I now call upon Ato Eyesuswork Zafu, President of the Ethiopian Chamber of Commerce, to declare the Conference open.

Thank you for your attention,
OPENING SPEECH
Ato Eyessuswork Zafu
President of Ethiopian Chamber and Sectoral Associations

THOUGHTS ON THE STATE OF ACCESS, EQUITY AND QUALITY OF THE
HGIEHR EDUCATION SECTOR IN ETHIOPIA

All Protocol Observed
On 10th November 2006, I had the singular honour and privilege of addressing a large gathering of distinguished Ethiopians in what may have been Christmas Hall of Addis Ababa University. It was a forum for sharing ideas with the University and its various stakeholders in search of inputs of the strategic plan the University was engaged in drawing up. While the wider topic of that day’s discussion was: Tripartite relation of Government, Private Sector and University, I was requested to share my views on a slightly more specific subject: Cooperation between the University and the private sector.

I find myself once again facing an august gathering of distinguished Ethiopians from academia addressing whom could well be a daunting experience. I am beginning to believe that this is perhaps a case of mistakes identity, for as a simple insurance salesman, I do not possess the requisite qualification to do what I am doing now. Let me tell you that I stand before you feeling both humbled by the experience and honoured by the recognition given to me. My task this morning is certainly more honourous as I am only here to open the 8th Annual Educational Conference St. Mary’s University College has organized. The easiest way out would be to simply read the short address suggested by the organizers and finish the job.

However, apart from the fact that choosing the easy way out had never been my style, it will be remiss on my part not to say a few words about the present state of Higher Education Sector in Ethiopia.

Ladies and Gentlemen
Following the fall of the Derg and the introduction of a market-oriented development paradigm by first the transition and later by the elected and duly constituted Federal Democratic Government of Ethiopia, many Ethiopians invested considerable resources in the Education sector: from kindergarten to institutions of higher learning. While such institutions helped to share the burden of government whose capacity to meet the demand for educational facilities were limited, it became impossible to meet the correspondingly sudden and overwhelming demand for good, qualified educators. Government’s determination to invest heavily in social infrastructure, including education, exacerbated the shortage of qualified teachers. The situation was not helped much by a significant migration of academic elites to the newly emerging private sector where the grass was relatively greener. One of the devastating combined effects of such a development was undoubtedly compromising the quality of education being offered in many institutions of higher learning, both public and private.

The need to bring about some semblance of equity and balance as well as the desire to redress past imbalances in access to education, encouraged the introduction of more flexible admission criteria based on such factors as gender, ethnicity and differentials in levels of development consideration. Though not easily quantifiable, such measures could be said to have accelerated the deterioration of the quality of education being offered. In an environment where the quality of education had, for reasons mentioned earlier and more, plummeted to an embarrassingly low level, should it be any wonder if an employer placed more weight on “loyalty” rather than “competence”?

**Ladies and Gentlemen**

As one of the employers of graduates of higher learning, I wish to share my view that I often get very disappointed with most applicants. Most of those that I encounter neither have the strong work-ethics of my generation nor the skills, initiatives and competitiveness needed by today’s society. To that extent, I do not see how anyone could honestly support to perpetuate the status quo, especially when we, as a nation, embark up on a decidedly ambitious path of growth and transformation.
Most states had earlier settled the traditional debate about the aim of education, and higher education in particular, a debate that raged on for decades between those who saw “Education for its own sake” as a goal (libertarian) and those who saw it as no more than a utilitarian, human resource endeavour to produce the quantity and quality of manpower needed by the national economy. For most transitional societies like our own, the common denominator and decision-imperative became the pragmatic compromise: Development of the kind that will help build an economy which can provide for their peoples, decent living standards and protection of basic freedoms. Their declaration and commitment, to achieve by deliberate interventions, the Millennium Development Goals, is but a declaration of war against poverty, disease, ignorance, and dominance by other nations and/or their surrogate transnational corporations. It is yet the strongest suggestion that they cannot leave the matter of their future development exclusively to the forces of the market or the whim of nature.

Not many would disagree with the notion that nations like ours which aim to achieve agreed and/or given development goals, have to make strategic choices of Human Resource Development. Such choices shall be substantially influenced by the already existing level of development and available resources, the agreed goals with time frames, and the like. Typically, critical areas of choice may be: the emphasis on quality versus quantity at all levels of formal education; emphasis on science and technology versus the arts (law, arts and humanities) in secondary and higher education; emphasis on formal pre-employment training versus on-the-job or in-service training in skills development; main population of salary and wage structures versus market-determined pay structures.

While recognizing the need to reorient/change course to align our educational system to the needs of our given goals, it is equally important to beware of the danger of zealotry lest we throw the baby with the dirty water we washed it with. The recent directive issued by Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency, with its blanket prohibitions of new enrolments in all distance education programmes, creation of monopoly for state controlled universities, the teaching of law, and the like, sounds alarming. It negates all the positive accomplishments of past public-private endeavours in the education sector. If indeed quality is the main concern, then many of the Government run institutions of higher learning deserve to be closed. In my
humble opinion, the truth lies somewhere in between and the more logical response to the
deterioration of quality in our education system maybe better informed supervision, more
inclusive, consultative and constructive engagement of all the parties to formulate more realistic
and consensual solutions.

I can sense the kind of animate discussions that could ensue in the course of this conference.
The theme of the conference and the historic juncture at which it is taking place, both make an
excellent chemistry for a most engaging time. Please indulge me to seize this opportunity to
recognize and sincerely thank St. Mary’s University College for its initiative in organizing this
8th Conference as well as the previous 7 Conferences on and about a critical sector of the nation’s
economy-the Education Sector.

I wish you fruitful deliberations and thank you for listening to me.
KEY-NOTE SPEECH
Prof. Luc Rukiingama, UNESCO

Excellencies,

Ladies and Gentlemen:

It is a pleasure for me to be present, on behalf of the United Nations Country Team (UNCT) in Addis Ababa, at the 8th National Conference on Private Higher Education in Ethiopia, amongst the academia, and deliver this keynote speech, addressing the issues revolving around the major theme of the conference.

Right from the start, I would like to reiterate that the UNCT is committed to collaborate with both private and public providers of Higher Education. Indeed, it would help the institutions to more efficiently enhance the relations between themselves and local communities. To this effect, the UNCT, in this regard, will continue to support professionalization of Higher Education, diversification or programs in the framework of sustaining access, equity and quality. The UNCT has even started a reflection designed to find out the best channels for collaborating with Higher Education Institutions and the academia.

As you well know, the Ethiopia government is hailed by the UN in its efforts to meet the MDG of Universal Primary Education. This resulted in the large upward flow of students to secondary and post-secondary education, which is the reason why the government is actively engaged in the higher education expansion program. I am fully cognizant of the contributions that the private universities and colleges are providing to offset this surge, the contribution of the private sector, has increasingly become important. In a situation where public universities are under-funded across the developing world and as a consequence of which they are challenged by the demands of the public at large, the increasing presence of private institutions in an unavoidable phenomenon. Today, 30% of the global higher education enrolment is in the private sector and it is the fastest growing part of the sector worldwide (Altbach in UNESCO 2009).

Excellencies
Ladies and Gentlemen
Our world is faced with the challenges of poverty, which would hardly be mitigated without research-induced higher education. If we want to achieve sustainable development, we need to have research at the forefront. For all these to happen, higher education institutions need to align their research works with government policy directions.

It should be understood that the overarching goal of higher education is to raise higher level employment skills, to sustain a globally competitive research base, and to improve the knowledge dissemination to the benefit of society. As a public good and strategic imperative for all levels of education and as the basis for research, innovation and creativity, higher education must be a matter of responsibility and economic support to governments. Indeed, the 2009 world conference on Higher Education organized by UNESCO in Paris from 5-8 July 2009 was cognizant of this fact when it coined its overarching theme as “The New Dynamics of Higher Education and Research for Societal Change and Development”. At no time in history has it been more important to invest in higher education as a major force in building an inclusive and diverse knowledge society and to advance research, innovation and creativity. In this regard, the past decade provides evident that higher education and research contribute to the eradication of poverty, to sustainable development and to progress towards reaching the internationally agreed upon development goals, which include the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education for All (EFA)

Excellencies
Ladies and Gentlemen
Sub-Saharan Africa has increased its share of private higher learning institutions, which have widened access to those in need of further education. Demands for college level education is showing tremendous growth in recent years, and governments are struggling to meet these demands. However, financial constraints have hampered the efforts of creating access to all in need. In response to these challenges, African countries have opened their doors to private operators. Ethiopia too is no exception.

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia has, unlike the previous governments, allowed private service providers to open and run higher education institutions. This is a big achievement
considering the increasing demand for access to higher education. The presence of private operators has helped the government’s efforts of expanding the higher education sector, and by extension, sharing the government’s burden of being the sole service provider.

The major theme of today’s conference is ‘Invigorating the work on Access, Equity and Quality of the Higher Education Sector in Ethiopia, it is a fitting theme considering the fact that quality is high on the global agenda. Access alone is not enough and much more needs to be done to ensure the success of learners in the productive places. This calls for quality of teaching learning environment-quality teachers, availability of sufficient facilities such as references and equipment.

Private operators should work towards ensuring quality in the service they are rendering. I am not saying quality is exclusively a private agenda. No university is immune to quality problems. However, the minimum threshold of quality should be met by all service providers and win the credibility of the public and the government.

It should be clear that quality of education is a matter that concerns the wider society as much as the academic community. It should as well be borne in mind that the knowledge equity generated by high quality education has the capacity to transform the fortunes of a country from endemic poverty to remarkable success. In this regard, I strongly believe that Ethiopia will benefit a great deal from vibrant private service providers; considering the interest shown in organizing conferences like this that focus on addressing issues that are closely linked to quality matters.

I believe the Conference brings together an impressive gathering of senior managers, researchers and other personalities committed to the promotion of Higher Education in this country. It is my sincere belief that this Conference will support the development concrete principles, strategies, to promote Higher Education in the spirit of public and private partnership and I am honoured to be part of the Conference.
Finally, I would like to express my appreciation to the conference organizer and sponsor, St. Mary’s University College, and you, conference participants, for devoting your time to the noble issues of access, equity and quality of higher education.

I thank you
Globalization and Internationalization in Higher Education: A Quality Assurance Perspective

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Abstract
In recent years, globalization and internationalization are becoming central issues for higher education worldwide. Globalization has prompted the internationalization of higher education as one of the key new trends in higher education systems. The terms ‘Globalization’ and ‘Internationalization’ are closely intertwined and linked concepts. Whereas globalization is the increasing flow of technology, finance, trade, knowledge, people, values, and ideas across borders internationalization is the process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research and services functions of higher education institutions. Forces driving internationalization include: increasing demand for access to higher education; cross-border providers of higher education as a profit-making business; competition to attract the best academic staff and students; international competitiveness to use knowledge for creating knowledge-based economies; the harmonization of higher education to facilitate recognition of academic qualifications; and international cooperation for improving quality of higher education.

The internationalization of higher education in its various forms poses major challenges for quality assurance and accreditation. One major impact of internationalization is the pressure created in the development of new mechanisms for recognizing credits and qualifications earned elsewhere. The increase in cross-border student and professional mobility has put the issue of recognition of academic qualifications high on the international agenda. Globalization and internationalization of higher education have made it imperative for quality control measures to be introduced in order to protect students from poor quality education. In the context of growing globalization, there is an urgent need for international initiatives to review the quality assurance mechanisms of higher education provision. There is also a growing agreement on the viewpoint that globalization in higher education urgently asks for a transnational approach to quality assurance and accreditation.

This paper examines various literatures regarding globalization and internationalization implications to quality assurance in higher education. It first introduces briefly the concept of globalization and internationalization. Then it discusses some aspects of globalization that include the growing importance of the knowledge economy; trade in education services and private higher education; rapid expansion of distance education and quality concerns; cross-border higher education and quality assurance issues; and the need for recognition of qualifications, and international approach to quality assurance mechanisms and accreditation. Finally, the paper makes some recommendations that might be useful to the Ethiopian context.

INTRODUCTION
In recent years, globalization and internationalization are becoming central issues for higher education worldwide. Globalization has prompted the internationalization of higher education as one of the key new trends in higher education systems. The terms ‘Globalization’ and ‘Internationalization’ are closely intertwined and linked concepts. They are related in various ways, but in particular
internationalization of higher education can be considered as one important impact of globalization. Forces driving internationalization include: increasing demand for access to higher education; cross-border providers of higher education as a profit-making business; competition to attract the best academic staff and students; international competitiveness to use knowledge for creating knowledge-based economies; the harmonization of higher education to facilitate recognition of academic qualifications; and international cooperation for improving quality of higher education.

Amongst the most critical dimensions of globalization is the increasing importance of knowledge as a driver of growth. Rising private investment in the provision of higher education is another trend of globalization and internationalization. As part of the general push for increasing the size of enrolment in higher education, many countries have undertaken the initiatives to involve the private sector in higher education. As a result rapid growth of the private sector in higher education is seen globally. In fact, the inclusion of education under the umbrella of the General Agreement on Trade in Services is one significant outcome of globalization that could speed up the process of developing an international market for higher education services.

Over the last ten years, there has been a noticeable growth in distance education. Demand for career advancement and lifelong learning, progress in communication technology, and growing market for tertiary education have contributed to rapid expansion of distance higher learning. There has been also substantial increase in the number and type of education opportunities offered by cross border providers. However, the fast growth in cross border provision of distance education has created the potential for fraud and abuse. Consequently growing degree mills involving credentials of dubious educational value offered by low quality providers are threatening the credibility of distance learning and the online provision of courses. Because of this, UNESCO in collaboration with the OECD has developed Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education, which is a key instrument for providing orientation for developing national capacity and international cooperation in cross-border higher education.

The impact of globalization on higher education generates a number of crucial challenges, which ask for a new and international regulatory framework. Globalization and internationalization of higher education have made it imperative for quality control measures to be introduced in order to protect students from poor quality education. The increasing mobility of students and staff, the joint development of programs from different countries, the need for international recognition of degrees, and the rapid expansion of cross-border higher education with branch campuses have made an international approach to accreditation desirable. In fact, there is a clear need for strengthened international co-operation and more transparent information on quality assurance, accreditation and recognition of qualifications procedures.

This paper examined various literatures regarding globalization and internationalization implications to quality assurance in higher education. It first introduces briefly the concept of globalization and internationalization. Then it discusses some aspects of globalization that include: the growing importance of the knowledge economy; trade in education services and private higher education; rapid expansion of distance education and quality concerns; cross-border higher education and quality assurance issues; and the need for recognition of qualifications and international approach to quality. Finally, the paper makes some recommendations that might be useful to the Ethiopian context.
The concept of globalization and internationalization

In recent years, globalization and internationalization are becoming central issues for higher education worldwide. Globalization has prompted the internationalization of higher education as one of the key new trends in higher education systems. The terms ‘Globalization’ and ‘Internationalization’ are closely intertwined and linked concepts. Knight and De Wit (1997) defined globalization as the increasing flow of technology, finance, trade, knowledge, people, values, and ideas across borders. Similarly, they defined internationalization of higher education as the process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of an institution. According to Altbach (2002), globalization in broad terms refers to trends in higher education that have transnational implications, and internationalization refers to the specific policies and initiatives of countries and individual academic institutions or systems which deal with global trends. Examples of internationalization include policies relating to recruitment of foreign students, collaboration with academic institutions or systems in other countries, and the establishment of branch campuses abroad (Altbach, 2002).

The two terms globalization and internationalization are related in various ways, but in particular internationalization of higher education can be considered as one important impact of globalization. In fact, it is impossible to discuss the impact of globalization on higher education without referring to the internationalization of higher education. Internationalization is one of the ways in which higher education is responding to the opportunities and challenges of globalization. Mohammedbhai (2008a) identified forces driving internationalization that include increasing demand for access to higher education; cross-border providers of higher education as a profit-making business; competition to attract the best academic staff and students; international competitiveness to use knowledge for creating knowledge-based economies; the harmonization of higher education to facilitate recognition of academic qualifications; and international cooperation for improving quality of higher education.

Internationalization is a process where higher education institutions and their functions are developed in a more international direction (INQAAHE, 2010). In practice, internationalization of higher education may refer to the following activities:

- The international movement of students between countries;
- The international movement of academic staff and researchers;
- International links through open learning programs and new technologies;
- Bi-lateral links between governments and higher institutions in different countries for collaboration in research, curriculum development, student and staff exchange, and other international activities; and
- Cross-border provision of higher education offered on a commercial basis.

While all these aspects of internationalization are important, the tremendous recent growth in the numbers of international students often receives major attention. The number of students who are enrolled in higher education outside of their home countries is increasing in recent years. France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States receive 49% per cent of all foreign students worldwide. International students constitute 25% of total students in Australia (INQAAHE, 2010).
The student mobility is one of the main outcomes of global education and many universities are trying to recruit international students.

Hatakenaka (2004) identified five main trends related to internationalization of higher education:

- Increased student mobility with growing number of students studying abroad;
- Increased staff mobility;
- A rapid increase in transnational education provision;
- Increased demand for professional subjects and
- International collaboration in research that has increased substantially in recent years.

Thus, attention to the international aspects of higher education has grown over the recent years.

**SOME ASPECTS OF GLOBALIZATION AND INTERNATIONALIZATION**

**Growing importance of the knowledge economy**

Amongst the most critical dimensions of globalization is the increasing importance of knowledge as a driver of growth. Knowledge accumulation and application have become major factors in economic development and are increasingly recognized at the core of the competitive advantage of nations in the global economy. The ability of countries to select, adapt, commercialize and use knowledge is critical for sustained economic growth. Knowledge has become the single most important factor in economic development (INQAAHE, 2010). The education position paper of UNESCO (2004) describes the growing importance of the knowledge economy as one key element of globalization.

Economic development is increasingly linked to a nation's ability to acquire and apply technical and socio-economic knowledge, and the process of globalization is accelerating this trend (Salmi, 2006). As higher education operates in a more globally competitive market, governments everywhere are concerned to maximize their higher education institutions’ contribution to the knowledge economy (Meek and Davies, 2009). The rapid increase in globalization has resulted in significant changes in the knowledge economy and ushered in new conditions for the provision of educational services (AAU, 2004).

There is a growing awareness in the importance of higher education to the development of a knowledge-based economy in an increasingly competitive global market. It is widely acknowledged that university research plays a vital role to generate new knowledge and adapt global knowledge to local contexts in a range of social and economic priority areas. In fact, the decisive role of higher education and universities as major driving force for development has gained increased recognition. The World Bank (2002) emphasizes that the low development of research in Africa must be overcome to be competitive in the globalised economy. Also many African countries recognize the potential role of universities for economic growth and to achieve development needs in the increasingly competitive global knowledge-based economies. However, Africa's capacity for research and knowledge creation has been increasingly marginalized and it is the least competitive.
While there is certainly variation across the continent, African higher education institutions generally do not play the important development role of generating and adapting new knowledge and technology (NASULGC, 2008). Universities in Africa do not yet possess the research capabilities needed to combine global knowledge with national experience in support of innovation and problem solving (World Bank, 2009). Moreover, the research in universities has often been neglected due to increased teaching workload as a result of enormous undergraduate enrolment expansions. The lack of adequate funding has also constrained research capacities, influencing competitiveness in knowledge generation and adaptation. This seriously constrains the overall capacity of national innovation systems essential for increasing national productivity. Higher education and research in Africa, therefore, need to be revitalized and strengthened in order to play an important role in development.

**Trade in education services and private higher education**

Increasing amount of private investment in the provision of higher education is another trend of globalization and internationalization. The inclusion of education under the umbrella of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) is one significant outcome of globalization that could speed up the process of developing an international market for higher education services. The GATS adopted by the World Trade Organization in 1995 clearly identifies education as a service to be liberalized and regulated by trade rules (Knight, 2006). Higher education is increasingly seen as a commercial product to be bought and sold like any other commodity (Altbach, 2001). Accordingly, trade in higher education services has emerged as a major economic sector worth several billion dollars for a number of exporting countries such as the United States, United Kingdom and Australia (AAU, 2004).

The private education sector has grown virtually across the board in developed and developing countries. A big reason for this expansion is the inability of public finances to keep pace with the growing demand for higher education (Fielden and LaRocque 2008). Demand for places in higher education far outstrips supply of available seats globally. In many emerging economies the demand can be 20 to 50 per cent higher than places available in public institutions. It is predicted that the demand for higher education worldwide will expand from 97 million students in 2000 to over 262 million students by 2025 (UNESCO-WCHE, 2009).

In the last ten years, private higher education has grown significantly in much of the world. The private sector holds about 30 percent of the total global higher education enrolment (UNESCO-WCHE, 2009). East Asia contains the largest concentration of countries with the proportionally largest private sectors. The private shares of higher education are 78 percent in South Korea, 77 in Japan, 75 in the Philippines, and 72 in Taiwan (Levy, 2006).

As part of the general push for increasing the size of enrollment in higher education, many countries have undertaken the initiatives to involve the private sector in higher education. A rapid growth of the private sector in higher education is seen globally and it has established itself as an important part of the tertiary system. In fact, private higher education has also experienced spectacular growth in Africa, and can help diversify the educational program and absorb a percentage of the increase in the number of students if it is appropriately monitored to provide quality. In 2006, the private sector accounted for 22 percent of higher education students in Africa (UNESCO-ADEA, 2009). In Ethiopia 55,264 students are enrolled in 2008/09 academic year in non-government higher education institutions and this accounts for 17.3 % of the total enrolments (MOE, 2010).
The emergence of the private sector as an important provider of higher education brought to light the need for more coordinated development of higher education. Public-private partnerships is an approach which is gaining considerable traction globally. Given the current fiscal constraints, governments are exploring more vigorously the options available to them through partnerships with the private sector (UNESCO-WCHE, 2009).

Rapid expansion of distance education and quality concerns
To accommodate rapid enrolment expansion and increasing demand for higher education, different types of institutions have been involved with varying modes of instructional delivery. The developments in Information Communication Technology (ICT) and the wide use of the internet have also facilitated the delivery of virtual and e-Learning modes as a major form of ICT-based distance education. Over the last ten years, there has been a noticeable growth in distance education. Demand for career advancement and lifelong learning, progress in communication technology, and growing market for tertiary education have contributed to rapid expansion of distance higher learning (UNESCO/COL, 2005).

According to a recent study of the National Centre for Education Statistics, 66% of colleges in the United States offer some form of for credit distance education (David, 2009). In India, the growth of students in the distance mode is about 15 % per year, which is much higher than the corresponding growth of students in the conventional system, which is around 7 % per year (Rao, 2005). The Anadolu University of open and distance education in Turkey provides access to 40% of all entrants to higher education in that country. In South Africa 4 out of every 10 students enrolled in institutions of higher learning study at a distance (Kanwar and Daniel, 2009). Distance higher education is also rapidly expanding in Ethiopia. In recent years, the number of distance students in tertiary institutions has significantly increased with alarming rate.

According to the Ministry of Education Statistics Annual Abstract (MOE, 2010), in 2008/09 the total distance student enrolment in undergraduate degree programs has reached 38,407 which accounts for 12.4 % of the overall enrolment. While 13,307 distance students were enrolled in government institutions, the distance enrolment in private higher education institutions was 25,100. About 46 % of the total student enrolment in non-government higher education institutions is in distance mode.

There is a general agreement that distance higher education is useful as it enhances access and extends opportunities to potential students who, for various reasons, cannot attend tertiary institutions to study full-time courses in conventional mode. Nevertheless, the rapid expansion and the trends which have focused more on widening access should be complemented with efforts to assuring the quality of the educational provision. The fast growth in provision of distance education has created the potential for fraud and abuse. Growing degree mills involving credentials of dubious educational value offered by low quality providers are threatening the credibility of distance learning and the online provision of courses. The number of degree mills is increasing, particularly those operating across borders (Uvali-Trumbi, 2008). This has underlined an urgent need to establish robust frameworks for quality assurance through continuous monitoring and rigorous accreditation procedures. In the context of growing globalization, there is an urgent need for international initiatives to review the quality assurance mechanisms of distance higher education (UNESCO/COL, 2005).
Cross-border higher education and quality assurance issues

Higher education is no longer provided solely within national borders. Cross-border or transnational higher education may refer to all types of higher education study programs (including those of distance education) or educational services in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based (UNESCO/Council of Europe, 2001). With the development of distance education and the increased use of ICT, cross-border educational activities have grown in the past ten years. There has been substantial growth in the number, nature and type of education opportunities being offered by cross border providers. There are various forms of cross-border higher education (UNESCO-IIEP, 2006) that include:

- **Branch campus**: Provider in Country A establishes a branch campus in Country B to deliver courses and programs to students in Country B.

- **Independent institution**: Foreign provider in Country A establishes a standalone higher education institution in Country B to offer courses/programs.

- **Franchise**: A commercial arrangement whereby a provider in the source country authorizes a provider in receiving country to deliver its courses/programs.

- **Affiliation**: Collaboration with a local partner where the program design comes from the provider country, but program delivery is implemented by the local institution.

- **Virtual**: The provider country institution employs a pure distance learning mode of delivery through use of printed materials and/or electronic delivery.

National regulatory bodies for assuring quality in cross-border higher education need to take into account the various forms in order to develop appropriate mechanisms in diversified contexts. They need to establish partnerships with quality assurance agencies in provider countries and work jointly to ensure the quality of education delivered in the receiving country is comparable to that of the exporting country.

Unfortunately, not many countries have compulsory licensing procedures and a complete register with an updated database to identify cross border providers. Very few national quality assurance agencies are addressing cross border program and course delivery in a formalized and consistent manner. In many cases, national frameworks for quality assurance, accreditation and recognition of qualifications are not well geared to addressing the quality of cross-border provision. Thus, the rapid development of cross-border higher education has underlined an urgent need to establish robust frameworks for quality assurance and the recognition of qualifications.

UNESCO, in collaboration with the OECD has developed *Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross-border Higher Education* (UNESCO/OECD, 2005), which is a key instrument for providing orientation for developing national capacity and international cooperation in cross-border higher education. The guidelines acknowledge that the increased cross-border mobility of students, academic staff, professionals, programs and providers present challenges for existing national quality assurance and accreditation bodies. Some of these challenges are:
- National capacity for quality assurance and accreditation often does not cover cross-border higher education. This increases the risk of students falling victim to disreputable providers and low-quality provision, leading to qualifications of limited quality.

- The increasing need to obtain national recognition of foreign qualifications has posed challenges to national recognition bodies. In some cases, the challenge becomes more complicated as cross-border higher education providers may deliver qualifications that are not of comparable quality to those which they offer in their home country.

- The increasing possibility of obtaining low-quality qualifications could harm the professions themselves, and might in the long run undermine confidence in professional qualifications. The professions depend on trustworthy qualifications. It is very important, therefore, that users of professional services including employers have full confidence in the skills of qualified professionals.

The UNESCO/OECD guidelines aim to provide an international framework for quality provision in cross-border higher education that responds to the above-mentioned challenges and to protect students and other stakeholders against low-quality provision. The Guidelines recommend actions to six stakeholders: governments; higher education institutions/providers; student bodies; quality and accreditation bodies; academic recognition bodies; and professional bodies.

**The guidelines have four main policy objectives:**

- ‘Students/learners protection’ from the risks of misinformation, low-quality provision and qualifications of limited validity.

- Qualifications should be transparent in order to increase their international validity and portability. Reliable and user-friendly information sources should facilitate this.

- Recognition procedures should be transparent, coherent, fair and reliable and impose as little burden as possible to mobile professionals.

- National quality assurance and accreditation agencies need to intensify their international cooperation in order to increase mutual understanding.

The guidelines emphasize the need to enhance consumer protection through increasing the transparency of the quality of cross-border higher education including e-learning activities and through stronger international collaboration in quality assurance, accreditation and recognition of qualifications.

**The need for recognition of qualifications and international approach to quality**

The impact of globalization on higher education generates a number of crucial challenges which ask for a new and international regulatory framework. Van Damme (2001) identified the following three challenges:

- The regulation of new providers and the various forms of transnational higher education.
• The international transferability and recognition of qualifications and credits.
• Developing an international approach to quality assurance and accreditation.

The internationalization of higher education in its various forms poses major challenges for quality assurance and accreditation, especially in terms of ensuring the quality of education provision and services. One major impact of internationalization is the pressure created to enhance the transparency and inter-operability of tertiary education systems to facilitate the development of new mechanisms for recognizing credits and qualifications earned elsewhere (INQAAHE, 2010). There is increasing urgency to develop bilateral, regional and international systems where education institutions, students and employers will be able to get reliable information on the recognition of qualifications awarded in other jurisdictions and countries (Knight, 2004). UNESCO has also articulated the need for quality assurance and accreditation as an important precondition for the recognition of a country’s higher education qualifications abroad. Actually, internationalization of higher education demands the recognition of qualifications and the existence of transparent quality assurance systems.

Globalization and internationalization of higher education have made it imperative for quality control measures to be introduced in order to protect students from poor quality education. Because of internationalization and globalization, there is increasing mobility of students and academics across national borders, and graduates now frequently seek employment in countries other than their own. It has, therefore, become necessary for the quality of an institution to be recognized in another country (Mohammedbai, 2008b).

Globalization challenges ask for more regional and international harmonization of higher education systems. The 2009 World Conference on Higher Education has emphasized the need for strengthening regional collaboration to facilitate the recognition of qualifications. The African Union has embarked on a process of developing a framework for harmonization of higher education programs in Africa to facilitate the recognition of university degrees and to ensure that the quality of higher education is systematically improved against common agreed benchmarks (Africa Union, 2007). The harmonization strategy has the following goals:

• Advocate and raise awareness of the potential and value of harmonization of higher education programs;
• Bridge the gap between disparate educational systems that exist as a result of colonial legacies by coordinating efforts of national accreditation bodies;
• Provide an integrating platform for dialogue and action to develop strong regional harmonization initiatives that cohere into a continental process of harmonization;
• Facilitate the recognition of academic qualifications and promote the mobility of African students, graduates, and academic staff across the continent;
• Promote the development of effective quality assurance mechanisms; and
• Ensure that African higher education institutions become an increasingly dynamic force in the international higher education arena.
The strategy for harmonization of higher education programs in Africa will help to foster comparability among qualifications awarded across the continent.

The increasing mobility of students and academic staff; the joint development of programs from different countries; the need for international recognition of degrees; and the rapid expansion of cross-border higher education with branch campuses have made an international approach to accreditation desirable (Sanyal and Martin, 2007). Indeed, quality in higher education is not only a national concern but has become an international issue through academic, political, and commercial developments associated with globalization (Campbell and Rozsnyai, 2002). Because higher education quality assurance and accreditation systems in many countries are national schemes oriented to the domestic systems, the relevance of these national schemes in the context of globalization of higher education is limited. Therefore, there is a growing agreement on the viewpoint that globalization in higher education urgently asks for a transnational approach to quality assurance and accreditation (Van Damme, 2001). Certainly, there is a clear need for strengthened international cooperation and more transparent information on quality assurance, accreditation and recognition of qualifications procedures.

Van Damme (2001) suggested that an international regulatory framework should contain:

- An agreement on a common set of definitions and a glossary of concepts regarding international quality assurance and accreditation.
- An internationally standardized procedure of registration (including identification of who is in control and who can be held accountable).
- Some rules concerning the correct use of the basic labels such as ‘university’, ‘doctorate’, ‘professor’, ‘master degree’, ‘accredited’, etc.

A good start for international collaborations and interactions is to improve communication among national quality assurance agencies towards promoting harmonization of trustworthy standards and methodologies. Van Damme (2002) proposed four possible models in quality assurance arrangements that can contribute towards international approach of quality assurance in higher education.

- The first model tries to strengthen the existing national quality assurance and accreditation systems and agencies in view of the international challenges generated by the expansion of transnational education and trade in higher education services.
- The second model upgrades networking and exchange towards real collaboration in joint cross-border quality assessment projects and agreements between agencies and countries on mutual recognition of qualifications and credit-transfer programs.
- The third model aims at the development of validation or meta-accreditation of quality assurance systems and agencies, based upon a conceptual framework and a set of methodological standards for trustworthy quality assessment.
- The fourth model is concerned with the development of international quality assurance and accreditation schemes. Increasing international trade in higher education services will ask for a coherent approach of international quality assurance.
Without a trustworthy international quality scheme, there might be severe problems in the future. It is in the self-interest of the global higher education community to develop transnational quality assurance and accreditation systems that can counterbalance the globalization of higher education (Van Damme, 2001). Otherwise, the lack of transparent quality assurance systems may impede internationalization of higher education (Bell and Cullen, 2006).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Globalization and internationalization of higher education have made it imperative for quality control measures to be introduced at institutional, national, regional, and international levels. They demanded for mutual recognition of qualifications and more transparent information on quality assurance and accreditation procedures. Worldwide, there has been a growing tendency to require both public and private institutions to demonstrate accountability through accreditation process to assure stakeholders about the quality of provision in higher education. It is also becoming essential to generate complete register of cross border providers that indicates their accreditation status.

In order to be nationally credible and globally competitive, Ethiopian higher education institutions need to give considerable emphasis to quality assurance. They need to improve the quality and relevance of their education provision in order to ensure the international comparability of degrees and recognition of academic qualifications. By examining potential implications of globalization and internationalization to quality assurance in higher education, the paper makes the following recommendations that might be useful to the Ethiopian context.

Ethiopian higher education institutions need to:
1. Develop an efficient internal quality assurance system which ensures that their education programs are well designed, regularly monitored and periodically reviewed.
2. Improve the effectiveness of the teaching learning process by giving considerable attention to student support and staff development mechanisms.
3. Demonstrate the relevance of their research activities being more responsive to developmental needs. Effective research policies and strategies should be developed in universities to ensure that relevant research is undertaken in priority areas. Strong departments in research that could be identified as centres of excellence should be promoted to enhancing the country's competitiveness in the global knowledge economy.
4. Build strong links with universities in other countries to enhance their global reach with respect to internationalization of higher education. They should promote collaboration with foreign universities in joint research projects, staff exchanges, and sandwich post-graduate programs. International cooperation among universities and strategic partnerships are necessary to maintain and advance competitive positions.
5. Promote their access to global knowledge through professional interactions and library resources by employing new communication technologies and the internet.
6. Evaluate the effectiveness of their distance education programs to ensure comparability to campus-based programs. It is very critical that distance education should overcome the stigma of inferiority. They need to routinely assess the quality of their learning based on the evidence of student support and attainment of learning outcomes.
Ethiopian higher education institutions have to implement the necessary actions in order to remain fit in the increasingly competitive higher education arena; and to remain relevant within the context of globalization and internationalization of higher education.

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Challenges of the Flourishing of the Corporate University to Higher Education Institutions in Ethiopia

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Abstract

As the boundaries between training and education converge and the demand for the services of traditional universities in response to the needs of the workplace increase, the call for the development of the corporate university is increasing worldwide. With this background the paper attempts to review what the corporate university (CU) is, its viability in Ethiopia and the potential challenges it may bring to traditional universities in the country. The review focuses on the assessment of the current situation about CUs and the policy and practice environment for their viability in Ethiopia. It is found that whereas in the West the corporate university has been the domain mainly of the private sector, in Ethiopia it has been that of the public sector. It is concluded that the policy environment in Ethiopia seems to favor the establishment of CUs by private businesses as has been the case in the public sector for decades. Moreover, with the expansion of business and industry in Ethiopia, there is a future for CUs in the private as well as the public sector. Unless private and public higher education institutions address the ever growing and changing training and education needs of organizations, both public and private, CUs will flourish and endanger their future success and market.

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

One of the most valuable assets at any company is its employees. Successful companies are recognizing the need to become learning organizations and to retain and develop workers. The question is how could these organizations realize this need? Should they depend solely on traditional universities and training businesses or develop their own learning systems? Or both? All forms have been used to date.

Due to the growing demand for practice–oriented learning, however, the traditional job of the institutions of higher education has changed. Learning has given way to a new model of blending learning and work into one activity. Adults or “non-traditional students” want convenience, accessibility, and 24-hour service from their educational providers. For working adults, busy schedules, inflexible course schedules and the lack of convenient accessible educational offerings are major barriers to continuing their education (AACSB, 1999, p. 22). It was in response to these challenges that organizations opted for the formation of CUs to organize and deliver practice-oriented learning to their employees.

Today’s corporate university is not just a program or a classroom but a symbol of the necessary continuous learning (Flessner, 2000). Along with this positive look toward corporate education, there
has been much debate on the pros and cons of establishing corporate universities versus using local university programs to train employees.

In the Ethiopian context it was in the public sector that the first police training college was established in 1932. This was followed by the establishment of the first polytechnic for the military in 1958. Both have now developed into university colleges offering a variety of courses leading to certificates, diplomas and undergraduate and postgraduate degrees. In addition to these, other service providing public enterprises such as the Ethiopian Airlines, Ethiopian Telecommunication Corporation, Ethiopian Electric Power Corporation also developed in-house education and training sections to develop the technical and professional skills of their employees. Some of these institutions share the concept and characteristics of the CU. The private sector seems to lag behind in exploiting the potential of CUs in Ethiopia. The recent introduction of free market economy and the flourishing of big private companies in Ethiopia may require corporations to establish their own colleges or universities to satisfy the ever growing demand for qualified employees and equip their top managers with effective leadership and management skills. This trend may further be accelerated if traditional colleges and universities fail to supply such kind of leaders and employees as would be demanded by private companies.

As a review, this paper attempts to chart the history of the corporate university and the reasons that led to its proliferation in companies with diverse areas of specialization such as information technology, financial institutions, and defence and security sectors. The definitions, functions and organizational structures of CUs found in the world are discussed in a view to help understand the CU concept better. It also reviews the policy environment for CUs and the history and functions of some education and training providing public institutions in Ethiopia over the years. It, moreover, shows the significant differences between traditional and corporate universities, examine their viability in Ethiopia and show the challenges corporate universities pose for traditional universities.

**Brief history of the corporate university**

Corporate universities emerged as a continuation of a workforce education trend that began as early at 1914. Instead of coping with the perceived slowness and inapplicability of theoretical learning found in traditional colleges and universities, business and industry turned inward and created training and development departments. These business units were designed to provide employees with the skills necessary to perform their duties with precision and efficiency. By 1927 General Motors began the GM Institute.

Corporate universities have grown since the late 1950s and by the early 1980s there were 400 corporate universities in the USA. Corporate universities really hit the mainstream in the 1980’s as major organizations such as Motorola and GE implemented high profile initiatives with full backing from senior management (ECUANET, 2006). But the real growth occurred in the 1990s when the number of corporate universities increased to 1,600, which included corporate universities at 40 per cent of the Fortune 500 companies (Lipin, 2001).

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By 2000, 2,400 corporate universities existed. Some 80 per cent of Fortune 500 companies either already have a corporate university or are planning one, according to a recent survey, and the primary reason for establishing the corporate university is to show employees they are valued and to achieve continuous learning (Wagner, 2000). This number will grow to exceed 3,700 by 2010, which is more than the number of private universities in the United States (Hearn, 2002).

ECUNET (2006) lists about 62 CU in North America and Europe. Of these around 42 are from Europe and 20 from USA and Canada. France appears to have the largest number of CUs to date (Alcatel, AXA, Bombardier, EADS, Schneider Eletric, Suez, Thales, Vivendi Universal to name just a few).

In outline, we can characterize a number of stages in the evolution of the CU paradigm:

1. First generation – re-labelling of the training and development departments.
2. Second generation – alignment of training and development with organisational goals.
3. Third generation – technology driven – the virtual university concept emerges.
4. The new generation – results-based processes of intellectual equity and intellectual asset management in real-time environments are emphasized. (Dealtry, 2000a:p.4)

The void in training and development and the emergence of the CU

The profile of training in the workplace has been raised by the function becoming more strategic and integrated into the organization’s future, much in the same way HRM developed from personnel management. Essentially some elements have changed over time leaving a void between what organizations needed and what the education sector was providing. The elements could be seen from the supply side and the demand side.

On the supply side we see changes in the education sector as a whole and universities in particular and there is increased competition from overseas and private e-learning providers making providers compete increasingly against each other within the market rather than focusing on threats from outside their immediate market place.

Universities themselves are also facing pressures to globalize, particularly through franchising overseas in order to be increasingly competitive as a result of the deregulation of the market (Rooney and Hearn, 2000).

On the demand side, the nature of management and leadership has also changed. Management focus is more on efficiency, effectiveness and performance, and leadership is distinguished from this (see for example Goldsmith, 1996; Clampitt and De Koch, 2001; or Chopra, 2002 all sited in Blass, 2005). Leadership, on the other hand, has developed into a strategic niche of its own, requiring vision, foresight, and the ability to gain followers (see for example Goleman, 2002; or Melendez, 1996 all sited in Blass, 2005). In other words, it is the task of leaders to decide where the organization is going and it is the task of managers to make sure they get there.

The void that has emerged between the supply side of the equation from education providers, and the demand side of the equation from organizations is a need for a combination of self development, career development, management development and leadership development, something that Sanches
(1997 sited in Blass, 2005) argues that MBAs cannot do. Anderson et al. (2001) suggest that academics and practitioners are moving further apart, while Ball and Butler (2000) believe there is a cultural conflict in their relative approaches, particularly to research and practice. It is this emerging gap that corporate universities have developed to fill (Blass, 2005).

In general, the following are a few key principles whose contexts are expanding as the role that learning plays in an organization is changing. These changes are:

- From reacting to noticed workplace problems to proactively staying ahead of the change curve and aligning learning as part of corporate initiatives
- From event-based training to solutions-based approaches to development
- From exclusive ownership of training residing within the training department to shared accountability for learning with executives, managers, and employees
- From fragmented training records to seamless technology integration to support comprehensive tracking
- From pure classroom delivery to learning solutions that focus on providing the right learning to the right person in the right place and at the right time
- From compartmentalized training groups to a common “system” for learning that promotes collaboration and reduction of redundancies
- From evaluation that deals solely with smiley sheets to formal and comprehensive methodologies to demonstrate the value of learning.

According to Dealtry (2000c) there are a number of important organizational, investor and intellectual supply chain issues that are accelerating the emergence of the CU function, including:

- The increasingly sophisticated level in the knowledge base in companies and the emerging role of the knowledge worker. The main strands of achieving competitive advantage have at last been properly identified as intellectual focus, new learning and speed of know-how application.
- The changing decision base for developmental change in organizations.
- There is concern about the lack of innovation and the dilution of academic rigor by some external providers of management qualification programs both at undergraduate and postgraduate levels.
- Companies that are engaged in global business often need diverse and timely solutions for different marketplaces and there are limits to single source providers’ ability to meet their needs.

What is a Corporate University (CU)?

Alternatives to the term corporate university include terms such as “institute of learning” and “learning academy” (Meister, 1998). There are many other labels used by organizations for this function: “University”, “Academy”, “Institute”, “College”, “Learning Centre”, “Learning Hub” and “Staff colleges” (the public sector in particular has a history of this sort of initiative) (ECUANET, 2006).

Some definitions

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Although the corporate university industry does not enjoy a universally accepted definition, varying degrees of strategy and value appear to be generally attributed to long-lasting corporate university designs. Let us look at some definitions.

For Allen (2002:9) a corporate university is an educational entity that is a strategic tool designed to assist its parent organization in achieving its goals by conducting activities that foster individual and organizational learning and knowledge.

Another definition of a CU is “It is the strategic umbrella for developing and educating employees, customers and suppliers in order to meet an organization’s business strategies [which] is the chief vehicle for disseminating an organization’s culture and fostering the development of not only job skills, but also such core workplace skills as learning-to-learn, leadership, creative thinking, and problem solving” (Meister, 1998, p. 29).

A related definition sees corporate universities as initiatives which “are wholly owned by a parent work organization; have as their primary focus the provision of learning opportunities for employees of the parent organization (even though it may also offer learning to suppliers and customers); and utilize symbols and language from the educational sector.” (Allen, 2002)

In a broad final definition, a corporate university is a function or department that is strategically oriented toward integrating the development of people as individuals with their performance as teams and ultimately as an entire organization by linking with suppliers, by conducting wide-ranging research, by facilitating the delivery of content, and by leading the effort to build a superior leadership team (Wheeler, 2003).

These definitions encompass the ideas of “non-employee” development and linkages with suppliers. They also argue a view of corporate universities as not so much physical entities but as a concept concerned with particular approaches to organizing and managing learning within organizations.

The CU and the traditional academic university

The fundamental objectives of providing quality instruction, facilitating research and advanced learning and giving recognition to the level of learning achieved are the same for both the corporate university and a traditional university. However, the management, strategic context, the learning processes used and developmental objectives of the corporate university are very different from those of a traditional university.

The corporate university is a hybrid development that brings together the rapidly changing nature of corporate training and development as previously known with certain elements of the intellectual discipline and rigor that underpin academic processes. The CU is not like any older patterns, academic or business, but is a new entity and culture more in-phase with the modern business landscape (Dealtry, 2001).
In most cases, corporate universities are not universities in the strict sense of the word. The traditional university is an educational institution which grants both undergraduate and postgraduate degrees in a variety of subjects, as well as conducting original scientific research.

In contrast, a corporate university typically limits scope to providing job-specific, indeed company-specific, training for the managerial personnel and employees of the parent corporation (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia).

Nevertheless, as El-Tannir, Akram (2002) states, CUs fall short of the key characteristics of traditional universities in:

- being proprietary and thus cannot deliver a wide range of learning;
- lacking degree accreditation and thus universal recognition of their programs;
- lacking basic scientific research usually conducted in the academic atmosphere;
- requiring learning delivery in a tight time frame;
- missing out the classroom experiment of person-to-person interaction; and
- Undermining the role of freedom of speech within the walls of the corporation.

Unlike traditional universities, CUs demand a return on their investment. There must be concrete evidence that the classroom is delivering results. Many CUs provide hands-on and team learning as a more effective alternative to lecture-based courses, but all CUs agree that what is learned in the classroom should be directly applicable to the work environment³.

**CU’s challenges to public/private HEIs**

Effective training and development is a crucial weapon in the battle to stay ahead of the pack. Traditionally, the public university has had a key role to play here and most organizations would strive to bolster their managerial ranks by snapping up talented individuals fresh from MBA or similar postgraduate programs.

However, this is no longer automatically the case. Higher education providers face new challenges, increased competition and ever-diminishing budgets and are, consequently, less equipped to fulfill industry’s training requirements. Furthermore, business leaders argue that an MBA merely provides an individual with knowledge of how an organization operates, when companies really require a package that incorporates self-development, career development, management development and leadership development. So what is the alternative? Step forward the corporate university (Blass, 2005).

As we saw earlier, there is a mismatch between the supply and demand sides of education and training. Could the supply side of the equation have adapted to meet the needs of the demands of the organizations? The competitive environment in which organisations operate means their needs are

³ Wikipedia, the free encyclopaedia
changing rapidly, and the cumbersome bureaucratic processes of the education sector, founded originally on quality concerns, means that they are unable to respond quickly enough to their customers’ needs. These are being heralded as reasons for the development of corporate universities and more private sector providers are getting the vast majority of business expenditure on staff training as they can guarantee consistency, as well as probably a faster response and more flexible delivery capabilities (Tysome, 2004). As a result, the education sector could find the demand for its services diminish further. There appears a trend in establishing public sector corporate universities in the West. For example, the National Health Services University (NHSU) established in 2006 in Britain aims “to become the first fully recognised public sector corporate university in this country, with its own degree-awarding powers” (Blass, 2005: 12).

When corporate universities emerged, their offerings were initially largely those of an improved training department, and they did little to warrant the university title. However, this is now changing. Corporate universities have developed to fulfill their own hype allowing them to develop and compete directly with the traditional public university, and many of them might win (Blass, 2005).

There is still a degree of tension between some business schools and corporate universities due to the threat of competition. However, this appears to be unfounded. Most CUs are not seeking to introduce accredited MBA or degree courses; rather they are looking to introduce more action-based approaches. CUs tend to partner with business schools when supplying accredited courses as opposed to competing with them (Blass, 2005).

**Some changes in traditional universities**

Traditional universities are facing the competition from corporate universities and many are actively joining partnerships with the corporate universities to end revenue losses. Others have been under pressure to “vocationalize” their mission and eliminate or shift under-funded programs in favor of introductory, service, and scientific curriculum. Debates on university curriculum are taking place and often commercial interests are at odds with the university curriculum (Aronowitz and Giroux, 2000). Universities are struggling to prevent the liberal arts curricula from being swamped by technology and science (Greenspan, 1999). Colleges and universities have been criticized for selling out to corporate America as training sites for businesses and changing college presidents into full-time fund-raisers who more resemble CEOs than academic leaders (Aronowitz, 2001).

Corporate universities may either threaten or provide opportunities for the traditional universities. Many universities are increasing the number of distance-education programs. Between 1995 and 1998 alone, distance education programs increased 72 per cent (Carnevale, 2000). Business schools inside traditional universities are the key group seeking to become more current and responsive to corporate needs. Universities also are seeking ways to offset the money lost from fewer students seeking traditional degrees. The adult student pool is now larger than the traditional 18-to-24-year-old college market, and is expected to grow. To serve the non-traditional student, universities must now compete with corporate universities, certificate programs, virtual universities and even for-profit education firms (Meister, 1998).
With a corporate partnership, traditional universities meet the needs of adult students who have left university programs. Because universities already have many, if not all, of the facilities needed for distance learning, corporations may rely on those classrooms to save costs and the learning curve associated with establishing and implementing the new distance-learning technology.

Universities will continue to be an excellent source of expertise to corporate universities as more e-commerce and other courses relating to current business issues are added. In addition, corporations will have to partner with establishing colleges to offer transferable college credit toward degrees (Judy and Helms, 2002).

CU’s contributions to organizations

What kinds of organizations establish CUs?

If we look at the types of companies getting involved in corporate university development, we find that the initial trend was established by hi-tech businesses, professional services firms, consultancy companies and companies with a strong scientific or technological base. The ethos for continuous innovation and leadership in every aspect of their businesses is well established in such companies and the need to press ahead is ever present.

The trend is now taking hold in more traditional businesses where the combined benefits of properly managed business-led learning, shared knowledge and e-technologies are being put to good use (Dealtry, 2000 b,c).

CU contributions to organizations

Whether their primary purpose is to build competence, drive organizational change, maintain corporate competitiveness, recruit and retain talent, or serve customers, most corporate universities are founded on strategic business practices and a self-conscious awareness of their responsibility to contribute to organizational growth and/or effectiveness⁴.

Taylor and Phillips (2002) propose that a corporate university can provide some or all of the following to an organization:

- The ability to increase the rate of learning within the company to match the increased rate of change in the environment;
- The ability to respond to the challenges of globalization, including the use of technology;
- The ability to align business goals and learning strategies;
- To centrally direct and co-ordinate a locally-owned activity;
- To aid maintenance of a corporate culture even when spread over diverse local cultures; and

• To focus all organisation members on the key role of learning and knowledge in creating and sustaining a competitive advantage.

Moreover, the establishment of a corporate university can facilitate the establishment of a knowledge management system. While it is arguable whether or not knowledge can actually be “managed”, it clearly can be created, shared, developed, enhanced, updated, and so forth. By having courses designed and delivered in-house for in-house participants, a corporate university forms the backbone of the knowledge sharing process. When knowledge is shared, it can be expanded and enhanced. Hollamby (1999) of Shell International Exploration and Production claimed “if we knew what we know, we wouldn't be doing what we do.”

Bajer (1999) used the template “what, so what, now what?” as the basis for corporate university activity. The “what” is the knowledge that needs to be disseminated. The “so what” is the reason why the knowledge is important and how it should or could be used. The “now what” looks at the next dimension, taking the knowledge forward by looking for what should or could come next. This activity forces a form of reflection which can accelerate learning and drive the organization forwards.

According to Fenn (1999) companies with in-house universities report several benefits, including:

**Improved recruitment:** Some companies use training as a key recruitment lure as well as to be more competitive. Organizations are finding that compensation is less of an issue for employees and that growth and career development are more important.

**Increased revenues:** A company called CoreTech estimates that it spends approximately $4,500 per employee each year on training but says that it's ultimately money is well spent. Employees can use CoreTech University's training to become officially certified as, say, a project manager or a Microsoft Certified Systems Engineer. Every employee is required to attend, primarily on company time, technical and "soft skills" training courses that are linked to the company's overall mission. For instance, a course in project management is tied directly to the company's quality goals. On the revenue side, the company used the curriculum to create CoreTech Institute, a separate for-profit training organization that offers courses to the general public. It has generated $325,000 in revenues so far and will break even in a year.

**Reduced turnover:** One company measures the success of its university called Unitel University through the significant drop in turnover at Unitel, a call-center company in Canada. Since it started Unitel University two years ago, average monthly turnover has dropped from 12% to 6%--a dramatic change for a company staffed primarily by low-wage employees.

**Better employee advancement:** After 90 days at Unitel, newcomers are eligible to become "freshmen" at the university and can take several more hours of classes beyond their initial orientation courses. If they pass, they receive a raise of up to 8% of their pay. Then every 90 days, employees can take more in-depth courses in telephone sales, customer service, and computer skills. The program
isn't mandatory, but employees know that training is the quickest path to increased pay and responsibility.

**A wider talent pool:** i-Cube, a US information-technology consulting-services company, has eased the heavy burden of recruiting 155 people in two years, thanks to its internal university. A five-week program called i-Altitude, staffed primarily by senior managers, allowed the company to hire workers with little experience and then give them the technical training they needed to serve clients.

**How do CU organize their programs?**
There are many ways corporations organize their CUs’ teaching and training programs. Among these only some are discussed below.

**A. Dealtry’s formats**
Currently there are many CU applications in a wide variety of formats.

In some applications, companies have simply resurrected the training and development function under this new cachet, others have made company-inspired initiatives of best management practice the central feature of their “corporate campus”. While others have taken on board the idea of the CU as a process for total developmental integration – a totally inclusive people, learning and business and process idea (Dealtry, 2000a)

**B. ECUANET's Models**
This model lists two extreme models of a CU that show how many initiatives can fall under this term. There are

1. **Wide-focused CUs** – These initiatives take in all types of training and cater for all levels of the business. They have many programs, not just for strategic reasons but also to demonstrate commitment to employees. Lufthansa is a good example of a wide-focused CU.
2. **Lean CUs** – These schemes have a much narrower focus. They tend to be for top management teams only and have a limited selection of programs (e.g. leadership development only) (ECUANET, 2006).

**C. Kevin Wheeler’s model**
As corporate universities have evolved over the past several years, successful ones have adopted a primary strategic focus loosely as described below. While every corporate university may have elements of more than one of these directions, those who are most successful are easy to identify because of their clear reason for existing (Wheeler, 2003). Let’s look at some of the ways that a corporate university can be organized.

**Initiative-driven**
One type of corporate university is recognized because its primary public activity is driving a corporate-wide initiative or business plan or project. This is often an initiative that the CEO is passionate about and which is being cascaded throughout the company.
This is an appropriate and excellent model when there are ‘great things afoot’. Motorola University very successfully drove the quality initiative throughout Motorola. At the same time, Motorola U was also involved in strategic planning and in helping the company cope with expansion into China and other parts of the world. It pioneered bringing focus to one or two issues and putting a structure in place to facilitate delivering the content, coaching the implementation and building understanding and acceptance of the issues with management and the employees. Examples of initiatives include such things as globalization, productivity, process improvement, and empowerment.

**Change-management focused**

Another form of corporate university concentrates its efforts on driving change or on facilitating a complete transformation process for a company. This is often a transitory role as a company embarks on a new strategy or is in the process of merger or acquisition. The university may then go through a metamorphosis from this type to being an initiative-driven or skill provider type.

National Semiconductor used National Semiconductor University to drive a Leading Change program through the company which helped lead to a financial turnaround in the mid-nineties. Today, the university is more focused on leadership and skill development, but retains its ability to respond whenever needed to bringing about change.

**Leadership development-driven**

The prototype for this strategic focus is General Electric’s Management Development Institute. This institute has focused on developing managers and leaders for GE for decades. It was almost exclusively the tool for orienting and assimilating new managers to the company.

It has also been the tool for driving change and initiatives. Corporate universities with CEO-level support and a single primary focus on leadership development are usually very successful and produce great internal management strength.

**Business development-driven**

A few universities are chartered to help develop business opportunities or to guide an exploration process to what is possible. When an organization decides to embark on a particular business strategy, for example, opening several international offices, the corporate university can prepare employees for their role; help educate about the new country, do research on competition and on recruiting and development and generally support the process in a way that adds a great deal of value.

Some companies make this the function of the marketing department, but by putting it into a corporate university that also does other things (e.g. leadership development); they get a more synergistic result.
Customer/supplier relationship management orientation

A strategic orientation that is closely allied to the business development orientation described above focuses on educating and managing the customer and supplier relationship. Universities engaged in this activity focus on educating employees in negotiating skills and in relationship management. They may offer skills training to suppliers and even set or educate to standards. This is a practice common among manufacturing companies such as Ford or Motorola.

Competency-based, career development focus

The final strategic orientation is characterized by the organization that focuses on individual skill development and on managing the process of career development in a company. This may also include assisting in developing a performance management system and working through the career development activities and aggressive education strategies to help retention. All corporate universities need to provide this (or make sure it is being done somewhere and somehow), as it is the underpinning of all the other orientations.

Current status, future trends and criticisms of the CU

As companies globalize, they want to spread a common culture and values and drive change simultaneously across the whole organization (Wagner, 2000). Several European companies are well-advanced in the CU stage and there are also a number of start ups. Overall it is estimated that in Europe about two thirds of companies which are engaged in learning activities could be considered to have CU initiatives. Another important point is that a CU does not necessarily have to be a physical entity it is more about the process than the place.

Even professional societies have launched corporate universities. Using internet-based courses they control costs and hone the skills of their professionals. E-learning is a common way to conduct corporate training, either alone or with a partner. Deutsche Bank University developed a learning portal with Docent, Inc., a provider of e-Learning solutions.

Like everything else, CUs are riding the waves of development:

- IT development and technology (e-learning)
- Contexts – styles and preferences of learners (blended)
- Assimilation and embedding of technologically-enabled learning (just in time) (Meister, 1998).

According to Meister (1998) (author of one of the most referenced CU books, “Corporate Universities: Lessons in Building a World-Class Work Force”) there are 4 key learning trends to look out for in the future:

1. Delivery for the Next generation (who will soon be entering the workplace).
2. Continuing education for Chief Learning Officers.
4. Partnerships with Universities.
Another development is the question of accreditation. Traditionally, corporate universities only offered internal accreditation and were used as a means of channelling employee development toward meeting corporate goals, sharing corporate information or knowledge, and disseminating corporate culture. More recently, some corporate universities have established links with academic institutions in order to offer formal degrees.

Because the future of corporate universities will include more web-based learning as well as a challenge to keep current with advancing technology, accreditation and evaluation of programs will become more important to ensure the credibility and legitimacy of corporate universities. Both employees and employers will find it necessary to identify credentialed programs that are effective as degree programs continue to proliferate throughout corporate universities and within the corporate and the traditional university partnerships. Accreditation agencies will wrestle with quality and student learning as more corporate universities seek equivalent university and professional credentials.

