PLANS, TARGETS, AND TRENDS IN ETHIOPIAN EDUCATION

by
Ole-Christian Bjerkan

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of the University of Maryland in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
1970

Cop 1

APPROVAL SHEET

Title of Thesis: Plans, Targets, and Trends in Ethiopian Education

Name of Candidate: Ole-Christian Bjerkan
Doctor of Philosophy, 1970

Thesis and Abstract Approved: James A. van Zwoll

James A. van Zwoll
Professor
Department of Education

Date Approved: 8-7-70

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer is particularly indebted to Dr. James A. van Zwoll, who's guidance and supervision were indispensable to the successful completion of this study. He is also grateful to the other members of the committee: to Dr. Richard L. Hopkins who gave many helpful suggestions in the planning and organizing of the study, and to Dr. James Dudley who's advice and encouragement has been greatly appreciated.

For her support and patience, the writer expresses his deep appreciation to his wife, Ingeborg.

Finally, the writer wishes to thank Mrs. Lola Demma for reading and typing the manuscript.

ABSTRACT

Title of Thesis: Plans, Targets, and Trends in Ethiopian Education

Ole-Christian Bjerkan, Doctor of Philosophy, 1970

Thesis directed by: Dr. James A. van Zwoll

Major: School Administration

Minor: Education and Related Fields

Pages in Thesis: 315 Words in Abstract: 505

The purpose of this study was to trace the progressive recognition of educational needs as expressed in targets and objectives in educational and development plans in Ethiopia from 1944 to 1968, and to discover the relationship between the needs and the actual attainment of the goals and targets. A study was also made of the contribution of the non-government schools to the fulfillment of present-day educational needs.

By reviewing the literature pertaining to the development of the educational system in Ethiopia, some of the forces which have and are influencing educational policies and plans were discussed.

An analysis of the educational and development plans revealed clues to the progressive identification of educational needs as expressed in the different plans. After crystallizing the educational needs as expressed in educational objectives and targets, an attempt was made to find to what extent these needs have been fulfilled.

The needs in Ethiopia were found to be similar to those in many of the African nations in spite of a different cultural background and political history of the country. The differences in problems were rather in degree than in kind.

The educational plans for Ethiopia have, with the exception of the Addis Ababa Plan of 1961, been made without any relation or comparison with other African nations. In most cases the targets and goals of the local plans were surpassed, but when related to educational "desired averages" for the African countries taking part in the Addis Ababa Conference, the educational development in Ethiopia proved to be seriously lagging.

Compared with the "desired averages" of the Addis Ababa Plan, of an age-group population enrollment of 100 per cent for the first level, 23 per cent for the second level and 2 per cent for the third level to be reached within

the year 1982, a projected enrollment in keeping with the historical trend for the last ten years in Ethiopia indicates that these targets would not be reached within the target date.

The financial support for education has been increased from 0.63 per cent of the GNP in 1956 to 1.9 per cent in 1967/68. The percentage of the National Budget allocated to education has been of an average of 10.8 per cent during the period 1952/53 to 1967/68. The financial support for education is still below the "desired averages" according to the Addis Ababa Plan.

The increase of enrollment in Ethiopian schools from 1952/53 to 1967/68 has not been matched with a corollary expansion of the school plant resulting in an over-crowding of classrooms.

The school system is still suffering from a high percentage of attrition and a low percentage of girls enrolled, in spite of the expressed needs for curbing the drop-out rate and increasing the percentage of girls enrolled. In most cases the trends of development are positive, but the rate of development is rather slow.

Almost 25 per cent of the total enrollment of students at the first level and about 40 per cent at the second level

are attending non-government schools, of which there are three types: the missions schools, the private schools, and the church schools. The non-government schools were found as an average to be smaller, have a lower student/teacher ratio, have a higher percentage of girls enrolled, and have a stronger vocational/technical training program than the government schools.

There are indications that non-government schools have a higher per student cost than government schools, and that a higher percentage of students from non-government schools who are sitting for the ESLCE after the twelfth grade are passing the examination than those from the government schools.

The educational planning and the trends within educational development in Ethiopia have been positive, although a more controlled and accelerated development seems to be necessary in order to meet the educational objectives and needs of the country.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

INTRODUCTION

Ethiopia, with her three thousand years of history, is one of the oldest nations in the world, but she is also one of the youngest in the sense that she still belongs to the "developing nations." Nowhere else within the Ethiopian culture is this paradox more evident than perhaps in the field of education, and within the African continent her situation can be said to be unique.

Without any interference from colonial powers, with the exception of five years of Italian occupation (1937-1941), she has had her complete freedom for thousands of years to develop her own culture and institutions. The Ethiopian church and monastic schools are by all reckoning among the oldest in the world, and yet the first public government school was opened in 1908 and the first Ministry of Education was organized in 1943.[1]

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[1]Atnafu Mekonnen, Ethiopia Today (Tokyo: Radiopress, 1960), p. 222.

Together with the rest of the African nations, Ethiopia has adopted short- and long-range development plans, including educational development. Among these plans was the one outlined at the Addis Ababa Conference in 1961. The prime goal set by the Conference was to raise the average school attendance for Africa as a whole to the following percentage of student-age-group population:

Year	First level	Second level	Third level
1967	60 per cent	12 per cent	0.3 per cent
1972	71 per cent	15 per cent	0.4 per cent
1982	100 per cent	23 per cent	2.0 per cent[2]

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study is addressed to (1) tracing the development of the recognized educational needs in Ethiopia; (2) providing needed background for present day educational objectives and targets; (3) discovering the relationship between attainment of present day objectives and selected organizational factors; and (4) discovering the contribution made by the different types of schools in achieving present day objectives.

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[2]Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Final Report (Paris: UNESCO/ED/181, 1961, p. 47.

PROCEDURES

The following procedures were used: (1) the historical method of research for a review of the literature pertaining to the development of the educational system in Ethiopia and for the discovery of clues to the progressive identification of educational needs expressed in development plans; and (2) the descriptive method of research by correlating economic and program factors with selected organizational factors.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was: (1) to trace the progressive recognition of educational needs in Ethiopia as expressed through objectives and targets in the development plans adopted by the Ethiopian government; (2) to relate the present status and trends in educational development to the expressed educational needs; (3) to investigate the quantitative contribution by the respective types of schools to the current status of education in Ethiopia; and (4) to make recommendations related to the fulfillment of the needs.

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The Ethiopian government has invested and is still investing large sums of money in education, and peoples'

expectations as to the outcome and practical application of education toward reaching higher levels of social and economic development are still increasing. It is therefore of importance to check the trends and directions of the development in order to discover possible lags or dysfunctions in achieving the educational goals. A search of the pertinent literature reveals no evidence that such an evaluation was ever made. This may therefore be the time to review and rethink plans, methods and procedures to see if there is a need to accelerate the progress if time goals are to be attained. The importance of educational efficiency is stressed by many educators and economists as well as politicians. Harbison[3] and Meheu[4] both stress the importance for the developing countries to seek maximum return for the educational dollar, and this can only be accomplished to the extent that educational data are compiled in order to check the trends of output as well as input.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was limited in several ways. First, it was

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[3]Frederick H. Harbison, "The Strategy of Human Resource Development in Modernized Society," Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education (Paris: OECD, 1962), 168

[4]Rene Meheu, "330 Million Brains for a New Area," Curier (July-August, 1963), 68.

concerned only with the quantitative aspect of the problem, that is, the number of students, schools, classrooms and teachers as well as per-student cost. Only in a few cases has the problem of quantity versus quality been discussed. Second, the scarcity of data obtainable within some areas made it necessary at times to make approximations. This was especially true in connection with the discussion of the percentage of girls enrolled in the Ethiopian school system. Third, the data considered were from the final period, beginning with the time when data seemed to be reasonably reliable or when the goals where set.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Some of the terms used in the study are restricted in their meaning, while others may be peculiar to the Ethiopian culture. To clarify the meanings given to them, the following definitions ought to be applied.

Ethiopian Calendar (E.C.). Ethiopia operates on an Ethiopian Calendar in variance with the Gregorian Calendar; thus seven years must be added to the Ethiopian Calendar to reach the equivalent year in the Gregorian Calendar.

Types of schools. This refers to the schools operated by different organizations, private individuals or the

government, respectively referred to as indicated below.[5]

Government schools. Schools operated mainly by the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, but this category includes schools operated by other official ministries, which may give some kind of education or training, including pre- and inservice training. Haile Selassie I University (HSIU) is also included.

Community schools. Schools established through community initiative and operated by means of government assistance in the form of staff, building, or land. The purpose of these schools was to implement the Proclamation of Basic and Adult Education and to promote community participation in the National Education Program.

Church schools. Schools established, operated, and maintained by the Ethiopian Orthodox Church. The data on church schools in the tables of this study includes only those schools that follow the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts curriculum.

Private schools. Schools operated by some private person, institution, foreign government or religious organization

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[5] Imperial Ethiopian Government, School Census for Ethiopia, Part I (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1960 (E.C.)).

with or without assistance from the Ethiopian government. The assistance may be in the form of land, building, or staff.

Mission schools. Schools operated by Christian Missions or denominations with or without assistance from the Ethiopian government. The assistance may be in the form of land, building, or staff.

Developing countries. As used in this study, the term designates those countries which are in some stage of transition from a traditional to a modern society. In this respect developing would cover social, political, and economic factors.

Traditional education. The process transmitting knowledge, information, opinion, beliefs, customs, and institutions through successive generations without written instructions.

Modern education. A form of education produced by or embodying the most recent technique, methods or ideas.

Topical approach to educational planning. This signifies an approach to educational planning which rejects the totality of the overall social process and focuses on education as an isolated problem.

ESLCE. This is an abbreviation for Ethiopian School Leaving Certificate Examination, the title of the diploma

awarded to students who have passed the twelfth grade examination.

Adjusted age-group population. The age-group population is the total number of students within the age-group. The age-groupings which are applied in this study are those used in the UNESCO statistics:

First level of education, age-group 5-14 years.

Second level of education, age-group 15-19 years.

Third level of education, age-group 20-24 years.

The adjusted age-group is the total number of students left when the range of the age-group is adjusted according to the number of years the different levels of education comprise in a country's educational system.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

REVIEW OF HISTORICALLY RELATED LITERATURE

Most studies on the development of education in Africa begin with the arrival of the missionaries and/or of the colonial civil powers. Sometimes an acknowledgement is made of some forms of education that existed in African societies before the arrival of foreign educators, but, for the most, as a matter of au passan as the case of the Poro in Nigeria.[1]

According to Scanlon, the history of education in African countries can be divided into four periods.[2]

1. The Period of Indigenous African Education, which was the period in which the coming-of-age ceremonies or the rites des passage, provided the principal education of the child.

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[1]David G. Scanlon, "The Bush School," Phi Delta Kappan, XLI (January, 1960), 149.

[2]David G. Scanlon, Traditions of African Education (New York: Columbia University Press, 1964).

2. The Early Missionary Period, which was the origin of Western education in Africa through the propagation of Christianity.
3. The Period Between World War I and World War II was a period of reviewing, evaluating and rewriting educational philosophies and objectives, and a period when the metropolitan powers became more interested in having a controlling influence upon educational development.
4. The Post-War II Period was a time when the dawn of African independence became apparent to some of the metropolitan governments, and this again influenced educational policies by stressing the importance of higher education in order to train an elite that would be able to take over governmental responsibilities. This was done with quite different results and success, as can be seen in the recent history of earlier British, French and Belgian colonies.

The colonial designs of Africa's educational structures were conceived in the educational offices of Paris, London and Brussels, refined by dozens of local governors, and executed by thousands of local educators. The educational product of this process was something new and different,

a system essentially, but not purely, European in character.[3] It became, not only the system destined to educate most of the present generation of Africa's leaders, but also to be the base for Africa's educational development in the future.

In many respects Ethiopia has quite a different educational background from what has been outlined here. Her educational and social development differ so considerably from the general African setting that many Africanists hesitate to include Ethiopia in their studies. Hailey[4] does not include Ethiopia in his classical African survey, Kimble[5] has only a few pages on Ethiopia in his two volume study on tropical Africa. However, Ruth Sloan[6] does give a place to Ethiopia in her study of the educational systems in Africa and presents a short summary of the present status of education in Ethiopia and of some of its problems.

What makes Ethiopia different from the rest of Africa

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[3]P. C. Onwachi, "African Traditional Culture and Western Education," Journal of Negro Education, No. 35 (1966), 290-91.

[4]Lord Hailey, An African Survey (revised edition; London: Oxford University Press, 1957).

[5]George H. Kimble, Tropical Africa, II (New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1960), pp. 126-30.

[6]Ruth Sloan and Helen Kitchen Associates, The Educated African (New York: F. Praeger, 1962), pp. 114-27.

is, according to Greenfield,[7] basically her Christian history and sixteen centuries of the cultural and civilizing influence of Christianity. Christianity entered Ethiopia about A.D. 340 when Frumentius came to the court of Axum and converted the Axum monarch and his followers, among whom a rich Semitic culture had flourished since the first century A.D.[8] This Semitic civilization was in contact with Egypt, Athens and Rome, and was very much influenced by them. Greek was spoken at the court of Axum and there developed from these roots a Semitic-Christian-African culture.

Out of this culture developed the first Ethiopian school system within the Ethiopian Orthodox Church, which existed centuries before the coming of the modern missionaries.

A recent and quite comprehensive description of education in Ethiopia is given by Thomas Jesse Jones, who, sponsored by the Phelps-Stokes Foundation, visited the country in 1923.[9] This report points out that the only government

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[7]Richard Greenfield, Ethiopia: A New Political History (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1968), pp. 24-25.

[8]Albert Kammerer, La Mer Rouge, l'Abyssine et l'Arabi depuis l'Antiquite (Le Caire: Societe royal de geographic d'Egypte, 1929).

[9]Thomas Jesse Jones, Education in East Africa. A Study by the African Education Commission under the Auspicies of the Phelps-Stokes Fund and Foreign Mission Society of North America and Europe (New York: Phelps-Stokes Fund, 1924).

school existing at that time was founded by Menelik II in 1907, with an enrollment of 160 students and a program like the one followed by the Egyptian government schools:

> In spite of the fact that there are no fees, the attendance is reported by Abyssinian authorities themselves as being "the worst in the world." In comparison with the educational needs of the millions of people in Abyssinia this summary of government provision and interest in education reflects the utter inadequacy of present arrangement for schools throughout the great Empire.
>
> Protestants and Roman Catholics maintain schools, but as yet they are very largely confined to Addis Ababa and a few other centers. No greater need for educational help exists anywhere in Africa.[10]

The question why the Ethiopian church and monastic schools did not develop into institutions of secondary and higher learning as was the case with the church related schools during the Middle Ages in Europe is asked by many Ethiopian educators and historians, but the answers in the form of literature and actual research are rather meager. A study by Mulugeta Wodajo can be summarized in the following points.[11]

1. The Emperors were almost completely subjugated by the church which yearned for contact with Palestine and was

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[10] Ibid., pp. 326-27.

[11] Mulugeta Wodajo, "Ethiopia: Pressing Problems and the Role of Education in their Resolution," The Journal of Negro Education, XXXI (Summer, 1961), 234-35.

not interested in local affairs.

2. The country was unstable with numerous civil wars and a shifting of dynasties.

3. The constant moving of the capital southward added to the isolation of the country.

4. None of the monastic schools of Ethiopia attempted to satisfy the intellectual curiosity of their students.

5. The main task of the church schools was to prepare youth for the service of the church.

6. The system of patronage was very unfavorable since the church schools, unlike those of Europe, had no substantial help from the nobility, and the church was their only patron.

Most of the literature within the field of Ethiopian education is historic, descriptive or problem provoking, containing advice and plans about what should have been done and ought to be done, but there is very little in the way of research and studies which might provide a basis for new plans of development.[12]

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[12]E. Jeanen, "Education in Ethiopia," Social Studies, XLVIII (November, 1957), 246-47.

ETHIOPIAN STUDIES

In the United States there are only four recorded doctoral dissertations written in connection with Ethiopian studies. Three of them are in the field of education and one is in the field of geography.[13] One of the dissertations in the field of education deals with the development of higher education in Ethiopia, the other one concentrates on the role of agricultural education in the development of agriculture in Ethiopia, while the third one is a study of dropouts in Addis Ababa elementary schools.

All three of these dissertations suffer from the lack of a population census with age-groupings for making relevant comparisons as well as meaningful projections. Because of the deficiency of population statistics and related information, many of UNESCO's annual reports and statistics for Ethiopia up to recent years have been left open. Growth

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[13]Eduard Trudeau, "Higher Education in Ethiopia" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1962); Dean A. Elliott, "A Role of Agricultural Education in the Development of Agriculture in Ethiopia" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Iowa State University, 1957); Fiammetta Prota Kaypaghian, "A Study of Elementary School Dropouts and Nondropouts in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1960).

and development can take place without proper plans, but according to Evans[14] the directions and the outcome may not be the desired ones. Evans also points out that in nearly all developing countries where educational planning has assumed particular importance the educational and census data are initially sketchy or even completely absent.[15] Statistics from Ethiopia have not been accessible in the International Yearbook which records national education reports from ninety-five countries, prior to 1966. Referring to the time prior to the Addis Ababa Plan of 1961 as well as the goals set at that time, Wodajo's statement seems to be typical for a situation where one does not have enough facts or reliable sources. The following statement provokes many questions, but provides only generalizations.

> At any rate, there is no doubt at all that school enrollment has been increasing constantly. However, the country has a long way to go before the stated goal of universal compulsory education is achieved. As a matter of fact, this would be impossible at the present annual rate of increase.[16]

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[14] David R. Evans, "The Use of Graphical Analysis in Educational Planning," Comparative Education Review, XII, No. 3 (June, 1968), 139.

[15] Ibid.

[16] Wodajo, op. cit., p. 238.

Out of such a statement picturing the total situation in educational planning for Ethiopia the following questions will emerge: What has been the increased rate of enrollment? How long is the way for Ethiopia to go in order to accomplish universal compulsory education? If the present rate of development is insufficient, what can be done or ought to be done to accelerate the growth? A recent study by the International Bureau of Education shows that these are some of the questions most of the developing countries ask when they undertake educational planning.[17] According to the same source, nearly every country in the world is undertaking educational planning of some kind and nearly half of them are attempting to produce long-range plans for future expansions.[18]

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

An investigation by Cowen[19] to answer the question as to why countries engage in educational planning indicates that the most basic reason for all educational planning is poverty.

This leads to the conclusion that educational planning

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[17] International Bureau of Education, Educational Planning (Geneva: I.B.E., 1962), p. v.

[18] Ibid.

[19] Robert C. Cowen, "The Prosperity Gap is Widening," Christian Science Monitor (April 10, 1967), 9.

for efficiency is even more needed in the developing countries than in the more prosperous ones. According to Edding[20] the educational expenditure will probably take a rising share of the national income in most countries, and therefore a more vocal demand for efficiency in educational expenditures will be heard from different sources.

Referring to the situation in most African countries, Vaizey states:

> It is the financial cost which is far and wide the greatest obstacle to educational growth in the underdeveloped countries. . . . Hence the great importance of measures designed to avoid waste and to raise the "productivity" of the educational system.[21]

Analyzing the African needs as outlined in UNESCO's Final Report, the financial costs seem to be the main problem as they are outlined here in nine points.[22]

1. Financial needs. The financing of necessary educational expansion in respect to both quality and quantity cannot be accomplished by the African states at their current levels of economic development.

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[20] F. Edding, Methods of Analyzing Educational Outlay (Paris: UNESCO, 1966), p. 118.

[21] John Vaizey, The Economics of Education (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1962), p. 65.

[22] Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa. Final Report (Paris: UNESCO/ED/181, 1961), pp. 5-7.

2. Material needs. The further expansion of educational programs makes imperative the rapid construction of a vast number of classrooms to serve the purpose of education.

3. Teachers. The number of trained teachers needed by the African States to staff present schools plus those needed for expanded programs is staggering.

4. Need for new curriculum direction. To meet the demands of changing patterns of African social and economic life, new directions in educational programs are needed.

5. Education of girls. African States cannot afford to neglect the development of the wide range of potentially useful services the female segment of the population possesses.

6. Higher education. As the higher education facilities are woefully inadequate to produce the required manpower, a massive expansion at this level must be undertaken.

7. Adult education. A literate population is essential to the economic development of emerging states, and the fostering of literacy and the means of maintaining literacy is one of the most important concerns of the educational enterprise.

8. Reform of teaching materials. The basic and supplementary

materials for study should be born of African conditions and interests, and there is a persistent need for a reform of the present teaching material at all levels.

9. Planning. Educational expansion should be carefully planned both in relation to the needs, level of social and economic development of the country and the goals it wishes to attain.

Due to the vastness of needs and realizing the financial limitations of a developing nation, Benson states:

> Government officials in poor countries would be heartless not to seek a national ordering of priorities in that part of the economic life most closely under their control, namely, the public sector, and generally speaking, education is in the public sector. Thus, government ministries seek to reduce expenditures insofar as it is politically possible, on school services that are duplicative, unproductive, or, in general wasteful of resources, while strengthening those parts that are efficient in supplying work-skills needed for the uphill climb of the country.[23]

The urge for a maximum return of the educational dollar is not the only reason why governments are engaged in educational planning. Cowen[24] pointed out the time factor and its importance in educational planning. The period of production of trained manpower is long, and the planning seeks

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[23]Charles S. Benson, The Economics of Public Education (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968), p. 66.

[24]Cowen, op. cit., p. 9.

to regulate the size of the various occupational programs, roughly in accord with the projected manpower needs. In Beeby's opinion the planner, whether he forcasts the supply of educated manpower or the school enrollment and consequent costs over a long planning period, he must either accept the present slow rate of flow through the schools as the basis for his forecast or arbitrarily choose a different base.[25] For lack of any firm alternative, some manpower specialists will fix on the existing rate, though few will perhaps be as fatalistic about the problem as Vaizey might appear to be when he says:

> There are relations almost mathematically determined between one level of education and another. For example, of every hundred children who go into a primary school, it is possible to predict, with more or less accuracy, how many graduates will emerge. Therefore, if you want X graduates, you will be able to argue back to the level of primary school places.[26]

The alternative open to the planner is the assumption that within the planning period the rate of the flow through the schools will improve by a certain percentage. This was the line adopted by UNESCO in working out a plan for the

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[25]Clarence E. Beeby, The Quality of Education in Developing Countries (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1966), p. 20.

[26]John Vaizey, The Role of Education in Economic Development in OECD Mediterranian Regional Project (Paris: [n.n.], 1963), p. 7.

financial implication of the Addis Ababa Plan which, after stating the fact that only 40 per cent of the entrants ever completed the primary schools in Tropical Africa, went on to say:

> It is assumed that intensive efforts will be made and that this wastage will be greatly reduced. It is thus anticipated that out of every 100 children who enter the primary school, 80 children will finally complete the primary course.[27]

In UNESCO's Final Report[28] a guideline for planning education in developing countries is given in the form of recommendations under the following headings. (For details see Appendix A).

1. Critical problems of educational planning.
2. The steps in the planning process.
3. Machinery required for planning.

Dealing with the relationship between the different stages in the planning process, the Conference has developed a guide for educators in developing countries involved in educational planning. In spite of the many critical problems

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[27] Current Educational Budgeting in Relation to the Goals of the Addis Ababa Plan (Paris: UNESCO/ED/MIN/IV, March, 1962), p. 3.

[28] Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Final Report (Paris: UNESCO, 1961), p. 21.

of educational planning to which the Addis Ababa Conference gave attention in its recommendations, the question of sheer quantity became the main issue discussed in the sessions. The question about quality came to play a minor role in the discussions during the first decade after the plan was established. The problem of quantity contra quality of education in developing countries is probably best expressed in the UNESCO report from Tokyo in 1962 in which the Asian Ministers of Education, after making a brief reference to some of the things that might be done to improve quality, stated:

> But here we are faced with a dilemma. We are forced to choose between rapid quantitative expansion embodied in the Karachi Plan and required by the right of all to an education, and restricting that right, in order to maintain and increase the quality of our educational system, which in itself is a costly undertaking.
>
> Faced with this unhappy choice, we fear that there may be a danger of some dilutions of standards in the short run and at the first level of education. We fervently hope we can avoid this danger.[29]

The reason then for the partial despair with which educators in developing countries are facing the future is not only because of the enormous number of people involved (during the Addis Ababa Conference in 1961 it was made clear that there were more than 100 million people within the

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[29] Report of Meeting of Ministers of Education of Asian Member States (Paris: UNESCO/ED/192, 1962), p. 7.

continent unable to read and write[30]), but there was also a growing concern about quality. H. M. Phillips, Director of the Economic Analysis Office of UNESCO states that:

> The quantitative expansion of education has to be seen in the light of problems of quality and the general efficiency of the educational system in order to assess trends and targets.[31]

A quantitative growth in itself does not necessarily mean development according to the definition given in the United Nations Proposal for the Development Decade, where development is defined as growth plus change; change in turn is social and cultural as well as economic, and qualitative as well as quantitative.[32]

The reason why the qualitative aspect of educational planning so often is forgotten or overlooked in developing countries is, according to Phillips, due to the revolution of rising expectations produced by the rapid expansion in the late colonial days and the early fifties, together with the obtaining of political independence in many countries.[33]

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[30] Final Report, op. cit., p. 7.

[31] H. M. Phillips, "Trends in Educational Expansion in Developing Countries," World Yearbook of Education, 1967 (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967), p. 383.

[32] Ibid.

[33] Ibid., p. 382.

This revolution of expectations has accentuated the demand for education so that a cumulative process of educational expansion has been launched and is still in full motion. The expansion of education during the 1950's is considered by some African scholars less the result of educational planning than of a spontaneous political and economic demand. Wallenstein argues that formal education has in African countries become regarded almost as a "modern ju-ju," the possession of which confers almost certain success upon its possessor.[34] This naive and uncritical belief in the power of education per se has been inherited from the colonial period, when formal education was probably one of the most clear-cut manifestations of European power and for persons who were able to obtain it there were tangible advantages in terms of individual wealth and prestige. This viewpoint resulted in a public pressure upon the government to increase their efforts to make the educational benefits available to the people.

Foster is of the opinion that the political purpose, by using enrollment figures and high literacy rates as being one of the primary indices of modern and developed nations,

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[34] W. Wallenstein, The Emergence of Two West-African Nations (New York: Columbia University Press, 1959), p. 136.

has played an important role in promulgating public education.[35]

The possession of universal literacy has, according to Foster, become a status symbol that enables the developing nations to perceive themselves as the equals of the older nations and no longer as backward and underdeveloped areas. Education perceived as a status symbol then resulted in an acceleration of educational activities and rising enrollment, but without the structural and functional planning which developed during the 1960's. Lewis reflects upon the fact that curriculum changes in African countries have received little attention in spite of lots of talking about Africanization of the curriculum.[36] The focus of interest and energy has been concentrated on quantity more than quality. Clignet observes:

> What is surprising is how little the new states have moved away from metropolitan models. To be sure, there has been a great deal of talking about Africanization, but very little real attempts have been made to transform the curricula of the educational structure. This itself reflects the ambivalence of African educators today towards the former metropole. They stress the

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[35] Phillip Foster, Education and Social Changes in Ghana (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965), p. 183.

[36] J. L. Lewis, Education and Political Independence in Africa (Edinburgh: Thomas Nelson and Son, 1962), p. 11

uniqueness of African culture and heritage, while formulating their policies for development in essentially Western terms.[37]

A serious consequence of a massive increase in outflow from primary schools, and in some countries including the middle schools, has been a growth in unemployment among primary and middle school leavers. According to Lewis, this has become a crucial problem for governments not only because of its fear of a rapid rise in the rate of juvenile delinquency in the towns, but also because the presence of large numbers of unemployed youth is not without political implications.[38] It was the total situation in the field of education in the continent of Africa that made a pan-African conference for analyzing the present and planning the future not only desirable but a matter of urgency.

This urgency does not mean that there had been no educational plans made during the 1940's and 1950's, but rather that those plans were in most cases pressurized by

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[37]Remi P. Clignet, "French and British Colonial Educational Systems," Comparative Education Review, VIII (October, 1964), 192.

[38]The concern with juvenile delinquency is not confined to one country. See: Susan Elkan, "Primary School Leavers in Uganda," Comparative Education Review, IV, No. 2 (October, 1960); and Centre International De L'Enfance, Etude des conditions de vie de l'enfant Africain en milieu urbain et de leur influence sur la deliquance juvenile (Paris: Centre International de l'Enfance, 1959).

the political situation, and that they applied the topical approach instead of the overall viewpoint. As the colonial powers began to see the dawn of the independence of their African territories, major policies and plans for African education were issued by England, France, and Belgium respectively.[39]

The lack of direction behind some of the dynamic movements within the field of education in Africa was realized by African leaders themselves; thus in 1961, educators and economists from thirty-one independent African States came together in Addis Ababa to discuss and analyze the educational needs of their countries and the development of communication between countries in order to approach the educational problems in a wider perspective than had been the case up to then.

According to Phillips, the qualitative objectives are difficult to evaluate statistically, but there are

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[39]Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies, Memorandum on the Education of African Communities (London: His Majesty's Stationary Office, 1935); Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies, Mass Education in African Societies, 1944; Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies, Education in British Tropical Africa, 1925; Conference Africaine Francaise, Brazzaville (Paris: Ministeres des Colonies, 1945); A Ten Year Plan for Economic and Social Development of the Congo (Brussel: Minister of the Colonies, 1948).

observable trends in the adoption of changes in curricula, in administrative reforms involving the setting up of planning organizations, the establishing of educational plans, and in the raising of the school-leaving age.[40] A warning by Russel in connection with educational planning and setting of targets ought to be stated at this point:

> The range of errors of the estimates made has to be taken into account. Generally speaking, the educational planner is likely to find that estimates of future product given to him by economic planners are too optimistic. Agricultural production is the dominant activity in most developing countries, and it is very difficult to obtain a rise in output of this sector equal even to 3 percent per annum.[41]

LITERATURE RELATED TO ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING EDUCATION

Education is interdependent with economic development to such an extent that it is difficult to separate for analyses those economic factors which affect education. Education supports economic development by providing the necessary human resources. Economic factors themselves are so interrelated that it is difficult to assess their influence

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[40]Phillips, op. cit., p. 383.

[41]David C. Russell, Planning Human Resource Development (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1966), p. 288.

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one at a time, but according to Lewis the following are some main economic factors which affect education.[42]

1. The economic development as indicated by per capita income.
2. Economic inequality within the country as seen by the distribution of wealth.
3. The operation of the "demonstration effect" which tends to absorb income increments by raising the standard of living.
4. Cost of education as it is affected by (a) salaries of teachers, (b) quality and quantity of education, and (c) educational waste.

The financial ability of a nation to support an educational system is directly related to its level of economic development. Cramer and Browne state the problem in the following way:

> Only a limited portion of any nation's total income can be expended on social and educational services, and poor countries find it difficult to support advanced school systems.[43]

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[42] W. A. Lewis, Economic Problems of Development in Restless Nations (New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1962), p. 254.

[43] John Francis Cramer and George S. Browne, Contemporary Education (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1956), p. 8.

There is evidence which indicates that there is a relationship between economic development as it is measured by per capita gross national product and the extent to which education has developed. The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs in its Report on World's Social Situation, discovered a correlation of 0.84 between per capita national income and the school enrollment ratio.[44] The school enrollment ratio was measured by enrollment in the primary and secondary school as a percentage of four-fifths of the five to nineteen age group.[45]

Svennilson, Edding, and Elvin completed a study for the Organization for Economic Development in which they compared enrollment ratios at the primary, secondary and higher educational levels with the per capita gross national product for twenty-two countries.[46] One conclusion of the study indicated that there is a relationship between per

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[44]Norton Ginsburg, Atlas of Economic Development (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961), p. 18.

[45]Report on the World Social Situation (Paris: UNESCO, 1962), Chapter 3.

[46]Per capita national income is essentially the same as gross national product per capita. Both indices involve assumptions and estimates which are subject to a wide margin of error when used to make international comparisons. See Sam Rosen, National Income (New York: Holt, Reinart and Winston, Inc., 1963), pp. 65-81.

capita gross national product and national ability to finance education.

> Generally speaking the income level as expressed by GNP per capita seems to set the lower limit of educational effort. But above that limit there is a wide margin of choice, whether it be determined by private consumer preferences or by political decision to invest heavily in education in order to accelerate economic development.[47]

Harbison and Myers have made an extensive study of the relationship between human resources and economic development in seventy-five countries.[48] As indicators of economic development, these writers used the per capita gross national product and the percentage of active population engaged in agriculture. As indicators of human resources development they used among other items school enrollment ratios at primary, secondary, and higher education levels. One of the conclusions they drew from the study was:

> There is a high correlation and presumably some causal relation between enrollments in education and a country's level of economic development as expressed by GNP per capita. It is clear that this correlation is higher in

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[47] Ingvar Svennilson, Frederick Edding, and Lionel Elvin, Targets for Education in Europe in 1970, Vol. II. Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education (Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1962), p. 73.

[48] Frederick H. Harbison and Charles A. Myers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1964), pp. 25-48.

> the case of second- and third-level (secondary and higher) enrollments than in first-level (primary) enrollment.[49]

An analysis by M. S. Adiseshiah, Assistant Director-General of UNESCO, of the per capita national incomes and the percentage of national income spent on education for various areas of the world for the year 1950 and 1958 concluded that there is a causal relationship between investment in education, level of national income, and the level of living of a people.[50] To the educator interested in financing educational development it can mean that national income represents a ceiling of financial means available to expand the educational system, excluding the possibility of international aid. Tinbergen describes the problem as follows:

> The third (example of a vicious circle) refers to the interdependence of income and education. Low income does not permit extensive educational facilities, and with inadequate education, skill and productivity will tend to remain low.[51]

Therefore when analyzing the past and planning the future of Ethiopian education, one has to keep in mind the relationship between the national income and the possible

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[49] Ibid., p. 185

[50] M. S. Adiseshiah, Education and Development in Restless Nations (New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1962), p. 151.

[51] Jan Tingergen, Shaping the World Economy (New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1962), p. 14.

monies available for education. The educational plans have to be within the framework of national income.

SUMMARY

Due to an early influence of Christianity, Ethiopia has quite a different cultural background than many African countries, but the educational problems facing Ethiopia are very much similar to those faced by other African nations, the difference is rather of degree than of kind.

Most of the literature on Ethiopia in the field of education may be classified as descriptive while research is rather meager. Authorities in African development as well as UNESCO have pointed out that the need for educational planning in developing countries is even more urgent than in the more affluent societies, because more meager financial resources press for a greater efficiency than educational planning might provide.

Educational development in African countries during the post-war decade has been promoted more along the line of quantity than quality, because of the vast number of illiterate people and the revolution of rising expectations during the late 1940's and early 1950's, which was more a result of spontaneous political and economic demands than of actual educational planning.

The main difference between the Addis Ababa Plan and previous plans was that it was arranged and initiated by the African nations themselves in an African setting and with a pan-African outlook contrary to the traditional metropolitan or local national viewpoints. In addition, it approached the problems from a viewpoint which included the economic, cultural, and social aspect of development, instead of approaching the problems from the narrow exclusive angle. The Addis Ababa Plan also attempted to apply educational measures that would make it possible to make quantitative comparisons among the participating nations.

Even if the main concern of the Addis Ababa Conference seemed to be the quantitative aspect of educational planning and development, it also made it clear that the question about quantity cannot be separated from quality.

Because the financial ability of a nation to support an educational system is directly related to its level of economic development, the educational plans and objectives therefore have to be within the framework of the national income.

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ETHIOPIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

According to a study by UNESCO, the following data are considered essential in order to analyze a nation's educational situation and development--data related to:[1]

1. Aims and objectives of education.
2. Structure of the system.
3. Curricula for different levels and branches of education.
4. Methods of teaching.
5. Administration and supervision at the national, regional, and local levels.
6. School buildings and equipment.
7. Teaching and administrative staff.
8. Particulars of the student body: enrollment, dropouts, graduates, government/non-government school attendance.
9. The financing of education.
10. Population and demography.

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[1] Elements of Educational Planning (Paris: UNESCO, 1963), p. 18.

AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF ETHIOPIAN EDUCATION

According to Tadesse Tereffe, Director General of Programming and Planning in the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, the aims of education in Ethiopia have generally been geared to the needs of the times:

> . . . Our traditional education had as its primary aim the teaching of religion and morals, while the aim of our education system during the pre-war period was essentially to teach foreign languages as a need for foreign relations.[2]

In order to maintain relations with other countries and in order to train their officials for foreign service, the first secondary schools, Menelik II School (1905) and Tafari Makonen School (1925), offered very strong courses in foreign languages like French, Arabic, and English.

Because of the massacre of most of the educated Ethiopians during the Italian occupation, the objectives of education during the first decade following the liberation (1941-1950) was to qualify men for government leadership. During this period the secondary schools stressed the academic disciplines, and many of the graduates were sent abroad for higher education.

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[2]Tadesse Tereffe, "Progress, Problems and Prospects in Ethiopian Education," Ethiopian Observer, VIII (January, 1964), 7.

Since 1950 the stress has been on the development of human resources for the nation's economy:

> . . . The original tendency of the educational system was designed to develop the humanities; more recently, however, the emphasis has been on technical and vocational education to provide plumbers, engineers, mechanics of various kinds, electricians, agriculturalists, artisans as well as experts.[3]

The same source states that during the last twenty years there has been a lack of consensus on educational issues and objectives in Ethiopia. This is indicated, it is stated, by the frequent curricula revisions, textbook changes, and a flow of opinion survey.[4]

Equal Gebre Johannes has tried to point out a solution to the unstable situation stating that:

> . . . Modern education in the Ethiopian context, should not be the ability to reproduce what we have learnt in European universities, nor the tendency to blindly reject all traditional values of our own culture. The truly educated Ethiopian is one who can combine the essence of our historical heritage with the values of modern civilization and can distill from both an original and harmonious philosophy of living. Education then should aim at the development of the human qualities; should prepare the person in some useful profession and at the same time it should lead him to some academic challenge[5]

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[3] Ministry of Information, Education in Ethiopia (Addis Ababa: Commercial Press, 1964), p. 2.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Tereffe, op. cit., p. 15.

This philosophy pictures a kind of Ethiopianization which also can be discovered in the objectives prepared for the new school program, which is an attempt to break away from a European centered academic education and move toward an African centered, comprehensive education.[6]

DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE

Traditional Education

In Ethiopia an educational system existed many centuries before the coming of the modern missionary. Until the twentieth century, the Ethiopian Orthodox Church had been the only formal educational agency in Ethiopia. The church alone assumed the responsibility for educating its own clergy as well as some civilian leaders and members of the nobility. There is no written evidence of the time when the church began its formal teaching in its schools and monasteries, except from the fruits of a definite literary education that are found in early Geez literature and in manuscripts of the thirteenth and fourteenth century.[7]

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[6]Objectives for the new school program: see Appendix B.

[7]Sylvia Pankhurst, Ethiopia: A Cultural History (Middlesex, England: Lalibella Printing Press, 1955), p. 145.

There exist manuscripts that date as far back as the fifth and sixth century A.D., proving that at least writing and reading must have been taught quite early.[8]

Church school education in Ethiopia does not mean, as with the rest of Africa, the education given by the missionaries in the mission schools. It is the education provided by the Ethiopian Coptic clergy in local monastic schools where instruction was given in what can be called a religious counterpart of our three R's, religion, reading and writing.

Church education in the past as at present can be divided into two levels, the ordinary and the advanced.[9]

The ordinary level consisted of the teaching of reading and writing. This was achieved through a series of practice materials designed to help the student learn the letters and identify the 210 symbols that constitute the Ethiopian alphabet.

The reading material was taken from the Epistles, the Gospels, and the Psalms. From reading in a slow rate, then through a stage of chanting the text in a slow and rhythmic

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[8] Ibid.

[9] Mulugeta Wodajo, "Postwar Reform in Ethiopian Education," Comparative Education Review, III, No. 3 (February, 1959), 24-27.

fashion, the student's reading capacity went on to a loud and fast reading of the material. The ordinary level was supposed to be covered in one year, and upon completion of this stage the student was able to read and write the Ethiopian script.[10]

The advanced level was only for a selected few who had an intense desire to serve the church. For the average student the end of the ordinary level was the end of his formal education. The enrollment in the advanced level was for boys only, unlike the ordinary level, as only men could enter the priesthood or otherwise serve the church directly.

The graduates of the advanced level became "debteras" (i.e., cantors) rather than ordinary priests. The advanced level gave instruction in three different schools: (1) "Zema Bet" (School of Music); (2) "Kene Bet" (School of Poetry); and (3) "Aquaquam Bet" (School of Church Dance).

Through these schools, the Ethiopian Church has not only preserved its Christian traditions, but it also has been able to combine the old Christian liturgy with the old African heritage.[11]

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[10] Ibid., p. 24.

[11] Edward Ullensdorf, The Ethiopians: An Introduction to Country and People (London: Oxford University Press, 1960), pp. 98-99.