Areas for research on corporate universities will go hand-in-hand with the future directions of corporate universities. Evaluations of student learning, objectives of programs, and cost-effectiveness will be all important as will the ability to meet organization’s strategic objectives (Judy and Helms, 2002).

In fact, pioneers have now moved their ‘full time faculty’ into internal consultant roles where they help to deliver results rather than content. This happened to FIAT IVOR and SHELL earlier this decade. Similarly, SIEMENSS have introduced a program to train internal coaches who can then assist first time managers. It is anticipated that this bundling of tools and techniques (e-learning, consulting, coaching, traditional training) will continue, as will the move towards the action learning approach. Changes in early 2000 also took place at Lufthansa, ABB and Ericsson where the CUs have almost disappeared (Blass, 2005).

Some critics of the CU claim that the situation in which corporate universities could award their own degrees is undesirable; that it is the exploitation of education for industry; and that it is moving the public university away from its liberal roots to a commercial, utility framework.

This may well be the case, but there has always been an economic imperative to education and there always will be. Antonacopoulou (2002:194) suggests “the language of leadership, cultural uniformity, performance and profitability reflect a central assumption upon which recent changes in education and training policy are being built: namely the belief that training and development are linked to economic performance.”

Schaub (2002) argues that education should provide an awakening rather than a career-minded, goal-oriented, accomplishment-driven, electronic time minder. Again, this may be the case, however the fact remains that the majority of students (undergraduate and postgraduate) are primarily studying to improve their career prospects, and they are the major source of income for most traditional
universities. It is time the universities realized this and start to respond to their needs; otherwise the corporate universities will keep rising (Blass, 2005).

Some cynics also argue that the CU is little more than a glorified in-house training department that hardly merits such a grandiose title. But since training is now widely considered as a strategic function that is crucial to an organization's future development, such claims are firmly refuted. This counter argument is further illustrated by the fact that corporate universities usually report direct to their CEO (Blass, 2005).

**Policy conditions and practice of CU in Ethiopia**

**Policy**

The 1994 Education and Training Policy states that governmental and non-governmental organizations can establish training programme according to their needs. If by non-governmental organizations is meant an independent organization that is not run or controlled by a government, this policy indicates that any business or industry can establish and run education and training institution or a corporate university.

Moreover, the new Higher Education Proclamation of 2009 states that the objectives of higher education are, among others, to design and provide community and consultancy services that shall cater to the developmental needs of the country (Article 4). It also states that a private institution shall be established in accordance with the law governing associations, business organizations, cooperatives or any other relevant law (Article 5.3) and that ‘any institution shall be established,… on the basis of a project which shall: a) set socially acceptable aims for the proposed institution’ (Article 5.4). Thus, the policy and the new Higher Education Proclamation of 2009 do not contain provisions that prohibit the establishment of HEIs by private corporations.

**Practice: Public sector corporate universities in Ethiopia**

The CU in Ethiopia seems to have developed in the early 1950s with the establishment of the Police University College. Currently, there are public colleges and university colleges in Ethiopia that are funded and run by public ministries. Here only some CUs in the public sector will be discussed. These are the Ethiopian Police University College, Ethiopian Defence University College and the Graduate School of Telecommunications and Information Technology (GSTIT).

**Ethiopian Police University College**

Established in 1946 as a police college, it was reorganized as a university college in 2008. It provides academic and police science education, training, research and consultancy services. Its programs include Certificate in Policing, Diploma in Policing and first degrees in Policing Law and Policing and Public Service Management. It has four institutes: Police Staff College, Institute of Health Sciences, Institute of Criminal Investigation and Forensics, and Institute of Research.
Ethiopian Defence University College

Defence University College was established in 2001 incorporating four colleges, namely, Defence Engineering College, Health Sciences College, Major General Mulugeta Buli Technical College and Resource Management Faculty / College. DUC envisions of being a centre of academic excellence in defence focused education and research and producing problem solving graduates in meeting the expectations of the Ministry of National Defence (MoND). Its mission is to provide defence focused education and training, conduct defence focused research, and provide consultancy services and support the different units of MoND. (Source: DUC Educational Quality Assurance Manual, 2010)

The Graduate School of Telecommunications and Information Technology (GSTIT)

The Graduate School of Telecommunications and Information Technology (GSTIT) is sponsored by the Ethiopian Telecommunication Corporation (ETC). It envisions to be a centre of training in information and communication technology and telecom management in Ethiopia and in East/Horn of Africa, and a centre for advancement of ICT, through research, innovation, transfer, adoption, diffusion, adaptation, integration and dissemination in Ethiopia in particular and in East/Horn of Africa in general.

The Graduate School of Telecommunications and Information Technology (GSTIT) provides three postgraduate programs: Telecom Engineering, Information Technology and Telecom Management. The training areas are Telecom Engineering Training, Information Technology Training and Management Training.

As we can see from their visions and programs, these public sector colleges and schools mainly cater for the training and education needs of their respective organizations. However, the Police University College offers courses beyond the members of the police force to community members, and the GSTIT aims to serve Ethiopia and countries in East / Horn of Africa. Thus, we can safely conclude that these institutions deserve the name public sector corporate universities.

Summary of CU’s challenges to Public/Private HEIs in Ethiopia

As we saw earlier, the mismatch between the supply and demand sides of education and training has prompted the establishment of CUs in the west. This could also be the case in Ethiopia. Can the supply side of the equation adjust itself to meet the needs of the demands of the organizations?

The competitive environment in which organizations operate means their needs are changing rapidly and the cumbersome bureaucratic processes of the public education sector means that they are unable to respond quickly enough to their customers’ needs. Corporate universities and more private sector providers may, however, get the vast majority of business expenditure on staff training as they can

guarantee consistency, as well as probably a faster response and more flexible delivery capabilities (Tysome, 2004).

As a result, the education sector could find the demand for its services diminish further. As has been done by the police, defence, ETC, for example, other public sectors such as health and private companies such as MIDROC or Sunshine Construction may follow suit and establish their own corporate universities. There seems to be trend established in the West as well. For example, the National Health Services University (NHSU) established in 2006 in Britain aims “to become the first fully recognised public sector corporate university in this country, with its own degree-awarding powers” (Blass, 2005).

Though corporate universities in Ethiopia may not set out with the aim of competing with or replacing traditional public universities, this may change in time. In the West, CUs have developed to fulfill their own hype allowing them to develop and compete directly with the traditional public university, and many of them are winning (Blass, 2005). The same could be true in Ethiopia when public and private HEIs fail to satisfy the demands of companies and thereby allowing CUs to flourish.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Some conclusions

• The profile of education and training in the workplace has been raised by the function becoming more strategic and integrated into the organization’s future.

• A void has been left between what organizations needed and what the education sector was providing. This has resulted in the introduction and flourishing of CUs worldwide.

• While there will always be demand for higher education and qualifications, there is a growing possibility that it will not be for the higher education and qualifications provided by the traditional players in the market. Nowadays, there is a growing realization that value is defined in terms of the customer, and that providing the wrong goods or service the right way is a waste (Womack and Jones, 1996). The traditional university sector is in danger of doing just that. It is a question of the right change, at the right pace, for the right customer. So far, the traditional public university sector has failed to get this right (Blass, 2005).

The following conclusions could be arrived regarding CUs in Ethiopia:

• As we have seen one of the reasons for the expansion of CU was the gap in the supply of and the demand for education and training between the traditional university and corporations. This seems to be the case in Ethiopia as well. However, unlike their western counterparts, CUs in Ethiopia are still mainly confined to the public sector. With the expansion of business and industry in Ethiopia, however, there is a future for CUs in the private sector in Ethiopia.

• The education policy environment in Ethiopia does not seem to prohibit public organizations and private companies from establishing their own CUs. Despite this, however, the CU seems to be confined only to some public organizations.
• Recent definitions and functions of the CU seem to include the provision of education and training services not only to employees of organizations but also to their customers and other stakeholders. In this regard, most CUs in Ethiopia seem to only serve company employees and leaders.

• Though some public organizations such as the police and defense have well established CU traditions, there seems a long way to go for CUs in Ethiopia in satisfying the demands even from their parent companies. This seems the case because many corporations that have their own CUs are still dependent on other public and private educational institutions for the provision of education and training programs. This may be good news for public and private providers. The question is for how long this will continue.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As a preliminary survey of such nature in Ethiopia, this paper has limited itself mainly to the discussion of the CU from its historical and functional perspectives. Further questions could be asked and studied that would help better understand CUs and employ their exploits in Ethiopia. These include:

• What could traditional universities learn from CUs?
• How could public and private universities deal with the possible challenges of the expansion of CUs in Ethiopia?
• Are there any lessons public and private universities could learn from CUs?
• What possible collaborations could exist between HEIs and businesses to address the ever changing needs in practice-oriented education and training of the latter?
• Why has the CU been used by only the public sector in Ethiopia?
• Do the current corporate colleges and university colleges qualify as CUs?
• What could the current CU practitioners in Ethiopia learn from well developed similar sector CUs in the world?

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Opportunities and Challenges of Collaborative Learning Activities in the New TVET program: the Case of St. Mary’s University College

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Abstract
As per the Higher Education Proclamation of Ethiopia (2003) teaching is required to be student-centred and practice-oriented through hands-on training at different levels of the higher education program. In this regard, collaborative learning activities have become important instructional strategies in many colleges and universities across the country. The objectives of this study are two fold: 1) assessing opportunities and challenges of collaborative learning activities in the new TVET program based on the perception of students and 2) examining the impact of personality styles and group dynamics on the perception of students about collaborative learning. Using questionnaires administered to a total of 116 randomly selected students of the extension division at St. Mary’s University College, primary data were analyzed using different statistical techniques such as frequencies, descriptive, Chi-Square and ANOVA. Results suggest that not only is a collaborative learning activity important for the students’ personal development, but also vital for their professional career. At its weakest, however, collaborative learning activity is subject to slacking—a situation of idling and a short-cut and easy access to better marks, which not only lowers the enthusiasm of diligent students but also impedes collaborative learning activities from achieving their goals. This suggests that instructors should avoid lenience in forming the appropriate grouping type beforehand. They should also consistently follow up their students and employ fair evaluation scheme for group projects. Last but not least, findings of this study suggest that encouraging positive collaborative learning experiences through team learning methods (such as effective communication activities, process learning exercises and graded feedback) is essential in order to attain the best out of collaborative learning activities.

Key words: collaborative learning, TVET, personality style, group dynamics, St. Mary’s University College

INTRODUCTION
In order to make students become problem-solving professional leaders in their fields of study and in overall societal needs, the Higher Education proclamation of Ethiopia, which was approved by the parliament in 2003, is required to be student-centred, society-focused, and practice-oriented through hands-on training at diploma, degree and graduate levels (Yizengaw, 2003). In this regard, collaborative learning activities (group project works) have become important instructional strategies in many colleges and universities of the country. Given the higher number of students in one class and the demanding nature of the work for instructors to check all the activities of students, group projects are usually preferred (instead of individual assignments) with the assumption that students learn from each other. For instance, Watson (1992:84) argues that group projects allow “students to learn by doing rather than listening.”

As the major objective of the TVET program is to provide students with fundamental skills and prepare them for the work environment outside colleges and universities, 70% of the teaching-learning activity constitutes practical work by students, while the remaining 30% is theoretical part offered in class by teachers. Course-based group projects (collaborative learning, in this study) are and parcel of
the practical activities, which are recently becoming increasingly an important teaching-learning strategies of higher education institutions.

Blowers (2003) is of the opinion that group projects are often pre-requisites for employment, in which graduates should be well-trained. Research works also indicate that employers significantly value skills in team work (Luca and Torricone, 2001). As a result, they prefer students who have team spirit and are ready to join groups. In Ethiopia, in order to be able to harness this advantage of group projects, it has become essential to foster effective collaborative learning activities in colleges and universities. In fact, several course-based projects have been offered to students at a college and university level including St. Mary’s University College. However, to what extent these collaborative learning activities enhance students’ team work skills is still an issue worth studying. Empirical studies are also scanty to suggest that group projects have met their intended purposes. Therefore, this study is envisaged to fill what is an important gap in the literature by assessing the perception of students (taking those enrolled in the extension program as a case study) about the role of collaborative learning activities in enhancing their education in general and team spirit skills, in particular. Therefore, the objectives of this study are two fold: 1) to assess the merits and demerits of group projects of the TVET program based on the perception of students, 2) to examine the impact of personality styles and group dynamics on the perception of students about collaborative learning.

Why collaborative learning?

Definition of collaborative learning

Several authors define collaborative learning (group projects) in different ways. According to Colbeck, et al. (2000), group projects are collaborative and active learning activities that enable students work together so that they can be able to solve problems together or create a project based on realities on the ground. They define collaborative learning as an instructional practice that encourages “students to work together as they apply course material to answer questions, solve problems, or create a project”. Millis and Cottell (1998) on the other hand, consider collaborative learning as “more structured” and “more focused” learning activities, which according to Watson (1992:84) allow “students to learn by doing rather than listening (p.4).” In this study, collaborative learning activity and group project are used synonymously.

The role of collaborative learning

From collaborative learning activities (group projects), a convincingly high quality learning outcome could be attained provided that teachers and students have good knowledge about factors to be considered while forming groups. According to an article by the University of Wollongong assessment policy (2002), “Group work, under proper conditions, encourages peer learning and helps students acquire knowledge. If students get an opportunity to learn from each other in group projects and collaborative learning approach, they will get a better opportunity to learn.”

As indicated in the introductory part, many colleges consider group projects as a central feature of their teaching strategy. Several studies suggest that there are multiple rationales for engaging students in group activities. For instance, CSHE (2002) indicates that group projects promote learning and help
students acquire knowledge beyond the traditional subject specific information, as all rounded knowledge is not some thing that could be acquired in the traditional teacher dominated classroom. Thus, group projects which are conducted by students both inside and outside the classroom serve significant educational purpose in terms of scaling up students’ all rounded knowledge and social interaction skills. These skills could help them much even in their after school life. As Morris (2004) puts it, group projects promote innovation, research and push the boundaries of pedagogical practice.

On the other hand, Christon (1990:146) asserts that creating cooperative setup among students in the final analysis “showed a significant positive effect on student learning”. Apart from promoting meaningful peer learning and pushing the traditional boundaries of the pedagogical norm, group activities are recognized to be opportunities which build up students’ self-esteem, according to researchers such as Blaney et al. (1997), Geffaer (1978), Slavin and Karweit (1979), and Dickie (1980) as cited in Christison (1990). This is because since group members in the process of collaborative learning will have a meaningful contribution to the group without any direct instructor’s involvement or other authority’s imposition, their self-esteem gets enough ground to prosper.

Cooperative learning opportunities in this regard can be opportunities which can boost the psychological strength of learners, as students will feel that they have got something worthwhile to contribute to the educational process at large which can, in turn, give them confidence in their own potential.

On the other hand, as Cohen (1986:1) states, in group activities,

…students learn to depend on one another rather than depending exclusively on the authority of the teacher. They learn to construct knowledge as it is constructed in the academic disciplines and professions-the knowledge communities that students aspire to join when they attend colleges and universities. And they learn the craft of interdependence.

Panitz (1982) describes the external imposition of an authority for the formation of concepts as passive information channel which often promotes helplessness and reliance upon others on students.

**Major problems of collaborative learning**

The effectiveness of group projects can be deterred by several factors. According to Camp (1997), the difference among the paces of group members as well as possible attempt by one or few group member(s) to dictate the entire group is a threat which negatively influences the effectiveness of group projects. According to the Natural Institute for Science and Education (1997:1) “sometimes nothing gets done because everyone is talking about everything but what they are supposed to be doing!” In situations of this type, the freedom group members enjoy in group activities may lead them to abuse their freedom, making unnecessary and irrelevant talk that adds no value to the duty at hand. As a result, some group members will naturally tend to develop such a negative attitude towards the reliability and fairness of the very idea of group assignment or collaborative learning, in general.

Not only these, the writer also considers personality barriers which restrict a participant from getting along with the group, and the presence of a slacker-lazy member in a group, to contribute a lot to the mal-effectiveness of collaborative learning and group projects. As it is well-known, group projects are
meant to create chances of collaborative learning where fairness and proportional contribution among group members is expected. Otherwise, the underlying objective of such an educational setup could go in astray-become unfair, mal-effective as well as a waste of time. According to National Institute for Science Education (1997:1) “Sometimes people just do not get along; no matter how hard they try, their personalities clash”

**Basic considerations to be made in group activities**

Good cooperative learning atmosphere is not something to be acquired for granted. In order to attain a high-quality learning outcome from collaborative learning, students and teachers should be very careful in considering all factors required to form effective study group. Marcus (2009) considers these factors as ‘subtle’ which require instructors’ careful consideration so as to create a successful collaborative learning setup.

Instructors should obviously play their own vital role in creating the appropriate study team whose groups are industrious and duty-oriented. They can ensure that the group members of a certain assignment are logically organized. Marcus (2009), states that there are three major types of grouping for collaborative learning-homogeneous, heterogeneous and random.

Ford and Morice (1995) recommend instructors to collect information such as a mini Cv from their students which highlight their skills, experiences or interests. This type of information could give a meaningful clue for the instructor regarding as to how he could best help the productivity of his students’ grouping.

Forming a homogeneous study team for instance could help to meet the fundamental purposes of group work- getting the group activity done duly. For instance, students who have got a special interest in Auto Mechanics can form a group and prepare a group presentation that can demonstrate the major components of an Auto-mobile. However, the issue of forming a heterogeneous study team could also be an important issue in the realm of collaborative learning. Group members could be heterogeneous in terms of their area of interest or academic level.

Creating a homogeneous group with respect to students’ academic competence, according to Marcus (2009), could help students negotiate social interaction as this type of group has students who belong to different level of academic competence.

Marcus (ibid) states that both homogeneous and heterogeneous study groups have their own disadvantages. For instance, if a certain class has homogeneous study group in terms of the group members’ academic potential, those groups which have homogeneous competent members could utterly outshine their opposites. That would very likely create dissatisfaction on the part of the homogeneous groups which have less academically competent members. This intern degrades the self-esteem of students and can be a cause for embarrassment and restricts students’ effort in collaborative learning.
When we come to the disadvantage of a heterogeneous group, the fast learner in such a group might feel impatient to put up with that of the slow learner and take up the lion share of the group activity all by himself. Here, it has to be noted that this type of learner couldn’t manage to get the benefit of collaborative learning as he has essentially engaged himself in an individual activity. Likewise, the slow learner will have to go idle and miss important learning opportunities which could be acquired along the process of collaborative learning.

Probably, even the least systematic and demanding approach, random grouping could also have its own advantage in that students may feel relaxed about their group as it is not imposed by their instructors (Marcus 2009). This seems to be the reason why CSHE (2002) underscores that the best grouping model depends much on the context as one approach might be fit for a specific context while it might prove failure for the other. Nevertheless, the fact that this universal grouping model is non-existent cannot be an excuse for instructors’ overlooking their involvement in their students grouping process. Close and critical scrutiny of students would be quite essential in order to form any of the three types of groups for a group activity. This type of grouping could be considered as logical study team which can exploit the benefits of collaborative learning to the maximum level.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The data we used for this study stem from primary source. Questionnaires were used to collect the data from a total of 116 randomly selected students from four departments of the extension division at St. Mary’s, namely; SSOM, Marketing, IT and Law. 35 students from each department were randomly picked totalling 140, but 116 valid cases were obtained for the final analysis.

Once the data were collected, they were entered into SPSS and were analyzed using different statistical techniques such as frequencies, descriptive, Chi-Square and ANOVA. The first two are used to identify the number of respondents or the amount of value students attach to a particular question. On the other hand, Chi-Square test is used to statistically measure the difference in the association between variables of interest, whereas ANOVA is used to gauge mean differences among values respondents indicate.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personality Styles

There are several personality styles one may need to consider. Tracom’s Social Style Model (2006) identifies two types of human behaviour: assertiveness and responsiveness. For our study purpose, based on the extent to which students are assertive or responsive, four types of personality styles are identified, namely; analytical, driving, expressive and amiable. Analytical students are less assertive and less responsive, whereas students with driving personality style are more assertive and less responsive. On the other hand, while expressive students are more assertive and more responsive, amiable students are less assertive but more responsive. Snyder and McNeil (N.D) indicate that less assertive students always ask their group members the type of activities they should do. But students who are more assertive dictate their group members which direction they should take. By the same
token, to be able to control emotions has something to do with responsiveness. Thus, less responsive students can be able to control their emotions, while more responsive students usually fail to control their emotions.

Students were asked which personality styles they have. Results of descriptive statistics reveal students’ personality type as acquired through the questionnaire administered to them. Here, we can see that the majority of respondents (57.8%) fall under the category of Expressive personality styles. This shows that, the majority of the respondents are more responsive, i.e., quick in reacting in the way that is needed and willing enough in responding to questions. In other words, they are able to react and defend their viewpoints with confidence.

Results further indicate that the number of respondents who have driving personality (more assertive and less responsive), is the second biggest, that is 17.4%. Students in this range are not quick enough in giving responses, which might reflect their modesty. This might show that these students are not easily manipulated or do not let their important ideas go and are not highly sociable and expressive. They might also be economical in their verbal responses but not as such reserved when they have got a point to assert. The implication is that the type of personality styles students exhibit determines the success of a group project work.

**Group dynamics**

Whether groups were dynamic or not were assessed using three criteria: 1) whether group members were cohesive, 2) whether members could work in harmony without instructor’s direct support and 3) whether groups were heterogeneous (in terms of age, academic performance, social background and dedication). They were analyzed using simple frequency distribution and ANOVA. Results of ANOVA (Annex 1) show that the observations of students are not all positive with regard to group dynamics. While asked to indicate a value ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), the mean values fall between 3.41 and 3.85 for all students taken together. But disaggregated data indicate that students with expressive personality style report a more positive observation. Respondents of this personality style agree that groups to which they belonged were cohesive (4.08) and heterogeneous (3.98). On other hand, descriptive statistics draw information regarding the degree of cohesion student respondents have in the group projects they usually find themselves in. Results reveal that the vast majority of the respondents (about 68.8%), indicated that they usually become partner of a group project that is cohesive- a type of group with strong cooperative work spirit. This shows that most of the students are usually satisfied with the cohesive nature of the group they usually belong to while doing group projects.

Like the information we have in the level of group cohesiveness, the majority respondents (53.4%) label the type of groups they usually find themselves in to be harmonious. Yet, 25% respondents, the second in this category, labelled the size of harmony their groups usually have at a medial level. This response seems to mismatch with the one we have for the cohesiveness of their group. Only 14.7% respondents labelled the group cohesiveness of their group projects at a medial level, giving it three grades. This shows that although respondents appear to be satisfied with the cohesion of the group, they do not seem to be as such satisfied with their group’s harmony.
The significant majority of respondents (68.1%) in this category agree that the group they find themselves in collaborative learning to be heterogeneous. As the majority of the respondents indicated their groups are usually cohesive and harmonious which reflects the healthiness of the grouping, heterogeneity seems to be the ingredient for the aforementioned categories. The fact that the groups are usually heterogeneous in multiple dimensions might have created harmony and cohesion in most of the group works students involved in. That intern may show that heterogeneous group could be students’ favorite grouping strategy.

IMPORTANCE OF GROUP PROJECTS BASED ON STUDENT’S PERCEPTION

Importance of group projects for education

Results of frequency distribution tables provide useful information whether students agree that group activities help them for their education. A very interesting result is that although the majority of students are convinced in the opinion that group activities are more of time wastages, they are not ruling out the educative power these types of activities possess. The majority of respondents, more than 76% of them, believe that group projects usually serve the purpose of their education. Only the significant minority respondents, (less than 10 %) argue otherwise. This result corroborates with findings of Colbeck et al (2000).

Results of ANOVA also reveal similar patterns. With a mean value of 4.4 and 4.0, respondents with expressive and amiable personality styles agreed that group projects are helpful to their education. In fact, students with analytical and driving personality styles were somehow neutral to this question with a mean score of 3.6 each in a Likert scale measurement.

The mean difference among these values is statistically significant at 5% level (P < 0.05). Results from Chi-Square tests also offer similar observations. While 80.9% and 83.3% of respondents with expressive and amiable personality styles, respectively, give high values for the importance of group projects for their education, 60% and 63.1% indicate that collaborative learning activities are important for their education.

Respondents also believe that group projects are identical ways of collecting easy marks. About 40 % of them are in favour of this opinion, while 19% of them moderately agree with the opinion mentioned. This might be a good indicator that there are many students who might not exert the level of effort that is expected to be spent on collaborative learning environment.

From these findings, we are disposed to make varieties of deductions. Does the value students give for group projects depend on the type of personality they belong to? Yes it does. As indicated above, students with expressive and amiable personality styles give more value to group projects importance to their education than their counterparts. Probably, students with analytical and driving personality styles might have expected group activities to be more educative than that of the level they appear to be now. That means, although they agree with the opinion that group projects are usually educative, they might not have found them to be as much productive as they expected them to be. For instance,
the time it takes to get a specific knowledge in group activities might not be economical compared with the knowledge acquired according to the respondents’ discretion.

**Importance of group projects for socialization**

The overwhelming majority of student respondents (more than 80%) are of the opinion that group projects have a significant positive contribution to their study experience. This shows that the majority of respondents consider group activities, as opportunities in which they can experience a distinctive study approaches. The fact that heterogeneous groups are usually favoured by students might have contributed much to the good study experience group members get during collaborative learning activities. Because of group heterogeneity, they might have been encouraged to ask questions from members who have better academic potential, have distinctive specialty or interest as well as possess different personality type. Given the cooperative nature, the positive spirit to help each other, and the group harmony of the respondents is sound, according to the findings we have thus far, it would be meaningful to deduce that these heterogeneous group members are free to share ideas in a way that could create sound study experience. This was confirmed by a mean score of 4.3 (for expressive students) and 4.0 (for pooled data). This is a very important impact of collaborative learning activities to enhance students’ interpersonal and communicative skills, which are vital in this competitive and dynamic world. The result of this study is in line with the findings of Synder and McNeil (N.D).

With regard to students’ response whether collaborative learning is helpful to their after work life, more than 68% of respondents indicated a positive response. Results from ANOVA also corroborate with the aforementioned findings (for instance, a mean value of 4.06 for students with amiable personality styles). On the other hand, the overwhelming majority of respondents (more than 70%) strongly agree that group projects enable them help each other. These results bear out with findings of Payne and Mok-Turner (2006).

Chi-Square tests also depict that 66.6%, 77.8% and 61.8% of respondents with analytical, expressive and amiable personality styles agree (or strongly agree) that group projects help them socialize with other students, but 42.1% of respondents with driving personality do not agree that the case is so. This might emanate from the behaviour of the students themselves in that they are more reserved and hence, are less likely to socialize. These differences are statistically significant at 5% level (P < 0.05). When we consider the pooled data, we observe that 69.4% of the respondents highly value the importance of group projects for socialization.

**Problems students encounter while doing group projects**

There are several problems students may face while doing group projects. According to the findings obtained from our study, we have learnt that students’ responses depend on their personality styles. For instance, while the vast majority of respondents with amiable personality (75%) and half of the respondents with expressive personality trait grumble that they have usually found themselves in groups where slackers prevail, only 40% and 36.9% of respondents with analytical and driving personality styles agree that the case was so. This throws clear picture as to the extent to which personality styles influence the way students evaluate their group from the perspective of how evenly and fairly group members share responsibilities in group projects. These differences are statistically
significant at 5% level (p < 0.05) in a Chi-Square test. The results of this study support the findings of Payne and Monk-Turner (2006).

Results of descriptive statistics show that while there was a group member who usually assumes the lion’s share of the group activity, there was an individual in that group who usually sits back and relaxes while the rest of the members are toiling, though to various levels of effort. This is unhealthy to an effective collaborative learning environment. Thousand et al. (1994) indicate that the effectiveness of group projects highly depends on whether each member considers its contribution to the group to be crucial for the success of the group.

The majority of respondents (more than 51 %) unpleasantly reveal that the lion’s share of the activities usually goes to one group member only. In fact, this was supposed to be taken evenly among group members. This might indicate that students might not be duly aware of what is meant by helping each other in collaborative learning activities. Some may assume that their mere physical presence in a scheduled meeting may help. But, if their contribution to the actual work is very limited, then they are slackers. Others may also merely coordinate group tasks without directly involving into the business. This is also another aspect of being a slacker. According to Payne and Monk-Turner (2006), this kind of “pulling weight” dampens other group members’ enthusiasm in working hard in collaborative learning environments.

Another problem worth mentioning is whether instructors duly correct group projects and assign ‘fair’ values. Although about 23 % respondents gave average mark for the opinion that those teachers usually correct group projects properly, the majority of respondents (51.7%) of them indicated that they disfavour the idea that group projects are corrected well by their instructors. This reveals that this could be one reason, coupled with teachers’ lenience in correcting group activities properly, which lead the majority of students to believe that group activities are identical ways of collecting easy marks.

According to the data we have, 45 % of respondents indicate that they lack confidence while engaging in collaborative study activities and/or group projects. However, the findings we have here do not match with the type of personality styles the majority of students exhibit. It is to be recalled that about 58 % of respondents in the previous discussion stated that they are more assertive and more expressive, which reflects their confidence. From these findings, however, we might conclude that apart from the personality type the majority of students naturally have, we might see some other factors working against the confidence of students while involving in group activities. It would be important to stress once again that lack of confidence during group activities appears to be a typical to the majority of students’ behaviour (expressive-more assertive and more expressive).

**CONCLUSIONS**

Not only is a collaborative learning experience important for the students’ personal development, but is also vital for their professional career. In this regard, as supported by findings of this study, encouraging positive collaborative learning experiences through team learning methods (such as effective communication activities, process learning exercises and graded feedback) is essential in
order to prepare students for real-world team work environments. Also, results of this study reveal that group projects (collaborative learning activities) have several merits such as enhancing students’ education, developing their interpersonal, communicative and team work skills by helping them to socialize. At its weakest, however, collaborative learning is subject to slacking—a situation of idling but is a short-cut and easy access to better marks. It should be noted that when students consider group activity as a means of easy access to better marks, it could make them prefer the activity no matter how valid it could turn out to be to their education in general. This definitely not only lowers the enthusiasm of diligent students but also impedes collaborative learning activities from achieving their goals. This suggests that instructors should avoid lenience in forming the appropriate grouping type beforehand. They should also consistently follow up their students along the way. At the same time, they should employ fair evaluation scheme of group projects.

REFERENCES
Marcus, R. (2009). Observation on Cooperative –Learning Group Assessment, Department of Philosophy, Hamilton College


**APPENDICES**

Table 1: Personality styles of respondents

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality types</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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Table 2: Personality styles Vs projects’ importance to socialize

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Chi-Square Tests

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Table 3: Chi-square test for personality style versus slacker

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|       | driving    | 6  | 0  | 6  | 6  | 1  | 19 |
| Count |            |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| % within person style |            | 31.6% | .0% | 31.6% | 31.6% | 5.3% | 100.0% |
| % of Total |            | 5.5% | .0% | 5.5% | 5.5% | .9% | 17.4% |

|       | expressive | 14 | 7  | 10 | 9  | 23 | 63 |
| Count |            |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| % within person style |            | 22.2% | 11.1% | 15.9% | 14.3% | 36.5% | 100.0% |
| % of Total |            | 12.8% | 6.4% | 9.2% | 8.3% | 21.1% | 57.8% |

|       | amiable    | 0  | 1  | 2  | 3  | 6  | 12 |
| Count |            |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| % within person style |            | .0% | 8.3% | 16.7% | 25.0% | 50.0% | 100.0% |
| % of Total |            | .0% | .9% | 1.8% | 2.8% | 5.5% | 11.0% |

|       | Total      | 21 | 13 | 21 | 21 | 33 | 109 |
| Count |            |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| % within person style |            | 19.3% | 11.9% | 19.3% | 19.3% | 30.3% | 100.0% |
| % of Total |            | 19.3% | 11.9% | 19.3% | 19.3% | 30.3% | 100.0% |

Chi-Square Test

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a. 14 cells (70.0%) have expected count less than 5, the minimum expected count is 1.43.
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<td>3.4118</td>
<td>1.5024</td>
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<td>3.7692</td>
<td>1.31630</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps students later in life</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.4000</td>
<td>0.8944</td>
<td>3.00</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.9032</td>
<td>1.3989</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.1176</td>
<td>1.4526</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.1619</td>
<td>1.20195</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
A voyage to Treat the Threats of Quality: Institutional Factors that are Associated with the Provision of Quality Education in the University of Gondar: Implications for its Future Decision

Tadesse Awoke
University of Gondar, Faculty of Social Sciences and The Humanities, Department of Psychology.

Abstract
Education is the best mechanism considered to be the key to give solution to personal, social and global problems. This is, realized when there is quality education. Quality education is at the heart of any educational system since it influences what students learn and what benefit they draw from their education for themselves as well as the services they discharge to their country. Quality education has untold importance for a country like Ethiopia to ensure sustainable development and to reduce poverty. It will help the country to achieve the millennium development goals set by the international community. Accordingly, issues of quality education at all levels need to be addressed for accelerated socio-economic development of Ethiopia. In light of this, the main objective of this research was to delve into institutional factors that are associated with the provision of quality education in the University of Gondar. Questionnaires, interview, and focus group discussion were the instruments used to collect the data in this study. A report from HERQA was also scrutinized. In total, 120 Students, 70 teachers and 4 officials in the University were participants of the study. Samples were selected using stratified and purposive sampling method. This research was cross-sectional in terms of time, descriptive in terms of design, and field research in terms of setting. Quantitative (such as percentage and regression analysis) as well as qualitative (like thematic analysis) methods of analyses were employed to analyze the data. The study found out that infrastructures (learning resources) (β=.30, P<.005), and teaching-learning and assessment methods (β=.62, P<.005) in the University found to be the significant predictors for the provision of quality education (the criterion variable). Consequently, infrastructures (learning resources) and teaching-learning and assessment methods need to be ameliorated in the University so as to provide quality education; thereby enabling the University to attain its vision and mission set out in the strategic plan document.

BACKGROUND
Education is an instrument for human advancement. Education helps the human race to wisely make use of and manage our world, and to be ahead of other species.

New innovations and inventions in the world are due to education. In general, it is the crux for accelerated socio-economic development (Abrah, 2005). Particularly the function of higher education is very immense (World Bank, 2003). In line with this, Feyera(2007), Shimelis (2005) and Zelalem (2007) stated that the development of any country or nation depends much on its higher education.

Education in broad-spectrum and higher education in particular plays pivotal roles, especially in developing countries like Ethiopia, to facilitate sustainable development and to extricate the public from poverty (Mulu, 2005). However, education cannot play this role unless it is of the highest quality. The quality of education in an institution can be affected by multifaceted factors as quality is multi-dimensional concept. Thus, conducting researches on institution-specific factors is a wise decision to find remedies for such issues. In view of this, the purpose of this study is, therefore, to
assess institutional factors that are associated with the provision of quality education in University of Gondar.

OBJECTIVES
This study is designed to:

• examine institutional factors that are associated with the provision of quality education in the aforementioned University

• assess existing practice and policies designed by the University so as to maintain quality education.

• generate strategies to improve quality education in the University.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION

Quality education: implies educational process that involves adequate infrastructures, good governance and management system, and apt teaching learning process so as to produce competent, concerned, and skilled experts, who can contribute their share to vibrant socio-economic development of the country.

Institutional factors: are those factors that revolve within the University of Gondar such as infrastructures/learning resources, governance and management system, and teaching-learning and assessment strategies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The issue of quality in education

Quality in education is relative, and not easy to measure and define. Researchers define quality of education from different angles and perspective. Quality education has different meaning for different people. Issues related to quality of educations is also debatable.

In this regard, scholars like Vreijenstijin (1995), Cheng and Tem (1997), and Ponder (1999) stated that quality in education is very elusive, vague, controversial, notoriously ambiguous, multifaceted, complicated and complex concept.

In a very comprehensive spectrum, educational quality can be seen as a set of elements that comprise the input category (e.g. textbooks, learning material, classroom, libraries, facilities …etc), process category (e.g. delivery of contents of courses, teaching-learning, assessment techniques …etc) and output category (e.g. employability, academic standing, and other performance indicators) of the education system(Cheng and Tem ,1997).
Determinants of quality education in higher education institutions

As quality education is multidimensional concept, a number of factors to list influence it. Factors that can influence quality in higher institutions are grouped in to two as the push factors (that emanate from stakeholders outside the institution such as the society at large) and pull factors/institutional factors (that revolve within the institutions such as the teaching-learning strategies, infrastructures, management system within the institution) as indicated by Scheerens et al (2003) and Reichet and Tauch (2005). Lack of dedication, lack of knowledge on methodological concept of teaching, low qualification of teachers, deficiency in managerial and analytical capacities of managers, inadequate teaching learning materials, and inadequate facilities are major problems for quality education as depicted by Tros (1967), Shann (1992). Higher Education Relevance and Quality Assurance Agency (HERQA) also identified 10 focus areas of institutional quality audit. From the HERQA report it is learned that in adequacy of the infrastructures and teaching-learning and assessment strategies in the University are considered as factors for the provision of quality education.

METHODOLOGY

This part consists of sub-sections such as study area, study design, sampling technique, data sources and data analysis techniques. Brief description of each section is presented hereunder:

STUDY AREA

This study was conducted at the University of Gondar.

STUDY DESIGN

This study was cross-sectional in terms of time, applied in terms of purpose, descriptive in terms of design/strategies, qualitative as well as quantities in terms of approach and field in terms of setting of the research. In short, cross-sectional, applied, descriptive, qualitative as well as quantitative and field researches employed in this study.

Participants, sampling techniques and sample size

The participants of this study were students, instructors and officials in the University of Gondar. At present the University consists of one college, four schools and four faculties. The target area of this study was one college, one school and four faculties that were giving training for regular students at the time of data collection. Sample from the student population were those who were graduates of the academic year 2010. The study aimed at graduating class because the researcher believed that senior students/graduating class were in a better position to provide information about the University and the quality of education, since, in relative terms, they spent longer duration in the University. 120 students and 70 teachers were selected from 1750 graduating class students and 573 teachers or instructors respectively through stratified sampling. In addition, 4 officials were purposefully selected.
STUDY VARIABLES

Quality education: dependent variable

Institutional factors: such as infrastructures, governance and management system, and teaching-learning and assessment taken as independent variables

DATA SOURCES/INSTRUMENTS

Questionnaires were used to collect data from student and teacher respondents. The questionnaires were pre-tested before the actual data collection.

The questionnaires had more of closed ended items, but four open-ended items were also included so as to enrich the data and give freedom for respondents to spell out what is in their mind. The response categories for the close ended items were arranged in four themes i.e. in teaching –learning, management system, infrastructures and quality education.

Accordingly four items pertinent to quality, nine items on teaching-learning, twelve items on infrastructures, and six items on management system were in the questionnaires. Apart from the questionnaires, semi-structured interview was used as the tool of research in order to get data from the University officials. In addition document analysis was employed. FGDs were also conducted with teachers. The content validity of the questionnaires, the interview items and the FGDs guide were checked by professionals in the area. The reliability of items in the questionnaires were checked through inter-raters estimate of reliability.

DATA ANALYSIS

In the end, the collected data were analyzed and interpreted both qualitatively and quantitatively. Thematic/content analysis was used for the qualitative part of the study whereas regression analysis was used to assess those factors associated with the provision of quality education.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The section presented results obtained from this study vis-à-vis with other previous data.

Bio-data of respondents

Table 1: Gender distribution of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>64.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>95.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From table 1, it can be seen that 77(64.2%) and 43(35.8%) of the student respondents were male and female respectively. While 67(95.7%) teachers/instructors were male. Majority of the instructors who participated in this study were male.

**Associated factors for the provision of quality education**

Table 2: Correlates of Quality Education for Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality education</td>
<td>Infrastructures</td>
<td>.378</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching-learning</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>.302</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regression was performed to see the association between the predictor variables and the criterion variable. The model emerged was significant: F (3, 116), 20.7, P<.005. The model explains 75.7% (Adjusted $R^2 = .755$) of the variance.

As it is shown in table 2, teaching-learning and assessment strategies and infrastructures/learning resources were significant predictors of the provision of quality education.

Briefly, when there are appropriate infrastructures ($β=.62$, P<.005) and teaching-learning and assessment strategies ($β=.30$, P<.005) the provision of quality education tend to be improved. Governance and management system was not a significant predictor of the provision of quality education for student respondents.

Table 3, Correlates of Quality Education for Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality education</td>
<td>Infrastructures</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.344*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance and management system</td>
<td>Infrastructures</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.330**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* P=.007                    **P=.009

As it was the case for student respondents, significant regression model was observed: F (3, 66), 12.56, P<.05. The model explains 35.8% ($R^2 = .385$) of the variance.

Governance and management system ($β=.330$, P=.009), contrary to student respondents, found to be significant predictor of the provision of quality education for teacher-respondents. Whereas in harmony with the student respondents infrastructures/learning resources ($β=.344$, P=.007) were found to be significant predictor of the criterion variable for teacher respondents as well.
In simple words, appropriate infrastructures/learning resources/and governance and management system found to be correlates for the provision of quality education for teacher respondents i.e. the better the infrastructure facilities and the quality of the administration system in the university the better the provision of quality education tend to be as it is espoused by instructors.

In general, infrastructures were found to be the predictor for the provision of quality education for both teachers and students. Whereas, teaching-learning, assessment strategies, and governance and management system found to be predictor for the provision of quality education for students and teachers/instructors respectively.

This may be attributed to infrequent exposure of students with the administrative routines of the University and more exposure of students to the academy, while high exposure of instructors to the management system. The result of this study is in line with findings of Shun (1992), Scheerens et al (2003) and Reichet and Tauch (2005). These authors explained that, limited facilities, poor managerial system, as factors that can contribute to quality problems in education.

Interview with the officials also depicted similar facts. The officials stressed that to a large extent, poor infrastructures like internet connection, lack of model class .etc are institutional factors for the provision of quality education. In this regard, one of the interviewee stated that, “the university has to work on modern technological facilities in order to provide quality education and to produce graduates who are responsible to discharge their duties effectively to the development of a nation.” The FGD participants demonstrated matching opinion with the findings of the interview and the questionnaires. They identified lack of equipment like audiovisual technologies and other essential resources as institutional factors for the provision of quality education. In this regard, the findings of the study are in line with the HERQA reports (HERQA, 2008).

**Existing practice and policies designed by the university so as to maintain quality education**

Nearly all students reported that they knew nothing about the policies and practices designed by the University in order to maintain the quality of education. While officials reported that, though it is not yet ratified by the University, quality assurance office of the University is developing draft policy for maintaining quality education in the university. Additionally, as it is reported by officials, the University has also established ADRC for the purpose of maintaining quality education. Moreover, pedagogical training for teachers is also given in collaboration with the JEPIGO and Quality assurance office of the University as it is explained by officials. Currently, the University also implementing the BPR by which it sought to improve quality education in the University as espoused by officials.

**Strategies to improve the provision of quality of education in the university as mentioned by participants**

Augmenting communication and discussion with concerned parties, designing proper staff development strategies, establishing model class rooms, making quality assurance office functional, improving infrastructures like classroom, library, and laboratory etc. Developing reward scheme, providing transport and housing facilities for instructors, providing suitable working condition,
improving the management system, proper handling of staff, creating partnership with domestic and international universities, allocating sufficient budget to research activities, consolidating the ADRC, limiting the number of students in a class, developing experience sharing scheme within the university and out of the university, making the teaching learning task-based minimizing, interference of the management with instructors’ routine duties, making periodical curriculum revision, improving systems of instruction, improving quality of food (for students) and involving students in decision making process were some of the issues forwarded to improve the provision of quality education as mentioned by students, teachers, officials and FGDs participants. These strategies are also in line with the HERQA recommendations (HERQA, 2008). Damtew (2005) also stressed modest living and working opportunity as a factor which significantly contributes to quality education.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Infrastructures, teaching-learning, assessment strategies, and governance and management system in the University were found to be significant predictors for the provision of quality education. It is indispensable, therefore to formulate and introduce robust strategies focusing on these institutional factors for ameliorating/improving educational quality in the University so that the University and graduates of the University can more effectively and positively respond to the socio-economic transformation of the country.

The university efforts will also be seriously affected unless it addresses the salient issues toward attaining its objectives.

REFERENCES


Keeping Teachers Happy: Talent Management Model for Higher Education Institutions in Ethiopia

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St. Mary’s University College, P.O.Box 18490, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Abstract

The provision of quality of higher education, among other things, is connected with the quality of faculty. However, with the increasing demand-supply gap with regard to qualified staff, higher education institutions in our country are facing severe problems. Therefore, addressing the need for talent so as to meet quality standards is very crucial. The strategies used so far by the government and institutions to meet the increasing demand for qualified staff in higher institutions has to give emphasis on the process of developing and integrating new workers, developing and keeping current workers and attracting highly skilled ones to work for a given institution. In light of this issue, this study was conducted with objectives of specifying talent management model for higher institutions and thereby to understand the factors important for faculty and their satisfaction. The study is exploratory in nature. The findings of this study were based on a survey conducted with majority of the responses from representative higher institutions in Ethiopia. Faculties are the target populations of the study. A structured questionnaire was used in the survey. The questionnaire contained the expectations of faculties and their satisfaction on identified parameters. Factor analysis is a method of reducing data complexity by containing the number of variables. The study showed ORIS and IBSM are important factors that define the aspects of teaching profession in Ethiopian higher education institutions. Under these factors opportunity for learning, opportunity for growth, research funding, incentives for hard work, salary structure, infrastructure facilities, behaviour of colleagues, support from administration and behaviour of management following variables were emerged as more significant. Therefore, strategies to retain and attract qualified and experienced faculties need to consider these variables.

INTRODUCTION

The success of the most competitive companies throughout the world, including higher education institutions, lies in their highly skilled employees. Literature reveals the cost of losing best employees to be enormous – beyond monetary quantification. An institution in higher education, therefore, needs to be able to develop and deploy faculty who can articulate the passion and vision of institution and satisfaction of students. Thus, talent management should be considered as an essential business process in these days.

Among others, the quality of higher education is dependent on the quality of the teacher who constitutes the most important input in higher education. In the process of generating learning, faculties are the major inputs in educational. As to mitigate the influence that has been created as a result of the scarcity of qualified and experienced teachers in higher education institutions in Ethiopia establishing a structured talent management process is san qua non. This will serve the institutions to maintain the exiting talent and receive more. Moreover, to the faculties this will help them to achieve their best individual potential.
Applying the consumer behavior theory in education, faculties as internal consumers satisfy the working environment of higher institutions need certain aspects and functions of their job (teaching, research, and service) have to be prioritized. This will enable knowledge creation and tapping the full potential of talent available, ultimately results in effective learning.

The academic staff is a key resource within higher education institutions and therefore, it has a major role in achieving the objectives of the institution. Well motivated academic staff can, with appropriate support, build a reputation for themselves and the institution in the professional areas, in research and in publishing. Such a profile may have an impact on the quality of a higher education institution. Moreover, the performance of academic staff as teachers, researchers and managers determines much of the quality of the student satisfaction and has an impact on student learning and thus the contribution of the higher education institutions to society.

At present Ethiopia is striving to attain development, this requires trained professionals, in all sectors. Experience of students in higher education, to a large extent, depends on the performance of faculty, both as teachers and researchers. The faculty has a major role in student learning and thus in the present research, the attempt has been to formulate an approach to prioritize the initiatives that institutions need to take for faculty satisfaction and to attain leadership in higher education through talent management.

The sole purpose of this study is to identify factors important to faculties in performing key jobs. The study considers faculties and resources that are critical in ensuring long term success of the institution.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The notions of talent management come to emerge in the 1990s. It continues to be popular as more institutions come to realize the employee’s talent and skills are the essential elements of their success. The term is coined by Mckinsey & Company (1997). According to Stockley (2005) it is defined as:

A conscious, deliberate approach undertaken to attract, develop and retain people with the aptitude and abilities to meet current and future organizational needs. Talent management involves individual and organizational development in response to a changing and complex operating environment.

The perspectives of talent management, therefore, suggest the customary collection of typical human resource department practices and activities that covers functions such as recruitment, development, deployment and retention of talented individuals. Talent management differs from the notion of HRM, for it gives emphasize on managing and nurturing talent as part of the every day process of organizational life. It is about identifying talented people, finding out what they want, and giving it to them. Like HRM, it is applying the same personal development process to everyone in the organization. But it is accelerating the process for high potentials. Hence, the focus of talent management is on developing high potentials or talents more quickly than others.

In higher education institutions the importance of faculty for quality education is indispensable. Faculty as the main resource is central to appropriate educational activity. Therefore, faculty
satisfaction is an essential pre-requisite for excellence in faculty performance with reference to quality in education (Shagbemi, 1997b). The quality of services provided by higher institution, like others, can be gauged by the satisfaction of the beneficiaries. Research on the quality of higher education has now also started to look at the job satisfaction of faculty members (Korey, 1995). Faculty satisfaction is a key to quality output in terms of professional commitment of faculty members (Ewell, 1991) and how well that is aligned with the over all goals of universities for quality enhancement. In line with this Tribus (1995) developed a model conceptualizing faculty as customer in the education business.

Schonberger's (1990) emphasis on internal customer relationship supports the idea that the faculty may be seen as the customer of the educational manager; it is the manager's task to minimize problems that hinder faculty from performing at their highest levels of ability (Rowley, 1996). According to this model, faculty is considered as talent and therefore, managing faculty satisfaction means managing talent in higher institutions. This study, in this regard, planned to look faculty as talent and institutionalize talent management process for academic institutions.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The study attempted to answer the research question “What were the important aspects of teaching carrier in higher education institutions?”

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The study attempted to answer the key research questions mentioned above. Accordingly, the objectives of this study were to understand the factors important for faculty and their satisfaction so as to suggest a model to be considered in designing talent management process as to attract, develop and retain faculties.

DEFINITION OF TERM
In this study the term talent management was employed to refer to conscious and deliberate approach undertaken to attract, develop and retain people with the aptitude and abilities to meet current and future organizational needs. Therefore talent represents outstanding ability and high potential to the optimum longer-term advantage of the higher education institutions and the individual faculty.

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY
A survey research design was used in this study to investigate job satisfaction of higher education institutions in Ethiopia. In this section, sample of the study, methods of data collection, and the data analysis techniques employed are presented.

Sampling
Faculties were the focus of this study. The participating faculties were randomly selected from Addis Ababa University, Arba Minch University, Ambo University, Adama University, Debre Birhan
University, Hawasa University, St. Mary’s University College, Admas University College and Keamed University College. These institutions are selected on the basis of the researchers’ convenience. The size of the samples selected in this study is presented in Table 1, distributed in their respective institutions.

Table 1. Sample size of the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions</th>
<th>Faculties</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Addis Ababa University</td>
<td></td>
<td>88</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambo University</td>
<td></td>
<td>45</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adama University</td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admas University College</td>
<td></td>
<td>63</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debre Birhan University</td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawasa University</td>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keamed University College</td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Mary’s University College</td>
<td></td>
<td>79</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>461</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall, the questionnaire was administered to 557 faculties having minimum three years of experience. We analyzed questionnaires which are only properly completed. Due to incomplete data, improper filling and failure to collect, only the responses from 461 faculties were retained and analyzed.

Table 2: Participants’ Demographic and other Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;31</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 to 40</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 to 50</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;50</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field of discipline the respondent affiliated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of teaching experience in tertiary educational institutions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 10</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to 20</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First degree</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second degree</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequencies were obtained in order to describe the sample using the demographic variables (Table 2). In most aspects, the sample appeared to be a good representation of the population. The greatest
differences occurred in the categories of gender with a greater percentage of males in the sample as in the population. Obviously the proportion of women academic staff is very low in the tertiary institutions. As result the study was male-dominant. Only 3 percent of the study respondents are female. The age of the respondents varies from an age group $\leq 31$ to $\geq 50$ with more than 78 percent of the respondents being less than 40. With respect to the discipline, the sample was not evenly distributed. The majority of the sample are from Business (51 percent) and Arts (30 percent). Most of the faculty (76%; $n = 350$) had attained a masters degree. The mean group of years that faculties had been in their teaching experience in higher educational institutions was 5 to 10.

Data collection

A structured questionnaire was used in the survey. The questionnaire contained questions about the expectations of faculties and their satisfaction to their work. Fifteen parameters were used in the questionnaire to analyze the expectations of faculties. In this part, faculties were asked to rate seventeen variables in a 5 point scale on their importance level. Part II in section II of the survey instrument includes 40 items which inquire rating of job satisfaction. The items were adjusted using the Grayfield-Rothe’s “Job Satisfaction Index”, as modified by Warner (1973) so as to have relevant items for this study. The first section of the survey instrument inquires background information of the respondents pertaining to their institutional affiliation, sex, teaching experience, educational qualification and academic rank. The preparation of the questionnaire considers the review of various literatures in to account.

Data analysis techniques

The present study is exploratory in nature and the data analysis techniques were mainly relying on quantitative techniques. The demographic variables are organized using descriptive statistics. Data on important factors for faculty and their satisfaction were organized under various variables. They are quantitative at the interval level. The study used factor analysis as a method of data reduction. This form of analysis allows the identification of underlying variables, or factors, that explain the pattern within the various aspect of the teaching profession in higher education institutions. In this case, the basic factor analysis model assumes that employee responses to each of items in the questionnaire can be condensed into one or more underlying factors. The data were screened for univariate outliers. Luckily we do not have out-of-range values. The minimum amount of data for factor analysis was satisfied, with a final sample size of 416. Moreover, other assumptions in using factor analysis were fulfilled.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The study enquired faculties with the purpose of finding out information related to important factors for faculty and their satisfaction. The data gathered from the part of the survey inquired academic staffs to rate the level of importance with the aspects of the teaching profession in higher education institutions. These factors were analyzed by taking fifteen variables. The respondents were asked to rank the variables on a five point scale (1= not at all important, 2= minimally important, somewhat important, very important, and 5= extremely important). Then data reduction is done by doing factoring.
As a multivariate technique, factor analysis was used to study the interrelationship among the many variables that were included in the instrument of data collection, and to explain these variables in terms of their common dimensions (factors). The first output in factor analysis is the results of extraction of components/factors.

Data were analyzed on varimax rotation. We want to find a rotation that maximizes the variance on the new axes; put another way, we want to obtain a pattern of loadings on each factor that is as diverse as possible, lending itself to easier interpretation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work life balance</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>1.20120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary structure</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>.19367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching load</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.09870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior of management</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.45270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior of colleagues</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>.93197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity for learning</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>.16946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research funding</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>.58488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentive for hard work</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>.52318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentive for loyalty</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>.23895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity for growth</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>.25084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure facilities</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.61971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role clarity of faculty</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>.14069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance appraisal</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>.26446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support from administration</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>.24491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition of good work</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>.41421</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the descriptive statistics indicated above (table 3) looking at the mean, we can say that opportunity for growth is found to be the most important aspect of the teaching profession among the faculties in Ethiopian higher education institutions. It has the highest mean of 4.86.

The number of cases (416) used in the analysis is equal to the total number of cases in the data file since there are no missing values on any of the variables used in the factor analysis.

Initially, the factorability of the 15 job satisfaction items was examined. Well-recognized criteria for the factorability of a correlation were used. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.934 which is closer to 1 and therefore it more acceptable hence factor analysis was obtained by principle component and specifying the rotation. Furthermore, Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 8766.068$, df=780, $p < .01$) showed that non-zero correlations existed at the significance level of 0.000. It means that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. This provided an adequate basis for proceeding with the factor analysis.
Table 4 shows the results of component factor extraction among responses in the sample. It shows the respective Eigen values and percentage of variance for the factors. The rule of thumb here is that only factors with Eigen values greater than 1.0 should be used for further analysis.

**Table 4. Extraction of factors and total variance explained**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Initial Eigen Values</th>
<th>Rotation of sums of squared loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.442</td>
<td>32.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.524</td>
<td>20.732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.369</td>
<td>13.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.440</td>
<td>8.470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.243</td>
<td>7.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.612</td>
<td>3.603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>.537</td>
<td>3.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>.476</td>
<td>2.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>2.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>1.743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>.206</td>
<td>1.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td>.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>.134</td>
<td>.785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Extraction method: Principal component method)

The table shown above (table 4) indicated all the factors extractable from the analysis along with their Eigen values, the percent of variance attributable to each factor, and the cumulative variance of factor and the previous factors. The total variables (15) that can be explained with the defined factors are more than 80%. Outcome of factor analyses shows extraction of five factors, which are considered important by faculties. The scree test (see fig 1) also indicates five factors to be appropriate. All the remaining factors are not significant.
A principle-components factor analysis of the 15 items, using varimax rotations was conducted, with the factors explaining 82.4% of the variance. A varimax rotation provided the best defined factor structure. The factor loading matrix for this final solution is presented in Table 5 below. The Table shows the loadings of the 15 variables on the 5 factors extracted. The higher the absolute value of the loading, the more the factor contributes to the variable. The gap in the Table represents loadings that are less than 0.5, which makes reading the Table easier. We suppressed all loadings less than 0.5.

Table 5. Varimax Rotated Factor Loading Matrix for Important Aspects of the Teaching Profession in Higher Institutions (15 Items and Sample Size=416)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Factor 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity for learning</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity for growth</td>
<td>.727</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research funding</td>
<td>.695</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentives for hard work</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary Structure</td>
<td>.634</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td>.895</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior of colleagues</td>
<td></td>
<td>.821</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support from administration</td>
<td></td>
<td>.645</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior of management</td>
<td></td>
<td>.608</td>
<td>.501</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition of good work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.823</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentives for loyalty</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.793</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role clarity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.597</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance appraisal</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>.805</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching load</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.797</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work life balance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative % of variance</td>
<td>21.852</td>
<td>43.701</td>
<td>61.141</td>
<td>73.812</td>
<td>82.441</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Looking at the tables above, we can say that research opportunity for learning, opportunity for growth, research funding, incentives for hard work and salary structure are substantially loaded on factor (component) 1 while infrastructure facilities, behavior of colleagues, support from administration, and behavior of management are substantially loaded on factor 2. Factor 3 constitutes recognition for good work, incentives for loyalty and role clarity. Variables that are substantially loaded under factor 4 are performance appraisal and teaching load. The remaining variable is work life balance which is loaded under factor 5.

The identified pattern from Table 5 above is labeled symbolically taking the initial letter of the variables in the same category. Their purpose is merely to denote the patterns. Accordingly, factor 5 from 1-5 are named ORIS, IBSM, RIR, PATL and WLB respectively.

The factor identified as ORIS has five variables with significant loading, which range from 0.80 to 0.63. The total variance of this factor is 21.9 and the Eigen value was 5.422 indicating a strong common factor variance and the purity of the factor.

The next factor with an Eigen value of 3.524 emerged as significant factor with 4 variables. All of them have a strong positive loading ranging from 0.90 to 0.61. The variables described under factor IBSM infrastructural facilities, behavior of colleagues, support from administration and behavior of management

The third factor has three variables, all having significant positive loadings ranging from 0.82 to 0.60. This factor contributes a variance of 17.4 percent to the total variance with an eigen value of 2.37. This factor is symbolized as "RIP".

Factor symbolized after an abbreviation PATL has two variables with significant loading of about 0.80. This explained 12.7 percent of variance with an eigen value of 1.44. The variables are performance appraisal and teaching load.

The fifth factor is symbolized as "WLB" which represents the only variable known as work life balance. This variable appears as a distinguishing factor with no other variable (its variance (8.63) is the least among all the factors).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study shows that ORIS and IBSM are important factors that define the aspects of teaching profession in Ethiopian higher education institutions. Under these factors opportunity for learning, opportunity for growth, research funding, incentives for hard work, salary structure, infrastructure facilities, behavior of colleagues, support from administration and behavior of management following variables were emerged as more significant. Therefore strategies to retain and attract qualified and experienced faculties need to consider these variables. Effective talent management strategies in Ethiopian higher education institutions should target creating opportunities for learning and development faculties. Facilitating working environments positively result in internal growth of faculties, which is also ranked as an important issue in the study. Furthermore, university/college
administrators should focus on improving the recognition, supervision, and interpersonal relationship among members of a faculty.

REFERENCES


Course planning and administration by instructors: the Case of St. Mary’s University College

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Abstract
The importance of a well thought course delivery that requires a thorough planning and strict execution thereof is reiterated by many to ensure the provision of quality education in higher learning institutions. The overall purpose the study is to examine the current course planning and delivering practices of instructors and come up with suggestions on possible options of action for the betterment of these practices towards enhancing the quality of education offered by the UC. The study was conducted based on the course plans prepared and distributed to students by the instructors, and feedbacks from students on their observation and perceptions about the course plans and implementation by the instructors during the course period. Therefore, samples of course outlines and students were used as data sources. The selection of samples was carried out through random sampling method where systematic and convenience sampling techniques were employed to pick the sample units. The systematic sampling was applied for students where every third student in the classroom was made to participate in the study as a respondent. In the case of course outlines, the convenience sampling technique was applied where 9 to 10 course outlines were picked randomly from each department. The study revealed that a planned course delivering is a commonly practiced task across all instructors, departments and mode of enrolments (regular and extension) in the UC. The course planning approach of instructors also took into account most of the aspects that thought to be important by most authors referred herein, given the components incorporated in the course outlines. This, however, needs to be practiced on a standardized, harmonized and continuous basis. It should also be noted that the monitoring and evaluation of the practice is equally important, especially for the enhancement of the practices of planning for and delivery of courses by instructors thereby quality of education offered by the institution over time.

INTRODUCTION
In higher education, course planning and delivery is the core task in teaching and learning that involves accomplishing a number of activities, which usually are interrelated. The teaching–learning process, being one of the major variables of education quality, has pre-defined objective and involves various elements and sub-processes which determine the achievement of the intended purpose. The instructor, the students and the course materials are the major among other elements of that system while planning for and execution of the course instruction is the sub-processes therein. Hence, the nature of the elements and the interaction among (the sub-processes) would be determinants of the outputs of the teaching–learning process which, in turn, determines the quality of education or the learning outcomes. Therefore, one of the important areas of institutional intervention for enhancement of education quality would be course planning and delivery exercises. This study is conducted with this understanding to explore the prevailing practices of instructors at St. Mary’s University Collage.

OBJECTIVES
The overall purpose of the study is to examine the current course planning and delivering practices of instructors and come up with suggestions on possible options of action for the betterment of these practices towards enhancing the quality of education offered by the UC. In specific terms, the work is aiming at:
• Examining the course offering plans of instructors;
• Identifying the drawbacks and strengths of the course offering plans of instructors;
• Assessing the implementation of the course offering plan by instructors and students;
• Suggesting possible options of measure for improvement of the course planning and delivering exercises of instructors.

SCOPE
The study, thematically, is concerned with exploring the practices of instructors in the course planning and delivering task at SMUC. In terms of time, the work is referring to the academic period of 2007/8. The study covered all fields (9 Departments in 4 Faculties) and levels (Undergraduate Degree, Diploma and TVET) of education offered by the UC in the full-time (regular) and part-time (extension) enrolments.

LIMITATIONS
The study is based on observations from course plans of instructors and feedbacks of students, complemented with fairly extensive literature exploration. It, however, misses primary data from instructors with which the prevailing challenges of and opportunities for course planning and delivering task could have been discussed at various levels of operation – instructor, department and institution.

METHODOLOGY

Population and sample units
The work, by and large, is intended to explore instructors’ planning and implementation of course offering or instructional exercises. Hence, the instructor was considered to be the population unit of the study. The study was conducted based on the course outlines prepared and distributed to students by the instructors, and feedbacks from students on their observation & perceptions about the course outlines and their implementation by the instructors during the course period. Therefore, samples of course outlines and students were used as data sources.

SAMPLING
The selection of sample elements, both for the course outlines and students, was carried out through random sampling method where systematic and purposive techniques were employed to pick the sample units. The systematic sampling was applied for students of all programs, where every third student in each classroom was picked from departments until the desired sample size (15 %) was met. The purposive sampling technique was applied in the case of course outlines where 9 to 10 course outlines (2 from Degree, 1 from TVET and 1 from diploma program courses offered during each of the three semesters) were picked randomly from each department.

DATA COLLECTION
The study utilized both primary and secondary data from different sources. The primary data were collected from students. A structured questionnaire, incorporating closed- and open-ended items of inquiries, was used to acquire the data from this source. Hence, the primary data were both quantitative and qualitative types. The questionnaire, by and large, was used to capture the perceptions
and observations of students about the course plans and delivering exercises of instructors. The data capturing was carried out during the 4th quarter (2nd half of the 2nd semester) of the academic year to have more or less the picture of the entire academic period. Departments, on the other hand, were the sources of the sample course outlines from which secondary data were extracted for the purpose. In addition, various documents obtained from the UC and websites were explored as supplementary sources of secondary data.

DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSES
The quantitative data, captured through the questionnaire and course outlines, were processed using a computer systems loaded with Statistical Package for Social Studies (SPSS). Such statistical processes as frequency and cross-tabulation were used to come up with measures of central tendencies and dispersions on the bases of which results were interpreted and described. The qualitative data obtained from students, on the other hand, were processed manually where recurring ideas were summarized and used to supplement and/or triangulate with the results of automated processing mentioned above.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Description of Samples
The population size of the study is given by a total of 167 instructors employed by and served for the UC during the study period – irrespective of department, level (Undergraduate Degree, Diploma, TVET) and modes (regular, extension) of education involved in.

Students
The study treated a total of 496 sample students of both sex categories drawn from all programs of the seven departments in four faculties under full-time as well as part-time modes of study. As far as the sex composition of the respondents is concerned, females constitute 55.9 percent of the total, 59.6 percent of full-time, and 40.4 percent of part-time students sampled. The composition of respondents, with respect to the mode of study, is given by 58.5 and 41.5 percent for the regular and extension enrolments, respectively (Table 1). Regarding the field of study, Business Faculty shared more than ¾ of the total where Management, Accounting, Marketing Management, and Secretarial Sciences & Office Management (SSOM) Departments contributed 30.4, 28.8, 13.7 & 6.0 percent, respectively. Meanwhile, the Faculties of Law (12.1 percent), Informatics (7.9 percent), and Teacher Education (1.0 percent) shared the remaining 21.1 percent of the total respondents (Table 1).

Similarly, respondents were differentiated by the duration of their stay at SMUC, given the number of semesters attended education. Generally, the number of semester reported by the respondents ranged between a minimum of one and a maximum of nine. The three most reported numbers, however, are two (26.0 percent), five (14.9 percent) and eight (14.3 percent). The three least reported, on the other hand, are seven, one and nine sharing 1.6, 4.1 and 7.6 percent, respectively.
Table 1 Respondents by field and mode of study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field of study</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Mode of study</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>Extension</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>(28.8%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Department</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>(30.4%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Department</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Management</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>(13.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Department</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>(12.1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Department</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>(7.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Department</td>
<td>87.2</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>(1.0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Department</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSOM</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>(6.0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Department</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Course outlines

The study also attempted to explore the practice of course instruction planning at various operational levels of the UC – Instructor, Department and the institution at large. To do so, a course outline was considered as a close representation of the plan for offering a given course.

Table 2 Distribution of sample course outlines by field and level of study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Proportion (%)</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>TVET</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSOM</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math &amp; Basic Sciences</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>44.96</td>
<td>39.49</td>
<td>15.56</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hence, a total of 81 course outlines were treated as samples for observation. The samples were drawn from the courses that were offered in the three (first, second and summer) semesters of the year by all departments under the three programs run by the UC.
The Course plan
The major role of instructors in higher education is thought to be the preparation and implementation of the course offering plan. A standard process of planning for and execution of course delivery involves the following steps (University of the Sciences in Philadelphia, n.d.):

- A statement of need - why is this course needed, by whom, for what
- Development of the goals of the course
- Designing instruction, teaching-learning activities and the student assessment tools to match these goals
- Delivering the course - implementation
- Using feedback to evaluate how well it went and where it can be improved
- Revising the course as needed, based on feedbacks and experiences.

This, by and large, is referring to the design, development and execution of a course outline. Course outlines, according to McGill University (2009), are intended to provide students with an overall plan for a course to enable them to function efficiently and effectively in the course.

A course outline can be divided into 7 major sections (Ibid):

**General information**: Number and title of course, number of credits; name of and access to the instructor; day, place and time of regular classes; prerequisites – particular courses, specific knowledge or skills a student should know before beginning the course (use of computer, ability to read architectural plans …); and calendar course description.

1. **Institutional policy statements**: The meaning and consequences of cheating, plagiarism and other academic offences under the code of student conduct and disciplinary procedures; students’ rights in the course; use of educational technologies like text-matching software to verify the originality of students' written course work; and advice on special needs like physical disability.

2. **Learning outcomes**: course objectives and the knowledge, competencies or skills students expected to have acquired by the end of the course.

3. **Course content**: a concept map or graphic representation of the content of the course including a description of the topics to be addressed in the course; the rationale for the sequence of the course; and course scheduling.

4. **Instructional method**: a brief description of instructional approaches that will be used during the course (lectures, seminars, laboratory or clinical activities, group projects).

5. **Course materials**: specific information should be provided about required texts including title, author(s), edition number and where they can be purchased or borrowed; additional handouts and other materials if they are part of the required reading; and suggested readings. It is helpful to the students to indicate the relationship of each reading to a particular topic in the course. This can be done by grouping them according to topic and/or class session; readings which have been placed on reserve in the library should be indicated; and any other requisites should be mentioned (computer, web access).

6. **Assignments and evaluation**: the description of how learning will be evaluated provides guidelines for students to structure and pace their study and to gauge their progress. Providing
explicit information about assignments and grading procedures will ensure consistent standards and avoid confusion and wrongly perceived injustice. Thus, it is important to include a description of the means of evaluation to be used in the course; a clear statement of what percentage of the final grade each assignment and exam will represent; the criteria and procedures for arriving at each contributing score; and the consequences of a delayed presentation or late paper.

Considering the major components above, the course planning exercise of instructors was examined with reference to the course outlines produced for the courses they offered. Generally, the elements that thought to be essential components of a course outline are observed being included in one or the other outline examined herein. However, a considerable level of variation was observed among individual course outlines within and among departments thereby in the institution at large.

General information

Taking the elements expected to be incorporated in the ‘General Information’ about the nature of the course, for instance, some 11 items were identified that need to be mentioned in the course outline (Fig. 1). Only 2.5 percent of the sample course outlines included all of the 11 items while half were missing information about nearly half (54.5 percent) of the items – number of contact hours, the course status (major, common, elective), co-requisite course, course delivery time, and the skills required for the course. In addition, the ‘course description’ and ‘course objectives’ are found to be the most common (observed in all sample outlines) items followed by the ‘course code/ number’. On the other hand, the ‘prerequisite skill’ and the ‘course output’ were the least or hardly incorporated items in this category (Fig. 1).

The other elements of a course outline, under ‘General Information’, are related to the instructor. It is stated in the Faculty Hand Book (2007) that one of the most important tasks of students is to get to know as many instructors as possible during each semester at the UC…..a student can talk to an instructor after class or during office hours to clarify a point. The information about the instructor includes the name, means & addresses (e-mail, telephone, pigeonhole) of remote communication, office location and time for consultation. However, most of the sample course outlines were missing all of the information about the instructor mentioned above – 90.1 percent were without instructor name, 95.1 percent with no e-mail and/ or telephone address while more than 96.3 percent were missing the office location. None of them mentioned the time the instructor would be available for student consultation.
Institutional policy

The other category of information expected to be in a course outline is the institutional policy that students registered for the course are required to know right before and while attending same. Such policies could be of class attendance, plagiarism, delayed submission of assignments, cheating during and missing assessments, grading standard, and provision of services of special needs like physical disability as well as academic support such as tutorial. SMUC has developed and adopted policies, incorporating a wide range of issues related to students in the institutions in general and attending a given course in particular. The faculty hand book (2007) indicates that as part of its dedication to students’ success, the UC is committed to providing high-quality academic advising, in order to assist students in the development and pursuit of academic objectives consistent with their life goals and the available opportunities at the UC.

In specific terms, the UC has got policies related to assessment such as cheating in examination and its consequences, and make-up examination – when it is possible (missing regular examination due to health or other serious reason) and not (to raise grade point average), who is eligible (attended at least 80 percent lecture and 90 percent practical sessions), and how to request for (apply to the faculty Dean in collaboration to the department). There is also a grading policy adopted by the UC, according to Faculty Hand Book (2007), that shows how grades are assigned (A, B, C, D, P, AU, F, I, and NG), for what quality of work (Excellent, Good, Fair, Passing, Pass, Audit, Failure, Incomplete, and No grade), the values or points attached to (4.0, 3.0, 2.0, 1.0, 0, 0, 0, None, and None) and the passing and non-passing (F, I, NG) grades. Situations of that lead to the non-passing grades (especially, I and NG) in a course are also indicated, which are important for students to know.
As far as the examination of the course outlines vis-à-vis such institutional policies are concerned, only issues related to class attendance were mentioned by about a quarter (27.2 percent) of the samples while the associated academic services were observed in few (3.7 percent) and the issues related to assignment, invigilation, grading, and special needs were not found at all in any of the samples.

**Course content**

The course contents that instructors plan to offer was assessed in terms of how they are presented in the course outline, which included the list (major and sub), the logical arrangement, the objectives/learning outcomes, and the schedule/time allocation for the (major) contents.

As part of course planning, dealing with the course content is the most important aspect that requires thinking at the outset. This might be well noted by University of the Sciences in Philadelphia (n.d.) which says ‘Before you immerse yourself in the day to day thinking of your courses, make a list of the big picture concepts that you want your students to gain in the course. In ten years when they have forgotten all of the details and most of the content, what do you want them to remember about this discipline? In addition, do you want them to acquire better thinking skills, be able to see connections, have a new set of skills, obtain new values, etc.?'

It would be worthwhile mentioning that the course content is a variable of the course outcomes or objectives. Wynne (n.d.) mentioned that while planning for the content, it is important to think about how the material can be organized and presented best so as to reach the proposed learning outcomes.

Fuhrmann and Grasha (1983), cited in Davis (1999), recommend identifying both content goals (for example, ‘understand the key forces affecting the rise of Japan as an economic power’) and non-content goals (like ‘become a good team member and work collaboratively with other students’ or ‘learn to tolerate opposing points of view’). What do you expect from students? How will students demonstrate that they have mastered the goal? What will constitute acceptable performance? Designing course content, says Davis (1999), is somewhat like planning a transcontinental trip. First, list everything that you feel might be important for students to know, just as you might stuff several large suitcases with everything that you think you might need on a trip. Then severely pare down the topics you have listed, just as you might limit yourself to one or two pieces of luggage. Research shows that too much detail and too many topics work against students' learning the material (Beard and Hartley, 1984).
Looking at the case herein, observation from the samples revealed that the course contents are identified and listed in the outlines of all the courses offered. However, the majority (66.7 percent) of instructors failed to state the content outcomes or objectives in their course outlines while half (54.3 percent) of them failed to show the content schedule or time allocated for the contents in their course outlines (Fig. 2).

Distinguishing between essential and optional materials in the course content would be important. As Davis (1999) says, basic material should be mastered by every student, recommended material should be mastered by every student seeking a good knowledge of the subject, and optional material should be mastered by those students with special interests and aptitudes. However, lectures and exams should focus on the basic elements of the course. Recommended and optional topics, labelled as such for students, can be included in lectures, supplementary materials, and readings. However, given the observation from sampled course outlines, none of the instructors at SMUC attempted to differentiate the contents of the courses they offered into basic, recommended, and optional categories. It is also essential to devise a logical arrangement for the course content. It can be arranged chronologically, by topic or category, from concrete to abstract or vice versa, from theory to application or vice versa, by increasing level of skill or complexity, or by other schemes. Some courses demand a chronological sequence.
Table 3 Perception of respondents on the structure of the course content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response category</th>
<th>Arranged logically</th>
<th>Identified as compulsory &amp; optional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>50.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To explore the practice at SMUC, an inquiry was made to students who participated in this study regarding the logical arrangement of the course contents in the course outlines they received. As a result, more than 2/3rd (68.2 percent) responded positively by reporting that contents were arranged logically mostly (50.2 percent) or always (18.0 percent). About 1/4th (24.1 percent) of the respondents were caught in the middle and reported that contents were sometimes arranged logically. Meanwhile, 7.7 percent of the respondents indicated that they rarely (5.5 percent) or never (2.2 percent) observed the logical arrangement of the contents in the outlines of the courses they attended during the time referred herein (Table 3).

Instructional methods

Among the major components of a course outline is the course offering method. This refers to the instructional approach adopted and applied during the course period. Apart from lecture, a lot is expected from the instructor and the students in a given course. According to University of the Sciences in Philadelphia (n.d), most of us plan courses in terms of how many hours the students spend in class. However, the unit that we should be using is learning time, not class time. The general wisdom is that for every hour spent in class students in undergraduate courses are supposed to spend 3 hours out of class. Therefore, for a three hour per week of classroom time, the students really should have 9 hours of learning time per week for that class. Now divide the 9 hours into what students can do on their own (often learned material), what should be done with others (such as discussions), what a teacher is needed for (answering questions, doing demonstrations, modelling problem solving).

The selection of appropriate instructional methods for each class meeting is also appreciated by Davis (1999). Instead of asking, says Davis, what am I going to do in each class session, focus on what students are going to do (Bligh, 1971). Identify which topics lend themselves to which types of classroom activities, and select one or more activities for each class session: lectures; small group discussions; independent work; simulations, debates, case studies, role playing; demonstrations; experiential learning activities; instructional technologies; collaborative learning work, and so on.
Table 4 Instructional methods identified in the course outline, by Department

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Instructional method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>Socratic method, lecture, reading, group discussion, case study, essay, individual and group works, presentation, internship, role play, workplace visits, project, independent work, pair work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>Lectures, seminar, assignment, practical exercises, demonstrations, group discussion, group work, taking measurements, reading, demonstration, case study/analysis, practical/lab exercise, project, internship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics and Basic Sciences</td>
<td>Gapped lecture, group discussion, problem solving, cross over grouping, pyramiding, independent work, pair work, group work, brain storming, presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages</td>
<td>Lecture, discussion, presentation, reading, class work, homework, peer teaching, pair discussion/work, group discussion/work, assignment and reflection, critic, role play, comparison, problem solving, question and answer, modelling, portfolio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>Gapped lecture, group discussion, pair work, peer teaching, class discussion, reading assignment, presentation, project, role play, debate, brain storming, case study, textbook review, field visit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>Gapped lecture, group discussion, group assignment, individual assignment, presentation, field visit, guest lecture, case study, role play, question and answer, book review, panel discussion, project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSOM</td>
<td>Nothing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Management</td>
<td>Lecture, guest lecture, presentation, discussion, field visit, seminar, reading, demonstration, project, practical exercise, internship, case study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>Lecture, group discussion, group assignment, individual assignment, illustration, case study, internship</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For each topic, decide how you will prepare the class for instruction (through reviews or previews), present the new concepts (through lectures, demonstrations, discussion), have students apply what they have learned (through discussion, in-class writing activities, collaborative work), and assess whether students can put into practice what they have learned through testing, discussion, problem solving, and so on (Ibid). The instructional methods planned to be applied by instructors of the UC are summarized by department in Table 4.

**Assessment methods**

The assessment method to be used in the teaching–learning process is related directly to the output and outcomes of the course. University of the Sciences in Philadelphia (n.d) well described the relationship of assessment with the different aspects of a course at large. Are you writing low level objectives, yet expecting high level learning? Or are you writing high level objectives, and only examining for lower level learning? When you develop your materials for a course, be internally consistent. If you are expecting higher levels of learning, then make sure the students see that they will be examined/evaluated in a manner that is consistent with higher level learning.
Table 5 Taxonomy of thinking, learning outcomes and assessment method

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>Skills Demonstrated</th>
<th>Question Cues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Remembering (Knowledge)</strong></td>
<td>Can the student RECALL information?</td>
<td>List, define, tell, describe, identify, show, label, collect, examine, tabulate, quote, name, who, when, where</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Observation and recall of information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge of dates, events, places</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge of major ideas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mastery of subject matter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Understanding (Comprehension)</strong></td>
<td>Can the student EXPLAIN ideas or concepts?</td>
<td>Summarise, describe, interpret, contrast, predict, associate, distinguish, estimate, differentiate, discuss, extend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grasp meaning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Translate knowledge into new context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpret facts, compare, contrast</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Order, group, infer causes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predict consequences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Applying (Application)</strong></td>
<td>Can the student USE the new knowledge in another familiar situation?</td>
<td>Apply, demonstrate, calculate, complete, illustrate, show, solve, examine, modify, relate, change, classify, experiment, discover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use methods, concepts, theories in new situations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Solve problems using required skills or knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analyzing (Analysis)</strong></td>
<td>Can the student DIFFERENTIATE between constituent parts?</td>
<td>Analyse, separate, order, explain, connect, classify, arrange, divide, compare, select, explain, infer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisation of parts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seeing patterns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognition of hidden meanings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Identification of components</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluating (Evaluation)</strong></td>
<td>Can the student JUSTIFY a decision or course of action?</td>
<td>Assess, decide, rank, grade, test, measure, recommend, convince, select, judge, explain, discriminate, support, conclude, compare, summarise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compare and discriminate between ideas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assess value of theories, presentations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Make choices based on reasoned argument</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verify value of evidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognise subjectivity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Creating (Synthesis)</strong></td>
<td>Can the student GENERATE new products, ideas or ways of viewing things?</td>
<td>Combine, integrate, modify, rearrange, substitute, plan, create, design, invent, what if?, compose, formulate, prepare, generalise, rewrite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use old ideas to create new ones</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Generalise from given facts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relate knowledge from several areas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predict, draw conclusions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Higher level evaluations might include multiple choice questions, involving problem solving based upon a scenario, student reports, presentations, asking student to graphically or pictorially represent a concept or develop a schema for organizing the major topics of the semester, essay questions, critique primary literature in the field, etc. Many of these techniques can be streamlined in the time required for correcting. In the 1950's Benjamin Bloom created a taxonomy, which is revised by Anderson and Krathwohl (2001), for categorizing levels of thinking (Wynne, 1999). The taxonomy provides a useful structure in which to categorize learning outcomes and, subsequently, assessment questions.

Introductory courses may have outcomes at the initial levels of abstraction, whereas accredited and certified courses would be expected to have more complex outcomes at higher levels of abstraction (Wynne, 1999). Table 5 shows the levels of abstraction in the order of the revised taxonomy with the original categories printed in brackets. Regarding the methods of assessment practiced at SMUC, observations from the sample course outlines indicated that it is one of the most commonly considered items in the course plan of instructors. Of the entire sample outlines, 92.6 percent incorporated the list of assessment methods, 70.4 percent attached values to the respective assessment method while only 8.6 percent presented the schedule for the assessments using those methods (Fig. 3).
Figure 3 Items about instructional and assessment methods in the course outlines

The commonly planned assessment methods at SMUC, given observations from the sample course outlines, were summarised by Department in Table 6.

Table 6 Assessment methods stated in the course outline, by Department

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Assessment method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>Class attendance, class participation, essay, case assignment, project, homework, quiz, test and exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>Assignment, quiz, presentation, case analysis, project, lab assignment, test, exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics and Basic Sciences</td>
<td>Class work, class participation, home work, self assessment, peer assessment, assignment, oral questions, test, exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages</td>
<td>Class participation, checklist, project, self assessment, peer assessment, portfolio, practical exercise, test, exam, group critic, group demonstration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>Individual assignment, group work, presentation, class participation, quiz, test, exam, attendance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>Class attendance, class participation, class work, quiz, test, case study, group assignment, term paper, presentation, exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSOM</td>
<td>Class work, assignment, project, quiz, exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Class attendance, class participation, class work, quiz, homework, project, case study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>assignment, presentation, test, exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>Class attendance, class participation, assignment, case study, project, class work, test, exam</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Course materials/ references

Identification and presentation of the reference materials for a course is the other important aspect of the course planning process. While talking about selecting textbooks and readings, Davis (1999), emphasises on choosing textbooks and reading assignments that reflect the course goals. The textbook exerts a greater influence on what students learn than the teaching method (McKeachie, 1986 cited in
Davis, 1999). It might be essential to explain to students how the readings relate to the course goals and classroom activities. Some faculty assign texts that repeat material covered in class or vice versa in order to reinforce the content. Some readings may be assigned to elaborate on the lectures by providing applications and examples. Some readings may be intended to convey additional material or contrasting points of view (Davis, 1999). As far as the experience of instructors at SMUC is concerned, the identification of reference materials was assessed with respect to presentation of the list in the course outline, pointing out the textbook, indicating those available at the libraries of the UC, and differentiating in to required, recommended and optional materials.

Figure 4 Items in the course outlines regarding the course reference materials

Observations from the sample course outlines indicated that the big majority (97.5 percent) of instructors included the list of references in their course outlines. However, about 1 of the 10 (11.1 percent) instructors presented the list by classifying the materials in to required and recommended reference. Further low proportion (8.6 percent) of them indicated the textbook of the course while none of the instructors pointed out the references that were available at the libraries of the UC (Fig. 4).

Various authors suggest considering a range of criteria in selecting readings. If several textbooks, reports, or articles are appropriate to your course goals, select among them by judging the following (Lowman, 1984; "Selecting a Textbook," 1987; Wright, 1987 cited in Davis, 1999):
• Accuracy and currency of content
• Coherence and clarity of content
• Level of difficulty and interest for students (challenging but not inappropriately difficult)
• Cost/ availability – choose less expensive work if it is of comparable quality, limit the cost by placing some works on reserve in the library
• Size – heavy large texts are hard to carry

Inquiries were made to students regarding the reference materials that were listed in the course outlines they received during the period referred herein. The result indicated that about a third (30.3 percent) of them said that they rarely or never saw the materials classified in to basic, recommended and optional references. About a fifth (18.5 percent) of them indicated that the references listed in the course outline were rarely or never available at the libraries of the UC while 14.0 percent responded that the references listed were rarely or never up-to-date or recent editions (Table 7).

Table 7 Perception of respondents on the structure of course references

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response category</th>
<th>Identified as basic, recommended &amp; optional</th>
<th>Available at SMUC libraries</th>
<th>Up-to-date/ recent edition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>496</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diversifying the mix of texts and articles, in addition to books, is important not only to widen the options but also to make familiar with contemporary knowledge. Advanced courses, says Davis (1999), typically include journal articles, essays, research reports, or photocopied course readers. But even in lower-division courses, students should have an opportunity to read at least a few recent publications or journal articles. In this regard, the sample course outlines from Department of Law were found ahead of others by incorporating a wide range of mixes as well as classifying them in to required and recommended materials. The task of organizing the course materials is beyond identifying and listing out the reference materials in the course outlines. The most important aspect is ensuring the availability of those materials to students sufficiently and timely. It would be necessary to communicate the store and libraries to check the stock, identify shortage, order the books early and anticipate follow-ups. Davis (1999) suggests double-checking on the progress of the order with the bookstore a month or so before the term begins. Once the books have arrived, check back with the bookstore to see how many copies there are. Furthermore, according to Davis (1999), it is important to place materials on reserve before the term begins or package reserve materials for students to purchase. Consult with campus librarians about the procedures for putting materials on reserve. Let students know in which library the readings are located, the time they are available for use, the number of copies on reserve.
Perception of Students about the Course Plan

Providing students with a course outline is an old culture of HEIs, as it is confirmed by this survey where 99.4 percent of the respondents reported that they received same at least for some of the courses they attended. But the important point might be the extent to which the course outline is serving the purpose it is intended for, which is largely dependent on the utilizability (completeness, clarity & practicality) of the course outline and the utilizing ability (awareness & skill) of students.

Figure 5 Perception about the importance of course outline

Therefore, exploring the perception of respondents about the importance of a course outline in general, in the learning process during a given course period, was attempted by pausing such questions as ‘How important is a course outline for a course you are taking?’ And, they were left with a five-scale response options between the lowest of ‘Not important’ and the highest of ‘Extremely important’. Accordingly, as it is depicted in Fig. 5, the majority (82.4 percent) of the respondents highly acknowledged the importance a course outline at large with an ‘Extremely important’ (46.9 percent) and ‘Very important’ (35.5 percent) response. However, a significant proportion (17.6 percent) of them rated between ‘Moderately important’ and ‘Not important’.
Similarly, respondents were asked about their general view regarding how informative were the course outlines they received for the courses they registered during the last academic year. 51.3 percent of them responded that the course outlines were very informative and 46.0 percent said that they were moderately informative, while the remaining 2.6 percent reported either the course outlines to be non-informative or never received a course outline for any of the courses they attended (Fig. 6).

Generally, among the major components of a course outline, the course description (91.0 percent), the course objective (90.5 percent), the method of course offering (83.5 percent), assessment method (79.8 percent),
percent) and the reference materials (76.9 percent) are perceived by students as the top-five in the order of importance (Fig. 7).

**Implementation of the course plan**

The potential role of the course outline in facilitating the teaching – learning process is beyond considerable level. However, reaping the maximum benefit thereof might be a subject of various factors including the nature (quality) of the course outline itself, the awareness of students about it and the commitment of instructors to abide with. Hence, the practice of instructors and students in the application of the course outlines was examined with reference to the major components.

**Application of course outlines by instructors**

The practices of instructors in implementing their course offering plans was explored indirectly through observations and perceptions of students regarding instructors’ utilization of the course outlines while offering them the courses. Hence, inquiries were posed to sample students regarding such variables as following the course or class meeting schedule, applying instructional and assessment methods, content coverage by instructors as per their plans or course outlines. When students were asked whether or not instructors, in most cases, were presenting themselves at class meetings for instruction as per schedule of the courses they attended during the period this study referred to, the majority (57.1 percent) responded positively. The proportion of negative responses or deviation from schedule reported (31.0 percent), however, is considerable where most (22.9 percent) of which was for staying behind schedule (Table 8).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inquiry</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Mostly</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>N/A</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do instructors cover (at least the compulsory) contents in time?</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 8 The practices of instructors in applying course schedule**

In the mean time, the remained 11.9 percent of the students couldn’t respond because they perceived no class meeting schedules were in the course outlines they received or not provided with the course outlines at all (Table 8). Regarding course content coverage by instructors, which is strongly associated with the above variable, only 9.5 percent of the respondents acknowledged the complete coverage of the course contents by the instructors while 71.1 percent of the responses were affirmative in the case of most courses. Those respondents who said the complete coverage of contents were in some or rare cases or not at all accounted for 18.4 percent, which seems significant (Table 9).
Table 9 Instructors’ application of instructional and assessment methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inquiry</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do instructors apply all methods of teaching stated in the course outline?</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Always Mostly Sometimes Rarely Never N/A Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>7.7 55.6 24.6 6.5 2.6 3.0 100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do instructors apply all methods of assessment in the course outline?</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Always Mostly Sometimes Rarely Never N/A Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>10.5 56 23.6 7.1 0.4 2.4 100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Utilization of course outlines by students

Course outlines, although important for the efficacy of instructors too, are meant principally to help students as a guide for tracking the flow and studying the contents of the courses. However, making use of the course outline would raise the question of its availability in the first place. Hence, an inquiry was made to the respondents (students) on the degree of availability of course outlines for the courses they attended during the period referred herein.

Figure 8 Response on the availability of course outlines

The majority (58.7 percent) of the responses indicated that course outlines were available for all the courses attended while about a quarter (27.6 percent) of them said that it was available for most of the courses. Meanwhile, those who reported unsatisfactory access to the course outlines (sometimes or rarely or never available for the course attended) were considerable with a share of 13.6 percent (Fig. 8). Even if the course outlines were made available, their utilizability could be affected by the quality (clarity, sufficiency and accuracy) of information therein. One of the common drawbacks of the course outlines students were provided with, according to the respondents, was unavailability of the listed reference books in the libraries of the UC (reported by 31.4 percent of respondents). It is also observed
from the sample course outlines that nearly all (98.6 percent) of them failed to indicate which of the references listed were available at the libraries of the UC and didn’t inform the whereabouts of any of the reference materials.

When asked what they did to deal with the absence of the references from the libraries of the UC, 47.3 percent of the students responded that they depend entirely on the lecture notes while 52.6 percent of them tried to find the materials from somewhere else. Course outlines are thought important by students because they help them to track the progress of the course instruction. However, sometimes the course outlines fail to serve this purpose effectively when instructors fail to cover part of the course contents they planned or incorporated in the course outline. Students responded differently when they faced such a situation. Most of the respondents who encountered this situation indicated that they read by themselves (59 percent) to cover entirely or the compulsory part alone (48.7 percent) while the other 41.0 percent ignored it entirely (Fig. 9).

**Figure 9. Practices of dealing with the course contents instructors failed to cover during the course period**

The failure to complete the course contents as per the schedule preset thereof was reported by respondents from all departments, though variation is observed among. Generally, the proportion of respondents who reported encountering such a situation is averaged to 7.9 percent and exhibited a range of 15.5 points among departments – with the highest of 20.0 percent for Languages and the lowest of 4.5 percent in the case of Marketing Management (Table 10). As to the reaction of students to the failure of instructors in covering the contents at the right time, the majority of students in most of the departments preferred skipping the uncovered contents entirely while those of Marketing Management (100 percent), Law (80.0 percent) and Accounting (83.3 percent) Departments tried to cover at least the compulsory contents by themselves or through reading (Table 10).
Table 10. The practices of students to deal with the contents not covered by instructors during the course period, by department

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Measure to cover the topics not covered in class</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Skip all</td>
<td>Read all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Dept</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Dept</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>% within Dept</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Dept</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Dept</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Dept</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSOM</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Dept</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean while, covering all of the contents (that instructors failed to do so) through reading was reported by small proportion (10.2 percent) of respondents who were concerned with the failure of instructors to cover the course contents. Similarly, those respondents were found to be from few departments – Accounting (16.7 percent) and Marketing Management (66.7 percent) Departments only (Table 10).

Table 11. The practices of students to deal with the contents not covered by instructors during the course period, by mode of study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of education (Division)</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Measure to cover the topics not covered in class</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Skip all</td>
<td>Read all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Division</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Division</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking at the problem of instructors’ failure to cover the course contents at the right time with respect to the mode of education, the situation of extension enrolment (10.3 percent) was more pronounced than the case of regular (6.2 percent). And, the students who tried to cover (at least the compulsory) contents, left out by the instructor, through reading were more in the extension (76.2
percent) than that of the regular (38.9 percent) program. Most (64.7 percent) of the full-time students preferred to skip the course contents that instructors failed to cover (Table 11).

CONCLUSION

The importance of a well thought course delivery that requires a thorough planning and strict execution thereof is reiterated by many to ensure the provision of quality education in higher learning institutions. This, however, needs to be practiced on a standardized, harmonized and continuous basis. It should also be noted that the monitoring and evaluation of the practice is equally important.

The study revealed that a planned course delivering is a commonly practiced task across all instructors, departments and mode of enrolments in the UC. The course planning approach of instructors also took in to account most of the aspects that are thought to be important by most authors referred herein, given the components incorporated in the course outlines. However, a considerable degree of variations is observed in the course planning exercise among instructors at large and, hence, within and among departments. This is exhibited by the difference in the template used for and items incorporated in the course outline. The variation is also seen in the course delivering exercise due obviously to difference in the plan mentioned above and deviation from the plan as it was perceived by students.

The difference in the content and structure of the course outlines that were produced by instructors could be attributed largely to the absence (or failure to make use, if there) of a standardized template for course planning both at faculty/ department and institution levels. Meanwhile, the deviation of the course delivering exercise from the plan could be a result of absence or lenience of monitoring of the undertaking at large. The lack of standard and homogeneity of the course plans of instructors and departments, with respect to basic components, together with failure to abide with the plan while course delivering influenced the quality and applicability of the course outlines negatively, given the challenges that students faced regarding course content coverage and access to reference materials among other things. In regards to the applicability of the course outlines, the awareness about the importance and the skill of utilization of course outline by students might be critical as it is observed in the importance attached to the components thereof by students. The course description and objectives/ learning outcomes are among the major components of the course plan since concerned with what that course is all about, why it is necessary (justification) and what is to be acquired from. This study disclosed that this is well taken by nearly all instructors. However, the more important point is the clarity of the message therein to the students, especially in the cases of common and elective courses. A respondent from SSOM who returned the questionnaire back with a question why she is required of taking calculus might be evident for this.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This study is the first of its kind in the institution and so is the methodological design adopted. Apart from the limitations mentioned herein, the scope of the study is thought to be shallow in depth and narrow in breadth. Hence, the output of this work needs to be handled with caution. It is advisable to
undertake the study at a Faculty level because, for one thing, faculties are the first and foremost concerned bodies to know about the prevailing situation and monitor the issue. Secondly, it would be easier to examine the subject in more detailed scope than when it is done at institution level. Among the aspects that students require to know and found undermined by instructors were those in the category of ‘General Information’ about the course. One of them was information regarding the instructor – name, office location, means of remote communication, and consultation hours. These are critical to help students who are in need of the academic support of instructors in a specific course, as it is clearly stated in the faculty hand book of the UC.

As far as the institutional policy is concerned, there might be a number of issues that students would require of knowing and respecting. There could be also a number of ways for the UC to make students know about them. However, there are some policies directly related and specific to courses that students need to be reminded about whenever they register for a course, like the importance of class attendance which was observed in most of the course outlines examined herein. Mentioning in the course outline about issues of assessment such as missing, make-up, cheating, and late submission; of grading like valuation rules and what leads to I or NG; as well as support services available for academic and physical disabilities in brief (and where to find the details) would be necessary. Failure to cover the course contents by the instructors as per planned schedule or at the right time of the course period is thought to be requiring serious attention for at least two points: leading students to unnecessary and unbearable burden to cover by themselves, and shortfall in knowledge/ skill of students thereby challenge for employability at workplaces since they mostly ignore those contents. For remedy, monitoring of instructors, prioritizing the contents by differentiating in to compulsory and recommended, and revision of course contents could be points to consider.

Regarding the course references, it is important to consider distinguishing the text, required and recommended books or materials, the timeliness, the availability in the libraries of the UC, and the location (in and out of the UC) where students can look for and get them.

REFERENCES

Quality of Academic Staff in Ethiopian Higher Education: Views of Students, Department Chairs and Deans of Faculties

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Abstract
The main purpose of this study was to explore the quality of academic teaching staff in Ethiopian higher education as perceived by students, department chairs and faculty deans. As a secondary objective, the study also intended to review factors that influence the quality of teachers in higher learning institutions. The study adopted a survey methodology for data collection using closed ended-questionnaires. The research included 11 public universities and 2 private higher learning institutions. A sample of 576 students, 197 department chairs and 55 deans (N=55) were included in the survey. Findings show that the quality of teachers in higher learning institutions was not high as expected, but better than average. A variety of factors were identified to have influence on teachers’ quality including low salaries and social acceptance, large class size and lack of teaching materials. From these findings it was concluded that there is a need to improve teachers’ quality by paying attention to issues identified to have associations with academic staff.

INTRODUCTION
The academic profession constitutes the backbone of any higher education institution. Clark (1983) indicates that higher education plays very many roles, but one can centrally refer to its functions in the creation, transmission, application, refinement and conservation of knowledge. Without any doubt, the academia plays a central role in the accomplishment of these roles of higher education. Taking this into account, Enders (2006) calls the academic profession “a profession of professions”. According to Stromquist (2007), professors are central actors in higher education institutions, for it is they who engage in the knowledge production and transmission that constitute the raison d’etre of such settings. However, Altbach (2006) indicates that the academic profession is under pressure in comparative and international context. According to him, academics are more challenged by demands for more accountability, less availability of research funds, demands to teach more and looming deterioration of working conditions. Stromquist (2007), also observes that the academic profession in many countries is under pressure for higher academic credentials whereby those who work in prestigious institutions and those in public universities in general face the demand to possess higher levels of education beyond the master’s degree.

The roles of academic teaching staff are highly recognized in the Higher Education Proclamations issued in 2003 and 2009 in Ethiopia. Both Proclamation No. 351/2003 and No. 650/2009 are based on the principles that academic teachers of institutions are entitled to the rights of commenting on the quality of teaching-learning process, rendering community and consultative services, conducting research and studies beneficial to the institution and the country, and are not to be held liable for personal views and beliefs in the course of fulfilling academic duties. Proclamations No. 351/2003 and No. 650/2009 are also more elaborate in putting academics at the center-stage of higher education by way of summarizing their responsibilities. According to these policy documents, academic staff are responsible to teach, including assisting students in need of special support, undertake problem-solving studies and researches and transfer knowledge and skills, participate in curriculum development, and be involved in the formulation and implementation of the curricula.
development, review, and enhancement, uphold the guiding values of the institution, counsel students in acquainting themselves with the mission and guiding values of the institution, devote full working time to the institution.

Academic staff are also responsible to participate in the services provided by the institution, to work in teams and respect ideas of students in the class, to be evaluated for the services s/he rendered by colleagues, students and the institution, to participate in teaching, counselling and other income generating activities.

Certainly, academic teaching staff members need to have the required qualities and competencies in order to adequately play the multiple roles expected of them in higher education. The concept of quality varies based upon the definitions adopted, but in the Ethiopian Education and Training Policy Implementation manual (MOE, 1994), teachers quality was defined in terms of ability to teach, diligence, professional interest, mental and physical fitness. By enlisting the duties, responsibilities and rights of academic staff, Proclamations No.351/2003 and No.650/2009 also indicated the required qualities and competencies of academic teachers who are the core members of higher education. In addition to these proclaimed views, there are also unofficial views which demand higher quality staff in higher learning institutions, implying capabilities of academic staff to meet duties and responsibilities.

The existence of expressed interests in the quality of academic staff of higher education institutions does not commensurate that explore the nature or level of quality of academic staff in Ethiopia. Unfortunately, what is not known weighs more than what is known about the competencies of academic staff particularly in terms of demonstrated practices in the classroom. The purpose of this research was to fill this gap and explore the qualities of academic staff from the official and unofficial perspectives by surveying the views of very relevant stakeholders in higher education.

METHODOLOGY
A survey method which was based on quantitative methods of data collection was used. This particular data was collected to obtain cross-sectional information using questionnaires. There were three types of questionnaires which used closed-ended items in order to obtain the required information. These were Students, Department Chairs’ and Deans’ questionnaires. All items applied a rating scale which ranged from 1-5 (1=very high, 5=very low). Data analysis was done using the central tendency, although standard deviation was given for sensing the level of dispersion of scores. In order to strengthen the validity of the instruments of data collection, the same type of items were given to different respondents (see Brewer, J. and Hunter, A., 1989). Students were treated with different, but still equivalent quality measures taking into account the experience they have in order to provide the required information.

In the study were included 576 sampled students, 197 department chairs and 55 Deans in 13 universities (2 private and 11 public universities) who were asked to directly give opinions and views on different types of competencies or qualities academic teachers demonstrate in the course of their services. Moreover, deans and department chairs were asked to give their opinions of factors that affect the quality of teachers of higher education for implying possible explanations of the observed level of quality of academic staff.
**MAIN FINDINGS**

Tertiary education students were asked to express their views about the quality of their teachers’ vis-à-vis the five quality characteristics, ability to teach, diligence, professional interest, and mental fitness noted in the policy. A five-point-scale (very high=1, high =2, average =3, low=4, and very low=5). The results of their response are summarized in the table below.

**Table 1: Student views about the academic staff quality of teachers in tertiary education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Staff Quality</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ability to teach</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>.928</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diligence</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>.939</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional interest</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>1.007</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical fitness</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>1.016</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental fitness</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.003</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>576</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table indicates that the overall mean score of student responses about the quality of their teachers is 2.36 with a standard deviation of 0.1. The overall reliability of item measuring the construct (academic staff quality) using Cronbach's alpha based on standardized items is 0.863. This means that according to tertiary education students, the quality of the academic staff is between high and average. However, if we put the views of students in a rank order it indicates that the number one quality of the academic staff is mental fitness followed by professional interest, ability to teach, physical fitness and finally their least quality being diligence.

The fact that the ability of teachers to teach did not rank “high” among the expected qualities can be an issue of concern for the Ethiopian higher education sector. According to Perkin (2006), teaching and scholarship combined with corporate autonomy and academic freedom is one of the main purposes of a school of higher learning. Proclamations No. 305/2003 and 650/2009 are also predicated on the centrality of teaching.

There can be many reasons for lack of capacity in teaching, but teachers’ qualification can be one of the main ones. According to Gebre Mariam (2009), all Ethiopian universities except Addis Ababa University do not fulfil the requirement of Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency which demands that at least 30% of the teaching staff must have Ph.D. Degrees. Even Addis Ababa University meets the 30% requirement through the employment of expatriate staff. The reported level of diligence among higher education staff by students may also be due to several factors, but still the issue of competence can be considered as an important factor. Teachers need to know how to work with students and the findings are indicative of how much professional development activities are required.

Academic department chairs in higher learning institutions in Ethiopia were also asked to assess and rate the competence of academic staff members in their department vis-à-vis the measures outlined in the Ethiopian Higher Education Proclamation using a five-point-scale (very high=1, very low=5). The following table depicts the summary of the results:
Table 2: Academic department chairs’ view about the quality of academic staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competencies of Academic Staff</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transmitting knowledge to students</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respecting student ideas in class</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>.819</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and rendering services</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>.851</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producing competent and democratically cultivated graduates</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>.886</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being open to evaluation</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>1.017</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working in teams</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.043</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not promoting political partisanship</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>1.182</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assisting, counselling, and guiding students</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>.985</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in services rendered by the institution</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.003</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing assistance to students with special needs</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>1.076</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing support to one’s own and other higher education institutions</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.965</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in institutional income generating activities</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.149</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting problem solving studies and research</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.097</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the above table, the overall mean score of the responses of the department chairs about the quality of their academic staff is 2.23 with a standard deviation of 0.288 and a reliability of the overall items measuring the construct using Cronbach’s alpha based on standardized items 0.910. This means that the judgment of academic department chairs regarding the quality of the academic staff is no better than that of students’ as they have rated them between high and average. The most significant finding of this section is that department chairs have rated the ability of teachers to transmit knowledge to their students at relatively more than high level. This is quite contrary to student views. Perhaps, department chairs can be very remote from what happens in the classroom since visits or classroom supervisions by department heads are a rarity in higher education institutions. In this case, students are more knowledgeable since they spend considerable time directly with the teachers. However, the department chairs have the view that most academic staff members are very poor in conducting problem solving studies and researches.

From the above table, it is also possible to observe that teachers’ participation in income generating activities, their provision of support to other institutions in need of support and their efforts to help students with special needs are not high. However, these are also areas where the Higher Education Proclamations have given higher emphasis for achievement.

The view of deans of tertiary education institutions about the competence of the academic staff is also in agreement with that of students and department chairs. This is apparent as the overall mean score of the deans’ responses about this issue is 2.25 with a standard deviation of 0.311. This means the quality of the academic staff according to the deans’ view is also between high and average. The following list provides the summary of the results of the deans’ views about the quality of academic staff listed hierarchically starting from teachers’ relatively high quality at the top and their observed very low qualities toward the bottom of the list.

- Transmitting knowledge to students
- Producing competent and democratically cultivated graduates
- Teaching and rendering services to learners
- Participating in services rendered by the institution
- Working in teams
- Respecting student ideas in class
- Being open to evaluation
- Assisting, counselling, and guiding students
- Participating in institutional income generating activities
- Providing assistance to students with special needs
- Not promoting political partisanship
- Providing support to one's own and other higher education institutions
- Conducting problem solving studies and research

Factors affecting teachers in higher education
Department Chairs and Deans were requested to share their views about factors affecting teachers in tertiary education institutions with regard to the teaching profession. The following table describes the summary of these views about such factors (scale: very high=1, very low=5).

Table 3: Academic department chairs’ view about the factors affecting teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Dept’ chairs Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Deans Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Large class size</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>1.424</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low salaries</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.436</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>.756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequacy of teaching facilities/materials</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.424</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of incentives including health insurance, educational benefits</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.694</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor supervision and professional support</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>1.234</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor conditions of service</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>1.356</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low regard for academic staff</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.191</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of in-service training</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.293</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of accommodation</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.251</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of career promotion</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.152</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of proper transference for academic staff</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.348</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too demanding load teaching</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.522</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of student interest in education</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.129</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation problems</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.348</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor attendance in courses</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.182</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University/college location in remote area</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.525</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>.756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.73</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.203</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.75</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.810</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that large class size, low salaries and inadequacy of learning materials constitute the three most affecting factors for teaching in higher education. These ratings are equally indicated by department chairs and deans. The fact that class size is reported as having a significant influence should not be astonishing. The reason is that the growth of enrolment at all levels in higher
education, and particularly in the Government sector, is the highest of all educational levels having about an annual average increase of over 33% per year over the last five years (MOE, 2007/08).

Low salaries as an impending factor for teacher quality are not limited to Ethiopia. In a comparative perspective, Eders (2006) indicates that there are high and low paying countries even in the industrialized country. According to Enders (2006); Belgium and the United States of America are among the top paying countries from developed nations while such countries as Finland, Norway, Sweden etc are considered to be relatively low paying nations. Furthermore, Enders (2006) indicates that it is a general rule that academic salaries are very low in developing countries.

**Discussions and implications for practice**

The above findings indicate that the quality of higher education teachers is not high. Students, department chairs and deans all agree that there is a lot to be desired from staff of higher education institution. One of the biggest problems for deans and chairs has to do with conducting research while students said that diligence is a problem. Moreover, department chairs say that participation in income generation, providing support to other institutions, and providing assistance to students with special needs are some of the problems of higher education staff.

Factors affecting the academics of higher education are enormous: large class size, low salaries and inadequacy of learning materials, work load, lack of student interest, transportation problems, poor service conditions, low regard for academic staff, lack of career promotion, and lack of accommodation are some of such factors.

These findings imply that the quality of teachers needs to be improved as higher education institutions are expected to be centres of excellence for the production and distribution of new knowledge. One way to do this was identified as improving factors that negatively affect their capacities to accomplish their duties as well as expected. These include salaries, class size, teaching materials and other several conditions.

**REFERENCES**


Teaching, Learning and Assessment Practices in Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions: The Quality Aspect in Focus

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Abstract
Quality in higher education is a multi-dimensional concept, which should embrace all its functions and activities: teaching and academic programs, research and scholarships, staffing, students, buildings, facilities, equipment, services to the community and the academic environment. In view of this both public and private Higher Education Institutions are under scrutiny. However, critics commonly allege that private institutions are identified with low academic quality. Quality is not simply defined in terms of inputs and resources; quality is also described in terms of processes and outcomes. The purpose of the study is, therefore, revolved around the processes dimension of quality in Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). The study focused on the ways in which HEIs deliver there academic programs with special reference to Teaching, learning and Assessment. In this qualitative inquiry data was drawn from, HERQA’s institutional quality audit reports, self evaluation documents, the investigator’s experience as quality auditor and the related literature. The teaching, learning and assessment practices of 14 HEIs have been analyzed. Thus, the study revealed among others the following.

The teaching-learning process is still highly dominated by the traditional forms of teaching especially the lecture; there are no standard criteria set by the institutions to keep the balance between theory and practice; it seems universal that the institution have no explicit written policy on teaching and learning; very few staff maintain regular consultation hours for students, it is virtually non-existence; majority of the senior courses are taught by fresh undergraduate instructors; students spoke of staff not turning up to teach; and in most cases tutorial are not part of the teaching and learning regime. The mid-semester and end-of-semester closed examinations predominate as tools of assessment in almost all institutions; grade are mostly determined by using the norm-references system; there is no wide spread practices of anonymous marking, of moderation, of double marking or of the systematic development of external examiners; the institutions appear to have no specific policy document on assessment ;and there is no transparent system that ensures students are assessed appropriately and graded fairly.

The study also revealed some exemplary practices by the institutions which appear to be relevant to share in order to enhance quality in teaching, learning and assessment. Furthermore, the study also indicated that similar trends are observable in all the HEIs in regard to teaching, learning and assessment practices. Nevertheless, the private institutions are generally smaller in size, limited in programs, market-oriented and fee and tuition-dependent. The overall conclusion is that the HEIs should extent more efforts in a number of areas to ensure the quality of their programs that fit to the standards as per their mission. Finally some recommendations were forwarded for further enhancement of quality in the processes dimension.
BACKGROUND

Higher education in Ethiopia

Modern higher education in Ethiopia was initiated with the opening of University College of Addis Ababa in 1950. In 1961 most of the established colleges were reorganized under the Haile Selassie I University, which the latter changed its name to Addis Ababa University after the Dergue (Military Junta) took over in 1974 (Wondwosen 2008). His Excellency Dr. Sintayehu W/Michael, Minister of Education, in his opening speech at the 5th National Conference on Private Higher Education Institutions, 2007, stated:

*It is almost sixty years since higher education in our country began …. Up to the turn of 1991, there were only two universities in the country with their total number of students not more than 15,000 and their annual intake capacity of only 3,000. Of the two, the then Alemaya University of Agriculture, now Haramaya University, used to offer training only in agriculture-related areas of studies. (Proceedings of the 5th National Conference on Private Higher Education Institutions in Ethiopia 2007, p.iii).*

Until 2000, the gross enrollment rate (GER) of higher education in Ethiopia had only been limited to 0.8 percent – a figure far less than the Sub-Saharan average of 4 percent (World Bank 2003). As latest literature indicated, Ethiopia is currently undertaking major public higher education expansion. To this end, at present there are 22 public universities and 10 more under construction. The total enrollment in higher education in 2005/06 reached 180,286, (MOE: 2006). In 2001/02 this figure was only 34,556 indicating a dramatic increase in five years time. Although Ethiopia’s higher education GER has risen from 0.5 in 1993/94 to 1.7 percent in 2001/02, this is still considered to be the lowest worldwide, ranking ahead of only a few low-income countries in Africa (World Bank 2005). As of 2008/09 the total enrollment of the higher education institutions in all programs including regular, evening, summer, and distance for all reporting government and non-government institutions is 319,217 of which 55,264 are enrolled in non-government higher education institutions and this accounts for 17.3% of the enrollment. In addition, it can be noted that over 96.8% of the enrollments comprise the undergraduate degree program (MOE: 2010).

Emergence and expansion of private higher education

In the last twelve years, the Ethiopian higher education system has witnessed a remarkable change unprecedented in its history in the form of the unanticipated emergence and expansion of Private Higher Education Institutions (PHEIs). The 1994 Education and Training Policy (ETP) of the country stressed the government’s (the then Transitional Government of Ethiopia) readiness to involve private providers in the sector. This idea, according to Wondwosen (2008), was probably the first positive step towards the establishment of private institution in the country after the collapse of the military government in 1991 which subdued private initiatives. PHEIs in Ethiopian context refer to all non-public institutions offering post-secondary education and training. Private higher education institutions in Ethiopia emerged largely from language schools and computer training centers (Teshome 2007). In addition to the ETP the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP) of Ethiopia stated the need for involving the private sector in higher education. The Higher Education Capacity Building Program Document by MOE (2002) asserted that the involvement of the private sector has to increase in the long term. One can possibly say that the legal foundation for Private
Higher Education in Ethiopia was laid for the first time in the Higher Education Proclamation No. 351/2003 (2003).

In a matter of less than a decade’s time several colleges mushroomed, throughout the country, even though at the beginning most of them are geographically concentrated in Addis Ababa.). All the PHEIs currently enroll over 39,000 students which are 23% of the total national enrolment in higher education (Rayner and Tesfaye 2005). The accredited private and non-government higher education institutions in the country account for about 24.8% of the 2004/05 overall (degree and diploma levels) enrolment and about 9.3% of the degree level enrolments of the system (Teshome 2007). The Education Statistic Annual Abstract (2005/6) published by the MOE stated that higher education enrollment has exceeded the mark of 200,000 in both public and private institutions of higher learning. The document indicated that the share of the private sector has reached more than 22%. The same document hinted that the participation of the private providers in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is by far higher than that of the public sector accounting for nearly 60% of the total trainee population. There were virtually none twelve years ago and now there are more than 200 private colleges engaged in both diploma and degree programs with enrolment capacities ranging from a few hundred up to thousands (Ashcroft 2007). Presumably, the only book on PHEIs in Ethiopia by Wondwosen (2008) explained that Ethiopian PHEIs have shown a remarkable growth in terms of location, type and size. Their impressive development in terms of expanding higher education is widely acknowledged. The total number of institutions operating in various parts of the country has now reached 328 (double counting involved). Among these two provide post-graduate programs, 55 run undergraduate degree program, and the rest are engaged in certificate and diploma level trainings. The big numbers of PHEIs are found in 4 regions of the country including Addis Ababa. In 2008/09 as indicated above, higher education enrollment in non-government higher education institutions accounts 17.3% of the total enrollment in undergraduate and postgraduate programs of the country.

Quality issues in higher education institutions

Quality in higher education is a multi-dimensional concept, which should embrace all its functions and activities: teaching and academic programs, research and scholarship, staffing, students, buildings, facilitates, equipment, services to the community and the academic environment (Rao: 2003). According to Rao, internal self-evaluation and external review conducted openly by independent specialists, if possible with international experience, are vital for enhancing quality. Quality also requires that higher education should be characterized by its international dimension: exchange of knowledge, interactive networking, mobility of teachers and students and international research project while taking into account the national culture values and circumstances. In view of this, both the public and private sectors are under scrutiny. However, critics commonly allege that PHEIs are identified with low academic quality and hyper commercialism (levy: 2002). It is true Ethiopian PHEIs, have not been without problems. This has not been only due to the fact that they lacked quality but also due to the surprise element in their formation, the attitude that the public has had as a result of this, and substantially due to the nature of some dishonest providers who are instrumental to reinforcing the notion that private higher education is “sub-standard” (Wondwosen 2008).

Even though, the general attitude of the public towards private colleges is to perceive them as “diploma mills” and “certificate shops”, some studies hinted that the perception is more of idea rather than reality as there are aspects where private colleges even exceed that of government (Bekalu and
Maru 2004, Gebrekidan 2007, Damtew 2005, Wondwosen 2008). A significant number of PHEIs in Ethiopia are engaged in augmenting the capacity of both public and private agencies, organizations and offices by providing short and long term trainings free of charge. The majority of Ethiopian PHEIs also provide free scholarships to thousands of students who are unable to pay for their education. (Damtew 2005) dubs this a ‘unique scenario’ of the Ethiopian private higher education system. PHEIs in Ethiopia have been praised for the variety if ICT training they offer, which are unavailable or in short supply of many of the public institution (World Bank 2003).