Up to recent times, this type of church education flourished among the peoples of the Amhara and Tigrai origins, in the northern and north-eastern parts of Ethiopia. Very little of this kind of education and the cultural process that went with it penetrated the western and southern sections of the country, which were conquered and united with Ethiopia during the last century.[12] Though some modern educationalists may regard the church schools as unduly fossilized and unprogressive, they have continued to play an important part in the nation's cultural life. All through the history of Ethiopia while the country had been isolated from the rest of the Christian world and menaced by Islamic conquests, the Church:

> . . . has acted as the guardian and preserver of traditional Ethiopian culture. Its contribution has not only been to maintain a supply of learned and educated clergy for the various services of the church, but also to provide a flow of educated men who filled the various ranks of the civil service.[13]

The Church did not, however, consider education as the essential part of its apostolic mission, as was the case

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[12]Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, Education in Ethiopia (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1961), p. 3.

[13]Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, A Five Year Plan for Economic Development (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1961), p. 1.

with the churches in many other countries. It did take care of the Amhara-Tigrai Christian group, but did very little to evangelize other ethnic groups through education. With the growth of modern secular education, the role and influence of church education have inevitably declined, but, as stated by Wodajo:

> . . . It is the hope that Ethiopian Educators will some day find ways and means of incorporating some of the traditions, perhaps, even some of the content of the Church schools into the curriculum of the modern public schools.[14]

More and more of the Church schools are adopting the Government curriculum, and with the increasing rate of educational expansion and modernization of the Ethiopian culture and way of thinking, there is a danger that a preserver of Ethiopian traditions may die out with the crumbling of the original Church school curriculum. Within this curriculum, Ethiopia still has some of those traditional and national values which so many African nations have lost or are searching for.

Modern Education

Modern education in Ethiopia, as distinct from

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[14]Mulugeta Wodajo, "Ethiopia: Some Pressing Problems and the Role of Education in their Resolution," The Journal of Negro Education, XXXI (Summer, 1961), 234.

traditional or church education, really began in the nineteenth century. This period can be divided into three separate periods. The first period covers the time from the establishment of the first mission schools in the middle of the nineteenth century, up to the year of the Italian occupation.

The second period covers the time of the Italian occupation from 1936 to 1941. Although there was not much educational activity going on, this period has made a pronounced impression upon the educational history of Ethiopia.

The third period extends from the time of liberation in 1941 to the present, a period of approximately thirty years.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN EDUCATION UP TO 1936

Mission Schools

The mission schools brought to Ethiopia some of the things the Ethiopian Church in its conservativism could not supply.[15] Mission schools had been opened by Portuguese Jesuits during the second half of the sixteenth century and first half of the seventeenth century, but their impact upon the population seems to have left no mark, and this beginning of mission education was wiped out with the forced departure of the missionaries themselves.[16]

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[15]Atnafu Mekonnen, Ethiopia Today (Tokyo: Radio Press, 1960), p. 247.

[16]Adrien Zervos, L'Empire d'Ethiopie: Le Miroir de l'Ethiopie Modern; 1906-1935 (Greece: [n.n.], 1936).

A second great mission effort was started in the second half of the nineteenth century by Protestant and Catholic missionaries. A boys' school at Alitiena dates back to 1847, and another boys school at Gouala was founded in 1898. Besides religious instruction, the curriculum included history, geography, and mathematics.[17] Some of the Ethiopians educated by the missionaries have held quite influencial posts under Emperor Menelek II and Haile Selassie I.

Because of historical reasons, the missionaries were still regarded with considerable suspicion. The Swedish Lutheran Mission, however, which started schools in the capital of Addis Ababa and at Harar, was quite successful in winning Ethiopian support in the field of education. This was mainly due to its interest and effort in producing books and literature in the Amharic language.[18] The mission schools brought also a more practical approach to education than had been the case with the Church schools.

The Swedish Lutheran Mission was followed by the American Presbyterian Mission, and during the 1920's schools operated by different denominations and churches entered

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[17]Thomas Jesse Jones, Education in East Africa: A Study by the African Education Commission (New York: Phelps-Stokes Fund, 1924), p. 327.

[18]Mekonnen, op. cit., p. 247.

the country. In the beginning they concentrated their efforts in and around the capital, Addis Ababa, but moved later into the southern part of the country where the Ethiopian Church did not have as great an influence as in the north and northwest.

As the influence of the Ministry of Education grew stronger, the mission schools adopted the curriculum of the Ministry, but still emphasized their dogmas and beliefs in their teaching.

Government Schools

Emperor Menelik II, who had given permission to foreign missionaries to establish their own schools in Ethiopia, saw the importance and necessity for the government to take some responsibility in matters of education. As related in his chronicle:

> . . . 'il fit venir d'Alexandrie des professeurs qu'il se chargea de payer et, apres qu'il eut fait construire une ecole, on commenca a ensigner les langues europeennes a tous les enfants des chefs.[19]

Maurice de Coppet, who published a translation of this chronicle, added a personal note at the bottom of the page. There he states that Menelik II brought some Coptic professors

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[19]Guebre Selassie, Chronique de Regne de Menelik II roi des rois d'Ethiopia (Paris: Librarie Orientale et Americaine, 1931), pp. 529-30.

from Egypt in 1906. The school was opened in 1908, with the stess upon languages:

> . . . comptait une certaine d'eleves, presque tous des fils de chefs, a qui le francais, l'anglais, l'italien, l'arabe etaint enseignees a leur choix. . . .[20]

This school was planned principally as the education needed, under the leadership of Coptic teachers, for the sons of the local chiefs and nobility who would be the future leaders of Ethiopia. The foreign personnel took care of the foreign languages, while there were some Ethiopian teachers who took care of the teaching of Amharic and Geez. This school developed later into a public school, open to all children, as it is at present. According to the same sources, similar schools were established in other centers like Ankober, Dessie, and Harrar.[21]

While Menelik II had understood the need for modern education quite late in his reign, his successor-to-be, Prince Regent Tafari Mekonnen, later Emperor Haile Selassie I, showed a personal interest in and took immediate steps to develop a system of Ethiopian education. In 1922 he ordered the construction of the Tafari Mekonnen School

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[20] Ibid., p. 530.

[21] Ibid.

which was officially inaugurated on April 27, 1925 under a French headmaster with a staff of mixed nationalities.[22]

Two of the basic educational policies which he later tried to follow as the Emperor of Ethiopia were pointed out in his inaugural speech at the opening of the school:

> . . . Everyone who loves Ethiopia should concern himself with founding schools, to help scholars who are not his own children and to ensure that his own children receive an education.
>
> Everyone who says he is a friend of his country has the duty to show the token of his love by helping schools, by getting schools built so far as lies in his power, and by having his children educated.
>
> In this school, it is not only foreign languages I have instituted, but there will also be a study of our country's holy books and monophysite faith. One who proposes to devote himself to foreign learning when he has not properly mastered the language and literature of his own country is like a boat without a rower. Be diligent in your studies of our country's knowledge and learning.[23]

There were about 160 students attending this school at the time of the Phelps-Stokes Commission's visit in 1923.[24] The majority of the students preferred French to English. Entrance was open to all Abyssinian subjects who could speak

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[22]Mekonnen, op. cit., p. 247.

[23]Ministry of Education, Education in Ethiopia, op. cit., p. 7.

[24]Thomas Jesse Jones, Education in East-Africa (New York: Phelps-Stokes Foundation, 1924), p. 326.

and write Amharic.

The government schools established during the 1920's and 1930's were all built according to orders from the Emperor and partly or fully supported by him or his relatives. In 1929 the Emperor founded Lycee Haile Selassie under a Syrian headmaster. This was a primary and technical school. In 1931 Empress Menen established a school for girls where the training was mainly in domestic subjects.[25] In 1930 the Emperor founded the Haile Selassie College, where teacher training was given with French as the instructional language. St. Savior's School for orphan boys was established in 1932 with French as the instructional language. This school was known for having sections for practical training like shoemaking and carpentry.[26]

During the 1930's the Emperor established the following schools in the provinces: in 1931 at Asba Tafari with instruction in English; in 1932 at Jimma with instruction in French; in 1933 at Harrar with instruction in French; in 1934 at Gojjam and Gondar with instruction in English; and in 1935 at Sallale and Makalle with instruction in

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[25]Mekonnen, op. cit.

[26]E. Sylvia Pankhurst, Education in Ethiopia (London: New Times and Ethiopia News, 1946), p. 20.

English.

During these years it was the policy of the Emperor to send some young men abroad for further studies. There could be as many as forty of them at one time, mainly supported privately by the Emperor. These students usually went to France, Belgium, England, the United States, Egypt, or Syria. The result of such an experiment was bound to be quite a mixture in its influence upon the developing school system. The variety of foreign headmasters through the few government schools together with the international educational background of the elite opened the whole educational system to influence from the best as well as the worst of many different educational systems.

EDUCATION DURING THE TIME OF THE ITALIAN OCCUPATION, 1936-1941

As there are no educational reports or school enrollment figures existing from the pre- as well as the war period, the most reliable source for an estimation of the enrollment is probably Zervos' approximation. He states that there were about twenty government schools in the whole country at the time of the Italian occupation, with about 5,000

students in attendance.[27] Out of these twenty schools, about half were in the capital. If added to this number is the estimated 2,500 to 3,000 students in Protestant and Catholic schools, the estimated number of Ethiopian students attending school at that time would have been about 7,500 or 8,000. In addition there were about forty students who were studying abroad at government expense.[28]

As a totalitarian state, the Italian government was determined to start with a tabula rasa within the field of education in the occupied territory. The government schools were closed, and all foreign missionaries were expelled. The occupation forces even broke up the long-established French-Roman Catholic mission in Harrar.[29]

An important part of their policy was to use education not only to stamp their own fascist doctrines upon the children but also as a means of dividing the component races and undermining the superiority of the Amharas.[30] For this purpose, separate schools were set up for the different

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[27]Zervos, op. cit., p. 229.

[28]Pankhurst, op. cit., p. 21.

[29]Margery Parham, The Ethiopian Government (London: Fabber and Fabber, 1948), p. 249.

[30]Ibid.

tribes and for the Muslims as well. The Muslim schools were established to counteract the influence of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church and the teaching in those few church schools which still continued more or less as an "under-ground movement."[31] In these schools great stress was put upon the teaching of Arabic, and a Muslim teacher from Libya was imported to take charge of the high school of Islamic instruction opened at Jimma. One of the reasons for giving these special favors to the Muslims was their great commercial importance.

In official life and as a medium of instruction, the Italian language took the place of French and English. In most of the provinces special schools were erected for Italian children. Special schools for training and indoctrinating young Ethiopians were filled with students kidnapped from their villages by the Italian armies.[32]

The whole situation during those five years of occupation is probably well summarized by Sylvia Pankhurst:

> . . . During the occupation not only were schools closed and all educational work abruptly terminated, but the people were thrown into terror and turmoil, home life was destroyed, families were driven from their dwellings,

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[31] Ibid.

[32] Pankhurst, op. cit., p. 24.

> parents and teachers were killed, imprisoned and exiled, or went out into the bush to fight alongside the patriot guerillas. Large numbers of children were orphaned. . . . They were subsequently employed to wait on the soldiers and lorries for an occasional pittance, and left to lodge and support themselves how and where they could.[33]

Another serious blow to the future of Ethiopian education came in 1937 with the massacre of an estimated 75 per cent of the 120 best educated Ethiopians. These murders continued for two or three days after an attempt by members of the Young Ethiopian Movement to kill General Graziani, who was in charge of the occupation army.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN EDUCATION AFTER 1941

The Period of Urgent Improvisation, 1941-1947

The liberation of Ethiopia in 1941 marked the beginning of a new period in the development of modern education. The first five to seven years of this period have been referred to as the period of "urgent improvisation." In addition to the lack of supplies, teachers, and educational planners, the government had a serious youth problem to cope with. A great proportion of the orphaned and homeless boys and girls who thronged the streets of Addis Ababa and other

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[33] Ibid.

towns were ill from starvation and deficiency diseases of different types, pneumonia, typhus, tropical ulcer, and other ailments resulting from hardship and exposure.[34] The beginning of the post-war period was rather a gloomy one.

Following the defeat of the Italian forces, a negotiation for taking over by the Ethiopians from the British Occupied Enemy Territory Administration was initiated by the Emperor. As the rest of the world was still at war and the liberation army consisted mostly of British and Indian troops, a British influence during these first years of development was inevitable. Through the British Council in Addis Ababa a few teachers were supplied. The first educational adviser to the goverhment was Mr. E. R. Hussey, who came to the country with a wide experience as an inspector in the British School system as adapted in Uganda and Nigeria.[35]

As the first Minister of Education the Emperor appointed one of the few survivors from the Italian massacre, Ato Mekonnen Desta, a graduate from an American university. His first task was to open the schools which the Italians had closed. During the occupation, the Italians had constructed many modern buildings. These were taken over for government

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[34] Ibid., pp. 24-25.

[35] Perham, op. cit., p. 250.

and education purposes. Therefore, the main task of the new Minister of Education was not to provide buildings but to provide teachers and educational materials.

The old Tefari Mekonnen school was reopened as an elementary school with 800 students enrolled under the leadership of an American missionary and later taken over by a British headmaster and a few years later by a Canadian Jesuit.[36] A Swede was put in charge of the old Menelik school, while the Empress Menen school was reopened first under an American and later by a British then Swedish headmistresses, in rapid succession. When the Haile Selassie Secondary School for boys was opened in 1943 in modern buildings constructed by the Italians, the first two headmasters were from Great Britain. This also was the case with the new teacher training college which was opened in 1944. The Orde Wingate Secondary School was established in 1945 as a special British project staffed and administered through the British Embassy in Addis Ababa.[37]

This British infiltration during the earliest years of the post-war period has had a great impact upon the elementary as well as the secondary school structure and curriculum

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[36] Ministry of Education, Review (Addis Ababa: [n.n.] March, 1945), pp. 7-10.

[37] Ibid.

in the Ethiopian school system.

In August, 1944, the government issued a memorandum on educational policy which had been drawn up with the help of the first education advisor, Mr. Hussey. This plan came at a time, as already mentioned, when some of the metropolitan powers were revising and rethinking their educational policies in colonial territories.

The memorandum was drawn up in full realization of the fact that the lack of funds and of teachers would forbid more than a gradual fulfillment. Therefore, no dates or exact targets were set. The importance of the memorandum was to be found in the directions of development which were outlined and the impact these have had upon the further development of education in Ethiopia. Since it will be referred to later in the study, the memorandum is cited in Appendix C.

The plan in itself squared with British opinion on African colonial education at that time, and indicated that the Ethiopian problems were very similar to those in other African countries. In analyzing the plan, Perham states:

> . . . The critics may, however, be inclined to pause on the always difficult and controversial question of priorities, and to wonder whether, even in the ultimate interest of mass education itself some greater expansion of secondary education, to provide the teachers or the trainers of teachers, might not shortly be needed, even

> though this entailed at first the risk of sending some pupils to secondary schools and training colleges outside the country.[38]

The plan stressed the need for mass education as had the Memorandum of Mass Education in African Societies issued in 1944 by the British Government. Only a year after the memorandum was proclaimed, an additional secondary school, "which hardly could merit the name," was established in the capital, and "there appears to be a tendency to promote elementary schools to secondary standards, at best in name, through the desire for prestige and nominal advance."[39]

This development was parallel to what has already been referred to in other African countries, and labeled by Foster as the prestige symbol. The emphasis the plan put upon the education of girls was rather impressive, but its progress was slowed by the national ban upon co-education which existed in Ethiopia. The recommendations with regard to languages, especially the recognition of the use of non-Amharic vernaculars, was very liberal; in fact, it was too progressive as will be seen later in the discussion. The choice of English as the main foreign language was not surprising, but it meant the dethronement of French, which

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[38] Perham, op. cit., p. 254.

[39] Ibid.

until the Italian invasion had been the dominant foreign language.

Information relating to educational reconstruction in Ethiopia has been very fragmentary, as the Ethiopians themselves admit, and it can only be put together by pieces from various sources. Table I and Table II attempt to give a picture of the educational situation in 1944 and 1946.

In 1944 there were 163 government schools in operation, which is an annual growth of about fifty-four schools a year beginning in 1941 at the time of liberation when there were no schools in operation.

In 1946 the number of government schools had increased to 252 which meant an annual increase of forty-five schools over the previous two years. During the same year the enrollment of girls was about 9 per cent of the total enrollment. For the same year the average size of the schools was an enrollment of 133 students and the average teacher-student ratio was 1:33.2. This indicates that the schools were rather small, and had a surprisingly low teacher-student ratio. Out of the 1,049 teachers employed, 133 or 12.6 per cent were expatriates, which again may seem lower than expected.

Despite the almost overwhelming claims facing the

TABLE I

NUMBER AND TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN ETHIOPIA, 1944

Type of school	Number of schools
IN ADDIS ABABA	
Under Government Auspices	
Elementary schools	5
Secondary schools	7
Teacher training college	1
Commercial school	1
Theological school	1
Schools of Arts and Crafts	2
Private Schools	10
Mission Schools	3
IN THE PROVINCES	
Under Government Auspices	
Higher elementary (grade 1-6)	30
Elementary schools	53
Mission Schools	3
Total Number of Schools	116

Sources: The Ministry of Education, Review, September, 1944; The Ministry of Education, Review, October, 1944; The Ministry of Education, Review, March, 1945; and E. Sylvia Pankhurst, Education in Ethiopia (London: New Times and Ethiopia News, 1946), pp. 23-25.

TABLE II

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND STUDENT ENROLLMENT
IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS IN ETHIOPIA
AT FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL, 1946

Location	Number of Schools	Enrollment		Total Enrollment
		Boys	Girls	
Addis Ababa	12	2,754	560	3,314
District of Addis Ababa	43	5,615	231	5,846
Provinces	209	23,101	2,583	25,684
Total	264	31,470	3,374	34,844

Sources: E. Sylvia Pankhurst, Education in Ethiopia (London: New Times and Ethiopia News, 1946) pp. 22-23; and The Ministry of Education, Review, October, 1946.

Ethiopian government during the first post-war years and despite the extremely straightened revenue system, the expenditures for education continued to increase.[40]

Year	Amount
1943-1944	£ 95,674
1944-1945	£ 167,245
1945-1946	£ 696,340

This indicates for the school year of 1945-1946 a cost per student of $59., or 148 Ethiopian dollars, which is considerably higher than during later years.

The period of urgent improvisation existed up to 1947, characterized by a policy of education at all costs. Free elementary education was followed by free boarding secondary education and free college education abroad for those who were chosen. It was a costly policy and the budget for education went up from 4 per cent of the total national expenditure in 1944/45 to 12 per cent in 1945/46 and to 13.6 per cent in 1948/49.[41]

The Period of Consolidation, 1948-1954

The period of urgent improvisation was followed by

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[40] Pankhurst, op. cit., p. 7.

[41] "Education Report," Ethiopian Observer, VI, No. 1, 1949, p. 71.

what may be called a period of consolidation. This period was introduced with a strengthening of the finances for education and the creation of a policy-making body within the field of education. In July, 1947, an Education and Health Tax was announced on imported goods.[42] In November of the same year a land tax was proclaimed to provide for regional educational expenditures and for the development of primary education in the provinces. The same month the Emperor appointed a Board of Education to determine the general policies that would guide the development of education for the whole Empire.[43] In each of the twelve provinces Local Educational Boards were constituted to administer the local education tax for primary schools. These local school boards did not have any influence upon the school policies or curriculum, which were determined by the Board of Education through the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts.

During this period of consolidation, the Ministry of Education was busy setting up appropriate committees to study the educational system and recommending measures for

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[42]Ethiopia, Negarit Gazetta, Legal Notice, No. 103, VI, July, 1947, p. 11.

[43]Ethiopia, Negarit Gazetta, Legal Notice, No. 3, VII, November, 1947, p. 3.

unification of educational policies, curricula, and programs.

The urgency for such a unification and consolidation is easily shown by the following facts:

1. In many cases the headmasters and the principals of the schools were foreigners of different nationalities, background, and educational philosophy.
2. There were no definite programs for the primary schools.
3. The secondary schools were more or less geared toward the London Matriculation exam.
4. There existed no set of textbooks and no clear-cut structure of school organization.

The operation of mission schools and private schools along lines of different nationalities and religious beliefs added to the confusion already existing.

It seemed as if the Ethiopian educational "system," if it could be called such, had reached the state of confusion predicted by Perham:

> . . . The Ethiopians may succeed in avoiding cultural confusion, but the perpetual changes of plans, persons, and nationalities have undoubtedly produced something not far off administrative confusion in education. . . .[44]

It was also of importance to clarify the basic issues

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[44] Perham, op. cit., p. 257.

of building an "Ethiopian" system of education. So far, little adaptation to Ethiopian conditions or to the Ethiopian heritage had taken place.[45]

A few statistics at the end of the first decade of post-war education may help with a general evaluation of the period. As is shown in Table III, there were sixty thousand students in all government schools in 1952, but only 2.68 per cent of the total enrollment was to be found in the secondary school; 12.65 per cent of the elementary enrollment were girls while only 0.23 per cent of the secondary enrollment consisted of girls. In one way, a complete educational structure had been built up during the first decade, ranging from primary school up to a junior college program, but there were many weaknesses and dysfunctions, such as a lack of unity in objectives and a great percentage of wastage through dropouts.[46] During the next decade, 1952-1962, the main task to which the Ministry of Education devoted its energies was a continuous consolidation by trying to strengthen, and at the same time control, expansion by

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[45] A Ten-Year Plan for the Controlled Expansion of Ethiopian Education. Proposals prepared by the Long-Term Planning Committee (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1955), p. xvi.

[46] Ibid., p. xv.

TABLE III

ENROLLMENT IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS
IN ETHIOPIA 1951/1952

Type of school		Number of enrollment	Percentage of total enrollment
Primary Schools			
Grades 1-4	Male	45,397	75.49
	Female	6,969	11.49
Grades 5-8	Male	5,416	9.00
	Female	637	1.06
Secondary Schools			
Academic and Special	Male	1,471	2.45
	Female	141	0.23
Higher Education			
	Male	100	0.16
	Female	1	
Total		59,122	

Source: Government School Census (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1959), p. 16.

short- and long-term planning.

The Period of Long-Term Planning, 1954-1961

The first step taken to appoint a Long-Term Planning Committee for Ethiopian Education led to the First and Second Five-Year Plan, both becoming the forerunners of the Addis Ababa Plan of 1961 to be discussed in some detail in Chapter IV.

The main feature of the school structure up to 1959 was a four-year primary education, a four-year middle school, and a four-year secondary school. Between the years 1959 and 1963, the Ministry of Education studied means of improving primary as well as secondary education, and in 1963 the revision referred to in Figure 1 was adopted. It was:

(1) to be followed by all types of schools in Ethiopia,
(2) to be carried through the whole Empire by March 1969.[47]

The new structure had the character of a six-year primary school, a two-year junior secondary school, and a four-year senior secondary school. It might be mentioned here that when quantitative comparisons are made between primary enrollments for periods involving the new and the old system, the whole period of the first eight years is

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[47] Education in Ethiopia (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1964), pp. 14-15.

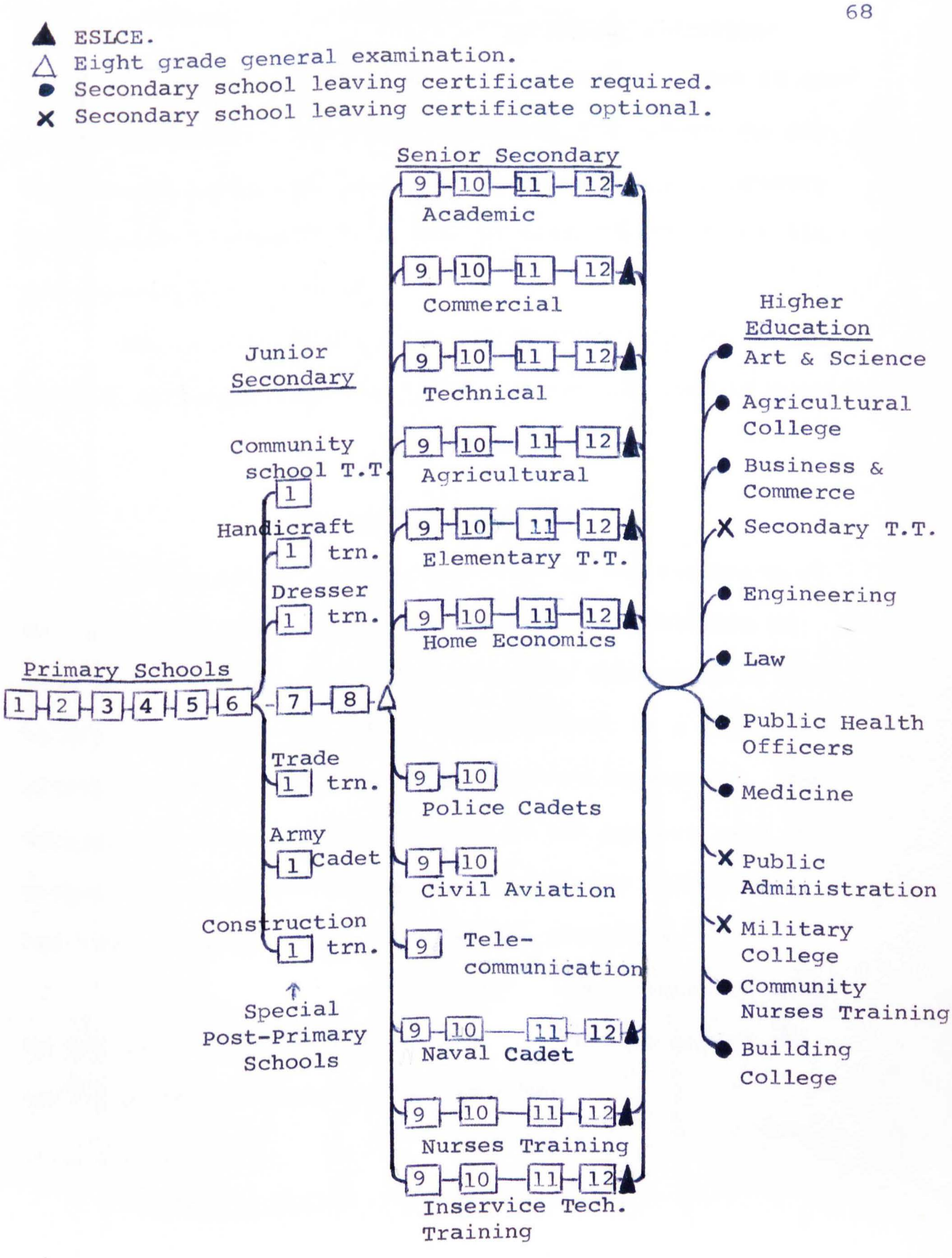

Figure 1. A flow chart of Ethiopian education system started in 1963.

referred to as the first level. This grouping makes it possible to use as at least approximations the age-groups six to fourteen years and fifteen to nineteen years as primary and secondary school age-groups, as does UNESCO in its African reports and statistics.

The curriculum and time allotment in periods per week for the different levels and programs are included in Appendix D.

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

Reference has already been made to the beginning of the community school movement. In 1943 the villagers at Debre Birhan in Shoa Province, under the leadership of Mr. McLaren, organized the first village school as a community effort with the help of the local service committees. The Emperor had taken special interest in the project, and together with ministers and officials from the capital he had visited Debre Birhan on different occasions.[48]

The idea of the community school was picked up again by the Long-Term Planning Committee and became one of the strong points of their recommendations.

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[48] Ethiopia Herald, February 18, 1946, p. 8.

> The adaptation of the primary school system to Ethiopian needs must be done by changing over to a community school system for general education in all primary schools. . . . To consolidate the social and political unity of the Empire, and to develop the economic resources, it is essential that as soon as possible every man and woman and child in every province should have a maximum of basic education, including the ability to speak and write Amharic effectively.
>
> The chief vehicles of mass educational expansion in the future should be community schools for basic education, teaching normally for a four year program.[49]

These new schools would be operating according to the four basic principles of community education as pointed out by the committee:[50]

1. The community school must serve the entire community in which it is located, adults as well as children and youth.
2. The purpose of the community schools is to improve the life of the community in which it serves.
3. The curriculum in the community school must grow out of the problems and the needs of the community and the country.
4. The community school should be the center through which the various efforts of the government to improve the

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[49] A Ten-Year Plan for Controlled Expansion of Ethiopian Education, op. cit., p. xvi.

[50] Ibid., pp. 92-93.

life of the community should be channeled.

In order to make the community schools effective, the Ministry of Education proposed to train a new kind of teacher for these schools.[51] These new teachers were supposed not only to teach in the school, but they should also be community leaders and adult educators. The enthusiasm for and the expectation in these new schools were great, and the approval of this new type of schools by the Board of Education was considered to be:

> . . . a great step forward in the development of Ethiopian education . . . , perhaps the most fundamental step that has been taken since the establishment of the Government school system.[52]

The community schools were primarily planned for the rural areas and adapted to rural and agricultural life. The number of community schools have increased rapidly over the years. In 1951 there were reported only five of these schools in operation, while in 1961 the number reported had risen to 143 with an enrollment of 17,869 students, or 32.4 per cent of the total enrollment of the one-to-four-grade students.[53]

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[51] See Appendix D.

[52] A Ten-Year Plan for Controlled Expansion of Ethiopian Education, op. cit., p. 107.

[53] School Census for Ethiopia, 1961/62 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1963), pp. 9-13.

But as the number of schools multiplied, the actual objectives of the community schools were not achieved. They became very similar to the primary schools which they were supposed to replace, with the exception that they were all taught in Amharic without any foreign language.

A short analysis of the reasons for the lack of success of the community schools to fulfill its mission as a developing agency of the community as planned can be listed as follows:

1. The training of the special kind of teachers did not take place as planned. Either the teachers were trained in a milieu and in methods too different from the reality of the community shcools, or sometimes the teachers were sent to the city primary school after their special training.
2. Lack of teaching material adapted to rural community teaching also contributed to the failure of these schools.
3. The peasants and the poor people in the countryside wanted their children to get the same education the urban children were getting. They wanted their children to have the same opportunity for continuing at higher levels as

the children in the city.[54]

As media for giving a basic education along these general lines to the children the schools were successful, but little community development has been brought about through their influence.[55] In this respect the experiences in Ethiopia have been similar to what has happened in other African countries when a more rural-oriented education was to be introduced. It was looked upon by the local people as a second-rate education, of sub-quality or inferior.[56]

In the statistics from the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, there is a tendency from the middle of the 1960's to include the community schools in the category of Government schools, and by 1967/68 they were completely absorbed statistically by the Government schools. It is difficult to say why this has taken place. It may be because the community schools have completely lost their identity and/or they are the victims of a tendency toward centralization.

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[54] Eduard Trudeau, "Higher Education in Ethiopia" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University, New York, 1962), p. 13.

[55] Ibid., p. 14.

[56] Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa. Final Report (Paris: UNESCO/ED/181, 1961), p. 49.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Until the 1950's the small group of Ethiopians eligible for higher education was sent on government scholarships to universities in Europe or the United States. But as early as 1928 at the graduation ceremony at Menelik II School, the Prince Regent Tafari Mekonnen, the future Haile Selassie I, after having promised to send abroad those who had succeeded in their studies, added:

> I hope, however, that for the future generation of pupils, there will be established, before very long, a university for advanced studies in their own land of Ethiopia.[57]

At that time Ethiopia had only two modern government schools, and the hope for a university seemed to be a far off dream. The Italian occupation delayed whatever plans had existed, and after the Italian war the actual situation for higher education in Ethiopia was probably worse than any other level of the educational endeavours which lay ahead of the Ethiopian government. The educated Ethiopians, who would have been a potential force in promulgating the idea of a higher education, had almost all been eliminated; besides there had been no students graduating from the secondary schools during the occupation.

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[57] Education in Ethiopia (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1961), p. 25.

In an interview with Mr. Lucien Matte, head of a group of Canadian teachers called to Ethiopia to help in the organization of elementary, secondary and professional education in 1946, the Emperor outlined what policy he wanted to be followed in establishing the secondary section at Tafari Mekonnen School. In his personal notes on the interview, Mr. Matte notes:

> . . . La pensee de Sa Majeste Imperiale est tres explicite: eliminer impitoyablement apres la 6eme tous les eleves inaptes aux etudes universitaires. Diriger tous ces eleves vers l'ecole commercial, technique, l'armee, la police . . . et ne garder que ceux qui peuvent faire des etudes secondaires. Etablir des programmes d'etude, etablir des baremes d'age, d'examens et ne vous laisser guider (au point de vue scolaire) que par ce principe: me donner des jeunes gens pour l'Universite.[58]

Two months after the interview with the Emperor, Mr. Matte presented to the Ministry of Education a report entitled Higher Education in Ethiopia. This report cannot be compared with the Asquith or Elliot reports on higher education in British colonies, but it was, nevertheless, the beginning of a constructive planning for higher education in Ethiopia. The plan expressed the awareness of a long-time element involved, as well as a gradual growth and expansion:

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[58]Lucien Matte, Higher Education in Ethiopia, A report presented to the Ministry of Education (Addis Ababa: HSIU File, 1946), p. 2.

> . . . It not only seems possible, but even sound policy for the governing bodies to consider the opportunity of developing higher education in Ethiopia. Even though the process requires much time and will demand many years of preparation, its far-reaching consequences render imperative that it be carried out according to a well matured plan.
>
> Independence in the educational field, in as much as it is possible, is at the base of all independence. . . . The opening of all the Faculties at once is out of the question. What would be the most urgent need of the country? Our answer is: a Faculty of Science. Ethiopia needs practical results in the scientific fields.[59]

In this plan the Faculty of Arts was not considered so urgent, and should be opened at such a time when the faculties of Engineering, Agriculture, Science, Law and Economics were well established. When the time for the Faculty of Arts was due, the Amharic Literature, Geeze Language and Ethiopian archaeology should be emphasized, and after the Ethiopian branches were well established, the faculty could direct its efforts to the establishment of higher courses in English and French.[60]

In analyzing this report, one finds some principles suggested which are quite different from those found in colonial territories at the same time. The plan advocated:

1. The university was to be Ethiopian in its purpose and

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[59] Ibid., p. 5.

[60] Ibid., p. 6.

content. It was to give special importance to the Ethiopian culture and heritage.

2. One of the main objectives was to meet the need of the country, in the form of training engineers, teachers, scientists, doctors and economists.

3. The university should be an independent institution, under no outside control.[61]

These were goals and objectives with great possibilities embedded in them, but the question left open this time as in so many cases in Ethiopian planning was: how is the plan to be implemented?

Three years elapsed between the report and the next step which was taken by the Ministry of Education by appointing a Committee on the Founding of a University. There seemed to be two main reasons why the Ministry of Education at this point found the situation urgent. First, the number of high school graduates had been increasing all the time, and to continue the previous policy of sending the candidates abroad for further studies was found to be expensive. Secondly, some of the secondary schools such as Haile Selassie I Secondary School, General Wingate Secondary School and Tafari

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[61] *Ibid.*

Mekonnen School had planned a post-secondary or pre-college year. As the Ministry of Education became aware of these plans, it felt that a unified project under a central control was necessary.[62]

The Committee on the Founding of a University first studied a second plan worked out by Mr. Matte on the request of the Vice-Minister of Education. The new plan was similar to the first one with two faculties, one of Science and one of Arts--the first faculty being considered the most urgent. The plan recommended a four-year liberal arts college in concept quite similar to the North American idea of a liberal arts college. When considering the cost of such a plan, the Committee favored rather a two-year program for academic pre-university training, and for the third time Mr. Mattee was requested to prepare a plan, this time for a two-year college education.[63]

The second project was delivered to the Vice-Minister of Education in November, 1949, and it featured a two-year junior college program to serve two main objectives. First,

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[62]Lucien Matte, Projet de College, A report given to the Vice-Minister of Education (Addis Ababa: HSIU File, 1949), p. 4.

[63]Lucien Matte, Second Projet de College, A report given to the Vice-Minister of Education (Addis Ababa: HSIU File, November, 1949).

to prepare the more qualified students for overseas studies by giving them two years of post-secondary studies in Ethiopia. These would preferably be those students who had passed their London Matriculation. Secondly, other students were to follow a more vocational program and receive a professional diploma and join the civil service.[64]

In March, 1950, Mr. Matte was again called to the palace and by the Emperor given full responsibility for the founding of the first university in Ethiopia. He was given authority over the program, staff and organization. It should be a government institution, and it should not engage in proselytizing.[65] The last restriction was due to the fact that many Ethiopians, including the Church, had expressed fear of a strong Jesuit influence upon the young people to be enrolled in this new institution.[66] Three weeks later Mr. Matte left for Europe and America to try to get the necessary staff, buy educational supplies for teaching and research, textbooks for the subjects to be taught, books

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[64] Ibid., p. 7.

[65] George A. Lipsky, Ethiopia (New Haven: HRAF Press, 1962), p. 14.

[66] Monica Kehoe, "Higher Education in Ethiopia: A Report on HSIU," Journal of Higher Education, XXXIII (December, 1962), 475.

for a new library and scientific equipment, etc.[67] It has to be agreed that it was rather a unique way of starting a nation's university and the institution itself added more uniqueness to the total picture of the Ethiopian educational structure. In the primary section of the structure, an Ethiopianized form of education was the objective, with stress upon Ethiopian culture and inheritance, while the secondary section prepared the students for a British final examination. From there, the students would continue on to the college level within a typically American school structure.

All of the twenty-two-member faculty during the first school year, 1951/52, were Americans or Canadians. In 1954, this junior college was extended to a senior college, and in 1961 it was inaugurated as Haile Selassie I University. The last stage in the development was effectuated according to a recommendation worked out by a Survey Committee from the University of Utah in 1960. Part of this committee's report was concerned with the consolidation and administration of the different institutions of higher learning which

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[67] Trudeau, "Higher Education in Ethiopia," op. cit., p. 33.

had developed during the years 1951-1960.[68]

From the Addis Ababa campus, colleges with different faculties and in different localities had been established; many of them being established with foreign help and impressive financial support.

The College of Engineering, also located in Addis Ababa, offered a four-year and five-year course in civil, electrical and mechanical engineering.

The Ethio-Swedish Institute of Building Technology offered three-year courses for building engineers and four-year courses which in addition to the technical subjects gave instruction in history, political science and religion.

The Imperial Ethiopian College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts located at Alemayew in Harage province offered courses in general agriculture as well as specialized training in farm and livestock management, soil chemistry and plant nutrition. This institution was founded by the University of Oklahoma and financed by US-AID.

The Public Health College at Gondar offered a three-year program for public health officers, for community nurses, and for sanitarians.[69]

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[68] Survey of Higher Education in Ethiopia (Salt Lake City, Utah: Utah University, 1960).

[69] Ibid.

The educational and administrative structure outlined in the Utah Report made the university a true copy of an American university, and entered a contract agreement with the University of Utah.

ADMINISTRATION OF ETHIOPIAN EDUCATION

Relevant Government Orders and Proclamations

Proclamations, decrees and orders, legal and general notices from the government in Ethiopia are published in Amharic and English in the official organ Negarit Gazetta. As a preview of this section of the study, the orders and proclamations of significant relationship to the administration of Ethiopian education will be cited.

Order No. 1 of 1943 defines the power and duties of the Ministers.[70] Articles 26-28 relate to the Minister of Education and Fine Arts. Among his functions are listed the following: to develop education and the arts; to define the nature and the curriculum of the schools; to issue certificates to students who have passed government examinations; to control private educational institutions; and to establish schools, libraries, and museums.

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[70] Negarit Gazetta, January 1943, 2nd Year, No. 5, Order No. 1.

Notice No. 103 of 1947 deals with Customs Revised Import and Export Tariff Regulations.[71] All goods, wares and merchandise imported, whether paying duties or classed as duty free, have to pay an additional tax of 3 per cent *ad valorem*, for the promotion of education and public health in Ethiopia. This notice was changed by an amendment in April, 1952, adding 1 per cent to the tax, thus making it 4 per cent.[72]

Proclamation No. 93 of 1947 established a tax for education to be levied on all lands and collected as one with taxes provided for by the Land Tax Proclamation of 1944.[73]

Proclamation No. 94 of the same year constituted a local educational board in each province under the presidency of the Governor General. The senior education officer, and the headmaster of the principal school in the provincial capital are ex officio members of the board.[74]

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[71] *Negarit Gazetta*, July, 1947, 6th Year, No. 11, Notice 103.

[72] *Negarit Gazetta*, April, 1952, 11th Year, No. 7, Notice 7.

[73] *Negarit Gazetta*, November, 1947, 7th Year, No. 3, Proclamation No. 93.

[74] *Ibid.*, Proclamation No. 94.

General Notice No. 185 of 1954 gives the charter of the University College of Addis Ababa. The university has a board of Governors appointed by the Emperor who also acts as the Chancellor of the University College.[75] The board dictates general policies, oversees financial arrangements, and possesses in general the traditional powers of a university board of control. The chief executive officer is the president, who is assisted by two vice-presidents, one for academic affairs and the other for financial matters. The various colleges are headed by a dean who is responsible to the academic vice-president.