Accreditation in Ethiopia is a very recent occurrence which appeared with the coming of private providers. The accreditation practice essentially focused on input. The possibility of looking into process and output was almost non-existent. This practice continued until the establishment, in 2003, of Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA). HERQA’s institutional and program accreditation process in Ethiopian Higher Education is different for public and private HEIs. Currently the institutional and program accreditation which applies only to PHEIs is in-put based. However, the agency is interested, according to Tesfaye (2007) in moving from an input based system to a processes and out-put based system.

Quality often means fitness for purpose, i.e. that an institution must have in place adequate mechanisms to assure itself and others that it is able to achieve its stated aims and objectives, and that these will be achieved consistently. It links to value for money, which is attractive to governments and other funding agencies, and maybe measured in terms of indicators such as failure of drop-out, completion rates, teacher to students’ ratios, etc. Other approaches to the concept of quality include:

- Something distinctive or exceptional;
- Excellence and maintenance of high standards using bench-marking criteria;
- an educational process producing a standardized ‘quality product’ which relies on defined minimum threshold standards;
- Transformation referring to the enhancement of the abilities of students (adding value as the key objective of the educational process).

**Quality audit by HERQA**

The Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA), now re-named Education and Training Quality Assurance Agency (ETQAA) is an autonomous agency established through the Higher Education Proclamation (351/2003) as one of the key agencies responsible for guiding and regulating the higher education sector in Ethiopia. The mission of HERQA is to help ensure a high quality and relevant higher education system in the county. The Agency is mandated to report on the relevance and quality of higher education offered by all higher education institutions (HEIs) in Ethiopia.

As one of its key activities HERQA will carry out institutional quality audits of all HEIs. An institutional quality audit is an in-depth analysis and assessment of the quality and relevance of programs and of the teaching and learning environment. Equally importantly, an institutional quality audit will assess the appropriateness and effectiveness of a HEI’s approach to quality care, its systems of accountability and its internal review mechanisms.
An essential contribution to a HERQA institutional quality audit is a Self Evaluation Document prepared by the HEI. An institutional quality audit will seek to verify claims of quality and relevance made in a Self Evaluation Document. HERQA has identified the following ten key aspects of operation which will form the focus points for quality audits in Ethiopia HEIs.

1. Vision, Mission and Educational Goals
2. Governance and Management System
3. Infrastructure and Learning Resources
4. Academic and Support Staff
5. Student Admission and Support Services
6. Program Relevance and Curriculum
7. Teaching, Learning and Assessment
8. Student Progression and Graduates Outcomes
9. Research and Outreach Activities
10. Internal Quality Assurance

**Teaching learning and assessment**

Teaching, learning and assessment, among others, are the ways in which a service is delivered. They require measurement of quality. In light of this, HERQA in its document (QA 02/06/V1 2006) pointed out that every HEI must employ appropriate teaching, learning and assessment methods to ensure effective implementation of its programs. In this regard the following reference points were listed.

- The appropriateness, variety and level of innovation of teaching methods.
- Practice regarding academic advice and tutorial support.
- The balance of theory and practice.
- The extent of evaluation of approaches to teaching and learning and the consequent action.
- The extent to which the assessment policy and procedures and the criteria for marking ensure that students are graded fairly and that standards are appropriate and applied consistently.
- The extent of communication of the assessment policy and procedures.
- The appropriateness of mechanisms to ensure that assessment methods for each course in each program are balanced (e.g. between continuous and end of course, formative and summative, diagnostic and attainment), are matched to the learning outcomes and are applied appropriately.
- The adequacy of the student appeal procedure.

The enhancement of learning and teaching and the implementation of criterion-referenced assessment are vital to the HEI’s claim about the quality of its graduates, which defines the trust and confidence of stakeholders and the general public. Hence HEIs are expected to have a well formulated polices in regard to teaching and learning as well as assessment to ensure the effective implementation of their programs. The policies should address the responsibilities of the different stakeholders involved in the instructional process.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

As it is clearly known the prime functions of institutions of higher education are: (i) teaching, (ii) research, and (iii) service: Thus, as far as quality is concerned the HEIs are expected to dedicate
themselves to enhancing the quality of their programs and services within the context of their missions, resources, and capacities, and to create an environment in which teaching, public service, research, and learning occur. Although evaluation of an institution’s educational quality and its effectiveness in achieving its mission is a difficult task requiring careful analysis and professional judgment, an institution is anticipated to document quality and effectiveness in all its major aspects. Quality is not simply defined in terms of inputs and resources- what the institution has. Quality is also described in terms of processes and outcomes-what the institution does with what. Hence Quality is conceptualized as “production-measurement” of

In other words the dimensions of quality are: (i) inputs, (ii) processes, and (iii) outputs, otherwise the whole picture of quality is not fully comprehend in all the prime functions HEIs.

**Inputs** are the resources required for a service and are typically quantity oriented. Examples relevant in higher education are: students, faculty, staff, finances, technology and infrastructure—all resources received to support programs, activities and services.

**Processes** are the ways in which a service is delivered. They require measurement of quality. Processes include the means used to deliver programs and service, for example, assessment of student learning, faculty development, use of technology, program review, course approval, use of academic advising, etc.

**Outputs** reflect the quantity of products actually produced. Examples of outputs are: degrees awarded, retention rates, graduation rates, sponsored research funding, licenses, portfolios, job placements, student satisfaction surveys results, alumni, and employees.

In view of the above discussion, the purpose of the study is, therefore, revolves around the processes dimension of quality in Ethiopia HEIs. In other words, the study focuses on the ways in which HEIs deliver their academic programs with especial reference to Teaching, Learning and Assessment which is identified by HERQA as one key aspects of operation which will form the focus points for quality audits in Ethiopia HEIs.

**OBJECTIVES**

The overall objective of this paper is to examine whether HEIs in Ethiopia give due attention to the processes dimension of quality in particular to Teaching, Learning and assessment components and to forward possible measures that might be employed to improve the current quality–related problems.

With this in mind, the specific objectives are:

- To describe the current status of teaching, learning and assessment.
- To evaluate areas of strengths and weakness in teaching, learning and assessment practices.
- To inquire whether there is difference between public and private institutions in their practices.
- To forward further recommendations to ensure effective implementation of programs.
METHODOLOGY
In this qualitative inquiry data is drawn from.
   i) HERQA’s institutional quality audit reports, the agency so far produced audit reports of nine public universities and five private higher education institutions,
   ii) Self evaluation documents of four HEIs,
   iii) The investigator’s experience as quality auditor who has been trained and engaged (as a team member) in external quality audit of two public universities and private college and
   iv) The related literature
All the 14 institutional quality audit reports by HERQA have been thoroughly read and reviewed especially the major ideas portrayed in regard to the teaching, learning and assessment have been identified and extracted. More over the self-evaluation documents have been studied. The Self Evaluation Document (SED) is a document that a HEI writes about itself.
RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table 1: Current practice of teaching, learning and assessment of 14 HEIs in Ethiopia as extracted from Quality Audit Reports of HERQA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Teaching and Learning</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Adama University</td>
<td>• Dominated by the lecture method</td>
<td>• Mid-semester and end-of-semester closed examinations predominate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• No specific policy document</td>
<td>• Other forms of student assessment are use in some departments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Large class size, time, students little experience, content coverage-as an obstacle to active learning</td>
<td>• Continuous assessment could not be applied.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Some active learning practices by Social Sciences and Languages staff</td>
<td>• No reported practice of anonymous marking, of moderation, of double marking or of employment of external examiners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Very few members of staff maintain regular consultation hrs.</td>
<td>• No transparent system that ensures that students are graded fairly and consistently.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Most staff members do not produce teaching materials.</td>
<td>• Appears to have no specific policy document on assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Teacher absenteeism being a problem.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Majority of senior classes are taught by fresh undergraduates.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Arbaminch University</td>
<td>• No policy on teaching and learning</td>
<td>• No evidence of a student assessment policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• The predominant form of instruction is the traditional chalk and talk method.</td>
<td>• Mid and end of semester closed examinations are the dominant forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Little active (student-centered) learning.</td>
<td>• Other modes are also used in assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Number of students, lack of reference book, internet access and lab. equipment, as well as inexperience staff, is presented as obstacles to student-centered method.</td>
<td>• Department examination review committees exist but no evidence of operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Students are not advised properly.</td>
<td>• Few faculties have external examiners (e.g. Water Technology, Engineering and Post graduate programs).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Classes do not always start on the scheduled date.</td>
<td>• Grades are determined mostly by norm referencing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• No transparent system that ensures students are graded fairly &amp; consistently.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>University of Gondar</td>
<td>• Lecture method is the predominate form of instruction</td>
<td>• Lack of policy in assessment strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• There is attempt of learner-centered approach in school of Pubic Health.</td>
<td>• There is an attempt to produce an assessment policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Large class size time, content coverage , junior instructors etc.</td>
<td>• The University dominantly uses mid and en-of-semester closed examinations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• presented as obstacles to implement active learning methodologies</td>
<td>• College of Medicine and Health Science employs a progressive assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• No policy on teaching and learning</td>
<td>• Continuous assessment hardly practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• No guidelines for the development of teaching materials.</td>
<td>• No examination committees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>• Instructors face lack of specialist equipment and other essential resources to support teaching.</td>
<td>• Grades are mostly determined by using the norm-referenced system.</td>
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<td>• No reported practice of anonymous marking, of moderation, of double marking of employment of external examiners (except few</td>
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| 4. Addis Ababa University | • No policy on teaching and learning.  
• In general, teaching and learning is characterized by lectures.  
• Very few active learning techniques are used  
• Increasing number of students and lack of appropriate resources as well as inexperience of staff and their lack of pedagogical skills an indicated as obstacle to employ student-centered methods.  
• Student-centered learning process exists in some faculties such as Law and Technology.  
• Lecture notes are available on the Technology Faculty server.  
• Instructors in graduate program use various forms of teaching such as power point presentation, seminar, etc.  
• Teaching technology (aids) are adequately available in some faculty, they are limited in other faculties for graduate programs only.  
• No supportive evidence of whether is a written policy and guidelines on the development and approval of teaching materials.  
• No monitoring mechanism to check whether staffs are providing advising and counseling services.  
• Most students do not get advising services.  
• Some staff do not teach regular according to the schedule.  
• Instructors take attendances regularly.  
• Tutorials are not part of the teaching and learning regime in most courses.  
• The balance between theory and practice is not well maintained except in few faculties like Medicine, Informatics and Law.  
• No evidence of a student assessment policy apart from the one which is indicated in the Senate legislation.  
• Mid and end of semester closed examinations are the dominant means to assess student performance.  
• The use of continuous assessment is not reported.  
• Examination prepared by individual instructors are not reviewed and approved prior to their administration  
• No department examination committees  
• There is no practice of anonymous marking, double marking, or moderation.  
• Post graduate programs use external examiners to help assure acceptable standards.  
• No appropriate feedback on assessment to students.  
• Grades are determined mostly by norm referencing.  
• No department examination committees  
• There is no transparent system that ensures students are graded fairly and consistently.  
• Student reported that student complaint handling system is virtually non-existence. |
|---|---|
| 5. Jimma University | • Dominated by lecture method  
• Lack of pedagogical skill on the part of some young instructors, shortage of instructors in some areas, large class size are cited as obstacles to active learning.  
• Practice-based approach to teaching /learning in Community Based Education program.  
• Efforts by the college of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine to establish smart classrooms in exemplary.  
• No apparent general policy on assessment  
• Most assessment focuses on the reproduction of memorized facts  
• Faculties and departments mainly use norm-referenced approaches  
• Grading system differs from faculty to faculty for equivalent courses.  
• Post-assessment feedback by department of Horticulture seen as positive practice |
| 6. Mekelle University | **•** Commencing classes late at the beginning of the academic year.  
**•** No explicit policy on teaching and learning | **•** College of Agriculture and Veterinary are exemplary by showing progress in making teacher evaluation by students more transparent and effective.  
**•** College of Agriculture and Veterinary practices an anonymous marking system and establishes exam. Committees at department level.  
**•** Medical and Public Health faculties, use external examiners.  
**•** The Teaching learning has had a strong practical emphasis through Practical Attachment Program (PAP).  
**•** Unfortunately PAP is no longer the case.  
**•** In general, teaching and learning is characterized by lectures.  
**•** Very few active learning techniques are used.  
**•** No standard criteria to keep balance between theory and practice  
**•** Growing numbers of students and workload on instructors, shortage of equipment, resources inexperience graduate assistants and content coverages are presented as obstacles.  
**•** Poor time keeping and class times being shortened.  
**•** Several courses, including final year courses, are taught by quite young and inexperienced instructors.  
**•** No policy on teaching and learning  
**•** The appropriate use of audio visual technology is to be welcomed.  
**•** The availability of good quality teaching material is to be welcomed.  
**•** Academic counseling and support to student is virtually non-existent.  
**•** Tutorials are not part of the teachings and learning regime in most courses. |
|---|---|---|
| 7. Hawassa University | **•** While lecturing is the dominant mode of teaching, approaches to teaching and learning vary across the faculties.  
**•** Variety is reported in Awassa College of Agriculture.  
**•** Size of teaching groups and the inexperience of staff are two major factors influencing the teaching.  
**•** No policy on teaching and learning  
**•** The practical attachment element of courses is to be welcomed.  
**•** Tutorials are not common practice.  
**•** Vast majority of teachers do not offer a consultation time. | **•** No written policy on assessment.  
**•** Student assessment is mostly by mid-semester and end–of-semester examinations.  
**•** No evidence that continuous assessment is widely practiced.  
**•** Examination committees are not always established, when they are, they do not always function.  
**•** No practice of double marking or moderation or for first degree courses, the use of external examiners, also, there is no anonymous marking.  
**•** No robust, transparent system that ensures that students are assessed fairly and consistently. |
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<th>Table</th>
<th>University</th>
<th>Observations</th>
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| 8.    | Bahir Dar University | - Members of staff have produced lecture handouts.  
- Classes to start late, and staff absence becoming a tradition.  
- Grades are agreed with reference to a normal distribution and not to any grade criteria.  
- The process is dominated by the lecture method.  
- No policy on teaching and learning.  
- Two major factors influencing teaching: one is the size of classes and the other is the inexperience of staff, many of whom are very recent graduates.  
- Active learning is not widespread, only in the Faculty of Education.  
- Little reported use of audio visual materials.  
- Some departments offer insufficient practical work since there is a lack of budget to purchase equipment, chemicals and other materials.  
- Tutorials are organized by the gender club and the student council and are offered for female students.  
- Members of staff have produced modules that are provided to students to guide their learning.  
- Few members of staff maintain a regular consultation hour for students.  
- Classes do not always start on the scheduled date and the calendar is not fully respected, staff do not always turn up to teaching scheduled classes.  
- Assessment is mostly by mid-semester and end-of-semester examinations.  
- Some depts., especially Faculty of Education, have introduced a variety of assessments.  
- No evidence that continuous assessment is widely practiced.  
- Setting and marking of examination seems to be done exclusively by individual instructors.  
- Marks scheme, together with marking and grading, appears to be the sole responsibility of the instructor with no checking or monitoring systems.  
- Instructors use a norm reference system.  
- No reported practice of anonymous marking, of double marking or of the systematic employment of external examiners.  
- There is no transparent system that ensures that students are assessed and graded fairly and consistently and the current practice is open to abuse.  
- No policy on assessment.  
- Progress has made to establish a testing center. |
| 9.    | Haramaya University | - Is dominated by the lecture method, the domination of this form of teaching also extends to laboratory work.  
- Number of students in a class and lack of pedagogical knowledge and training are major obstacles not to use active learning approaches.  
- The use of active learning does not appear to be widespread.  
- No evidence in the extent of tutorial support and academic counseling being provided.  
- Instructors often being classes late and try to cover the courses in a rush.  
- Members of staff don’t always teach according to the schedules.  
- Major learning resource is the library no provisions of other learning materials such as modules, developed to support particular courses except the practicum handbooks and some laboratory manuals.  
- Has no policy on teaching and learning.  
- No policy on assessment.  
- Student assessment is mostly by mid-semester and end-of-semester closed examination.  
- The setting and marking of examination seems to be done mostly by individual instructors as is the development of a mark scheme, marking and grading.  
- Instructors in the faculty of Business and Economics where instructors offering the same course work together to set a common examination.  
- Examination committees are not well established.  
- Anonymous marking in some courses in Faculty of Business and Economics.  
- Most of the staff do not allow students to see the exam papers.  
- There is a general lack of experience and expertise in assessment methodology.  
- Instructors use a norm reference system.  
- For undergraduate course little reported practice of anonymous marking, of moderation, of double marking or of the employment of external examiners. |
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<th>Royal University College</th>
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| 10. | - No policy on teaching and learning  
- Teaching and learning is characterized by lecture  
- Lack of facilities, limited experience in teaching, more junior colleagues without pedagogical training, inadequate preparation, class size etc. are presented as barriers to active learning.  
- Moot court, in the Faculty of Law found to be an impressive facility. | - Mid-semester and end-of-semester closed examinations as the dominant means.  
- Other forms are also used  
- No examination review committees at department/faculty level.  
- Some instructors do not conduct examination according to the schedule.  
- No clearly stated system/procedure to check whether a given course is delivered as described and assessment undertaking as per the course outline-left to the individual instructor.  
- Marking and grading is not peer checked or moderated.  
- In most cases departments use a normal distribution grade system.  
- No transparent system that ensures students are assessed appropriately and graded fairly and consistently. |

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| 11. | - Teaching is dominated by lectures  
- Only in few cases is active learning and student-centered methods of teaching employed.  
- Appears to have no written policy on teaching and learning.  
- Low levels of academic support and guidance and counselling available to students.  
- Regular consultation hours are generally not given by instructors. | - No written policy document on assessment, but course modules are quite clear on how students are assessed.  
- Some information on assessment is included in the Instructors’ Handbook and the Students’ Handbook only focusing on remarking.  
- No evidence of any committee approval system for examinations.  
- Marking was done by individuals and there was no checking for accuracy of application of any marking scheme or for the moderation of mark.  
- Marking of examinations does not appear to be anonymous.  
- No practice in the use of external examiners.  
- No assessment, marking and grading procedures that assure students of the accuracies and fairness of the grades. |

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<th>Admas University College</th>
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| 12. | - Teacher-centered approach still dominate.  
- There are attempts being made to make teaching more participatory.  
- Students resistant and instructors’ little experience are challenges to using active learning methods.  
- Has a useful teaching-learning delivery guideline and communicated to most staff.  
- Most staff members do not produce teaching materials. | - Has student assessment guidelines and distributed to department heads and campus deans.  
- Assessments being both continuous and formative and establishment of examination committees are reported.  
- No reported practice of anonymous marking, of moderation, of double marking or of the systematic employment of external examiners.  
- No clear system to ensure that students are graded fairly and consistently.  
- The grading system is norm references. |
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<th>City University College</th>
<th>St. Mary’s University College</th>
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| 13. | • Appears to be on overall policy on teaching and learning.  
     • Some hints of a proper mix of various teaching methods (e.g. Computer Science).  
     • In some departments the balance between theory and practice is well maintained (e.g. Law and Computer Science). | • The grading system is norm referenced  
• Assessments procedures and practices are left by and large to the instructors.  
• No institutionalized procedures.  
• Marking of examinations does not appear to be anonymous.  
• No grading approval committee.  
• No transparent system that ensures students are assessed appropriately and graded fairly and consistently.  
• No practice in the use of external examiners. |
| 14. | • Appears to be no overall policy on teaching and learning.  
• Learning approach vary depending on the discipline.  
• In Faculty of law there is dominance of in-depth-discussion and Socratic teaching, courses in business discipline largely adopt lecture and the department of computer science has a heavy emphasis on active learning.  
• Staffs are frequent users of audio visiona aids.  
• Center of Educational Improvement, Research and Quality Assurance is actively researching aspects of teaching and learning and assessment. | • Has a policy concerning course coverage and assessment procedures.  
• Uses norm-referenced system.  
• Policy of providing feedback to students on their assessments  
• No moderation of grades nor is the practice to employ external examiners.  
• No practice of double marking or checking for accuracy of marking and recording, also there is no anonymous marking.  
• No robust and transparent system that ensures that students are assessed fairly and consistently is open to abuse. |
EVALUATION OF TEACHING, LEARNING AND ASSESSMENT

The teaching, learning and assessment practices of the considered HEIs have been evaluated as follows.

A) The teaching-learning process

• Teaching-learning process is still highly dominated by the traditional forms of teaching especially the lecture method in which students take notes from a presentation given by an instructor and/or copy from the board. In most cases the teaching and learning process at the universities and university colleges involve little active (student-centered) learning – a process whereby students engage in higher-thinking tasks such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation and do not passively listen to a lecture. There are cases that the domination of this form of teaching also extends to laboratory work. While the use of active learning does not appear to be widespread, there are promising signs in some departments/faculties/colleges in employing proper mix of various teaching methods.

• Large class-size, work load, shortage of equipment and resources, inexperienced graduate assistants, content coverage, etc. are repeatedly presented as obstacles to active learning. The EQA teams are of the view that these are not impossible barriers to active learning.

• There are no standard criteria set by the institutions to keep the balance between lectures, tutorials, laboratory practicals, projects, and group activities. Simply course instructors, depending on the nature of the course are expected or advised to keep the balance as much as possible.

• It seems universal that the institutions have no explicit written policy document on teaching and learning and thus instructors would appear to have little to guide them in their approach to teaching. The purpose of teaching and learning policy is to identify institutions’ learning and teaching ethos and clarify how this is enacted at the institutions.

• In addition to teaching formal classes, members of staff are expected to provide academic counseling and support to students. Departments assign academic advisors to students at the start of each academic year. Students expressed their view that the vast majority of teachers do not offer a consultation time for academic counseling and support to students. Most institutional quality audit reports concluded that very few members of staff maintain regular consultation hours for students. Large number of students in a program and crowdedness of staff offices are presented as a major factor influencing the offer of academic counseling.

• Majority of the senior class students in many institutions are taught by fresh undergraduate instructors who lack the experiences of teaching and unable to complete the courses on time.

• Student spoke of staff not turning up to teach, of overloaded lectures and few opportunities to engage in discussion. Course coverage was often raised as a concern. Students reported that instructors often begin classes late and try to cover the course in a rush causing unnecessary pressure on the students. This was corroborated during discussions with staff and different explanations were offered. While students
considered starts to be due to the tardiness of staff, staff reported that registration of students can be delayed. Staff also indicated that some courses are overloaded. In most reports it is stated that staff absences and catch up classes clustered immediately before examinations so overloading students and giving insufficient time for reflection and consolidation. Attendance and other devices that have been used to check the presence and absenteeism of teachers were not as such practiced in the HEIs.

- Tutorials can provide important support to more formal instruction. In most cases both staff and students reported that tutorials are not part of the teaching and learning regime in most courses but are scheduled in such disciplines as mathematics English, science and technology. There are promising starts in some departments particularly in supporting female students those who are academically less performing.

- While the appropriate and frequent use of audio visual technology and the considerable effort into developing the teaching skills of instructors are to be welcomed it was hinted that audio visuals are often used to avoid the need to write on the board or to cut down on presentation time and so get through the content faster.

**Student Assessment**

- The mid-semester and end-of-semester closed examinations predominate as tools of student assessment in almost all institutions under consideration. However, other forms of student assessment such as laboratory reports, projects and classroom activities are used in some departments. Instructors in the different meetings, appreciate the value of alternatives ways of assessing students. However, it was claimed that continuous assessment could not be applied. The reasons forwarded include large class sizes and the lack of student readiness to be assessed in such modes. In real sense these are not significant obstacles to overcome.

- While there are few cases in the use of criterion-referenced marking, grades are mostly determined by using the norm referenced system where students are evaluated in relationship to one another rather than the criterion-referenced grading that measures how well students do relative to pre-determined performance levels. Such a system is not appropriate to maintain standards between different cohorts of students.

- While there are few encourage signs in the use of external examiners and anonymous marking in some departments, there is no widespread practice of anonymous marking (i.e. the marker does not know the name of the student whose paper is being marked), of moderation, of double marking or of the systematic employment of external examiners.

- The quality of assessment is vital to the HEIs’ claim about the quality of its graduates, which defines the trust and confidence of stakeholders and the public. Taking this into account, the HEIs appear to have no specific policy document on student assessment apart from the one which is indicated in the senate legislations in public universities and some efforts in private ones.

- The presence of a student complaint handling system in HEIs is to be welcomed. Students representatives knew that they could complain but all said that to do so was a waste of time. Complaints took too long to be dealt with and were rarely upheld. Thus, students are very reluctant to exercise their right in practice. Majority of students in
the discussions held the view that there is no transparent system that ensures students are assessed appropriately and graded fairly.

**Good practices**
The following are some exemplary practices identified in the Institutional Quality Audit Reports which appear to be relevant to share in order to enhance quality in teaching, learning and assessment in HEIs. These good practices identified are limited to a particular departments /faculties /colleges /Institutions.

- The presence of some active learning practices and learner-centered approach.
- The attempt to establish smart classrooms. A good number of sections which have been equipped with computers and beamer LCD projector to facilitate the teaching-learning process.
- The availability of lecture notes on server to be accessed by students.
- The practice that instructors take attendances regularly
- The availability modules produced by member of staff that is provided to students to guide their learning.
- The rare presence of teaching-learning delivery guideline, which addresses the role of the instructor, learning strategies, classroom management, effective teaching, planning, etc.
- The presence of some tutorials by departments, gender office and student council mostly offered for female students.
- A practice-based approach to teaching /learning and a strong practical emphasis through practical attachment program.
- The appearance of post-assessment feedback to students in few departments.
- The progress in making teachers evaluation by the students more transparent and effective by introducing a series of measures in which student can be involved.
- The emergence of an anonymous marking system of students’ exam papers in some courses.
- The practices of establishing committees at department level to monitor the preparation of exams and their administration.
- The attempt to produce an assessment policy that would be applicable throughout the whole institution.
- The use of external examiners to help assure acceptable standards, particularly of dissertations.
- The good start in establishing centers for educational improvement, research and quality assurance which actively researching aspects of teaching, learning and assessment.

**Private HEIs Practices vis-à-vis Public HEIs**
Similar trends are observable in all the HEIs in regard to teaching, learning and assessment practices. Nevertheless, the PHEIs are generally smaller in size, limited in programs, market-oriented and fee- and tuition–dependent. PHEIs, especially those in regions, are often reliant on staff from major public institutions and largely staffed by part-timers. And at the same time, PHEIs appear to be more flexible. The PHEIs are concentrated in the fields of study relatively inexpensive to offer or fields that have rather rapid pay-off in the job market. Most of the public HEIs only offer general education course through syllabuses set by the previous universities.
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
The overall conclusion is that the HEIs should exert more efforts in a number of areas to ensure the quality of their programs that fit to the standards as per their missions. Thus, there is a need to develop distinct written policy on teaching, learning and assessment and that instructors, particularly new instructors, require help and support to develop their teaching range, pedagogic skills and professional confidence. In addition, the institutions need to make clearer their requirements from staff with regard to academic counseling and tutorial support. Furthermore, the HEIs should begin to use criterion-referenced assessment, establish, implement and monitor transparent and robust mechanisms to ensure that students are graded fairly and in relation to course objectives and develop practices that can assure continuity of standards. Nonetheless, the author of this study would like to go beyond these essential ideas and forward the followings for further enhancement of quality in the processes dimension.
- Establishment and development of strong quality assurance system in each HEIs;
- Strong commitment of the top management bodies towards quality;
- Authorities should stop double standard policy and work towards strong public-private partnership;
- Strong regulatory government body to check quality care systems of the HEIs; and
- Since quality is the concern of all bodies, including the public, create and raise awareness of all stakeholders to work towards quality.

REFERENCES


Comparative Perspectives on Faculty Satisfaction

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Abstract
This is a comparative analysis of faculty satisfaction in four Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Ethiopia. The primary objective of the study was to investigate faculty satisfaction in the public vis-à-vis the private HEIs. A set of questionnaire was distributed to 375 randomly selected faculty of four (two public and two private) HEIs to which 190 (88 from public and 102 from private HEIs) faculty members responded. Their satisfaction was observed in terms of governance, benefits, institutional support and individual commitment. The result showed that the faculty in the public HEIs are less satisfied with their job than their counterparts in the private sector. The former, therefore, need to take no time to address the basic needs of the faculty, which include establishing strong support system, reviewing the benefit schemes and strengthening the work environment. A better pay scheme is expected of the private sector to, at least, maintain the status quo.

INTRODUCTION
It is not uncommon to hear complaints about the poor performance of graduates of institutions of higher learning in Ethiopia. Faculty participation in research and consultancy is also an area of concern (HERQA, 2009). The trend of instructor absenteeism from classes is becoming a common practice in many of the higher education institutions. The Ethiopian HEIs, both public and private, suffer from high staff turnover, too (HERQA ,2008; 2009). These problems may be attributed to the instructors’ lack of satisfaction with the various aspects of their job.

Job satisfaction is amongst the key factors that influence the performance of workers in any organization. Job satisfaction results in high productivity, low absenteeism and low labour turnover (Argyle in Veenhoven 1989, Spector 1997, Santhapparaj and Alam 2005, and Field 2008). This applies to HEIs as well.

The need to sort out factors that deal with faculty satisfaction is, therefore, unquestionable and immediate. This research was conducted to this end in view. The study attempted to compare the faculty satisfaction in the public vis-à-vis the private HEIs.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY
The study was conducted on four Ethiopian HEIs; namely, Admas University College (Private), Bahir Dar University (Public), Mekelle University (Public) and St. Mary’s University College (Private). Only full-time teaching staff of these HEIs took part in the study. The study focused on faculty benefits, work environment and governance, faculty commitment and institutional support.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The major objective of this study was to find out faculty satisfaction in four Ethiopian HEIs. The specific objectives of the study were:
1. finding out faculty satisfaction in four Ethiopian Institutions of Higher Learning;  
2. Identifying the factors that positively or negatively affect faculty satisfaction; and  
3. Comparing and contrasting the faculty satisfaction in the private and public HEIs.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sample and sampling technique
Only full-time faculty were selected to fill in a questionnaire through simple random  
sampling technique. The response rate of the questionnaire was 50.66% (190 faculty out of  
375). 88 of them were from two public universities – 38 from Mekelle and 50 from Bahir  
Dar. The remaining 102 were from the private sector – 51 from each institution.  

There was a varied mix of respondents in terms of work experience, qualification, area of  
specialization and academic rank. The respondents were from different disciplines. 13.1% of  
the respondents were female.

Data gathering instruments
The main data gathering instrument used to collect data was a questionnaire which consisted of  
two parts. The first part inquired general information about the respondents. The second  
part, which was composed of close-ended questions, was intended to gather data about faculty opinion on the different aspects of job satisfaction. This part required respondents to indicate whether the satisfaction measuring aspects were: “Very Untrue”, “Untrue”, “Neither”, “True”, “Very True”, and “Not Applicable”. The questionnaire had items that were similar to one another. This had significant contribution towards data verification. To fill some gaps, which the questionnaire did not address, interview was held with one randomly selected faculty from each institution.

Data analysis
The data were analyzed using SPSS. Chi-square, cross tabulations and non-parametric test were used to assess the relationship between categorical variables. Internal reliability of data was verified.

LITERATURE REVIEW

What is job satisfaction?
No single definition can be attached to the term job satisfaction. Smith (1969) in  
Chimanikire, Mutandwa, Gadzirayi, Muzondo and Mutandwa (2007:167) defined job  
satisfaction as the “extent to which an employee expresses a positive orientation towards a  
job.” Job satisfaction, as Spector (1997) defined it, refers to “an attitudinal variable” resulting  
from “good treatment”. Spector (1997) further explained that job satisfaction deals with  
“feelings or state-of-mind” one has about his/her work and work related matters. According  
to Olasmubo and Toyin (2004:3), job satisfaction is “a pleasurable emotional state resulting  
from appraisal of one’s job, an effective reaction or an attitude towards one’s job”. Weiss  
(2002) cited in Olasmubo and Toyin (2004:3) described job satisfaction as “how content an  
individual is in his or her work”. Generally speaking, job satisfaction is all about the attitude  
one develops toward his/her job, and employee satisfaction gets affected due to very many factors.
What factors affect job satisfaction?
Quite a number of factors affect job satisfaction. These include benefits, work conditions, leadership, the work itself, individual commitment, institutional support, etc. The level of impact these factors have on workers varies depending on the workers’ priorities and the situation they are in. Let us take a look at what the literature says about these factors.

Benefits
Benefits such as pay, health insurance, promotion, professional development, etc are among the factors that affect faculty satisfaction (Santhapparaj and Alam 2005; AACSB International 1998; Field 2008; Ch’ng, Chong and Nakesvari 2010). Pay affects faculty satisfaction (Field 2008; Olasumbo and Toyin 2004; Ch’ng, Chong and Nakesvari 2010; Cornell University report 2006). But it is important to note that money alone cannot be the main cause of dissatisfaction. Field (2008:1) argued that money “is often not the most important reason” for faculty dissatisfaction. For Field, other factors “such as career growth and development, or a change in life circumstances, or factors like that” cause employees to leave their jobs. Field classified the possible reasons determining employees’ satisfaction as “push factors (things that make employees more dissatisfied) and pull factors (things that make employees more satisfied)” (op cit). Field’s job satisfaction model summarizes these factors as follows.

What Field categorized as “push factors” are those factors that lag one’s personal growth and change behind demand. These affect employee satisfaction with their job.

Work environment and governance
Work environment and governance are also among the factors that determine faculty satisfaction. As Field has put it, poor work environment, which is most often caused by poor governance, results in employee dissatisfaction. Studies by (Santhapparaj and Alam 2005; AACSB International 1998; Manisera, Dusseldrop and van der Kooij 2005) identified work environment as a factor affecting the performance of the faculty. MayoClinic.com (2010) added that “bickering co-workers” and job insecurity force an employee to develop a lack of satisfaction with his/her job.

Governance also appears to influence satisfaction of faculty. Participatory decision making enhances faculty satisfaction. Ch’ng, Chong and Nakesvari (2010) underscored the importance of involving subordinates in decision making processes. This lays the basis for creating shared value, trust and accountability within an organization and enhancing
employee motivation and commitment. A study by a staff member of Mayo Clinic (2010) showed that a lack of resources and opportunities for participation in decisions that affect the employee resulted in job dissatisfaction.

Similarly, AACSB International (1998) identified administration to be “the single best predictor of overall satisfaction of the faculty members in the Business Faculty(p.1)”. Administration, according to AACSB International, refers to:

(1) clear articulation of goals…; (2) respect for the academic freedom of the faculty; (3) an allocation of resources consistent with the mission of the school; (4) clear vision…; (5) quality of faculty … appointments; (6) external fund-raising; and, (7) effectiveness of negotiation for resources … (1998:1).

Radford University Survey Report (2009) indicated that faculty satisfaction had been high in relation to their department, upper administration and the then policies and procedures. In a similar vein, Ch'ng, Chong and Nakesvari (2010) pointed out that management support is significant in determining the faculty satisfaction.

The work itself
The work itself was identified as one of the factors affecting faculty satisfaction. Castillo and Cano (2004) found out that the “work itself” appeared the most motivating aspect for faculty. According to Manisera, Dusseldrop and van der Kooij (2005), employees attribute their satisfaction to the “work itself”. Being assigned to “boring or overly routine work and work below an employee’s education, skills or interests” is a factor resulting in poor faculty performance (Mayo Clinic 2010:1).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Demographic characteristics of the sample
The respondents were drawn from four HEIs – two public and two private. They have got different qualifications, years of service, and academic rank. In spite of the significant difference in terms of their number, both male and female faculty took part in filling out the questionnaire of the study.

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<th>Name of institution</th>
<th>Type of institution</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Private</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahir Dar University</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mekelle University</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Mary's University College</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>190</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite the huge difference in the total number of faculty working for the two sectors, where the public HEIs have larger faculty than the private ones, the faculty participation, as study subjects, was better from the private sector. The faculty from the private sector were more responsive than those from the public HEIs. So, it was possible to address nearly half of the
full-time faculty of the private institutions. Among the total respondents, 13.1% of them were female.

Table 2: Sample distribution by academic qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of institution</th>
<th>BA/BSc</th>
<th>MA/MSc</th>
<th>PhD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>89.5%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12.4%</td>
<td>80.6%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the total number of respondents who indicated their academic qualifications, most of them in both public and private HEIs have a Master’s degree, which is a minimum requirement for teaching position in HEIs in Ethiopia. This, in other words, means that the majority of the respondents are at least Lecturers in their position. The public HEIs were represented with more qualified academic staff than that of the private HEIs.

Table 3: Service year of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service year in the institution</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=5</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>65.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1-10</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>30.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.1-15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.1-20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.1-25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the number of faculty who indicated their service years in their respective HEIs. The majority of the faculty (i.e. 65.5%) have served their respective institutions for only five years or less. A little more than a quarter of them have a service of 5-10 years. Only few of them have the experience of more than 10 years.

Factors affecting job satisfaction

In this section, we shall see what the faculty feelings are regarding the different determinant factors of their satisfaction.

As discussed below, faculty satisfaction was found to have significantly positive association with the factors identified. The minimum value indicates 0.516 at p<0.001.
Table 4: Work environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The work environment is collegial.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
<td>45.9%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>38.0%</td>
<td>57.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>41.6%</td>
<td>37.8%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Literature tells us that sound work environment results in high productivity. In connection to this, the respondents were asked how they see the work environment in their respective institutions. As shown in Table 4 above, the majority of the faculty in both sectors seem to be satisfied with the work environment. While 95% of the faculty from the private sector felt that the work environment is collegial, it is only a little more than 60% of the faculty that expressed their satisfaction with the work environment in the public HEIs. No faculty member in the private sector complained about the work environment whereas more than 20% of the faculty in the public HEIs had reservations on the work environment. A significant number of the faculty in the latter appeared undecided. The Chi-square test shows a significant variation among the faculty in public and private HEIs. There is also a positive relationship (0.512) between the work environment and the faculty satisfaction.

Table 5: Benefits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The institution provides good health benefits.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>55.8%</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>43.6%</td>
<td>43.6%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>33.2%</td>
<td>24.1%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m satisfied with my pay.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>47.1%</td>
<td>28.7%</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>38.2%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25.9%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>23.8%</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution has family-friendly employee benefits.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>40.7%</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>22.8%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution is responsive to the needs of my family.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>46.5%</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25.5%</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Faculty satisfaction and good health benefits, pay, and benefits that go beyond the faculty were found to be significantly associated with positive relationship. There were 0.662, 0.585 and 0.526 values at p<0.001, respectively. In this regard, most of the faculty members in the private sector are the opinion that they are provided with better benefits than that of the public HEIs. This is discussed in detail below.

Among the benefits that the faculty demands to enjoy is health. Good health benefit seems to be a serious concern for the faculty in the public HEIs. Only 22.1% of the faculty working for the public institutions feel that they have good health benefits. One of the interviewees from the public institutions was ignorant of this benefit while the other said it only exists in the paper. The latter added, the provision requires them to go to public health centers where, he claimed, they do not get the service of their expectation. The faculty, therefore, prefer to go to private clinics and hospitals. As a result, the scheme is not serving its purpose. On the contrary, 87.2% of the faculty in the private sector claimed to enjoy good health benefits. They said they can go to both public and private health centers with which their institutions have agreements. They also know how much their institutions spend on them annually. The faculty in the two sectors receive different health benefit schemes and the difference in their level of satisfaction was found to be statistically significant at p<0.001.

Benefit schemes vary from institution to institution. Despite their area of specialization, faculty salary within academic qualifications or ranks is the same across public institutions. It ranges from Ethiopian Birr 1692 (for a BA/BSc holder) to 4000 (for a PhD holder). In the private sector, the salary range is almost the same as in the public institutions for faculty with BA/BSc and MA/MSc. The private sector pays even lower salary in certain disciplines where, they think, there is ample human resource in the market. A PhD holder is, however, paid 7500 Birr on average in the private HEIs, which is almost double the salary of a PhD holder in the public institutions. As shown in Table 5 above, 75.8% of the respondents from the public HEIs expressed their dissatisfaction with their pay and a significant number of them remained undecided. Contrary to this, more than 60% of the faculty in the private sector said that their pay is fine. A significant number of the faculty from the private HEIs are not that happy with their pay. Since most of the study subjects were of similar qualifications with almost similar pay scales in both of the sectors, this area needs further study to learn how the difference emerged between the sectors.

Of the total number of the respondents, the majority of the faculty in the public HEIs have concerns over benefits to their family. HEIs’ responsiveness to the needs of the faculty family appeared to be better in the private sector than in the public sector. But still a significant number of the faculty in the private sector were undecided. More than 70% of the respondents from the public sector claimed to have no such benefit in place. The variation was found to be statistically significant at p<0.001. In this regard, the public HEIs have a long way to go and the private ones need to further strengthen the culture.
Table 6: Sense of loyalty and dedication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel a sense of loyalty to my Department.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>68</td>
<td></td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel a sense of loyalty to my University.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>73</td>
<td></td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>126</td>
<td></td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m dedicated to my job.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>73</td>
<td></td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>126</td>
<td></td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Faculty dedication and commitment may be affected by faculty dissatisfaction. In this respect, respondents were asked to express their level of belongingness to their respective institutions. The result shows a significantly positive association between faculty loyalty to their departments and institutions and their dedication to their job, and their satisfaction. As depicted in Table 6, most of the faculty in both of the HEIs claim to be loyal to their respective departments and institutions and are dedicated to their profession, which is very important for the institutions to get their visions, missions and goals met. The faculty identify more with their respective departments than with their institutions. This may indicate that the faculty are happier with the system at the department level than the system at the university level. Both sectors seem to have faculty dedicated to their job. More than 90% of the faculty in both sectors claimed to be dedicated to their job. This should be strength to capitalize on.

As indicated in Table 7, the pattern appears to be consistent across the responses given to the three aspects of governance. The trend shows that HEI governance is much more favoured by the faculty in private HEIs. They have the majority of their faculty satisfied with their institutions’ manner of decision making, dissemination of information to the faculty and consideration of faculty opinion. These aspects were found to have significantly positive relation with their satisfaction with an average score value of 0.554 at p<0.001.

75.6% of the faculty in the private sector felt that they are part of decisions that affect them. Of these, 42.9% were highly satisfied with the participatory decision making procedure. In contrast, more than 40% of the respondents in the public institutions claim that they are not involved in decisions that affect them and a significant number (20.7%) of them remained undecided.
Table 7: Decision making, information communication and value of faculty opinion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’m given the opportunity to participate in decisions that affect me.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>27.6%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>32.2%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>16.2%</td>
<td>32.4%</td>
<td>25.4%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m kept well informed of matters important to me.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>26.1%</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
<td>29.5%</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>38.6%</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>34.4%</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The administration values my opinion.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
<td>43.1%</td>
<td>36.3%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13.7%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, information communication looks better in the private HEIs than in the public ones. Almost the entire faculty in the private sector said that they are communicated of matters important to them. On the contrary, more than a quarter of the faculty in the public HEIs claimed that they are not communicated of matters that are important to them and nearly a quarter of them remained undecided. This must be one of the areas where the public HEIs need to work hard to improve the faculty satisfaction.

With regard to valuing faculty opinion, faculty satisfaction in the public and the private HEIs fall apart. The majority of the respondents from the public sector expressed their dissatisfaction with the management in valuing their opinion. It is only 15.9% of the faculty in the public HEIs who claimed that their opinions are valued by the administration. The result was significant at the p<0.001 level. Thus, the need for bringing faculty on board is immediate in the public HEIs.

Generally, the private HEIs seem to have a good culture of accommodating faculty concerns, which is an important aspect of management. 75% of the faculty working for the private institutions claimed to have a stake in making decisions that affect them. They also feel that they are kept informed of matters important to them and their opinions are valued.
Table 8: Admin commitment to meet the needs of the faculty and the department

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My institution facilitates my professional development.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>87</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>49.4%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>43.6%</td>
<td>38.6%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
<td>30.3%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My Dean facilitates the work and the development of my Department.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>40.6%</td>
<td>39.6%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>41.3%</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the table above, we see that there is faculty satisfaction in both sectors. However, there is still a difference among the satisfaction of the faculty in the two sectors. The faculty in the private HEIs appear to be more satisfied with institutional support than that of their counterparts in the public sector. 70.1% and 82.2% of the faculty in the public and private HEIs expressed their satisfaction with their institution’s effort to facilitate their professional development, respectively. The Dean’s commitment to facilitate the work of the faculty and the development of departments seem to be of less concern to the faculty in the private sector than that of the faculty in the public institutions. While less than half of the respondents from the public HEIs said that their Deans facilitate their work and the development of their departments, 80% of the faculty in the private HEIs said they have Deans who are committed to get the works of the faculty and the department facilitated.

Facilities such as equipment and materials needed to support the faculty’s job and the commitment of the administration to fulfil the demands of the faculty and the department were found to have significantly positive association with faculty satisfaction. The average Pearson value indicates 0.665 at P<0.001.

Significant difference was observed in the satisfaction of the faculty in the private sector and the ones in the public institutions. As shown in Table 9, 75% of the respondents in the private sector claimed to have offices adequate for their needs. Paradoxically, in the public HEIs, where the resource could be abundant, more than half of the faculty said they do not have offices adequate for their needs. This was confirmed during the interview.
### Table 9: Provision of facilities to faculty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The office is adequate for my needs.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26.1%</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>38.6%</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>61.9%</td>
<td>88.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>53.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>22.8%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The university provides the equipment and materials needed to do my job well.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>38.2%</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The classrooms where I teach are conducive to learning.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.3%</td>
<td>38.6%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>56.9%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>18.9%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>38.4%</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The administration does all it can to meet the needs of my department.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>23.9%</td>
<td>44.3%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>39.0%</td>
<td>34.0%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>26.1%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More than 30% of the faculty in the public HEIs complained about the availability of teaching materials. On the contrary, nearly 80% of the respondents from the private sector said that their institutions provide them with facilities they need for their job. The Chi-square test result shows significant association at 5% level.

The result obtained about the classroom varies considerably. The majority of the faculty in the public HEIs feel that the classrooms are not that conducive to teaching. A significant number of them were undecided. The feeling of the faculty in the private sector is quite opposite. More than 90% of the faculty in the private sector claimed that they teach in classrooms that are convenient to learning. The faculty in the private sector found the classrooms more convenient than those in the private sector.
Similarly, the faculty in the private sector seem to enjoy better commitment of their administration than their counterparts in the public HEIs. 68.2% of the faculty in the public HEIs said they have no enough support from the administration whereas nearly 75% of the respondents from the private HEIs claimed to have administration that is committed to supporting them in their job.

**Table 10: Encouragement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
<td>14.9%</td>
<td>40.2%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>38.6%</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
<td>39.4%</td>
<td>31.9%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in the table above, the faculty in both sectors seem to be encouraged by their department chairs, which is important for the faculty motivation. More than half of the respondents from the public HEIs said they are appreciated by their department Chairs. The number gets higher in the private sector where more than 80% of them claimed to receive appreciation from their department Chairs. As the statistical significance reveals, the gap between the two sectors is significant. This remains more of a concern for the public HEIs than the private ones.

**Table 11: Values of the faculty and their institutions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>51.0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>38.0%</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sharing common values makes an institution become successful (Radford University 2009). Table 11 shows that the public HEIs seem to have less faculty sharing their values than the private ones. While only 27.1 of the respondents from the public HEIs have common values with their institutions, more than 80% of the respondents from the private sector felt that their values are similar to the values of their institutions. It looks much easier for the private HEIs to get their visions, missions and goals met.
Table 12: Faculty feelings about the importance of their institution to them

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The future of the institution is important to me.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
<td>55.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>39.4%</td>
<td>46.8%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sense of belongingness is among the most important factors that contribute toward the success of an institution. This happens when the faculty think that their institutions are important to them. Both sectors seem to have faculty that visualize the future of their respective institutions and feel that their institutions are important to them. However, the private HEIs seem to have more faculty with such a feeling than the public institutions. Nearly all of the respondents in the private sector believe that their institutions are important to them.

Table 13: Faculty feelings about the leadership and their institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’m happy with the leadership of my institution.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37.9%</td>
<td>26.4%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
<td>40.6%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t hear much complaining from my colleagues about my institution.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>52.3%</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>40.2%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28.4%</td>
<td>24.7%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td>23.7%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a positive relation between faculty satisfaction and the leadership. The smoother the relationship between the faculty and the leadership, the higher the faculty satisfaction. As indicated in Table 13 above, the faculty feelings regarding their leadership is worrisome in the public HEIs. The majority of them claimed that they are not happy with the leadership of their institutions and a significant number of them remained undecided. Contrary to this, more than 80% of the faculty in the private HEIs expressed their pleasure with the leadership of their institutions.
The response of the faculty from the public HEIs about their leadership corresponds to their response on complaints. More than 80% of them said that they hear much complaint regarding their institution. This seems to be less common in the private sector. The statistical test also proves the existence of significant difference between the sectors at P<0.05.

Table 14. Faculty feelings about working at their institutions and their overall satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Very Untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very True</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If I had to do it over again, I wouldn’t work for this institution.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25.3%</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, I’m satisfied with my job.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>41.0%</td>
<td>43.0%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows the overall satisfaction level of the faculty in both sectors. The faculty desire to stay in the institution looks better in the private HEIs than in the public. While only 55.5% of the respondents from the public sector demonstrated readiness to work for their institutions if given a second chance, nearly 70% of the faculty in the private HEIs showed determination to work for their institutions. Asked to express their overall satisfaction, 27.3% and 84% of the faculty in the public and private HEIs claimed to be satisfied with their job, respectively. This difference was found to be statistically significant with a value of 0.632 at P<0.001.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Conclusion
The overall satisfaction of the faculty showed statistically significant variation between the two sectors – public and private. The overall faculty satisfaction looks better in the private sector than in the public sector.

The gap between the sectors remaining significant, the majority of the faculty in both sectors were found to be satisfied with (a) the work environment, (b) administration’s efforts to facilitate professional development, and (c) department chairs’ encouragement. Fortunately, both sectors have faculty that (a) claim to be loyal and dedicated to their departments and institutions, (b) think the future of their institutions is important to them and (c) have the desire to work with their institutions.
The areas of concern for the faculty in the public HEIs include lack of participatory decision making procedure, failure to value faculty opinion, failure to communicate matters important to the faculty, lack of shared values between the faculty and the institutions, unhappy feelings among the faculty toward the leadership, poor provision of certain facilities, low determination of the management to provide needed support to the faculty, and poor benefits like pay, family, health. On the other hand, the private sector was found to have worrying salary scheme. Some faculty members in some of the disciplines were found to be paid less than others. Exaggerated expectation of the management from the faculty was another area of concern for the faculty in the private sector.

**Recommendations**

Based on the conclusions drawn from the analysis of the study, the following recommendations were made:-

**The public HEIs**

The public HEIs can exploit the special privilege bestowed upon them to meet the needs of the faculty and the departments. They, therefore, need to: (a) capitalize on their faculty’s loyalty, dedication, desire to work for their institutions and their positive feelings about their institutions and make them more productive; (b) further strengthen the work environment and the administrative functions; (c) review their benefit schemes; (d) establish systems that ensure faculty confidence on the leadership, faculty participation in decisions that affect them, effective communication of matters that are important to the faculty, and adequate supply of facilities to the faculty and departmental needs; (e) ensure that the faculty are provided with the support they need; and (f) ensure the development of shared vision, mission and goals between the faculty and the institutions.

**The private HEIs**

Although the PHEIs were found to have faculty with better satisfaction, there is no guarantee for the situation to remain unchanged since satisfaction is affected by the never-ending needs of the faculty, which gets easily influenced by external factors. Thus, the private HEIs should make sure that they: (a) maintain and further strengthen the current situation through continuous research; (b) make continuous efforts toward improving their provisions; (c) review their salary schemes especially the salary of the faculty in some of the disciplines that are paying; (d) be abreast of changes and developments and adjust accordingly; and (e) never feel complacent of the current achievements which are subject to change any time.

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Implementation of the School Improvement Program (SIP) in Addis Ababa City Administration: Achievements, Challenges and Prospects

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Tel. +251 911 239914

Abstract
The quality of higher education can not be guaranteed with out ensuring the quality of education at the primary and secondary levels. School Improvement Programme (SIP) is one of the six pillars of the General Education Quality Improvement Package (GEQIP), that is intended to enhance the quality of education in the Ethiopian primary and secondary schools; which in turn will definitely have an impact on the quality of higher education. This study examined the implementation of the School Improvement Programme (SIP) in Addis Ababa City Administration and identified the achievements, challenges and prospects of the programme. Multistage Stratified Random Sampling Technique was used to select 264 primary and secondary school students, 234 primary and secondary school teachers from 24 schools in eight sub cities of Addis Ababa city Administration. Seventy experts at the kebele and sub-city education and training offices, city administration education office, and federal ministry of education levels also took part in the study as respondents. A blend of both quantitative and qualitative approaches to research has been used to conduct the study. About 99% of the distributed questionnaires were returned and data were analysed using SPSS. Although further efforts are needed to bring significant improvement, the study has shown that encouraging achievements have been made at the school level, with respect to the Learning and Teaching as well as the Leadership and Management Domains. However, achievements in School Environment and Community Involvement Domains were found very low. Furthermore, lack of school facility, insufficient budget, lack of the necessary awareness and practical involvement of the community, lack of trained teachers for special needs education, and lack of the necessary awareness and practical involvement of teachers were identified as some of the major challenges in implementing SIP. At present it was found that most of the schools covered by this study are at the Implementing/Functioning level of the School Improvement Programme, indicating that they have to work hard to rise to the embedded level. The study has also disclosed that the school improvement programme will have significant prospects in terms of enhancing the learning and teaching process, in bringing about a healthy and safe education environment, and in creating a strong partnership between the community/parents and the school; among others. In order to overcome the challenges and to realize the objectives of the programme, the study has recommended integrated efforts of all stakeholders of the programme mainly, the school community, the external community including parents and the Government.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CPD: Continuous Professional Development
E.C.: Ethiopian Calendar
EMPDA: Educational Materials Production and Distribution Agency
ESDP: Education Sector Development Programme
INTRODUCTION

Background

Ethiopia is a country situated in the Horn of Africa (between latitude 3° and 18°N and longitudes 33° and 48°E), that has been landlocked since the independence of its Northern neighbor Eritrea in 1993. At present, Ethiopia is bordered by Eritrea to the North, the Sudan to the West, Kenya to the south, Djibouti to the Northeast, and Somalia to the East. It is one of the oldest nations in the world that has yielded some of the oldest traces of humanity, making it an important area in the history of human evolution. Currently Ethiopia has a population of about 74 million (Federal Republic of Ethiopia Population Census Commission, 2008).

It has been also claimed that, if the Country’s education is regarded historically, the Ethiopian church schools represent the oldest continuous system in the world (Cameroon, et al, 1983:95). This indicates that Ethiopia has a long history of education. However, a major progress was not observed in the expansion of quality modern secular education in the country over the last centuries, in spite of the attempts made in the last decade. As a result, the country has one of the world’s worst education and development indicators that could not improve its people’s subsistence agriculture. For instance Ethiopia’s HDI rank in the United Nations Human Development report of 2009 was 171 out of 177 countries covered by the UNDP Human Development Index (UNDP, 2009).

Although, the current government’s commitment in the expansion of general education and higher education is encouraging, number of schools, higher institutions and enrolment alone do not indicate the progress of the education sector, without ensuring quality, equity and efficiency (internal and external efficiency), at all levels. Since the primary and secondary levels of education are the foundation and pillar of higher
education, a thorough investigation of the recently introduced SIP in terms of the domains, elements and selected indicators set out for implementation is important.

Addis Ababa City Administration is one of the two city administrations of Ethiopia. It was founded in 1887 during the reign of Emperor Menelik. Currently Addis Ababa has a population of about 2.7 million (Federal Republic of Ethiopia Population Census Commission, 2008). As of academic year 2006/07, there were 519 primary and 123 secondary governmental and nongovernmental schools in the city. 93 of the primary schools (with a total of 177,375 students and 5,605 teachers) and 31 of the secondary schools (with a total of 87,603 students and 2431 teachers) are governmental schools (MoE, 2008).

This study has been designed to examine the Implementation of the newly introduced School Improvement Programme (SIP) in Addis Ababa City Administration by taking a sample of selected public primary and secondary schools from all sub-cities.

**Statement of the Problem**

Education indicators are tools for planning, monitoring and evaluating the development of the education system and they help to understand how well the sector performs. Quality is one such major indicator of an education system that requires improvement time and again. That is why it is proposed to assess the implementation of SIP introduced to enhance the quality of the general education sub sector.

Carrying out research in education at different corners of the Country is also as important as the pressing need for expanding educational opportunities and for improving the quality at all levels as well as for planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating the performance of the education system. The Ethiopian Education and Training Policy (ETP) of April 1994 also points out research in education as one of its specific objectives (MOE, 1994).

Notwithstanding the Ethiopian Government’s commitments and efforts to improve the access, quality, equity and efficiency of the Country’s education system since the adoption of the policy in 1994, it was observed that the major achievement of the policy was in access, implying that much has to be done to improve the quality.

The Ethiopian Federal Ministry of Education (MoE) has now become aware of the problems that hinder the provision of quality education in the general education sub sector and has become cognizant of the importance of launching the School Improvement Programme (SIP). The Ethiopian School Improvement Programme (SIP) was introduced in 1999 E.C. as one component of the six pillars identified for the General Education Quality Improvement Package (GEQIP).

When a new programme is introduced it may face many challenges in its implementation. Since SIP is also a new programme under implementation, we cannot say that it is being implemented perfectly. Even if we assume that it is being implemented properly, an assessment of the achievements, challenges and prospects is essential. Above all, SIP is a dynamic process that involves many stakeholders and resources as its input,
process/throughput, output, outcome, and impact. However, the Ethiopian SIP’s achievements, challenges and prospects have not yet been assessed to identify the strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities through research.

Thus, in order to ensure the effective and efficient implementation of the programme, it is necessary to identify its strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities through research; and then to propose possible scenarios of retaining the strengths/achievements, for overcoming the challenges, for preventing potential threats and for harvesting the opportunities.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following basic questions were taken into account and examined in order to address the problem vis-à-vis the domains, elements and performance indicators given in the Ethiopian School Improvement Framework of 1999 E.C.:

1. To what extent is the teaching and learning process successful in the schools?
2. What does the existing school environment (in terms of healthy and safe condition for students’ learning) look like in implementing SIP?
3. What is the actual school leadership and management practice in implementing SIP, compared to those indicated in the blueprint?
4. To what extent is the community involved in the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation activities of SIP at different levels?
5. What is the existing level of implementation of the school Improvement Programme in the schools?

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The specific objectives of the study are:

- Assess the accomplishment of the teaching and learning process in the schools vis-à-vis the indicators of learning and teaching domain indicated in the SIP framework.
- Examine the availability of conducive (safe and healthy) school environment for students.
- Investigate the existence of appropriate leadership and management in the schools.
- Examine the extent of community involvement/participation in the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of SIP at different levels.
- Identify the major achievements made so far.
- Elucidate the major challenges encountered in implementing SIP and the remedies used/attempted.
- Identify and classify the current level/stage of the schools (as categories of aspiring, developing, implementing, embedded) on the basis of their self evaluation exercise.
♦ Examine the prospects of the programme in ensuring quality education in the general education sub sector.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Although the study is delimited to a sample of Government primary and secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration, it is expected to be significant in identifying the achievements made so far, the challenges encountered and the prospects to come, in the implementation of SIP and in the attempt of improving schools. Moreover, it is expected to be significant in putting forward recommendations to retain the best practices and to overcome the challenges for future effective and efficient implementation of the programme. It is also believed to serve as a foundation for further similar studies in all regions and hence to throw light on the issue and draw the attention of the different stakeholders for its successful implementation. The quality of higher education in the country cannot be guaranteed without ensuring the quality of education at the primary and secondary levels. Thus, the study will also have an implication to the improvement of the quality of higher education.

SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study was delimited to a sample of 24 public/government primary and secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration. Since SIP has four domains, 12 elements and 150 indicators, the study was also delimited to about 50% of the variables (indicators) under the four domains and their respective elements of the SIP framework.

As the programme is new, one of the limitations was lack of recent research works in the Ethiopian context. Secondly, parents and PTA members could not avail themselves for interviews and for focus group discussions as anticipated, making the study to depend more, on data collected using questionnaires. This situation has dictated the researcher to use more of quantitative approach. Thirdly, although it was finally possible to collect about 99% of the distributed questionnaires, the data collection process was a challenge due to the relocation of many respondents to other offices as a result of the newly introduced and implemented Business Process Reengineering (BPR); that led to new administrative structures and new allocation of human resources at different levels as well as due to frequent meetings.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Kebele Education and Training Office: This refers to the lowest level of education management hierarchically below the Sub City Education and Training Office and above the school. In the context of Addis Ababa City Administration, kebeles are responsible for managing primary and pre-education.

Parent Teacher Association (PTA): This is a committee that comprises parents and teachers and that is formed to strengthen the relationship of the school and the community as a mechanism of creating conducive school environment (MOE, 1999 E.C.).

School Improvement Committee (SIC): This is a committee setup from the school community and parents to implement SIP in the Schools. The principal serves as the chairman of the SIC (MOE, 1999 E.C.).
Sub-City Education and Training Office: Education Management Structure in Addis Ababa immediately below the City Administration’s Education Bureau. In the context of Addis Ababa City Administration, Sub City Education and Training Offices are responsible for managing secondary education.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY
This research paper is organized in five sections. The first section deals with the introduction which comprises of the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitation and limitation of the study, definition of terms and organization of the study. In the second section, the conceptual framework is given. Section three presents highlights of the type of research design and methodology used, source and type of data, sampling method and sample size, instruments and method of data collection as well as methods of data analysis. The fourth section presents the results and discussion. Finally, the fifth section provides the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
Importance of Education for Development
“A year of schooling typically shows a 25 to 30 percent real rate of return, which appears noticeably better than that of other investment alternatives” (Hanushek, 1995: 236)

Education is a basic social service, which develops human resources and builds individual and national capacity, improves productivity, develops knowledge, skills, values and attitudes as well as awareness needed for meaningful and productive individual and social life. It is fundamental to enhancing the quality of human life and for ensuring social and economic progress (UNDP, 1997 in Todaro and Smith, 2007).

General education is the foundation for further education and training, and thus, contributes to the overall economic, social, and cultural development. It also promotes democratic thinking friendship tolerance and brotherhood.

In general education has a positive effect in each of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGS) and Human Development Index (HDI) of a country, directly or indirectly. As a result, education is taken as one of the important determinants of the Human Development Index (HDI) of any country.

The concept of school improvement
A school system is a dynamic system where input, throughput, and output and processes are continually underway. This continually changing feature of a school system demands it for a continuous improvement. Although the concept of school improvement dates back to the 1960s, it was strengthened in the mid 1980s, following the establishment of the OECD sponsored International School Improvement Project (ISIP) that established a distinctive body of knowledge which became internationally recognized (Reynolds D., Bollen R., Cremers B., Hopkins D., and Stroll L., 1996).

School improvement is defined in ISIP as a systematic, sustained effort aimed at change in learning conditions in one or more schools, with the ultimate aim of accomplishing
educational goals more effectively (van Velzen et al. in Hopkins D., 1989). According to Barens (2004), the term School Improvement also refers to the process of altering specific practices and policies in order to improve teaching and learning.

According to Plan International (2004), school improvement means making schools better places for learning. This relies on changes at both school level and within classrooms, which in turn depend on schools being committed to fulfilling the expectations of children and their parents. In this context, school improvement refers to a systematic approach that improves the quality of schools and hence the quality of education.

As per Hopkins D., (1989), SIP is a Plan-initiated education programme based on successful experience of improving the quality of education which has to follow an approach of collaborative responsibility and shared achievements. According to Epstein et al., (1997), a school improvement plan is a road map that sets out the changes a school needs to make to improve the level of student achievement, and shows how and when these changes will be made.

School improvement plans encourage staff and parents to monitor student achievement levels and other factors, such as the school environment, that are known to influence student success. With up-to-date and reliable information about how well students are performing, schools are better able to respond to the needs of students, teachers, and parents.

School improvement plan is also a mechanism through which the public can hold schools accountable for student success and through which it can measure improvement. One of the first and crucial steps in developing an improvement plan involves teachers, school councils, parents, and other community members working together to gather and analyze information about the school and its students, so that they can determine what needs to be improved in their respective schools. As the plan is implemented, schools continue to gather this kind of data. By comparing the new data to the initial information on which the plan was based, they and the public can measure the success of their improvement strategies.

**SIP domains and elements considered for improvement in the Ethiopian context**

In its attempts to ensure the quality of education in the Country, the Government of Ethiopia has been engaged in formulating and implementing different policies and programmes. One of the landmarks to this effect is putting the 1994 Education and Training Policy along with the Education Sector Strategy as well as the Education Sector Development Programs (ESDP I –III) in place. Another programme recently developed and currently under implementation is the General Education Quality Improvement Package (GEQIP) which has the following six important pillars in it.

1. Teacher Development Programme (TDP),
2. School Improvement Programme (SIP),
3. Civics and Ethical Education,
4. Curriculum Improvement Programme (CIP),
5. Information and Communication Technology (ICT), and
6. Management and Administration Programme (MAP).

Although there are six different pillars as indicated above, all of the other five pillars are there to strengthen SIP, because all of them are inputs for SIP which is reflected by student achievement.

The School Improvement Program (SIP) comprises four domains, 12 elements (three elements in each domain), 29 standards and 150 indicators; all of them targeting at improving students’ performance in the general education sub sector. According to the School Improvement Program Framework of the MoE (1999 E.C.), School Improvement is described as a concept that has a major goal of improving students’ performance in schools through the development of a School Self-Assessment System which is undertaken against the four ‘school domains’. The four domains include: a) the teaching-learning process, b) school leadership and management, c) safe and healthy school environment, and d) relations among parents, community and school which is expressed as community involvement domain (MoE, 199 E.C.).

The elements and indicators of SIP are interdependent and complementary to each other, which are directed towards attaining the major goal of improving students’ performance.

The figure below indicates the conceptual framework for conducting the study. At the centre is the core need for implementing SIP, which is students’ performance. In order to accomplish this, we have the six domains and their corresponding elements (to be covered in the study) as well as the SIP process represented in three phases (problem identification, planning for change, implementing SIP, and evaluating the results). Elements and performance indicators relating to the four domains were developed and printed in the School Improvement Framework of the Ministry of Education. Performance indicators used in this study were selected from each domain of the framework.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research design

The study used a blend of both quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. The research method used for the study was more of descriptive survey of the existing situation regarding the implementation of SIP in Addis Ababa City Administration. More specifically, the study describes the achievements, challenges and prospects of the school improvement programme in Addis Ababa City Administration.

Source and type of data

In order to undertake the study, primary data were collected through questionnaires, focus group discussions (FGDs) and interviews with Regional Education Bureau Officials, selected Sub City Education Office Officials, selected school directors, teachers, students and parents from Addis Ababa City Administration as well as through personal observation. Secondary sources were also used to gather data/information that could not be obtained directly from the respondents.
**Target population, sampling method and sample size**

In the academic year 2000 E.C, there were sixty six complete public (governmental) primary schools, twelve first cycle secondary schools and eight second cycle secondary (or preparatory secondary) schools in the City Administration. This means, that the population of schools comprised of sixty six complete primary schools, twelve first cycle secondary schools, and eight second cycle secondary schools making a total population of eighty six schools of all levels of the general education sub sector.

On the other hand the population from which respondents were selected included the following:

1. All grade 5 - grade 12 students, who were attending their education in governmental schools of Addis Ababa city administration in the academic year 2001 E.C. (2008/09);
2. All principals of the above mentioned schools in Addis Ababa City Administration;
3. All teachers teaching in the above governmental primary and secondary schools;
4. All experts at kebele education and training offices, where the sample primary schools fall;
5. All experts at sub city education and training offices, attached to the implementation of SIP;
6. All experts at Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau, attached to SIP implementation; and
7. All experts at the Federal Ministry of Education who are/were involved in SIP implementation.

In order to select representative sample of schools, students and teachers, a multistage stratified random sampling technique was used. Accordingly, the population was divided into a number of mutually exclusive homogeneous sub populations/strata (sub cities, schools by level, and students by grade and sex), and then the samples were selected from the strata.

The rationale for using stratified random sampling for the study was the assumption that the socioeconomic condition across sub cities of Addis Ababa City Administration is not the same. For instance, the educational status and income of parents, the educational facilities of schools, educational facilities made available for students by parents, etc. in Bole Sub City may not be the same as those in Yeka or Kolfe Keranyo sub cities. Similarly all students at different levels and grades may not have the same knowledge in connection with the implementation of the programme, which may give rise to difference in understanding/responding to the items of the questionnaire. That is why it was assumed that there is heterogeneity among the sub cities of Addis Ababa City Administration, and levels of education but homogeneity within a grade. But further stratification by gender was made in order to capture representatives of both sexes. In this way the students in the city administration were stratified by sub city; students of each sub city were stratified as primary and secondary; then by grade level and finally by gender (as male and female). The next figure shows how the stratification of students was done.
A similar approach/stratification was used to select teachers except that the population of teachers was stratified by sub city, school level, department and gender in order to take a representative sample. Details of the sample selection for each category are given in the next sub-sections.

In contrast to the sampling method used at the school level, all experts attached to GEQIP/SIP participated in the study in providing data at the kebelle, sub city, city administration and federal ministry levels; since the number of experts in charge of SIP implementation in the respective offices was relatively small (in most cases less than five experts at each level).

In order to ensure the reliability and validity of the instruments, a pre-test was conducted in Arada and Nifas Silk Lafto Sub Cities. The reliability (alpha) coefficients for the instruments of the pre-test were found to be 0.982 and 0.86 for staff and students respectively. Consequently, the main survey considered the remaining eight sub cities.

Selection of sample schools

After stratifying the schools in each sub city as complete primary, first cycle secondary and second cycle secondary, sample schools were selected from each sub city proportional to size, such that one school from each level was included from each sub city with the exception of Yeka Sub City, where two primary schools were included because of a relatively greater number of primary schools in that sub city compared to the others. Furthermore, the selection of primary schools was done in such a way that the school to be included has grade 5-8 students. The rational behind this is that the questionnaires were designed to be completed by students who can read and write Amharic. Although grade four students were usually included in national learning assessment surveys conducted before, considering the large number of questions/indicators in the instruments of the current study, only sample students from grades 5-8 were included from the primary level of the general education sub sector. As a result, nine primary schools (about 14%), eight

Figure 10: Four levels at which the target population of students was stratified to use a multi stage stratified sampling technique.
first cycle secondary schools (75%), and seven second cycle secondary schools (about 88%) of the total in each category were selected from all sub cities randomly.

Thus, a total of twenty four primary and secondary schools altogether (about 28% of the target population of schools from all levels) were included in the study.

Selection of sample students
As it was previously indicated, a multi stage stratified random sampling technique has been used to select sample schools and students. After selecting a school, firstly the number of sections for each grade in each sample school was identified and one section was randomly selected from each grade level. This was done on the assumption that students within the same school and grade level are homogeneous with regard to SIP implementation. Secondly, an attendance sheet of each randomly selected section of a grade was obtained, from which separate lists of male and female students in each section were prepared. Finally, two males from the list of male students, and two females from each list of female students of the sample sections/classes of each grade and school, were selected using a systematic random sampling technique to participate in the study. In this way four students (two females and two males) were selected to represent each grade level and to take part in the survey as respondent students to complete the students’ questionnaire. That is, sixteen students (eight females and eight males) from each primary school in the sample as well as eight students from each sampled secondary school (four females and four males) were chosen on a random basis to complete the questionnaire. This means that 264 primary and secondary school students were involved as respondents in the study.

Selection of sample teachers, principals and department heads
In order to select school staff members for the sample first, a list of all departments in the schools was identified and five department heads were selected regardless of their sex, using simple random sampling technique. Secondly, a list of all teachers was identified and new lists of female and male teachers were prepared separately from which, two female and two male teachers were selected randomly. Thirdly, each school principal/vice principal was included as a member of the sample. This means that ten staff members (teachers, department heads and principals) were taken from each school for the sample. This indicates that, 90 primary school teachers, 74 first cycle secondary school teachers, and 70 second cycle secondary school teachers (including department heads and principals) took part in the study as respondents at the school level. This shows that 234 teachers (including department heads and principals) were selected for the sample at the school level.

Selection of participants from kebele, sub-city, city administration and federal levels
For simplicity of identification, this group of respondents has been categorized as higher level management of SIP implementation. All experts working in the General Education Quality Improvement Package (GEQIP) in general and SIP in particular at the Kebele Education and Training Office, Sub City Education and Training Office, City Administration Education Bureau, and Federal Ministry of Education fall in this category and all available members of the category (70 experts at different levels) were involved in the study as respondents. That is, all relevant respondents participated at these levels due to the less number of experts working for SIP, as indicated earlier.
Other respondents
Twenty four principals, five heads of Kebele Education and Training Offices, six Heads of Sub-City Education and Training Offices, one City Administration Education Bureau expert attached to SIP, and four experts at the Ministry of Education attached to SIP implementation were also involved in the study.

Instrument and procedures of data collection
Different questionnaires and interview guides comprising the four domains and their elements as well as other relevant indicators, were prepared and pilot tested. The over all reliability coefficient (alpha coefficient) of the instrument obtained after analyzing the pilot data collected from staff was found to be 0.982, indicating the adequacy of the instrument. However the reliability coefficient (alpha coefficient) of the instrument obtained after analyzing the pilot data collected from students was found to be 0.702. As a result the students’ questionnaire was revised and tested again. Nevertheless, the reliability was improved after revision (with alpha coefficient of 0.86).

In the meantime, data collectors/enumerators were recruited, trained and deployed to administer the instruments and to collect the data necessary for the study. Regular follow up and supervision of the data collectors has been performed to ensure the reliability of the data. Focus group discussions with 64 students, interviews with 40 principals and experts as well as personal observations were also made.

Methods of data analysis
The data collected using questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions and personal observation were encoded using a computer package known as Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and were cleaned carefully. Then, descriptive statistical methods and tools such as frequency distribution tables and graphs were applied for data analysis and for the description of results. Names of schools and individuals were excluded in the analysis for reasons of ethical issues and due to the fact that the quantitative analysis does not personalize results.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Questionnaires were prepared and administered to 24 principals, 117 department heads, 96 teachers, 70 higher level managers and experts at the Kebele, Sub City, City Administration Education Bureau and Ministry of Education levels, as well as 264 primary and secondary school students. The total number of questionnaires distributed to respondents at the different levels mentioned above was 571. Out of these 568 questionnaires (99.47%) were completed and collected.

Interviews were also conducted with the 24 principals (100% of the planned), five heads of Kebele Education and Training Offices (62.5% of the planned), six Heads of Sub-City Education and Training Offices (75% of the planned), one City Administration Education Bureau expert attached to SIP (100%), and four experts at the Ministry of Education attached to SIP implementation (100%). That is, it was not possible to conduct the interview with three heads of Kebele and two Sub City Education and Training Offices as they could not avail themselves for the interview due to meetings and other assignments. Moreover, focus
group discussions were conducted with 64 primary and secondary school students from Yeka and Addis Ketema Sub Cities.

**Characteristics of the respondents students**

A total of 264 (132 male and 132 female) students took part in the study as respondents. Out of these 144 (54.6%) were primary, 64 (24.2%) lower secondary, and 56 (21.2%) upper secondary school students.

The lowest and highest age limits of the students who took part in the study as respondents were 11 and 22 respectively. It was also found that a good percentage of the students in each grade were above the official age of attendance in that respective grade. For instance about 69% of the grade eight students were found to be in the age group of 15-18, while the official age of attendance for that grade is 14. Similarly, even though the official age of attendance for grade 7 students is 13, about 47% of the respondents selected from grade 7 were found in the age group 15-18.

**Teachers, Department Heads, Principals and Experts at Higher Level Management of the Education System**

Out of the total number of staff members (teachers, department heads and principals) who took part in the study as respondents, 37.2% were found to be females and the remaining 62.8% were males. In fact, the selection of teachers was done in such a way that two males and two females be included from each school. On the other hand, most of the randomly selected department heads were found to be males; indicating that a lower proportion of females were department heads compared to males. Moreover, all principals of the selected schools were found to be males. This situation has contributed to the lower percentage of female staff members included for the study. Comparison of participant staff members’ age group has also shown that the highest portion of participants (close to 46%) were found to be in the age group 23-27 followed by those in the age group 28-32 (17%).

Looking into the educational characteristic of participant staff members, it was found that about 62% of them were first degree holders followed by 33% diploma, 3% certificate and 1.7% second (master’s) degree holders. With regard to service year of respondents, the study has shown that most of the respondents (47%) have served for 1-5 years; followed by 24% and 16.2% of those who have served for more than 20 years and 6-10 years respectively.

Similarly seventy respondents were selected from higher level management of the education system. Experts working at the Kebelle Education and Training Office, Sub City Education and Training Office, City Administration Education Bureau and Federal Ministry of Education levels fall in this category.

Out of the seventy respondents who participated in the study from, sixteen of them (close to 23%) and 54 of them (about 77%) were females and males respectively. Regarding the age distribution of respondents in this category it was found that most of them (31.4%) were in the age group 48-52 followed by 33-37 (17.1%). Moreover, all respondents at this level were found to have first degree and second degree qualifications, with about 77% of them having first degree and about 23% of them having second degree. This shows that a good number of
qualified human resources are assigned at the different levels of the education management, about 57% of them having experience of 20 years or more. Figure 3 below shows the educational qualification of the respondents in the above mentioned category by sex.

![Educational qualification of respondents by sex](image)

**Figure 11: Educational qualification of respondents at higher level of the education management by sex**

**Results related to the basic questions of the study**

As it was previously explained, School Improvement is a dynamic process that requires input, undergoes throughput and delivers outputs. Thus it has different activities that have to be carried out at different stages of implementation.

The first and foremost important step is making the necessary activities in the beginning or accomplishing the preparatory activities.

Analysis of data collected from principals of the selected sample schools in connection with the preparatory activities, has indicated that all schools included in the study have made a number of necessary preparations in terms of organizing stakeholder workshop, dissemination of the necessary guidelines to stakeholders as well as setting up the necessary organizational support (including formation of SIP Committee, student council, plan preparation committee, and parent teacher association) for implementing SIP.

It was also observed that all participating schools have prepared three years strategic plans and yearly action plans based on results of their self assessment. Analyses of data collected using questionnaires and interviews with the respective principals also indicated that almost all of the schools included in the study (22 out of the 24 schools or about 92%) have made preparations in availing the necessary human resources (mainly teachers) that have a key role in realizing the core objective of SIP. The remaining two schools indicated that their preparation in terms of human resources was to a lower extent.

However, although there is a renovation and expansion of additional buildings and classrooms in all of the schools covered by the study, it was found from the principals’
interviews that most of them did not have other necessary financial and material resources ready for implementing the programme. Interviews held with the respective principals have shown that there is an acute shortage of budget for availing adequate teaching materials, textbooks, and other reference materials due to a limited public budget allocated to them.

In order to see teaching staffs’ (teachers and department heads excluding principals) opinions in relation to the availability of the necessary financial and material resources for implementing SIP in the schools, teaching staffs’ data were separately analysed. Consequently, it was found that only 6.7% and 22.9% indicated that the extent of financial resource arrangement/preparation was ‘very great’ and ‘great’ respectively; while 11.4% and 29.5% of them indicated ‘a very low extent’ and ‘low extent’ respectively. This shows that a larger proportion of the respondent teachers (about 41%) have indicated that adequate preparations for financial resources were not made; compared to those about 30% who indicated the existence of adequate preparation.

Another amazing finding of the current study in this connection was that about 28% of the respondents indicated that they do not know whether there was an adequate financial arrangement for implementing SIP in their respective schools.

Results of the analysis of teaching staffs’ responses in connection with the necessary preparations of material resources for realizing SIP, about 41% indicated that the preparation was not adequate; compared to about 26% who indicated that it was adequate. Similar to the lack of knowledge of financial resource preparations made for implementing SIP in their respective schools, it was also learnt from the results of the analysis that about 27% of the teaching staff said that they did not know whether their school made adequate preparations in terms of material resources or not.

**Implementation of SIP**

As it was explained earlier, the actual implementation of the School Improvement Programme (SIP) focuses on the four domains, namely: the Learning and Teaching Process Domain, the School/Education Environment Domain, the Leadership and Management Domain and the Community Involvement Domain. Highlights of the findings in relation to each domain are presented in the next sub sections.

**Learning and teaching process domain**

The learning and teaching domain is the heart of the School Improvement programme in the sense that all other domains work as a system to enhance the learning and teaching process so that students’ achievement can be improved significantly.

Data relating to twenty four performance indicators of this domain have been collected from teachers, department heads, principals, and experts at higher management levels (Kebelle, Sub City, City Administration, and Federal levels) of the education system.

In addition, data pertaining to twenty learning and teaching performance indicators selected as student variables were collected and analysed. Results of the analysis of the performance indicators common to all categories of respondents are presented together and those that are not common are presented separately.
As it was described earlier, the learning and teaching domain has three elements. These are: the quality of teaching, learning and assessment, and curriculum. The results of each element are briefly presented and discussed in the next paragraphs.

**Element 1: The Quality of teaching**

Availability of quality teaching in schools is one of the essential conditions that help for realizing the objectives of the School Improvement Programme.

In relation to the existence of this element in the schools, the study has shown that the accomplishment of the schools in the thirteen of the fourteen performance indicators selected for this element measured in terms of the responses of respondents (taking the sum of both ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’) was above average. In fact, the aggregate average response representing strongly agree and agree for all fourteen performance indicators of this element was found to be 68%. The variable/performance indicator in this element which was found having below average (32.9%) responses of strongly agree and agree taken together was evidence of up to date action research based procedures established for the support of teachers’ practice, through critical reflection and understanding of effective methods.

The absence of action research based procedures in the schools was actually identified by all principals during personal interviews as a bottle neck in achieving quality teaching.

**Element 2: Learning and assessment**

The second element of the learning and teaching domain is learning and assessment. This element was studied because it is important that the schools have to hold high expectations for student achievement, students have to be actively involved and motivated to learn, assessment of learning practices has to support improved learning outcomes, reporting practices have to support learning outcomes. In connection to this element data pertaining to eight performance indicators were collected and analysed. Consequently, the aggregate percentage of responses of the rating scales ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ taken together for the eight learning and assessment indicators was found to be about 58% which is slightly above average. However, the total response rate of the performance indicator/variable on improvement of students’ score compared with the starting point of SIP implementation (taking ‘strongly agree and agree’ together) was found to be 48.8% which is slightly below average. This indicates that the schools and other stakeholders need to work hard to improve the students’ achievement to the desired level.

**Element 3: Curriculum**

In assessing the situation of SIP implementation in the schools by taking two performance indicators pertaining to curriculum, it was found that much has not been done by the schools in this regard. Specifically, the study has shown that curriculum materials are not evaluated by teachers for appropriateness to the needs and developmental stages as well as for inclusiveness. This situation was observed by 45.4% and 9.2% of the respondents who indicated ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ respectively; whereas only 42.7% of the respondents stated ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’. Another curriculum related performance indicator considered in this study was, evidence of evaluation of curriculum materials by teachers to ensure that they are relevant to the objective reality/context of the area.
Accordingly, it was found that only 42.1% of the respondents stated both ‘strongly agree and agree’ indicating that it has not been a success in implementing SIP so far.

4.3.2. School environment domain

School environment domain is the second domain of the School Improvement Programme, which contributes to students’ achievement. Unless there is safe and healthy environment that motivates students to learn and teachers to teach, all efforts targeting at realizing SIP may be fatal. Thus, from the three elements of this domain, eighteen performance indicators of school environment were selected for the study. Details of the findings for the School Environment Domain pertaining to the three respective elements are briefly presented here.

Element 1: Student focus

Analysis of the selected student focus indicators of the school environment domain has shown that the performance of the schools was not encouraging. For instance the average percentage rating score in favour of the five indicators of the element was found to be 45.1% as indicated in Table 12. This shows that there was a lower achievement of the element in the implementation of SIP. That is, the schools need to do much more to accomplish student focus activities.

Element 2: Student empowerment

The average response rate in favour of the three indicators selected from this element was found to be about 70%. This shows that, compared to the achievement in student focus element described above, the schools have performed better in empowering students, such as involving students in School Council, youth parliament and class meetings as well as in providing them with an opportunity to take part in leadership of school clubs.

Element 3: Student support

Although education environment has to be safe, supportive, and welcoming for all students, the schools under this study seem to have performed lower in terms of the ten selected variables setup for this purpose. Because, the average percentage response rate in favour of the indicators of this element was found to be about 36%.

OC: The locations of most of the schools covered by the study (more than 85%) are very close to main roads where there are heavy vehicle and other traffics as well as distractive noise pollution. The figure below illustrates evidence to the inconvenient location of some schools along with students exposed to risks of vehicle accidents and health problems. Building constructions, welding of metals and other distractive activities were also undergoing in many of the schools, making it difficult for students and teachers to conduct peaceful teaching and learning process. Solid waste was also observed very close to some schools and even inside the compound of some of them. These issues require the attention of all stakeholders if we strive for healthy, peaceful and safe education environment.

Students who participated in the focus group discussion and principals have also explained their concern in relation to these types of problems that hinder the learning and teaching process.
In general although improved learning environment would lead to increased student learning and achievement, this has not been the case in Addis Ababa City Administration as observed from the above results.

**Leadership and management domain**

School leadership and management hold a very important role in the implementation of the School Improvement programme starting from its inception up to its implementation and impact assessment/evaluation. Principals are the key players in this process. One of their most important responsibilities is to ensure that improvement plans reflect the characteristics of their own school and its community. In this study 18 performance indicators were selected from the three elements of the domain. Highlights of the findings in this connection are given below.

**Element 1: Strategic vision**

In connection to this element, results of the study have revealed that school strategic plans are developed as a result of self assessment with about 63% response rate indicating above average performance based on respondents’ rating. Alignment of professional appraisal and professional learning with school goals and vision was also observed by about 57% respondents who responded as strongly agree and agree altogether. Availability of values, ethics, guiding principles and purpose of the school and knowledge of these by the whole school community was also confirmed by about 60% of respondents who stated strongly agree and agree to the situation. However, only about 48 percent of the respondents indicated that the effectiveness of teaching and learning in all curricular activities is reviewed regularly.

**Element 2: Leadership behaviour**

The overall aggregate average response rate of the 12 performance indicators of this element (taking strongly agree and agree together) was found to be about 53%. Indicating a very slight above average achievement based on the opinion of the respondents.

**Element 3: School management**

Assessing whether human, material and financial resources are managed, aligned and used to support the achievement of high levels of student achievement as well as availability of regular and effective communication with all stakeholders in place were the two performance indicators taken for this element. Accordingly the average response rate for these indicators (taking strongly agree and agree together) was found to be about 45%, indicating a low performance.

**Community involvement domain**

Most indicators of this domain have no satisfactory response rates in the positive direction.

More specifically, the average response rate for the ‘Partnership with Parents and Guardians’ element (taking the aggregate of strongly agree and agree together) was found to be about 39%. For the second element on *engaging the community*, the average response rate was about 49%. In fact this average is relatively higher compared to the other elements because there is one indicator which does not directly measure community involvement, but rather illustrates the school’s readiness in putting a fertile ground for community involvement. This variable states as ‘There is a school policy which embraces community
involvement’ which is the schools’ responsibility. This indicates that, even though the schools have policies that welcome community involvement, communities did not show up. The third element on ‘Promoting Education’ has an average response rate of about 22% for both strongly agree and agree. When we see into individual indicators of this domain we can observe the following points among others.

The study has revealed that about 87% of the parents do not comment about the children’s homework; about 59% of the respondents indicated that there is no active involvement/participation of parents in formal structures such as Parent-Teacher Association and Kebele Education and Training Office. It was also learnt from the analysis (with about 52% response rate) that the schools do not have a commitment to educating and supporting parents and the community, through, for example, literacy programs and information on unsafe/harmful traditional practices. This indicates that community involvement domain, mainly most indicators pertaining to parents and community members are discouraging.

**Major achievements**

Respondent students, teachers, principals, and experts at higher level management of the education system were asked to indicate if there are achievements in implementing the School Improvement Programme and to indicate the level of importance of the indicators. Results of the response rates to the speculated achievement indicators are presented below.

The aggregated average for all indicators was found to be about 57% taking the options ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ together, which is slightly more than average.

With regard to the individual indicators of achievement in implementing SIP, the study revealed that the learning and teaching process has been improved (about 73% response rates favouring it) followed by the introduction of democratic culture among school community (with about 62% response rate) and improvement of the learning and assessment (with 58% response rate) as well as improvement in leadership and management (about 53%) in this order.

**Major challenges encountered in SIP implementation**

Besides the challenges previously discussed under each domain, other indicators listed below were included in the questionnaire to be rated by respondents.

Consequently, the study has identified the following as the major challenges (among others) in implementing SIP in the schools of the city administration taking the average of both ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ options.

1. Lack of school facility,
2. Insufficient budget,
3. Lack of the necessary awareness, attitude and practical involvement as well as support among the community, teachers, and students in SIP implementation,
4. Turnover/shortage of manpower,
5. Lack of trained teachers for special needs education
6. Lack of reward/motivation for those who deserve it,
7. Difficulty in understanding SIP guidelines, and
8. Overcrowded classrooms.

**Major prospects**
Contrary to the absence of significant expected achievements in implementing SIP indicated earlier, the future prospects are important as per the ratings given by the respondents.

According to the response rates obtained regarding the prospects of the School Improvement Programme; there is a room for improvement. The aggregate average response rate for the seven indicators prepared in this connection was found to be about 79% (taking both strongly agree and agree together).

If we look into the individual indicators, we can find the following in their order of importance:

1. The learning and assessment process can be enhanced and students’ achievement can be improved.
2. The quality of learning and teaching process can be enhanced. Efforts can be made to make the curriculum meaningful, inclusive and appropriate to the developmental stage and needs of the students. Teachers’ teaching practice can be improved, strong relationship between teachers and students can be ascertained.
3. Democratic culture can be cultivated in the schools.
4. Self evaluation practice can be enhanced in the schools.
5. Relationships between the home, school and the community enhance student learning and home experiences of students are used as a starting point for learning. Thus partnership of the school with parents/guardians, the community and external organizations can be fostered.
6. Effective and efficient school leadership and management can be demonstrated; resource management which supports educational programs and progresses to ensure quality education vis-à-vis the Country’s policies and strategies will be ensured.
7. Education Environment can become safe, supportive, and welcoming for all students.

**SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

**Summary**
The current study was conducted with the objective of assessing the implementation of the School Improvement Programme (SIP) in Addis Ababa City Administration by way of identifying the achievements so far made, the challenges encountered in the implementation process and the prospects the programme is expected to contribute in the future. To address the problem and the related issues, the study has tried to find answers to the basic questions stated earlier in section one.

With the purpose of finding answers to the basic/research questions and to attain the objectives of the research, 264 students, 234 teachers department heads and principals were selected from nine primary schools, eight lower secondary schools, and seven upper
secondary schools using a multistage stratified random sampling. Seventy experts at higher
levels of management of the education system who were directly involved in SIP
implementation were also selected to take part in the study as respondents. Interviews were
also held with experts at the higher levels of the education management and with principals
of the selected schools.

Data collected using questionnaires, focus group discussions and interviews were encoded
into a computer package known as SPSS and results were generated. Consequently, the
following major findings were obtained vis-à-vis the stated research questions.

- The Teaching and Learning Domain was relatively effective in the sense that the
  average response rate for all elements in this domain (taking the responses ‘strongly
  agree’ and ‘agree’ together) was found to be slightly above average (about 62%).
  Although there are many problems that have to be addressed to achieve the learning
  and teaching domain in the schools results of the interview obtained from respondent
  experts and principals were similar to the above.

- The School/Education Environment Domain was not found encouraging with an
  average response rate of about 44% for both strongly agree and agree. This result was
  also confirmed through direct observation and interviews with principals.

- The Leadership and Management Domain was also found to have an aggregate
  average response rate of about 53%, which is very slightly above average. Results
  from interviews were also found to match with the results of the analysis using
  linker’s scale.

- The fourth domain which is the Community Involvement Domain was found the
  worst of the SIP domains with an aggregate average response rate of about 38%
  (taking responses for both strongly agree and agree together). Principals and students
  also indicated during interviews and focus group discussions respectively that there is
  a loose link between the school and parents/community in implementing SIP.

- The average level of SIP implementation in the schools was also found to be the
  ‘Implementing/Functioning’ stage, a level at which SIP implementation activities are
  underway. Besides, the current study has identified the achievements made so far, the
  challenges encountered, and the future prospects in implementing SIP.

- If we look into the indicators of achievement included in the instruments of data
  collection, the most important achievement made in implementing SIP was that the
  learning and teaching process has been enhanced (about 73% response rates favouring
  it as indicated above) followed by the introduction of democratic culture among
  school community (with about 62% response rate) and improvement of the learning
  and assessment (with 58% response rate) as well as improvement in leadership and
  management (about 53%) in this order.

- On the other hand, lack of school facility, insufficient budget, lack of/limited support
  from the community, lack of awareness among the community, high
turnover/shortage of manpower, lack of trained teachers for special needs education,
lack of the necessary awareness, attitude and practical involvement in SIP
implementation among students, lack of reward for those who deserve it, difficulty in
understanding SIP guidelines, overcrowded classless, and lack of the necessary
awareness and practical involvement in SIP implementation among teachers, were
identified by respondents as challenges in the implementation of SIP.
In relation to the future prospects expected from SIP, respondents indicated the following:

- The learning and assessment process will be enhanced and students’ achievement will be improved.
- The quality of learning and teaching process can be enhanced. Efforts can be made to make the curriculum meaningful, inclusive and appropriate to the developmental stage and needs of the students. Teachers’ teaching practice will be improved, strong relationship between teachers and students will be ascertained.
- Democratic culture can be cultivated in the schools.
- Self evaluation practice can be enhanced in the schools.
- Partnership of the school with parents/guardians, the community and external organizations will be fostered.
- Effective and efficient school leadership and management can be demonstrated; resource management which supports educational programs and progresses to ensure quality education vis-à-vis the Country’s policies and strategies will be ensured.
- Education Environment will become safe, supportive, and welcoming for all students.

Conclusion

The current study has attempted to assess the extent of implementation of the School Improvement Programme (SIP) in Addis Ababa City Administration; by taking selected performance indicators from the four SIP domains and their respective elements. Emphasis was also given to the achievements made so far, challenges encountered in the process and the prospects it may bring in the future. The following conclusions have been drawn from the results of the analysis related to the basic questions of the study.

Preparatory stage: As a good beginning can be a means to a successful end, the preparatory stage serves as a foundation and takeoff for SIP implementation. According to results of the current study, although preparations were made in terms of availing human resources for SIP implementation, preparation of a three years strategic plan and yearly action plan, the preparation made in terms of financial and material resources was not adequate. This might have contributed as an impediment to the success of the programme in the city administration.

Implementation stage: In connection with the implementation stage/process of SIP, the following conclusions have been sketched vis-à-vis the selected indicators of the four domains.

Domain 1. Learning and teaching process: This domain was examined in terms of its three elements, namely: quality of teaching, learning and assessment, and curriculum. Accordingly, the achievement of SIP in Addis Ababa City Administration in this connection (with an aggregate average response rate favouring its success of 63%) can be said that it is relatively fair compared to the other domains. This shows that the extent of teaching and learning process has been to some extent successful in terms of the quality of teaching as well as in terms of learning and assessment with average response rates of about 68% and 58% respectively in favour of achievement. However, at present, there are no up-to-date action research based procedures established for the support of teachers’ practice, through critical reflection and understanding of effective methods. Similarly, Curriculum materials (syllabus,
textbooks, and teachers’ guides) are not evaluated by teachers for appropriateness to the needs and developmental stages of students as well as for inclusiveness. In addition, the curriculum materials are not evaluated by teachers to ensure that they are relevant to the objective reality (context) of the areas.

- **Domain 2. School environment:** Safe and healthy school environment contributes a great deal in delivering quality education. Although students are empowered in the sense that the schools have promoted the participation of students in school decision making; (e.g. school council, youth parliament and class meetings); the schools have provided students with the opportunity to participate in leadership programmes; (e.g. taking part in the leadership of school clubs); reproductive health and relationship issues are made part of the school programme for all year levels; the study has revealed that the achievement of the schools in this domain as a whole is very low at 44% response rate in favour of success. This indicates that the existing school environment in the City Administration is poor.

- **Domain 3. Leadership and management:** The schools have achieved slightly above average in the Strategic Vision and Leadership Elements, but below average in School Management Element. This shows that the overall existing school leadership and management in the schools is not encouraging.

- **Domain 4. Community involvement:** The extent of community involvement in the schools is at a very discouraging level, indicating that there is a wide gap between the community/parents and the schools.

There is evidence that plans and strategies as well as systems are in place (in the schools), indicating that the current level of SIP implementation in the schools is the Implementing/Functioning stage. But since this is the third year of implementation they should have been at the “Imbedded level” where, strategies are well rooted and evidence of sustained school improvement is ensured.

- Lack of school facility; insufficient budget; lack of the necessary awareness, attitude and practical involvement as well as support among the community, students, and teachers; high turnover/shortage of teaching staff; lack of clarity of SIP guidelines; and overcrowded classes are some of the challenges in implementing the School Improvement Programme in the City Administration.

The writer of this paper is also of the position that there are no integrated efforts of all stakeholders in the implementation process. This indicates that the School Improvement Programme has become a well articulated programme in the documents, but is not as fruitful as it was expected on the ground. The general conclusion that can be arrived from the analysis of the data relating to the selected indicators is that the programme is in its third year implementation period, yet most of the schools are at their implementation stage and significant landmarks/improvements were not observed so far in all domains (with an aggregate average response rate of about 45% in favor of achieving the selected performance indicators of the four domains & respective elements of the programme); the most discouraging being the school/education environment and community involvement domains.

- The last point in this conclusion is that if mechanisms are in place for successful participatory planning, monitoring and evaluation, the writer is highly optimist that the programme will bring a radical change in the quality of the general of education.
RECOMMENDATIONS

It is holistically and by inclusive response that the challenge of enhancing the level of student learning and achievement can be met. Thus, on the basis of the results of the current study, the following recommendations are forwarded for the successful implementation of the School Improvement Program:

1. Successful Schools are dynamic places with high expectations for everyone. Planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of School Improvement Program also requires joint commitment and involvement of the principal, staff, school council/SIP Committee parents, and other community members. Thus, unreserved efforts have to be made by the different levels of education management, including the school itself, to raise awareness among parents and community members so that the existing loose link between schools and parents/community can be strengthened. To this end, principals should explain the school improvement process and its benefits to students, staff, SIP committee, parents and other community members regularly.

2. Mechanisms such as disposal of wastes near the schools, relocation of schools away from the main road (through time), etc, have to be devised by the school management, kebele education offices, sub-city education offices, the city administration education bureau and by the Federal Ministry of Education as well as by other donors and stakeholders to make the school/education environment safe and conducive for learning and teaching.

3. Adequate resources such as human, financial and material resources have to be allocated by the government for the implementation of the programme.

4. The Government has to train adequate number of teachers and principals who can implement the programme at the school level as well as teachers who can handle special needs education. This can prevent the high turn over of staff observed in the current study.

5. The curriculum has to be evaluated by teachers and by other educators so as to cope with the developmental stage of the learners and with the dynamic contexts undergoing globally and locally.

6. Parent and student surveys have to be conducted by the school community, experts at higher levels of the education management, as well as by other stakeholders and interested researchers as regularly as possible, so that feedback of the implementation process can be gathered for improvement.

7. Similar and full-scale comprehensive researches have to be conducted in the area so that strengths can be retained and weaknesses can be corrected before wastage of resources occurs.

REFERENCES


The Functioning of Accreditation in Ethiopia Higher Education
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Abstract

In Ethiopia, the number of private higher education institutions (HEIs) has increased significantly over the past decade. The government of Ethiopia has set up an accreditation system as the main mechanism of overseeing the performance of these private HEIs. The Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA now ETQAA) is the main agency appointed by the government to undertake the accreditation system. This study analyzes the functioning of the accreditation system in Ethiopian higher education with an emphasis on the opinions of private HEIs on the system. To explore and identify the rationale behind the set up of the current accreditation system, the study draws on relevant literature related to the topic. Both quantitative and qualitative study approaches are used. Questionnaires, document analysis and personal communication via email are the main data collection tools. The study shows that the Ethiopian accreditation system is more inclined towards accountability rather than improvement approaches. Moreover, the private HEIs identify delays, stringent standards, a focus on input and a general negative attitude held towards them as major weaknesses of the accreditation system. Nevertheless, the private HEIs concur that the accreditation system has to be implemented in Ethiopia to enhance the contribution of private higher education to the country’s development goals.

Key words: Accreditation, private higher education, accountability and improvement

Acronyms

MOE: Ministry of Education
HERQA: Higher Education Relevance and Quality Assurance Agency
HEIs: Higher Education Institutions
FDRE: Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

Introduction

The term ‘quality assurance’ is related to different stakeholders’ concern about the overall performance of a given higher education system. Many countries are now making external quality assurance part of their higher education systems, and the experience of developing countries is not an exception to this. In 1991, when Ethiopia made the transition from a socialist to a market-based system, the government undertook certain measures to reform all levels of the education sector. The reforms resulted in significant changes to the country’s higher education system. Examples of these reforms include increases in the number of public higher education institutions (HEIs) and the introduction of private HEIs. Currently, there are 21 public and 56 private HEIs (Mekonen & Yemisrach, 2008, p.2). The Ministry of Education (from here on MOE) is responsible for governing both types of HEIs, but has more direct control over public institutions.
The Ethiopian private higher education which started about a decade ago is growing continuously. It accounts for almost a quarter of the students’ enrolment in the country (Kedir, 2009). Most of the private HEIs are for-profit and are owned by private investors. These institutions are not entitled to direct funding support from the government unlike their public counter-parts.

In light of the burgeoning demand for access to higher education in Ethiopia, the participation of private HEIs is considered vital. However, the private higher education sector is associated with several problems. There have already been records of malpractices (Mekonen & Yemisrach, 2008). In addition, the public by large prefers the public HEIs, for they are considered to be more legitimate than the private ones (Samuel, 2003). The accreditation system is the primary way the government controls and/or improves private HEIs. Given this background it is possible to infer that Ethiopia needs an accreditation system to balance the need for public control in one hand and the need for institutional development and support in the other hand.

The Ethiopian government established the Higher Education Quality and Relevance Agency (HERQA) in 2003. Prior to 2003, there was no strong built-in system to control quality in the sector (Wondwosen, 2008). HERQA is an independent agency, but it gets funding mainly from the government. In line with this, HERQA has the responsibility of undertaking both institutional and programmatic accreditation, as well as performing quality audits (Wondwosen, 2008, p.155). HERQA’s task in relation to accreditation is to make recommendations to the MOE about accreditation applications from private HEIs. The MOE makes the final decision in the accreditation process (Tesfaye & Dawit, 2008).

The accreditation system has three phases; pre-accreditation, accreditation and re-accreditation. The procedures in all the three phases are almost the same. The pre-accreditation system in Ethiopia is employed as a license to start a new program (Tesfaye & Dawit, 2008). After one year operating with the pre-accreditation permit, an institution can apply for an accreditation permit. The accreditation permit is valid for three years, after the third year the institution has to apply again to get the re-accreditation permit. To date, the accreditation system has only been applied to private HEIs.

After its establishment, the accreditation system (HERQA) has licensed new private HEIs which participated in the higher education market. The private HEIs, however, raised complaints on the procedures followed in the accreditation system. In line with this, this study focuses on the accreditation system of HERQA, with respect to the views of private HEIs. The focus of this study is on the accreditation system of HERQA, with respect to the views of private HEIs. Private HEIs raised complaints about the procedures followed in the accreditation system. It is significant to study this activity as the private sector is in its infancy stage and its importance will be enhanced in the future. As part of this, it is important to know the views of private HEIs as they are the main stakeholders in the accreditation system. If the views of private HEIs can be taken into consideration in the implementation of the accreditation system, the likelihood that the system contributes to the improvement of quality in the country’s higher education sector can be enhanced. HERQA has already undertaken research on the views of private HEIs about the accreditation process. The difference in this research is that a conceptual framework has been used to analyze the data.
Research Problem and Questions

Considering the Ethiopian condition, the research problem is formulated as: how does the current accreditation system function with respect to private HEIs? Accordingly the research questions below act as guidelines to the study:

1. What is the rationale behind the accreditation system in Ethiopia?
2. How do private HEIs perceive the strengths and weaknesses of the current accreditation system?
3. Is the accreditation system in line with the objectives and ambitions of the system?

Conceptual Framework

The concept of quality assurance is inherent in the system of higher education since its establishment in the medieval period (Van Vught, 1994). However, in most cases academics associate quality assurance with an initiative to develop a more managerial or market based approach in higher education (Brennan, 1997). Similarly, Woodhouse (2004) argues that “as a worldwide phenomenon external quality assurance began in the 1980s” (p.78). Hence, it is associated with the emergence of ‘massification’ in the higher education sector. As noted earlier, clearly organized external quality assurance is a recent trend in Ethiopian higher education system. According to Stensaker et.al. (2008) and Westerheijden et al. (2007) the introduction of an external quality assurance system is also an attempt to strengthen institutional autonomy and institutional capacity for self-government. In Ethiopia, the external quality assurance system is introduced mainly in response to a growing private higher education sector (Mekonen & Yemisrach, 2008, p.9). Thus, this can be interpreted as one way to control private HEIs. Nonetheless, Tesfaye and Dawit (2008) argue that “the ultimate goal of HERQA is to develop organizational culture in higher education that values quality and is committed to continuous improvement” (p.5). Whether the Ethiopian quality assurance system with its present structure is able to address the accountability and/or improvement approach will be commented upon in the following sections of this study.

The way a quality assurance system functions can be influenced by different factors that are related to its components. Such kind of factors can be related to: the way the external quality assurance agency is established, the focus of the quality assurance system, the methods and procedures used by the organization that carries out the review and the direct result of the accreditation system etc. In the framework of this study, the following concepts are identified as core points to analyze the performance of the Ethiopian accreditation system in the eyes of private HEIs. Each of the sub-domains of the accreditation system is discussed to investigate which attributes it must incorporate to emphasize accountability or improvement approaches. The objective here is not to claim that this framework must be taken as the ‘best accreditation system model,’ rather the ideas in the framework will be used as ‘ideal’ criteria to analyze the conditions in the Ethiopian accreditation system. The conceptual framework consists of the model discussed by Van Vught (1994).

Van Vught (1994) recommended a model of ‘multiple accreditation system’ to improve quality in higher education. In doing so, the author combined the main points from the ‘general model of quality assessment’ developed by Van Vught and Westerheijden (1993) (as cited in Van Vught, 1994, p.45). The core points of this conceptual framework are summarized as follows:
The Agent: As per the ‘multiple accreditation model’ the agent at the national level must have a legal status, and as much as possible should be independent from the government. Furthermore, it must focus on overseeing the overall quality assurance process. However, Harvey (2002) argues that even if the agency is granted freedom by legislation its performance could be influenced by the inherent culture of the organization, political agendas, limitations put upon it by government and funding aspects.

As noted earlier, HERQA has a legal status and its role in the accreditation system is limited to the extent of providing recommendation to MOE. Considering the nature of the Ethiopian higher education structure, it can be argued that an independent accreditation agency could not be used as in a well developed higher education systems like the USA. The USA has independent accreditation agencies which have helped the federal government to control quality of HEIs (Harvey, 2002; Ewell, 2007). But the higher education market in USA is decentralized and it has managed to function without strict control from the federal government for a long period of time. Furthermore, the existence of not-for-profit private HEIs is predominant in USA. Thus, the market by itself can help in controlling quality. In comparison to this, the Ethiopian higher education system is characterized with a nascent deregulated market structure dominated with for-profit private HEIs. In addition, Ethiopia lacks strong professional associations which can influence employability of graduates.

Following this, it is possible to argue that in Ethiopia the government should take an active role in the accreditation process at least for some time until the private higher education system can sustain itself. To support this idea, Stensaker and Harvey (2006) argue that: “state owned or initiated accreditation schemes would expect to contribute to national educational objectives, to the spread of neutral and objective information about educational services and suit to particular national characteristics of education sector”(p.67). Likewise, in the Chilean higher education system, which is characterized by the growing size of for–profit private HEIs, the market has failed to provide a measure of social legitimacy to private HEIs (Lemaitre, 2004). Hence, it is possible to claim that in Ethiopia the government must be actively involved in the current stage of the accreditation system. Once the private higher education system develops, then the government can refrain from its involvement in the accreditation system and leave the responsibility of quality assurance to the market. However, this might take many more years. To support this idea, Harvey (2002) affirms:

There is a difficulty of the American accreditation system to move into countries such as Eastern Europe and South America that have experienced a rapid growth of private higher education sector and that a central government endorsed body has usually been set up to ensure private provision meets basic minimum requirements (p.250).

Focus of the accreditation system: In order to have an impact on improvement the accreditation system must focus on input, processes and output elements to reflect the special nature of HEIs. If the system is focusing only on input the likelihood of addressing the improvement agenda will be less. Nevertheless, “accreditation is criticized for focusing only on minimal standards while overlooking the challenge of quality improvement” (Stensaker & Harvey, 2006, p.66).

In the Ethiopian case, HERQA focuses on ‘input’ as criteria for accreditation (Tesfaye and Dawit, 2008, p.18). It can be misleading to claim that a given HEI meets certain quality
standards by only considering input factors. In a research conducted to assess the views of representatives of national quality assurance agencies by Harvey (2006), the representatives emphasized not to give too much weight to performance indicators (which are mainly quantitative) as this could lead to a mere compliance culture that the HEIs could end up adopting. Therefore, focusing not only on inputs but also on output and processes can enhance the level accreditation contribution towards quality improvement.

However, to combine all the elements of input, processes and outputs of HEIs in the accreditation process could be challenging in Ethiopia. For instance, in evaluating the quality of output, ‘employability’ is one aspect that can be used as a possible indicator. However, the Ethiopian system has not developed ways where employability of graduates could be traced in the accreditation system. In addition, the development of ICT is at its earliest stage. Hence, it is difficult to collect the necessary information about the performance of private HEIs or their graduates. Moreover, the presence of dishonest and fraudulent private HEIs that only focus on making a profit from the higher education market is another challenge facing the Ethiopian higher education system (Tesfaye & Dawit, 2008). Thus the agency has to identify illegitimate providers while undertaking the accreditation process. In line with this, Harvey (2002) notes that agencies which take the responsibility of identifying the legitimate from the dishonest HEIs are in a less likely position to focus on improvement.

Methods and procedures: The methods and procedures in an accreditation process can relate to the standards, the source of information in which the accreditation decision is based, the general procedure the accreditation process has to go through, how the institutional visit is conducted and the manner in which the accreditation results are announced. The core components of the methods and procedures are provided below:

- **The way standards are applied:** There must be a balance between objective and subjective elements of the criteria. It is generally agreed that standards must be structured to encourage new types of programs to enhance the innovativeness of HEIs. Moreover, the standards must be diversified so as to allow the review team to apply their expertise in the evaluation process.

- **Self-evaluation reports:** According to the ‘multiple accreditation model’, to increase the level of acceptance from the institutes and academics, the accreditation system must focus on the use of a self-assessment document. However, to rely on the self-assessment in the Ethiopian higher education context may be problematic. The Ethiopian private higher education market attracts many new providers. Hence, the chance of getting truthful documents from each private HEI could be difficult. For instance, Tesfaye and Dawit (2008) state that “dishonest private HEIs attempt to argue and waste the time and resources of the agency without fulfilling the minimum criteria set in HERQA guidelines” (p.19).

Similarly to this, the use of the self-assessment document brought negative consequences in Chilean higher education system because it became difficult for the external quality assurance agency to get truthful information from private HEIs (Lemaitre, 2004). Instead, the Chilean quality assurance agency had to use additional data to support the information gathered from the self-assessment report. Since the Ethiopian system has some similar features with that of the Chilean system (both characterized by a previously government controlled systems now moving towards a
growing for-profit private higher education system); it can be well argued that the Ethiopian system has to have some kind of controlling mechanism.

In connection to the use of self-assessment process, Harvey (2002) alleges that if the quality assurance system can be viewed as less risky and more transparent, then there are chances for a more transparent self-assessment process to be undertaken by HEIs. Therefore, building such a kind of relationship with private HEIs needs to be developed in Ethiopia to improve the accreditation process. Supporting this argument, Harvey (2002) also claims that “if the process of self-evaluation is to have an impact on improvement in the long run, it must be backed by established internal procedures and a culture of continuous improvement” (p.258).

- **Procedures:** The procedures may include the review methods used, the reporting mechanisms employed, and the way in which appeal procedures are carried out and the average time the accreditation system takes. It is also related to areas such as how the review team is employing the standards in the accreditation process. Like the standards, the procedures must also be flexible enough to adjust to specific kinds of programs/institutions in order to have a positive impact towards improvement.

- **Institutional visit (Review team process):** Overall the system must be accepted by HEIs as being important. This needs a well developed trust between the external examiners and that of HEIs. As per ‘the multiple accreditation model’ institutional visits by peer reviewers must be a part of the system since such groups could be accepted by institutions as specialists in the field. In the Ethiopian case, the accreditation system allows the participation of experts from notable private HEIs in the review teams. Because of the lack of influential professional associations, the application of the peer review mechanism in Ethiopia requires further developments to be made in the current higher education system. Pertinent to what has been argued against the mechanism of peer review during an institutional visit Harvey (2002) identifies the following major limitations:
  - The peer reviewers attempt to relate what they hear (and sometimes see) to the self-assessment document;
  - Most of the time they are provided with inadequate documentation and less time to process the application process;
  - Peer reviewers are encouraged to ask questions but they are not trained as investigators. (p. 257).

One can see the implications of the above listed limitations especially in a system dominated with for-profit higher education. As noted earlier, the Ethiopian accreditation system should be able to encourage participation of private HEIs. Likewise, the institutional review team process should not be done just as one way of issuing licensing, and identifying fraudulent providers. It should also be used to further improve the dialogue between the government and HEIs in Ethiopia.

- **Reporting mechanism (Information service):** The ‘multiple accreditation model,’ recommends that a reporting mechanism must be built into the accreditation system to enhance improvement; however, this must not be done with the intention of comparing or criticizing the institutions. Furthermore, summarized information must be provided to the public with the detailed part to be given to the applicant institute.
In the case of Ethiopia, the reporting mechanism could encourage those institutions that have performed well (those which have secured the accreditation status), but may have negative consequences on those institutions with negative accreditation outcome. Besides this, it has to be noted that the information that the reporting mechanism provides is currently the only mechanism available to help the public know about the legitimacy of new HEIs. However, some private HEIs in Ethiopia complained about the condition where accreditation decisions were announced to the public before institutions were given a chance to apply for an appeal (Eleni, 2003).

**The outcome of the accreditation process:** The final element in the conceptual framework for accountability versus improvement approach is related to the outcome of the accreditation system. If the outcome is restricted to Yes/No output, it fails to achieve the goal of providing information to the public. In general, the outcome of the accreditation process can have significant consequences on new providers that are based on tuition and fees. The accreditation outcome also influences HEIs’ chance to develop certain programs, and have implications on their reputation in the higher education market.

To enhance improvement, the ‘multiple accreditation model’, states that the outcome of the accreditation process must not be directly associated with funding allocation decisions; as this would develop a culture of compliance to be adopted by HEIs. In relation to this, it should be pointed out that the accreditation system in Ethiopia is not associated with any funding allocation decision. However, the results of the accreditation practice seem to have paramount effects on the likelihood of private HEIs to attract students. For instance, the higher education proclamation states that the degrees offered by private HEIs cannot be accepted in the job market unless the program has accreditation status (FDRE, 2003). This may indicate that the outcome of accreditation may have influences on the employment opportunities of graduates from such type of institutions.

To sum up, Van Vught (1994) asserts that this model takes into account the special nature of HEIs and the fact that HEIs are involved in both directions of the ‘pure search for knowledge’ and ‘providing service to the society’. Hence, if the elements discussed in the framework are adopted by a given accreditation system, it can enhance the likelihood of emphasizing the improvement approach. The following table provides a summary of the core points discussed above. It shows the attributes of the parts of the accreditation mechanism that could lead to an emphasis either on accountability or improvement approaches. The table will be used as a point of departure for the analysis of the Ethiopian accreditation system in the data analysis section.
Table 1: Central Characteristics of a Control Oriented and Improvement Oriented Accreditation System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches</th>
<th>Accountability</th>
<th>Improvement</th>
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| Agent      | - Government Owned  
- Young                     | - Independent (formed by voluntary associations)  
- Work with HEIs  
- Matured  | - Input processes and output  
- Trust built in the system |
| Focus      | - Input  
- Licensing (identifying legitimate providers) | - Input processes and output  
- Trust built in the system |

The accreditation system

The methods & procedures

| Standards | Uniform | - Diversified (to encourage new types of programs) |
| Self-assessment process | - Not in use | - Central in the process |
| Procedure | - Bureaucratic | - Flexible |
| Review team process | - Following strict guidelines  
- As a chance for opening open dialogue with the HEIs  
- Specialists in the field |
| Reporting mechanism | - With purpose of Ranking HEIs  
- Informing the public and HEIs  
- No direct relationship to funding and ranking HEIs |
| The outcome of the accreditation process | - Yes/No (specified)  
- with detailed information to the institutes |
| The overall system | - Externally imposed  
- supported with internal culture |


Research Methodology

For this study, the researcher employed questionnaires, document analysis, informal discussion and personal communication via email as the main data collection tools. The study used both primary and secondary data sources. However, the secondary data constituted the major part of the data; it was obtained from a research report from HERQA’s pre-accreditation, accreditation and re-accreditation unit. The purpose of the research conducted by HERQA (used as the source of the secondary data) was to assess the ‘views of private HEIs about the current pre-accreditation, accreditation and re-accreditation procedures’ (Mekonen & Yemisrach, 2008). The findings of HERQA’s research provided information about the views of private HEIs.