The university has been the occasion for an increased contribution from the government of the United States which has also provided senior personnel, equipment and capital expenses.[76] The latest is a contribution for the J. F. Kennedy Library opened in 1969 on the university campus.

Administrative Pattern

Figure 2 shows the structure of the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts. The country is divided into twelve

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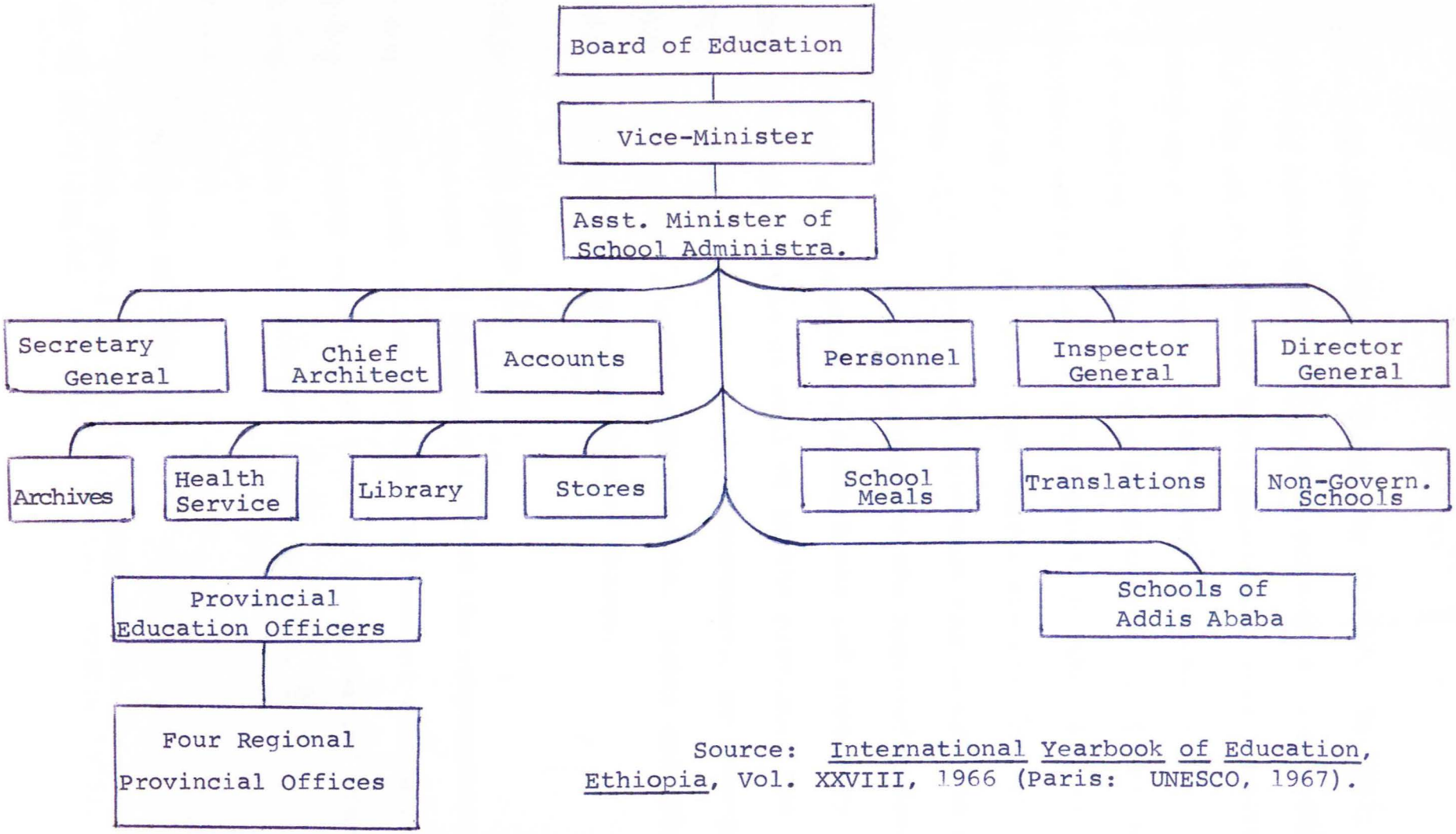
[75] Negarit Gazetta, July, 1954, 13th Year, No. 13, General Notice No. 185.

[76] Kehoe, op. cit., p. 478.



Source: International Yearbook of Education, Ethiopia, Vol. XXVIII, 1966 (Paris: UNESCO, 1967).

Figure 2. The administrative structure of the Ministry of Education.

provinces plus Addis Ababa as a unit by itself. In 1957, four Regional Provincial Offices were appointed, each responsible for the supervision of three provinces, thus dividing the country into four major administrative sections.[77]

The twelve provinces have local boards of education which prepare annual budgets for approval by the National Board of Education, and the local boards are also responsible for the collection of the education tax as well as the expenditures of the funds according to the approved budget.

Elementary education in Addis Ababa and secondary education in Addis Ababa as well as in the provinces are directly financed from the central government. No fees are charged for tuition in government schools. Books and other school materials are provided free of charge.

Supervision and Control

The Ministry of Education carried the responsibility for the administration, supervision and control with all regular government schools, as well as being charged with the supervision of all non-government schools.[78]

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[77] Mekonnen, op. cit., p. 223.

[78] UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Vol. I, Handbook of Education and Statistics (Paris: UNESCO, 1955), p. 245.

These responsibilities are carried out through the Ministry's Assistant Minister of School Administration whose responsibilities can be summarized in the following points--responsibility for:[79]

1. Directing and coordinating the operations of all government primary and secondary schools in accordance with the Ministry's policies.
2. Establishing and maintaining orderly channels of communication between the Ministry and the school system through provincial education officers and an Addis Ababa education officer.
3. The inspection of schools in order to secure compliance with Ministry's policies and the improvement of teaching standards.
4. The expediting of the provisions by Ministry departments of services, equipment, personnel and other requirements of the school system.

The departments under the Assistant Minister of Administration include inspection services, school health, adult education, arts and crafts, physical education and non-government schools. In each of the provinces, the Ministry's

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[79] Ibid.

supervision is exercised through a provincial education officer, who in turn has the assistance of inspectors attached to his office. The local inspectors are recruited from the teaching staff, and they are now required to attend a special one-year course before taking up their appointment.[80] This course is organized by the Department of School Administration at the Haile Selassie I University.

In carrying out their duties, the inspectors are expected to evaluate the work of each school and from their observation of the practices in other schools and their own experience, encourage the staff, ensure a satisfactory structure of instruction, and assist in the exchange of pedagogic and administrative ideas.[81]

Other departments within the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts are Educational Operation, Programming and Research and Fine Arts and Culture, each headed by an Assistant Minister.

According to modern research in the field of administration, it is not so much the structure of the organization

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[80] Ethiopia, Vol. XXVIII of the International Yearbook of Education, 1966 (Paris: UNESCO, 1967), pp. 120-21.

[81] UNESCO, World Survey of Education, op. cit., p. 352.

per se which is the most important factor to shape the character and influence the daily routine of the work, as it is the infra-structure and communication channels available and used by the people involved.

Due to the local situation and the special involvement of the Emperor in most phases of education, the system has a character of centralization. This form of administration of education in Ethiopia has been under attack from expatriates as well as national educators, politicians and students.[82]

A leading article in Ethiopia's weekly paper commented upon the reopening of the schools in 1945 by stating:

> . . . The schools are in the future all to be opened on the same day and to follow the same schedule and curriculum. Nor is education as we use the term, just plain nurture. It is a process which must be related to a definite purpose. Ethiopian education must be rooted, especially at this stage in the overriding purpose of the nation's self-development. It will be unrealistic, however, if the system embraced is so patterned as to produce men and women divorced from allegiance to their fatherland.[83]

According to Hampton, there may be situations in a nation's development when a centralized viewpoint and

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[82] C. Jeanen, "Education in Ethiopia," The Social Studies, XLVIII, No. 2 (November, 1957), 248.

[83] Ethiopian Herald, No. 22, October, 1945.

philosophy have to be enforced or implemented by authority, but the danger exists that the milieu for developing individuals with innovating views and opinions will not be present.[84]

During the period of development of Ethiopia in general and in the field of education in particular, the Emperor has been almost the sole innovator and implementor:

> . . . He has been the chief leader and designer in all reforms, but there is none into which he has put greater determination than into the building and rebuilding the educational system. His personal influence is so strong that if he must bear the responsibility for some of the possible mistakes of policy and administration which have been noted, he must also be given nearly all the credits for a very great achievement.[85]

In evaluating the educational administration in Ethiopia, Jaenen stated in 1957:

> Education is completely centralized in the Ministry of Education, whose chief job is to spend 12 percent of the national budget. The Emperor holds the portifolio of this key Ministry. Ministers are completely dependent upon the Crown and are afraid to initiate reforms or innovations without his approval and sometimes even without his insistence.[86]

Findings from research into bureaucratic and authoritative methods of administration like Weber's theory of bureaucracy seems to fit the Ethiopian situation in the way it is

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[84]David Hampton and C. Summer, Organizational Behavior and the Practice of Management (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Forsman, 1968), pp. 708-09.

[85]Perham, op. cit., p. 260.

[86]Jaenen, "Education in Ethiopia," op. cit.

described by Jaenen when he claims that:

> . . . Each official is afraid to delegate powers or authority for fear he would lose some prestige or prerogatives. Each official is afraid to launch new ideas or carry them out on his own for fear he should meet with failure, or else, even worse, outstanding success which would arouse the jealousy of some superior.
>
> There is an almost chronic addiction to rubber stamps, official permits with revenue stamps and the signatures of seven officials and registrations at several archives.[87]

Claims that responsible officials in education have little knowledge or experience of education themselves, that administrative positions are filled mostly by untrained personnel, and that the Ministry must carry on its work in an amateurish fashion is hardly of the same value today as it may have been in the past. Most of the graduates from the HSIU during the last decade have been employed by the government. The same is true about those coming back from studies in foreign countries. Statistics show that from 1956, 380 students graduated from the educational and administration section at the local university while 164 students, many with advanced degrees, came back from overseas universities during the same time.[88] Many of the younger generation administrators,

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[87] Ibid.

[88] School Census for Ethiopia, 1960/61 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1961), pp. 57-59.

most of them with advanced degrees from America in the field of Education, are found to be alert and open-minded toward innovation. They are among the first to admit that improvement within the administration is both desirable and urgent. In summarizing some of the shortcomings of the Ethiopian school system, Wodajo points out:

> A fourth shortcoming of the present system is the almost inevitable result of over-centralization. If the schools, highly centralized as they are, are employed to bring national unity and political consciousness to the various tribes of the country, care must be taken lest centralization would be abused to inculcate nationalism instead of genuine patriotism.[89]

A search for efficiency in educational planning and administration is not a problem confined to Ethiopia or Africa alone. There is an expression of an urgent need for administrative improvement in most of the civilized world.[90]

The fact that there is a schism between traditionalists and modern progressive viewpoints is hardly peculiar to Ethiopia, as such a situation may be found as part of the turmoil of changes taking place in developing countries.

One may have expected that Ethiopia, with her ancient

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[89] Mulugeta Wodajo, "Postwar Reforms in Education in Ethiopia," Comparative Education Review, II, No. 3 (February, 1959), 27.

[90] P. Selznick, Leadership in Administration (Evanstone, Ill.: Rone, Peterson, 1957), p. 9.

culture and centuries of political stability which has produced various governmental institutions, would have brought about a more marked character of a stabilized society in the field of civil as well as educational administration. "But, unfortunately, however, the country did not have the necessary trained personnel to exploit to the maximum the advantages of a stable society."[91]

Referring to studies of manpower needs, it is clear that there is still a need for trained personnel to staff positions within the central and local government.[92] The training of the new personnel will in return influence the machinery of administration.

FINANCING ETHIOPIAN EDUCATION

The financial burden for education in Ethiopia is divided between the provincial and national governments. Primary education is financed by the education tax which the provincial government collects. During the years 1956-1963, an average of E$4.5 million (E$ is used to signify

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[91] Mulugeta Wodajo, "Some Pressing Problems and the Role of Education in their Resolution," The Journal of Negro Education, XXXI (Summer, 1961), 236.

[92] Five-Year Plan for Economic Development, 1957-1961 (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1957), p. 189.

Ethiopian dollars) were raised annually through the educational tax, which represents about 25 per cent of the educational budget.[93]

Ethiopia receives international aid to supplement the educational program through two main sources: international agencies and through bilateral agreements with friendly countries.

THE DEMOGRAPHY OF ETHIOPIA

The following demographic data are considered pertinent for educational planning and analyses, according to UNESCO Planning Commission:[94]

1. A pyramid of the total population.
2. Population projections.
3. Economic structure of the population.
4. The ratio between urban and rural population.

The Lack of a Population Census in Ethiopia

In the Second Five-Year Plan published in 1962 by the Ethiopian government, it was revealed that no population

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[93] Imperial Ethiopian Government, Ethiopian Statistical Abstract, 1963 (Addis Ababa: Commercial Printing Press, 1963), p. 92.

[94] Elements of Educational Planning (Paris: UNESCO, 1963), pp. 17-18.

census had ever been conducted in Ethiopia.[95] A UNESCO bulletin (1965) indicated that UNESCO had no knowledge of a national census taken during the years 1955-1964.[96] Estimates of the population have been made in the past as indicated in the following statement by the Ministry of Information:

> . . . The population of Ethiopia, including Eritrea, is estimated to be a little over 23 million.
>
> Although no breakdown of age groups or sex ratio is available, there are estimated to be five percent more males than females in all Ethiopia.[97]

Shack reported in 1952 an abstract about a metropolitan population census in Addis Ababa where the capital had a population of 391,056 Ethiopians and 10,859 foreigners.[98] There were approximately 33 per cent more males than females, a fact which has to be attributed to labor migration. The median age group was twenty to twenty-four years and 13.8 per cent of the population were in this age group.

By 1963 the National Planning Board had completed a

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[95] Second Five-Year Development Plan, 1963-1967 (Addis Ababa: Berhanena Selam Printing Press, 1962), p. 52.

[96] United Nations Economics and Social Council, Population Commission 13th Session Bulletin (Paris: UNESCO, 1965), 1.

[97] Our Land, A Report prepared by the Ministry of Information (Addis Ababa: Berhanena Selam Printing Press, 1964), p. 21.

[98] William A. Shack (abstractor), and C. K. Wang, "The Population of Ethiopia's Metropolis," African Abstracts, IX (April, 1958), 57.

population census of twenty-one of the largest towns in Ethiopia.[99] The figures from these population studies will be referred to later when they will be applied as an approximation of the school age-groups for the national population in connection with the Addis Ababa Plan of 1961. The same planning board estimated that the population growth will increase from an estimated 1.6 per cent per annum in 1956 to 2.0 per cent by 1982. Table IV shows the growth of population as projected by the planners. References to a change in the economic structure of the population is also made by the National Planning Board. At present, about 90 per cent of the population are agrarian while the urban population is estimated to be 7.1 per cent of the national population. By 1981 the agricultural segment of the population is expected to be approximately 21.6 million or 70.2 per cent, and the non-agrarian population to be about 8.4 million or 28 per cent of the total population.[100]

Demographic Groups and Their Influence Upon Education

Of groups of people or institutions having direct

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[99] Ethiopian Statistical Abstracts, 1963, op. cit., pp. 24-30.

[100] Second Five-Year Development Plan, 1963-1967, op. cit., p. 59.

TABLE IV

GROWTH OF POPULATION PROJECTED,
1956/57-1982/83

Year	Population in millions	Rate of Growth
1956/57	19.4	---
1962/63	21.0	1.6
1967/68	23.0	1.8
1972/73	25.0	1.8
1977/78	27.0	2.0
1982/83	30.0	2.0

Source: Second Five-Year Development Plan, 1962-1967 (Addis Ababa: Berhanena Selam Printing Press, 1962), p. 58.

or indirect influence on educational planning, the central government through the leadership of the Emperor is the most influencial group as such. The Emperor has retained for himself the portfolio of the Minister of Education and Fine Arts. It has been through his efforts and encouragement that education has expanded. By the traditionalist elements in the society the Emperor is criticized for moving too fast, and by the modernistic elements for moving too slowly.[101]

The Emperor's close relationship to the Amhara-Tigrai culture may be evident in his educational policies. The fact that Amharic was designated as the national language and the language of instruction throughout Ethiopia, in spite of the fact that the Amharas constitute only 15 per cent of the total population, indicates that he has made education a principal instrument for the development of national unity through the Amharic culture.[102]

The Ethiopian Orthodox Church constitutes another group or faction with quite a heavy conservative influence upon educational progress and development. The Church schools, as previously mentioned, have served to indoctrinate the children in the principles of the faith of the Church and to

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[101] Lipsky, op. cit., p. 89.

[102] Ibid., pp. 89-91.

train the clergy. According to the modernistic view of education in Ethiopia, efforts on the part of the government to change the curriculum in these Church schools have been tried on several occasions, but have met great resistance from the Church.[103]

An attempt to introduce a revised Amharic alphabet in the interest of increasing literacy was successfully resisted by the Church.[104]

Foreign nations and international organizations are influencing Ethiopian education by grants, loans and educational services, UNESCO assistance is readily accepted, especially after the time of 1961 when a UNESCO survey revealed that Ethiopia was one of the most backward countries in Africa, contrary to the common belief among some of the influencial groups.[105] The British have influenced educational standards and curriculum for many years through educational personnel, the General Wingate School, the English School and the General Certificate of Education examination.

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[103] Ibid., p. 90.

[104] Ibid.

[105] Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa. Final Report (Paris: UNESCO/ED/181, 1961), p. 7.

America is channeling her influence mostly through the Peace Corps, agricultural education, advisory assistance in the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts and by providing about 60 per cent of the HSIU expenses. Most of the major political powers in the world have some kind of educational projects going on in Ethiopia.[106]

As the traditional attitude toward education changes, and modern viewpoints are more readily accepted, this does not take place without conflict.[107] As the roles of the nobility and the clergy in the traditional social structure are being modified to make room for more modern men and ideas, the process is not without conflict and unrest. While some of the clergy and nobility to a certain extent are resisting the development of modern education in Ethiopia, there is on the other side the younger generation and the college students who want fast and marked changes to take place.[108]

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[106] Lipsky, op. cit., pp. 92-99.

[107] Fiammetta Prota Kaypaghian, "A Study of Elementary School Girls Dropouts and Non-dropouts in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, Cambridge, 1960).

[108] Million Zemedhun, "Gross Cultural Distortion," The Ethiopian Herald, January 23, 1963.

SCHOOL POPULATION IN ETHIOPIA

The lack of a national census in Ethiopia with some of the problems it may inflict on the educational planner and analysist has already been mentioned. This problem is even more serious when an analysis of the Addis Ababa Plan of 1961 is to be attempted because of the fact that the targets for Africa as a continent as well as the educational goals for each individual country are given in percentage of school age-group population rather than in student enrollment. The absolute numbers of children enrolled in schools show variations which do not depend only on educational factors, but also on the increasing number of children of school age in the population. The enrollment, therefore, is not a comparable yardstick for the measurement of the educational development of the countries and territories of the world. One of the best indicators of a country's educational development is the percentage of school-age children actually attending school.

> . . . Since the proportion of children in the total population of different countries, or even at different times in the same country, can vary considerably as a result of demographic factors, ratios based on the estimated child population are in any case better suited for comparison than enrollment figures either in absolute

numbers or expressed as a percentage of the total population.[109]

Because the length of primary education may vary from five to eight years, the adjusted age-group of five to fourteen years, will be the total amount of children within the age-group adjusted to .5, .6, or .8, according to the country's educational structure. The percentage of age-group then, not only gives a clearer picture of the educational situation in the individual country, but it also gives a more logical base for comparisons between the different countries as well as a more comprehendable measure for tracing the progress made toward short- and long-term targets.

According to experiences in other developing countries where a national census has been taken for the first time quite recently, the previous estimates have proved to be rather conservative, and this may also prove to be the case in Ethiopia when the first national census will be conducted, hopefully, some time in the 1970's.[110]

Due to the lack of a national census in Ethiopia,

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[109] UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Vol. III, Secondary Education (Paris: UNESCO, 1961), p. 18.

[110] UNESCO, Demographic Yearbook (Paris: UNESCO, 1963), pp. 142-43.

an approximation of the population age-groups for primary and secondary levels will be attempted from a population census made by the Central Statistical Office of the twenty-one major towns including the provincial capitals in Ethiopia. The validity of a calculation of a nation-wide age-group percentage based on these figures may still be argued, but until a national census has been taken, such an approximation may be the closest one can come to the actual fact.

The urban survey referred to in Table V was done by the Central Statistic Office's permanent staff of field enumerators during the rainy seasons of 1960 and 1961 when work in the agricultural areas cannot continue. In the introduction to the study it is stated that it is considered to have a high degree of completeness of coverage, and sampler results in all towns were satisfactory.[111]

The study reveals an age-group percentage for the primary and junior secondary levels of 24 for the age-group of five/fourteen years and 9.2 for the age-group of fifteen/nineteen years. Compared with neighboring countries such as Kenya and Uganda where a more reliable national census has

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[111] Central Statistical Office, Statistical Abstract (Addis Ababa: Central Statistical Office, 1963), pp. 24-30.

TABLE V

POPULATION OF TWENTY-ONE MAJOR TOWNS IN ETHIOPIA BY AGE-GROUPS

	Total population	Population 5-14 years	Per cent of total pop.	Population 15-19 years	Per cent of total pop.
Addis Ababa	443,728	87,682	19.8	41,964	9.5
Adwa	12,450	3,830	30.8	1,330	10.7
Aspe Teferi	7,080	2,030	28.7	610	8.6
Asela	13,360	3,220	24.1	1,210	9.1
Asmara	137,720	35,640	25.8	16,220	11.8
Axum	13,380	3,740	27.9	1,130	8.4
Bahir Dar	11,990	2,080	18.2	1,510	12.6
Debre Marcos	20,720	4,940	23.8	1,660	8.0
Debre Zeit	21,220	4,800	22.6	1,700	8.0
Dessie	39,080	9,210	23.6	3,260	8.3
Dilla	10,860	2,330	21.5	1,070	9.9
Dire Dawa	48,810	11,720	24.0	4,470	9.4
Ghion	8,300	2,110	25.4	710	8.6
Gondar	29,570	7,220	24.3	2,910	9.8
Hagere Hiwot	7,870	1,970	25.0	580	7.5
Harar	41,150	9,910	24.0	3,570	8.7
Jima	29,420	6,490	22.1	2,450	8.3
Lekemt	12,210	2,730	22.4	1,100	9.0
Mekele	22,230	5,350	24.1	2,390	10.8
Soddo	10,430	2,560	24.5	890	8.5
Yirgalem	10,320	2,410	23.4	830	8.0
Average			24.0		9.2

Source: Statistical Abstract (Addis Ababa: Central Statistical Office, 1963), pp. 24-30.

been attempted, these figures seem to be within a fair range of probability. In estimating the total school-age population for thirty-two countries in Africa in 1960, UNESCO applied the following age-group percentages to the total population:[112]

Years	Level of education	Applied percentage to total pop.
5-14 years	Primary	25
15-19 years	Secondary	10

These estimates were made prior to the population census taken of the twenty-one towns in Ethiopia and applied in this study to a nation-wide estimate for Ethiopia. The differences of 1 per cent for the primary and 0.8 per cent for the secondary age-group population can probably not be considered very significant.

In the case of Ethiopia where the first level education was of eight years duration, the adjusted age-group population percentage will be: age-group percentage divided by years included in the age-group times the amount of years included in the level of education in question, or 24/10 x 8. Thus for the first level the age-group percentage will be 19.2. The same

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[112] UNESCO, World Survey of Education, op. cit., p. 36.

calculation with figures for the second level results in an adjusted age-group population percentage of 7.4.

An application of the age-group percentages of 19.2 and 7.4 to the estimated total population as estimated in the Addis Ababa Plan of 1961 will give the following school age-group population for the short- and long-range targets as seen in Table VI.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the development of the Ethiopian school system was traced in order to give a background to the study and an understanding of the different types of schools making up the educational system, as well as knowledge about the social forces influencing the educational development in Ethiopia.

The traditional education in Ethiopia which has been in the hands of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church from the fifth or sixth century A.D. has been losing ground since the first government schools were established in the beginning of the 1920's and since the later establishment of the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts in 1943. Because of the conservative attitude of the Church schools, they did not develop into "cathedral" schools of secondary and higher learning as in European countries, but served rather their own narrow

TABLE VI

AGE-GROUP POPULATION FOR SHORT- AND LONG-RANGE TARGETS IN ETHIOPIA

	1962 1963	1967 1968	1972 1973	1977 1978	1982 1983
Estimated total population in millions*	21.0	23.0	25.0	27.0	30.0
Primary age-group population, 5-14 years, in millions	4.03	4.42	4.80	5.18	5.76
Secondary age-group population, 15-19 years, in millions	1.55	1.70	1.85	1.99	2.22

*From Table IV, p. 97.

interests. The Church schools have been reluctant and slow in adopting the Ministry's curriculum for elementary schools, and many of these schools are still operating in the traditional way and have inbedded in them some of the oldest traditions in Ethiopian culture.

The mission schools were operating in Ethiopia before the government schools were established and for decades they were the only alternative to the Church schools, and in many ways offered a more progressive form of education.

The private schools serve, for the most part, certain national groups, such as the English, German or Italian community. However, they not only accept Ethiopian students, they are rather eager to have them enrolled.

The community school is the latest development within the school structure, and these schools were expected to be the center for community development in rural areas.

Modern education can be said to have been initiated after the Italian occupation, and during the following decade, an Anglo-Saxon influence upon the development of the educational system was quite penetrating, counteracting the pre-war French domination.

The 1940's was a period of "urgent improvisation" in order to meet the pressing needs and demands facing the

government in the task of reconstructing all levels and sectors of administration after the Italian occupation. This period was followed by a time of consolidation during the 1950's and a period of long-range planning in the 1960's.

The administration of Ethiopian education can be labeled authocratic and centralized, with little or no direct influence by the people. The three most influential demographic groups are the Emperor and the royal family, the people in the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, and the Ethiopian Orthodox Church.

About 90 per cent of the population is occupied in a subsistant agriculture which shows a slow rate of growth, even if it contributes about two-thirds to the country's annual income.

Because there exists no national population census in Ethiopia, the figures applied for the age-group population estimation were those arrived at by a study of the population census from twenty-one major towns in Ethiopia carried out by the Central Statistical Office in Addis Ababa. The age-group population percentage thus arrived at differed insignificantly from previous estimates made by UNESCO of the age-group population in Ethiopia and neighboring countries.

CHAPTER IV

IDENTIFICATION OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AS EXPRESSED IN DEVELOPMENT PLANS

A TEN-YEAR PLAN FOR THE CONTROLLED EXPANSION OF ETHIOPIAN EDUCATION, 1953-1963

Following an Educational and Technical Assistance Agreement between the Ethiopian government and the government of the United States, the Point IV Educational Advisory Group arrived in Ethiopia in 1953.[1] This marked the beginning of a long period of educational planning with forecasts up to 1982 and is also considered to be the forerunner of the Addis Ababa Plan of 1961.

One of the major contributions of this Advisory Group was the recommendation of a long-range plan for education which developed into A Ten Year Plan for the Controlled Expansion of Ethiopian Education. A Long-Term Planning

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[1] A Ten Year Plan for the Controlled Expansion of Ethiopian Education (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1955), p. iv.

Committee was appointed by the Vice-Minister of Education in October, 1953.[2]

The committee consisted of officials from the Ministry of Education, some school directors, administration officials from educational institutions, and some Point IV representatives. The committee met more than one hundred times and prepared three reports which were to be the guidelines for educational development in Ethiopia for the next ten years. The third report published in June, 1955 included all the recommendations of the previous two reports and presented the final report entitled, A Ten Year Plan for the Controlled Expansion of Ethiopian Education.

In its study and evaluation of the Ethiopian educational system, the committee states:

> The Committee believes that a study of the data now presented will show that, in the effort to satisfy Ethiopia's great need for competent administrators and professional personnel, the higher education levels have been encouraged to develop and to expand more rapidly than the vitally important lower levels.
>
> Year by year it has become increasingly difficult to secure a sufficient number of qualified candidates to enter secondary school and college programs.
>
> Moreover, with the present vertical organization of the school system it has not been possible to meet the growing demand for education from all parts of the

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[2] Ibid., p. 11.

Empire. In order to supply qualified candidates for higher education, some expansion of the elementary school system is essential. The expansion of this system should be so organized as to bring educational opportunity to a constantly increasing proportion of the Ethiopian people.[3]

The principal objectives of the Long-Term Plan can be summarized in four points:

1. The educational program should be adapted to the need of the country.
2. The educational opportunity should be made available to an ever-wider constituency.
3. A sufficient number of students should be selected and trained to man the government services and the rapidly developing industrial and commercial institutions.
4. The general standard and qualifications of those engaged in Ethiopian education should be improved.[4]

The following are some of the most important findings and recommendations made by the Committee relevant to this study.[5]

Elementary education:

1. The beginning classes were extremely overcrowded. More

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[3] Ibid., p. xv.

[4] Ibid., p. xvi.

[5] Ibid., pp. 37-42.

than 50 per cent of the students dropout from grade one to two, and more than 80 per cent of those beginning in grade one had dropped out by the end of grade four.

2. Standards for teachers' qualifications were low.

3. The curriculum was not adapted to the country or to realities of Ethiopian rural life; it was very bookish in character and very academic, geared to an academic secondary school system.

Recommendations:

1. The Ministry must concentrate on strengthening the elementary school and thereby stop the flow of dropouts. Before opening new schools, the Ministry must put some flesh around the existing skeletons.

2. The academic and professional standard of teachers must be raised by: (a) not hiring new teachers who do not have the equivalent of a grade eight schooling and a teachers certificate; and (b) giving teachers in service, who do not meet the requirements, six years to upgrade themselves through inservice training programs.

3. The adaptation of the elementary school system to the Ethiopian needs and to reach the Ethiopian people would be accomplished through: (a) the new community schools, which would give a basic four year education; (b) schools

designed to give every individual in the Empire a sufficient command of Amharic and other basic skills; and (c) community schools which are to be the center through which the various efforts of the government to improve the life of the community should be channeled.

Secondary education:

1. Sufficient secondary schools existed to serve the post-elementary student body with the desired qualifications for secondary studies.
2. Students entering grade nine were not all of secondary school calibre.
3. Less than 10 per cent of the teachers at the secondary level were Ethiopians.
4. The curriculum was foreign to Ethiopians and geared towards a foreign examination. The same could therefore be said about the textbooks and other teaching materials.

Recommendations:

1. In order to avoid duplication of efforts and courses, a coordination of plans for developing higher institutions of learning is needed.
2. The standard of admission to the academic section should be raised in order to control the increase of grade nine students.

3. More students should be guided into vocational secondary schools.
4. A four-year college program should be started in order to train nationals to take over as teachers and administrators in the secondary schools.

Out of the studies made by the Long-Term Planning Commission for Ethiopian Education grew the need for a more comprehensive planning for the whole country including social and economic as well as educational aspects. In this respect the development in Ethiopia was similar to what had happened in other African countries. Referring to Tunisia at the time of independence, a whole host of concurrent problems confronted the leaders and in particular problems of education and training. Quite soon, planning in education turned out to be an essential undertaking, even before the government had decided in favour of economic planning. When the establishment of the economic plan was begun in 1961, the ten-year plan of education of 1958 had to be revised completely and adapted to the conclusions of the indices of the economic plan.[6]

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[6] Report on the United Nations Conference on Application of Science and Technology for Development, Vol. VI, Education and Training (New York: United Nations, 1963), p. 31.

This topical approach to educational planning, that is, rejecting the totality of the overall social process and focusing on an isolated problem, leads to a partial planning of the school apparatus by itself as though it did not function as a system. According to Abrew, this is educational planning divorced from a dialectical conception of the overall social process and one of the pitfalls into which many educational planners for developing countries have fallen.[7] This was the pitfall into which the Long-Term Planning Commission had fallen and with some grave consequences for the future of Ethiopian education. Some of the plans for controlled expansion of education became more or less useless or ineffective because they lacked the social and economic framework within which the development had to take place. This framework was established with the First Five-Year Plan that took shape in 1957, but the question to be answered is to what extent was the educational plan which was already made, adapted to the new economic and social perspectives?

THE FIRST FIVE-YEAR PLAN, 1957 - 1962

This plan was the first document of an overall educational, economic, and social plan for Ethiopia. It came at

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[7] Ibid., p. 40.

a time when other countries in Africa were analyzing their potentials and economical needs, as many had just gained their independence while others were preparing for it. The plan was prepared by the Planning Board of the Ethiopian Government and its foreign advisers, and it represents the first stage program in the development of a modern economy in Ethiopia.[8] The plan set for the following basic targets:

1. To give priority to the development of the infrastructure which represents a prerequisite for accelerating economic growth.
2. To raise the quality of education and to devote attention to the training of technical personnel for the implementation of the five-year program.
3. To accelerate the development of agriculture, which represents the major sector of the national community and contributes the greatest part to exports and to industrial raw material.
4. To establish processing industries for the abundant supplies of domestic raw materials and for the requirement of the domestic market.
5. To direct economic and particularly financial policy

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[8] Second Five-Year Development Plan (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1962), p. 40.

toward mobilizing financial and human resources for economic development.[9]

The investment policy anticipated for the First Five-Year Plan was determined by the targets of economic and social development. The investment anticipated within the different sectors for the First Five-Year Plan were as stated below:[10]

Section	Investment for the period	Percentage of total allocation
Transport and Communication	E$240 million	35.6
Agriculture and Forestry	E$182 million	27.0
Industry	E$138 million	20.5
Education, Health and Community	E$57 million	8.5

The estimated increase of the national income for the First Five-Year Plan amounted to 16 per cent which is equal to an annual rate of growth of 3.7 per cent. The extension of the internal market was one of the basic aims of the plan. The plan envisaged the following development:[11]

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[9] Ibid., pp. 40-41.

[10] Ibid., p. 40.

[11] Ibid.

Year	Export	Import
1957	E$181.9 million	E$170.5 million
1961	E$227.8 million	E$207.3 million
Increase	25.2 per cent	21.5 per cent

The increase in the national income for the three years previous to the First Five-Year Plan had been from 2-2.5 per cent per annum, while the target for the Plan was set for 3.2 per cent per annum increase.

The educational section of the First Five-Year Plan was more or less a resume of the Long-Term Plan, and it embodied most of the recommendations prepared by the Long-Term Plan Commission of 1954. The only case where a revision of the Long-Term Plan was made dealt with vocational training. Here the Planning Board set more precise targets for the years 1957-1961 based on more scientific estimates for manpower needs and in line with the basic policies of the national plan.

Regarding the over-expansion of the higher levels of education, the First Five-Year Plan made the same observation for a planned controlled expansion:

> Although the advance in education made during the last fifteen years is significant, it appears nevertheless that considerable waste could have been avoided with better planning and coordination.
>
> This is especially in evidence in the lack of sufficient coordinated and balanced group of each and every level in the school system with respect to all other levels. Since the overall available resources were limited, more provisions for the secondary and higher institutions meant less provision for primary schools. The result

was that the secondary schools and institutions of higher learning are not working at full capacity. The present student capacity at the upper level far exceeds the current flow of students from the lower levels qualified for admission to the upper levels.[12]

This meant that the school system had continued to enlarge the second and third level without expanding the first level in proportion. The Planning Board realized that a further expansion of the educational system would be relative to more financial resources, and a plan for a revision of the system for financing education was worked out in a recommendation containing the following points:[12]

1. A revision of the inadequate and unproductive education tax, based on ownership and fertility of land.
2. A proposed equalization plan for better distribution of educational opportunities.
3. A plan to obtain an education tax from urban owners, who with the present system were having better education but contributing nothing.[13]

THE ADDIS ABABA PLAN, 1961-1982

During the year 1961 a very interesting situation

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[12] First Five-Year Plan of Economic Development, 1957-1961 (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1957), p. 189.

[13] Ibid.

in Ethiopian educational planning developed. As the country was coming to the end of the First Five-Year Plan, the Second Five-Year Plan was to be initiated as the first period of a long-range twenty-year plan running from 1961 to 1981. At this time there were many African countries which started to show interest in short- as well as long-term planning for educational and economic development. The Addis Ababa Conference grew out of UNESCO's Eleventh General Conference's resolution to focus in a determined way on African education. The Conference was African run and held on African soil with forty-three African States represented, most of them by their Minister of Education. Delegates from Europe and the United States were present, as well as ten UN agencies and twenty-four international non-governmental organizations.[14]

The objectives of the Conference covered a wide scope in the field of education, and they can be summarized by the following points:

1. To provide a forum for African States to discuss educational priorities.
2. To formulate short- and long-term targets.
3. To estimate the cost of the short- and long-term targets

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[14]Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Final Report (Paris: UNESCO, 1961).

and estimate the national resources available as well as the estimated proportion of outside help required.

4. To underscore education as a basic investment in Africa's economic and social development.[15]

As a point of departure for the short- and long-term quantitative targets set by the Conference they had the statistics of population and pupil census estimates worked out by the UNESCO Statistics Division for the years 1957/58 and 1959/60 (see Appendix E). Out of forty African countries listed and attending the Conference, Ethiopia was estimated to have 3.3 per cent of the primary school-age population and 0.5 per cent of the secondary level school-age population enrolled in the respective school systems. These figures put Ethiopia in thirty-ninth place for primary enrollment and in thirty-seventh place for the secondary schools, or next to the lowest in the range if primary and secondary levels were to be considered as a total. Except for Niger, Ethiopia had the lowest starting point of all the African States at the time of the planning period of the Addis Ababa Plan. A verification of the validity of these estimates has been established by applying Harbison's "composite index" in rating the level of human resource development in developing

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[15] Ibid., p. 19.

countries.

By using the following seven measures in his statistical analysis, Harbison arrived at a so-called figure of "composite index."[16]

1. Number of teachers, first and second level, per 10,000 population.
2. Number of engineers and scientists per 10,000 population.
3. Physicians and dentists per 10,000 population.
4. Number of pupils enrolled at first level (primary) education as a percentage of the estimated population age-group five-fourteen years.
5. The adjusted school enrollment ratios for the first and second levels combined.
6. Number of pupils enrolled at second level (secondary) education as a percentage of the estimated population age-group fifteen-nineteen years.
7. Number of students enrolled at third level (higher) education as percentage of the age-group twenty to twenty-four years.

In ranging the "composite index" for seventy-two countries, of which forty were African countries, Niger, with

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[16]Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth (McGraw-Hill: New York, 1964), p. 27.

a "composite index" of 0.3, is lowest on the list, followed by Ethiopia with 0.75.[17] The two countries in question were placed by Harbison in the same relation to one another as well as to the total picture of all the African states as had been the case in the UNESCO study some years earlier. This indicates that Ethiopia is not only a developing country, but rather one of the countries lagging in educational development. In the case of Ethiopia, the Addis Ababa Conference was both revealing and challenging when the continental goals for Africa total were set. As mentioned already, this was the first time the percentage of age-group enrollment was applied as a common measure when the short- and long-range targets were set, as indicated in Table VII. Incorporated in the Proposed Plan for Development of Education in Africa was the goal to enroll 100 per cent of the primary-age children by 1980. While the percentage of secondary enrollment as part of the total school enrollment was decreasing, the actual secondary enrollment was supposed to increase from 9 per cent of the age-group population in 1965 to 23 per cent by 1980.

The progress of the educational development according to the Addis Ababa Plan was based on certain short- and

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[17] Ibid.

TABLE VII

TARGETS FOR SCHOOL ATTENDANCE FOR AFRICA AS A WHOLE SET AT THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE, 1961

Level of education	Age group	Enrollment in Percentage				
		1961	1965	1968	1973	1981
Primary schools	5-14	40	51	60	71	100
Secondary schools	15-19	3	9	12	15	23
Higher education	20-24	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	2.0

Source: Conference of African States on Development of Education in Africa, Final Report (Paris: UNESCO, 1961).

long-term hypothesis indicated in Table VIII.

This hypothesis was worked out by the Commission seeking to define the cost basis set for the short- and long-term targets. In addition to the already expressed "desired averages" for the enrollments, this hypothesis expresses a "desired average" for other factors that will influence the trend of the educational development.

The average projected percentage of the GNP to be spent on education in order to meet the cost for the targets were as follows:[18]

Year	Percentage of GNP
1961	3.9
1962	4.2
1963	5.0
1964	5.5
1965	6.5
1967	7.0
1972	8.0

The UNESCO reports were now revealing to the African countries in general and to Ethiopia in particular that the educational progress in post-war Ethiopia was comparatively slow. Educational achievements in other African countries had quantitatively been much more impressive and had left

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[18]Final Report, op. cit., p. 25.