By using this source as secondary data, the researcher identified the specific findings that were relevant to answer the basic research questions. However, as it is difficult to rely only on the findings of the agency’s research, the small scale data collection procedure was held to better understand the private HEIs views about the current accreditation system. A potential
similarity in the objectives of HERQA’s study with that of this study can be noticed (see the research questions). However, as stated earlier in this study an effort was made to apply a particular conceptual framework during the analysis of both primary and secondary data. Furthermore, accreditation standards and procedures of HERQA, other internal reports of the agency and the higher education proclamation of 2003 (FDRE, 2003) were used as secondary sources of data. Previous studies with themes related to Ethiopian accreditation system have also been referred as secondary sources of data. Hence, it is possible to say that this combination of different sources of data enhanced the reliability of the data, it also helps to combine and cross-check information from the various sources which have relevance to the research topic.

Both quantitative and qualitative study approaches were used in this study. HERQA’s research mainly followed a quantitative approach. HERQA’s research was considered as a comprehensive source of secondary data since it included a significant number (42 out of 56) of the private HEIs offering bachelor degree programs.

The primary data collected by followed mainly a qualitative approach to collect the data. To collect primary data, questionnaires with more open ended questions were administered to 10 private HEIs which offer bachelor degree and above. The questionnaires addressed issues related to quality, the set up of quality assurance systems, the accreditation procedures and strengths and weaknesses of the accreditation system as viewed by the private HEIs. Descriptive statistical methods were used to describe the basic features of the data in the study and then percentage and narrative accounts were used to analyze the secondary data. In addition, an attempt was also made to critically investigate and read the responses included in the primary and secondary data using the conceptual framework.

### Analysis of data about Ethiopian accreditation system

In this part the key findings of the study are presented using the main points of the conceptual framework. To discuss the procedures in the accreditation process in more detail; in the first stage, the applicant private HEI makes an application to MOE, the ministry then sends it to HERQA (FDRE, 2003). HERQA assess the application and forward its recommendations to the ministry. Then, MOE issues accreditation permit within 15 days after the recommendation has been forwarded by HERQA (FDRE, 2003, article 63). The recommendation given by HERQA is based on the information gathered from: application documents presented by the applicant private HEI, institutional visit, and discussions held and reports compiled by its external review team. To date, the accreditation system has not incorporated self-assessment documents. Nevertheless, the agency states that it is planning to apply the self-assessment documents at least in the re-accreditation stage (Tefsaye & Dawit, 2008).

The analysis of primary data gathered through questionnaires from selected private HEIs, and secondary data collected and analyzed from internal documents of HERQA and their research on ‘The Views of private HEIs about the Current Accreditation System’ show the following patterns with regards to the Ethiopian accreditation system.

**The Agent:** HERQA is legally independent agency tasked with the responsibility to give recommendations to MOE regarding the accreditation applications. However, the analysis of
the data showed that HERQA enjoys high levels of power in making the accreditation decision. Thus, it is possible to claim that HERQA is the main organ responsible for the accreditation process. In relation to the set up of the accreditation system, the private HEIs opted for professional or other independent accreditation associations to oversee the accreditation system. There was also one private HEI that was reluctant to comment about HERQA as it was perceived as a governmental agency. The following graph shows the number of applications for accreditation HERQA has undertaken dating from July 2007 to June 2008 (12 working months of HERQA). The report states that the agency was able to accredit more programs than the proposed number in the annual plan.

![Graph showing the percentage of applications accepted and rejected by HERQA over pre-accreditation, accreditation, and re-accreditation stages from July 2007 to June 2008.](image)

*Figure 1.1 Percentage of applications for Pre-accreditation, Accreditation and Re-accreditation Accepted and Rejected by HERQA in the period beginning from July 2007 – June 2008. Source: HERQA Report, 2008 (p.7) (original document in Amharic)*

The figure shows that a majority of applicants for the pre-accreditation had negative outcomes. As affirmed in the report, HERQA assumes this as the strength of the overall accreditation system in controlling private HEIs (HERQA, 2008). When it comes to the accreditation and re-accreditation stages, majority of the applicants had a chance to get their applications accepted. Once an institution gets the pre-accreditation status it seems that its chances of getting the accreditation or re-accreditation status are less difficult when compared to the initial stage of the accreditation. This may lead to the interpretation that the agency develops more trust in the capacity of the applicant institutions at the later stages. The conceptual framework also points to the trust element as one of the factors that enhance the improvement capacity of the accreditation system.

**The focus:** The accreditation system employed both professional (subjective) and standard (objective) focus viewpoints. However, the process follows more of a structured assessment procedure. Moreover, the study shows that the criteria used in the accreditation system are focused more on the input element than the other elements of process and output. The private HEIs have a negative view about the implementation of the accreditation system on solely private HEIs.
The analysis of the guidelines provided by HERQA revealed that while assessing the available number of qualified staff, the agency attempts to find details for employment conditions like the academic rank, release from the last employer and related documentation to certify the qualifications. One can not underestimate the usefulness of this kind of mechanism, for there have been some incidences of providing false documentation in the Ethiopian higher education system (Tesfaye & Dawit, 2008). However, it can also be argued that HERQA has gone too far in this direction and is becoming quite intrusive in the activities of private HEIs. This may negatively affect the agency’s venture towards quality improvement. Nonetheless, in the future there are chances that the system could sustain itself, and the mutual trust between the agency and private HEIs could be enhanced. The plan to use a self-assessment document at least in the re-accreditation stage could be an indication of this progress.

The methods and procedures: The analysis of the data showed that the majority of the private HEIs were dissatisfied with the methods and procedures used in the accreditation system. Accordingly, highly overrated standards, elongated application process and insufficient information provision were identified as the major weaknesses. For instance, the private HEIs expressed that the institutional visit procedure did not allow them to have an open relationship with external reviewers. Though the agency states that it has accomplished more than it has planned for the year 2008, the respondent private HEIs pointed out the delayed application process as one major weaknesses of the system.

The annual report of HERQA for the duration of July 2007 to June 2008 has also shown that the average time the accreditation processes took for each program was 5.5 months (HERQA, 2008). This may show that there is a delay in providing accreditation services to the private HEIs. If the accreditation system is delayed, it creates a challenge on the day-to-day activities of private HEIs. This delayed accreditation approach does not seem to go in line with the agency’s objective of enhancing and improving quality in the private higher education system. As reflected in the conceptual framework, problems like this will have an adverse impact on the capacity of the accreditation system towards an improvement approach. Moreover, the fact that the system is not based on an internal quality assurance mechanism is identified as a limitation.

The outcome of the accreditation process: the study shows that the consequences of the accreditation system are highly significant, for it can determine the chances of private HEIs to offer legitimate programs. The other important finding was that the outcome of the accreditation did not have a direct link with funding or ranking of institutions. However, the outcome of the accreditation process is circulated in widely accessible media which can be comparable to ranking mechanisms’ in other countries.

One interesting finding is that despite the many weaknesses identified above, private HEIs believe that the accreditation system must be implemented to enhance the overall development of the country’s higher education system.

Conclusions and Recommendations
In general, considering the objectives envisioned by HERQA and the stage of development of the accreditation system at present, it can be argued that the system has played a crucial role in the Ethiopian private higher education. The study shows that there is an increasing public concern about quality related to the fast growth in the number of private HEIs. The results of
the study showed that the accreditation system was able to license new institutions which participated in the higher education market. This is important because the government of Ethiopia needs the participation of private HEIs in order to expand the current low access rate. Furthermore, the agency’s identification of some of the weaknesses in the current procedures is a good indicator that shows its effort to align its services to the current conditions in the higher education sector.

However, it seems that achieving the improvement objective of the accreditation system is difficult with the current procedures used. The analysis of the data shows that the accountability objective appears to be given more focus in the accreditation than the improvement one. To begin with the accreditation agency is not independent from the government, and this may lead it to focus more on accountability. Though the agency assumes a central role in the accreditation process, the fact that it is affiliated to the government has also led the private HEIs to consider it as wholly as a state-run agency. Next, the legitimizing role of the accreditation of HERQA also makes it likely that the accountability agenda will dominate. As Harvey (2002) argues, agencies that take the responsibility of identifying legitimate from dishonest HEIs are in a less likely position to focus on improvement. This is a challenge faced by HERQA. In line with the literature reviewed, one can notice that accreditation systems will have a chance to have a positive impact on improvement if they can focus on innovative programs, emphasize student competencies and build continuous communications with HEIs. Taking these points into consideration, it can be said that there is a good opportunity for HERQA to adjust its mechanisms so that it can emphasize on the improvement approach in the future. However, it is better to refrain from giving standardized suggestions as ways to improve the accreditation system in Ethiopia rather it is better to leave the space for open for more discussions about the possible ways to improve the current accreditation system. The main concern is on how to balance the accountability and improvement approaches in the accreditation system.

There are many possible mechanisms that can be used by the agency for enhancing the improvement approach of the accreditation system. Perhaps the establishment of an independent agency can be beneficial in the future. In this way, the state can focus on more of a developmental approach by delegating the quality control role to the independent agencies. The perception of the private HEIs about HERQA as the main controlling governmental authority should also be changed in the future. For this to happen, HERQA has to be viewed as independent from the government and that it is meant to provide support to the current higher education system in Ethiopia. For instance applying the accreditation system to public HEIs in the future might improve the cynical view private HEIs have towards the current accreditation system thereby enhancing the collaboration to be gained from the private HEIs. It might be good to include detailed information in the refusal/ acceptance letters of the accreditation process to have open communication with the private HEIs in the future.

In conclusion, the Ethiopian accreditation system can be labeled as centralized. It was also found out that there have been attempts to include the help of professionals in the process. From the points discussed so far, it can also be inferred that the system is moving towards adjusting its mechanisms to the specific conditions in the country. Furthermore, with regards to the accountability/improvement dichotomy, the belief that accreditation cannot result on improvement is challenged in this study. With more trust developed by HERQA on the capacity of private HEIs in the second (accreditation) stage, it looks like the Ethiopian
accreditation system may have the opportunity to have an impact on improvement in the coming years.

REFERENCES


**Internal reports of HERQA used as data sources**


Determinants of Demand for Open and Distance Learning in Ethiopia: The Case of Private Higher Education Institutions (PHEIs)

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Abstract
Many scholars have forwarded that higher education in general and the same in underdeveloped and developing countries in particular has been facing the challenges of access, cost and quality. What is worst is the trade off between these challenges. When universities try to increase access to higher education, the cost becomes unaffordably very high and quality will be compromised and when they work to meet quality, access will be restrained. Ethiopia is a typical example. Despite the very ambitious five year plan (2005-2010) of education sector development program (MoE, 2005) to increase participation rate from 1.5 percent to 5 and above percent, recent data showed that it is still at a level of 1.6 percent, (UNDP 2008). It becomes a day to day agenda on media that even such a very small increase has led the country’s education system to compromise on quality of education. In most developing countries of Asia and Africa, ODL has emerged as a viable supplement and serious alternative to the formal system of higher education to tackle the challenges of access, cost, and quality and has shown phenomenal growth. ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia, though started very recently, has contributed a lot in creating access to tertiary education down in each province in the country. However, data showed that there is enrolment fluctuation from one academic year to another academic year with a considerable decline in recent years. This paper, with its principal purpose of identifying the factors that have impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia, clearly indicates that several factors contribute to the alteration of ODL learners’ enrolments in PHEIs. Data for this purpose have shown that policy related factors, employment related factors, cost related factors, livelihood related factors of ODL programs offered in PHEIs, cultural factors and some social factors influence enrolment growth in this sub-sector. Therefore, stakeholders need to think twice and shape their strategies in a way that make ODL mode of delivery contribute to the country’s educational attainment thereby socio-economic development at its full potential with minimal cost and high quality.

ACRONYMS

APR: Age Participation Rate
BOSS: Bulletin of Student Statistics
CEIRQA: Center for Educational Improvement, Research and Quality Assurance
CSA: Central Statistic Authority
EFA: Education for All
GER: Gross Enrolment Ratio
GHEIs: Government Higher Education Institutions
HEIs: Higher Education Institutions
IGNOU: Indra Gandhi National Open University
MDGs: Millennium Development Goals
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Ethiopia, located in the eastern part of Africa has a total population of 73.9 million, (CSA Ethiopia, 2007). Aitchinson and Alidou (2009) forwarded that Ethiopia has a total population of 81,020,610 out of which adults constitute about 41,547,582. With this figure in mind, Ethiopia rates first in the number of illiterate adults from Sub-Saharan African countries comprising 64.1 percent followed, in numerical terms, by Nigeria which comprises about 23,282,763 illiterates which, in point of fact, amounts to 28% of its adult population.

Even though secular higher education started 60 years ago with the establishment of the University College of Addis Ababa, it has not expanded adequately. Strikingly, tertiary enrolment totaled only 4500 in 1970 out of a national population of 34 million, which meant the country had a 0.2% total enrolment, (World Bank 2004). Later on, after the Derge regime overthrew the emperor, government intervention in university affairs including security supervision, repression of dissent mandated courses on Marxism, prohibition of student organizations, and control of academic promotions through politically assigned university officers were expanded. The outcomes of these were degeneration of intellectual life on campuses, boosting of academic brain drain and disconnection of the country’s education system from the western world, (World Bank 2004). Therefore, Ethiopia’s higher education in the 20th century became regimented in its management, old-fashioned in its intellectual point of reference, limited in its autonomy, and faced by shortage of experienced staff, due to which the quality of education declined and the level of research outputs weakened.

Despite recent improvements in increasing the number of universities, semi-liberalizing the private higher education systems and expanding access to higher education in relative terms, the 2003 reform has not yet played any significant role in liberalizing university management and attracting experienced staff that boost problem solving research outputs and adds value to the quality of education. Besides, (MoE 2006-07), (Table 5.50) shows that, the distribution of education, particularly that of tertiary education, in Ethiopia is not only unfair, i.e. unequally
distributed between the rich and the poor, urban and rural, and male and female, but also extremely low.

**Statement of the problem**

The first privately owned institution of higher learning in Ethiopia dates back to 1954, (Kasirim Nwuke ,2008). However, the consent of the sector has begun late after the mid-1990s. Open and Distance Learning (ODL) in Private higher Education institutions (PHEIs) in Ethiopia is a recent phenomenon which is about a decade old. In the course of time, the demand for these institutions varies from year to year. In some academic years, the enrolment rate rises while in another academic year, it goes down. For instance in the case of St. Mary’s University College enrolment trend in PHEIs show an increase for the first three academic years and a decline on the fourth year, (BOSS 2008). The following table will clearly show where the actual fluctuation and hence decline occurs.

**Table: 1.1. Undergraduate Enrolment in Government and Non-governmental HEIs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Government Undergraduate Degree</th>
<th>Non-Government Undergraduate Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>Evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999-2000</td>
<td>21265</td>
<td>6561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-2001</td>
<td>23320</td>
<td>6938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2002</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002-2003</td>
<td>36049</td>
<td>12132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-2004</td>
<td>56072</td>
<td>18597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>78232</td>
<td>28841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>93689</td>
<td>26339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>107960</td>
<td>39500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>127033</td>
<td>48362</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Hence, this study attempts to address the following basic (research) questions:

- Why do enrolment rates in ODL in PHEIs go up and down?
- What are the factors that influence the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia?
- What impacts do the identified factors have on the demand for ODL in Ethiopia?

**Objectives of the study**

The general objective of the study is to determine the factors that hamper the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia and make some recommendations that help the stakeholders enhance ODL enrolments and the contribution of this mode of delivery in the country’s socio-economic development programme.

To be more specific, upon the completion of this research work, the research should be able to:

- identify the factors that have impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia.
- examine the impacts of these factors on the demand for ODL in PHEIs.
- suggest alternative ways and policy recommendations that help both the government and the PHEIs enhance the contribution of this mode of delivery in the socio-economic development of the country.
LITERATURE
Having started with a lower base in 1970, Sub-Saharan Africa has remained a world leader in terms of enrolment growth in higher education over the last four decades. It had the fastest average annual growth rate of 3.1% between 1970 and 2007 in the tertiary age population in comparison to the global average of 1.7%. While there were fewer than 200,000 students enrolled in tertiary institutions in the region in 1970, this number skyrocketed to over four million in 2007—a more than 20 fold increase in about 37 years time (UNESCO 2009).

However, the same evidence shows that there have been vast differences among countries within the region. For instance, the countries with two digit and hence top gross tertiary enrolment ratios from the region include South Africa (15.4%), Mauritius (14%), and Nigeria (10.2%). On the other hand, the ratio was quite low in countries such as Central African Republic (1.1%), Chad (1.2%), Mozambique (1.5%) and Ethiopia at about (2.7%). Despite a rapid growth of gross tertiary enrolment ratio (GER) from 1% in 1970 a long way to 6% of the tertiary age (Cohort in 2007) the region still has the lowest GER of all the other regions and is even very much lower than the global average of 26% in accommodating the appropriate age (cohort).

In spite of rapid expansion over the last several decades, the tertiary education system in Sub-Saharan Africa is not equipped to absorb the growing demand that results from broader access to secondary education. For instance, the region had a gross enrolment ratio of 19.4% for upper secondary education in 1999, which was over five times as high as the ratio for tertiary education enrolment, which is (4%). In 2007, the ratio for tertiary education in the region increased only to 6%, while the ratio for upper secondary education skyrocketed to five times the figure for tertiary education in the region (26.3%)(UNESCO, 2009). These large gaps between the two ratios witnesses that there will be many students completing upper secondary education who are eligible for higher education but do not have access to it. In other words, policymakers in Sub-Saharan Africa can expect further pressures to expand the tertiary education system in order to meet the continuing demand.

Rachel C. et al. (2007) draws attention to the reality that higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa has been faced by challenges of increasing demand that exceed capacity, lack of physical and human resources, gender and socio-economic inequality, missing linkage with labor markets, i.e. lack of appropriateness and lack of financing. Kanwar et al. (2009) intensified the brutality of the case by saying that even if one new tertiary institution were to be built in the developing world every working day for the next ten years, the demand for post-secondary education could not be met. Rapidly increasing numbers of young adults in the developing world will want education at all levels.

There is a choice between inadequate provision of higher education by a public-sector monopoly and meeting the demand by a combination of public and private institutions through both ODL and conventional mode of provisions. This is a political dilemma for many developing-country governments, which now realize that a public-sector monopoly on higher education is a serious handicap to national development.

First, the private sector, whether for profit or not for-profit on both conventional and ODL mode of provisions, will have a much larger role. Second, study programmes should be related more closely to livelihood so that learners could prepare themselves for employment
or otherwise for self-employment. Third, a far greater proportion of higher education will take place by distance learning, which many today call e-Learning which has a power of reaching to many with high quality and minimum cost. Fourth, and particularly in distance learning, one shall see the emergence of many cross-border partnerships that will improve the quality, lower the cost, and enrich the curricula of the courses on offer.

Given the country’s population of over 81.02 million, not less than half of which is young, the public higher education provision sector, in spite of recent expansion, is unlikely to effectively respond to the rapidly expanding enrolments at the tertiary level that help meet the rising and urgent need of skills development for Ethiopia’s infant economy. Over and above the limited access to tertiary education and hence a very small age participation rate (APR) in higher education (less than 2%), there is a wide gap in higher education attainment across gender and across space with the females and the remote rural areas being victims. The fact that Ethiopia is rushing to the universalization of primary education and to the expansion of secondary education so as to ambitiously meet the MDGs and EFA goals increases the pressure to accommodate the large secondary education output in the very costly underdeveloped conventional mode of delivery. For the aforementioned huge population of the country, the total enrolment in higher education is very low amounting to 270,356 students up until 2007/08 academic year. Only about a bit greater than 1.5% of the age group (18-23years) and about 2.7% of Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) is currently achieved in higher education in Ethiopia.

Although private provision of higher education through conventional fashion is expanding from time to time, access to meet gender disparity and its contribution to bridge the geographical divide in higher education is far restrained modest. The only way most underdeveloped and developing countries will be able to raise their higher education participation rates to the level of 35% or more which is now found in developed countries is by relying much more on private universities and colleges and much more on ODL, (Daniel et al., 2007).

Developing countries like Ethiopia are far behind the attainment of equitable distribution of education for all communities using the very costly traditional mode of delivery. This fact is aggravated when seen in the face of tertiary education at which Age Participation Rate remains in the realm of less than 2% (Habtamu ,2008). The fact that global participation in higher education today is at a high record and by 2020, 40% of the global workforce will be knowledge workers (Kanwar et al., 2009) added with the current minimum age participation rate in most developing countries of Africa and South Asia (less than 10%), the potential demand for tertiary education is and will undeniably be burgeoning. Besides, government’s budget for public universities becomes unaffordable very high. For example, public spending per tertiary student in Ethiopia is $5501 which is much lower than that of high income country’s but very much higher than that of per capita GDP in the country (UNESCO 2009).

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

**Sampling techniques**

This research work relies on sample survey to infer about the population. Stratified random sampling technique has been deployed. The actual practice grouped distance learners in each study center into the program levels they belong to. Obtaining sample from distance learners have been done in such a way that the students from each programme level (TVET
programme, teacher education diploma programme, and undergraduate degree programme) have their own say. Simple random sampling technique has been deployed in distributing the questionnaires for distance learners at each programme level.

**Tools of data collection**

Questionnaire is the main tool of data collection. Informal as well as formal interviews have also been used as a tool of data collection.

**Data collection**

The study involved a group of TVET, teacher education diploma, undergraduate degree distance learners and postgraduate masters’ degree ODL learners who have been learning in St. Mary’s University College and Alpha University College during 2009/2010 academic year. The students are located in different parts of Ethiopia and are believed to provide concrete evidence on the determinants of demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia.

600 questionnaires were distributed to ODL learners in (51) study centers located in nine regional states and two administrative municipalities of Ethiopia with a return rate of 55%. Within each study center, a sample of distance learners was identified from each program level (TVET, Teacher Education Diploma, Undergraduate degree). Within each program level, 4 students were randomly selected comprising a total of 12 participants per study center.

Data regarding ODL have also been collected from secondary sources such as Summaries of Education Statistics Annual Abstract reports, published materials, professional literatures, records, working documents, policy documents, and internet sources. Besides, annual learner enrolment trend analysis has been employed for PHEIs ODL colleges to compare the trend with the government higher education institutions.

**Measurement of variables**

The dependent variable is demand for ODL in PHEIs. Using the definition of demand as “the maximum quantity of goods and services that one wants to buy with one’s purchasing power” (Mankiw, 2000), the current study uses demand for ODL as dependent variable. This research work tries to measure demand for ODL using its intrinsic characteristics by assigning values to measure how they could describe the existence of demand for ODL. These characteristics include: (1) its capability to create access to large numbers and large area coverage including deprived regions with equitable service; (2) its schedule learner friendliness; (3) its ability to help students learn at their own pace as there is no competition for class room seats; (4) its relative cost effectiveness for learners; (5) its potential to accommodate part-time students; and (6) its ability to encourage lifelong learning. Values are assigned from 1 to 5 to rate the respondents’ level of agreement regarding the contribution of the aforementioned intrinsic behaviors of distance education to the presence of demand for ODL. The largest number 5 corresponds to ‘strongly agree’ and the smallest number 1 to ‘strongly disagree’ with the numbers in between referring to ‘slightly agree, moderately agree, and agree’ in ascending order from 2 to 4. It is also assumed that, on average, values rated from 2.5 to 5 indicate the presence of high demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia with the rest lower values showing the dearth of demand for ODL.
It is usual to conjecture that demand for higher education could be influenced by political factors, economic factors, social factors and cultural factors. This paper is aimed at identifying the impacts of these factors on the demand for ODL in the Ethiopian context.

The independent variables in this research work are classified into 12 groups: 1) policy related factors (I), 2) policy related factors II 3) policy related factors III 4) livelihood related factors of the program offered in PHEIs, 5) social inconveniences, 6) society’s and employers’ values and attitudes on ODL offering PHEIs, 7) perceptions and beliefs of the society on ODL programs, 8) cost related factors, 9) cultural factors, 10) opportunity cost, 11) employment-related factors and 12) background and regional language differences. Policy-related factors in turn comprise policy instability, unequal access to employability as compared to conventional graduates and public higher education institutions graduates, lack of confidence in credibility of degrees/diplomas and certificates of ODL in PHEIs, complex way-outs to upgrade from lower levels of training to higher levels and governments’ rejection of employment claims by PHEIs graduates.

The variable livelihood related factors of the program offered in PHEIs does also consist of the nature of occupation that the program of training prepares the learner for, and the relevance of the program offered in those institutions. Social inconvenience comprises complex family responsibility, unexpected divorce, lack of adequate infrastructure and distance between home and study center. Cost-related factors on the other hand comprise learners’ income level, the size of tuition fee that PHEIs impose, price rise (inflation) for basic necessities like food, housing and clothing, and lack of educational facilities. Cultural factors are composed of the language(s) of instruction, lack of awareness of learners about the significance of distance learning, poor social coherence to study in groups and malicious rumors about the quality of service delivered by PHEIs.

With the same analogy as we measure the dependent variable, the impact of the above mentioned factors contributing to the 12 variables is measured by assigning values to quantify the level of gravity of these factors on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia. The number 5, in this case, means that the factor has a very serious negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country, while 1 corresponds to the absence of serious impact of the factor on the dependant variable. Upon assessment of the average impact of the independent variable policy related factors is concerned, values that exceed 2.5 are assumed to affect the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country with the rest lower values indicating insignificant influence on the dependent variable.

**Hypothesis and empirical strategies**

The above mentioned 12 independent variables are supposed to have impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia. To test these hypotheses, the impacts of the aforementioned variables have been estimated for a specified linear regression model. The researcher has encountered only few related empirical studies that examine the determinants of demand for not ODL in PHEIs but education in general. Mwikisa (1999) pointed out that how high or low an individual’s demand for education is determined by ones desire and ability to acquire/or improve the productivity of ones factors of production. In the analysis, Mwikisa applied the following empirical formula:

\[ D_{ed} = f(WD, PE, DPC, OC, Se, \ldots) \]
Where \( D_{ed} \) = Demand for education;
\( WD \) = wage differential;
\( PE \) = probability of employment;
\( DPC \) = direct private cost;
\( OC \) = Opportunity cost;
\( Se \) = supply of educational facilities.

In this research work, taking the above model as a framework with some contextual modifications, the determinants of demand for ODL in PHEIs are thoroughly analyzed via multiple linear regression model. In doing so, some policy variable, social and cultural variables are included. As per regression analysis is concerned, the impact of different factors on the demand for ODL will be identified for a pre-specified linear regression model as formulated below. Holding classical linear regression model assumptions underlying the method of ordinary least squares (OLS) to happen, i.e. \( \mu \approx IID(0, \sigma^2) \), \( E(\mu x) = 0 \), \( E(\mu_1 \mu_j) = 0 \) for \( i \) not equal to \( j \) and \( cov(x_i, x_j) = 0 \) where \( x \) refers to the independent variables, the following model is used in this research work.

**THE MODEL:**

1. \( D_{ODL} \equiv f(P_I, P_{II}, P_{III}, L, K, G, B, V_w, O_c, E_r, C_r, S_{inc}) + \mu_i \), where \( D_{ODL} \equiv \) demand for open and distance learning, \( f \) is a notation for the functional relationship between the demand for ODL and the factors that are assumed to affect the demand for ODL. The actual model used is a multiple linear regression model as defined in the following linear equation.

\[
D_{ODL} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P_I + \beta_2 P_{II} + \beta_3 P_{III} + \beta_4 L + \beta_5 K + \beta_6 G + \beta_7 B + \beta_8 V_w + \beta_9 O_c + \beta_{10} E_r + \beta_{11} C_r + \beta_{12} S_{inc} + \mu_i
\]

Where the \( \beta_i \)’s are the parameters

- \( D_{ODL} = \) demand for Open and Distance Learning in PHEIs;
- \( P_I = \) Policy related factors I;
- \( P_{II} = \) Policy related factors II;
- \( P_{III} = \) Policy related factors III;
- \( K = \) Cultural factors;
- \( G = \) Background of ODL learners;
- \( B = \) Rough perceptions and ODL beliefs about the quality of education;
- \( L = \) Livelihood related factors of ODL programs offered in PHEIs;
- \( V_w = \) Society’s values and attitudes given to Open and Distance learning;
- \( O_c = \) Opportunity cost of Distance learning;
- \( E_r = \) Employment related factors;
- \( C_r = \) Cost related factors;
- \( S_{inc} = \) Social inconveniences to attend ODL; and
- \( \mu_i = \) the error term.
Testing the overall significance of the regression involves testing the hypothesis that none of the independent variables helps to explain the variation of the dependent variable about its mean. Formally, the null hypothesis is set as:

$$H_0: \beta_0 = \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = \beta_5 = \beta_6 = \beta_7 = \beta_8 = \beta_9 = \beta_{10} = \beta_{11} = \beta_{12} = 0$$

against the alternative hypothesis;

$$H_A: \text{Not all } \beta_i \text{ values are zero, for } i \in 0,1,2,\ldots,12$$

**Methods of data analysis**

At this point in time, steps like categorization, coding, tabulation, and presentation of the data using tables and graphs are inherent in realizing robust results. The actual activity done is that data collected from different sources are categorized and mapped out into the different classifications of independent variables. Next, determining central values, percentages, standard deviations, modal values and variances using descriptive statistics and also presenting the summarized facts by tables are given due attention. The summarized data are then analyzed electronically using SPSS 17 application software.

**PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA**

**Analysis and interpretation from secondary data sources**

After many governments understood that education could play a key role for economic growth and development, the pace of enrolment growth has become faster and faster. The fact that worldwide tertiary enrolment for the last two decades has exceeded the most optimistic forecasts and growth in higher education in most developing countries is scaling up at a very high rate while their Age Participation Rates (APRs) are still in the realm of less than 10% reveals the presence of undeniably higher potential demand for tertiary education. A landmark of 100 million enrolments was passed some years ago, and an earlier forecast of 120 million students by 2020 looks likely to be reached by 2010-of course with out the inclusion of part-time students in the attendance of which numbers have already passed 130 million (Daniel,2007).

To have a clear picture on regional differences in enrolment rates, an outline of enrolment trends is given in the following table. Sub-Saharan Africa now is striving towards extensive expansion of higher education.

**Table 4.1: Regional Comparison of Tertiary Gross Enrolment Ratio from 1970 to 2007**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Years of tertiary enrolment in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North America and Western Europe</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central and Eastern Europe</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Asia</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab states</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South and west Asia</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Average</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, meeting the expanding demand for tertiary education has been bounded by resource constraints. Among these, the exorbitant or unaffordable public funding for the sector ranks first. Many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have already faced the challenge of adequate funding for tertiary education. Hans d’Orville (2007) pointed out that Education is the largest and most costly societal system for which state monopoly will no longer be affordable in each level of schooling. By then, it comprised 1.3 billion students and teachers in the formal education system with a total public expenditure for education amounting US$1,400 billion—of which some $1200 billion are spent in industrialized countries and the rest in developing countries. Higher education alone was globally a US$200 billion enterprise, involving 18 million students in almost 4000 public and private colleges and universities. Therefore, the problem of adequate funding has constrained countries to provide access to quality higher education.

The aforementioned fact added with the world’s greater aspiration for about 15 to 30 million teachers by 2015, (Daniel, 2006), aggravates the problem of addressing the ever-expanding demand for higher education through the most costly conventional mode of delivery. The second could be lack of government commitment and diversion of policy direction to primary education universalization to the detriment of tertiary education. In the 1980s and 1990s, many of the low income country’s national development plans, poverty reduction strategies, and foreign donors’ programs had all given the priority to primary education. Christian Fauvelle-Aymar (2008) identified that such a promotion of primary education at the cost of higher levels is a counter productive strategy.

The third challenge is that most developing countries have stuck their higher education system to the model that can’t be expanded with minimal cost. In countries with low access to higher education, the existing institutions (both public and private) conceive their roles too narrowly giving the maximum focus on teaching in classrooms. This method, besides its inability to provide access to the ever-expanding demand for higher education, is unsuitable for many adult lifelong learners and is also increasingly inappropriate for younger students who want to be employed, at least part time, so that they can afford to study.

The fourth challenge is the lack of awareness of the citizens of far removed least developed countries who have made themselves strange to the burgeoning technological developments even in this era of globalization. This could be due to under developed infrastructure and social and cultural intricacies that their ancestors and they themselves have been growing through. Culture, shared among society members consciously or unconsciously, shapes values, assumptions, perceptions and behaviour and these in turn have their own repercussions on people’s interest to education as a whole (Boldley 1994) (Roblyer et al 1996).

Alternative cost effective higher education system that provides access to billions of students (both students of the relevant age group and lifelong learners) with the maximum attainable quality is required. Since few years back, most foreign donors and the World Bank, as their major change of direction from the propagation of primary education, argue that for countries to achieve sustainable economic development, the APRs in higher education must be in the region of 40 to 50%. But APRs are less than 10% of the relevant age group in most of South Asia and Sub-Saharan African countries (Daniel,2009), with the average for Sub-Saharan Africa still about 6%.
The challenge is so huge. As Daniel (2005) indicated, there are four billion people living at the bottom of the world economic pyramid. Conventional methods of schooling, however flexible and effective they may be in the right context, simply cannot address the scope and scale of the challenge. How can then developing nations respond to the massive demand for higher education that they are facing and they will be facing? Will the patterns of provision that have worked for industrialized countries suffice, or are new approaches needed? The answer for these questions will with no doubt incorporate a much greater role of private for-profit higher education institutions in addition to public institutions.

Building more brick and mortar institutions to cope with such demand is not a viable option for most countries. Just two witnesses to mention are that Dhaka University, Bangladesh could only enroll 10,000 of the 80,000 applicants in 2000, while in Kenya only 9,000 of the 40,000 qualified students could be accommodated in the public university system (Kapur and Crowley, 2008). With no doubt, they need alternative approaches.

Therefore, notwithstanding the several challenges that ODL itself has, the only viable option to address the ever-expanding demand for tertiary education with the urgent need for 40 to 50% of the relevant APRs by 2020 is the big push provision of ODL services in both public and private universities and colleges.

Analysis and interpretation from primary data sources

1. General characteristics of sampled ODL learners in Ethiopia

As per the primary data collected, out of 600 questionnaires dispatched, a few more than half of them (330), are returned. 70% of the respondents are of age less than or equal to 34 years and 45% of all respondents stayed out of school for less than 3 years before enrolling in their current Higher Institution. This shows that the youth are becoming well aware of the significance of distance education and lifelong learning in the country.

Table.4.2 Age, Area of Residence and Type of Occupation of Sampled Distance Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>55-64 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-74 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54 years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-45 years</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-24 years</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34 years</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residence Area</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural (country side)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>19.40</td>
<td>19.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional towns (urban)</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>16.97</td>
<td>36.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zone towns</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>16.97</td>
<td>53.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Province towns (Districts)</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>38.48</td>
<td>91.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.A/Dire Dawa</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8.18</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Occupation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Office Workers</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>83.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Worker</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Work</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in the above table, more than half of the respondents, i.e. 57.7% of all, reside in rural areas and if not, in districts or province towns. Regional and zonal towns account for about 34% of the respondents. This clearly fortifies the fact that distance education has its own innate capacity to outreach the unreached rural areas. 97% of the respondents are either self employed or are engaged in some institutions. Only 3% of the respondents do not have anything to work. This indicates that most of the learners are part-time learners and/or lifelong learners who kill two birds with a single stone. On the one hand, they are active participants of the countries development tasks and pay tax to the state. On the other hand, they are learning to upgrade themselves both financially and their scale of productivity.

Questions were also asked to test learners’ preference between conventional mode of delivery and the ODL mode. The table below presents the preference of sampled distance learners between conventional schooling and ODL and their studying preference between reading alone and studying in groups and the like.

Table: 4.3 ODL Learners Preferences between Conventional Schooling and ODL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Preferences</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>a. ODL provision</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Conventional schooling</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Missing Value</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>a. Studying alone</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Working in groups</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>52.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. indifferent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>a. Communicating by letters</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Face-to-face communication</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>55.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. indifferent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table shows, 48.8% of the respondents prefer the conventional mode of delivery to ODL and 28.8% prefer ODL. The rest 22.1% of them have a preference neither to conventional mode of delivery nor to ODL. In contrast to the aforementioned figures, 46.1% of the respondents prefer studying alone as compared to the 52.4% who prefer to study in groups. The table also shows that 43.3% of all the respondents prefer communicating using letters as opposed to 55.8% who prefer face-to-face discussion. The existence of people who prefer to work alone and communicate using written documents show the presence of a large number of candidates that justifies for distance learning. This in turn entails that ODL is not only an option when there is no chance for conventional mode of delivery but also a primary preference of a number of learners.

This might primarily include some policy factors, recent participation of public universities in offering distance education as a substitute for private provision, policy implementation problems, cost related factors, some social and cultural factors, and employment related factors. For example, there is no clear and officially declared policy on how to continue from TVET and diploma programs to undergraduate degree programs.
THE MODEL

This paper utilizes multiple linear regression models that are employed by most researchers. Assuming that all classical OLS assumptions and the assumption of no multicollinearity hold, the model for this research work is given as:

\[ D_{ODL} \equiv f(P_1, P_{II}, P_{III}, L, K, G, B, V_{at}, O_{c}, E_{r}, C_{r}, S_{inc}) + \mu_i, \]

where \( D_{ODL} \equiv \text{demand for ODL} \), \( f \) is a notation for the functional relationship between the demand for ODL and the factors that are supposed to affect the demand for ODL. The actual model used is a multiple linear regression model as defined in the following linear equation.

\[ D_{ODL} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P_1 + \beta_2 P_{II} + \beta_3 P_{III} + \beta_4 L + \beta_5 K + \beta_6 G + \beta_7 B + \beta_8 V_{at} + \beta_9 O_{c} + \beta_{10} E_{r} + \beta_{11} C_{r} + \beta_{12} S_{inc} + \mu_i \]

Where the \( \beta_i \)'s are the parameters;

- \( D_{ODL} \) = demand for Open and Distance Learning in PHEIs;
- \( P_1 = \) Policy related factors I;
- \( P_{II} = \) Policy related factors II;
- \( P_{III} = \) Policy related factors III;
- \( L = \) Livelihood related factors of ODL programs offered in PHEIs;
- \( K = \) Cultural factors;
- \( G = \) Background of ODL learners;
- \( B = \) Premature perceptions and beliefs about the poor quality of education;
- \( V_{at} = \) Society’s values and attitudes given to ODL;
- \( O_{c} = \) Opportunity cost of distance learning;
- \( E_{r} = \) Employment-related factors;
- \( C_{r} = \) Cost-related factors;
- \( S_{inc} = \) Social inconveniences to attend ODL; and
- \( \mu_i = \) The error term

Multiple linear regressions are run on a statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) on the above specified model and the output is organized in the following table. As indicated in table 4.5, 17.9% of the change in enrolments of ODL in PHEIs is attributable to the independent variables specified in the model.
Table 4.4: OLS Estimation Results and Collinearity Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.431</td>
<td>.233</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.454</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy1</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.252</td>
<td>.801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livelihood</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>.848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialincon</td>
<td>-.040</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>-.052</td>
<td>-.878</td>
<td>.380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costrld</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>2.668</td>
<td>.008***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>2.711</td>
<td>.007***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppocost</td>
<td>-.074</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>-.103</td>
<td>-1.894</td>
<td>.059*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policyrltd 2</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>2.880</td>
<td>.004***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employmentrltd</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.116</td>
<td>2.025</td>
<td>.044**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Believes</td>
<td>-.161</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>-.209</td>
<td>-3.579</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacgrndandlan</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>.435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policyrltd 3</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>2.009</td>
<td>.045**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuesandattid</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>.501</td>
<td>.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.4242</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>0.179776</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error of the estimate</td>
<td>0.66511</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 0.1  **Significant at 0.05  ***Significant at 0.01

Appropriate caution has been taken on the impacts of multicollinearity and heteroscedasticity. The variance inflation factor (VIF = \(1/Tolerance\)) calculated (<10) has shown that there is no multicollinearity problem among several independent variables. Thus, the estimated equation of the above model is:

\[
P_{ODL}^\Lambda = 2.157 + 0.016P_I + 0.011L - 0.052s_{inc} + 0.153C_e + 0.157K - 0.103O_e + 0.167P_{II} + 0.116E_r - 0.209B + 0.046G + 0.131P_{III} + 0.028V_{air} + \mu_i
\]

The estimated parameters signify that the combined effects of policy-related factors, employment related factors, livelihood related factors of ODL programs offered in PHEIs, cultural factors and cost related factors have serious negative impacts on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia.
Policy related factors

For the sake of identification of the three distinct variables, the researcher named them as policy related factors (I), policy related factors II, and policy related factors III. These factors are either direct policy issues or policy implementation related concerns.

Table 4.5: Percentages and Frequencies showing the level of NI of Policy related Factors I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Policy instability</th>
<th>Unequal access to employability</th>
<th>Lack of confidence on credibility</th>
<th>Rejection of employ’t claims by gov’t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not very seriously</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not seriously</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seriously</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very seriously</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Policy related factors (I) include policy instability and unpredictability, unequal access to employment, lack of confidence in the credibility of degrees, diplomas and certificates of ODL, and government’s rejection of employment claims of PHEIs’ distance graduates. Frequent amendments of TVET programs, recurrent change of courses to be offered and regular come and go of higher authorities of the ministry of education might also attribute to the fluctuations of ODL enrolments in PHEIs in the country.

On average, 71.55% of the respondents agree that policy-related factors (I) have a moderate to very serious negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country. To summarize the separate impacts of each of the component factors, 75.2% of the respondents witnessed that lack of equitable access to employability has moderate to very serious negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs. 68.8% of all the respondents reply that the negative influence of lack of confidence on the credibility of degrees, diplomas and certificates of ODL in PHEIs range from moderate to very serious. In a similar fashion, 68.5% and 73.6% respectively of all the respondents have testified that government’s rejection of employment claims of PHEIs’ ODL graduates and policy instability and unpredictability range from moderate to very serious negative impact.

The other variable to be explained is policy-related factors II.

Table: 4.6. Percentages and Frequencies showing the level of NI of Policy related Factors II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Complex Way-outs to upgrade</th>
<th>Lack of Permission for Tutorial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very seriously</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not seriously</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seriously</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very seriously</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

185
As per the figures are concerned, on average, 67.3% of all the respondents confirmed that policy related factors II have a moderate to very serious negative force on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country. The testimony given by 71.5% and 69.7% respectively of all the respondents show that complex way-outs to upgrade from TVET and diploma levels to undergraduate degree level and prohibition of permission or annual leave for tutorials and term end exams have from moderate to very serious deterrent influences. Purposeful refusal of annual leave by zone and Woreda bosses is not only because of serious engagements at work place but also from their intrinsic jealousy and suspicion that ODL learners might overtake their position after graduation. Outputs from the model clearly indicate that policy-related factors II have significant impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia. At 0.01 level of significance and 12 degrees of freedom, the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis that policy related factors II has not any impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia is insignificant, i.e. very small. This implies that policy related factors II have a serious negative impact on the demand for ODL in Ethiopia. To recapitulate the figures from table 4.7, a unit change in policy-related factors II will bring about a 0.167 unit change on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia. The third group of policy related factors is named as policy related factors III. This variable encompasses lack of clarity of upgrading policy from TVET and diploma programs to undergraduate degree, stiff entry criteria to different program levels, lack of recognition of degrees, certificates and diplomas of PHEIs’ ODL graduates by other institutions and poor awareness of zone and Woreda higher authorities about the significance of ODL offered by PHEIs in the country. The following table shows the level of seriousness of the above factors on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia.

Table: 4.7 The level of Negative Impacts of Policy-Related Factors III, N=330

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unclear policy to upgrade from lower levels to higher levels of training</th>
<th>Level of seriousness</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Dichotomized percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not very seriously</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not seriously</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seriously</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very seriously</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>330</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor awareness of zone and Woreda bosses about the significance of ODL in PHEIs</td>
<td>Not very seriously</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not seriously</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seriously</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>72.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very seriously</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>330</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of recognition of credentials of PHEIs by other higher institutions</td>
<td>Not very seriously</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not seriously</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seriously</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>70.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very seriously</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>330</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stiff entry criteria to different program levels</td>
<td>Not very seriously</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not seriously</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>73.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seriously</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very seriously</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>330</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This variable does also have significant impact on the demand for ODL. At 0.05 level of significance and 12 degree of freedom, the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis that policy related factors III has no significant impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs is very small. This implies that policy related factors III significantly affect the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country.

Livelihood related factors of ODL programs offered in PHEIs

Livelihood related factors of the ODL programs offered by PHEIs refer to the relevance of the programs in alleviating poverty and hunger which are the severe problems in most developing countries. The variable named as livelihood-related factors of the programs offered in PHEIs refers to the relevance of the trainings that PHEIs provide for ODL students. When we say relevance, we mean the ability of the program in creating job opportunity, its pre-eminence in assuring food security, and the nature of occupation it creates in the job market. The higher the job opportunity that an ODL program offers, the greater is the demand for ODL in PHEIs. If a program warrants attractive salary upon graduation, it can attract greater enrolments regardless of its opportunity costs. Hence, the following table shows the current status of ODL offering PHEIs with regard to their potential in providing training that creates means for learners’ livelihood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Dicho</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Dicho</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not very seriously</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not seriously</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>63</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>64.2</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>63.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seriously</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very seriously</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 4.8 63.9% and 64.2% respectively of all of the respondents confirmed that relevance of the programs offered in PHEIs and the nature of occupation these programs could create, range from moderate to very serious negative impact. On average, 64.05% of all the respondents replied that ODL programs in PHEIs pertain to livelihood from moderate to very serious. This itself does have its own detracting consequences on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia.

Employment related factors

Unemployment is a serious macroeconomic problem in most developing countries of Africa and South Asia. On the average, 70.155% of the respondents replied that the negative impact of employment related factors vary from moderate to very serious. The following table describes the level of seriousness of the impacts of employment related factors on the demand for ODL in PHEIs.
Table: 4.9 The Level NIs of Employment Related Factors on the Demand for ODL, N=330

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Percentage of respondents who replied from moderate to very seriously</th>
<th>Percentage of respondents who replied from not serious to not very serious</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expected return</td>
<td>71.52</td>
<td>28.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability of employment</td>
<td>75.46</td>
<td>24.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiting time</td>
<td>73.93</td>
<td>26.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of subs. Gov. institutions</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>40.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With 0.05 level of significance and 12 degrees of freedom, the relationship between demand for ODL in PHEIs and employment related factors is significant. The probability of rejecting the null hypothesis that employment related factors does not have any impact on the demand for ODL is 0.044 which is less than 0.05. Hence, employment related factors have significant negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia.

**Cost related factors**

On the average 69.13% of all the responses show that cost-related factors have from moderate to very serious negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia. Separate descriptive analysis proved that 70% of the respondents could not enroll in ODL in PHEIs due to their inability to pay tuition fee. Similarly, 235 respondents replied that the size of tuition fee in PHEIs has from moderate to very serious restraining effect. Out of the 235 respondents, 44.68% (nearly half of them) indicated that the size of tuition fee has only moderate repressing impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country. 234 respondents showed that price rise for basic needs such as food, shelter and housing has from moderate to very serious negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country.

What is unique about this factor is that over 45.73% of the 234 respondents indicated the presence of very serious smothering impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia. 64.42% of the respondents have also indicated that lack of educational facilities have from moderate to very serious proportionate negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia.

When we see the significance of the variable, multiple linear regression model has shown that the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis that cost related factors have no impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs is almost zero, i.e. 0.008. Therefore, at 0.01 level of significance and 12 degrees of freedom, one can observe from SPSS output table 4.6 that cost related factors have significant impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia.
4.10 The level of NIs of Cost Related Factors, cultural factors, opportunity cost, and background and language difference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Variables and factors attributing to these Variables</th>
<th>Values Given for the Factor by the Respondent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>NVS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cost Related Factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Income level of ODL learner</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Price rise for basic needs</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Size of Tuition fee</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of educational facility</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cultural Factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeble awareness about ODL</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pessimistic hearsays about ODL</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor social coherence for studying</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The language of instruction</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Opportunity Cost</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opportunity cost of ODL learning</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of time for ODL attending</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Background and Lang. Diff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor high school background</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regional language difference</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

f=frequency, %=percentage NVS= Not very serious, NS= Not serious, M= moderately serious, S= Serious, VS= Very serious

Cultural factors

Culture is also supposed to have influence on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country. On average, 66.2% of all the respondents replied that the impact of cultural factors (K) range from moderate to very serious. When we see the separate impacts of these factors, the negative impact of unconfirmed hearsays on the quality of service provided by ODL offering PHEIs outweighs the impacts of the other factors. 245 respondents agreed that this factor has between moderate to strong impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country. The modal values of the factors in the order arranged above are moderately agree, agree, moderately agree and not agree/moderately agree respectively. The language of instruction has a bimodal value with the values being 2 and 3 respectively.

As stated by the linear regression outputs described earlier, K has significant impact on the dependent variable. At 0.01 level of significance and 12 degrees of freedom, the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis that cultural factors have no any influence on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia is insignificant (i.e. 0.007). Keeping all other contributing factors constant, a unit change in cultural factors could bring about a 0.135 unit change in the dependent variable.

Opportunity cost of distance learning

An Opportunity cost of ODL refers to the benefits that an individual learner will miss while he is attending his ODL program in PHEIs. The factors that constitute the variable opportunity cost of distance learning are lack of time and lost benefits elsewhere while an ODL learner devote himself/herself to his/her study. It is clearly observed that opportunity cost of ODL in general and the same in PHEIs in particular is minimal. As opposed to the hypothesis, opportunity cost of ODL in PHEIs in Ethiopia is seen to reduce the demand for ODL in PHEIs moderately. As shown in the following table, over 61.2% of all the
respondents replied that the negative impact of opportunity cost on the demand for ODL is moderate or less. Parameter estimates of this variable showed that at 0.1 level of significance and 12 degrees of freedom, it has a significant encouraging impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs.

**Social factors**

The major social factors identified to have influence the demand for ODL in PHEIs are Social Inconvenience and Values and Attitudes of society and employers on ODL.

Table 4.11: Dichotomized impacts of social variable on the demand for ODL in PHEIs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Variables with their components (Mf=modal frequency)</th>
<th>Dichotomized Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Social Inconvenience (Modal value for Mf₁=Mf₂=3 &amp; Modal value for Mf₁=1)</td>
<td>DNHSNI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i. Complex family responsibility (Mf₁=94)</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii. Lack of infrastructure for ODL (Mf₁=89)</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iii. Unexpected divorce leading for family disorder (Mf₁=105)</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Values and Attitudes of society and employers on ODL (Modal values for Mf₄=Mf₅=3)</td>
<td>DNHSNI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i. Society’s and employer’s attitudes on ODL grad. (Mf₂=110)</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii. The values given to ODL by the society (Mf₂=112)</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*DNHSNI=don’t have serious negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs, HSNID=have serious negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs*

On average, 72.57% of all the respondents ranked the impact of values and attitudes that the society and employers have towards the demand for ODL in PHEIs between moderate and very serious. To have balanced outlook on the separate impacts, over 240 respondents of all pointed out that the society’s and employer’s values to ODL has from moderate to very serious influence on the demand for ODL in PHEIs in the country. To make it further explicit, about 46.67% of these respondents witnessed that the factor has only moderate restraining influence on the demand for ODL in PHEIs. As per the impact of society’s attitudes is concerned, it does have almost about the same impact as that of the factor society’s and employer’s values to ODL. It has moderate repressive impact. This could be due to the intrinsic encouraging features of ODL mode of delivery to provide equal access to higher education for deprived regions and even for prisoners. It is also cost effective relative to conventional mode of delivery and helps learners study while they are working and living with their family. The fact that there is no need to go to campuses in search of lecturers could be another reason for its positive impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs.

All the aforementioned facts lead to the conclusion that ODL is enjoying enthusiastic reception. Another testimony could be the burgeoning enrolments ever seen in the first three years to the country’s PHEIs programs. This is very helpful and encouraging in paving the road leading the general public towards the knowledge society and contributing to meet the appointment that 40% of the global work force should be knowledge workers by 2020. Therefore, as ODL offering higher education institutions progress their provision and policy and cost related obstacles get improved, massification of lifelong learning thereby improvement of competency and excellence at work places will be the day to day activities of the society in the country.
The second social variable is social inconveniences to enroll in ODL program. On average, 59.72% of the impact of social inconvenience on the demand for ODL ranges from moderate to very serious. Unexpected divorce leading to family disorder has very low repressing effect on the demand for ODL in PHEIs. The modal value for its negative impact on the demand for ODL in PHEIs is 1, i.e. not very serious.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Conclusion
Ethiopia’s tertiary education attainment is still very much restrained at a GER of 2.7% and APR of 1.6% and needs to expand its higher education to produce tertiary level trained human resources that are crucial for poverty alleviation and development. The expansion process could be either continuing or conventional mode of delivery. Contrary to the glimmer of light in the overall growth of tertiary education in recent years, it seems that the issue of quality and the contribution of ODL sub-sector have been lacking recognition. Literature has shown that the ODL sub-sector has innate capacity to grow within a short period of time.

However, there are some disheartening factors that seem to smother the flame knowledge that has been reaching the deprived over the last few years. Policy-related factors, employment related issues, cultural-factors and inflation are seen to put their oppressive forces on its consent. This means stakeholders need to design appropriate ploy to raise the level of tertiary education attainment and quench the thirst of the country for tertiary level qualified workforce.

Recommendations
In order to withstand the negative impacts of the aforementioned determinant factors, the researcher forwards the following recommendations.

1. Alteration of educational policies is a requirement to meet the challenges of our changing world. But, superfluous changes are more a deterrent than an agent to progress. Our problem is superfluous change. If need arises for policy modification, stakeholders should participate in the discussion so much so that its effect could be reduced. It is also very much important to release action plans for discussion among stakeholders before the action of implementation.

2. For the realization of overall development of PHEIs, the government should provide ample support. In doing so, the state should have encouraging policies, give accreditation to those who deserves and trust their implementation with a non-compromising control on the quality of education, need to provide PHEIs with land, and make the public sure about their accreditation. The graduates should enjoy equal advantage with that of conventional public and private higher education institutions’ graduates in terms of creating employment opportunities, providing chances for further studies and creating chances to compete for any open job without partiality.

3. Education policies should not be prohibitive at any level of training. Lifelong learning should get the maximum attention in the country. As far as a candidate surpasses the minimum requirements of the entry criteria to a given program level he/she applies for, he/she must be allowed to study the open field that she/he opts for. Especially, upgrading policies from TVET and diploma programs to undergraduate degree look prohibitive as there is a need to have two years experience to advance from diploma
to degree program. A person who lacks job opportunity and wants to advance his/her studies does not have the chance to do so. Besides, even though the candidate has got two years work experience, s/he can not study what he wanted apart from his/her previous specialization. Therefore, the state needs to slacken the tightness of upgrading standards in a way that could be reachable and in a way that could reduce idle citizens in the country.

4. Though it is relatively at its nascent stage, development of both public and private sectors have been improving employment opportunities in the country. The principal tenet for employment should however be competencies of applicants. The state, in stead of declaring not to employ PHEIs’ teacher graduates, should rather rely on competence for whoever qualified applicants the open job is looking for. This does have crucial contribution for the well accomplishment of the task(s) to be undertaken by the prospective employee both at process and output level. This is not to refute the fact that competition can bring quality services and the choice for quality services should be left to the consumers of the service. But, in a developing country like Ethiopia where the issue of quality service is not talked about now and then, transitory assistance and public empowerment to help them identify quality services should be encouraged. It is only then that ODL offering PHEIs could enjoy rapidly increasing learner enrolments.

5. ODL offering PHEIs should prepare a combination of printed materials, audio and video cassettes, broadcasting Medias, satellite conferencing systems, video conferencing systems and teleconferencing systems to help strengthen the quality of their service thereby growing student enrolments. The development of some of these technologies such as teleconferencing, interactive radio counseling, and educational satellites may be so high that it may not be realized in the near future. However, they should start with the very simple audio and video cassettes and try to strive for the expensive ones in the long run.

6. Although the government has been taking some measures to stabilize the market, further efforts should be made to help reduce prices as the income of most citizens does not go beyond satisfying their basic needs. Or the state should look for alternative strategies that could increase the income of the general public. It is then that the repressive impact of inflation on the demand for ODL in PHEIs can be reduced.

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Syracuse University, October 17th, 2007


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An Investigation of Stakeholders Concerns and Perceptions on Open and Distance Education in Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions: The Case of Haramaya University

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Abstract
This study tried to explore the perceptions of stakeholders in open and distance education with particular reference to the eastern region of Harar gie. 120 students, 30 tutors and 10 program coordinators were consulted and considered as subjects of the study. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were employed in the data treatment and analysis. Data were collected from the selected sample through questionnaire, interview and a five point rating scale whose reliability is reported to be very high (α = 0.96) and which also shows good content validity. The collected data were treated with percentage, t-test, ANOVA (One-way/Two-way) and the Pearson Product moment correlation(r). The results suggest that the largest proportion of students view distance education in general as an average. Differences and connections between perceptions and level of performance of ODL students in terms of sex, age, program, and academic achievement levels were also observed. Moreover, The late arrival of course modules to the students; the distribution of modules very close to the actual dates of the tutorial sessions; tutors’ reliance on the conventional face-to-face mode of instruction; large class size and the heavy workloads imposed upon tutors in some tutorial centers were some of the major constraints that caused the program to be implemented in an unsatisfactory way. Some respondents perceive distance education programs to be less effective, less systematic and less organized than the conventional system of education.

Key words: Open and Distance Education (ODE), Open & Distance Learning (ODL) Perception, Distance Learning (DL), Open Learning (OL)

INTRODUCTION
Distance education: Conception
Distance education has experienced dramatic growth both nationally and internationally since the early 1980s. It has evolved from early correspondence education using primarily print based materials into a worldwide movement using various technologies. The goals of distance education, as an alternative to traditional education, have been to offer basic through advanced knowledge in various academic programs, to battle illiteracy in developing countries, to provide training opportunities for economic growth, and to offer curriculum enrichment in non traditional educational settings. A variety of technologies have been used as delivery systems to facilitate this learning at a distance (Wolcott, 2003).