TABLE VIII

BASIC HYPOTHESIS FOR THE SHORT- AND LONG-RANGE TARGETS OF THE ADDIS ABABA PLAN, 1961

Hypothesis	Short-term, 1967	Long-term, 1982
First Level		
Annual increase of age-group enrollment	5%	100%
Maximum wastage for each year and each class	10%	
Student/teacher ratio	40-45	35
Teacher qualification		
Second level ed. + 3 yrs T.T.	10%	45%
First level ed. + 4 yrs T.T.	45%	45%
First level ed. + 2 yrs T.T.	45%	10%
Second Level		
Wastage of total enrollment	15%	10%
Ratio of enrollment as per cent of first level enrollment	12%	
Ratio of enrollment as per cent of students completing first level		30%
Ratio of enrollment academic/vocational/technical	85:15	80:20
Third Level		
Percentage of second level graduates to go on	20%	20%
Ratio of enrollment in faculty of humanities/sciences	40:60	40:60

Source: Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Final Report (Paris: UNESCO, 1961), pp. 21-22.

Ethiopia far behind. It may be that the facts brought to light at the Conference came as a shock to Ethiopian educators, political scientists and economists. Criticism of earlier national policies, referring to priorities of national defense and internal security above educational development, was reported at the time.[19]

It is important to note that the Addis Ababa Plan was not expected to be applied to each of the member states without any discrimination. The Plan was a set of regional data with targets of desirable averages. With the wide spread of educational accomplishment in the past, as pointed out in Appendix E, some countries may already have reached the desired average at one level while having a long way to go in order to reach the targets within another level of education.

> While the enrollment targets of 100 per cent for primary education may seem difficult to achieve for certain countries, it still remains a desirable goal as far as it is the statistical expression of the right to education which no government would wish or could afford to ignore. It seems therefore that the Addis

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[19] Proposed Plan for the Development of Education in Ethiopia. A Report based upon the recommendation of the ECA-UNESCO sponsored Conference of African States held in Addis Ababa, May 1961, and submitted by the Board of Education Study Committee (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, August, 1961), p. 5.

Ababa Plan should be kept as a general framework.[20]

Each individual government was expected to establish its own targets, using the hypothesis and methodology on which the Addis Ababa Plan was based. It would also be incumbent on the member states to establish their own priorities in the light of their economic and social requirements and conditions and their respective educational priorities.[21]

The Ministry of Education in Ethiopia responded very quickly, and in August, 1961, three months after the Conference had adjourned, a Study Committee, appointed by the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, proposed a plan for the development of education in Ethiopia, based on the target recommendations of the UNESCO Report.[22] The Study Committee did not set the targets as high as the desired average proposed by UNESCO because the government's Planning Board wanted still a controlled expansion of education as stated in the First Five-Year Plan and repeated in the Second Five-Year Plan which was under construction at that time. The drive of the post-war years "education at all cost" seemed

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[20]Conference on Education and Scientific and Technical Training in Relation to the Development in Africa, Mairobi, 1968, Final Report (Paris: UNESCO, 1968), p. 11.

[21]Ibid.

[22]Ibid., p. 9.

to have been replaced absolutely by the philosophy of a more calculated approach of the economists and educational planner. The priorities as expressed in the Second Five-Year Plan were restated, and together with the Third Five-Year Plan it became the Ethiopian practical version of the Addis Ababa Plan, adjusted to the local priorities. For the first time in Ethiopia's history her educational endeavours would not only be followed with keen interest among other African nations, but her quantitative progress also would be evaluated and compared at the international market.

A NEW LONG-TERM ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PLAN, 1962-1982

At the time of the review of the First Five-Year Plan and at the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan, the Planning Board felt that the results of the First Plan had brought into the Ethiopian economy some new components which to them indicated that the new tasks to be carried out in the course of the coming five years ought to be a part of a long-term plan of twenty years.

In planning for the Second Five-Year Plan, targets and resources had to be approached as a part of a Twenty-Year Plan in order to assess properly the immediate and prospective targets, and to allocate the resources in an optimum

sequence.[23] An outline of the long-term plan is given in Table IX and shows an expected average rate of growth of 5.0 per cent for the five successive Five-Year Plans.

THE SECOND FIVE-YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLAN, 1962-1967

As the Second and Third Five-Year Development Plans will be the framework within which the educational development will take place up to the year 1982, the major objectives and targets will be investigated and related to the short- and long-term targets of the Addis Ababa Plan in order to assess not only the quantitative growth and the contributions to the growth by the different types of schools but also to find out to what extent Ethiopia has been able to reach the desired averages for the African countries. The impact of the Addis Ababa Conference on the development of Ethiopian education can be stated in the following hypothesis: Even if the Ethiopian government did not set their educational targets equal to UNESCO desired averages, these averages had an accelerating influence upon the educational growth and development for the next decade.

Agriculture was estimated to remain the leading

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[23] The Second Five-Year Plan, op, cit., p. 171.

TABLE IX

EXPECTED GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT OVER THE FIVE, FIVE-YEAR PLANS PERIOD

Plan	Ethiopian dollars in millions	Index first plan	Rate of growth	Rate of growth per capita
First Five-Year Plan, 1956/61	2,130	100	3.4	1.8
Second Five-Year Plan, 1962/67	2,632	112	4.3	2.5
Third Five-Year Plan, 1968/73	3,310	155	4.7	2.8
Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1974/79	4,270	200	5.2	3.5
Fifth Five-Year Plan, 1980/85	5,650	265	5.8	3.8
Average for the whole period			5.0	3.1

Source: The Second Five-Year Development Plan (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1962), p. 172.

economic activity and would still give the largest contribution to the increase in national production, in spite of its moderate rate of growth. According to the estimates of the Planning Office, the growth of the gross domestic production during the period in question, 1962-1967, would increase from E$2,130 million to E$2,632 million. The average rate of growth of the domestic economy was estimated at 4.3 per cent per annum. The gross national product, which includes the economic relations with the rest of the world, was estimated to increase from E$2,166 million to E$2,718 million for the respective years, at an average rate of 4.6 per cent per annum.

According to the priorities adopted by the Second Five-Year Plan, the growth of the various sectors of economy and social services has been estimated as shown in Table X. In spite of the slow growth of agriculture, which is a consequence of the prevailing subsistance sector, its contribution to the gross domestic product was the largest, and it was expected to contribute almost one-third of the five-year national product increment. Summarizing the financial aspect of the Second Five-Year Plan, the Planning Board stated quite optimistically:

TABLE X

GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT PROJECTION FOR THE SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN*

Sector	1956	1961	1966	1961**	Rate of Growth 1961-66
Agriculture	1,328.0	1,453.6	1,632.3	112	2.3
Forestry	18.3	23.3	28.1	121	3.8
Fishing and hunting	1.1	1.8	2.9	161	10.1
Mining	1.0	1.4	11.6	829	52.6
Power	4.4	7.4	18.2	243	19.4
Handicrafts	60.9	77.0	93.1	121	3.9
Manufacturing	24.7	34.9	116.7	334	27.3
Building and construction	24.2	44.5	72.4	163	10.2
Transport and communication	69.7	109.3	151.1	138	6.7
Trade and commerce	110.3	136.1	171.1	126	4.7
Tourism	20.8	25.0	33.2	133	5.8
	10.5	15.4	26.6	137	11.6
Education	11.2	28.0	48.0	171	11.3
Health	6.0	14.0	22.5	161	10.0
Community development	---	0.9	7.4	822	42.8
Other services	2.3	4.9	6.0	123	4.1
Government	63.3	95.4	119.4	128	4.6
Housing	19.6	25.8	35.4	137	6.5
Others	26.0	31.6	36.0	114	2.6
Gross domestic product	1,802.3	2,130.4	2,632.0	123	4.3
Rest of the world	-30.1	+35.4	+85.5	---	---
Gross national product	1,770.2	2,165.8	2,717.5	125	4.6

*In millions of Ethiopian dollars; 1960 prices.

**Index year.

Source: Second Five-Year Development Plan (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1962), p. 77.

> The rate of growth of all industries and social services will grow and diversify. The rate of growth of all industries and social services over the next five year period will be higher than during any other period in the past. The development trend which began in the course of the First Five Year Plan will continue and be accelerated.[24]

Introducing the section about education in the Second Five-Year Plan, the Planning Board stated:

> Further elaboration of the educational system in Ethiopia calls for a selection of priorities. Consequently, emphasis should be laid on those forms and types of education and training which will open the most efficient means for achieving the development targets set forth in the Second Plan.[25]

The idea of control and selectivity was expressed as strongly in the Second Plan as in the First Plan, but for the first time in an educational plan for Ethiopia one found expressed the serious hamper which the lack of a population census was to making a precise evaluation of the general education level of the population and to the structuring of the needed manpower with respect to technical education and levels of skill.[26] The Planning Board did not find it within its framework to go further into the problem of a national census, but it can be pointed out that it did

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[24] Second Five-Year Development Plan (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1962), p. 79.

[25] Ibid., p. 258.

[26] Ibid.

recognize the need for this kind of a census in order to have a firmer foundation for educational plans in the future. As pointed out in Chapter III, there is still no nation-wide population census taken in Ethiopia, but by using figures from the population census for twenty larger towns, it has been possible to make a somewhat reliable estimate of the age-group population. Hopefully, the next decade may produce a complete population census for Ethiopia.

According to the Planning Board, the following were the basic principles which must underlie the necessary adjustments and elaborations of the existing educational system in Ethiopia.[27]

1. The educational system has to emphasize strongly the priority of technical education for industry, agriculture, and other economic activities.
2. General academic education, instead of being excessively developed in comparison with technical education, has to be properly balanced in order to become a necessary link in the educational system and thus contribute fully to the advancement of national economy.

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[27] Ibid., pp. 263-65.

3. The length of studies, hours of work and the educational program must be adjusted to ensure the fastest turnout of qualified personnel with the desired educational levels and standards.

4. The various forms for vocational training which are most suitable for fast and efficient training of skilled and semi-skilled manpower to meet the demand of the growing economy must be given fullest attention, applied on as large a scale as possible, and organized with regard to timing.

5. In financing this comprehensive educational program, the principles of most efficient use of the available material resources and the teaching staff must be strictly adhered to, including the community and local population contributing money, materials, and voluntary labor for construction of schoolbuildings, generally supplemented by government assistance.

6. To enable the system of general education to import more technical knowledge and skill and thus increase the productive capacity of those who will seek employment after leaving the primary school, as well as to contribute to the advancement of production and level of living in the countryside, it is necessary to introduce more

technical and vocational training into the curriculum of primary school.

THE THIRD FIVE-YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLAN, 1968-1973

The major goals of the Third Five-Year Plan comprise the following areas:

1. The fastest possible growth and development of the economy as a whole with a projected growth rate of 6 per cent.
2. A steady and perceptible rise in the real standard of living in terms of higher per capita income, which should expand on the average by over 3 per cent.
3. An enlargement of the educational base of the population with special attention to the provisions of the skills required by the various sectors.
4. A gradual improvement in the distribution of real income and increase earning opportunities among the different sections of the people and the various regions of the country.[28]

The priority of education during the Third Five-Year Plan is stated very clearly in the introduction to the educational section of the plan:

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[28] Third Five-Year Development Plan, 1961-1965, E.C. (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1968), pp. 35-36.

> . . . It is only through education that the necessary preparation for productive participation in the economic process can be obtained. It is thus clear that from every point of view education is an absolute priority for the Third Five Year Plan, just as it was for the Second Plan. Indeed it will always remain a paramount objective of Ethiopian development.[29]

The intention of the government to support the vital sector of education during the planned period may be revealed in the projected budget for the development of education, where the recurring expenditures are projected to increase from E$73.3 million in 1968 to E$125.6 million in 1973, with a growth rate of 13.9 per cent.

The educational needs expressed in the Plan can be summarized as follows:

1. To provide educational opportunities for an increased number of people, and primarily for the rural population.
2. To provide an educational system within which a more modern scientific outlook on life can be created which will at the same time be in harmony with Ethiopia's ancient cultural traditions.
3. To provide an educational system within which children and youth will come to know more about their country and opportunities that exist to participate in its

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[29] Ibid., p. 290.

development.

4. To provide an educational system with maximum upward mobility to the end that an ever larger proportion of youth are offered opportunities for higher education and high level training.

5. To place appropriate emphasis on the quality of education so that the young people may better appreciate and more properly fulfill their tasks of nation-building.[30]

The Plan does not contain any new points of view or educational philosophy, but rather affirms the objectives already stated in the Second Plan.

In the Third Plan as well as in the Second Plan, the Ethiopian government was appealing to the non-government schools to play their part in reaching the targets of the Plan: "It is hoped that the non-government schools at both levels will also undertake expansion and improvement programs."[31]

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[30] Ibid., pp. 295-96.

[31] Ibid.

SUMMARY

A Ten-Year Plan for the Controlled Expansion of Education in Ethiopia, 1953-1963

The first long-range educational plan for Ethiopia was initiated in 1953 with representatives from the Point IV Educational Advisory Group on the Long-Term Planning Committee appointed by the Vice-Minister of Education.

This was a topical approach to educational planning which in fact is a rejection of the totality of the overall social process and focusing on an isolated problem, which in this case was the school apparatus. Because this kind of educational planning is divorced from a logical conception of the overall social process taking place in developing countries, some of the recommendations made by the Planning Committee did not materialize.

Recommendations made by the Planning Committee stressed the need for: (a) an educational program adapted to the needs of the country; (b) educational opportunity to be made available to an ever wider constituency with special reference to a larger enrollment of girls; (c) improved standards of teachers; (d) controlled enrollment in secondary schools by stricter standards for acceptance; (e) introducing the community school as a means of reaching the rural parts

of Ethiopia; (f) establishing a four-year college; (g) curbing the flow of dropouts; and (h) increasing the technical/vocational training.

The First Five Year Development Plan, 1956-1961

As the Planning Committee proceeded with their work, they felt a need for a wider social and economic framework within which the educational planning could be constructed, and this framework was provided in the form of five Five-Year Development Plans, the first beginning in 1957.

The educational recommendations within this Plan were more or less a repetition of those stated in the Ten-Year Plan with the exception of the section dealing with the vocational and technical training, where more definite targets were set based upon approximations of manpower needs. In addition, it was recommended that more attention ought to be devoted to the training of technical personnel and to the development of agriculture.

The Addis Ababa Plan, 1961-1981

The Addis Ababa Conference in 1961 grew out of UNESCO's Eleventh General Conference's resolution to focus in a determined way on African education.

The organization of the Conference as well as the plans worked out by the members taking part in the Conference was pan-African in character, and drew up "desired averages" for the continent of Africa in questions related to quantity increases as well as quality in national development of education.

The Addis Ababa Plan introduced the estimates of school enrollment in age-group percentage, and this relatively new measure of the African countries revealed that the quantitative increase in Ethiopian education was relatively small compared with other African countries.

The targets of the Addis Ababa Plan were expected to be considered as a general framework for the individual governments, who were encouraged to establish their own goals and targets according to their own needs and priorities, applying the hypotheses and methodology on which the Addis Ababa Plan was based.

The Second Five-Year Development Plan, 1962-1967

The Second Five-Year Development Plan is considered to be the short-term framework of the Ethiopian application of the Addis Ababa Plan. The Plan was very much concerned with the question of technical and vocational training, as

the greatest rate of economic growth was expected within the fields of mining, manufacturing, and commercial development. Regarding financing education, the Plan pointed out not only the need for more money for educational development, but as much the need for efficiency in spending by curbing the dropout rate and increasing the teachers' qualifications.

The Third Five-Year Plan, 1968-1973

This Plan stressed very emphatically the priority of education in the development plan. The intention of the government to supply education is revealed in the fact that an educational budget, which was 18.8 per cent of the national budget, was approved for the last year of the period, compared with 12.5 per cent at the beginning of the Five-Year Plan.

The Plan affirms the needs expressed in the Second Five-Year Development Plan, and it stresses the urgent need for Ethiopianizing the curriculum and to better the quality of education.

As a condenced summary of this chapter and as an outline of Chapter V in order to see the relationship and treatment of each expressed need, Table XI is presented. The left-hand column includes the educational needs as expressed

in development plans in Ethiopia from 1944 to 1967. The right-hand column indicates the economic or program factors involved in order to discuss the degree of attainment towards the fulfillment of the needs.

TABLE XI

EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AS EXPRESSED IN THE DEVELOPMENT AND ECONOMIC AND PROGRAM FACTORS RELATED TO THE ATTAINMENT OF THE GOALS

Educational objectives as expressed in development plans.	The attainment of the objectives found in policies, trends, targets, and enrollment.
1. To retain education as a priority in development planning.	1. Budget expenditures as an expression of education having a priority in development planning as found in: a. Educational expenditures as percentage of the national budget. b. Educational expenditures as percentage of GNP.
2. To increase the financial support for education.	2. Budget expenditures as an expression of expected increase of financial support as found in: a. Actual educational expenditures, and per student cost. b. Actual capital expenditures and expenditures per student.
3. To make education available to a progressively larger constituency.	3. Enrollment increase as: a. Actual numeric enrollment. b. Enrollment as percentage of age-group population.

(Continued)

TABLE XI (Continued)

Educational objectives as expressed in development plans.	The attainment of the objectives found in policies, trends, targets, and enrollment.
4. To increase the enrollment in vocational/technical training.	4. Actual enrollment in vocational/technical training as: a. Actual numeric enrollment. b. Enrollment as percentage of total enrollment.
5. To increase the enrollment of girls.	5. Percentage of girls enrolled.
6. To control the development of higher education.	6. The relationship between the objective and: a. Actual numeric enrollment. b. Percentage enrollment according to priorities between science/technological fields and the humanities.
7. To acquire more efficiency in education.	7. The relationship between the objective and: a. The actual attrition rate.
8. To better the quality of education.	8. The relationship between the objective and: a. The results in the ESLC examination.

CHAPTER V

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACTUAL TRENDS AND OBJECTIVES IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate to what extent the educational objectives, as crystallized from the analyses of the educational plans in Chapter IV, have been attained. The study is not a mathematical correlation between two or more factors, but it is a descriptive relationship between the objectives and the trends in the attainment of the goals and targets.

The chapter will be divided into two main subheadings. The first deals with the economic factors as related to the objectives, and the second part deals with program factors and their relationship to the attainment of the objectives.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ECONOMIC FACTORS AND OBJECTIVES

Education as a Priority

In Chapter II it was pointed out that according to

Svennilson and Adiseshiah there is a correlation between the enrollment ratio and a country's percentage of GNP spent on education, as well as between the total enrollment in schools and the percentage of a country's national budget spent on education. A nation's effort to pay the cost of education may therefore be seen in relation to the national budget as well as a country's GNP. To what extent education has been retained as a priority by the Ethiopian government will thus be analyzed according to these two economic factors.

Educational expenditures as percentage of the national budget. As indicated in Table XII, the figures for the educational expenditures as a percentage of the national budget for the years 1956/57 to 1967/68 fluctuated between 7.2 and 14 per cent. As illustrated in Figure 3, the educational budget as a percentage of the total national budget decreased from 12.7 per cent in 1956/57 to 7.2 per cent in 1964/65. The following year it increased and reached a 12.5 per cent figure in 1967/68, with a projected figure of 18.8 per cent in 1972/73.

While the total national budget increased by 230 per cent from 1956/57 to 1967/68, the educational budget during the same period increased 240 per cent.

TABLE XII

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES AS PERCENTAGE NATIONAL BUDGET AND PER STUDENT COST 1956/1957-1967/1968

Year	Total National Budget*	Budget for Education	Percentage of Total Bldg.	Per Student Cost
1956/57	129,9	15,5	12,7	132,4
1957/58	146,1	17,1	11,7	127,6
1958/59	162,6	22,8	14,0	163,0
1959/60	136,9	16,1	11,8	109,4
1960/61	176,5	21,3	12,1	108,0
1961/62	190,2	20,7	10,9	100,0
1962/63	203,1	21,8	10,7	93,3
1963/64	297,6	23,2	8,0	85,3
1964/65	356,5	25,8	7,2	86,2
1965/66	385,1	31,7	8,2	95,5
1966/67	403,4	37,7	9,3	101,6
1967/68	422,0	52,8	12,5	126,7
1972/73+	666,0	125,6	18,8	171,0

*Ethiopian dollars in million.

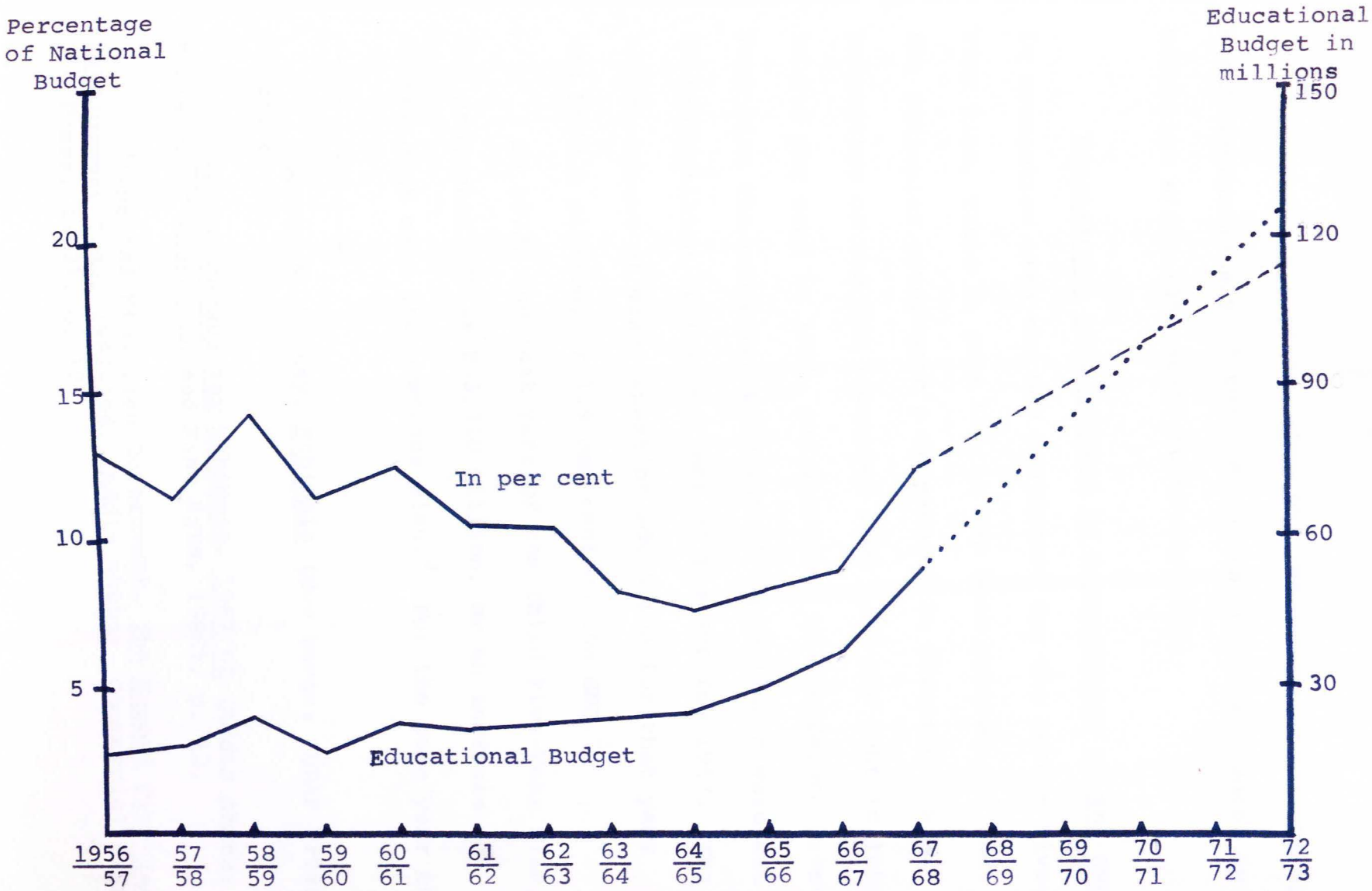
+Projected in the Third Five Year Plan.

Sources:

School Census for Ethiopia, 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 11, 12, 13.

Ethiopian Statistical Abstracts, 1963 (Addis Ababa: Commercial Press, 1963), p. 91.

Imperial Ethiopian Government, The Third Five Year Development Plan, 1968-1973 (Addis Ababa: Berhanena HSI Printing Press, 1968), p. 62.



Figures 3. The educational budget in dollars and as percentage of the national budget (amounts indicated in Ethiopian dollars); 1967/68-1972/73 amounts are projected.

Lipsky's[1] estimate that the Ethiopian government has spent approximately 20 per cent of the national budget on education since 1956 seems to be too high.

Educational expenditures as a percentage of the GNP. In connection with the GNP projection for the Second Five-Year Plan, Table X, page 134, it has been pointed out that the Ethiopian government's investment in education as a percentage of the GNP increased from 0.63 per cent in 1956 to 1.3 per cent in 1961, and according to the Second Five-Year Plan the projected educational expenditures were set at E$48 million or 1.7 per cent of the GNP for 1967. The actual amount of money spent on education for that year was E$52.8 million, or 1.9 per cent of the GNP.[2]

In 1973, the last year of the Third Five-Year Plan, the projected GNP is E$3,310 million, or an increase of 55 per cent over the previous plan.[3] For the same year the

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[1]George A. Lipsky, Ethiopia (New Haven: HRAF Press, 1962), p. 92.

[2]School Census for Ethiopia, 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), p. 12.

[3]Imperial Ethiopian Government, The Second Five-Year Development Plan, 1962-1967 (Addis Ababa: Commercial Printing Press, 1962), p. 172.

investment in education is estimated at E$108.6 million, which is an increase of 21.1 per cent over the previous plan, and 3.3 per cent of the estimated GNP.

The projected percentages of the GNP to be spent on education as "desired averages" (see Table VIII, page 126) in order to meet the estimated cost of the educational development as expressed in the Addis Ababa Plan are contrasted to the percentages set aside for education in Ethiopia as follows:

Year	"Desired Average" percentage of GNP to be invested in education	Percentage of GNP invested in education in Ethiopia
1961	3.9	1.3
1967	7.0	1.9
1973	8.0	3.3

The financial investment by the government is far below the projected percentages of the Addis Ababa Plan, but the projected 3.3 per cent of the GNP to be allocated to education in 1973 seems indicative of the government's intention to increase its support by 1.4 per cent of the GNP over a period of five years.

Increased Financial Support for Education

Most of the development plans expressed the need for an increased financial support for education, and in this

section of the study an attempt will be made to find the trend in actual allocation of monies and the relationship between the educational expenditures and the increased enrollment in the form of per-student cost.

Actual educational expenditures and per-student cost. In Table XII it was pointed out how the educational expenditures had increased from E$15.5 million in 1956/57 to E$52.8 million in 1967/68, an increase of E$37.3 million or 240 per cent. An increase in financial support for education had taken place in the form of actual money spent, but in order to clarify the picture, the budget expenditures have to be seen in relation to the increased student enrollment and per-student cost. While the educational expenditures had increased by 240 per cent during the period under discussion, the student enrollment had increased by 253 per cent.

The figures for per-student cost as indicated in Table XII were arrived at by dividing the educational budget for each year by the number of students enrolled during the same year. The trend in per-student cost decreased up to the year 1964, with the exception of a student cost of E$163 during the school year 1958/59. From the year 1964, which

corresponds to the second half of the Second Five-Year Plan, the per-student cost again increased, and in 1967/68 the cost per student amounted to E$126.7. The average per-student cost is admittedly a crude measure, but as long as the enrollment at the first level contributed 95.6 per cent of the total enrollment in 1960/61 and 92.6 per cent of the total enrollment in 1967/68, it seems still a fair indicator of the financial effort on the part of the government to increase their support to education.

Because a budget itemized enough to give the needed information to analyze the per-student cost at the different levels is not available for a very long period, Table XIII represents the trend for the last four years for the period of time under discussion. These are recurrent expenditures for the first and second level.

From 1963/64 to 1967/68 the per-student cost at the first level increased from E$43 to E$52.5, while the per-student cost at the second level increased from E$345 to E$412 for the academic section and from E$545 to E$610 for the vocational/technical section. If an annual 2.5 to 3.5 per cent inflation is taken into consideration, there may

TABLE XIII

RECURRENT EXPENDITURES AND PER STUDENT COST IN GOVERNMENT PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1964-1968

Level of Education	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68
Primary Education				
Recurrent exp.*	12 319 000	15 296 000	17 723 000	20 107 000
Number of students	278 087	307 710	343 043	386 113
Per student cost*	43	49,5	51,6	52,5
Secondary Education				
Academic section Recurrent exp.*	5 527 000	5 262 000	7 129 000	9 629 000
Number of students	16 004	18 175	20 423	23 371
Per student cost*	345,6	289,5	348,2	412
Voc/Technical Recurrent exp.*	2 152 000	2 599 000	2 457 000	3 462 000
Number of students+	3 950	4 760	5 122	5 651
Per student cost*	545	550	480	610
Total exp.	19 998 000	23 157 000	27 309 000	33 198 000
Total students	298 041	330 645	368 588	415 135
Average student cost*	67	70	70,2	80

*Amount in Ethiopian dollars

+Teacher training included

Sources:

School Census for Ethiopia 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 7, 11, 12.

be a slight increase in the per-student cost at these two levels.[4]

The operational cost of the vocational/technical schools is rather high compared with American figures where Benson has estimated that vocational/technical training in cost per student is 35 per cent higher than for students attending the academic section.[5] If compared with the latest UNESCO figures in Table XIV, Ethiopia ranges close to her neighbors, Somalia and Kenya, in difference in cost per student in the academic contra the vocational/technical section. Tanzania spent about five times as much money on each student in the vocational section compared with the academic section.

Actual capital expenditures and expenditures per student. Data related to capital expenditures are very scarce, and reasonably reliable sources are available only for the last four years. According to the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, capital expenses refer only to new or

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[4]Consumer price index number of inflation from United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1967, p. 540.

[5]Charles S. Benson, The Economics of Public Education, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968), p. 321.

TABLE XIV

RECURRING EXPENDITURES AND UNIT COST BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF PUBLIC EDUCATION FOR SOME CENTRAL AFRICAN COUNTRIES 1965

Country	Level and Type of Education	Recurring Expend.in U.S. $	Enrolment Covered (000)	Average Per student Cost U.S. $
KENYA	1st.level	15,4	1 002	22,4
	2nd.level			
	Academic	8,4	34	274
	Tech/voc.	1,4	3	466
SUDAN	1st.level	9,4	539	17,5
	2nd.level			
	Academic	7,5	25	301
	Tech/voc.	0,93	2.5	375
SOMALIA	1st.level	0,87	25	35,2
	2nd.level			
	Academic	0,47	3.3	143
	Tech/voc.	0,18	0.668	269
TANZANIA	1st.level	15,08	710	21,2
	2nd.level			
	Academic	5,5	21	259
	Tech/voc.	0,84	0.655	1287
CONGO	1st.level	3,8	186	20,5
	2nd.level			
	Academic	1,6	13	128
	Tech/voc.	0,38	2.6	147

*Percentage difference in cost per student Academic contra Tech/voc. training, 1965.

KENYA	70
SUDAN	24
SOMALIA	88
TANZANIA	396
CONGO	15

Sources:

Compiled from: UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook, 1967 (Paris: UNESCO, 1968).

additional school buildings, and in the following Table XV the amounts quoted include Swedish International Development Agency's share and International Development Agency loans.[6] These figures include only the capital expenditures for the first and second level.

Two important agreements related to school plant development were entered upon by the Ethiopian Government in 1964/65 and 1965/66. The first one was related to a loan from the International Development Agency of E$18 million over a four-year period to begin during the school year 1966/67. The purpose of the loan was to construct classroom facilities for the second level of education.[7]

Priorities were to be given to thirty-seven Junior secondary and four Senior secondary schools and seven institutions for vocational and technical training. The second agreement was made with the Swedish International Development Agency to the effect that the Swedish government promised to give the equivalent of any money subscribed by the public or made available by the government for primary

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[6] School Census for Ethiopia, 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), p. 11.

[7] International Yearbook of Education, Ethiopia (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1968), p. 246.

TABLE XV

CAPITAL EXPENDITURES FOR FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN ETHIOPIA 1964/65-1967/68*

Level	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68
First Level	588 000	663 000	901 000	2 000 000
Second Level				
Academic	351 000	298 000	2 000 000	7 918 400
Tech/vocational	18 000	55 000	17 000	-
Total	957 000	1 016 000	2 918 000	9 918 400
As percentage of total educational budget for first and second level	4,5	4,2	9,6	23,0

*Amounts in Ethiopian dollars.

Sources:

School Census for Ethiopia, 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 11, 12, 13.

school buildings. An analysis of the data in Table XV suggests that the resources from the two agreements have influenced the amount of money allocated for school plants during the last two years.

The amount of money for construction programs has increased as a percentage of the total educational budget for the first and second level from 4.5 per cent in 1964/65 to 23 per cent in 1967/68.

The actual school plant situation may be approached also from the viewpoint of the number of students per classroom unit. Figures 4 and 5 present the number of students per classroom unit for the different grades at the first and second level for the years 1961/62 to 1967/68, a period when reliable data were available.

The highest number of students per classroom unit is found in the first grade where it has increased from 51 to 62. The number of students per classroom unit has increased for all grades, and the average for the first and second level has increased from 37 to 45 students per classroom unit. This trend is opposite to the hypothesis set forth in the Addis Ababa Plan where the trend of development was a decline from an average of 45 in 1961 to 35 in 1982.

The average school size and the student/teacher ratio

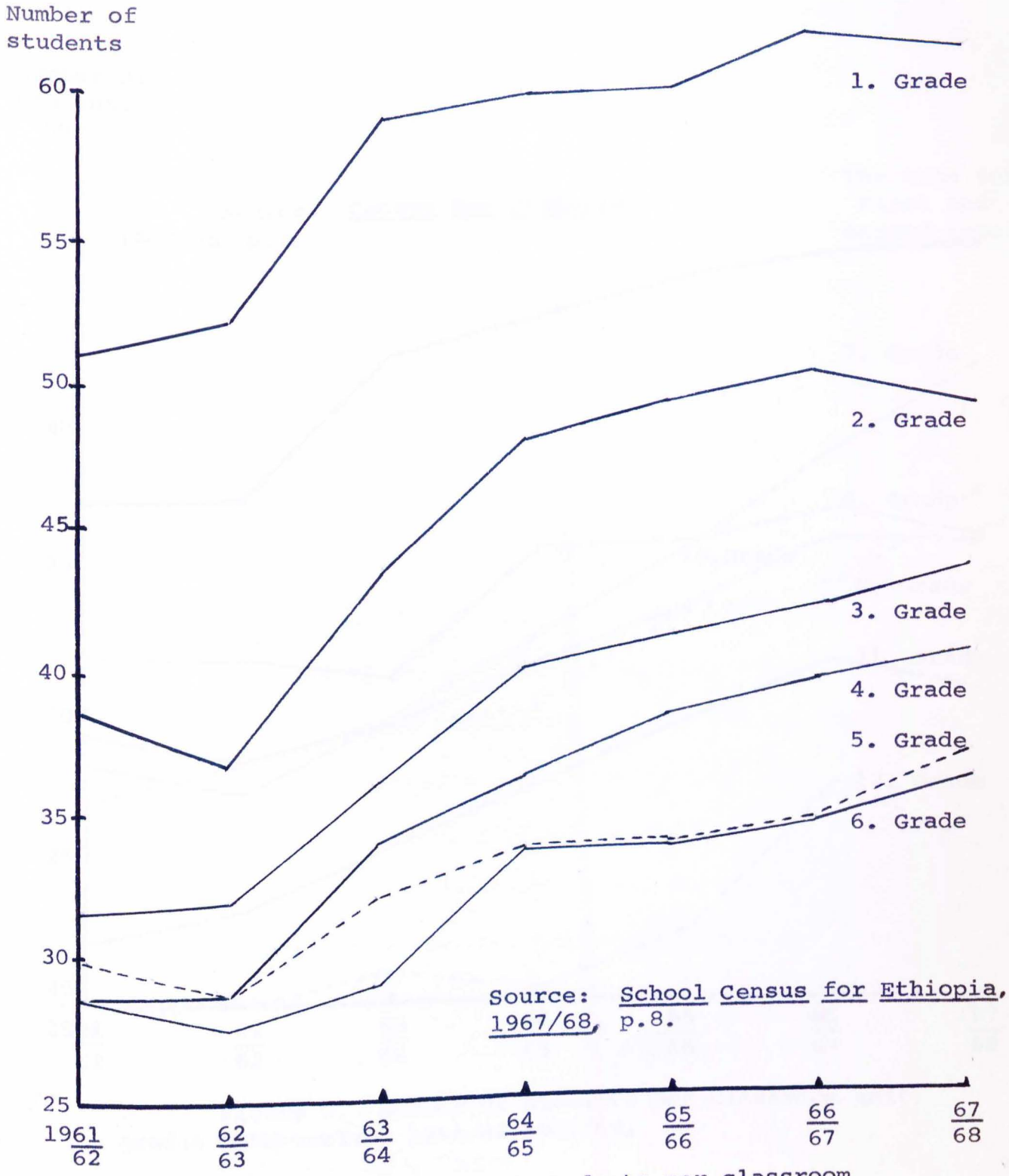


Figure 4. Number of students per classroom unit, grades one to six, 1961/62-1967/68.

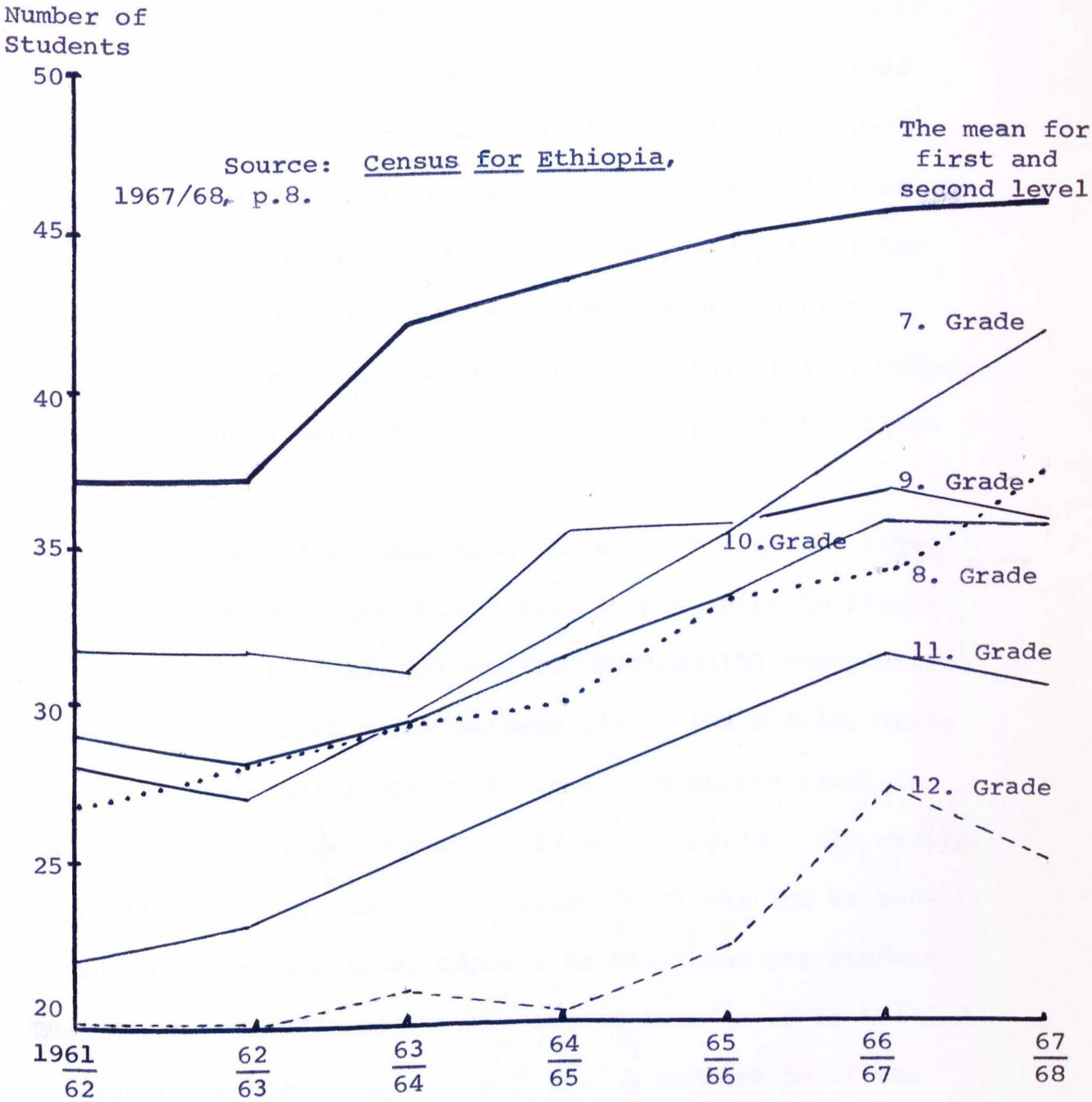


Figure 5. Number of students per classroom unit, grades seven-twelve, 1961/62-1967/68.

in government schools indicate that the size of the primary schools increased from 207 to 310 students per school during the ten-year period, while the student/teacher ratio went up from an average of 33 to 50 at the first level. This is illustrated in Figure 6 and based on Table XVI. The increase in student per classroom unit may indicate that the increase in the total enrollment at the primary level has not been matched with a similar expansion of the school plant facilities. Because of an insufficient capital budget the school enrollments have apparently outpaced the classrooms available.

The capital expenditures per student are calculated from the data in Tables XV and XVI and presented in Figure 7. At the first level, the per-student capital expenditures from 1964/65-1967/68 range between E$2.11 and E$5.19, while the range for capital expenditures at the second level for the same period range between E$18.45 and E$273. The capital expenditure per student at the first level was low as compared to the second level capital expenditures per student. The capital expenditures at the second level were in 1967/68 fifteen times the amount in 1964/65. A reflection of the increased capital expenditures at the second level may be the fact that the number of students per classroom unit

TABLE XVI

AVERAGE SCHOOL-SIZE AND STUDENT/TEACHER RATIO IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS AT FIRST LEVEL IN ETHIOPIA 1957/58-1967/68

Institution	1957/58	1958/59	1959/60	1960/61	1961/62	1962/63
First Level						
Number of:						
Schools	622	632	638	635	635	701
Teachers	3 895	4 216	4 502	5 091	4 997	5 656
Students	128 979	132 722	138 978	188 368	195 618	220 861
Average School size	207	210	217	296	308	316
Student/ Teacher ratio	33	31	30	36	39	39

	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68
Number of:					
Schools	735	913	1 207	1 248	1 245
Teachers	5 959	6 240	6 842	7 351	7 714
Students	252 325	278 088	307 710	343 043	386 113
Average School size	353	302	254	275	310
Student/ Teacher ratio	42	45	45	47	50

Sources:

Imperial Ethiopian Government, Ethiopian Statistical Abstract 1963 (Addis Ababa: Commercial Printing Press, 1963), pp. 197, 198.

School Census for Ethiopia 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 19, 20.

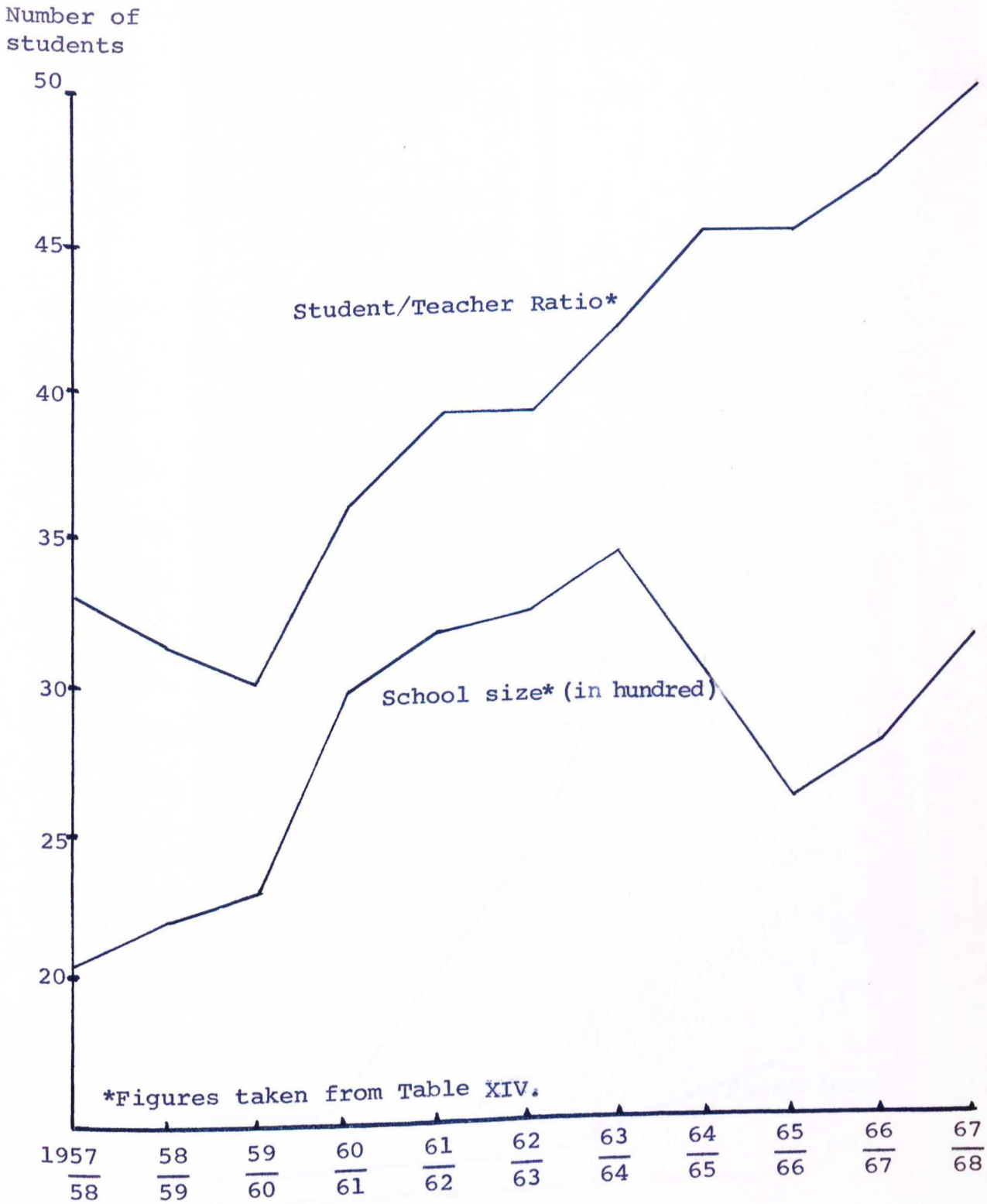
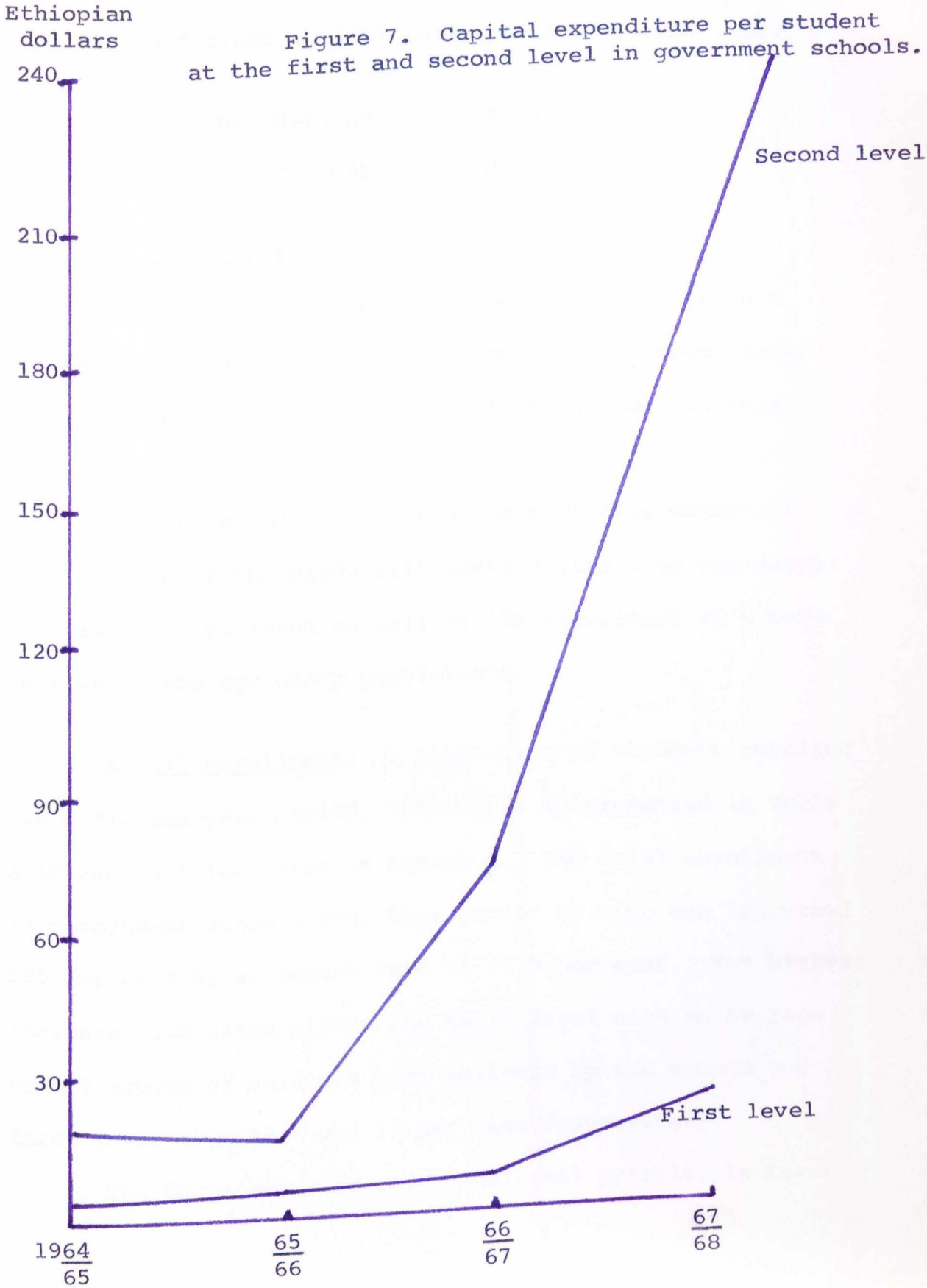


Figure 6. Average school size and student/teacher ratio in Government schools at first level in Ethiopia, 1957/58-1967/68.

Figure 7. Capital expenditure per student at the first and second level in government schools.



Sources: Tables XV and XVII.

has decreased since 1966/67 in all grades at this level.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PROGRAM FACTORS AND OBJECTIVES

Increased Enrollment

The objective of making education available to a progressively larger constituency has been a great concern expressed in all the development plans included in this study.

As indication of the attainment of this objective this section of the study will address itself to the actual increase in enrollment as well as the enrollment as a percentage of the age-group populations.

Actual enrollment. A tabulation of students enrolled for a fifteen-year period, 1952-1967, is presented in Table XVII and is illustrated in Figure 8. The total enrollment in government schools over this period of time has increased 595 per cent by an annual rate of 11.9 per cent. The highest increase took place within the third level with an average annual growth of 18.6 per cent followed by the second and first level with 15.6 and 12 per cent respectively.

The development of the educational pyramid, in terms

TABLE XVII

ENROLLMENT AT ALL LEVELS IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS
1952/53-1967/68

Year	First Level	SECOND LEVEL			Third Level	Grand Total
		Academic	Voc/tech.	Total		
1952/53	58 453	1 142	470	1 612	100	60 165
1953/54	68 691	1 623	502	2 125	142	70 958
1954/55	77 832	1 972	621	2 593	203	80 627
1955/56	91 641	2 094	946	3 040	345	95 026
1956/57	113 243	2 628	1 513	4 141	466	117 850
1957/58	128 979	3 492	1 644	5 136	605	134 700
1958/59	132 722	4 496	2 768	7 264	760	140 746
1959/60	138 978	5 273	2 741	8 014	784	147 676
1960/61	188 368	5 626	2 789	8 415	939	197 722
1961/62	195 618	7 141	2 792	9 923	1 050	207 502
1962/63	220 861	9 169	3 028	12 197	1 041	234 099
1963/64	252 325	12 173	3 342	15 515	1 626	269 466
1964/65	278 088	16 004	3 950	19 954	1 643	299 685
1965/66	307 710	18 175	4 760	22 935	2 005	332 640
1966/67	343 043	20 423	5 122	25 545	2 517	371 095
1967/68	386 113	23 371	5 651	29 022	2 826	417 961

Sources:

School Census for Ethiopia, 1959/60 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1960), p. 1.

School Census for Ethiopia, 1961/62 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1962), pp. 19, 20.

School Census for Ethiopia, 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 11, 12.

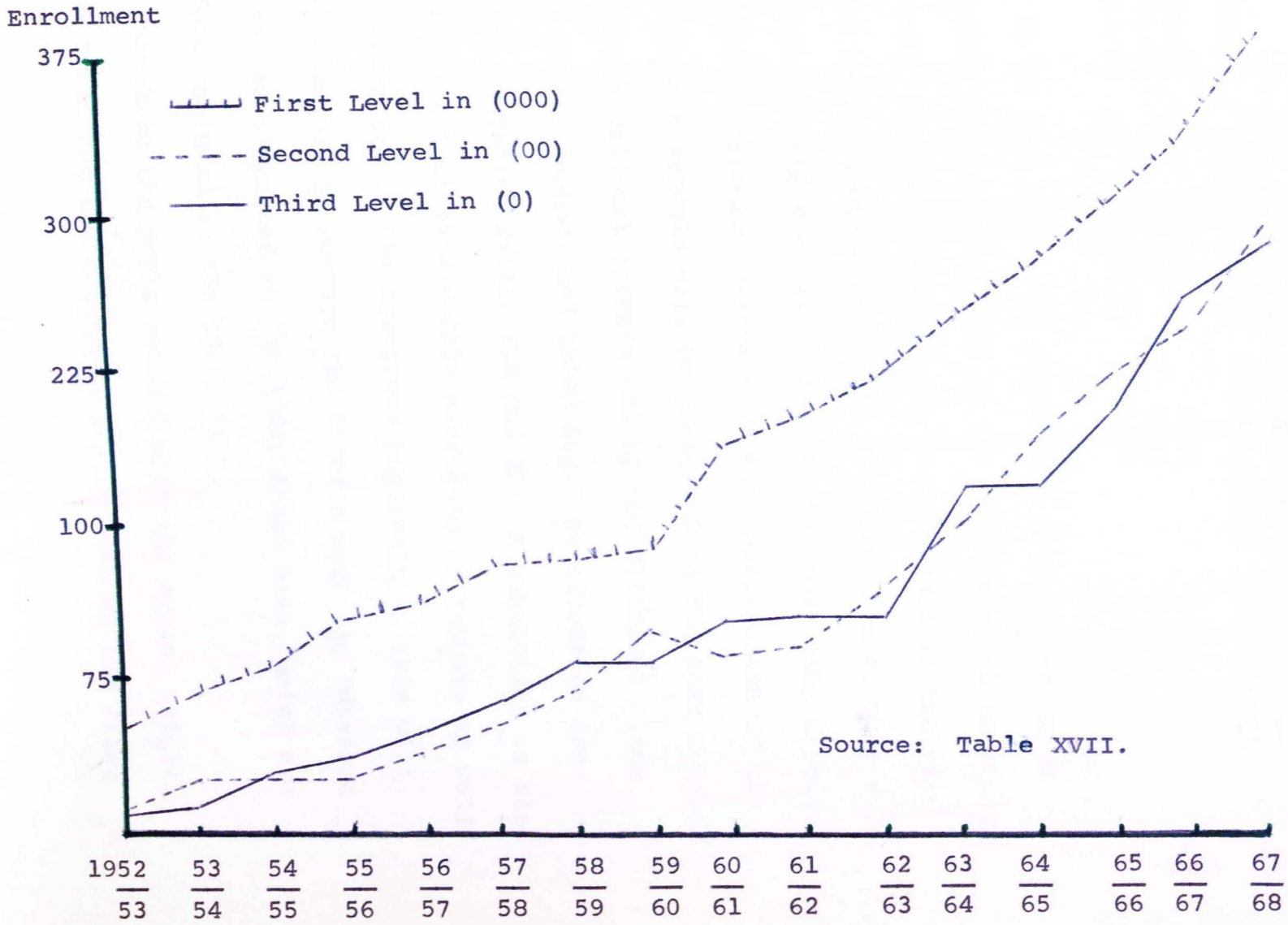


Figure 8. Enrollment in Government schools, 1952/53-1967/68.

of the percentage of enrollment at each level relative to the total enrollment, is traced in the following figures:

Year	Percentage of total enrollment		
	First level	Second level	Third level
1952/53	97.15	2.69	0.16
1959/60	94.03	5.41	0.56
1967/68	92.51	6.82	0.67

Up to this point the enrollment in non-government schools has not been included in the figures which have been discussed. Because these schools are included in the targets set by the government in the different plans, they will be included in the figures related to the following discussion, while a broader treatment of the contribution of the non-government schools will be presented in the next chapter.

The enrollment targets set by the different plans for the first, second, and third level of education are tabulated in Tables XVIII, XIX and XX. A tabulation is also made of the actual attainments expressed in numbers as well as in percentage of the age-group population. This will make it possible to compare the figures with the "desired averages" as expressed in the Addis Ababa Plan, which are therefore included in the tabulation.

Matching the goals reached with the actual targets for the First and the Second Five-Year Plan at the first

TABLE XVIII

TARGETS AND ENROLLMENT REACHED AT FIRST LEVEL ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT PLANS

First Level	1961/62	1967/68	1972/73	1977/78	1982/83
National Population in millions	21,0	23,0	25,0	27,0	30,0
Age-group population in millions	4,03	4,42	4,8	5,18	5,76
ENROLLMENT TARGETS ACCORDING TO:					
Addis Ababa Plan					
In millions	1,61	2,65	3,4	4,35	5,76
In age-group percentage	40,0	60,0	71,0	85,0	100,0
First Five Year Plan					
In millions	0,25				
In age-group percentage	6,2				
Second Five Year Plan					
In millions		0,33			
In age-group percentage		7,5			
Third Five Year Plan					
In millions			0,616		
In age-group percentage			12,8		
ENROLLMENT REACHED ACCORDING TO:					
First Five Year Plan					
In millions	0,274				
In age-group percentage	6,9				
Second Five Year Plan					
In millions		0,506			
In age-group percentage		11,4			

TABLE XIX

TARGETS AND ENROLLMENT REACHED AT SECOND LEVEL ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT PLANS

Second Level	1961/62	1967/68	1972/73	1977/78	1982/83
National Population in millions	21,0	23,0	25,0	27,0	30,0
Age-group population in millions	1,554	1,702	1,85	1,998	2,22
ENROLLMENT TARGETS ACCORDING TO:					
Addis Ababa Plan					
In thousands	46,6	204,2	277,5	379,1	560,0
In age-group percentage	3,0	12,0	15,0	19,0	23,0
First Five Year Plan					
In thousands	10,0				
In age-group percentage	0,6				
Second Five Year Plan					
In thousands		40,7			
In age-group Percentage		2,3			
Third Five Year Plan					
In thousands			114,12		
In age-group percentage			6,2		
ENROLLMENT REACHED ACCORDING TO:					
First Five Year Plan					
In thousands	10,5				
In age-group percentage	0,7				
Second Five Year Plan					
In thousands		34,7			
In age-group percentage		2.0			

TABLE XX

TARGETS AND ENROLLMENT REACHED AT THIRD LEVEL ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT PLANS

Third Level	1961/62	1967/68	1972/73	1977/78	1982/83
National Population in millions	21,0	23,0	25,0	27,0	30,0
Age-group population in millions	1,18	1,28	1,40	1,51	1,67
ENROLLMENT TARGETS ACCORDING TO:					
Addis Ababa Plan					
In number	1180	3840	5600	15,100	33,490
In age-group percentage	0,1	0,3	0,4	1,0	2,0
First Five Year Plan					
In number	900				
In age-group percentage	0,08				
Second Five Year Plan					
In number		1560			
In age-group percentage		0,12			
Third Five Year Plan					
In number			5030		
In age-group percentage			0,38		
ENROLLMENT REACHED ACCORDING TO:					
First Five Year Plan					
In number	1050				
In age-group percentage	0,09				
Second Five Year Plan					
In number		2826			
In age-group percentage		0,2			

level, the targets were in both cases surpassed by respectively 9.6 and 53.3 per cent. For the second level, the First Five-Year Plan surpassed the target by 5 per cent while for the Second Five-Year Plan the enrollment reached only 85.2 per cent of the target.

At the third level, the enrollment surpassed the targets in both cases by 14.4 and 81.1 per cent respectively.

Enrollment as percentage of age-group population. So far the enrollment figures have not been related to the percentage of the age-group population for the respective school levels as a means of translating the trends of Ethiopian educational development into a measure that can be compared to the rest of the world. Therefore, in order to get the educational development in Ethiopia relevant to other countries in the world in general and African countries in particular, the figures will be translated into the respective age-group population percentages as an international expression for the quantitative stage or development which takes place.

For the first and second level the age-group population percentages that will be applied are those which came out of the population study reported earlier in this paper. As material for a similar study for the third level is not

available, an estimated 7 per cent for the age-group 20-24 years will be applied as suggested by UNESCO.[8] The adjusted age-group population percentages to be applied will be as follows:

First Level, 5-14 years, 19.2 per cent.

Second Level, 15-19 years, 7.4 per cent.

Third Level, 20-24 years, 5.6 per cent.

In 1961/62, 6.9 per cent of the first level age-group was enrolled in the Ethiopian school system, compared with a "desired average" for the African continent of 40 per cent for the same year. In 1967/68 the percentage of the age-group population enrolled at the first level had increased to 11.4 per cent, while the "desired average" for that year was 60 per cent. According to the Third Five-Year Plan, 12.8 per cent of the age-group population is expected to be enrolled at the first level in 1972/73, while the "desired average" is 71 per cent.

At the second level the age-group population percentage enrolled in 1961/62 was 0.7 while the "desired average" was 3 per cent. For 1967/68 the "desired average" was set

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[8] Report of the Conference of Development of Higher Education in Africa, Tananarive (Paris: UNESCO, 1963), p. 22.

at 12 per cent, and the Ethiopian schools reached an enrollment of 2 per cent. The projection for 1972/73 estimates that 114,125 students will be enrolled at the second level, equal to 6.2 per cent of the age-group population, while the "desired average" according to the Addis Ababa Plan is 15.0 per cent.

At the third level the quantitative trend can be said to look a little brighter than at the previous two levels. In 1961/62, 0.08 per cent of the age-group population was enrolled while the Addis Ababa Plan target was 0.1 per cent. In 1967/68 the "desired average" was 0.3 per cent or an enrollment of 3,840 students, while during that year 2,828 regular students were attending the different colleges, which was 0.2 per cent of the age-group population. If the projection in the Third Five-Year Plan will come through in 1972/73, then 0.38 per cent will be enrolled, compared with the "desired average" of 0.4 per cent.

For the third level of education this means that the gap between the actual enrollment and desired targets will be closing, up to 1972. But, according to the Addis Ababa Plan, a tremendous acceleration is supposed to take place within the level of higher education during the ten-year period of 1972-1982 by an increased percentage of

enrollment from 0.4 to 2.0. In order for Ethiopia to reach this stage it will mean an actual increase from 5,030 students in 1972 to 33,490 students in 1982.

Even though the "desired averages" seem to be out of reach for the Ethiopian school system within the time limit of 1982, it will be of interest to make a projection in order to see to what extent the Ethiopian school system has reached the targets at that date. Of course, this will only be a projection and not a prediction, as there are so many unknown and unpredictable factors involved that a prediction with any claim of certainty would be impossible.

For the three levels of education in Ethiopia the following projections will be based on the historical trend during the ten-year period from 1957/58 to 1967/68.

According to the Second Five-Year Plan, which is represented in Table IV, page 97, the total population in Ethiopia was in 1957/58 estimated to be 19.4 million. The calculation of the age-group populations will give the following figures:

First Level	-	3.72 million
Second Level	-	1.43 million
Third Level	-	1.09 million

The students enrolled for the year 1957/58 in all

types of schools were as follows:

First Level Enrollment	-	153,012
Second Level Enrollment	-	5,963
Third Level Enrollment	-	605

With these data available, the age-group percentage enrollment for the different levels can be determined as follows:

First Level	-	3.9 per cent of age-group
Second Level	-	0.50 per cent of age-group
Third Level	-	0.06 per cent of age-group

At the first level the enrollment had increased from 153,000 in 1957/58 to 506,000 thousand in 1967/68, which means an average increase in enrollment of 11.2 per cent per annum. Applying this percentage for an enrollment projection up to 1982, which is the final year of the long-term projections of the Addis Ababa Plan, would leave Ethiopia with an age-group enrollment of 37 per cent, as illustrated in Figure 9.

For the second level there was an increase of an average of 15.6 per cent per annum, and when applying this percentage in a projection for 1982 the enrollment would reach 235,604 or 10.6 per cent of the age-group population, as illustrated in Figure 10.

Within the third level the enrollment has increased by 17.2 per cent per annum, and according to the suggested projection the enrollment would reach 28,554 by 1982/83, which is 1.4 per cent of the age-group population, as illustrated in Figure 11.

Historical projections (Figures 9-11), although in no way predictive, indicate what might happen if history were to repeat itself in terms of future enrollments. In each instance the 1982-83 enrollment would be below the target average. However, inasmuch as historically there was an unpredictable increase from 1962-1967 over the preceding five-year period, were there further such unpredictable increases during one or more of the three successive five-year periods, it would be possible that the target average might be attained or even exceeded within the target date. There is no current basis for graphing these unpredictable increases.

With the exception of the targets for the first level, the targets in the Addis Ababa Plan are not in any way the final targets for the development of education in the African countries. As nations reach the targets set, they will certainly continue on and eventually go beyond the 23 and 2 per cent figures set for the respective two levels.

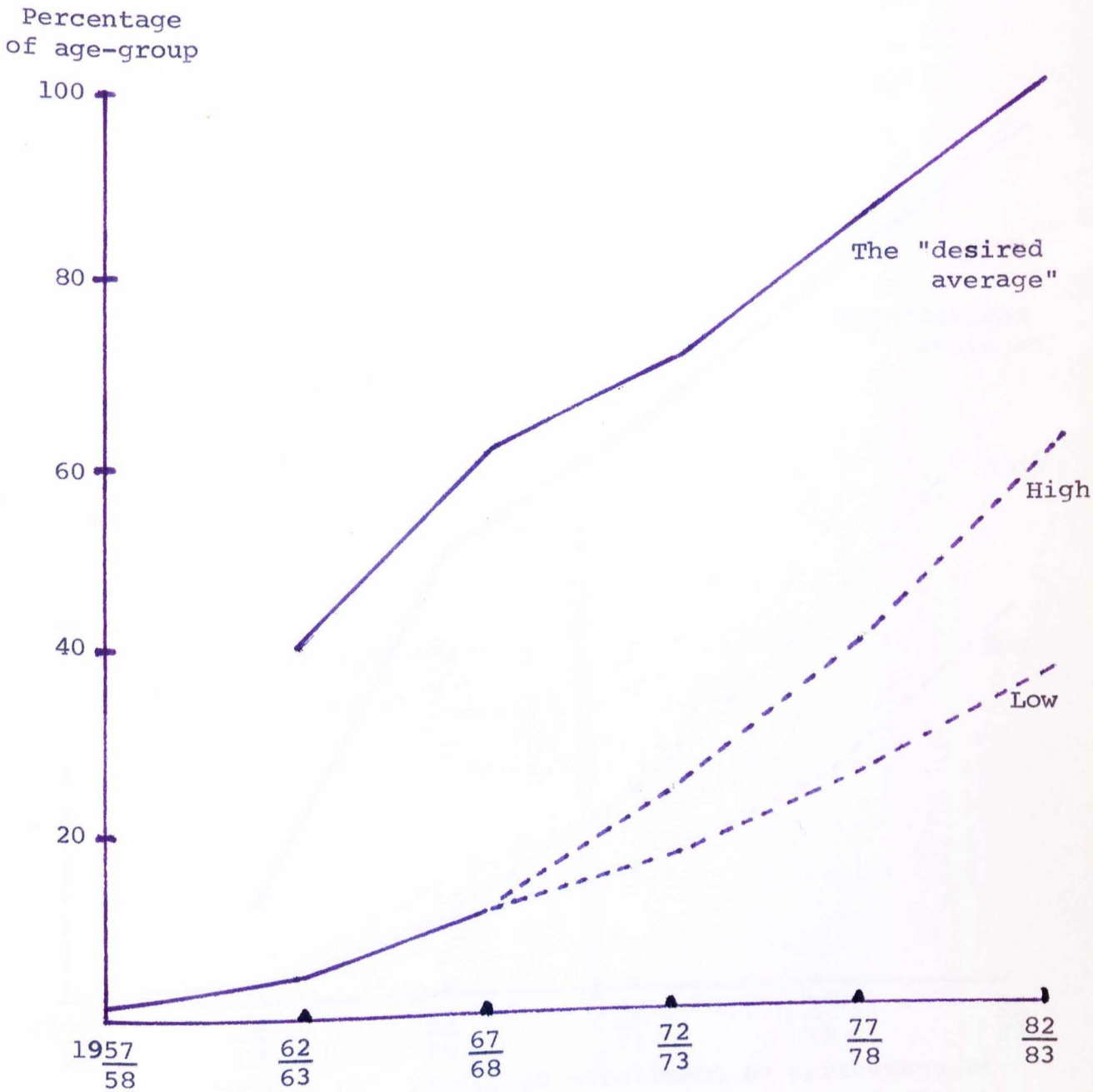

Figure 9. Projected enrollment as percentage of age-group population at the first level compared with the "desired average" of the Addis Ababa Plan.

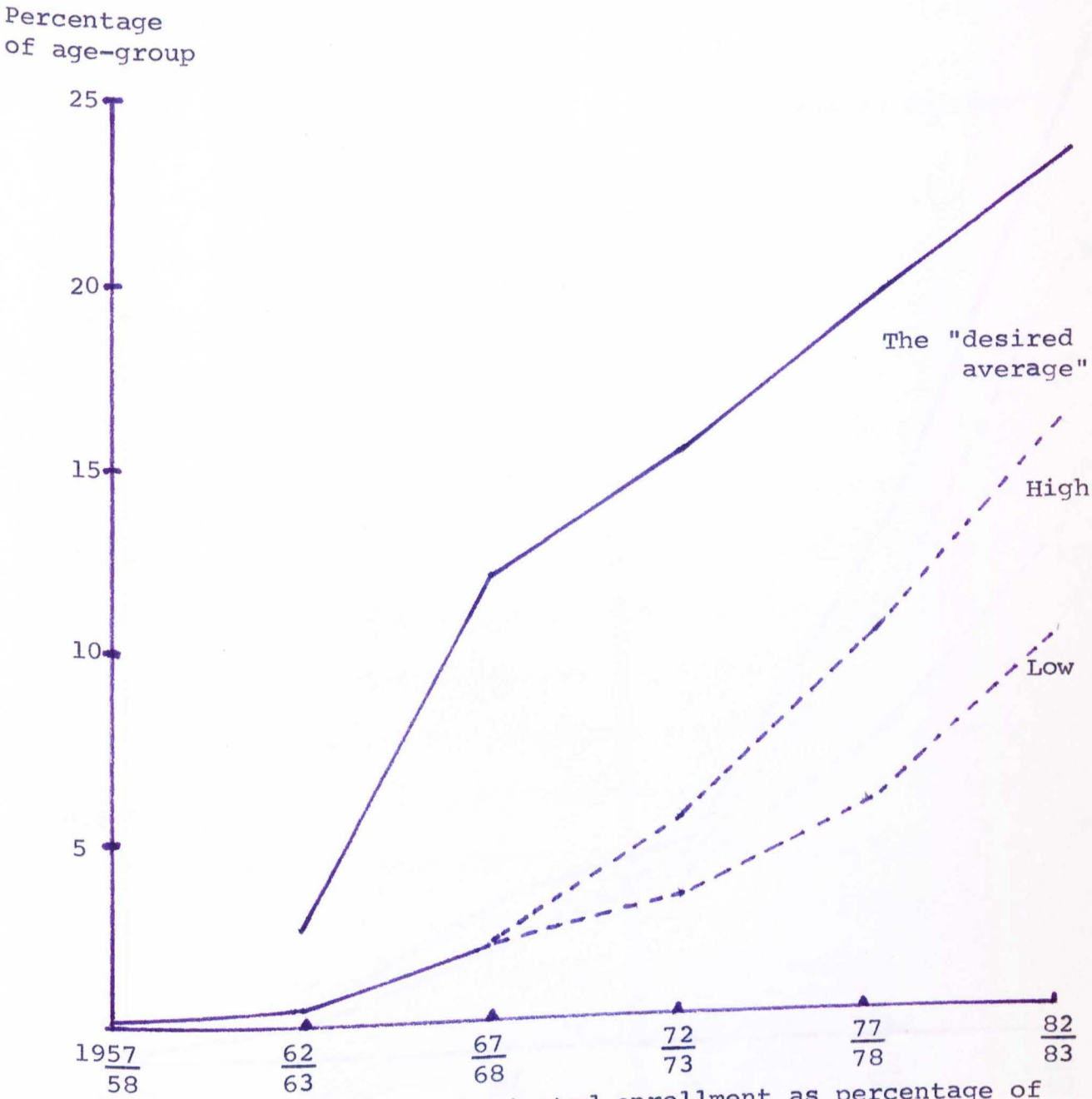

Figure 10. Projected enrollment as percentage of age-group population at the second level compared with the "desired average" of the Addis Ababa Plan.

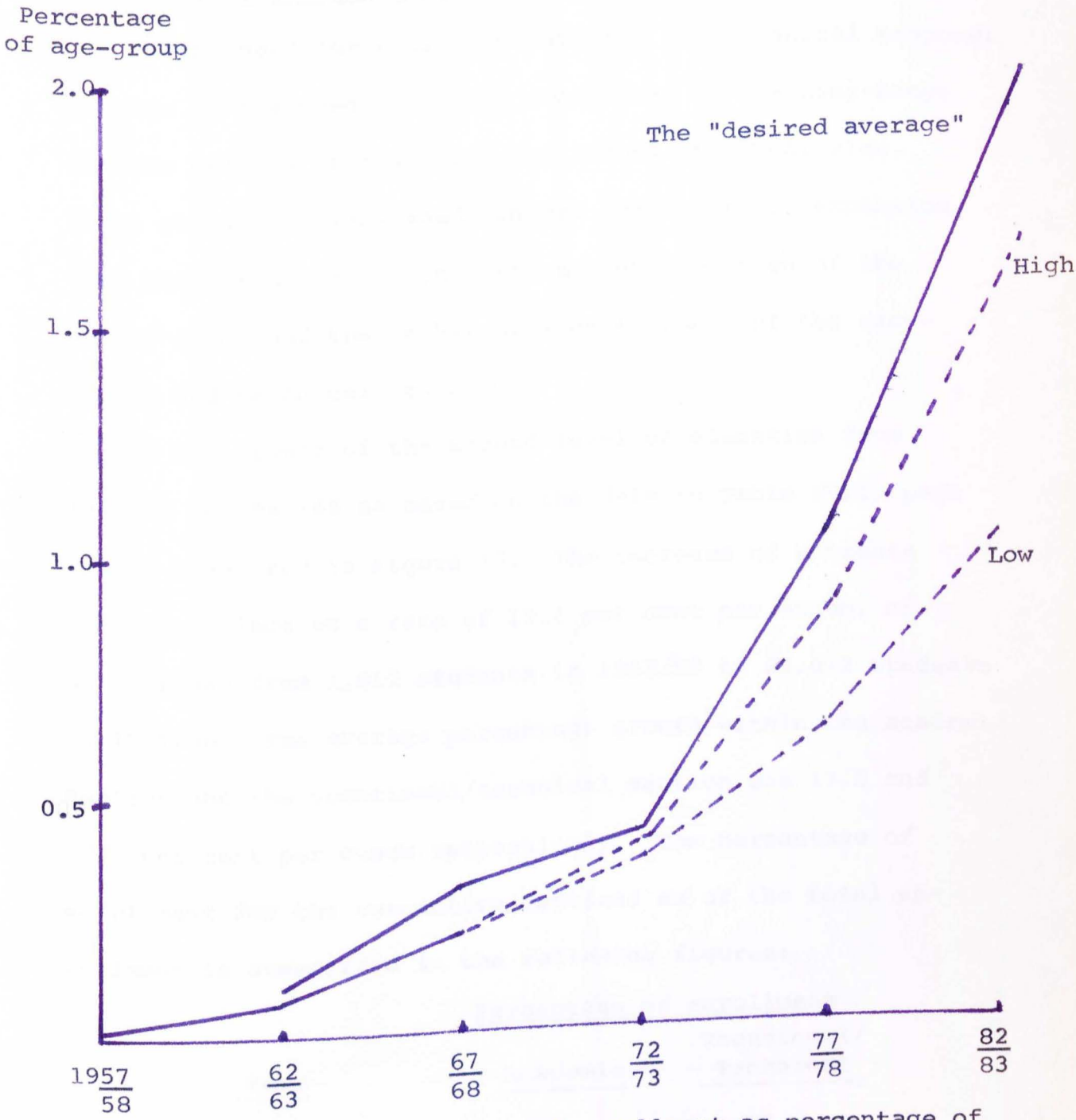

Figure 11. Projected enrollment as percentage of age-group population at the third level compared with the "desired average" of the Addis Ababa Plan.

Increased Enrollment in

Vocational/Technical Training

The need for trained vocational and technical manpower was one of the needs strongly considered in the Long-Range Plan as well as in the First and Second Five-Year Plan. These plans also expressed concern for the rapid expansion that had taken place within the academic section of the second level and the rather slow development of the vocational and technical training.

The growth of the second level of education from 1952/53 to 1967/68 as based on the data in Table XVII, page 169, is presented in Figure 12. The increase of entrants has taken place at a rate of 15.6 per cent per annum, or an increase from 1,612 students in 1952/53 to 29,022 students in 1967/68. The average percentage growth within the academic section and the vocational/technical section was 17.0 and 12.7 per cent per annum respectively. The percentage of enrollment for the respective sections as of the total enrollment is summarized in the following figures:

	Percentage of enrollment	
Year	Academic	Vocational/ Technical
1952/53	71	29
1956/57	63.5	36.5
1962/63	75.2	24.8
1965/66	79.3	20.7
1967/68	80.5	19.5

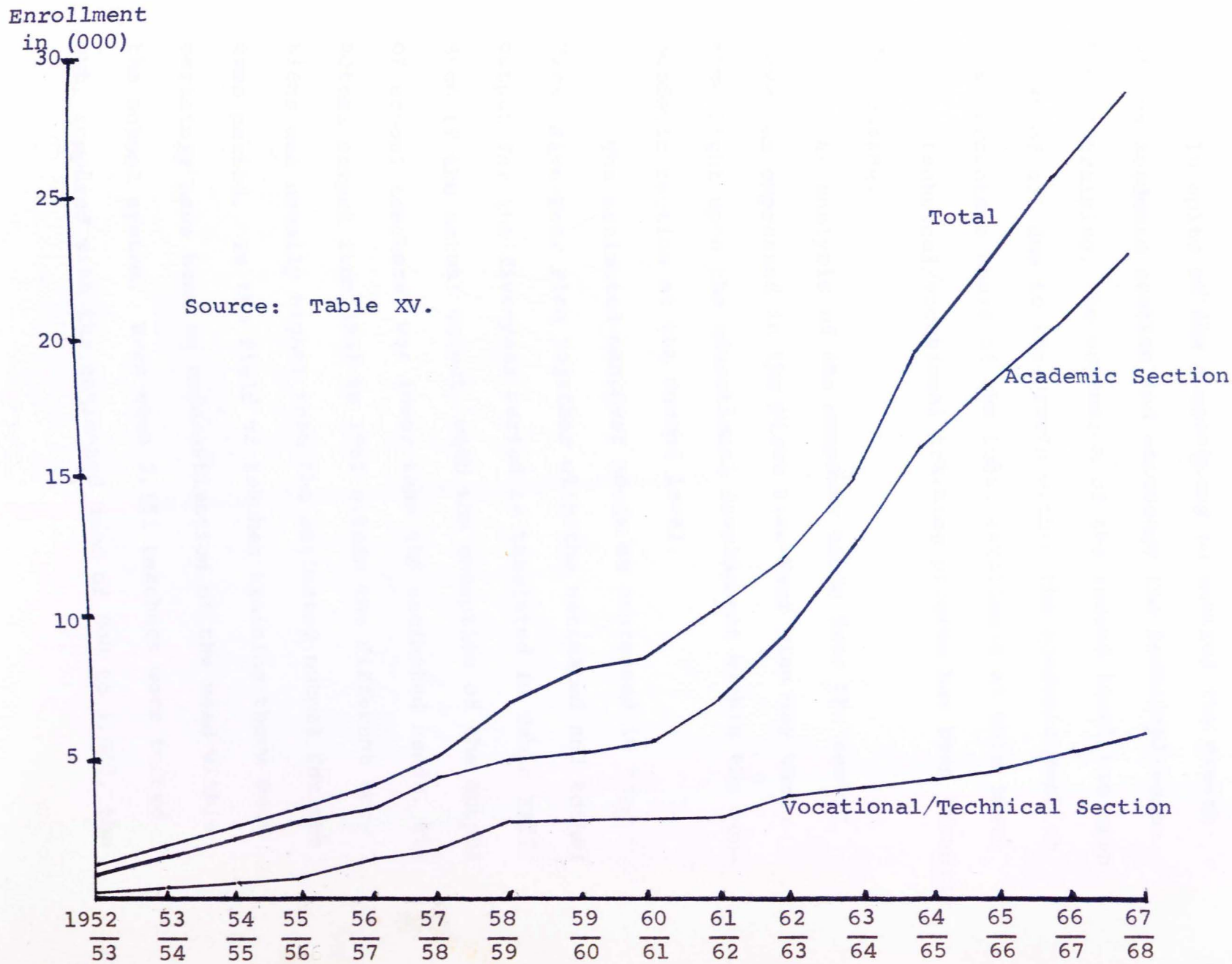

Figure 12. Enrollment at second level in Government schools, 1952/53-1967/68.