With the present educational opportunity, the rapid growth of new technologies and the evolution of systems for delivering information, distance education with its ideals of providing equality of access to education, became a reality. Today, there are distance education courses offered by dozens of public and private organizations and institutions to school districts, universities, the military and large corporations (Ibid). Explanations vary with the distance education culture of each country, but there is some agreement on the fundamentals. Distance learning is generally recognized as a structured learning experience
that can be done away from an academic institution, at home or at a workplace. Desmond Keegan (1996) specified six key elements of distance education:

- Separation of teacher and learner
- Influence of an educational organization
- Use of media to link teacher and learner
- Two-way exchange of communication
- Learners as individuals rather than grouped
- Education as an industrialized form

According to Holmberg, distance education is a concept that covers the learning-teaching activities in the cognitive and/or psycho-motor and affective domains of an individual learner and a supporting organization. It is characterized by non-contiguous communication and can be carried out anywhere and at any time, which makes it attractive to adults with professional and social commitments (Holmberg, 1989).

On the other hand, a more inclusive and more expressive meaning of distance education has given by UNESCO. It is defined as “any educational process in which all or most of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in space and/or time from the learner, with the effect that all or most of the communication between teachers and learners is through an artificial medium, either electronic or print.” By definition, in distance education the normal or principal means of communication is through technology. Obviously teachers in conventional classrooms may use technology as a supplement to their teaching, but since it is not their principal means of communication the classroom is not considered to be distance education. Another way of discriminating between distance and other forms of education is to ask where the principal educational decisions are made. Who is deciding what is to be learned? When and how is it to be learned? When has learning been satisfactorily completed? If such decisions are made in the classroom, this is not distance education. If they are made elsewhere and communicated by a technology the program is defined as distance education (UNESCO, 2002).

**Context of the study**

The commencement of distance education in Ethiopia goes back to 1967 when the Ministry of Education collaborated with Addis Ababa University to establish a Correspondence Study Unit under the Extension Division of the University (Teshome & Thomas, 2001). Unfortunately, it had neither the necessary infrastructure nor the expertise in designing, developing and implementing its educational program in an effective and efficient manner. In an effort to implement the New Education and Training Policy, there was a real attempt to bring about change in the education system of the country in accordance with the recommendations of TESO, EMA and MOE. In collaboration with universities and colleges of the country, a scheme called “17,000 projects” was started through which about 21,400 elementary school teachers were upgrading their qualification to diploma level. However, this program is discontinued due to not verified reasons. In the meantime, a considerable number of private and government institutions in Ethiopia are now delivering their training through a distance education system. A few years ago, IICBA / UNESCO, together with Ethiopian and other Universities abroad, has been offering advanced certificate in school management, a post-graduate diploma in distance education and MA degrees in distance education as well as in the teaching of subject area methodology at post graduate level. Two to three years ago, about 24 CPI (Critical Practitioner Inquiry) candidates were following M.Ed program from six National Universities of the country. They have now acquired their degree in the specified area. The program was initiated by IICBA / UNESCO and aimed at making teacher educators
analyze what is happening in their classrooms, and to examine the official policies that lead them to improve their practices (Joseph, 2004). Today, substantial number of government and private institutions is running various programs through distance mode of instructional procedure.

It is a well known fact that good practice and successful implementation of distance education can take place when there is a positive outlook and accurate perception of stakeholders towards the program. A study in the area of Distance Education Division (DED) of Ethiopia has concluded that the program besides suffering from lack of good leadership “passing through a period of doldrums which seems to be the result of long neglect, under-financing, under-staffing and a lack of attentiveness to the program” (Stone, 1988). A review of distance education program, points out that although distance education learners enjoy the opportunity of studying courses through distance learning having the material to hand for a long period of time and tutorial classes with teachers, they were not satisfied with the nature of the contents covered, the quality of the self- instructional materials, the inadequacy of the supplementary materials, the tutorial classes, the function of study center, the nature of assignments and examination of distance education courses (Keegan, 1990).

With the growing potential, availability and use of information technology and the expansion of distance education, the development of the sector is becoming an increasingly international affair. ODL as an educational method and a philosophical construct has been identified as the most potent instrument for combating the educational problems assailing a notion like Ethiopia (Marew, 2002). Despite the splendid role and increased popularity of the open and distance learning, the quality of higher education via distance education has been called to question (Dede, 1996; Harrison 2001 as cited in Peat and Helland, 2002). Similarly, a summary on another study of DE generalized that despite the promises and obvious advantages to distance learning, there are problems that need to be resolved. These problems include the quality of instruction, hidden costs, misuse of technology, and the attitudes of instructors, students, and administrators (Bates, 1995). Each one of these has an effect on the overall quality of distance learning as a product. In many ways, each of these issues relates to the others.

The aim of this investigation is, therefore, to examine the perception of students on distance education as a major component of higher education institutions and its impact on current practices by examining the various factors necessary to consolidate the DE program at different levels of the educational programs. The study may provide ideas that would serve as a guide for successful implementation of distance education program. This study focuses specifically on the eastern part of Ethiopia, due to considering the experience and the location of the researcher. The author of this study has worked as a lecturer in the Faculty of Education at Haramaya University and in the surrounding area for more than six years. The researcher gathered information in Harar, Dire Dawa and Jijiga which were the study and tutorial centers that enabled the researcher to complete personal observations and led him to consider the research area under investigation. Hence, in this study, the focus was on an assessment of the Eastern Ethiopian experience, mainly the Eastern Harargie and Somali regions. In these regions, DE was delivered and coordinated by Haramaya University and the researcher, therefore, has a vast amount of experience of the system in this part of the country.
OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The overall aim of the present study is to analyze the implementation process and problems of open and distance education in the eastern part of Ethiopia. In more specific terms, the study was intended to:

- Analyze the views of major stakeholders on open and distance learning at Haramaya University.
- Examine whether there are significant differences in the perception of distance learners towards open and distance education programs with respect to variables such as sex, age, marital-status, ability, program, and stream.
- Study the impact of stakeholders’ perception on the performance of distance learners.
- Examine the current practices of ODL system of education as a whole
- Recommend appropriate suggestions regarding the effective implementation of the distance education program.

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Research design

Although the research focuses on eastern part of Ethiopia, representative respondents were taken into account. Hence, it is survey design. Survey research is probably the most widely used research type in education. It is most appropriate when issues arise concerning situation as they are now. Surveys cannot answer questions about cause and effect relationships, but experiments can. A survey is an empirical study that uses questionnaires or interviews to discover descriptive characteristics of phenomena (Kelinger, 1994).

Subjects

The population for the given study was made up of distance education participants in the Eastern part of Ethiopia (Eastern Harargie, Dire Dawa and Somali region). For the given study, a representative sample of students, tutors and coordinators were considered using probability sampling techniques (simple random and stratified sampling techniques were used). The researcher finally decided that 120 distance learners, 30 tutors, and 10 program leaders/coordinators should be included in the total number of the sample.

Instruments

For this investigation, questionnaires (a scale for assessing the perception of distance learners, and alternative and open-ended items for tutors) and interview (for program leaders) were used by the researcher to obtain valuable information in the study under consideration. Furthermore, the practical and personal observations of the investigator were also included as additional input to consolidate and crosscheck the data obtained through the aforementioned tools. Out of the techniques available for the construction of the questionnaire (the scale) to measure perception, Likert’s method and scale discrimination was found to be most suitable due to the following reasons: the method is relatively simple and it is less laborious than that of Thurstone (Lindquist and Stelto, 1936) as noted by Singh (1987). The actual Likert scaling technique provides a five-point scale and assigns each of the five positions a scale value. The scale for respondents ranges from 1 = ‘Very Poor’ to 5 = ‘Very Good’ for the positive items and from 5 = ‘Very Poor’ to 1 = ‘Very Good’ for the negative items. Examples of positive and negative items are ‘I am satisfied and it was very important’ and ‘I am not satisfied and it was not important at all’ respectively.
The reliability of the instrument used to collect data from the respondents was computed and the coefficient of reliability for the questionnaire was $\alpha = 0.96$. The investigator accepted the obtained coefficients of reliability as a satisfactory level of internal as well as overall consistency. With regard to the validity of the rating scale in use the face validity is established through discussion of the experienced teachers in the language and pedagogy departments.

**Data collection**

The data collection from the learners was carried out twice. In the first place, 100 copies of the questionnaire were dispatched to the selected ODL students. There was a low rate of return, only 45 (45%). Secondly, 130 copies of the questionnaire were dispatched when the practicum program was being undertaken for a month (from December first week to January first week in this academic session, 2006/07) at different parts of Western, and Eastern Harargie as well as Somali region. During this time, 75 copies of the questionnaire were returned. Seven of them, however, were discarded for different reasons: two were not filled in at all; three were partially, but improperly filled; and two failed to follow the directions given for filling in the questionnaire. The remainders were not returned at all. Overall, 120 copies were returned. Similarly, Out of the 45 copies of the questionnaires dispatched to tutors, 30 were properly filled in and returned. Out of the remaining 15 copies, 9 were discarded since they were not properly filled in and 6 copies were not returned at all. Again ten program leaders/coordinators interviewed.

**Methods of data analysis**

The data was analyzed using different statistical techniques. Taking into account the overall aim of the study, the intention was to include both qualitative and quantitative approaches in analyzing and interpreting the data. The quantitative data were organized, analyzed, and synthesized through rules following the parametric tests (method) of data treatment. Some basic statistical measures such as, mean and standard deviation were employed. Furthermore, parametric tests such as t-test, Analysis of Variance/ one way and two ways/as well as Pearson-product-moment coefficient of correlation were employed. The mean and standard deviations were computed to describe the characteristics of groups in general and to deal with further statistical treatment like t-test and ANOVA. Percentages and mean values were also used to compare the differences in students’ perceptions on the overall components of the questionnaire and the subscales. The responses given in the open ended items were grouped into different thematic areas and analysis was made based on what appeared most frequently. To work out all of these factors, the margin of sampling error accepted was 5 % ($\alpha=0.05$ significance level). Evidence about the perception of stakeholders was gathered, classified, analyzed and interpreted using the above methods of data treatment.

**RESULTS**

By and large, on the basis of the analysis of the data obtained from respondents, the major findings of this study can be summarized as follows:

- The overall perception of respondents on ODL is average. Approximately 37 percent of the respondents rated the system as ‘moderate’ as can evidently be seem in section four. However, about the same number of the respondents also perceived the ODL system of education to be of lower quality compared to the conventional system of education.
There is no significant mean difference between below 30 years old and 30 and above years old learners. However, a significant mean difference exists between the perception scores of female and male candidates. As a whole, we can infer that males have greater or better perceptions than females regarding the ODL system of education.

There is a definite link between the perceptions of learners and their corresponding level of achievement. This would mean that if the perceptions of the learners are high, then their level of achievement on the ODL program would also be high and vice-versa.

There is no difference between the perceptions of married and unmarried candidates regarding the ODL system of education. However, there is a significant mean difference in the levels of performances of the specified learners. Unmarried ODL learners exhibited a significant mean difference in academic performance compared to married learners.

Natural Science students have demonstrated significantly better perceptions than Social Science and Language streams students during their course of study through the ODL system of education.

High achievers have shown higher perception scores than average and below average achievers. This result also indicates that the higher the achievement in academic performance of the learners, the better perception they have of ODL. In other words, high achievement in any field creates favorable conditions for having positive perceptions of the ODL system of education.

The diploma program learners have registered higher perception level than those enrolled on BA/BSC and certificate programs. This means that learners on the diploma program have shown more favorable perceptions of the ODL system of education than those on the degree program.

The number of learners in a class during tutorial programs is more than 50 as highlighted by 70 percent of the respondents. The result of this study plainly shows that about 65 percent of the respondents are responsible for one to two courses at a time and the remainder for more than two courses.

The materials in the course modules and the tutor-marked assignments were perceived by more than two thirds of the respondent to be moderate. The remaining tutors indicated that the course modules and the tutor-marked assignments were too difficult for the ability of the students on the courses.

The majority of the responses on the patterns of module distribution were positive. However, 33 to 35 percent of the respondents revealed that some learners did not receive modules before tutorial sessions or even the entire semester and, consequently, some were forced to share modules on certain courses. Moreover, 23 percent of the respondents underlined the fact that tutors did not receive modules for some courses to which they were assigned and 45 percent of the total number of respondents stated that modules were not given long enough in advance of the actual tutorial sessions.

In terms of the provision of the fundamental tutorial services, the tutorial programs were perceived to be poor by the majority of respondents. The types of services provided by tutors are not compatible with the fundamental andragogical principles of a distance education system. The tutorial programs were largely used for teachers’
verbal explanations of descriptive facts which is the typical feature of the conventional face-to-face instructional system. The principal aspects of the tutorial service—the provision of immediate feedback on tutor marked assignments, the involvement of students in activity-based learning tasks and the provision of individualized academic and counseling supports—were completely overlooked during the tutorial programs.

- About 93 percent of the respondents pointed out that there was no standard timetable for the ODL program and that there should be fixed times for carrying out the activities of the program. 100 percent of the respondents replied that feedback on the assignments was not immediate and individual support services were inadequate. The personal observations of the researchers also pointed to the fact that these areas were almost neglected.

- The views of the largest proportion of respondents placed the conventional system of education in a superior position to distance education in terms of the acquisition of knowledge and skills, the effectiveness of face-to-face instruction over the distance mode of delivery as well as in terms of the systematic organization and implementation of educational programs.

- The perceived difficulty of course materials, lack of confidence in the sustainability of the program, the stress of multiple responsibilities (family, social, occupational) and poor delivery of modules were found to be the major factors responsible for the poor performance and low perception levels of students regarding the existing open and distance education programs.

**DISCUSSION**

**Learners’ response**

The data presented in tables 4.2.1 to 4.2.4 (See Appendix A) highlights the perceptions of distance learners relating to various aspects of the ODL education system. In each of the categories, a relatively large proportion of the respondents rated the service provided as “moderate”. It is clear from the results illustrated in table 4.2.4 (See Appendix A) that approximately 37 percent view ODL overall as “moderate”. However, about the same number of respondents believed the ODL system of education to be poor which is discouraging at a time when it is being implemented as a means of alleviating the problem of access, and could lead to the assumption that it is of poor quality. ODL is still in its early stages in Ethiopia and stakeholders’ perceptions could have far-reaching effects on the future development of the program, possibly even impeding the effort to expand it.

When the researcher examined male and female perceptions regarding the ODL program separately, it becomes clear that female perception rates/magnitude were at a lower than those of males. A possible explanation for this result could be attributed to women’s lack of motivation to participate actively in the field of education in general and in ODL classes in particular. This could be due to cultural reasons since Ethiopian women carry a great deal of responsibility at home and also in the wider community and society itself. Female teachers, students and other civil servants are not exception to the general trends. In addition to their day-to-day occupational responsibilities, they carry out house-hold chores such as looking after children and other members of the family and organize the routine of family life. Consequently, females are likely to experience greater difficulties than their male counterpart when pursuing a distance learning courses and trying to achieve satisfactory results.
Moreover, the prevailing public opinion which follows the education of males over females could impact considerably on the motivation of female candidates to complete courses in the current distance education program. The conclusion could, therefore, be drawn that negative effects on the performance of a substantial number of female respondents and their perceptions of the distance education program result from the multiple responsibilities assumed by female candidates in the home, at school and in society at large as well as from the prevalent public opinion in the developing world that follows the education of males rather than females. The psychological and sociological development of men and women therefore has implications as far as academic study and opinions of programs are concerned.

A positive and significant coefficient of correlation between academic score and perception score is one of the findings of the study and the reasons for this is clear. The predisposition of high and positive perception would facilitate learning and individual involvement in an activity. If the learning situation is facilitated and individual involvement is encouraged, then the development of favourable perception is obvious and high performance is assured. Ross and Powell (1990), for instance, pointed out that the unequal development of boys and girls, their motivation, the role of instruction, academic ability, emotional development and the special nature of specific curriculum could be factors in learning academic fields. It can, therefore, be seen that a close relationship always exists between the way we perceive an academic situation and the corresponding academic achievement.

Married learners show a lower level of academic achievement compared to those who are unmarried. Nevertheless, there was no significant difference in their perceptions of the ODL system of education. This result can possibly be explained in the following way: If the candidate who participates in the ODL program is married he/she would have additional responsibility at home for looking after family. On the other hand, if candidate is unmarried, he/she could spend a large proportion of time on studying. This ultimately would have an impact on the learner’s academic performance. The lack of differences in perception could be attributed to the importance attached to the ODL system by both groups as a means of improving their career prospects.

The natural science students show significantly better results in academic performance and higher perception scores than social science and language students. It is difficult, if not impossible, to justify why this has occurred. In the ODL system of education, it is expected that all types of students across streams will view the program in a positive manner and that their academic achievement will be distributed in a uniform way across departments. However, due to tutors’ approaches, provision of facilities and organization of the materials, the level perception and achievement of the learners have shown that they can vary from department to department as well as from stream to stream.

The study concluded that the high achievers in ODL have significantly higher perception level than the low and average achievers. It is a fact that learners with strong academic records are expected to have a better understanding of the aim of the ODL program as a means of alleviating the problem of access and quality education in our society and may lead such learners to hold high perception scores with regard to the ODL system of education. Studies in this area also indicate that positive perceptions are a precondition for motivation towards a task and vice versa.
The study also raises the issue that diploma candidates have higher perception scores with regards to the ODL system of education than the BA/BSC or certificate candidates. The mode of delivery of the tutorial program and the type of distance modules are different from those of the BA/BSC and certificate programs. The difference in perceptions could be attributed to these distinctive factors. The coordinators of ODL also explained that the diploma-level learning materials are more structured than those of the modules.

**Tutors’ responses**

One of the fundamental principles of distance education is the provision of opportunity for students to study according to their own learning pace or speed (Keegan, 1990). For this reason, a distance education system presupposes that every student receives all the course materials at the beginning of the program so that she/he can design his /her own study timetable in the light of the overall schedule of the program. However, it is the case here that some students did not receive almost half of the modules until the last day of the course, the day scheduled for the final examination.

In general, the inconsistencies regarding the delivery of modules and the arrival of part of the modules very close to the dates fixed for final examination seems to have a negative impact upon learners’ confidence and their performance in the overall. Moreover, investigations as part of this study have uncovered discrepancies between the number of students registered for courses and the total number of course modules received in the centers. In relation to this, some of respondent reported that students did not receive some of the modules at all and this meant that a significant number of them were forced to share some of the modules with other students. In a distance education system where print medium is employed as the sole means of content delivery, students should receive the learning materials long before the dates fixed for tutorial programs. The intention here is to give students a reasonably sufficient amount of time to study the materials independently, work on the assignment questions and areas of difficulty before the actual date of the tutorial session.

Consequently, the fundamental opportunities which a distance education system provides for each student to study the course materials independently (Willis, 1993) and in accordance with his/her own learning pace (Keegan, 1990) and also to receive tutorial support pertinent to his /her own learning problems (Gibbs and Durbridge, 1976) have been disregarded in the present system of ODL education.

Further purpose of this study is to examine the nature and adequacy of the tutorial services received. A significant number of the respondents had negative perceptions of this aspect of the program. The role of the tutor in a distance education system is very different from the role of teachers in conventional classrooms. The primary purpose of tutorials is to provide academic and counseling services that enable the students to solve the problems which they encounter in the course of their independent study (Homlmberg, 1989). Therefore, the detailed explanations of every part of the course materials do not coincide with the purpose of the tutorials. The primary reason for having tutors is to provide students with individualized academic support in their courses (Gibbs and Durbridge, 1976). In contrast to this, about 84 percent of the respondents said that the students received inadequate individualized counseling. It seems that learners were disappointed about the absence of individualized academic support they presumed would be arranged.

The principal purpose of the tutorial programs is to provide opportunities whereby students receive immediate feedback on their learning progress and also on their performance in
solving the assignment questions (Homlmberg, 1989). The results of this study have shown that 100 percent of the respondents feel that learners didn’t receive immediate feedback on the assignment papers which they submitted to their respective tutors. This has been supported by a high proportion of tutors who lamented the absence of immediate feedback provided for students on tutor-marked assignment papers. Though assignments are primarily used as a learning tool in a distance education system (Moore and Kearsley, 1996) the tutorial sessions conducted in the current program seem to have considered the assignments merely for evaluation purposes.

Learning is a very individual effort, particularly in distance education. Adults vary greatly in their learning abilities and disabilities. Adults’ variation in their needs, background and learning abilities suggests the paramount importance of individualized academic support for distance students(Kember, 1989). However, the prevalence of teacher-dominated whole-class instruction in the tutorial sessions of the current distance education program seems to pay little or no attention to the diverse learning needs of the students.

In general, the nature of the tutorial service provided for distance learners is incompatible with the fundamental principles of the distance education system. As a result, the tutorial programs fail to address the main learning needs and problems of the students enrolled in the current distance education program. The absence of fixed, workable schedules for the various activities in the program appears to be one of the possible causes for the poor quality of the tutorial programs conducted in ODL. As frequently indicated in other sections, there were inadequate period of time between the delivery of the modules and the tutorial sessions. Students attended the tutorials without completing the preparation required by the program. This forced tutors to fall back on the conventional teacher-dominated instructional approach that leads students to be passive recipients of tutors’ verbal explanation of descriptive facts drawn from the course materials. In addition, the results of this study point to the very high workload imposed upon tutors. The assignment of large number of tutees to one tutor could impede satisfactory provision of individualized academic and counseling support. The demands imposed upon tutors to mark a very large number of hand-written assignment papers could have a negative impact upon the quality of marking and could, consequently limit the possibility of providing immediate feedback.

An attempt has been made in this study to assess the perception of respondents regarding the program. About 70 percent of respondents feel that the level of difficulty of the learning modules is moderate. The remaining 30 percent of the respondents believe that the materials in the modules do not match the levels of ability of the learners. No respondent considers the level of difficulty of the materials to be low. Similarly, about 80 percent of the subjects selected for this study rate the level of difficulty of the tutor-marked assignments as moderate. This perception may be partly explained by ODL students’ previous experience of the conventional face-to-face mode of instruction. This has been supported by Billings (1989) who has reported that students who have long been oriented to teacher-dominated face-to-face instruction tend to perceive distance learning as a difficult task and the tutors’ perceptions may stem from this. Researchers in this area strongly advocate that the difficulty of course materials is reported as being one of the major reasons for the withdrawal of many students from courses. In fact, there is no empirical evidence to prove the impact of the actual difficulty of the course materials on the performance of learners. The data in this study, however, shows the impact of the perceived difficulty of the course materials upon the performance of learners of the programs. A number of studies have reported that distance learners tend to persist in a given educational program if they feel that they are capable of
coping with the level of difficulty of the courses (Koul, 1987) and if they feel that the program is less demanding (Coggins, 1988). It is, therefore, possible to conclude that withdrawal of a considerable amount of students from the current distance education program may be partly attributed to the perceived difficulty of the course materials.

The stress of multiple roles has been mentioned by respondents as one of the major constraints that hinder students from persisting in a distance education program. This view of respondents has been confirmed by Moore (1975), Thompson (1984), and Barry (1991), as cited in Ojo and Olakulehin (2006) who mentioned the stress of multiple roles as a hindrance to adult learners’ persistence and performance in a distance education program. Adult learners assume multiple responsibilities at home, in society and in their workplaces. They spend a great deal of time and energy on fulfilling their family, social, and occupational responsibilities. This may drastically reduce the time and energy which could otherwise have been used for learning activities.

CONCLUSION

Overall, the distance education system is perceived to be average by the respondents. About 37 percent of the subjects were rated it as moderate as can evidently be deduced from the findings. However, about the same proportion of respondents viewed the ODL system of education as poor. Differences and connections between perceptions and level of performance of ODL students in terms of sex, age, program, and academic achievement levels can also be observed and in what ways the specified individual variables can impact on the perceptions and level of performance of distance learners. In some cases, the course modules were dispatched to the students towards the end of the semester and a significant proportion of students and tutors did not receive some of the modules at all. In most cases, the modules were not distributed long enough in advance of the tutorial sessions. As a result, students were forced to attend without having studied the materials beforehand and also without working on the assignment questions and exercises independently.

The nature of the tutorial services provided by tutors does not follow the fundamental principles of distance education. The tutorial programs were devoted largely to teachers’ verbal explanation of descriptive facts which is the typical feature of conventional face-to-face instruction. The principal services of a tutorial program - involvement of the students in enquiry-based tasks and discussion, the provision of immediate feedback on tutor-marked assignments, individualized academic support and counseling – were completely overlooked. The late arrival of course modules to the students; the distribution of modules very close to the actual dates of the tutorial sessions (which denies students the chance of studying the materials in advance and working on assignments independently); tutors’ reliance on the conventional face-to-face mode of instruction; large class size and the heavy workloads imposed upon tutors in some tutorial centers were some of the major constraints that caused the program to be implemented in an unsatisfactory way.

The largest proportions of subjects represented in this study have shown low levels of satisfaction with the program. Students have perceived the course materials to be more difficult and demanding than what they can actually learn and understand. The largest proportion of respondents continue to place the conventional (face-to-face) system of education in a superior position to the distance mode of delivery with regard to creating better opportunities for effective learning and providing systematic, well-organized and sustainable
educational services. Poor performance in the area of timely delivery of course modules, the incompatibility of the tutorial services with the fundamental andragogical principles of distance learning, the absence of fixed and reliable schedule for the various activities in the program, the prevalence of a communication gap between program implementers and students and learners’ tendency to favor the conventional mode of education appear to have eroded learners’ confidence in the program and, thus, created unfavorable views of open and distance system of education.

The poor performance in the delivery of the course materials, the absence of sufficient tutorial services that are compatible with the system of distance education and the absence of consistent and timely communication between program implementers and beneficiaries could have increased the perceived difficulty of the course materials and reduced the confidence of the students in the sustainability of the current distance education program. These constraints added to the stress of multiple roles assumed by adults, seem to have forced some distance students to terminate their course of study in the middle of the program.

RECOMMENDATIONS
In the light of the findings and the conclusions drawn from this study it seems appropriate to forward the following pertinent suggestions.

- The study has uncovered the fact that the largest proportion of students view distance education in general and the existing distance teacher training program in particular as average. Some respondents perceive distance education programs to be less effective, less systematic and less organized than the conventional system of education. This has a negative impact on the quality and level of performance of the ODL system of education. Therefore, the cultivation of learners’ confidence in the quality and sustainability of the current program as well as in their ability to succeed appears to be an urgent and inescapable task for all parties involved in the implementation of the program. Improvement in the module delivery system and in the quality of the tutorial services, the preparation of a workable and reliable schedule and the establishing of an active and reliable communication system between the organizers and between the implementers and the students are some of the measures that require to be taken in order to build up learners’ confidence and to keep in touch customers in the program.

- In spite of the exclusive reliance of the program on print media as the only mode of content delivery, the findings of this study reveal the existence of critical problems in the appropriate and timely distribution of course modules to the students. There are students who did not receive the course modules at the beginning of the program. The learning modules came during the last months of the program and some students and tutors did not receive some of the modules at all. As a result, students were denied the principal advantage of a distance education program, that is, the opportunity to learn independently in accordance with the learning pace of each student. Therefore, Universities or educational institutions running ODL programs need to exert all their efforts to prepare all the course modules well in advance the beginning of each semester. In addition, study centers must distribute the materials promptly so that students can collect them during the period of registration.
• In spite of the low participation rate of female candidates in the program, average performance was found to be higher among male rather than female candidates. Thus, the selection procedures for future programs need to give a special consideration to female candidates. In view of the multiple responsibilities of females compared to their male counterparts, the provision of specific academic and administrative support for female distance students seems to be justifiable. Moreover, the selection criteria for future distance education programs need to attract female and younger candidates as a means of creating equity and increasing academic performance. Efforts have to be made to increase the levels of achievement of female candidates by strengthening academic affirmative action. On the other hand, a joint survey research undertaken at the Fern Universität, West Germany, and Open University, UK, suggests that men and women students have different needs with respect to the local support provided during their distance study. Women are more regular attendees at face-to-face tutorials than men and value local provision, especially the chance to interact with other students. With regard, authors also relate this to models of intellectual development of women and argue for the importance of providing distance education suitable to women’s needs (Kikup and Prummer, 1990).

• When viewed alongside the fundamental methodological principles of distance education, the tutorial services rendered by tutors are found to be inappropriate. This can be attributed to the entire program of tutorial sessions being based on teacher-fronted verbal presentation of factual information and, consequently, the virtual absence of task-based learning activities, the absence of immediate feedback on tutor-marked assignments as well as the lack of individualized academic support and counseling services. The aforementioned factors have all proved the incompatibility of the existing tutorial programs with the fundamental principles of distance learning. Accordingly:
  
  ▪ Tutors need to make a radical shift in their methodology from a teacher-dominated formal lecture to a learner-centered and ragogical approach. Training of tutors on the fundamental principles of methodology is therefore urgently required.
  
  ▪ The large class sizes and the consequent imposition of heavy workloads upon tutors need to be reduced by opening new tutorial centers in the vicinity of those centers that accommodate large number of students.
  
  ▪ The use of multi-media for the delivery of course content need to be put into practice and considered as much as possible.

To conclude, strengthening open and distance education has the potential to focus the learning process on the student. Courses and programs that emphasize the students’ strengths and needs should be succeeded in attracting students. Moreover, in order to build their reputations and keep students, distance education courses and programs must reach the required standards. Achieving distance education is the aim of all of the concerned parties in the continual quest for the best possible resources, practices, and results. With an increased need for new career skills and improvements in the technology used to deliver courses, distance education students will demand evidence of quality and authenticity from distance courses. Overall, it can be concluded that, when students benefit from an education program that meets their needs, their perception of the course is likely to positive and their performance in the field tends to improve (Cavanaugh, 2005)
REFERENCES


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Parer, M.S. (1988). Institutional Support and Rewards for Academic Staff Involved in Distance Education. Victoria, Australia: Centre for Distance Learning, Gippsland Institute.

Table 4.1 Biographical data of respondents (students)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program Type</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No % No % No % No % No % No % No % No %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BA/BSc</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 shows that the number of students in the sample registered at diploma are 72 which equates to about 60 percent of the total respondents. The number of respondents registered at BA/BSc level is 36 which, in percentage terms, equates to 30. The remaining 10 percent of the subjects of the study stated that they had registered for the certificate program. The total percentage of female candidates in the sample is only 25 percent and it can, therefore, safely be concluded that the number of male candidates is much greater than that of females. The table also clearly indicates that a large majority are married. Finally, the age-range of the distance learners leans towards the category of over 30 years old.

4.2 Perception of the respondents along with the various dimensions

After the general data had been organized and classified, an attempt was also made to categorize responses under the following headings:

- Tutorial and support services
In addition, the perceptions of the respondents across each category as well as their overall perception of the system of distance education were determined as outlined in the following tables:

**Table: 4.2.1 Tutorial and support services**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very poor</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Very Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents’ perceptions regarding tutorial and support services were ranked from poor to very good. The majority, about 56 percent gave a moderate rating. Approximately 30 percent said that the services were “good”. Although no respondents assessed the ODL program as very poor, the services rendered in relation to the specific dimensions to be unsatisfactory. It appears that some modifications of the service provided as part of the ODE program may be required to enable the learner to make contact with other students and teachers to develop his/her academic and social contact that would probably otherwise be missed in the ODL system.

**Table: 4.2.2 Curricular materials (self-instructional material and other media)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very poor</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Very Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this section, the respondents’ responses similarly ranged from very poor to very good on the continuum with a large number of respondents, about 39 percent rating the curricular material as moderate. However, 32 percent of the total respondents stated that the self-instructional materials were poor. This perception seems to call in to question the quality of the distance and open education system and the replies of the respondents could have implications for revision of the curricular materials. On a more positive note, the 10 percent of respondents who rated the curricular materials as “very good” could shed light on ways of strengthening the distance education program in the future.

**Table: 4.2.3 Examinations and assignments**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very poor</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Very Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A relatively high number of respondents (about 32 per cents) rated the assessment process as “moderate”. However, it can be seen from the table that the responses still range from “very poor” to “very good” which was also the case in the previous category. In fact, approximately 36 percent of the total number of respondents rated the assessment process as either “very poor” or “poor’ which could have an impact on procedures used since, in any education system, assessment is both the most significant and most challenging tasks. It is through assessing learners that sufficient awareness about the status of their performance can be gained and the quality of teaching and learning reflected upon. Therefore, when the perceptions of the stakeholders of the examinations and assignments are not up to the expected level, doubts are cast as to whether ODL can meet its goal as an alternative means of accessing education at any level.

Table: 4.2.4 Overall perception of ODL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very poor</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Very Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No 14</td>
<td>% 18</td>
<td>No 28</td>
<td>% 37</td>
<td>No 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the previous three tables, it has been shown that in the ODL categories of tutorial and support services, curricular materials (self-instructional material and other media) as well as examinations and assessments, the majority of the respondents’ replies gave “moderate” ratings. Therefore, the expectation is for the overall perceptions of ODL on the part of the respondents to follow similar patterns. It can be seen that approximately 37 percent of the respondents gave a “moderate” rating as far as their overall perceptions were concerned. However, an equal number stated that they considered the ODL system overall to be poor. This does not represent an encouraging result with regard to the use of distance education programs as a means of alleviating access and may ultimately lead to the assumption that ODL is of poor quality. ODL is still in its early stages in this country and stakeholders’ perceptions could have far-reaching effects on the future development of the program, possibly even impeding the effort to expand it.

Table: 4.3 Summary of ANOVA with reference to sex and age (between below 30 years old and 30 and above years old) of the learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Df.</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>2-1=1</td>
<td>6.5174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>2-1=1</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>1x1=1</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>N-k=116</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N-1=119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that the F-value for sex is significant at 0.05 levels and F-value is not significant for age(between below 30 years old and 30 and above years old learners) at the specified level of significance. Similarly, F-value is not significant with respect to interaction (sex and age). It
can be further illustrated that there is no significant mean difference between below 30 years old and 30 and above years old learners. However, it can clearly be seen that there is a significant mean difference between the perception score of female and male learners. Furthermore, even if we mix up below 30 years old females with 30 and above years old male; 30 and above years old female with below 30 years old male, the difference in mean score is insignificant at 0.05 levels with degree of freedom equal to 1/116. As a whole, we can infer that males have more positive perception than females towards ODL.

Table: 4.4: The relationship between perception score and performance of the learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Perception Score</th>
<th>Achievement Score</th>
<th>r=0.63</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table reveals that the correlation between perception score and academic performances of the learners is 0.63. The value is high correlation. Moreover, the significance of the given correlation was also checked and found to be significant, at 0.01 level with degree of freedom equal to 118. Therefore, it can safely be concluded that there is a positive significant relationship between the perception of learners and their corresponding achievement. In other words this means that if the perceptions of the learners are positive, their achievement in DOL is also high and vice-versa.

Table: 4.5 The significance of mean difference between the trainees who are married and unmarried in perception score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Degree of freedom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Those who are married</td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who are unmarried</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the data on the table, it can be concluded that the calculated t-value is not significant at P<0.05 level of significance with degree of freedom equaling 118. It means that being married or unmarried has no effect ( whatsoever) on the perception score of the students in the ODL system of education.

Table: 4.6: The significance of mean difference between the trainees who are married and unmarried in academic performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Degree of freedom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Those who are married</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who are unmarried</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in the above table, the calculated value of t=15.0 is significant at P<0.01 levels with degree of freedom 118. Thus, it is clear that there is a significant mean difference in performance of
the specified learners. Unmarried ODL learner exhibited a significant mean difference in academic performance compared to married candidates.

Table: 4.7 Summary of ANOVA: The significance of mean difference of the perception score of learners among the different streams

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>k-1=2</td>
<td>F=12.345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>N-k=117</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N-1=119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that F-value is significant at 0.01 levels with degree of freedom 2/117. This refers to the conclusion that there is a significant mean difference in the perception of learners among different streams (Social Science, Natural Science and Language). The post-hoc Analysis of variance (Tukey Test) indicates that Natural Science students have significantly better perceptions than students in either the Social Science or Language streams.

Table: 4.8 Summary of ANOVA: The significance of mean difference on perceptions of learners across the levels of academic performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Group</td>
<td>k-1=2</td>
<td>F=25.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>N-k=117</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N-1=119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table clearly shows that there is significant mean difference in perception of learners across the level of academic performance. In addition to this, the post-hoc Analysis of variance clearly shows us that high achievers have a higher perception score than average and below-average achievers. This result could also demonstrate that the greater the academic achievements of the learners, the better their perceptions are of ODL. It means that a high level of success creates favorable conditions for having better perceptions of the ODL system of education.

Table: 4.9 Summary of ANOVA (The significance of mean difference on the perception score of learners at different program levels (Degree, Diploma, Certificate)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>k-1=2</td>
<td>F=49.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>N-k=117</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N-1=119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the result of the table, the conclusion can be reached that there is a significant mean difference on the perceptions score of learners depending on the program selected. Moreover, the post-hoc Analysis of variance reveals that the diploma program learners have more positive perceptions than those who have registered for BA/BSC and certificate programs. As can be seen
from the general information section, the number of candidates registered for diploma program is higher than for the other programs specified in this study. The mode of delivery of tutorial programs and the type of distance modules offered were also different from those of the BA/BSC and certificate programs. The difference in the perceptions of the subjects mentioned above could be attributed to these distinctive features.

**Students’ responses to open-ended items**

The following qualitative points were highlighted in the questionnaire responses:

**Organization of course and other supportive materials**
- Lack of thorough preparation and organization of the learning materials. Effort is, therefore, required to improve the materials
- Lack of organization of the modules. Consistent efforts should be devoted to reorganizing the learning modules
- The distance materials should be manageable in size and need to be more comprehensive for the learners
- Course preparation and organization should be based on students’ levels of thinking and ability at problem-solving. Supportive materials should be accessible to make learning more lasting.
- An increase in the number of tutorial sessions is essential to cover the learning modules adequately.
- The amount of supportive reading materials and media for the distance education program should be expanded.
- If supportive materials were added in sufficient number, the learner would acquire the necessary required knowledge and the appropriate skills more easily.
- The distance learning materials are not well-prepared. The materials are characterized by a high level of redundancy and typing errors which is not motivating for learning and studying.
- The distance education materials are very extensive to work through properly.

**Practical component of the program**
- The practical exercises are good but more careful selective provision of the exercises would maintain the interest of learners.
- No or little emphasis is placed on the practical aspects of the program
- Practical exercises in the courses are weak and less organized. Tutors should make consistent checks on students’ progress on practical activities
- Improvements in planning, organization and evaluation of the practical activities are urgently needed.
- Practical activities form part of the program but tutors do not include them in the counseling sessions.
- Educational institutions should establish a monitoring system to improve the quality and appropriateness of the practical aspects of programs.
- Practical activities/tasks should be clear and relevant and the appropriate facilities should be available to carry them out effectively.

**Qualifications and skills of the tutors**
- The qualifications of the tutors are up-to standard but sometimes tutors were unprepared for the tutorial sessions.
- Qualified instructors should be appointed as tutors.
- The qualifications and skills of the tutors are very good.
• The tutors are not qualified to be distance education instructors/tutors. Further training is necessary to improve the capacity of tutors.
• Some tutors do not deserve to have been appointed as academic counselors.
• There is no problem with the qualifications and skills of instructors/tutors.
• The educational institutions must carefully select and appoint qualified instructors in accordance with the field of specialization required.
• There are tutors who are not suitably qualified to deliver the course.

The quality of distance education
• I found the distance education program very important and of high quality.
• Training through distance education is as good as the conventional system of education.
• The quality of distance education depends on the quality of learning modules and the capacity of tutors.
• The quality of the program varies from institution to institution. The system of evaluation needs improvement. The government should be involved in monitoring the system.
• The quality of distance education could be improved by training tutors and providing appropriate services to the learners. It would be promising if continuous evaluation and feedback were provided.
• No problems in terms of qualification. The instructors/tutors are good.
• The program is quite good but further reference materials should be part of the service.
• The provision of library, laboratory and other supplementary learning resources is almost non-existent. As a result, the quality of the current distance education program is not up to the expected standard.
• It is not true to say the distance education program and the regular program are on an equal footing.
• As far as I am concerned, appropriate facilities should be provided in tutorial centers and organized so as to improve the quality of distance education.

General comments
• Improvements on the preparation of module are needed.
• The tutorials for distance education should be arranged every month.
• As far as possible, please try to provide supportive materials and media.
• The distance education program is valuable and it should be undertaken conscientiously.
• The perceptions of tutors and educational administrators need to be improved for further improvement of the distance education program.
• The problem of the organization of the learning modules is tolerable but delay on the distribution of the materials is the critical problem.
• The current distance learning modules are bulky. Improvements to reorganize the material would be desirable.
• The distance education program plays an essential and do have splendid role in the professional development of teachers.
• The program could have good prospects for flourishing in the future if certain improvements are carried out, e.g. announcement of tutorial times in advance.
• Currently, it seems that the government as well as educational institutions is paying less attention to the system of distance education.
• I think that the distance education program is helpful for the continuous professional development of teachers. Therefore, the government and educational institutions should put a large amount of effort into strengthening the program.
Appendix B: Distance Education Tutors

Table: 4.10: Biographical data of respondents (Tutors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program Type</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Service years</th>
<th>Training/workshop of DE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B.A/B.c</td>
<td>MA/M.Sc</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. %</td>
<td>No %</td>
<td>No %</td>
<td>No %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 40 18 60</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>27 90 3 10</td>
<td>12 40 18 60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table revealed that about 60 percent of the tutors hold MA/M.Sc degrees. The remaining 40 percent of the respondents were qualified up to first degree level. No respondents appointed as tutors who had a PhD. However, the researcher’s personal observations revealed that three PhD holders not included in the sample were appointed as tutors in the area of Harar, Jijiga and Dire Dawa. The conclusion can be drawn that, although the qualifications of tutors appears to be suitable, their knowledge of ODL methodology is insufficient. According to the results shown in the table, only 10 percent of the tutors are females and the majority of the respondents are experienced instructors with length of service of more than five years. However, in order to become a distance education program tutor, no training is provided. This situation could have adverse effect on the teaching and learning process and lead to lack of productivity since the unique feature of the ODL system demand specific types of tutors with specialized training.

Table: 4.11 Number of tutees in the a class, number of courses and number of assignments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of tutees</th>
<th>Number of courses</th>
<th>Number of assignments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 50</td>
<td>50 &amp; Above</td>
<td>One to two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.11 illustrates that, as experienced by 70 percent of the respondents, the number of learners in a class during tutorial sessions is more than 50. A distinctive feature of the ODL education system is interaction with other learners and tutors during tutorial sessions. In order for this to be implemented effectively, the number of students in a class needs to be reduced to a manageable size. The table also reveals that about 65 percent of the respondents are responsible for two courses at a time and the remainder for more than two courses. It is clear that this, in turn, makes instructors responsible for the corresponding assignments and tutorial classes. Experience in this regard showed that it is not advisable for tutors to take more than two ODL courses at time. Similarly, about 59 percent of the respondents highlighted the fact that they were responsible for correcting more than three separate assignments. Although the content of assignments varies from course to course, it is difficult, if not impossible, to be responsible for more than three or four different assignments at a time.
Table: 4.12 Difficulty levels of the course modules and assignments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Difficult</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Easy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty level of the course modules</td>
<td>No 9 %</td>
<td>No 21 %</td>
<td>No 70 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty level of the assignments</td>
<td>No 6 %</td>
<td>No 24 %</td>
<td>No 80 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the respondents described the level of difficulty of course modules and corresponding assignments as “moderate”. However, 20 to 30 percent of the respondents rated them as “difficult”. The ability levels of the majority of students should be taken into consideration during the preparation of the course modules and assignments so that they are pitched at an appropriate level, neither too easy nor too difficult. This fact was also highlighted during interview with coordinators.

Table: 4.13 Patterns of module distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students received all the modules before the tutorial sessions</td>
<td>6 7 %</td>
<td>3 3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students received all the modules prepared for the semester</td>
<td>6 5 %</td>
<td>3 5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some students were forced to share some of the modules with others</td>
<td>2 2 %</td>
<td>8 7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutors didn’t receive some of the modules prepared for the courses which they offered</td>
<td>2 3 %</td>
<td>7 7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutors received the modules long before the actual tutorial session</td>
<td>5 5 %</td>
<td>4 4 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the responses regarding the patterns of module distribution were positive. However, 33 to 35 percent of the respondents highlighted the fact that some learners did not receive modules before tutorial sessions, did not have the necessary modules for the semester and were forced to share modules on certain courses. Furthermore, 23 percent of the respondents complained that tutors did not even receive modules on time for some courses to which they were assigned. This caused inevitable delays regarding preparation by tutors of effective tutorial sessions. Similarly, about 45 percent of the total respondents replied that modules were not provided well in advance of tutorial sessions. Tutors need to have the module weeks or even months before the actual tutorial session take place to be able to prepare well. A face to face interview with coordinators disclosed that this happens partly due to EMA organizational problems and partly due to reluctance on the part of tutors.

Table: 4.14 Status of tutorial Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The academic support given to the students was sufficient</td>
<td>15 85 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assignments were submitted on time</td>
<td>11 89 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The programs run in regular time-tables</td>
<td>7 93 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback for assignments were immediate</td>
<td>0 100 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized academic supports was adequate</td>
<td>0 100 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall, the respondents clearly rated the support services as “poor”. About 85 percent of the subjects responded that the academic support provided is insufficient and 89 percent stated that assignments were not submitted on time. Similarly, about 93 percent of the respondents highlighted the fact that there was no standard timetable for running the ODL program. It is not good practice for any educational program to be implemented without organizing a timetable of activities for each component. Disappointingly, 100 percent of the respondents felt that feedback on the assignments was not immediate and individual support was inadequate. The personal observations of the researchers also revealed that these areas were almost neglected.

Table: 4.15 Responses to miscellaneous issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you think that the ODL system of education students academically capable?</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think that students have received sufficient counselling support?</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was the number of tutorial sessions adequate to cover the contents of the module?</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you believe that distance education can be as effective as the conventional method?</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As far as the academic ability of ODE learners is concerned, about 42 percent the respondents believe that ODL learners are as competent as conventional learners. Nevertheless, 58 percent, a large proportion of the respondents think that ODE learners are less able. The table also reveals that 84 percents of the respondents feel that the counselling support arranged for the ODE learners is inadequate. Furthermore, 82 percent are of the opinion that the time allotted to cover the content of the learning module is insufficient. The personal observations of the researcher also uncovered the fact that coordinators and program organizers seem to have insufficient knowledge regarding allocation of time for tutorial sessions. As a result, many tutors experience the problems mentioned by the respondents. Finally, the respondents were asked to reflect on whatever believes ODL to be as effective as the conventional education system or not. Approximately 41 percent think that it is as effective as the conventional system. However, about 59 percent have reservations about whether the quality of the ODL education system is equal to that of the conventional system. Center coordinators argue in response that, apart from the necessity of introducing minor changes to the system, it is currently in a good position and contributing to the development of the nation in the same way as the conventional system of education. They also highlighted the fact that no discrimination takes place regarding the appointment of graduates to specific posts.
Tutors’ responses to open-ended items

Problems in course assignments

- Tutees are not used to doing assignments. Yet, it is part of the procedure to collect in and correct assignments at the end of each semester. The preparation and organization of assignments is poor.
- There are too many questions set for some courses. Assignments are not submitted on time.
- Students were not conscientious about completing assignments. There is not enough time for feedback.
- Students copy assignment answers from each other. The handwriting was often not legible and, as a result, it was time-consuming to read and score properly.
- Delay of submission of the assignment and lack of guidance given to trainees about assignment are a few of the problems of the current distance education system.
- Redundant and irrelevant questions.
- Students do not take due care when completing assignments and so correcting them was a challenging task.
- The assignments were full of problems in terms of content, language and format.
- Tutees copy the answer directly from the modules and answers are usually erroneous.
- Assignments submitted are poorly organized. There is not enough time to give feedback to students.
- The assignments are prepared by the module writers and are often unsuitable with regard to content coverage.
- Some of the questions for assignments are not clear. It is unfortunate that most of the questions are objective-type ones.
- Some of the questions are ambiguous and complex for students.

Frequently occurring problems with distance learners

- Communication problem, poor English, inattentiveness towards their education and lack of confidence.
- Most of the distance learners lack basic concepts. As a result, whatever type of question they may encounter, they assume the question is difficult for them.
- Many registered for the course and sat the exam but few of them attended the tutorial sessions.
- Problem with time management: Distance learners lack appropriate time management skills and are therefore disorganized.
- There are too many students in a class for the tutorial sessions
- Distance learners seem overloaded due to their private work on top of the program. Students are interested to attend tutorial sessions given by their tutors most of the time but the majority of distance education learners lack motivation for learning.
- Distance learners came to the tutorial sessions without having read their learning modules. They lacked skills for active participation. Distance learners registered for the sake of improving their career prospects.
- Distance learners expect their tutors to cover every thing in tutorial sessions with them as passive participants.
- The students sometimes registered for the program beyond their capabilities. The center coordinators are not properly trained to pay attention to this.
- Lack of information on the tutorial time/schedule. Problem of distance-residence is too far from the tutorial center. Lack of time to study the material in advance of tutorial sessions.
- Lack of time, counseling and relevant materials. The modules lack concrete examples, there are insufficient contextual examples.
• Most of the learners were absent from the tutorial sessions for unknown reasons. There is no follow up system to control absenteeism.
• Modules on some courses were not reaching students on time.
• Lack of reference materials. None in some areas, only small amount of background reading materials.
• Modules were not prepared appropriately. Inadequacy in terms of course coverage, and unidentified errors as well as lack of organization of the learning contents.
• Some modules for diploma levels were written in advanced mathematical language more suitable for a higher level of qualification.
• Most students were not motivated to learn but they came because they were forced to do so.
• Many of them need further assistance and help which may not be possible during tutorials.

Academic competency of distance learners
• The academic background of the students was not up to standard. Some of them, however, were too old to be students.
• Apart from a few exceptions, most of the distance learners were not prepared to participate fully in the class and the level of academic performance was lower compared to conventional (regular) students.
• Since some students did not possess the appropriate prior qualification, they lacked motivation and showed a low level of effort and achievement. Some did not read the modules because they were incapable of doing so.

Counseling support
• Increasing tutorial sessions by using the telephone and email could provide a higher level of counseling support.
• I would recommend half of the regular contact hours required to cover the course.
• Sufficient time allocation and provision of references would improve the academic support services.
• To improve the time allocation for tutorial sessions, I would suggest three sessions instead of two.
• Doubling the number of hours and increasing the support service would improve the academic support provided.
• Increasing the frequency of contact with learners and the number of counselors would contribute to an improvement in the support service.
• Orientation, student handbook, access to telephones and correspondence need to be considered.
• I would suggest two tutorial sessions but extended in terms of duration.
• Tutorial sessions should be announced ahead of time, modules should be ready and distributed on time.
• I would suggest that half of the total credit hours of the course be allotted to the tutorial sessions.
• Support should be available on how to study, how to do assignments, and how to manage time.
• Tutorials should be arranged at least three times in a session.
• It would be good if eight tutorial sessions per semester were arranged.
• Regular communication with the learner would improve the academic support.
• Tutorial time should be increased and I suggest that it be conducted once a month.
• The establishing of various centers and the use of modern communication technology would contribute to an improvement in the quality of academic sessions.
• With regard to time, I would suggest ten days per module.
• If we use the existing time available for tutorial sessions effectively, it is sufficient.
- Local high school teachers should support tutees in addition to the tutorial sessions. Employing center counselors would improve the service a great deal.
- For each course, there should be four to six tutorial sessions.
- Sufficient reference materials and group learning should be encouraged
- Students should have at least six tutorial sessions for a given course

Critical problems of DE
- Lack of appropriate attention to the program by the concerned bodies.
- The government does not pay attention to distance education and there is a lack of appropriate incentives for those who complete courses which could demotivate possible future students.
- The repercussions of curriculum change have not been taken into account.
- Lack of appropriate academic support for individual candidates when required.
- Problems of module distribution at the appropriate times.
- Lack of academic feedback before the final (term-end) exam.
- Failure to assess needs and workload accordingly.
- Poor or not well-prepared and broadly organized learning modules.
- Poor relationship between administrative regions and institutions responsible for distance education.
- Lack of appropriate support for the learners and lack of organized study centers.
- Institutions are reluctant to open new programs through distance education.
- Poor coordination of the program and little attention paid to tutors.
- Distance education is becoming the option of academically poor and weak candidates.
- Poor communication with and orientation of students who join the distance education program.
- Poor quality of the program in terms of students, tutors and materials.
- Lack of time and libraries at the study centers. Geographical location of the study centers creates logistical problems.
- Insufficient module supply, wrong location of study centers as well as the fact that tutors’ workloads are too heavy.
- Lack of attention, lack of policy and proper organizational structure and lack of suitably qualified manpower and management.
- Shortage of time to cover the learning modules. Lack of information in distance education program in general.

Dropouts
- Academic incompetence, family problems and displacement/unplanned transfer from their workplace could be reasons for dropping out.
- Lack of motivation, lack of support and lack of organization of the program.
- Failure to attend the tutorial sessions, misinformation about the exam time and the distance education program as whole.
- Academic incompetence and lack of interest in the way education is offered to them.
- Lack of special arrangements to support and counsel academically poor students
- Long distance from the workplace to the study center and unwillingness of employers to allow the distance learners to continue the program.
- Economic and personal problems could contribute greatly to dropping out.
- The program does not follow the fixed schedule.
- Students have insufficient support and communication with course instructors/ tutors.
- Frustration of students, tutors’ wrong perceptions of the distance learners and lack of financial support for distance learners.
- Maybe lack of time to follow up their studies and tutorial sessions properly are reasons for dropping out.
• Lack of appropriate educational background and lack of permission to give time to their learning from their employers.
• Little expectation from the program on the part of the distance learners.
• Focus on developing confidence in students by the counselors could help to reduce the dropout rate.
• Employed learners need to have appropriate orientation to the distance education program.
• Establishing proper study centers and providing appropriate facilities would play an important role in decreasing the number of dropouts.
• More academic support is needed to reduce the dropouts rate.
• Distance education programs need to have a clear vision of future prospects.
• Try to minimize students’ workloads. Try to raise the aspirations of distance learners.
• Sufficient counseling, fixed timetable and an attractive program would play an important role in reducing the dropout rate.
• Advising students prior to starting courses on what they can study successfully and offering appropriate training with structured and organized learning modules would contribute greatly to a reduction in the number of dropouts.
• Attracting capable students to the distance program would alleviate the problem of dropouts.
• Making the system more flexible to the learners needs would help the problem of wastage.
• It would be advantageous if employers of distance learners exempted them from additional assignments at work as a means in decreasing attrition rate.
• Increasing the academic counseling service and special awareness creation programs could bring about a decrease in the number of dropouts.
• The closer proximity of the location of tutorial sessions to the learners’ places of residence could decrease the dropout rate.

General Comments

• Strengthening distance education units in an institution and ensuring that students have a suitable educational background when they join specific program would make distance education effective.
• Practical sessions also need to be arranged. More time should be allotted for the tutorial sessions.
• Try to make the system more flexible and use different information and communication technologies to support the face-to-face sessions.
• Distance learners though out reach geographically, situation should be appropriate to keep them closer at least by providing them with all possible facilities that the regular program/learners have access to. That is, proper counseling, tutorials, continuous assessment, library service and the like.
• Modules should be prepared and distributed at the appropriate time.
• To seriously undertake the program in a well-organized manner, students should be evaluated appropriately and the process of grading of student performance should be taken seriously.
• All necessary support should be setup carefully and available on time.
• Proper policy, awareness raising, good organization and well-considered utilization of manpower would make the distance education program effective and efficient.
• An increase in the number of tutorial centers, allotment of enough time, enhancement of the promotion service offered, and well-organized learning modules are all necessary preconditions for launching any given distance education program.
• Good course structuring, effective management of the program, attractive pay for tutors as well as better awareness and support from the regional bureau would make distance education more successful.
• Frequent and continuous evaluation, limiting overstretching of tutors with regard to workload and feedback on assignments would make the program more effective.
• The most important strategy is to plan, implement, monitor and update the way we offer the training. Above all, it is important to constantly gather data from the students on what they need and prefer, the problems they face and what they want to be done for them. Unless we do this, we cannot attain what we want from distance education.
• It would be wise to use various types of communication media to augment the effectiveness of distance education.
• Devising procedures to force learners to do assignments by themselves would increase the academic performance of the learners and assure the quality of distance education.
• Standardization of the learning modules should be given priority to safeguard the reputation of the distance education system.
• The appointing of suitably qualified and trained tutors could raise the standard of the open and distance education system.

4.3 Distance Education Coordinators

Distance Education coordinators, regional and center coordinators were also asked for their views on the distance education system conducted in their area. The following points were highlighted:
• A combination of criteria such as GPA, length of service year and performance evaluation was taken into consideration when selecting candidates for the distance education program.
• Most respondents were not happy with the selection criteria. They felt that the length of service was given priority but when a new employee had a good academic record this was not taken into account.
• Most of the respondents (about 85 percent) believed that if lessons in the distance education program are delivered appropriately, distance learners are capable of performing to the same standard as conventional learners.
• The distance education system alleviates problems of access, contributes to the continuous professional development of employees (teachers and others) and is of paramount importance in assuring the quality of education by using various media for delivery of the lessons.
• The most serious and most frequently mentioned problems in the ODL system are delays in module distribution, assignment submission and feedbacks, the appointment of unsuitably qualified tutors, shortages of reference materials, lack of fixed timetables, poor coordination at tutorial centers and inadequate support services.
• The number of dropout has been identified as one of the major problems in the system of distance education. The main issues associated with the problem of dropout are personal, social and vocational problems. Respondents suggested that improving the working condition of the distance learner (if they are employed), as well as the study centers, the capacity of tutors and counseling services could alleviate the problem of the number of dropouts.
• Most respondents stated that ODL is a very good program which addresses the question of equity and access to education and that it is the most potent tool for addressing the question of cost effectiveness and is the most justifiable method for countries like Ethiopia.
The Nature and Challenges of Youth Unemployment in Lideta Sub-City, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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Abstract

The study is aimed to investigate the nature and challenges of youth unemployment in Lideta Sub-city, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The participants include randomly selected youth life skills trainers and trainees. Extensive document analysis, participant observation, and interview were the major instruments employed to obtain the necessary data. Extreme poverty as obstacle to start education and business; psychological dependency on government employment along with lack of entrepreneurial skills; negative peer influence; often loose and negative society and youth relationship; lack of robust political communication with the government; and rural to urban migration were found to be the key factors behind youth unemployment. Moreover, poor to modest macroeconomic performance; low level of employment creation; and a rapid increase in the workforce were reported to be further exacerbating youth unemployment. On the other hand, some efforts such as provisions of various trainings on entrepreneurship, vocational life skills; accessability of credit associations; enabling the youth to be active participants and beneficiaries in of whatever they are involved; and attempts for strong communication with high government officials were outlined to be appreciable measures taken to curb the problem of urban youth unemployment. Furthermore, enhanced education, information and health services; inadequacy of educated personnel; and culture of interdependence were stressed as among the key opportunities available for the youth. However, the study also uncovered that absence of adequate place to implement what they have been trained for absence of market connectedness; mismatch between skills requirements and education/training the youth; absence of follow –up (monitoring); absence of place to demonstrate what they have produced; and limited training field are explained as some of the central supplementary factors that could possibly incapacitate youth employment opportunities. The study concluded that though the government has made encouraging progress towards curbing the problems of youth unemployment, significant improvement remains to be made. That the unemployment situation is particularly rampant among the youth, which constitutes the largest population calls for an urgent intervention aimed at improving the fate of the unemployed. And this requires concerted effort among concerned stakeholders. Hair breeding, mash room production, poultry were highlighted as ecologically valid sectors to expand the limited training options.