In spite of the suggestions to control the growth of the academic section and encourage the technical/vocational training, the expansion of the second level has been first of all due to the growth within the academic section. The percentage share of the total enrollment at this level by the technical/vocational training program has been steadily decreasing.

An analysis of the manpower needs from the second level as expressed in the First Five-Year Plan may throw some light upon the educational development within the non-academic section at the second level.

The estimated manpower needs as expressed in the First Five-Year Plan together with the estimated and actual output for the five-year period is tabulated in Table XXI. Even if the actual output, with the exception of the output of school teachers, was lower than the estimated needs, the actual output from 1957 to 1961 within the different sections was usually higher than the estimated output for the same period. In the field of teacher training there must certainly have been an underestimation of the need within the school system. Even when 2,151 teachers were turned out, compared with the estimated need of 800 to 1,000, the

TABLE XXI

MANPOWER PROJECTION FROM SECONDARY EDUCATION ACCORDING TO THE FIRST FIVE YEAR PLAN

Sector of Needs	Estimated Needs 1957-61	Estimated Output 1957-61	Actual Output
A-1- Administration	500-500		
2- Banks	100-150		
3- Commerce	150-200		
	650-850	400	700
B-1- Industry	600-800		
2- Mining	200-300		
3- Electricity	150-200		
4- Transport	100-150		
5- Construction	100-150		
	1150-1600	740	988
C- Agriculture and Forestry	400-500	287	389
D- Teacher Training for Middle School	800-1000	571	2151
E- Health	300-400	261	420
		Total	4684

Adapted from different sources:

Five Year Plan of Economic Development, 1957-1961, Section Education (Addis Ababa: Imeprial Ethiopian Government, 1957), pp. 19, 20.

Second Five Year Development Plan (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1962), p. 260.

teacher situation in 1961/62 was reported to be as problematic as five years earlier.[9]

While the output from special secondary schools during the First Five-Year Plan amounted to a total of 4,648 graduates, as indicated in Table XXI, the Second Five-Year Plan as pictured in Table XXII projected a need of 11,700 skilled manpower from this section, which is 151 per cent higher than the expectations from the First Five-Year Plan.

The enrollment in secondary special schools went up 86.6 per cent during the period from 1962/63 to 1967/68, and it may be unrealistic to expect a 151 per cent increase in output with only an 86 per cent increase in input in the form of increased enrollment. A detailed report about the actual output from the different special schools was not published in the Third Year Development Plan where most of the results from the Second Five-Year Plan were reviewed.

Referring to the second level education during the Second Five-Year Plan, the report states:

> Secondary education was given high priority in the plan, with special emphasis on technical and vocational

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[9] The Second Five-Year Development Plan (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1962), p. 253.

TABLE XXII

NUMBER OF GRADUATES AND SKILLED MANPOWER REQUIREMENT FOR THE SECOND FIVE YEAR PLAN*

Requirement from Secondary Level Graduates	
Technicians	1 550
Agriculture and Forestry	928
Veterinary Technician	402
School Teachers	2 509
Commercialists	1 340
Other Skills	4 980
Total	11 700

*Ethiopia's Second Five Year Development Plan, Ethiopian Observer, Vol. VIV, No. 3, 1964, p. 190.

education. The total secondary enrollment soared 120 per cent and classrooms increased 82 per cent. In contrast, the expansion of technical and vocational streams was less satisfactory.[10]

Increased Enrollment of Girls

Percentage of girls enrolled. It has already been mentioned that the Memorandum of Educational Policy of 1944 was the first educational plan for Ethiopia which stressed the need for an increase in the enrollment of girls in the Ethiopian educational system. This memorandum stated that the education of girls is regarded as being at least as important as that of boys.[11]

A similar viewpoint was expressed in the Addis Ababa Plan, as well as in the Second and Third Five-Year Plan. The earliest data in connection with enrollment of girls in government schools indicate that in 1946, out of a total student population of 31,470, there were 3,374 girls, or 10.6 per cent of the total enrollment, which is presented in Table II, page 61.

The form in which the enrollment of girls is reported

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[10] Third Five-Year Development Plan (Addis Ababa: Imperial Ethiopian Government, 1968), p. 291.

[11] Appendix C, p. 302.

in the official statistics differs from year to year and sometimes from level to level. An attempt to reach a common expression of those figures relevant to the period of time under discussion is found in Table XXIII. An attempt has been made also to convert the figures obtained from different sources into an approximate profile, and this is presented in Figure 13. The closer the data to the present date, the more reliable are the figures.

The enrollment of girls has increased steadily but rather slowly since 1955/56 with an average of 0.24 per cent per annum over the last twelve-year period at the first level. At the second level the percentage of girls enrolled went from 11.1 to 16.9 over the same period. This indicates an average rate of increase of 0.2 per cent per annum.

A larger percentage of girls has been enrolled in the vocational/technical sector of the second level than in the academic section. The average percentages for the respective sections are 11.2 per cent for the academic section and 18.4 per cent for the vocational/technical section.

During the period covering the First Five-Year Plan, 1957-1962, there was a marked increase of girls enrolled in the vocational/technical section. As the First Five-Year Plan does not stress in any particular way the need for an

TABLE XXIII

ENROLLMENT OF GIRLS IN PERCENTAGE AT FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS 1955/56-1967/68

Year	First Level	SECOND LEVEL		Total Second Level
		Academic	Voc/Tech.	
1955/56	17,6	10,1	11,8	11,1
1956/57	17,8	10,1	11,9	11,2
1957/58	18,5	7,8	24,4	15,7
1958/59	20,2	6,9	26,4	15,7
1959/60	22,3	7,4	25,0	14,7
1960/61	22,9	7,8	13,1	12,2
1961/62	24,8	9,5	22,8	13,8
1962/63	22,2	11,8	16,9	14,4
1963/64	23,6	12,9	17,2	15,2
1964/65	22,8	13,5	17,1	16,0
1965/66	23,4	15,1	17,4	16,4
1966/67	24,1	16,5	17,5	17,3
1967/68	25,2	15,9	17,9	16,9

Sources:

Government School Enrollment, 1959/60 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1960), pp. 1, 7, 9.

School Census for Ethiopia, 1961/62 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1962), pp. 19-20.

School Census for Ethiopia, 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 8, 13.

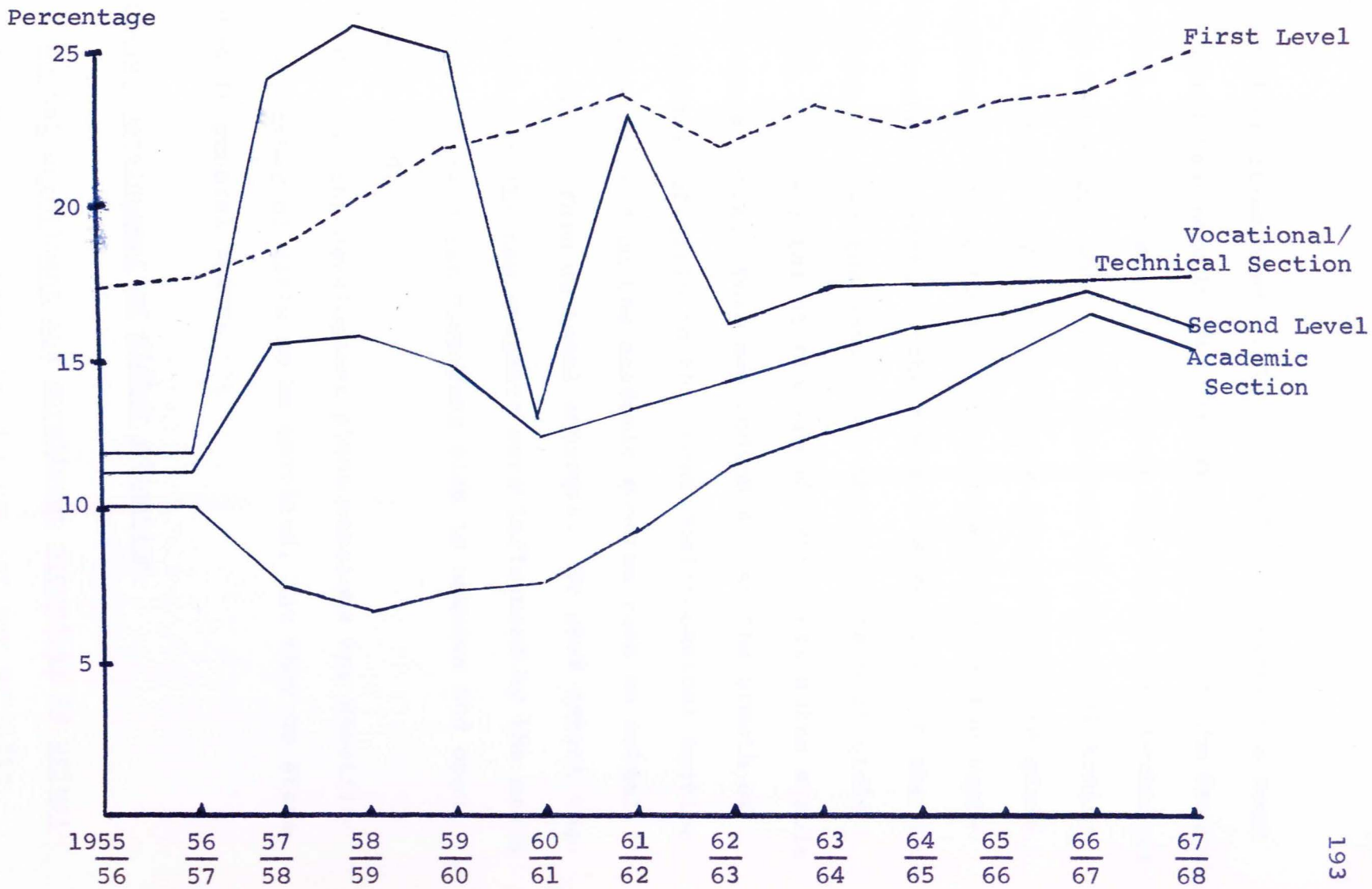

Figure 13. Enrollment of girls in percentage at first and second level in Government schools, 1955/56-1967/68.

increased enrollment of girls but rather stresses the need for trained manpower in the different sections of the development plan, the increase of girls in the vocational/technical section may be due more to an interest in practical training than a result of a general urge for getting more girls into schools. While this increase took place in the vocational/technical section, there was a marked drop in the academic section. At the same time, the percentage of girls enrolled, of the total at the second level, was quite stable during those years. This may indicate that the growth of the enrollment of girls in the vocational/technical section was more a shift from the academic section than an actual increase in the form of total entrants. To what extent the motivations of the new entrants were influenced by the needs expressed in the First Five-Year Plan is unknown and open to further study.

None of the development plans mentions any specific target or number of girls to be enrolled, but they do state the need in general terms.

Controlled Development of Higher Education

Actual enrollment and enrollment according to priorities. The First Five-Year Plan did not set any specific

targets for the manpower needed from the third level of education. The plan restricted itself to two main recommendations which touched upon the question of quantity as well as quality:

1. To balance the enrollment at the third level in accordance with the increasing need for qualified personnel and in particular for skilled manpower to meet the demands for these during the development period.
2. To control the expansion at the third level in order to increase the quality of education by setting the target for the total enrollment in 1962 to 900 students.

In this way the First Five-Year Plan tried to influence the trend in higher education quantitatively and qualitatively as well as functionally by trying to keep the enrollment within priority fields of studies for the total development plan, and thus mobilize the human resources at the third level of education for economic development.

As was illustrated in Table XVII, the enrollment at the third level with an average increase of 18.6 per cent per annum was the level with the highest increase within the Ethiopian school system for the period 1952/53 to 1967/68.

During the period for the First Five-Year Plan the

increase was more moderate, with an average increase of 7.7 per cent per annum, and the actual enrollment at the end of the plan period exceeded the target by 17 per cent. As the termination of the First Five-Year Plan closes the first decade of educational development at this level in Ethiopia, it may add to the understanding and evaluation of the present situation to review the whole decade for the rest of this section of the study.

The first decade of higher education in Ethiopia, that is from the founding of a junior college in 1951 to the inauguration of the university in 1961, can be summarized in a few tables. The growth of student enrollment in higher education, which is illustrated by Table XXIV, indicates that the enrollment in 1961 was ten times higher than at the time the university was founded as a junior college.

The distribution of graduates from the different colleges over the ten-year period is shown in Table XXV. All institutions referred to in this table are state institutions. The first non-government institutions of higher learning to enter the educational scene in Ethiopia were the Lutheran College at Debre Zeit and the Ethiopian Adventist College at Shassamane in 1965, which initially applied for recognition as junior colleges.

TABLE XXIV

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN ALL COLLEGE FACULTIES IN ETHIOPIA 1951-1960

	Number of Students	Annual Growth Percentage
1951-52	73	
1952-53	100	39
1953-54	142	42
1954-55	201	41
1955-56	345	72
1956-57	466	35
1957-58	605	30
1958-59	760	25
1959-60	784	3
1960-61	939	19

Sources:

Government School Enrolment 1959/1960 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1960), p. 21.

TABLE XXV

GRADUATES OF ETHIOPIAN COLLEGES

University College of Addis Ababa	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	TOTAL
B.A.-General			10	7	13	16		12	9	6	73
-Education			3	2	3	7	6	20	16	17	74
-Administration							10		3	7	20
-Pre-Law							6		8		14
-Economics								13	10	4	27
Diplomas in Administration	11			2	1	1					15
Diplomas in Law				40			12	8			
Certificates-Extension						12	9	5	4	16	46
Total - B.A.			13	9	16	23	22	45	48	34	208
Total - Diplomas & Certificates	11			42	1	13	21	13	4	16	121
Science											
Certificates & Diplomas - Biology		3	3	9			3	6			24
Certificates & Diplomas		6	2	4	7	3	6	13			41
B.S. - Biology						6	2	1	1	5	15
U.C.A.A. GRAND TOTAL - Degrees			13	9	16	29	24	46	49	39	223
- Diplomas/Certificates	11	9	5	55	8	16	30	32	4	16	133
College of Engineering - B.S.							7	12	19	19	57
College of Public Health - Dip.						20		29	17	18	84
Building College - B.S.										4	4
- Diplomas								11	7	12	30
College of Agriculture - B.S.						11	17	28	24	44	124
GRAND TOTAL FOR ALL COLLEGES:											
Degrees			13	9	16	40	48	86	92	116	420
Diplomas and Certificates	11	9	5	55	8	36	30	72	28	46	300

Source:

School Census 1952-1961 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, pp. 28, 29, 30.

*Degree program is four years. Diplomas and Certificates programs are two years.

The distribution of graduates and diploma students within the fields of arts and sciences is tabulated and graphed in Table XXV and Figure 14. According to the plans for the university, the science section should have the priority. Up to 1957 there was almost an equal distribution of degrees, diplomas and certificates within the two faculties, while the trend of development from 1957 to 1961 is in favour of the science section. If diplomas and degrees were considered as a total production of the two faculties, 68.4 per cent were to be found within the field of science and technology. The UNESCO report recommends that about 60 per cent of college enrollment be in the field of sciences and technology in developing countries.[12]

For the Second Five-Year Plan, investment in agriculture and industry were strongly eccentuated, and the Planning Board had called for a carefully designed educational policy with proper selection of priorities and necessary adjustments. In the field of higher education the selection of priorities and necessary adjustments were expressed in the targets set for student enrollment. The target for the total enrollment was made up of an estimated

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[12]UNESCO, Final Report, op. cit.,

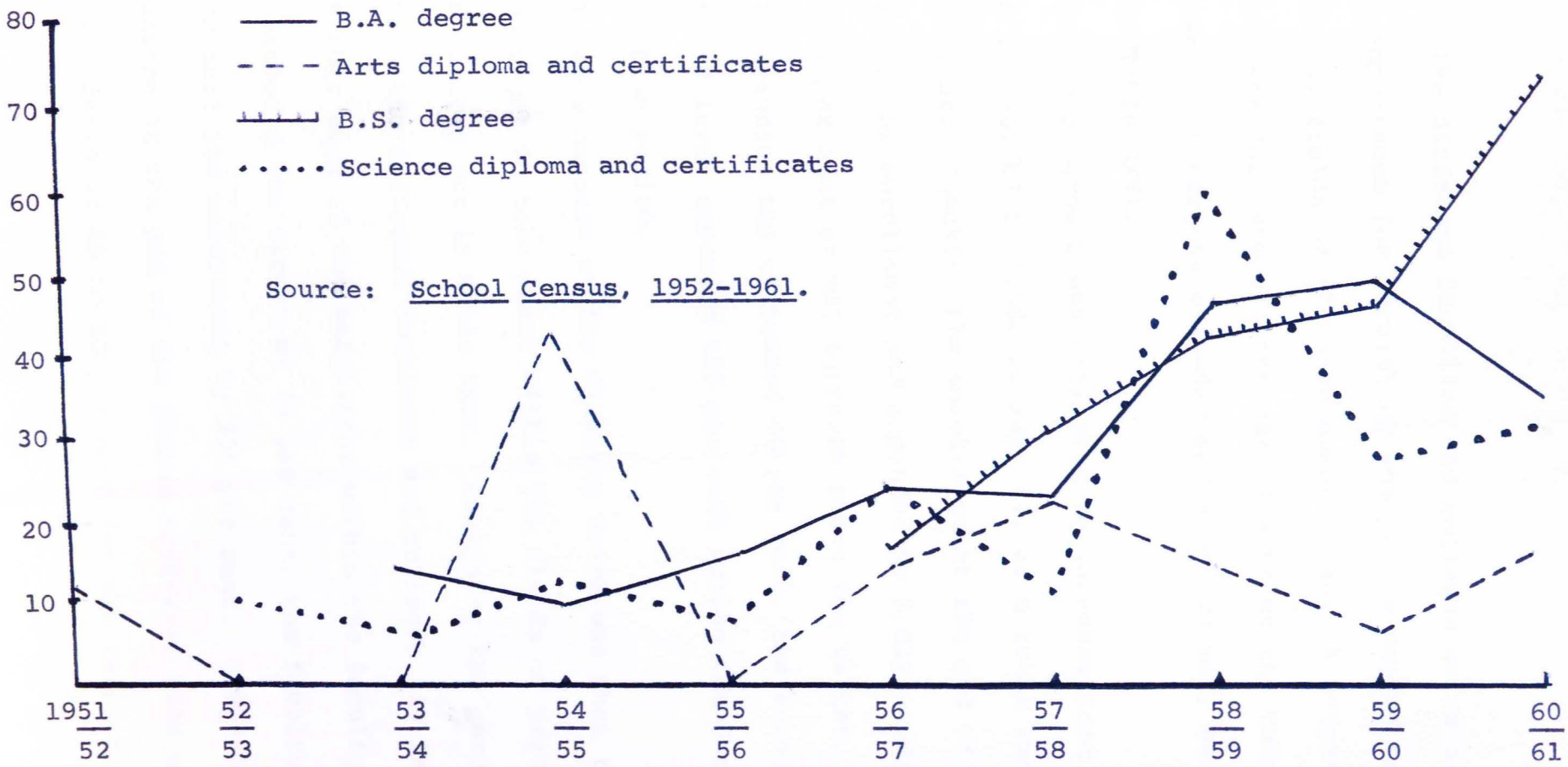


Figure 14. Graduates from junior and senior college levels in Ethiopia for the period 1952-1961.

growth of the different faculties and colleges as related to their importance for furnishing the people needed within the different fields of the development plan. A comparison of targets set for 1966/67 with enrollments at the target date showed some targets exceeded and some not met, as presented in Table XXVI.

The total growth was estimated to increase from 1,050 students in 1961/62 to 1,560 in 1966/67, or a total increase of 48 per cent. Checking the enrollment at the end of the plan period, the enrollment had expanded to 2,517 students which is 61 per cent or 941 entrants above the target. Instead of expanding the estimated 48 per cent, the enrollment at the third level expanded 139 per cent during the Second Five-Year Plan period.

A major concern of the Planning Board was that the expansion ought to take place within the fields of priorities, as pointed out in Table XXVI. Analyzing the enrollment within the different faculties and colleges, it is apparent that even if the enrollment within the faculty of science exceeded the target by 76 per cent, the faculty of arts increased its enrollment by 205 per cent. Comparing the situation at the end of the Second Five-Year Plan with the desired ratio of 40 to 60 per cent for the respective

TABLE XXVI

ENROLLMENT TARGETS AND REALIZATION AT THE THIRD LEVEL FOR THE SECOND FIVE YEAR PLAN

Faculty	Enrollment 1961/62	Target 1966/67	Growth Index 1961/62	Realization 1966/67	As percentage of Target
Faculty of Arts*	366	500	137	1526	305
Faculty of Science	120	200	166	353	176
Engineering College	171	230	134	208	90
Building College	118	160	136	58	36
Agricultural College	205	300	146	194	65
Public Health College	56	150	268	153	102
Theological College	14	20	143	25	125

*Including students studying Business, Education and Social Work

Sources:

Ethiopia's Second Five Year Plan, Ethiopian Observer, VII, No. 3 (January, 1964), p. 190

School Census for Ethiopia, 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 55, 56.

fields of arts and humanities at the one hand and science and technology at the other, the situation in Ethiopia in 1966/67 was that there were 61.2 per cent of the total enrollment within the faculty of arts, while 38.8 per cent was within the faculty of science and technology. If compared with the situation at the end of the First Five-Year Plan the situation has been reversed, as at that time there was an enrollment ratio of 68.4 per cent within the field of science and technology and 37.6 per cent within the field of arts, which was close to the desired ratio as expressed by UNESCO.

The distribution of the student enrollment at the end of the Second and the beginning of the Third Five-Year Plan does not show a realization of the educational target according to the priorities as stated in the plan. This is obvious first of all in the field of technology where none of the colleges reached their targets, and secondly in the section of arts and humanities where the targets were surpassed by 205 per cent.

Efficiency in Education

The attrition rate. The problem of educational wastage as found in the number of students leaving the school

system has been a major concern to educational planners in Ethiopia and has been expressed in all the development plans since 1953. The focus of this concern has not only been a desire to increase the actual output of the educational dollar by keeping more students in school for a longer time but also a desire to increase the standard of teaching as well as the student material at the three levels.

The actual reasons for the attrition taking place at the different levels of education in Ethiopia are not known. This section of the study will address itself only to tracing the actual trend of the dropout rate within the Ethiopian school system in the last fifteen years, 1952/53 to 1967/68.

This fifteen-year period within which reliable data for a dropout study are available, presents an opportunity to compare the dropout rate at the first level for an eight-year period from 1952/53 to 1959/60 and a second period from 1960/61 to 1967/68. During the first eight-year period the wastage at the first level was 82.1 per cent, whereas it had decreased to 74.6 per cent during the last eight-year period. This is represented in Tables XXVII and XXVIII and Figures 15 and 16.

An attempt to give a progressive picture of the attrition for the whole period of fifteen years at the first,

TABLE XXVII

*AN EIGHT-YEAR PUPIL PROMOTION STUDY 1952-60 IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS**

School Year	FIRST LEVEL								Total
	Gr.1	Gr.2	Gr.3	Gr.4	Gr.5	Gr.6	Gr.7	Gr.8	
1952-53	29 821	11 654	6 836	4 040	2 374	1 734	1 095	849	58 453
1953-54	35 844	13 071	7 950	4 387	2 901	2 135	1 397	1 005	68 691
1954-55	40 571	14 749	8 930	5 133	3 266	2 285	1 606	1 241	77 831
1955-56	44 765	18 229	10 776	6 806	4 134	2 824	2 230	1 896	91 641
1956-57	52 632	23 619	13 877	8 597	5 492	3 965	2 700	2 361	113 243
1957-58	54 345	26 795	17 833	11 135	6 977	5 045	3 699	3 145	128 979
1958-59	50 381	26 165	19 466	12 983	8 643	6 039	4 775	4 270	132 722
1959-60	49 877	26 200	20 463	14 562	10 064	7 256	5 280	5 356	138 978

*Eritrea not included.

Sources:

Government School Enrollment, 1959-1960 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1960), pp. 20, 32, 46.

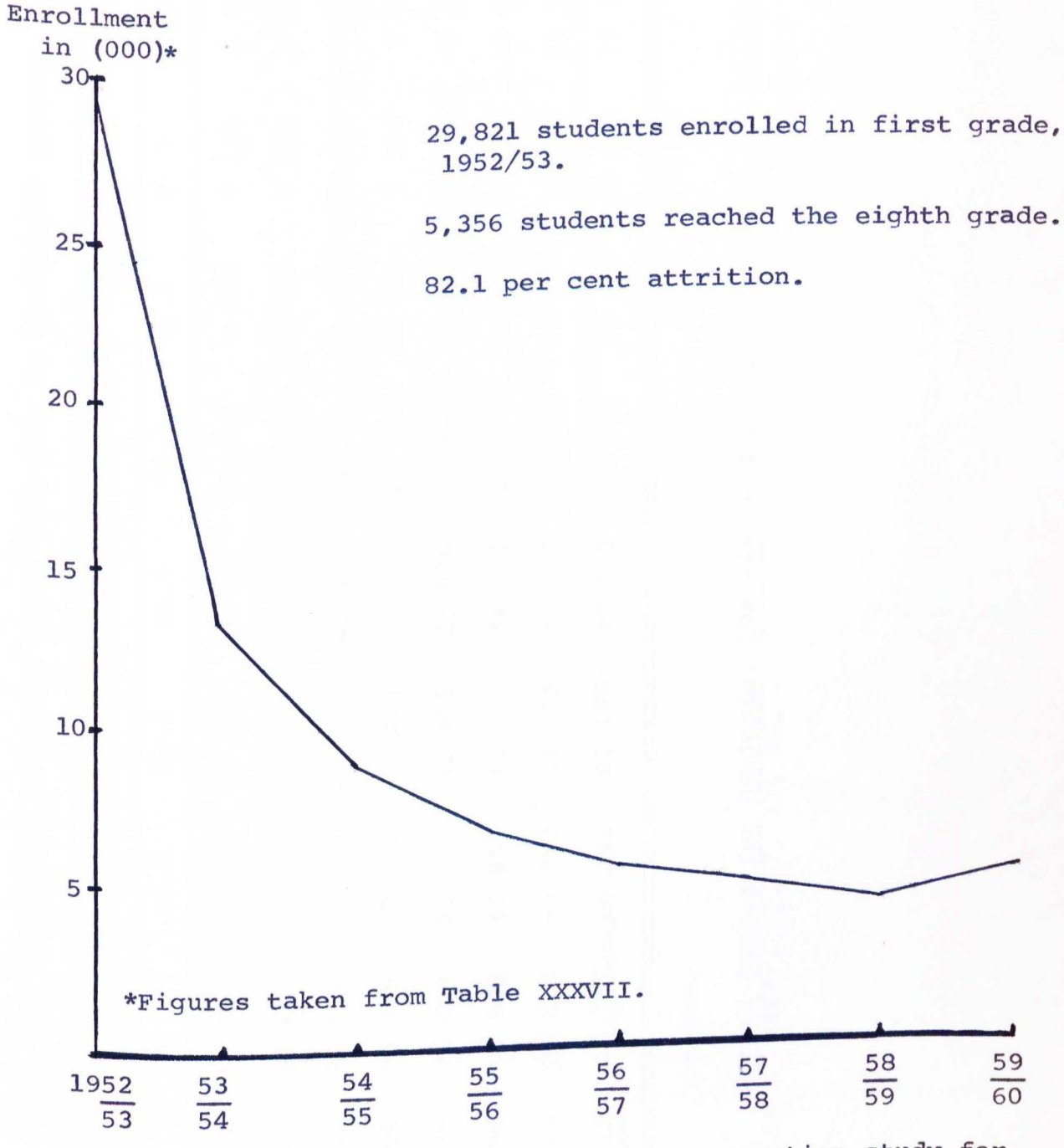


Figure 15. An eight-year promotion study for Government elementary schools in Ethiopia, 1952/53-1959/60.

TABLE XXVIII

AN EIGHT YEAR PROMOTION STUDY 1961-1968 IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS

School Year	FIRST LEVEL								Total
	Gr.1	Gr.2	Gr.3	Gr.4	Gr.5	Gr.6	Gr.7	Gr.8	
1960-61	69 253	36 858	26 408	19 784	12 846	9 656	7 135	6 428	188 368
1961-62	68 141	39 094	28 234	20 636	14 069	10 359	7 895	7 190	195 618
1962-63	83 179	41 353	30 710	22 466	15 305	11 305	8 891	7 652	220 861
1963-64	95 480	47 161	34 490	26 607	17 810	12 892	9 330	8 555	252 325
1964-65	94 043	55 719	41 415	29 078	21 812	15 669	11 375	8 976	278 088
1965-66	95 002	60 845	48 207	34 274	25 109	19 838	13 407	11 028	307 710
1966-67	98 834	64 352	54 272	41 607	29 956	23 186	18 067	12 769	343 043
1967-68	103 753	66 341	57 168	47 559	35 563	28 535	29 801	17 593	386 113

Sources:

School Census for Ethiopia, 1967-68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 7, 13, 37.

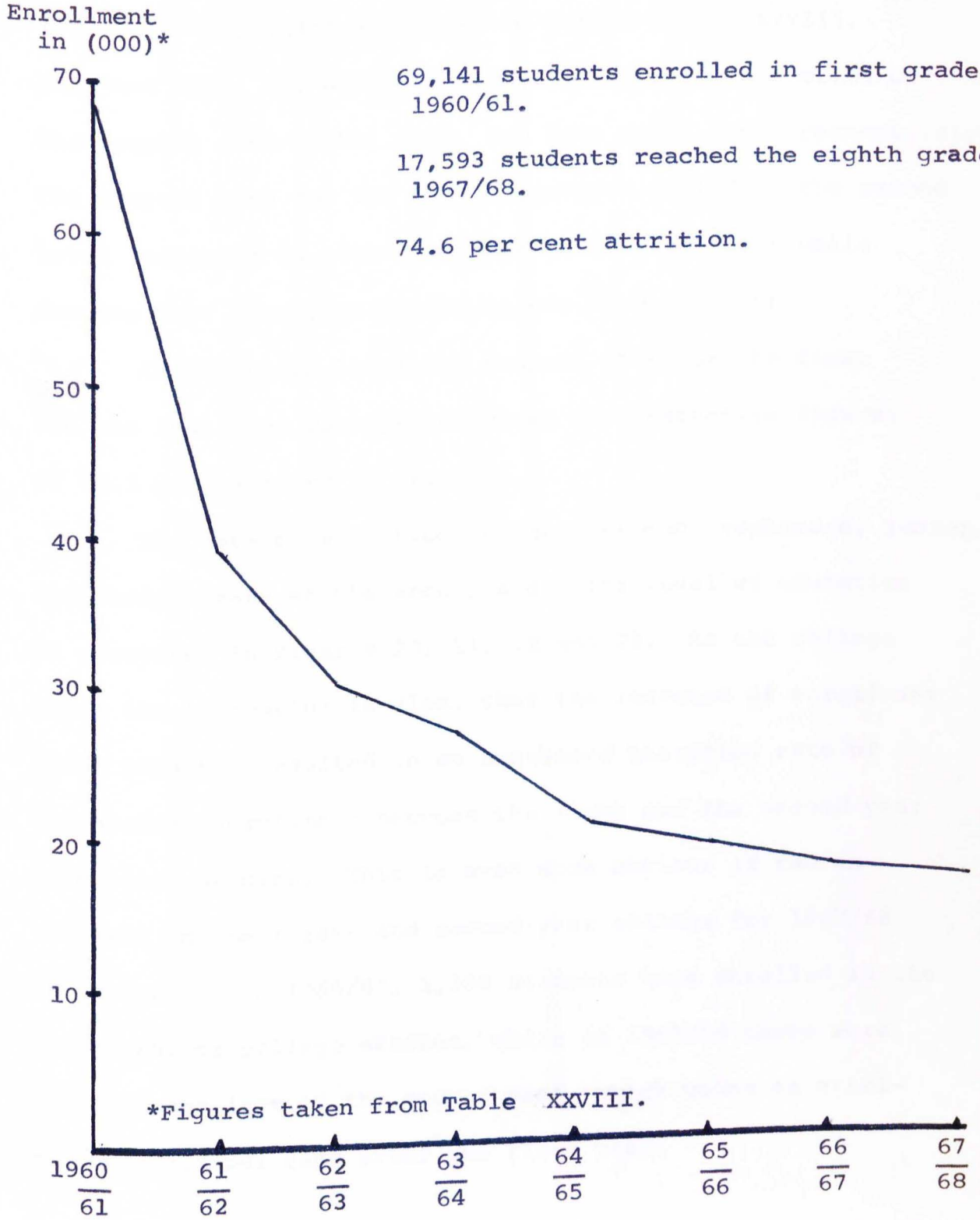


Figure 16. An eight-year promotion study of Government elementary schools in Ethiopia, 1960/61-1967/68.

second, and third level respectively is graphed in Figures 17, 18 and 19, which are based on Tables XXVII, XXVIII, XXIX and XXX. The diagonal lines indicate the direction of the dropout rate eight, four, and four years later respectively. The dropout rate for the first four-year period at the second level indicates an attrition rate of 56.1 per cent while for the last four-year period it was 52.8 per cent.

At the third level the dropout rate for the first and the last four year period shows the respective figures of 68.3 per cent and 62 per cent.

The rate of attrition in the freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior years at the second and third level of education is presented in Figures 20, 21, 22 and 23. At the college level the indication is clear that the increase of enrollment since 1964 has resulted in an increased attrition rate of the student enrollment between the first and the second year of college studies. This is even more obvious if the enrollment in the first- and second-year college for 1967/68 is included. In 1966/67, 1,250 students were enrolled in the first year of college studies, while in 1967/68 there were 778 students left in the second year, which means an attrition of 37.8 per cent after the first year.

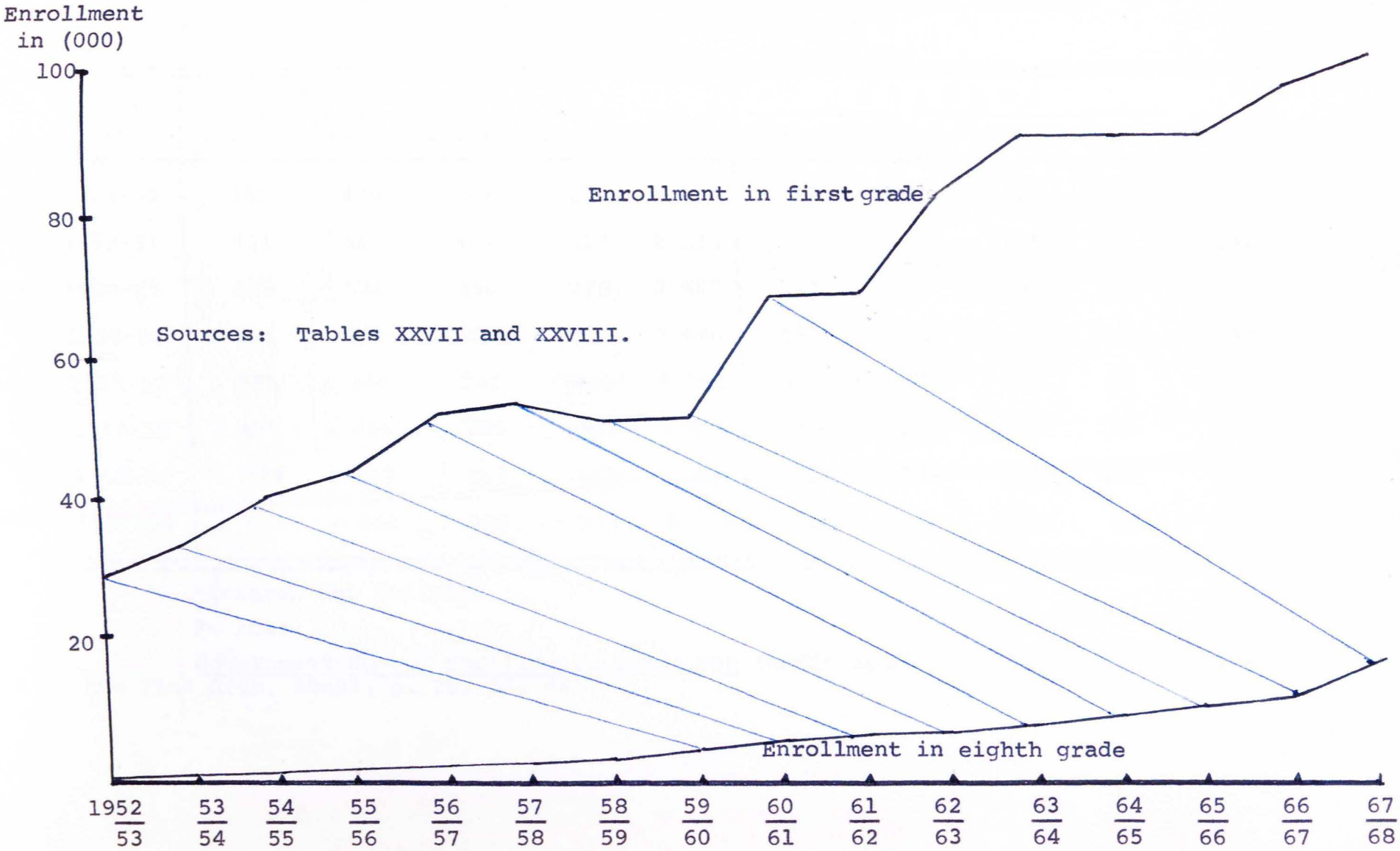


Figure 17. A dropout study at the first level, 1952/53-1967/68.

TABLE XXIX

A FOUR YEAR PROMOTION STUDY 1952-1960 IN GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND HIGHER EDUCATION*

School Year	SECONDARY				Total	COLLEGE				Total
	Gr. 9	Gr.10	Gr.11	Gr.12		Col.1	Col.2	Col.3	Col.4	
1952-53	705	470	261	176	1 612	57	21	22	-	100
1953-54	834	563	415	313	2 125	76	35	18	13	142
1954-55	1 283	576	456	278	2 593	98	55	39	11	203
1955-56	1 301	935	494	310	3 040	187	91	49	18	345
1956-57	1 783	1 150	740	468	4 141	179	167	79	41	466
1957-58	2 175	1 466	889	606	5 136	254	161	139	51	605
1958-59	3 379	1 922	1 263	673	7 264	318	172	143	127	760
1959-60	2 943	2 342	1 390	917	8 014	316	236	137	95	784

*Eritrea not included.

Sources:

Government School Enrollment, 1959-1960 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1960), p. 20, 32, 46.

TABLE XXX

A FOUR YEAR PROMOTION STUDY 1961-1968 IN GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND HIGHER EDUCATION

School Year	Gr.9	Gr.10	Gr.11	Gr.12	Total	Col.1	Col.2	Col.3	Col.4	Total
1960-61	3 546	2 164	1 854	851	8 415	356	263	183	137	939
1961-62	4 280	2 776	1 714	1 163	9 933	377	301	202	170	1 050
1962-63	5 518	3 332	2 103	1 244	12 197	402	212	228	199	1 041
1963-64	6 751	4 818	2 551	1 395	15 515	853	280	249	244	1 626
1964-65	8 730	5 459	3 566	2 199	19 954	844	464	169	166	1 643
1965-66	8 520	7 091	4 471	2 853	22 935	945	549	301	210	2 005
1966-67	9 545	7 011	5 599	3 390	25 545	1 250	631	437	199	2 517
1967-68	10 707	8 303	5 888	4 127	29 022	1 237	775	493	321	2 826

Sources:

School Census for Ethiopia, 1967-68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 7, 13, 32.

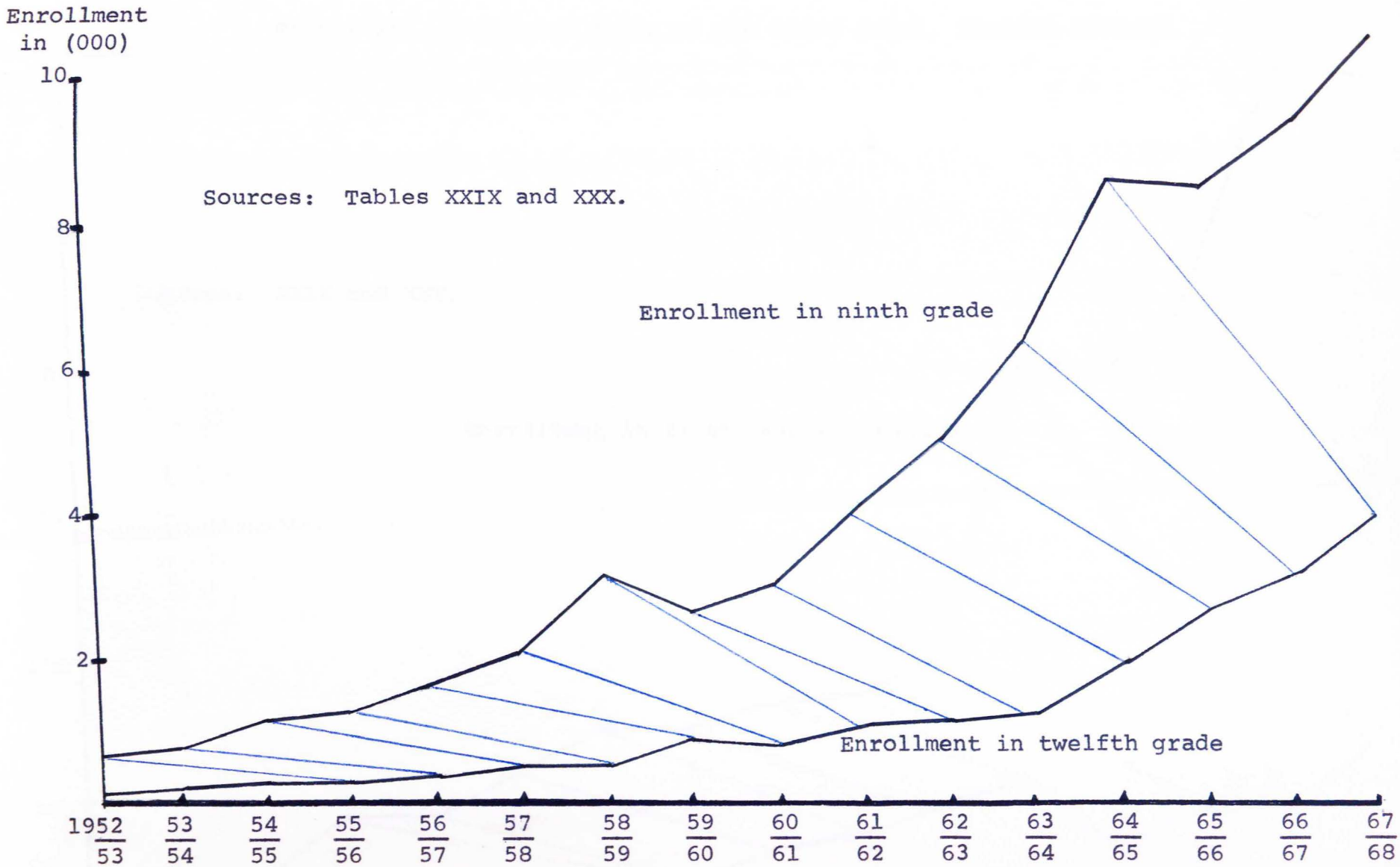
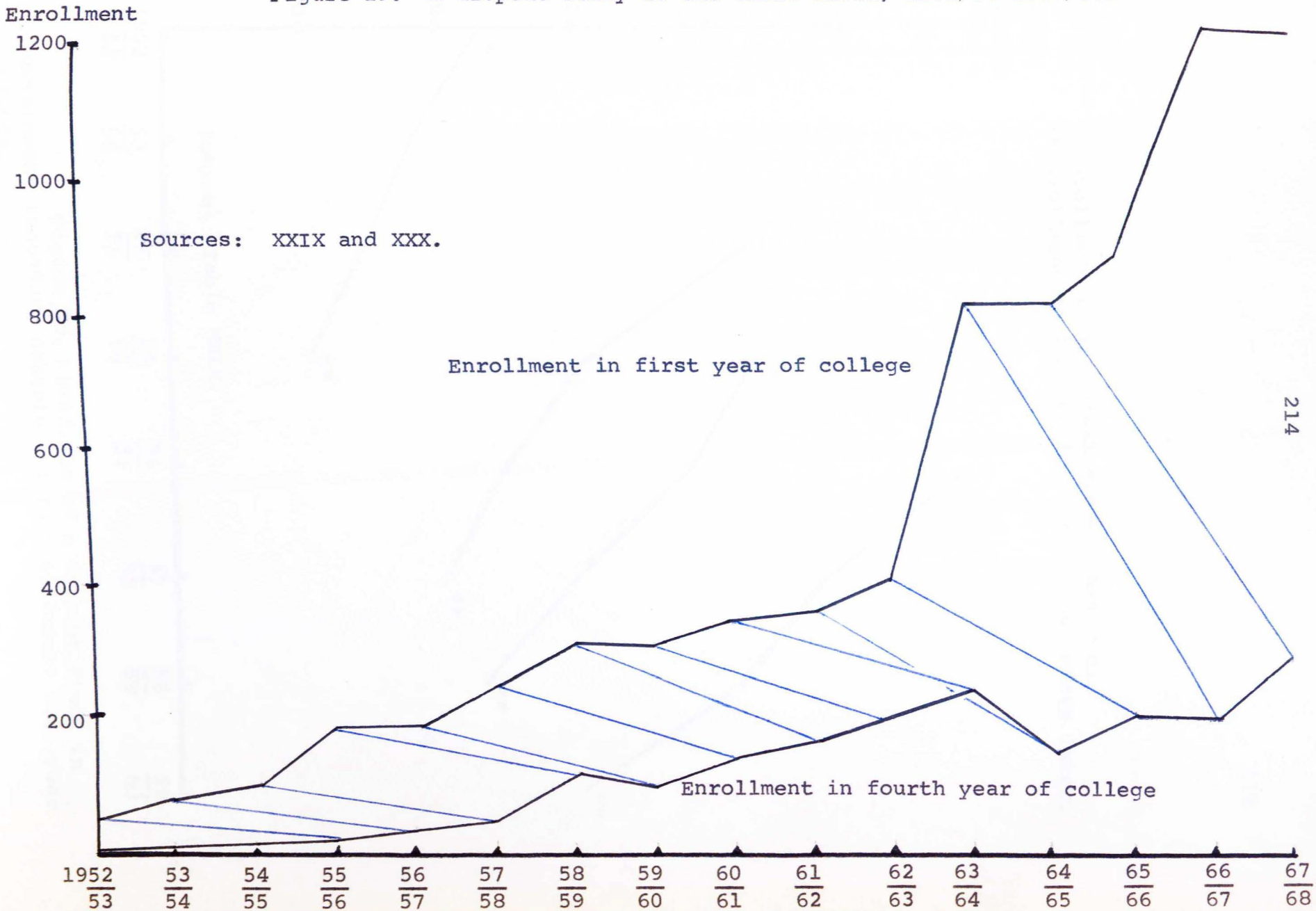


Figure 18. A dropout study at the second level, 1952/53-1967/68.

Figure 19. A dropout study at the third level, 1952/53-1967/68.



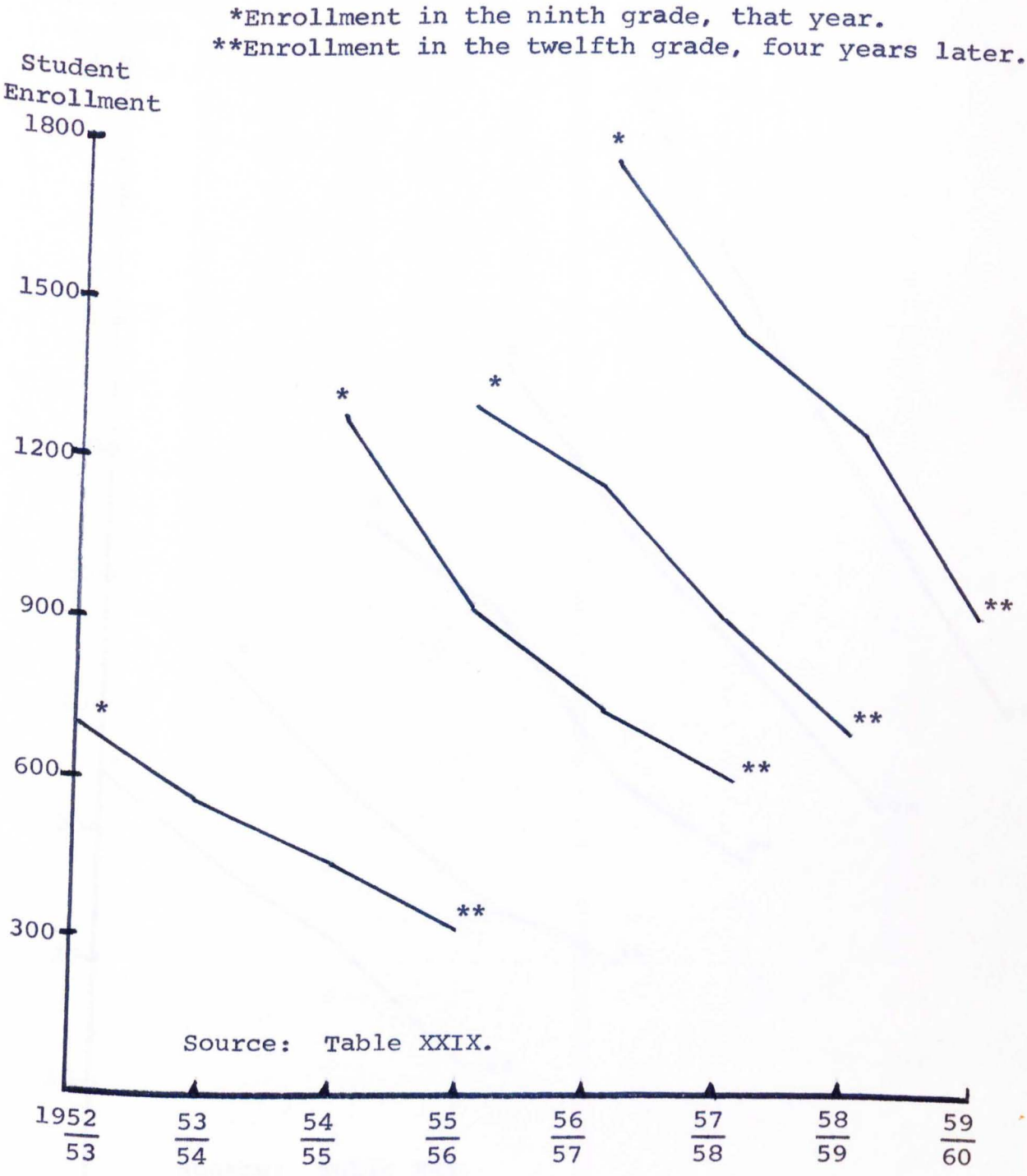


Figure 20. Profiles of a dropout study in Government secondary schools for four different four-year periods.

*Enrollment in the ninth grade, that year.

**Enrollment in the twelfth grade, four years later.

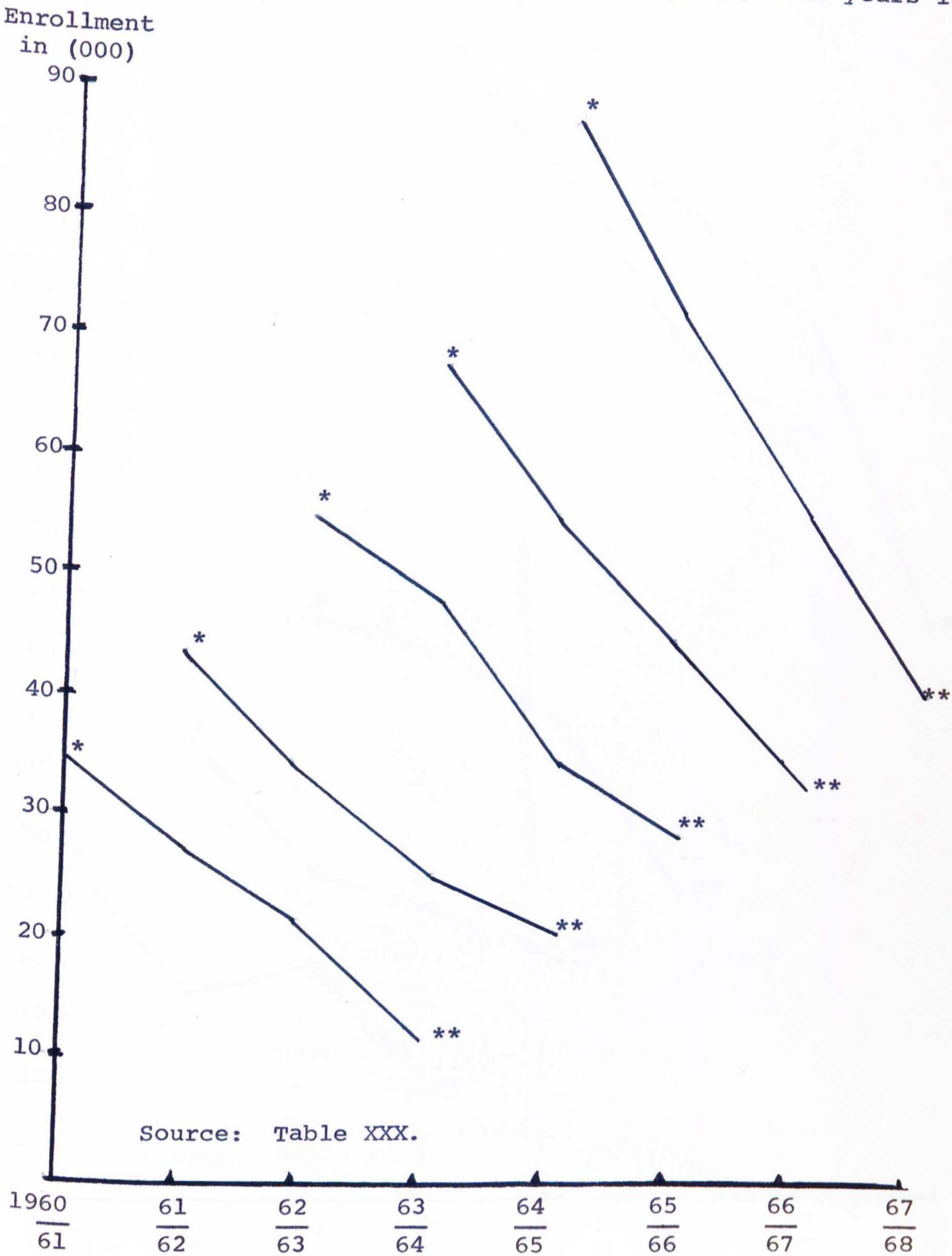


Figure 21. Profiles of a dropout study in Government secondary schools for four different four-year periods.

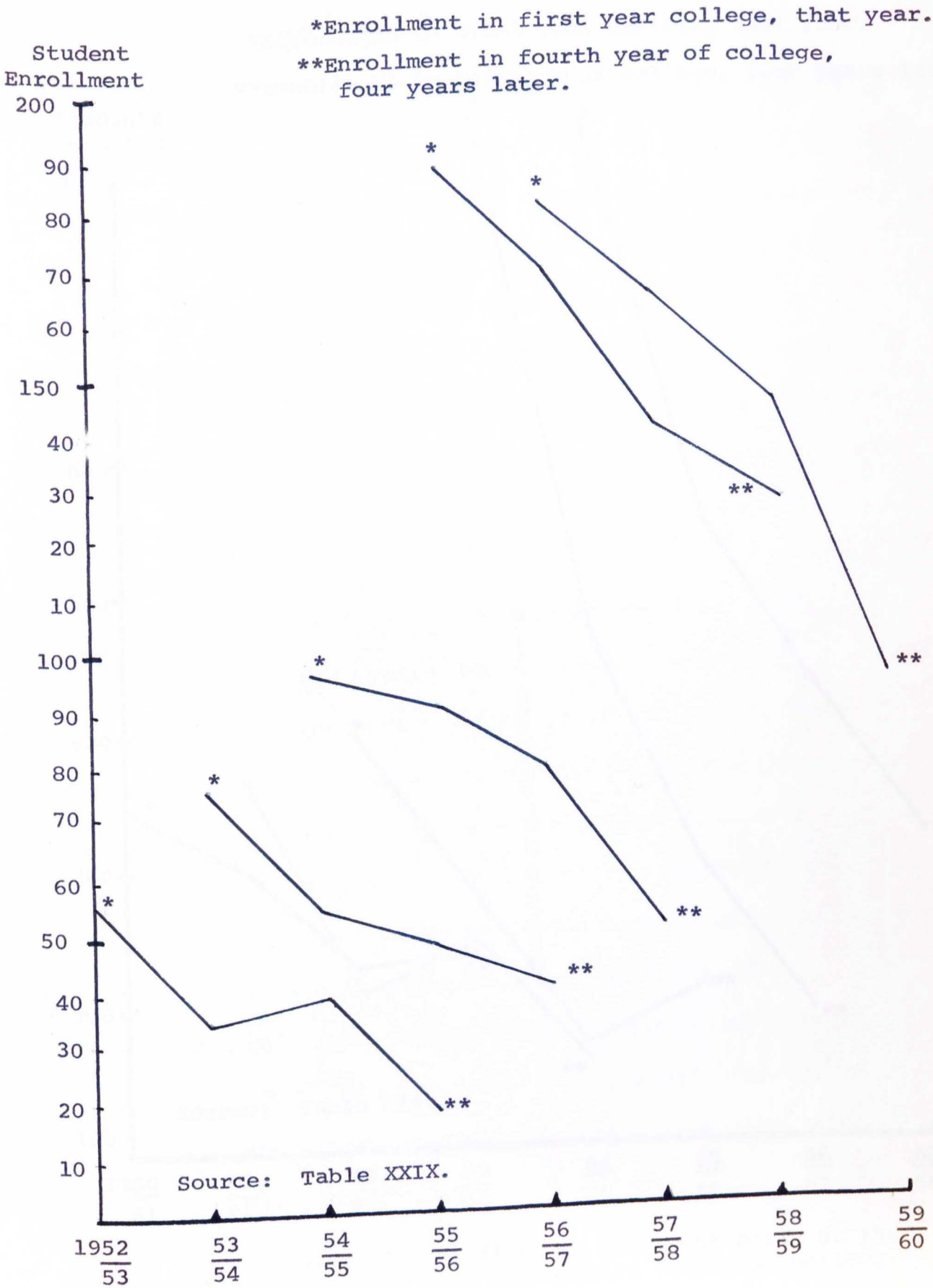


Figure 22. Profiles of a dropout study on the college level for five consecutive four-year periods.

*Enrollment in first year college, that year.

**Enrollment in fourth year college, four years later.

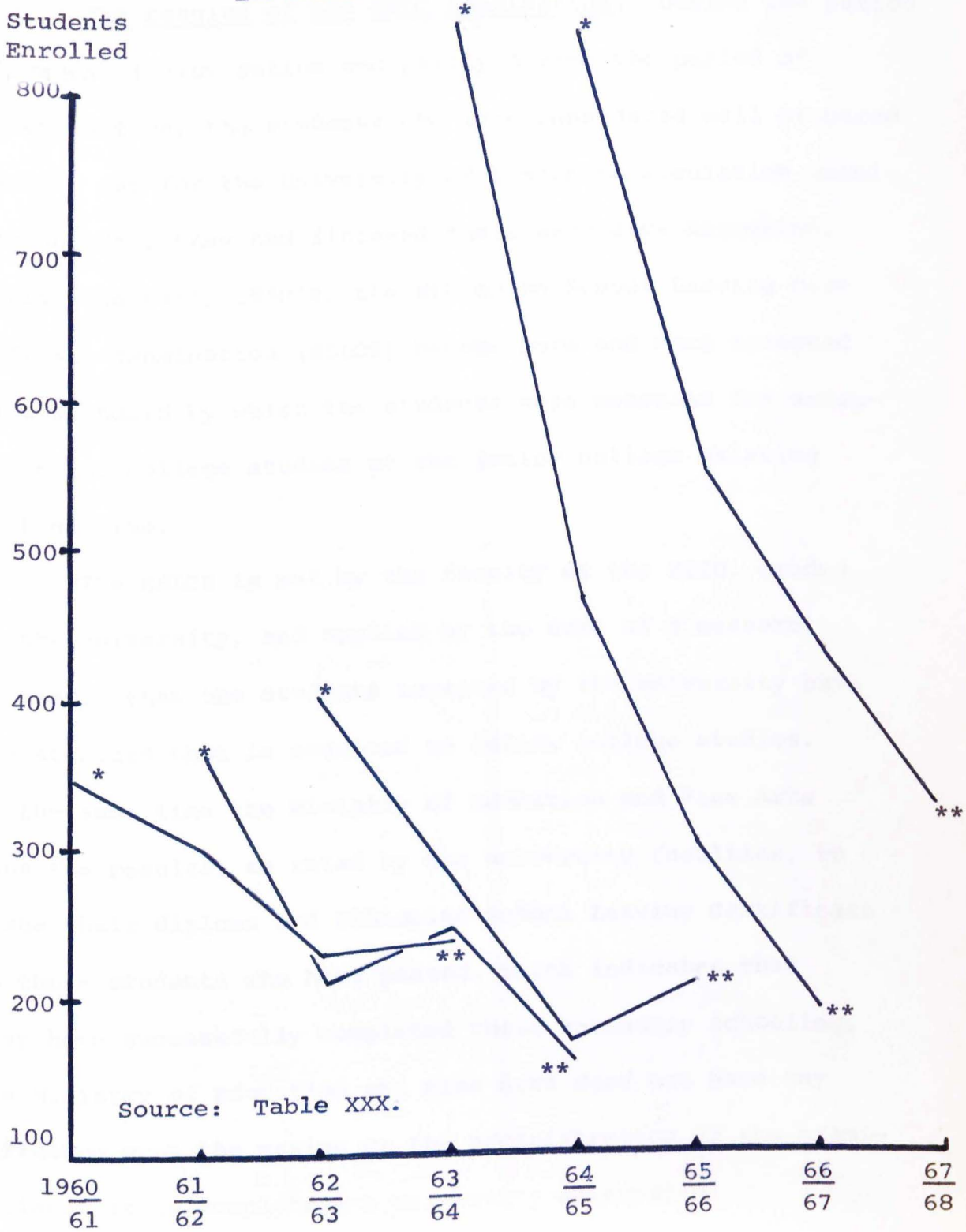


Figure 23. Profiles of a dropout study at the college level for five consecutive four-year periods.

Quality of Education

The results of the ESLC Examination. During the period of Urgent Improvisation and partly during the period of Consolidation, the students who were considered well prepared usually sat for the University of London Matriculation Examination after they had finished their secondary schooling. During the early 1950's, the Ethiopian School Leaving Certificate Examination (ESLCE) became more and more accepted as a standard by which the students were measured for acceptance for college studies at the junior college existing at that time.

The ESLCE is set by the faculty at the HSIU, graded by the university, and applied by the same as a measure to assure that the students accepted by the university have the standard that is required to follow college studies. At the same time the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts uses the results, as rated by the university faculties, to issue their diploma and Ethiopian School Leaving Certificate to those students who have passed, which indicates that they have successfully completed their secondary schooling. The Ministry of Education and Fine Arts does not have any influence upon the making or the administration of the examination. It is completely a university enterprise.

The certificate is granted under the following conditions:[13]

1. To pass in any subject, 50 per cent of the available points for that subject must be obtained.
2. A candidate who secures the requisite points in Amharic, English and mathematics, and any other two subjects is granted the certificate.
3. A candidate who fails a subject (F) must be re-examined in that subject.

The Commission for the Long-Term Plan had in 1953 already expressed its concern over the rapid expansion of the academic section of the secondary school and the increasing percentage of the students who did not pass the ESLCE. The Commission recommended the opening of more vocational possibilities, and that the admission to the secondary school be controlled which would raise the standard of education at the first as well as the second level. A similar viewpoint was also expressed in the First and Second Five-Year Plan.

In spite of the fact that the First Five-Year Plan noted that the secondary schools were well provided for and

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[13] Ethiopian State Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination, Ethiopian Observer, II, No. 5 (April, 1958) p. 185.

could accommodate more students than they did at the time, the number of academic secondary schools was tripled during the period 1956-1961.[14] For the period 1952/53 to 1967/68 it has already been pointed out that the academic section of the secondary school had increased by an average of 17 per cent per annum, while the vocational/technical section had increased by an average of 12.7 per cent per annum.

If the results of the ESLCE is to be used as a measure of the quality of education within the second level of education in Ethiopia, as has been the case in the past, the questions to ask may be: what has the actual development been and what is the present trend?

An analysis of the development since 1951/52 is presented in Table XXXI. Included in the tabulation is the number of students enrolled in the twelfth grade, the number and percentage of the total enrollment of students who were registered for the ESLCE, and the percentage of students who passed related to the total enrollment as well as to students who sat for the examination.

The percentage of students who passed the ESLCE

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[14] Imperial Ethiopian Government, The Second Five-Year Development Plan, 1962-1967 (Addis Ababa: Berhanene Selam Printing Press, 1962), p. 51.

TABLE XXXI

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS PASSING THE ESLCE 1951/52-1967/68

Year	Enrollment in grade 12. Number of students	Registered for ESLCE exam	Percentage of total enrollment registered for ESLCE	Number of students passing the ESLCE	Percentage of passes of students registered for ESLCE	Percentage of passes to total enrollment in grade 12
1951/52	138	83	60,1	63	75,9	45,6
1952/53	176	86	51,7	64	75,8	36,3
1953/54	313	105	33,5	73	70,0	23,3
1954/55	278	159	57,1	88	55,5	31,6
1955/56	310	163	52,5	103	63,2	33,2
1956/57	468	153	32,8	111	72,5	23,7
1957/58	606	317	52,6	197	62,2	32,5
1958/59	673	441	65,5	180	40,8	26,7
1959/60	917	412	44,9	168	40,7	18,3
1960/61	851	532	62,5	192	36,0	22,5
1961/62	1163	718	61,7	167	23,2	14,3
1962/63	1244	738	59,3	203	27,5	16,0
1963/64	1395	762	54,6	216	28,3	16,2
1964/65	2199	1256	57,1	284	22,6	12,8
1965/66	2853	1598	56,0	338	21,1	11,9
1966/67	3390	1932	57,0	425	22,0	12,5
1967/68	4127	2567	62,2	645	25,1	15,5

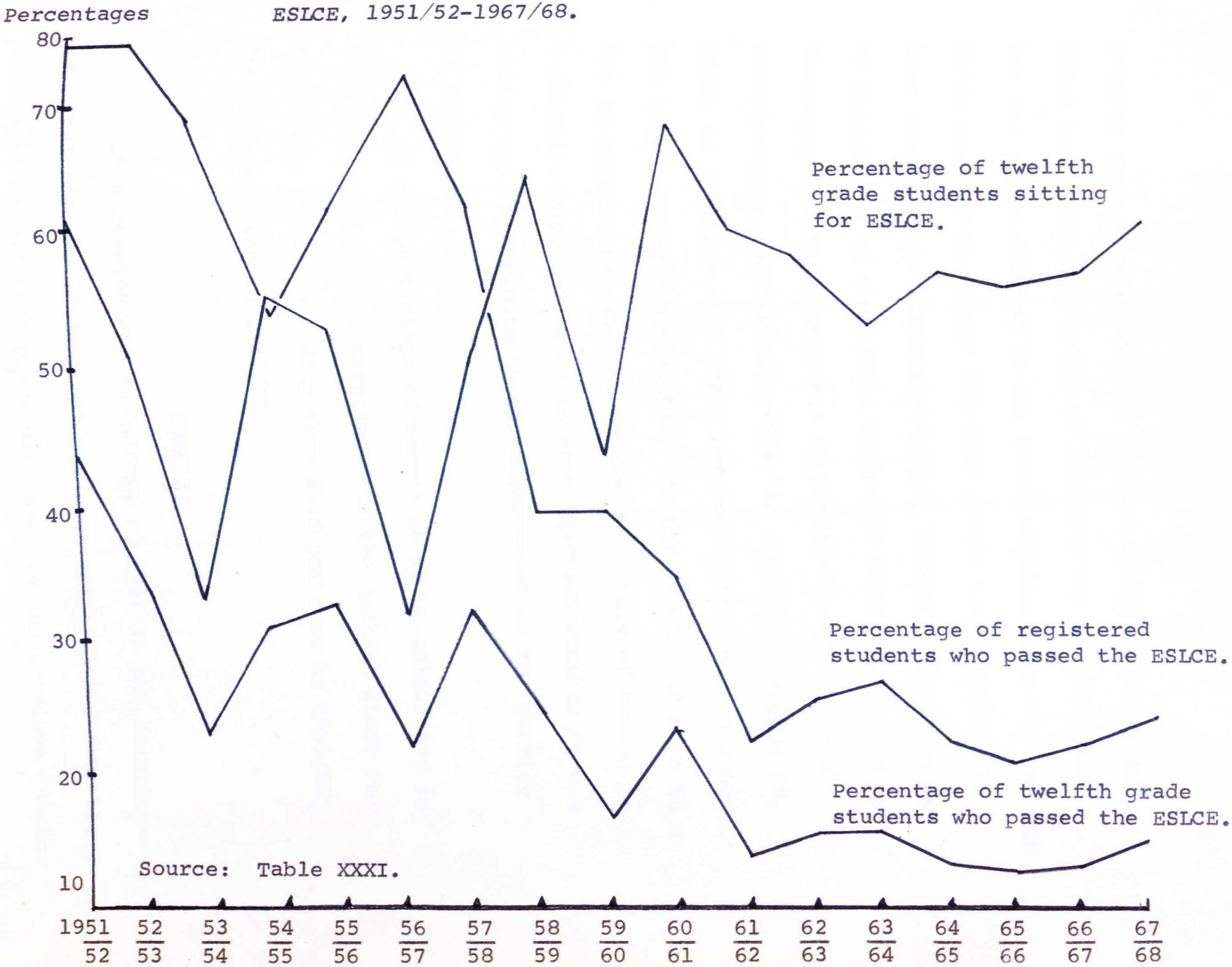
Sources:

Government School Census, 1952-1959 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1959).

School Census for Ethiopia 1961-1962 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Farts, 1962).

School Census for Ethiopia 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968.

Figure 24. Percentage of students passed in the ESLCE, 1951/52-1967/68.



dropped from 75.9 in 1951/52 to 25.1 in 1967/68. On the other hand, the percentage of students who actually sat for the ESLCE related to the total enrollment in the twelfth grade has had an upward and more stable trend during the last decade. The interrelationship between the percentage of passes out of the actual number of students sitting for the ESLCE and the percentage of passes out of the total enrollment in the twelfth grade, as graphed in Figure 24, seems to indicate that there has been a tendency to restrict the number of students sitting for the ESLCE, and that this has to some extent influenced the percentage of passes in a positive way, but there is some question whether such a policy will contribute to the improvement of the quality of education.

If the percentage of passes is to be calculated in relation to the total enrollment in the twelfth grade for each year, there is a drop from 45.6 per cent in 1951/52 to 15.5 per cent in 1967/68.

SUMMARY

This chapter was an attempt to analyze the relationship between the educational needs as crystallized from the different development plans discussed in the previous chapter

and the actual attainment of educational objectives with reference to economic and program factors.

The educational needs and the attainment of these needs were discussed in the following sequence, and the findings are summarized under each heading.

1. To retain education as a priority.

A nation's effort to pay for the cost of education may be seen in relation to the amount of money allocated for education as a percentage of the national budget and of the GNP, and as the amount of money spent per student. During the last ten-year period the educational budget has been fluctuating between 7.2 and 14 percent of the national budget, or an average of 10.8 per cent per annum. While the total national budget had increased by 230 per cent for the ten-year period, the educational budget had increased by 240 per cent.

An increase in financial support for education has taken place in the form of actual money spent, but not as an increase of the percentage of the national budget, and Lipsky's estimate that the government has spent about 20 per cent of the national budget on education during the last part of the 1950's and the beginning of the 1960's seems therefore to be too high.

The investment made by the government as a percentage of the GNP has increased from 0.63 per cent in 1955 to 1.9 per cent in 1967/68, and the projected investment in education for the year 1973 is 3.3 per cent of the GNP. The financial support by the Government to increase education is below the "desired averages" for educational investment as indicated in the Addis Ababa Plan, where the expected percentage of the GNP for educational purposes was supposed to have increased from 3.9 in 1961 to 8.0 per cent in 1973.

2. <u>To increase financial support for education.</u>

The amount of money spent per student as an average for all levels of education has decreased from E$163 in 1958/59 to E$126.7 in 1967/68. The information needed to analyze the per-student cost at the first and second level by themselves is available only for the last four years within the time framework of this study. The trend from 1963/64 to 1967/68 shows that the per-student cost at the first level has increased from E$43 to E$52.5, while the per-student cost for the secondary academic and vocational/technical sections respectively had increased from E$345 to E$412 and E$545 to E$610.

The amount of money for capital expenditures has

increased from 3.6 per cent of the total expenditures for education in 1964/65 to 18.6 per cent in 1967/68. In order to find out how the capital expenditures had influenced the average school plant, the question was approached from the viewpoint of, how many students there were per classroom unit and what the trend in student/teacher ratio was.

The highest number of students per classroom unit was found in the first grade but the number of students per classroom unit had increased for all grades, and the average for the first and second level has increased from 37 students in 1961/62 to 45 students per classroom in 1967/68. The student/teacher ratio went up from 33 in 1957/58 to 50 in 1967/68 at the first level.

3. To make education available to a larger constituency. This section was concerned with the enrollment targets as set by the different development plans as well as an attempt to translate the enrollment figures into percentages of the different age-group populations, which had not been done in any analyses of educational development in Ethiopia up to date.

As a whole, the enrollment targets both for the First and the Second Five-Year Plan were surpassed. However,

enrollment at the second level reached only 85.2 per cent of the targets set in the Second Five-Year Plan.

If the enrollment trends at the three levels of education for the last ten years were to be translated into age-group percentages and applied as a basis for an enrollment projection toward the "desired averages" of a student enrollment of 100 per cent for the first level, 23 per cent at the second level, and 2.0 per cent at the third level in the year 1982, the following situation would exist:

a. Instead of reaching the"desired average" of 100 per cent of the age-group population at the first level, it would, according to the historical trend, have an enrollment of between 35 and 50 per cent.

b. Instead of reaching the "desired average" of 23 per cent of the age-group population at the second level, it would, according to the historical trend, have an enrollment of between 10 and 20 per cent.

c. At the third level the enrollment would be close to the "desired average" of 2 per cent of the age-group population.

4. <u>To increase the enrollment in vocational/technical training</u>. The growth at the second level of education from 1952/53

to 1967/68 has taken place at an average rate of 15.6 per cent per annum, distributed with 17 per cent in the academic section and 12.7 per cent in vocational/technical training.

The enrollment in the academic section has increased from 71 to 80.5 per cent of the total enrollment at the second level from 1952/53 to 1967/68. During the same period of time, the enrollment in the vocational/technical section has decreased from 29 to 19.5 per cent of the total enrollment at the second level.

In 1967/68 the distribution of the enrollment at the second level between the academic and vocational/technical section was very close to the ratio of 80 to 20 which was expressed as a desired average in the Addis Ababa Plan. Even with this desired proportion of enrollment in the two sections, the school system has not been able to reach the estimated needed and skilled manpower goals of the First and Second Five-Year Plan.

5. <u>To increase the enrollment of girls.</u>

The earliest data available with respect to the ratio of girls enrolled to the total enrollment are for the year 1946. At that time, 10.6 per cent of the total enrollment was girls. During the period 1955/56

to 1967/68 the enrollment of girls increased from 17.6 to 25.2 per cent for the first level and from 11.1 to 16.9 per cent for the second level. The increase in the enrollment of girls at the second level was distributed with an almost equal share of 5.8 and 5.1 per cent within the academic and vocational/technical section respectively.

6. To control the development of higher education.

Since 1952/53 the third level of education has had the highest percentage of growth and with an annual average of 18.6 per cent. This is in spite of the fact that a desire for a controlled development has been cited as one of the needs in most of the development plans. The enrollment target for this level in the Second Five-Year Plan was surpassed by almost 60 per cent. From the time when the HSIU was started as a junior college in 1951 to the inauguration of the institution as a university in 1961, there was a balance between the graduates from the science and technological faculties and the liberal arts in the ratio of 68.4 to 31.6. At the end of the Second Five-Year Plan this picture had almost been reversed as the ratio was 61.2 per cent of the enrollment in the liberal arts and 38.8 per cent in the field of science and technology. The "desired" ratio according to the Addis Ababa Plan is 60 per cent

in the fields of sciences and technology and 40 per cent in the liberal arts.

7. To acquire more efficiency in education.

For the fifteen-year period within which reliable data are available the attrition rate for the first level has decreased from 82.1 to 74.6 per cent. For the second level there is an improvement of the attrition rate from 56.1 per cent for the first four-year period to 52.8 per cent for the last four-year period.

At the third level the dropout rate for the first and the last four-year period decreased from 68.3 to 62 per cent.

8. To better the quality of education.

The Long-Range Planning Commission had in 1953 already expressed its concern with the high percentage of failures that existed among the candidates sitting for the ESLCE. In 1951/52 it was found that 75.9 per cent of the candidates sitting for the ESLCE passed the test, while in 1967/68 only 25.1 per cent passed.

The data on the students who sat for and passed the ESLCE suggest that controls were exercised over the number of those admitted to the examination. The result of the controls then appear to be that as limits

were placed on how many allowed to take the examination, the percentage of those who passed rose.

CHAPTER VI

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE NON-GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS TO STATED OBJECTIVES IN COMPARISON WITH GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS

Increased Financial Support for Education

The First as well as the Second Five-Year Plan recommended very strongly that the non-government schools ought to intensify their effort in order to accelerate the development of the educational section of the plans. In fact, the Second Five-Year Plan not only appealed to the non-government schools to increase their efforts, but actually set targets for student enrollment at the first level.

Educational expenditures and per-student cost. There are no official statistics available for educational expenditures for mission, private or church schools operating in Ethiopia. The only source for an estimate of private educational expenditures, the UNESCO's Statistical Yearbook, 1968, gives the following estimate. For the year 1965, which is the only year for an estimate, the per-student cost at the

first level was estimated at E$60, which is E$10 or 21 per cent higher than in government schools for the same year. The per-student cost at the second level within the academic section is estimated at E$612, which is 112 per cent higher than for government schools. The student cost for the vocational/technical section was estimated at E$1,285 or 133 per cent higher than in government institutions of the same kind.[1]

A comparison of the school plant situation with regard to the size of the schools as well as the student/teacher ratio in non-government and government schools may be of interest at this point. The direct influence of the size of the schools upon the school program and the individual student is at this time not known; however, during the last six to seven years the largest non-government schools have been operated by the missions, closely followed by the private schools. This information is presented in Table XXXII and in Figure 25. With the respective range in size from 131 to 158 students and 95 to 160 students as an average, these schools have been smaller than the average government

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[1] UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook, 1967 (Paris: UNESCO, 1968), p. 457.

TABLE XXXII

AVERAGE SCHOOL SIZE AND STUDENT/TEACHER RATIO
IN NON-GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS
1957/58-1967/68

Year	Mission Schools		Private Schools		Church Schools		Community Schools*	
	Size	Ratio	Size	Ratio	Size	Ratio	Size	Ratio
1957/58	149	23	136	28	95	25	144	33
1958/59	131	23	95	33	87	23	112	31
1959/60	146	25	198	27	73	24	124	37
1960/61	135	25	160	31	142	33	132	52
1961/62	146	25	141	26	113	40	125	43
1962/63	150	25	146	30	110	38	131	44
1963/64	152	27	137	33	141	35	140	35
1964/65	155	27	147	33	144	37	-	-
1965/66	158	29	155	32	145	38	-	-
1966/67	154	28	151	34	143	39	-	-
1967/68	156	28	154	33	144	42	-	-

*Not included after 1963/64.

Sources: Appendix F.