BACKGROUND AND JUSTIFICATION

The energy, skills, and aspirations of young people are invaluable assets that no country can afford to squander, and helping them to realize their full potential by gaining access to employment is a precondition for poverty eradication, sustainable development, and lasting peace. Given the immense challenges the youth face to get a job, youth employment has now obtained growing prominence on development agenda after having been largely neglected in national development strategies in the past. Youth unemployment is a challenge that all countries in the world are facing regardless of their stage of socio-economic development; however, the socio-economic context has an important contribution on the nature and extent of the problem.
Ethiopia has an estimated population of 80 million of which 43% is below 15-years of age in 2007. Population growth rate is about 3%. About 99% of the Ethiopian society subscribes to religious denomination of one kind or another. Close to 85% of the inhabitants are engaged in agriculture and 84% lives in rural areas. About 44% of the total population lives below international poverty line (below US$1 a day). Life expectancy at birth is only 48 years while the average of Sub-Saharan African countries is about 60. According to UNDP (2006), the GNP per capita is $110 and 480 for Ethiopia and Sub-Saharan Africa, respectively. GDP by sector for agriculture, industry, services is (47.5%) 9.9% and 42.6% respectively in 2005 (42.6%). The combined gross enrolment ratio for the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education is 36% for Ethiopia, while the average for developing countries is 63%. Health provisions are not adequate to meet the needs of all people. HIV/AIDS, TB, Malaria, and other infectious diseases are considered to be the major killers (Habtamu, 2009).

In the world, there are about 1.2 billion young people between ages 15 and 24, 18% of which live in developing countries. In Africa alone, there are about 200 million young people comprising more than 20% of the population (Kellow et al., 2010). Total youth population in Ethiopia is about 21.16 million which constitutes nearly 30% of the total population (MOYS, 2006). The total population of Addis Ababa is 2,738,248 out of which 1,163,401 (1.2 million) are young; 517,656 are male and 645,745 are female. The youth population at Lideta Sub-City is 85, 680 which constitutes 42.5% of the total population in the Sub-City. Next to Nigeria, Ethiopia accounts for the largest youth population in Sub-Saharan Africa and the lack of employment opportunities for Ethiopian young people is among the critical development challenges facing the country. Studies by Belay (2007) Habtamu (2009) Serneels 2004 Shimelis (2010); and reports of MOYS (2004) IOM (2008) MOYS (2006) uncovered that most of the youth are illiterate, married and rural dwellers.

In Ethiopia, the youth labor market is generally characterized by high level of unemployment. Such high level of youth unemployment is a problem that most countries face, developed and developing alike. The number of unemployed youth worldwide has reached 88 million of which 10 million live with HIV/AIDS (Kellow et al, 2010). The youth account for half of the unemployed population while only representing a quarter of the total population of working-age. In Ethiopia, the unemployment rate for urban youth is 37.5% as opposed to 7.2% for rural youth.

By defining a specific target, i.e. target 16, through the Millennium Development Goals concerning youth employment, the international community has recognised the seriousness of the situation. However, in spite of the dramatic economic, social and political consequences of youth unemployment problems on poverty, social cohesion, migration etc, there are only few studies conducted in the area.

On the other hand, Ethiopia envisions being part of the middle-income countries within the next 20 years through expansion of current development efforts, enhanced democratisation, ensuring sustainable peace, and good governance. And this becomes a reality if and only if the youth is at the forefront and takes part in the over all development efforts. It is a well-established fact that improving the economic position of the youth constitutes an integral part of the fight against poverty. On the other hand, youth unemployment is a hot issue in the political agenda of both developed and developing countries. In spite of this common feature, existing empirical evidence and research shows that the nature of the problem is quite different in these two groups of countries.
The specific factors affecting youth employment in Ethiopia have received little research attention. Moreover, it would not be a gross over generalization to suggest that most government officials, NGOs, parents, communities have given the issue of youth unemployment less attention in this country. Hence, this study attempted to bring the issue of youth unemployment to the limelight by focusing on its nature, challenges, and determinants.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
To examine the nature, challenges and determinants of youth unemployment at Lideta Sub-City, and provide ecologically valid recommendations.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
As measures to help young people make a transition into the labour market and obtain work, policy makers are hampered by lack of information on what their options are, what works in different situations, and what has been tried and failed?

LITERATURE
Clearing the Cloud: What is employment? How is unemployment related to underemployment?
There might be various definitions for the terms employment, unemployment, and under employment. In this paper, definitions from MOLSA (2010) were adopted. Employment to population ratio is the proportion of a country’s working age population that is employed. The unemployed consist of all persons who during the reference period, were not working but who were seeking work for pay or profit, those available for work including those who never worked before. Unemployment rate is the proportion of the labour force that does not have a job and is actively looking for work.

Certain Myths about Unemployment
Unemployment is a profound reality, which affects the lives of millions of people. Some economists are legitimately concerned, as they are unable to predict accurately the statistical estimate of these parameters. According to Brown and Roberts on (1992:220) the following are among the major myths about unemployment:

✓ A certain percentage of persons who are unemployed are necessary in society in order for the economy to flourish.
✓ It is an important value for all persons to be working and contributing to society and its quality of life.
✓ All persons who are unemployed are profoundly affected by this reality.
✓ It is the persons fault if he or she is unemployed.
✓ Issues of unemployment seem to be running rampant with no end in sight, and there is no much we can do about it; hence, it does not do not seem to be “curable.”
**Box 1: Where do employment data come from?**

1. **Household Surveys**
   Data used to measure unemployment, employment and underemployment are drawn from household surveys or population censuses.

2. **Living Standards Measurement Surveys (LSMS).**
   Promoted by the World Bank, they collect data on many dimensions of household well-being including consumption, income, savings, employment, health, education, fertility, nutrition, housing, and migration.

3. **Labour Force Surveys (LFS).**
   These surveys are standard household-based surveys of work-related statistics and should constitute as such the main source of employment data. However, they have been conducted on a very irregular basis and with substantial lags in many developing countries. Less than 10 African countries have conducted one LFS since 1990 (CDPR, 2005). The World Bank is putting a lot of efforts to collect and harmonise micro-datasets on SSA through its Survey based Harmonised Indicators Project (SHIP). The SHIP will provide comparable and comprehensive socioeconomic indicators for African countries.

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**Box 3: Why are youth unemployment rates higher than adult unemployment rates?**

According to ILO (2006), there are many likely explanations. For the case of south-east Europe, see Kolev and Saget, (2005)

I. **The last-in, first-out explanation.**
   Youth are more vulnerable than adults in difficult economic times. They are likely to have less work experience than adults.

II. **The lack of job search experience explanation.**
   A young person often lacks both labour market information and job search experience.

III. **The “shopping around” explanation.**
   Another possibility is that youth might take longer to “shop around” for the right job, meaning they might wait longer to find work that suits their requirements.

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**The costs of youth unemployment**

1. **Individual costs of unemployment**
   Generally, the hardest hit from the consequences of unemployment is the individual himself or herself. Such repercussions could be seen from four interdependent approaches: physiological, psychological, interpersonal, and economic consequences.

   1. **Physiological perspective:** Somatic stress related health illnesses such as chest pains, shortness of breath, headache, dizziness, fatigue, sleeplessness and elevated blood serum cholesterol (generally associated with heart disease) affect the unemployed.

   2. **Economic consequences:** The unemployed bear the cost of lost earnings that would have come through employment of some sort.
3. **Psychological consequences**: feeling of loss, guilt, poor self-esteem, grief, reactions, a loss of personal identity, worry and uncertainty about the future, a loss of purpose, and acute and chronic depression, blaming syndrome, and self-degradation are a few examples. Furthermore, Brown and Robertson (1992: 226) argued that there have been some theoretical and empirical justifications for delineating specific and sequenced stages that a person who is unemployed goes through comparable to the stages of grief and loss. These stages generally include: **The reactions of initial shocks, optimism, pessimism and finally, fatalism.**

II. **Societal costs of unemployment**

Unemployment generally affects family dynamics and functioning in many ways. It upsets family homeostasis and their finance; aggravates the precipitation of role conflicts and withdrawal of the members.

III. **Country level**

High level of youth unemployment means that the government loses tax and other revenue that it would have raised had more people been working. The cost of crime prevention, and most importantly, the cost of doing business have gone up in many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. This sends the wrong signal for potential external resources and stifles foreign direct investment.

**Nature of youth unemployment: Comparative analysis of the developed and developing world**

An overview of experiences from developed world

1. The first argument says, over the period of economic expansion, youth unemployment tends to fall, while during the period of economic contraction youth unemployment tends to increase. This cyclical feature of youth unemployment may not be that apparent in the case of developing countries where the demand side problem is rather structural and an intricate part of the vicious circle of poverty.

2. The second assertion is that in the context of the western labour market, the increase in the labour force participation of adult female and increase in immigration have been blamed for some of the increase in youth unemployment in recent decades. In the context of developing countries, on the other hand, it is the competition from within the youth that is the most important factor. Most of the developing world is characterised by an unprecedented rate of population growth. Such population structure, in turn, has led to the labour market situation in these countries where there is excessive labour supply that far exceeds the increase in the available job opportunities.

3. The third contention holds that while in developed countries the youth’s difficulties to get a job are related to lack of minimum professional skills required in the context of sophisticated production environments, in the case of developing countries, unemployment is generally found to rise with education levels. In the absence of unemployment insurance, only those with family (economic, social, and demographic) resources can afford to wait in order to find a good match between their level of qualification and their occupations in the labour market. Conversely, most unqualified workers cannot afford to be unemployed and end up in the informal sector where productivity and revenues are low.

What are most important contributing factors to this high level of urban youth unemployment in developing countries?
I. Demand side problems: Low level of aggregate demand increases the level of unemployment in general and youth unemployment in particular.

II. Supply side problems: The second and probably most important factor that explains youth unemployment in developing countries such as Ethiopia has to do with supply side problems. Increased number of workforce: A rapidly expanding workforce either due to high level of population growth or increases in the labour supply of some segments of society, increase unemployment in general and youth unemployment in particular leading to high degree of competition from either within itself or from other groups of society.

Mismatch of education and training skills with the requirements of the labour market. This is particularly important in view of the fact that the unemployed youth in the urban areas of most developing countries seem to have gone through the best education and training that these countries can afford to provide.

**Rural-urban migration:**
In the context of the urban labour market of developing countries, one factor that has long been identified as an important reason explaining urban unemployment is rural-urban migration.

**III. Problems that emanate from the very characteristics of the youth itself**

**High turnover and voluntary quit:** Employers faced with a slump in demand would find it easy to layoff the inexperienced youth first. This is because the youth is the least expensive to replace when demand conditions recover.

**African experiences**
The youth currently represents 21 percent of the African population compared to about 18-19 percent for other developing regions (Asia and Latin America) and 14 percent in Europe. The situation is likely to keep deteriorating as the total number of youth is expected to keep increasing rapidly in the next ten years. In 2005, the labour force participation rate of young males was 73.7% one of the highest in the world (ILO, 2006; United Nations, 2007). Youth make up 36.9% of the working age population, 59.5% of the total unemployed, which is much higher than the world’s average for 2005 (43.7%), reflecting serious labour demand deficiencies in the region (ILO, 2006). The share of unemployed youth among the total unemployed can be as high as 83% in Uganda, 68% in Zimbabwe and 56% in Burkina Faso (World Bank, 2009).

The absence of regular data collection on employment and unemployment in many developing countries makes it impossible to estimate unemployment rates reliably. Apart from these, the lack of comprehensive, integrated, and centralized databases on youth labour market and poverty outcomes in Africa remains a major barrier for analysing employment-linked poverty outcomes in the region.

**What are the consequences of youth unemployment in Africa?**
The situation of the youth on African labour markets has many economic, social, and political consequences. The welfare of the youth is negatively affected in a broad sense; vulnerability to negative shocks increases their probability of becoming or staying poor; delayed social integration (access to the first job, marriage, and residential autonomy) and modification of their demographic behaviour increases; disruptive social behaviour becomes prevalent; youth
gangs typically satisfy their economic and social needs through violence and participation in armed conflicts; facing poor job prospects, young men and women see migration overseas as the best way to have a better life, and regularly save money to emigrate legally or illegally abroad.

**Characteristics and sources of youth unemployment in Ethiopia**

1. **Economic related:**
   
   **Poor economic performance**
   
   Low economic growth, which is manifested in low economic activity and low investment, entails low overall job creation.

2. **Lack of entrepreneurship:**
   
   Ethiopia’s labour market is comprised of large informal economy and this informal sector is predominantly an employment of last resort rather than a preference by entrepreneurs.

2. **Education related:**
   
   **Low level of education:**
   
   In Ethiopia, a large number of individuals enter the labour market below the age of 15 with little or no formal education. Illiteracy is a major factor contributing to underemployment and employment in the informal sector.

3. **Population related:**
   
   **High population growth:**
   
   The rate of population growth is another factor aggravating scarcity of job-opportunities.

**High rural-urban migration:**

Unemployment is most severe in urban areas of Ethiopia due to rural–urban migration.

**General Situation of Ethiopian youth: Some historical background**

**The Imperial Era**

As outlined in MOYS (2004) young students, especially since the 1960s have become pioneers in actively and widely mobilizing the community to struggle for their cause. Ethiopian young students, young workers, and young farmers have played important roles in the country’s political, economic, social and cultural development efforts. They have conducted bitter struggles to bring about drastic positive change in the country by raising the land tenure question, stressing the removal of the decadent political systems, and other popular issues. Many youth sacrificed their lives for these noble causes.

**The military regime:**

During the military regime between 1974-91, a strong mass organization of youth was established; namely, the Revolutionary Ethiopian Youth Association (REYA). The Association ran several programmes including a literacy campaign, social services such as first aid, dissemination of primary health information, as well as assistance in the rebuilding of homes for old people and persons with disabilities. In addition, the planting of trees,
construction of parks, roads, and bridges; agricultural work at co-operatives, and state farms; recreational activities such as musical groups and sports teams; literacy campaign and rural works, and labour intensive approaches were pursued in executing public works. Weaknesses include, among others that the program was small scale and reached out-of-school youth; the participation of girls was limited it was highly politicized; it was unable to play an advocacy role for the interest of the youth and others.

**The current regime**

With the advent of a new government in 1991, the uncertainty created by political change was not conducive to youth organizations. Gradually, the youth have organized themselves under various umbrellas. Most of the Regional States have Regional Youth Associations. Recently, these Regional Associations have come together to discuss ways of establishing a National Youth Association. These Regional Associations and other youth organizations are involved in different activities including prevention and control of HIV/AIDS education, afforestation, neighbourhood cleaning and greening participation in sports, art and culture; commitments in development programs during summer vacation (the case of college & university students few years back), and employment generation schemes. Generally, the youth are participating and benefiting from creating jobs, environmental development and protection, social and economic development, democratization, and building good governance etc.

Furthermore, currently, a number of important developments were registered in the promotion of youth issues. For instance, in 2001 the Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture was established. Similarly, Ethiopian National Youth Policy was developed in the year 2004. Following this, Ethiopian Youth Development Package was produced in (2006). All aim at to consolidating and enriching the participation of the youth and the whole society and urgently bringing about practical results.

**Method**

The research design of this study was descriptive in nature. The study tried to identify the various hot issues surrounding Ethiopian youth unemployment in general and urban youth unemployment in particular. Key concepts included the nature, determinants, opportunities and challenges of youth unemployment at Lideta Sub-City, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

**Sampling: Area and participant**

The current study covered the nature, challenges and opportunities of youth unemployment at Lideta Sub-City. The research was delimited to this Sub-City because of time and money constraints. Moreover, since the number of practicing trainers is very limited, all trainers (100%) were purposively selected as research participants based on their interest and willingness. Finally, 14 trainees from those participating in life skills training were randomly selected.

**Instruments**

Extensive document analysis, participant observation and interview were the major instruments employed to secure the necessary data. By using such a mix of approaches, the study attempted to shed some light on the problem of youth unemployment, and strives to come up with some suggestions that will hopefully be of some use from the viewpoint of policymaking. To secure the soundness and trustworthiness of findings, through out the whole process emerging patterns were “triangulated” at the level of data (observational vs.
The observation focused on different challenges of trainings. The observation was of a participatory one where informed consent was obtained from both trainers and trainees. The observation was carried out at two different periods where participants were selected purposively based on their interest and willingness to participate. The unstructured interview focused on responses that might be difficult to elicit through participant observation. For the in-depth interview, an interview guide with themes that corresponded with the research foci was developed. The guide was continuously and critically examined with regard to language incompatibilities, inappropriateness, and other possible pitfalls. Before in-depth interviews took place, interviewees were paid social visit at least for a week in order to establish trust and to provide information about the interview.

The interview lasted for a maximum of an hour minutes. One trainer and three trainees were selected purposively based on their interest and willingness. Four of the in-depth interviewees spoke English; however, for more clarification Amharic was used when necessary. Detailed notes were also taken simultaneously. Within three days the notes were transcribed into a computer and checked by the researcher for any possible mistakes. Finally, various relevant documents were analyzed. Such documents include Youth National Policy, Youth Development Package, Youth Dialogue with the PM. Moreover, documents such as BPR, Evaluation of Outcomes of different programs, Sub-City’s one year long report, and various national and international research results were used.

Data collection procedures
Prior to the commencement of data collection an official permit letter addressed to the Central Executive Officer was secured. Next, the researcher met with the head of department and explained about the purpose of the study, and presenting the letter solicited the cooperation of the department.

During the administration of the instruments, participants were briefed about the purpose of the study and the confidentiality of the information they provide. Moreover, they were informed that whatsoever information they provide would be used only for research purpose. Then, participants were enlightened to provide reliable information to enable the study hit its target.

Data analysis procedures
Information gathered were analyzed through interpretative methods. That is,

• Response was recorded to each question in a table.

• Illustrative quotes were written word for word using quotation marks.

• Summary of the key points were written after repeated reading.

In accordance with the qualitative approach chosen as part of the data collection instrument for the study, data collected from various sources and approaches (interview, participant observation and document analysis) were presented together in a descriptive and narrative form. However, the presentation is limited to four categories of discursive perspectives on youth unemployment concerns: (1) achievements so far, (2) existing challenges, (3) available opportunities and (4) sound recommendations.
Ethical considerations
In conducting this study, the following ethical considerations and safety measures were taken:

Ethical clearance: Ethical clearance was obtained from Jimma University.

Informed consent: after the purpose and importance of the study is explained for the participants of the study, informed consent was obtained from each respondent.

Privacy and confidentiality: the privacy of the subjects was kept and they were informed that whatever information they provide would be kept confidential. Moreover, they were informed about the benefits and risks of the research. Compensation and information dissemination: This was also taken care of.

Findings

Why is youth unemployment a serious concern in our country in general and Lideta Sub-City in particular?

Interview with key informants and document analysis came up with the following lists:

- Youth makes up a significant proportion of the population in Ethiopia. However, Ethiopia has far too little resource to devote towards ensuring youth education, and job creation.
- For so long the young have been discriminated and were not able to share the resources of this country.
- Ethiopia seems to invest though limited resources on the youth. Nevertheless, this investment did not have significant effect as the youth were not in a position to support themselves, and the society.
- The youth being one of the scarce resources (considering the responsibilities may assume) that these countries are endowed with, failure to channel this resource properly may mean a further entrapment in the vicious circle of poverty and a bleak future in terms of economic development and growth.
- High level of youth unemployment and the sense of desperation it creates have been linked to social problems that threat investment in human capital that is likely to raise future earnings commensurate with higher levels of productivity that such investment brings.
- Young people in Ethiopia are more likely to be employed in jobs of low quality, are underemployed, (working long hours for low wages and are engaged in dangerous work accepting only short term and/or informal employment arrangements.
- In spite of the pressing youth employment challenge, youth issues were given only limited attention in the development policies of the country.

What is the nature of youth unemployment? / What determines youth unemployment in Ethiopia in general and Lideta Sub-City in particular? Results from interview, analysis of relevant documents, personal observations and findings of empirical studies came up with the following results.

1. Investment and industry:
Participants of the current research reported that there are limited number of industries (especially large-scale industries) which can accommodate increasing number of youth
population. For instance, we can mention the absence of large agricultural farms (either state owned or private). Participants bitterly expressed their feelings that many of the investors wrongly focused on gold mining, cement production, hotels and metals; they should have focused on large farms that could produce food items that could ensure the country’s food self-sufficiency. Furthermore, a minority of young men would like to start their own businesses but are constrained to do so. This indicates that credit constraints are among the causes of unemployment although further research is needed to establish this.

2. Individual characteristics: 
Psychologically, many youth wait for readymade jobs, lack saving skills and aspire to be employed in the public sector instead of employing themselves; few ask the employer directly (lack assertiveness) (Shimelis, 2010).

3. Socio-cultural factors: In this country, the youth have been victims of different psychologically discouraging sayings. An interview with key informant enlightens us the following Amharic proverbs:

These sayings have long lasting negative impacts on the youth. It makes them give up hope in everything they are doing, and encourages them to be more and more dependent on others and mere luck rather than their own talent.

4. Household background: Inadequate family income prevents a family from sending their children for education; mothers and fathers education and work can be taken as another contributing factor. Large family size where children are considered as assests or gifts of God can be a third factor in addition to lack of saving skills.

Moreover, document analysis of MOYS (2002) provides the following general statements behind youth unemployment: The country has been and still is backward it has been and still is in poverty; lack of attention from the previous and the current regimes; lack of initiation, motivation, and participation on the part of the youth; and benefiting from political decisions. Generally, the war with Eritrea, the 2001 drought, weather conditions, limited market accessibility, low availability of investment, capital, risk absorption capacity and financial management skills, the absence of the participation of the youth in decision-making and implementation of policies that affect them have all contributed negatively to youth unemployment. Economic poverty where families were not able to send their children to schools lack of adequate entrepreneur skills, negative peer influence that result in during abuse, time wastage, discouragement from friends on each positive attempt of friends on. Loose societal and youth relationship also contribute to youth unemployment directly or indirectly. Ethiopian society often considers the youth as “juvenile delinquents.” This prevents them from participating in different development activities and forces them to be highly involved in drug abuse (Shimelis, 2010). Lack of strong political communication
between the youth and the government, especially during the past years, and migration to urban cities could be mentioned as some of the major factors behind the drama of youth unemployment.

**What media do the youth often follow to look for a job?** friends, relatives, church, ethnic associations were reported to have been sources of information to look for a job. For instance, an international NGO, named World Vision will seeks employees who are only protestant in their religion. Government employment agencies advertisements on TV, radio, newspapers, internet, etc), and asking a prospective employer were reported to be other sources.

**Every day experience, personal observations and findings of studies reveal that the following are among the major sources of support to unemployed youth.**

Parental help is one. Households reduce their savings and consumption to cope with unemployment small occasional jobs; help from friends, spouse, own savings or loan from relatives are a few. In fact, here the collectivists’ culture of interdependence plays a significant role. Stealing even if it is immoral and illegal; begging though it is immoral; support from the government and NGOs however inadequate can be mentioned as alternative sources of income for the unemployed youth.

Document analysis from MOLSA (2010) indicated that the following are the major sources in the country that the youth could visit to get a job: the public sector, the private sector, wage employment, self-employment, casual work the and the informal private sector.

**How do you see the importance of life skills training in relation to the overall development of the youth and particularly to employment and unemployment related issues?**

"In Ethiopia, the public sector is expected to contract instead of expanding. Hence, young men should not overestimate their chances of getting a public job. Rather, they are strongly advised to create their own jobs and be self-employed. Life skills training benefits youth a lot in this regard. It enables them to be prudent in decision-making skills, critically evaluate the strengths and weakness of everyday choices of life. For example, if a certain lady has already decided to leave for the Middle East as a migrant worker, then through psychosocial skills training, she would get the chance to rethink over her earlier beliefs, attitudes, wishes, decisions and revise them appropriately to the extent of reconsidering not to leave her own country. Moreover, it would also enable her to take a calculated risk.”

An interview with another key informant could further substantiate the above finding:

"If we look at the most frequented media by the youth as sources of the job vacancy, as to me, we find social networks and consulting advertisements. It becomes clear then that the unemployed in this country focus too much on advertisements and social networks, but do little to approach the employer directly. This indicates that they do not have much assertive behavior. Therefore, the psychosocial skills trainings which emphasize on self esteem and confidence building of the youth would possibly enhance their being assertive and lessens their submissiveness or aggressiveness."

**Box 1: For what categories of youth do, such trainings are provided.**
Trainings are offered to the youth from different groups especially to those from different associations/clubs.
- youth associations, youth forums, youth leagues
- various clubs found in the Sub-City such as Nebabit and Fantastic
- four national organizations (Amhara, Tigray, Oromo, Debub, Gurage, youth centers.)
- youth federation
- youth on the Street

However, since every activity is given political meaning, priority is given for those youth who are politically affiliated groups or those who are in the lead.

Box 3: Last one year major achievements of the Sub-City

What are the major achievements in relation to youth development at Lideta sub-city?
Both document analysis and FGD participants came up with the following lists:
- Establishment of Youth and Sports Bureau that works around issues of youth
- Developed a program on youth development package
- Start up of micro and small enterprise
- Start up of urban agriculture
- Provision of various trainings such as entrepreneurship skills, life skills and vocational skills (textile, wood and metal work, construction industry, urban agriculture, poultry, sheep production, cabbage production, cobblestone, sera shed) project; youth development package

Questions raised/ Deficits/Gaps observed /incapacitating factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finance and administration related</th>
<th>Psychosocial and cultural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absence of space to produce various items.</td>
<td>Backward psychosocial and socio-cultural factors such as considering youth as ‘jebdegnoch’ or adventurers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of market connectedness to demonstrate and sale.</td>
<td>Irrational labeling of jobs as “bad” and “good”; bad jobs are associated with low social status.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of prompt service to get money from the small enterprises;</td>
<td>Current training related</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of funds to start their own business.</td>
<td>Trainings being not based on need assessment/ not in line with the interests of the youth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited youth centers.</td>
<td>Trainings are delivered in limited areas and are not expanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not expanding urban agriculture.</td>
<td>Absence of adequate follow-up and monitoring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of courage to report on something not done.</td>
<td>Mismatch between skills requirements and education/trainings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less attention to the youth who are not politically affiliated such as youth on the streets and from various clubs; threat for national integration.</td>
<td>Repetition of trainings, especially on youth development package.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corruption in selecting trainees for participation when there is per diem.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Currently working partners include among others:
NGOs: Beza Lewogen College, St. Mary’s University College and Ethiopian Women Development Fund.

Governmental: Lideta Sub-City’s TVET Micro and Small Enterprise; Tegbare Ed;

Recommended order of trainings:

A. First in the list life skills because the youth have to know about themselves, others and the environment. They have to know their strengths, weaknesses others strengths and weaknesses; the opportunities available, and challenges in the environment etc. Generally speaking it is crucial that they know how to deal with overall life problems and become successful in life.
B. Entrepreneurship skills should come second.
C. How to design a project follows and finally
D. Vocational trainings

What potential employment related opportunities are there for employment for current Ethiopian youth in general and the youth in Lideta Sub-City in particular?

The present youth are vulnerable to different risks and yet are simultaneously presented with some opportunities. In this regard, Shimelis (2010), and FGD discussants listed the following:

BOX 1: Some employment related opportunities for current youth

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Relative peace and democracy in this country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Relative economic development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Relative by better educational opportunity. It is unquestionable that the present youth are exposed to better educational opportunities, as opposed to the previous generation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Relative by better access to information. The increased services of telephone, electronic media, print-media, and others enabled the present youth to have better information knowledge about his /her locality, the country, and the whole world. This in one way or the other created golden opportunities for the youth to access information about jobs from different sources, announcements on different public and private media and news papers and enhanced self-employment and entrepreneurship skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The relative culture of interdependence. Like some African and other developing countries, Ethiopians are famous for this cultural manifestation. Therefore, the present youth can take this as main opportunity to get help. Many families live a collective and supportive kind of life. It is vivid that many sacrifice themselves for their brothers, sisters, relatives and pay to educate them delaying their own marriages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Inadequacy of educated people. Even if this could be considered as a problem for the country as a whole, yet it is a great opportunity for the youth. Clever and industrious youth in this country have a much better job opportunity than any other group of people as we have observed so far.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Promotion of self-employment. On a more optimistic note, the promotion of self-employment by the current government may have a far-reaching positive outcome. The accepted wisdom is that the development of new firms usually start with self-employment, and this may turn out to be particularly essential to capital-constrained developing economies such as Ethiopia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The relative increase in access to health services. Now days, the country’s health service has shown great improvement and it is possible to say that the youth is one beneficiary of this.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What possible risks are there for the current youth that could perhaps deter them from employment?
According to Shimelis (2010), at present the youth in Ethiopia are vulnerable to various risks of development. Some preliminary studies conducted in the area reveal that the types and magnitude of risks varies from person to person. We can see them as male and female youth challenges; rural and urban youth problems; the physically disabled youth and those who are not. Several factors are to blame for this sad state of affairs. For the purpose of the current research, let us see the common risks. Interview with key informants and document analysis came up with the following lists:

1. **Unemployment problem**: Especially those who have completed their secondary education but are unable to join higher education institutions are more vulnerable to unemployment. This problem heavily affects urban and female youth.

2. **Psychosocial and Socio-cultural Impacts**: History, everyday experience, and findings from different studies reveal that Ethiopian youth were vulnerable to several socio-cultural impacts. For instance, youth in Ethiopia have been misunderstood for so long as ‘Jebdegnoch’ or “adventurers.” Moreover, they were victims of the often unfair and pessimistic comparison between the past and the current generation, such as persons who cannot make a difference was made.
   
   A. **Harmful Traditional Practices**: Early marriage, abduction, rape, especially on women who live in the countryside. They were labelled as persons.
   
   B. Resolving problems with discussions is considered to be a feminine character. And big problem.
   
   C. **Rapidly growing population** Many families still consider children as assets or gifts of God/Allah both by educated and uneducated groups.
   
   D. Problems related to **parenting styles**. Till today, authoritarian, undemocratic, neglectful or indulgent parenting is common in Ethiopia.
   
   E. **Lack of proverbs or sayings on entrepreneurship**: There is lack of psychosocial care and support in relation to assertiveness, time management, prioritization as gratification of needs and self-actualization.
   
   F. **The bad tradition of “self censorship”/ ‘Yilugnta’** leads the youth to do things differently for the inspire of their beliefs. It forces the youth to accept peer pressure for granted. These bad traditional practices not only violate individual human rights but they also are the main signals behind the absence democratic values in the country.

3. **HIV/AIDS**: Many youth in one way or the other are vulnerable to it. Some of them are living with the virus. Some others, since they lost their parents because of the virus, were forced to lead street life. In other cases the youth are forced to become parents for their little sisters and brothers at a tender age.

4. **Weak economic performance**: A less than satisfactory performance in economic growth over the years, among others, could also be blamed for this situation.

5. **Environmental pollution**, Bad traditional attitudes and practices about personal hygiene, problems of defecation and disposal of wastes are common.

6. **Exposure to negative peer pressures**: of different nature such as addiction to different substances such as chat, cigarette, cannabis and involvement in criminal acts highly affect young people of this.

**CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**
Based on the findings of the current study, the following concluding remark was made.
The study concluded that though the government and other stakeholders have made encouraging progress towards curbing the problems of youth unemployment, significant improvement remain to be made.

**Based on the study results, the following recommendations were made:**

In addition to the available vocational trainings, and retraining, hare breeding, mushroom production, electricity, poultry were highlighted as ecologically valid sectors to expand the limited training options. An intervention of this sort, improves human capital and their competitiveness in the job market. Such intervention has, in practice, been observed to improve the lot of at least some of the youth in the developed world. Given the sheer size of the youth and the resource requirement in running such programs, the applicability of an intervention of this nature in the poorest of countries is highly doubtful however.

The educational system should produce matured, competent, qualified and job creating youth. In this regard the policy of rapid expansion in education and training opportunities, that is mostly supply driven and not in line with the skill needs of these economies, has to be checked. Expansion in education and training opportunities, over looking quality problems, is an achievement in its own merit as it increases general human capital and meets the basic rights of children and the young. Nonetheless, uncoordinated and supply driven expansion in education and training may amount to the creation of an army of dissatisfied youth in the end. The creation of an enabling environment, which aids the development of a vibrant private sector should also be an integral part of the fight against youth unemployment. Encouraging the private sector not only creates more employment but it would also ease the burden on the state whose role should be limited to the co-ordination of the skills requirements of the labour market (the private sector) and the development of such skills through education and training.

Other types of interventions that can be made include the encouragement of entrepreneurship and self-employment. In an environment where there is a weak private sector and where the capacity of the state in terms of creating employment is limited, entrepreneurship and self-employment should be viewed as alternative ways of employment creation. In this regard, the creation of schemes that provide potential youth entrepreneurs with vital labour market information and that desperately need finance (credit) might be worth considering.

One important missing factor in relation to the labour market of countries like Ethiopia is a system of labour market information that is vital to the state, the private sector, and the society at large. Given this, the establishment of a scheme that provides such crucial information would be important.

Integrating vulnerable groups (women and young people) who experience relatively greater difficulties in securing productive employment than adult men, need to be given attention so that they will be able to overcome the specific barriers they face (cultural attitudes, traditional division of labour, difficulties in the schools etc). Strengthening Technical, Vocational Education Training (TVET) and ensuring that it develops in line with market needs and targeting women, particularly in the informal sector, are two important priorities in this area.

The Ethiopian community in general and parents in particular are highly advised to refrain themselves from using discouraging proverbs and sayings and instead focus on the positive and encouraging, ones such as “I am different, so I can make a difference,! I can do it! etc.”
Employming and inculcating the above sayings could possibly increase the youth’s self-esteem and enhance his or her self-confidence thereby making them be self-reliant and actualize their potentialities.

It is highly suggested that the youth should understand their misunderstandings. They need to know the realities in their country, accept it and finally be ready for change and transformation. This means that the youth should stop labelling jobs as good and bad, and take what is available since the other comes later. Moreover, youth should be very wise to learn from the mistakes of their peers identify the risks surrounding them and at the same time cease the hidden golden opportunities and capitalize on them.

The task of fighting youth unemployment in Ethiopia is not an easy one. The government alone cannot carry out such a task. Hence, concerted effort from all the major actors is absolutely vital. The state should be at the forefront of the fight by creating an enabling environment and by carrying out the much-needed task of coordination. The private sector, NGOs, the donor community, and other important actors (parents, schools, colleges/universities, various sectoral ministers (MOLSA, MOYS, MOE etc.); local and international (IOL, IOM), NGO) should be there to complement such efforts.

Generally, issues of youth unemployment or underemployment demand heavy investment if we wish to pull out the country from extreme poverty and backwardness; to ensure sustainable development; expand democratization and social services; to secure peace, and bring tolerance; to realize the renaissance of this country.

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Glimpse of University Students’ Sexual Behaviors and Their Perception of Susceptibility of HIV/AIDS: the Case of University of Gondar

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Abstract
One of the devastating consequences of the pandemic HIV/AIDS is that it highly affects young people aged 15-24, and in Ethiopia most University students are in the aforementioned age range. On top of the age range while university campuses constitute a potentially fertile breeding ground for HIV/AIDS because they bring sexually active young people together (in close physical proximity they are also void of systematic supervision for these sexually active young people. Thus, dealing with this section of a society is an excellent strategy to slowdown the spread of the pandemic. In view of this, the main purpose of this research is to assess University students’ sexual behaviours and their perception of susceptibility of HIV/AIDS. In order to achieve this objective, institution based cross-sectional study with both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used. Samples of students for the study were selected using stratified sampling; where colleges/faculties were used as stratification factor. Questionnaire and focus group discussion were used to collect data from students. Interview was conducted with a University official. A total of 409 students were included in the study for which 242(59.2%) and 167 (40.8%) were males and females respectively. The result revealed that 236 (59%) of the students were sexually active, of these 37.28% were inconsistent condom users, 10.59% had sex for money and gift, 27.97% had two or more sexual partners and 5% had sexual intercourse with commercial sex workers. About 24.2% of those who had sex in the past perceived that they were at risk of acquiring HIV/AIDS. Variables such as being tested for HIV (AOR = 4.989, 95% CI = (2.970, 8.381)), risk susceptibility (AOR = 2.555, 95% CI = (1.385, 4.713)) and money and gift (AOR = 4.507 95% CI = (1.623, 12.518)) were found to be significantly associated with sexual behaviours of students. From the result it can be concluded that more than half of the students were sexually active. Students were experiencing unsafe sex. Means for money and gifts, risk susceptibility, and being tested for HIV were factors affecting sexual behaviours of students. Hence efforts should be done so as to expand health education, strengthening anti-HIV/AIDS clubs and VCT centers within the jurisdiction of universities to reverse risky sexual behaviours and illusion of invulnerability of students by concerned bodies such as governmental and non-governmental organizations that are working with the universities.

Key words: Sexual behaviours, Perception of susceptibility of HIV/AIDS

INTRODUCTION
Background
Never in the recorded history of mankind has there arisen such a widespread and fundamental bubonic plague to human development as HIV/AIDS. The pandemic, now at the beginning of its third decade, is one of the greatest challenges of human beings (Helen, 2002; World Bank, 2001).
HIV/AIDS has left virtually no country (rich or poor) untouched. Africa, however, has the highest incidence of HIV infection in the world. That is out of the total of 40 million people living with HIV, 95 percent is said to be residing in the developing world and among these 71 percent is found in sub-Saharan Africa. The rate at which the pandemic is spreading is also much higher in the region (UNAIDS, 2002 cited in Asefach, 2007). In sub-Saharan Africa, Ethiopia is one of the worst-hit countries by the epidemic (Haile, 2006; Eyob, 1999).

One of the devastating consequences of the pandemic is that it highly affects young people aged 15-24 (UNAIDS, 1998) and in Ethiopia most university students are in the aforementioned age range. On top of the age range, university campuses constitute a potentially fertile breeding ground for HIV/AIDS because they bring sexually active young people together (in close physical proximity), and they are void of systematic supervision for these sexually active young people (Sigot, 2001; Saint, 2004 cited in UOG, 2005).

So, efforts have to be made to prevent university students from the pandemic - HIV/AIDS. In light of this, the objective of this study is to investigate university students’ Sexual behavior and their perception of susceptibility of HIV/AIDS; there by designing pertinent strategies that are applicable to prevent university students from the pandemic.

LITERATURE REVIEW

HIV/AIDS in the world

Today, HIV/AIDS is one of the major causes of morbidity and mortality all over the world. A global overview of the pandemic stated that no country in the world remains unaffected. In the world today, a total of 40 million people are living with HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2002 cited in Asefach, 2007).

HIV/AIDS in Africa

Africa is the worst hit part of the world with the pandemic disease. The continent lost millions of its people particularly its youth. Besides, the number of people who are living with the virus is very large in the continent than rest part of the world. Sub-Saharan Africa in particular shares two-third (71%) of the infected population (WHO, 2004).

HIV/AIDS in Ethiopia

Ethiopia, being one of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa, is highly affected by HIV/AIDS. It is the third most affected country by the pandemic next to India and South Africa (UNAIDS 1998).

Students’ /Youth sexual behaviours and perception of susceptibility of HIV/AIDS

In terms of numerical strength the youth is the largest in history, nearly half of the population being less than 30 years old. They have not known a world without HIV/AIDS. Young people are at the center of the pandemic. An estimated 10 million young people aged 15-29 years are living with HIV/AIDS and more than 6000 contract the virus every day. The pandemic is affecting young people disproportionately. As it is the case in other nations, in Ethiopia a large proportion of new HIV infection, is occurring in the young people (Zebideru, 2005). Several characteristics such as risky sexual behaviours and perception of susceptibility of HIV/AIDS have been highlighted by researchers as reasons for the disproportionate
infection of youth with the pandemic. In relation to this Ostrow stated that the youth/young people are recognized to be at a high risk of contracting HIV/AIDS because of particularly strong sense of invulnerability (Ostrow, 1999). Similarly, O’leary (2002) has found that most sexually active youth do not like to use condom consistently. Congruent with the above fact, sexual intercourse with out condom, sexual intercourse with casual partners, having two or more sexual partners and sexual intercourse with CSWs were found to be high among young college and university students (Yesuf, 2007; Getnet, 2009).

In another research conducted in UK at Oxford University most students did not consider that they were at risk of becoming infected by the HIV and very few students appeared to be at risk as they reported (Murphy, 1993). Another finding also showed weak perception of risk acquisition among youth regarding HIV/AIDS (Zebideru, 2005). Moreover, high sexual engagements and high risk sexual activities were observed among college students than lower grade students (EDHS, 2005 as cited in Yesuf, 2007). Besides, studies made by researchers like Tegegn (2009), Molla, (2007), Semie, (2000) witnessed consistent fact with the above studies.

Socio-demographic factors and sexual behaviour

Sexual behaviour is a complex issue. Sexual behaviour and experience varies across various socio-demographic factors. Gender, age, religion and region/place of birth, are pertinent socio-demographic factors linked with sexual behaviours and experience of youth as identified by researchers. Tegegn (2009), for instance, found in Adama university, more male (68.2%) to performed sexual intercourse than female (31.8%). Conforming evidence was also reported by Etsub (2009). According to her study, in Addis Ababa University, male students were more likely to experience sexual intercourse than female students. On the contrary, according to CSA young females found to be much more likely to ever had sexual intercourse than young males (CSA, 2005 cited in Etsube, 2009). Youth from urban background are more likely to engage in sexual relations than youth from rural background (CSA, 2006). From previous studies the mean age at first sexual intercourse was 18 years (Zebideru, 2005; Yesuf, 2007). What is more, religion of a person also influences sexual behavior of a person. Penhollow et al (2005) stated that Religious conviction plays a major role in an individual's sexual behaviour.

OBJECTIVES

This study is designed to:

- Examine University students sexual experiences and risky sexual behaviours, if any
- Inspect difference, if any, in sexual relations and sexual experiences among university students before and after joining University.
- Specify students perception of susceptibility of HIV/AIDS
- Indicate if students were exposed to STIs
- Indicate if students were being tested for HIV
- Assess factors responsible, if any, for sexual relations/engagement among university students
- Depict the efforts made by the university to prevent students from HIV/AIDS.
• Point out pertinent strategies that are applicable to university student

METHODOLOGY
This part consists of sub-sections such as study area, study design, sampling technique, data sources, data analysis, and ethical consideration. Brief, description of each section is presented here under:

STUDY AREA
This study was conducted in all the campuses of the University of Gondar.

STUDY DESIGN
This study was cross-sectional in terms of time, applied in terms of purpose, descriptive in terms of design/strategies, survey in terms of research questions addressed by the research, qualitative as well as quantitative in terms of approach followed in this research and field in terms of setting of the research. In short cross-sectional, applied, descriptive, survey, qualitative as well as quantitative and field researches employed in this study.

Sampling techniques and sample seize
As we were conducting the research, there were a total of 10,399 students who were enrolled in at the University of Gondar as regular entrants. In terms of faculty 2802, 2788, 2221, 1886,534,368 students were at GCMS, FNS, FSSH, FME, Law, and FVM in sequence. From this population, we chose 400 students by using stratified random sampling technique. We used the faculty to which students belonged as strata and then we chose the actual proportionate number of respondents from each faculty randomly. We claim the selection is at random because we selected students available at the time of data collection. As the absence of other student is not related with this study topic at the time of data collection, these will both minimize selection bias and increase randomness. A university official was purposively included in the study for the triangulation of results. A group of 8 students also discussed the topic of their interest with the investigators as facilitators. Accordingly, a total of 409 participants were involved in the study.

Study variables
Sexual behaviours (whether students had ever had sex or not)
Perception of susceptibility (self expressed susceptibility of risk of getting HIV/AIDS)

Independent variable
Sex, age, age at first sex, place of birth, religion, faculty, academic year, money, tested for HIV/AIDS, knowledge on prevention strategies, students’ opinion on the potential factors of sexual engagement in university.

Operational definition
Sexual Behaviours: students’ engagement in sexual intercourse/relation or experience; be it safe or unsafe.
Perception of susceptibility of HIV/AIDS: An individuals assumption of vulnerability to HIV/AIDS infection according to one’s own understanding and awareness. An individual own risk perception to HIV/AIDS infection.

University Students: Regular entrants in the University of Gondar for attaining pursuing their education in diverse faculty/college.

Sexually transmitted disease: any self reported sexual infection.

DATA SOURCES/INSTRUMENTS

Questionnaire was used to collect data from student respondents. The questionnaire was designed in such a way that it could be understood by respondents unequivocally. This was done during the pre-test. The questionnaire had more of closed ended items, but sporadically open-ended items were included so as to enrich the data and give freedom for respondents to spell out what is in their mind. The questionnaire has a total of 20 items.

Apart from questionnaire, we had also used semi-structured interview as a tool of research in order to get data from the university official. What is more, we had still used FGDs, with guiding questions in this project. The content validity of the questionnaire and the interview items were checked by professionals in the area. The reliability of items, in the questionnaire, were checked through Kuder-Rechardson estimate of reliability. Additionally inter-raters estimate of reliability was also used to check the reliability of the questionnaire.

DATA ANALYSIS

In the end, the collected data were analyzed and interpreted both qualitatively and quantitatively. Descriptive statistics such as pie chart, and tables were employed to depict the data and summary measures as percentages were used. Thematic/content analysis method was used for the qualitative part of the study whereas an unadjusted and adjusted binary logistic regression analysis were used to assess factors associated with the sexual history of university students. Strength of association is assessed by odds ratio. Statistical stability of tests was checked with 95% confidence interval. Significance was declared at 5% significant level.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

In this research, at the outset, participants of the study were informed about the purpose of the research by the researcher. After that the decision was left to the participant to be a part of the research or not. In short, securing consent from respondents was the primary step in this research. Moreover, no coercive actions were used to get responses from the research participants. The dignity, personal identity and ideology of respondents were not violated at any phase of the research.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section presents results obtained from participants through the questionnaire, interview and FGDs. For the sake of better visualization results obtained through different instruments, and previous research findings are presented in integrated manner.
Socio-demographic characteristics of students

Table 1: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of University of Gondar Students from January to June 2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Count (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic year</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year one</td>
<td>47 (11.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year two and above</td>
<td>353 (88.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>237 (59.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>163 (40.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth place</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>247 (61.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>153 (38.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orthodox</td>
<td>310 (77.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>29 (7.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protestant</td>
<td>40 (10.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catholic</td>
<td>6 (1.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>10 (2.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5 (1.3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 1, it can be seen that 47 (11.8%) and 353 (88.2%) of the respondents were year one, year two and above respectively. In this table, it can be observed that 237 (59.2%) of the participants were male while 163 (40.8%) of the respondents were female. It can also be read that 247 (61.8%) and 153 (38.2%) of the respondents were from urban and rural areas, respectively. Besides, 310 (77.5%), 29 (7.3), 40 (10%), and 6 (1.5%) of the students had Orthodox, Islam, Protestant, Catholic religious affiliations in that order. Whereas 10 (2.5%) of the students were none religious and 5 (1.3%) of them were from religions other than the abovementioned.

Sexual history and risky sexual behaviours of students

Table 2 Sexual experiences and Risky Sexual Behaviours of University of Gondar Students from January to June, 2010.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Count (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sexual practice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>236 (59.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>164 (41.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inconsistent condom use</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>88 (37.28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>148 (62.72)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex for money and gift</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>25 (10.59)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>211 (89.41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having two or more sexual partner</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>66 (27.97)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>170 (72.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual intercourse with commercial sex workers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>224 (95)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results of the study in Table 2 showed that 236 (59%) of the study participants were sexually experienced when this survey was conducted. A study conducted by Girma (2008) also witnesses similar fact. According to his study about half of the study participants were sexually experienced. Inconsistent condom use 88 (37.28%), sex for money and other valued resource 25 (10.59%), having two or more sexual partner 66 (27.97%), and sexual intercourse with commercial sex workers 12 (5%) were risky sexual behaviors as reported by sexually active students of the present study as it can be seen from Table 2. In a similar vein, a study made at Adama University also showed about 44.5% multiple sexual partnership and 37.5% inconsistent condom use among sexually active students (Tegegn, 2009). In another study, 53.3% of the sexually active youth respondents reported they had two or more sexual partners. One third (35%) of the sexually active male youth had sexual contact with female commercial sex workers. Inconsistent use of condom was also reported by students of the study (Molla, 2007).

A study by Getnet (2009) also revealed corresponding result. According to the study, overall sexual practices of undergraduate students were characterized by unsafe sex (procrastinating HIV testing, promiscuity, and sex with CSWs without condom). According to the findings of this study and pervious researches findings, to some extent, it is possible to say sexual engagements of undergraduate regular students were characterized by unsafe/unprotected sex.

**Difference in sexual engagement among university students before and after joining university**

As it is indicated in Table 3, of the sexually active students 154 (65.25%) of the respondents reported that they had had their first sexual debut after they joined the University and 82 (34.74%) of the participants reported they had had sex before they joined the university. Corroborating evidence also found in a study made by Silesh. According to his study many students (68.4%) started sex while they are in campus (Silesh, 2009). Nearly 15% of sexually active students give peer pressure as a reason for sexual initiation in Silish’s study. Void of parental control and supervision, relative freedom in the university, peer pressure, personal desire/love, high level of social interaction, instigating parties’ advertisement by enterprises and night clubs, lack of regular control by proctors and feelings of loneliness were reasons for students’ sexual debut after they joined university as it is reported by students who experienced sexual intercourse at the university. This result is also inline with the findings of Sigot, (2001); Saint, (2004) cited in UoG, (2005). So the relative high degree of sexual intercourse/engagement in the University may be attributed to high level of personal freedom and the permissive lifestyle prevalent in the University as it is stated by scholars.

**Table 3** University of Gondar Students Sexual Debut before and after Joining University from January to June, 2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Count (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sexual debut before and after joining university</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>154(65.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>82(34.74)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Students perception of susceptibility of HIV/AIDS and exposition to STIs (Sexually Transmitted Infections)

From Table 4, one can notice that from the sexually active students, only 74(18.5%) of students perceived to be at risk of contracting HIV/AIDS infection. Similarly, a study done by Solomon (2009) showed low (9%) risk perception among regular students of University of Gondar. Another study conducted by Tegegn, 33% of the sexually active group felt at risk of getting HIV (Tegegn, 2009). Risk perception was also found to be low in this study. Perception of susceptibility to HIV infection was low and only 49.3% of the sexually active respondents felt that they could be at risk (Molla, 2007). Corroborating evidence also gathered from a study undertaken by Semie. Accordingly, from sexually active youth participants of this study, about 50.7% of the respondents reported they did not perceive themselves at risk of HIV despite unprotected sex and multiple sexual partnerships existence (Semie, 2000). The result from the FGDs was also in harmony with the result.

Table 4 Students Perception of Susceptibility of HIV/AIDS and Exposition to STIs, University of Gondar, January to June, 2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Count (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Feel at risk of HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>74 (18.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>326 (81.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposition to STIs</td>
<td>46 (19.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>190 (80.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, as it is depicted in Table 4, out of the sexually active participants, 46(19.5 %) reported they ever had sexually transmitted infections. Whereas 190 (80.5%) reported they never contracted sexually transmitted infections.

A recent study made at Hawasa University has revealed nearly similar level of STIs among students 4 (18.2%) (Selish, 2009). Related evidence also verified by Tegegn. Accordingly, Out of the sexually active group 46(24.8%) reported that they had encountered at least one of the STIs symptoms during their stay in the University (Tegegn, 2009). On the contrary, in a study conducted in Morocco 40% STIs record among young people was observed. Thus, the difference between the findings in this study and the findings in Morocco may be attributed to cultural and social norm differences. In the context of Ethiopia, sexual issues/problems/infections were/are taboo to be discussed and to be reported.

Test for HIV

As it is demonstrated in Figure 1, 129 (32.2%) of the participants reported to have been tested for HIV while the remaining 271 (67.8%) of the participants delayed testing for HIV or they never have HIV test. From this figure it can be seen that majority of the University students procrastinate HIV test. Another study done in the same University nearly showed parallel result (37%), Solomon (2009). A study by Getnet (2009) also depicted equivalent result, his participants also procrastinated HIV testing. HIV test rate was also low in other countries such as Tanzania (Kan, 2002). This low rate of HIV test in Ethiopia or in other countries may be attributed to the inaccessibility of the service or the infamy (especially when clients' are sero-positive) following the blood test.
Factors associated with sexual relations/engagement among university students

As it can be observed from Table 6, variables such as Being Tested for HIV/AIDS (AOR = 4.989, 95% CI = (2.970, 8.381)), Risk Perception (AOR = 2.555, 95% CI = (1.385, 4.713)) and Money and Gift (AOR = 4.507, 95% CI = (1.623, 12.518)) were found to be statistically significant.

Table 6 Adjusted Binary Logistic Regression Output of the Determinant Factors of the Sexual Behaviors of Students of University of Gondar, January to June, 2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Ever Had sex</th>
<th>COR (95% CI)</th>
<th>AOR 95% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orthodox</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>0.289 (0.095, 0.880)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.523 (0.136, 2.004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protestant</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.549 (0.152, 1.979)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tested for HIV/AIDS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4.676 (2.826, 7.735)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived risk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.523 (1.421, 4.481)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dressing style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>0.621 (0.398, 0.971)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money and gift</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.768 (1.411, 10.059)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The odds of having sexual intercourse were nearly 5 times higher among those students who had been tested for HIV/AIDS than those who had not. This may be attributed to strong sense of invulnerability for those sero-negative students or feelings of hopelessness for those sero-positive students.

The odds of having sexual intercourse were 2.6 times higher among students who perceived themselves at risk of getting HIV/AIDS than those who did not perceive. This may be because students who felt that they are at risk of getting HIV/AIDS would continue having sexual intercourse susceptible to the pandemic.

The odds of having sexual intercourse were 4.5 times higher among students who thought money and gift as factor for sexual engagement than those who did not thought it as a factor.
On the other hand, though the regression analysis doesn’t show significant association with some of the variables, peer pressure, lack of supervision, less stingy control and relative freedom in the campus, proliferation of technological outputs like mobile phone, phone pornographic films and video pornographic films, dressing style, alcohol consumption/use, money and other gifts, sexually appealing advertisements launched in the vicinity of the University for students to attain parties, and personal desire/love are factors mentioned by participants of the FGDs for sexual engagement. Furthermore, the group discussant cited that less risk perception among students as major factor for sexual engagement.

**Efforts made by the university to prevent students from HIV/AIDS**

The university has established anti-HIV/AIDS clubs in all the three campuses. Additionally the university provides VCT service in the university hospital. Moreover, the university organizes various anti-HIV/AIDS movement/events as it is reported by the official. The presence of the services was confirmed by some of the students of the University; while a few students mentioned that they knew little about the University efforts to prevent them from HIV/AIDS. As reported by the official condom distribution, training on RHPs including HIV/AIDS for proctors, inter-department sport festival, were also among the efforts made by the University to prevent students from HIV/AIDS. Finally, promotion activities on the way to cafeteria about HIV/AIDS and establishment and arrangement of various indoor games like chess were also stated as prevention efforts by the official.

**Pertinent strategies that are applicable to university students**

Banning, advertisements of parties in the University campus, incorporating HIV/AIDS into curricula, establishing and initiating voluntary counselling and testing center in each campus, involvement of students living with HIV/AIDS in the prevention effort, the voluntary strict/regular supervision of students at University, regular follow up of anti-HIV/AIDS clubs, social support for students being tested for HIV/AIDS regardless of the status of the VCT, orientation for students about university life and HIV/AIDS in the university, training on VCT, ‘acceptance of safe sex instead of considering it as taboo and pointing fingers towards couples’, life skill trainings, and setting some rules on dressing style were some of the strategies mentioned by University students and the official as a strategy to slowdown the rate of the pandemic in the university.

**CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

More than half of the students are already sexually active; many of them were indulged in risky sexual behaviours like unprotected sex, multiple sexual partnership, sex with Commercial Sex Workers, sex for money and other valued resources and inconsistent condom use; however a few respondents perceive themselves as being at risk of HIV acquisition.

So the researchers recommended that efforts ought to be extended by concerned bodies such as Governmental and Non Governmental Organizations that are working with the universities so as to expand Health Education, strengthening Anti-HIV/AIDS clubs and VCT centers within the jurisdiction of Universities to reverse risky sexual behaviors and illusion of invulnerability of HIV/AIDS of students through emphasizing on pertinent strategies that are applicable to them.
REFERENCES


Kan, M (2002). KAP study on voluntary counseling and testing In Burkinafso.


World Bank (200). HIV/AIDS

CLOSING REMARK

AtoTedla Haile,
Executive V/President
St. Mary’s University College

Distinguished Guests
Colleagues
Ladies and Gentlemen:

We are now to wrap up the day-long conference. Understandably, the remarks herein will not do justice to the totality of the discussions. But still some facts need to be noted. Truly, the event has provided an excellent opportunity for all of us to exchange ideas of sectoral and national interest.

Today’s papers have touched some of the issues that have taken center stage at the national higher education agenda. During the discussions, the comments given and the questions raised will surely drive institutions that are actively engaged in the sector toward further improvement. Issues of policy makers’ interest will, in one way or another, reach the ears of the right people for possible review and debates. While acknowledging the usefulness of the ideas that have transpired through the day, I venture to say that there will be twists and turns ahead, and choices to be made. Yet, the future, I hope, will be brighter than it was yesterday and today.

Ladies and Gentlemen:
Before closing, allow me to thank those involved in bringing today’s conference to its successful completion. Although very many people and offices have contributed their share, in the interest of time, I will mention the very few. With their note in mind, I thank the entire team of the Center for Educational Improvement and Quality Assurance, which exclusively handled sorting out the papers to be presented and inviting conference participants. Ato Maru Shete who joined the team lately as a research staff has made tremendous contribution in that respect.

I would also like to thank the paper presenters, Chairs, rapporteurs, the ICT unit Technical Staff, the Audio Visual Center, the Master of Ceremonies, Ato Fikadu Begna & W/zt Elise
Nalbandian, Thanks are due to Ato Baye Nigatu and Ato Mekdela Mekuria for liaising between St. Mary’s and the Conference Center, and the General Services office together with the motor pool staff for their untiring assistance. Ato Degarege Nekatibeb has given us great assistance in the entire process of organizing the conference. I thank him very much.

I thank the UN Conference Center team including the security staff for their unreserved assistance. The Sheraton Addis Banquet Staff too deserve our thanks for keeping us awake the whole day.

Finally, I extend my heartfelt gratitude to Ato Eyesuswork zafu, President of the Ethiopian Chamber of Commerce for accepting our invitation to make an opening speech and Prof. Luc Rukingama, UNESCO Country Director, for his Keynote speech.

I thank you all for devoting your time to the conference on the eve of a national holiday. Wishing you a Happy Meskel and repeating the age-old ritual I declare the conference closed.