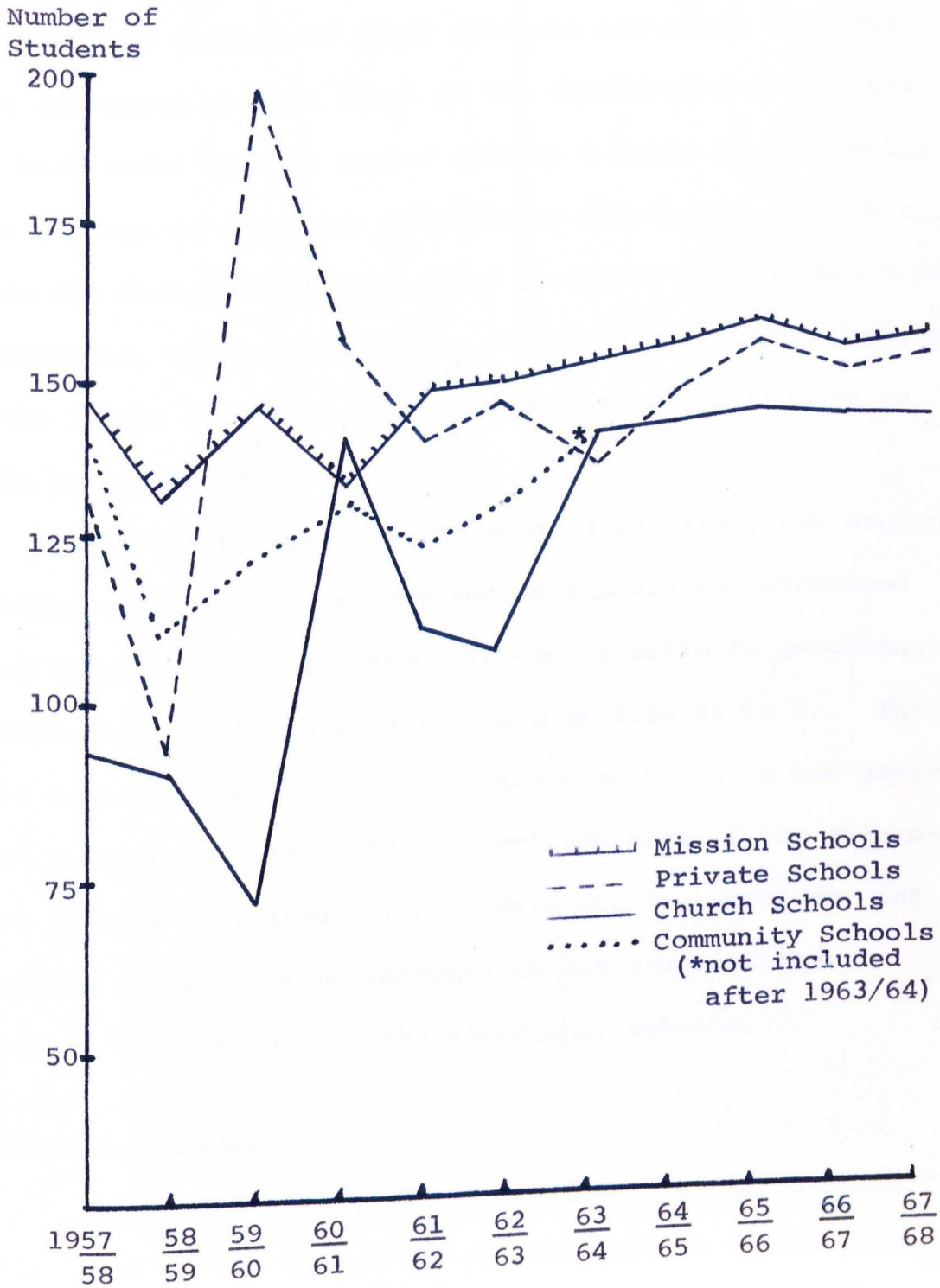

Figure 25. Average school size for the different types of non-Government schools, 1957/58-1967/68.

schools for the same period, which have ranged between 207 and 343 students.

A desire to get away from overcrowded classes and to reach an average of 35-37 students per class has been the expressed goal in three of the development plans, and in most cases this is looked upon as a means of increasing the quality of education provided by the system. It is outside the framework of this paper to verify or disprove this hypothesis, but a presentation of the actual student/teacher ratio in the different types of non-government schools is made in Figure 26.

For the ten-year period under discussion, the student/teacher ratio in the non-government schools has increased from 27 to 34 while the student/teacher ratio in government schools during the same period went up from 31 to 50. This will indicate that, even though the enrollment in non-government schools increased 678 per cent and that of the government schools increased 201 per cent, the increment has not resulted in as great an increase in the student/teacher ratio as was the case in the government schools.

Increased Enrollment

Actual enrollment and as percentage of total enrollment. Most of the discussion in this section of the study

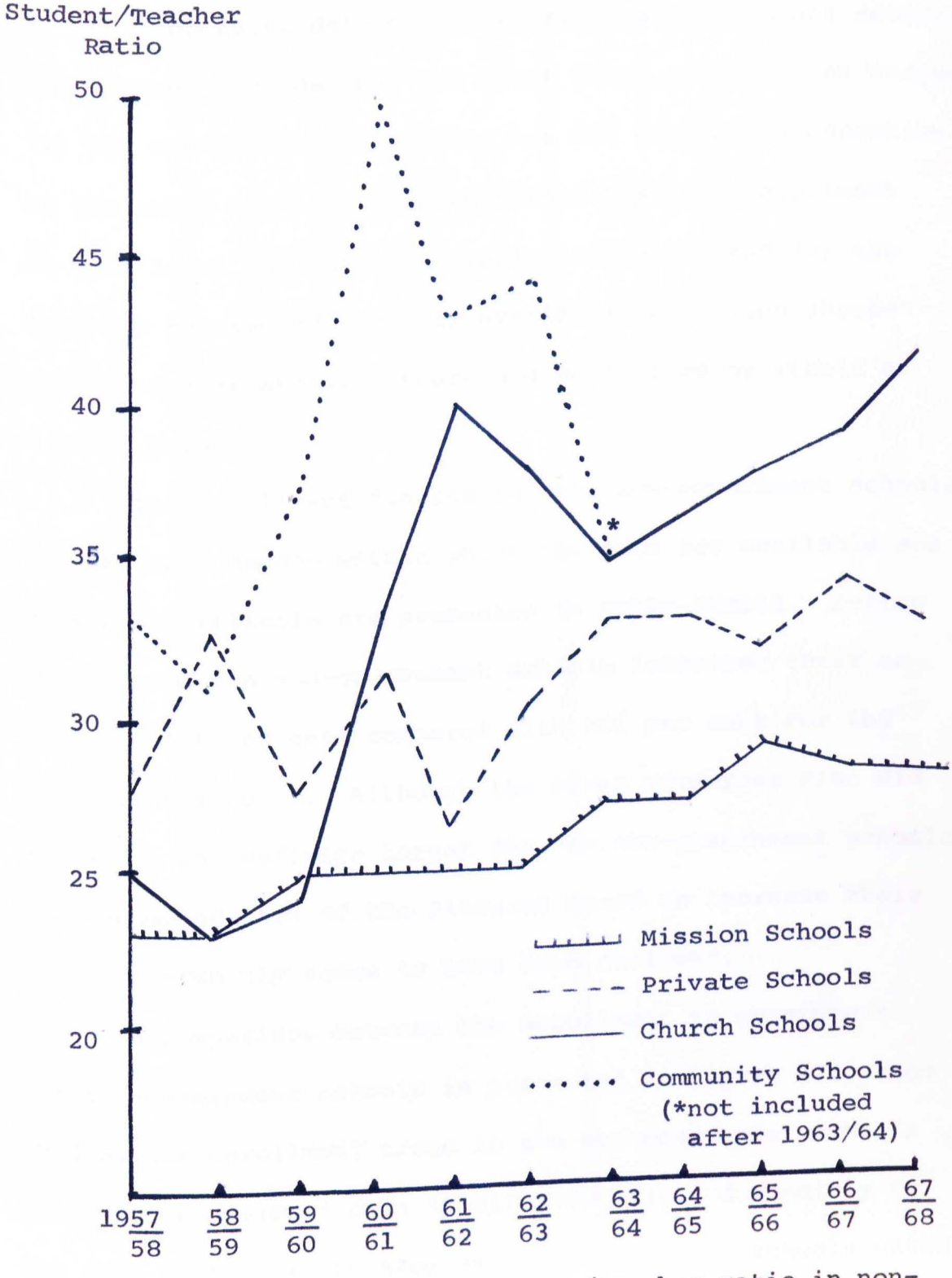

Figure 26. Student/teacher ratio in non-Government schools, first level, 1957/58-1967/68.

will be based upon figures taken from or based upon Appendix F, which contains data collected from many different sources. The figures include only the first level of education because (1) the non-government schools are not engaged in education at the third level to such an extent that the enrollment at that level will be appreciably influence, and (2) the data for the second level is available for a much shorter period of time and will therefore be treated by itself at a later point.

The enrollment figures for the non-government schools for the last decade within which the data are available and reasonably reliable are presented in Table XXXIII. During this period the non-government schools increased their enrollment 678 per cent compared with 201 per cent for the government schools. Although the First Five-Year Plan did not state any definite target for the non-government schools, the recommendation of the Planning Board to increase their efforts certainly seems to have been followed.

A comparison between the enrollment in government and non-government schools is presented in Figure 27. From 1963/64 the enrollment trend in the non-government schools seems to have slowed down in all probability due mainly to the fact that from the same year the community schools which

TABLE XXXIII

ENROLLMENT IN GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS
FIRST LEVEL 1957/58-1967/68

Year	Government Schools	Percentage Growth 1957/58 Index year	Non-government Schools	Percentage Growth 1957/58 Index Year
1957/58	128 979		15 434	
1958/59	132 722	3.1	17 873	19.1
1959/60	138 978	8.2	45 223	201.4
1960/61	188 368	46.8	64 261	328.4
1961/62	195 618	52.3	79 225	428.1
1962/63	220 861	72.5	91 413	507.6
1963/64	252 325	88.5	114 362	662.4
1964/65	278 088	117.1	94 045	526.6
1965/66	307 710	140.4	103 816	529.1
1966/67	343 043	167.7	111 358	642.3
1967/68	386 113	201.5	120 103	700.6

Sources: Table XVII
Appendix F.

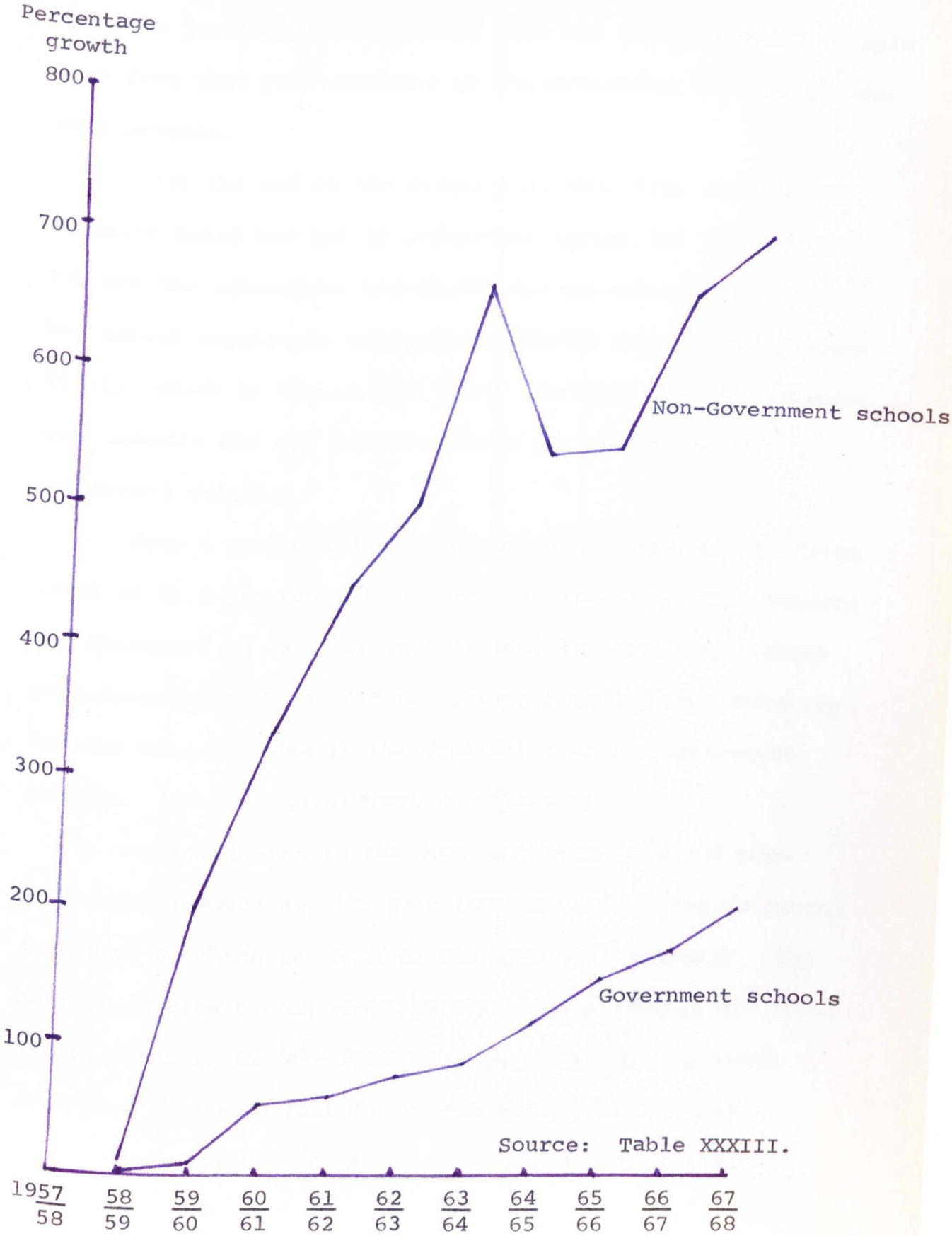

Figure 27. Enrollment trends in Government and Non-Government schools, first level, 1957/58-1967/68.

had been previously categorized with the non-government schools were from that year included in the statistics for the government schools.

For the end of the Second Five-Year Plan period, the Planning Board had set an enrollment target for 1966/67 of 275,000 for government and 55,000 for non-government schools. The actual enrollment amounted to 343,000 and 111,000 respectively, which is 25 per cent above the target for the government schools and 118 per cent above the target for the non-government schools.

From a proportion of the total enrollment at the first level of 10.6 per cent in 1957/58, the non-government schools had increased to 23.7 per cent in 1967/68, with the highest percentage of 31.1 in 1963/64, the year before the community schools were included in the statistics of the government schools. This is illustrated in Figure 28.

The enrollment in the four different types of non-government schools for the same ten-year period, is presented in Figure 29 which is based on the data in Appendix F. The most rapid growth took place in the private schools and community schools, for the last category of schools up until 1964 when they were included in the government schools.

The contribution of the different types of schools

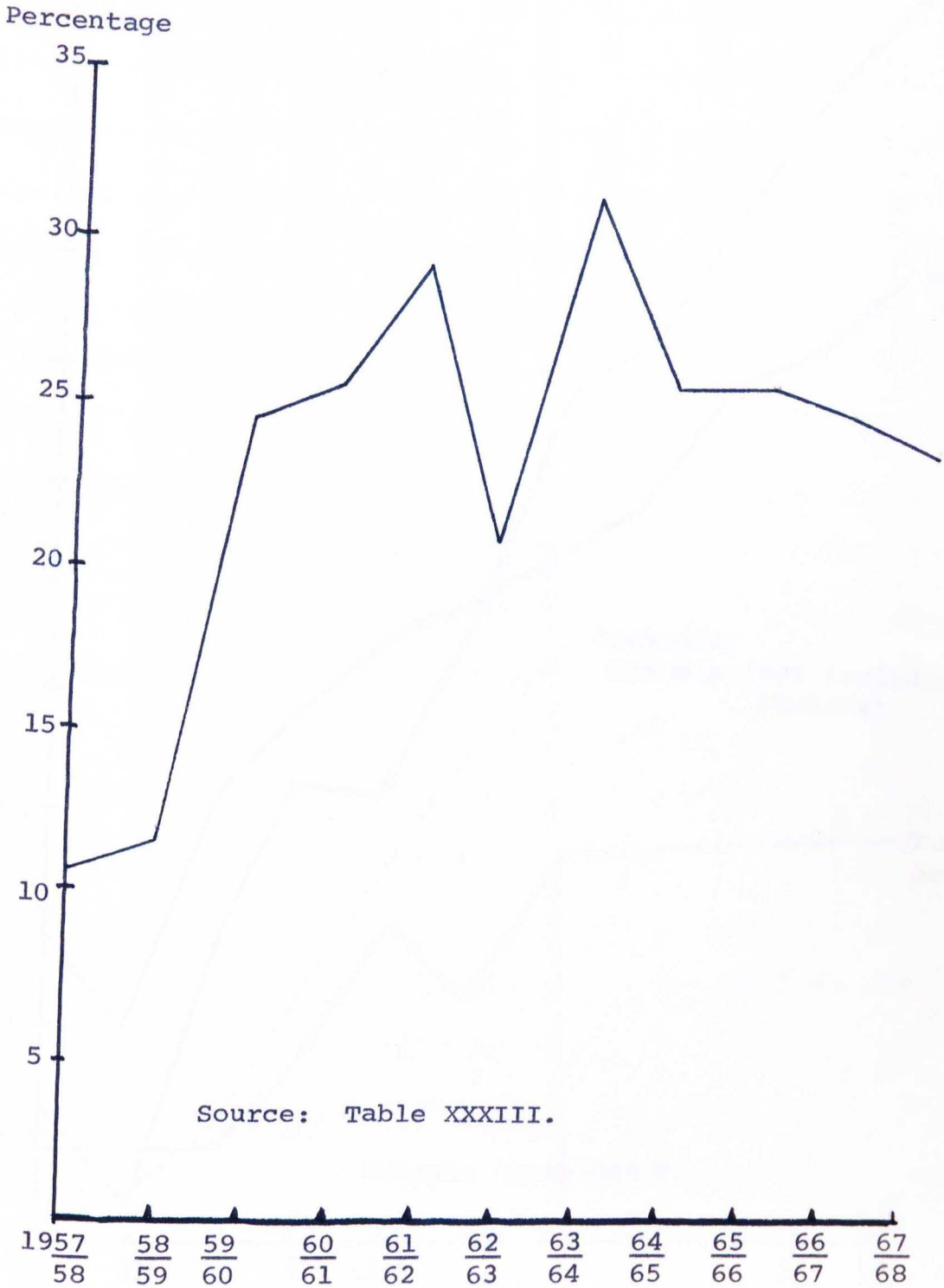

Figure 28. Students enrolled at the first level in non-Government schools as a percentage of all first level students, 1957/58-1967/68.

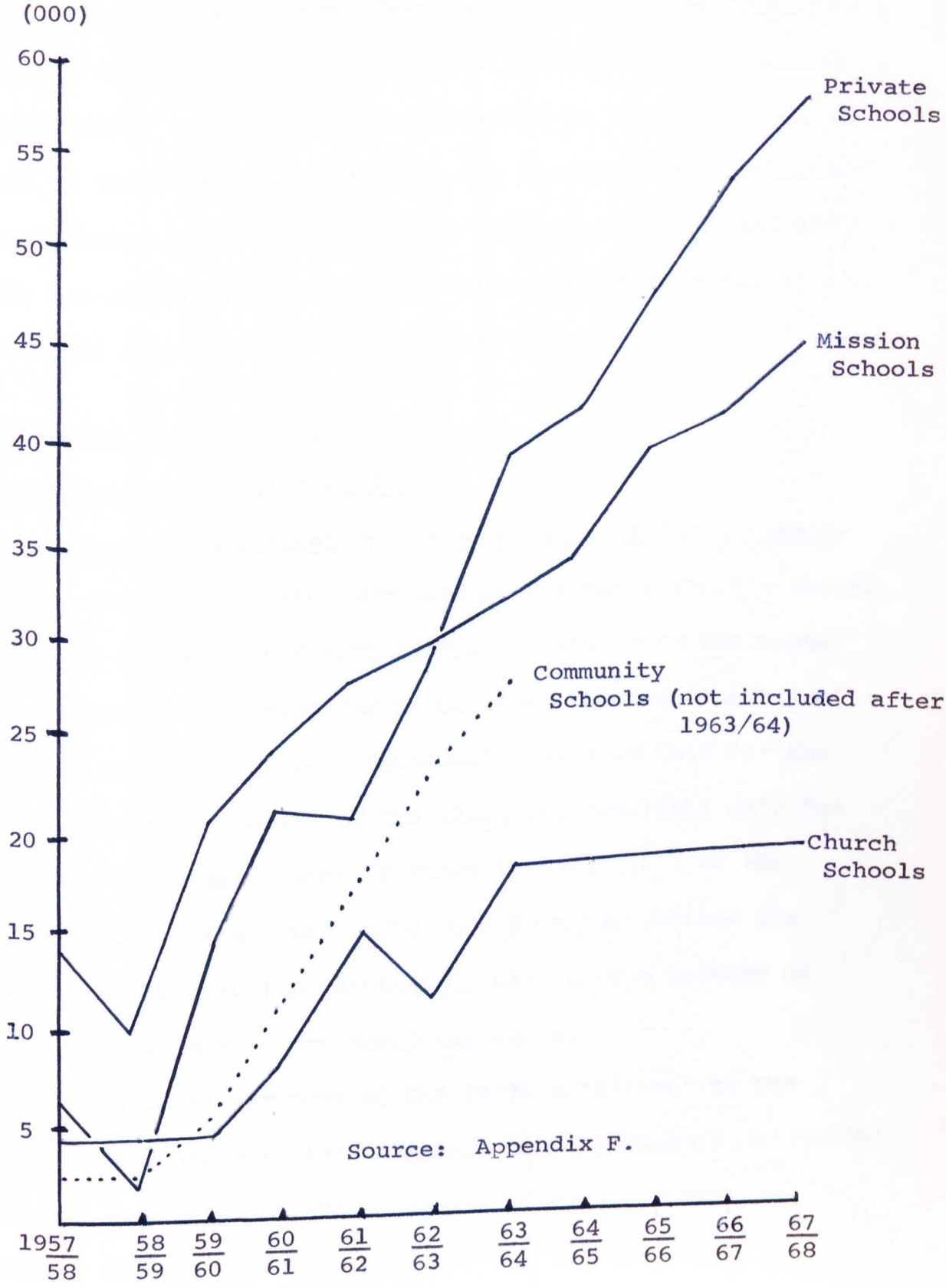

Figure 29. Enrollment in the different types of non-Government schools at the first level, 1957/58-1967/68.

to the total school enrollment in Ethiopia at the first level at the end of the First and Second Five-Year Plan, 1961/62 and 1966/67 respectively, is presented in Figure 30. At the end of the First Five-Year Plan the non-government schools contributed 26.3 per cent of the total enrollment, and at the end of the Second Five-Year Plan they contributed 24.4 per cent of the total enrollment at this level.

Increased Enrollment in Vocational/Technical Training

Actual enrollment and as percentage of total enrollment. The data for the non-government schools for the second level of education and with special reference to the number of students in the academic versus the vocational/technical section are very scarce. Reasonably reliable data for the purpose of this section of the study are available only for the last two years. Even if these data do not give the opportunity to trace the trend of development within the vocational/technical section, they will give a picture of the actual situation for those two years.

Nearly 41 per cent of the total enrollment at the second level was enrolled in non-government schools in 1966/67, and one year later it was increased to 42.2 per cent, as derived from Tables XVII, page 169, and XXXIV.

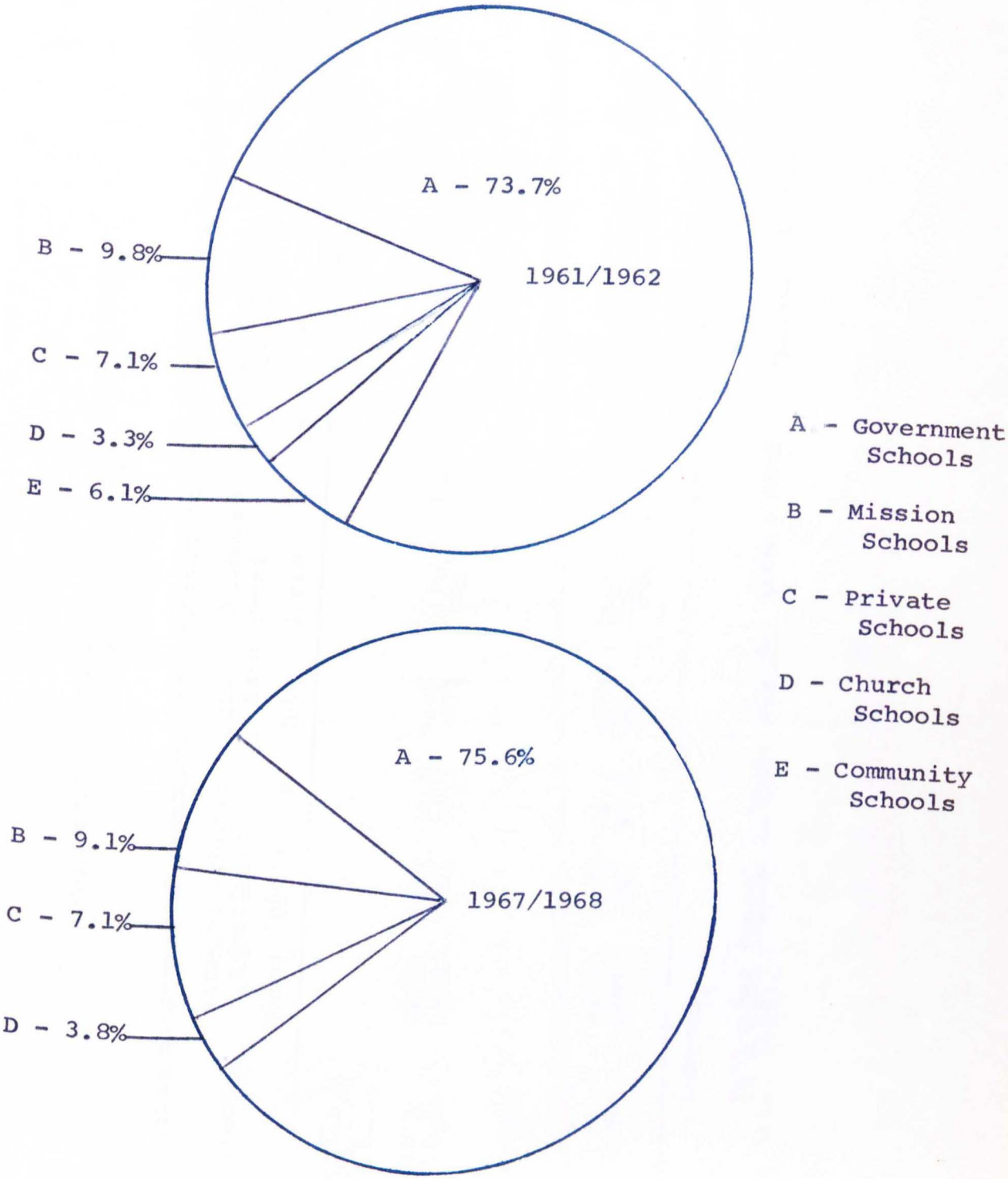

Figure 30. Percentage distribution of students enrolled by types of schools, at the first level.

TABLE XXXIV

ENROLLMENT OF GIRLS IN NON-GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS
1957/58-1967/68
SECOND LEVEL

Institution	Mission Schools Enrollment			Private Schools Enrollment			Church Schools Enrollment			Total Non-Government Schools	
	Total	Girls	%	Total	Girls	%	Total	Girls	%	Enrollment	Girls
Secondary 1966/67											
Academic	3692	1287	34,8	3842	1311	34,1	865	189	21,8	8399	2787
Voc/Tech.	1104	503	45,5	924	539	57,3	-	-	-	2028	1042
Secondary 1967/68											
Academic	4368	1432	32,5	4379	1667	38,0	952	203	21,4	9699	3294
Voc/Tech.	1266	567	44,5	1056	586	55,0	-	-	-	2322	1153

Sources:

Ethiopian School Census, 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968).

Of the total enrollment in vocational/technical schools, 28.3 per cent attended the non-government schools in 1966/67 and 27.9 per cent in 1967/68.

The mission and private schools are the only non-government schools operating institutions for vocational/technical training, and out of their total enrollment at the second level in 1966/67 these schools had enrolled 27.5 per cent in vocational/technical schools compared with 20.4 per cent in government institutions. One year later the respective figures were 26.5 and 19.5 per cent.

Increased Enrollment of Girls

Percentage of girls enrolled. From 1944 when the first educational plan for Ethiopia was formulated in the Memorandum of Educational Policy for Ethiopia, the importance of education for girls was realized and has been expressed in the different plans since that time. In an earlier section of this study it was pointed out that the enrollment of girls in government schools has undergone a constant but rather slow growth from 17.6 per cent in 1957/58 to 25.2 per cent in 1967/68 at the first level.

To what extent the enrollment of girls has increased in the non-government schools can be seen from Table XXXV and is illustrated in Figure 31. The private schools have

TABLE XXXV

THE PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS ENROLLED IN NON-GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS AT THE FIRST LEVEL 1957/58-1967/68

Year	Mission Schools	Private Schools	Church Schools	Community Schools*
1957/58	25,8	33,4	10,2	8,9
1958/59	20,6	20,5	11,3	9,3
1959/60	37,1	33,0	10,4	15,0
1960/61	28,0	27,6	15,6	17,7
1961/62	30,2	32,9	17,6	14,7
1962/63	28,9	31,2	16,2	15,2
1963/64	29,8	33,2	18,2	15,3
1964/65	30,2	33,7	20,1	-
1965/66	32,4	34,6	24,3	-
1966/67	32,2	34,8	26,2	-
1967/68	31,1	35,4	29,8	-

*Not included after 1963/64.

Sources: Appendix F.

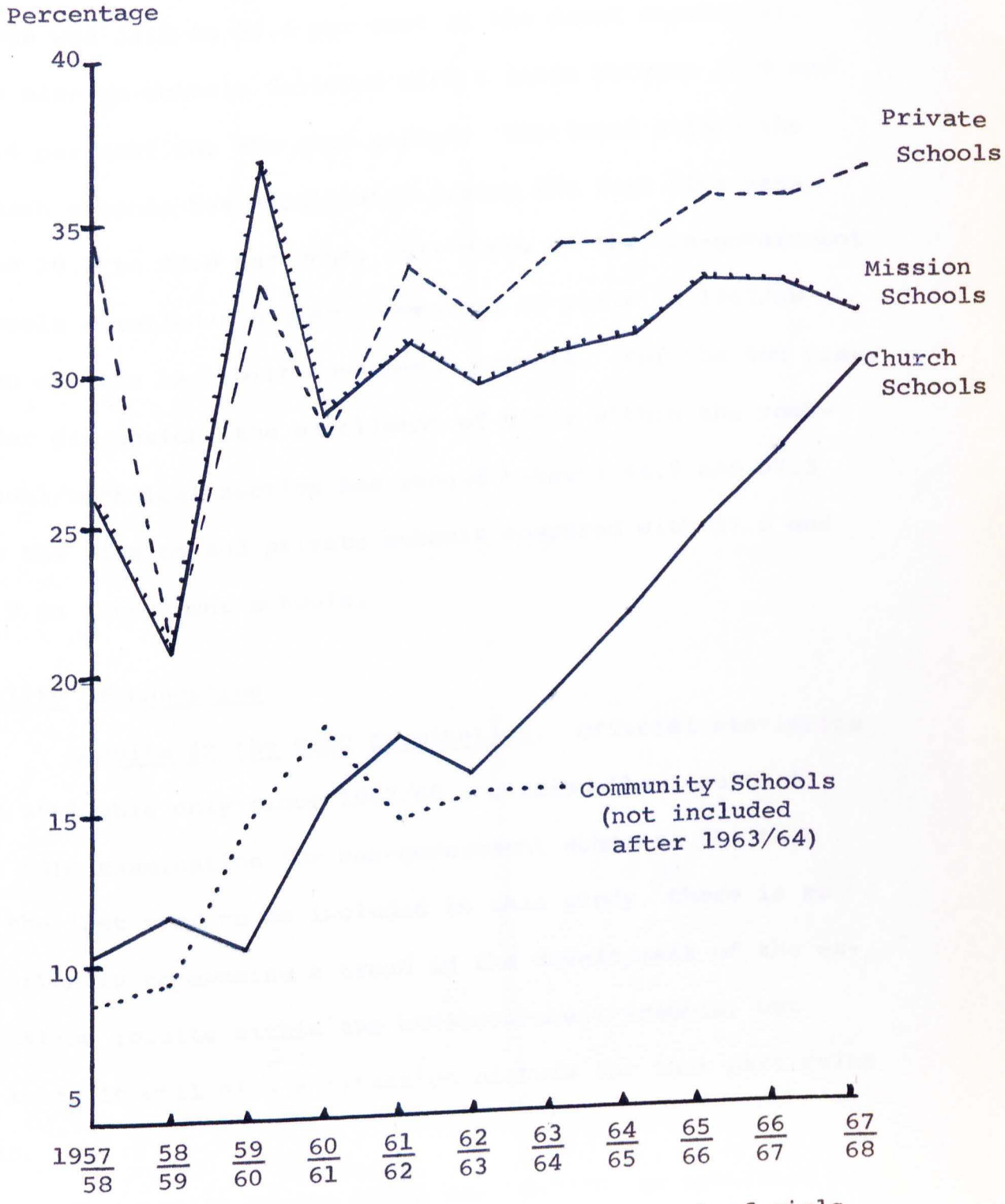

Figure 31. Percentage enrollment of girls in non-Government schools at the first level, 1957/58-1967/68.

had the highest percentage of girls enrolled, especially during the period of the Second Five-Year Plan when the range was 31.2 to 35.4 per cent of the total enrollment. The mission schools followed with a range between 28.9 and 32.4 per cent for the same period. The trend within the church schools has accelerated during the last five years from 10.2 to 29.8 per cent. All three of the non-government schools enrolled a higher percentage of girls in 1967/68 than was the case with government schools. For the two years under discussion, the enrollment of girls within the vocational/technical section has ranged between 44.5 and 57.3 for the mission and private schools compared with 17.5 and 17.9 in government schools.

Quality of Education

Results in the ESLC Examination. Official statistics are available only since 1967/68 including the results in the ESLC Examination for non-government schools. As this is the last year to be included in this study, there is no opportunity to examine a trend in the development of the examination results within the non-government schools, but at least it will give a situation picture for that particular year.

The results of the ESLCE for 1967/68, as tabulated

in Table XXXVI, shows that of all students who sat for the examination, the percentage of those who passed was without exception greater for the non-government schools than for the government schools. The percentage of passes from non-government schools was 44.4 per cent compared with 25.1 per cent from government schools. The private schools had the highest percentage of passes with 86.9 per cent.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the response of the non-government schools to the appeal by the Planning Board to extend their efforts in order to accelerate their contribution to reach the educational objectives of the development plans was discussed.

Educational Expenditures and Per-Student Cost

According to figures from UNESCO, the per-student cost at the first level in 1965 was 21 per cent higher in non-government than in government schools. At the second level in the academic section the per-student cost was 112 per cent higher than for government schools, and in the vocational/technical section the cost was 133 per cent higher than in the government schools per student.

An analyses of the reflections of the educational

TABLE XXXVI

THE ESLC EXAMINATION RESULTS 1967/68

Institutions	Number of students who sat	Number of students who passed	Percentage of passes
Government schools	2 567	645	25.1
Non-government Schools:			
Church schools	10	4	40
Mission schools	66	20	30
Private schools	23	20	86.9
Average non-government schools	99	44	44.4

Sources:

Ethiopian School Census 1967-1968 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 61, 62.

expenditures upon the school plants within the non-government schools revealed that the non-government schools were on an average smaller and had a lower student/teacher ratio than government schools.

Increased Enrollment

It was found that the non-government schools increased their enrollment at the first level, by 678 per cent during the period between 1957/58 and 1967/68 while the government schools at the same time increased their enrollment by 201 per cent. The non-government schools surpassed the targets for the Second Five-Year Plan by 118 per cent while the government schools surpassed the target by 25 per cent.

The non-government schools increased their percentage of the total enrollment at the first level from 10.6 per cent in 1957/58 to 23.7 per cent in 1967/68. Out of the total enrollment at the second level 42.2 per cent were enrolled in non-government schools in 1967/68.

Increased Enrollment in Vocational/Technical Training

As reliable data for the enrollment in the vocational/technical section are available only since 1966/67, the study presents the actual situation for the two years rather than a development trend.

The non-government schools have a higher percentage of the total enrollment at the second level enrolled in the vocational/technical section than is the case in the government schools. For the year 1967/68 the respective figures were 26.5 and 19.5.

Increased Enrollment of Girls

The non-government schools are enrolling a higher percentage of girls at both levels than the government schools. This is especially the case in the vocational/technical section where the enrollment of girls ranged between 44.5 and 57.3 per cent as compared with 17.5 and 19.9 in government schools.

Quality of Education

The figures from the year 1967/68 indicate that the non-government schools had 44.4 per cent of their candidates sitting for the ESLCE pass as compared with 25.1 per cent from the government schools.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

Purpose and Procedure

The purpose of this study was (1) to trace the development of the recognized educational needs in Ethiopia, as expressed in development plans adopted by the Ethiopian government, from the time after the Italian occupation to the present, and (2) to investigate the quantitative growth and contribution by the different types of schools in Ethiopia in relation to the educational needs as crystallized from the study of the development plans.

Through an analysis of the educational needs which were expressed in the development plans and by tracing the trends of development, an attempt was made to discover where the plans were operational and functional or to find out where dysfunctions occurred.

As government school censuses, official reports and plans were the basic sources for the analyses, the UNESCO

outline for analysis of educational plans for developing countries was applied as a guideline for the procedure to the extent found relevant to the study. As a quantitative study cannot be completely separated from the question of quality, the qualitative trend measured by the dropout rate and percentage of passes on the ESLCE were traced for the last fifteen years.

The historical development of the Ethiopian school system was studied together with the financial efforts made by the government to accelerate the educational development. Some of the demographic groups influencing educational development in Ethiopia were discussed, and problems connected with the lack of a population census and the need for an age-group population census were reviewed.

The Development of the Ethiopian School System

Due to an early influence on Christianity and an isolation from traditional colonialism, Ethiopia has a cultural background quite different from the other African countries. These differences have caused some Africanists to hesitate to include Ethiopia in the general African setting.

In spite of the differences in cultural development, the educational problems confronting Ethiopia are more or less the same as those confronting other African nations.

The differences are more in degree than in kind.

The traditional education, which was the responsibility of the Ethiopian Coptic Church, goes back to the third century A.D. and is still a conservative force and protector of traditions within the Ethiopian culture. A modern form for a national administration of education did not begin in Ethiopia until after the Italian occupation when the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts was established in 1943.

In the development of an Ethiopian education, the system has been influenced by the educational philosophy and practices of many nationalities, including the American, British, French, Italian, and Scandinavians through official counselors, expatriate teachers and school principals, educational planners as well as the actual operation of foreign, private, and mission schools.

The non-government schools which started in the form of mission schools exerted their influence for about fifty years before the first government school was established in 1923.

Educational Planning in Ethiopia

Since the time of the Italian occupation, many plans for educational and economic development have been made for

Ethiopia, stressing the need:

1. To retain education as a priority in development planning.
2. To increase the financial support for education.
3. To make education available to a progressively larger constituency.
4. To increase the enrollment in vocational/technical training.
5. To increase the enrollment of girls.
6. To control the development of higher education.
7. To acquire more efficiency in education.
8. To improve the quality of education.

Attainment of Goals and Targets

The Ethiopian government has increased its investment in education from 0.63 to 1.9 per cent of the GNP with a projected 3.3 per cent as the target for 1973. This percentage represents a rather low investment in education compared with other African countries, and the "desired average" of 7 per cent for 1967, according to the Addis Ababa Plan. For the period under discussion the government spent an average of 11.5 per cent of the national budget for education.

As an average, the cost per student has increased slightly, and the per-student cost in the vocational/technical

section is about 90 per cent higher than in the academic section. This is much higher than is the case in the United States, but it is about the same percentage as is found in Ethiopia's neighboring countries, with the exception of Tanzania.

The quantitative growth of the enrollment in government schools has been followed by an increased drop in quality measured by the increased dropout rate from the primary through the college level, as well as a constant downward trend in the number of candidates passing the ESLCE.

The stress which the different plans had put upon vocational/technical training has not produced the increase hoped for in enrollment or output. The non-government schools are fulfilling that part of the educational development, with a higher percentage of their total enrollment within these lines than is the case with the government schools.

Higher education or the third level of education has increased faster than the first and the second level of education. Up to 1961 there was a balance of graduates from the field of science and technology with almost the desirable average of 60 per cent to 40 per cent in the liberal arts faculties. During the years up to the end of the Second

Five-Year Plan the percentage of the enrollment had almost switched completely, as the ratio was 65 to 35 in favour of liberal arts.

Up to 1961 Ethiopia had developed her educational plans and targets isolated from the other African countries, and the Addis Ababa Plan revealed that in spite of the quantitative growth in enrollment which had taken place after the Italian occupation, Ethiopia ranged next to the last of the forty African nations participating in the Conference.

If the historical trend of educational development for the last ten years is to be applied for an enrollment projection in order to find out the age-group percentage enrolled at the different levels of education as compared with the "desired averages" for the final year of the Addis Ababa Plan in 1982, the following situation would exist:

Level of education	Percentage as "desired average"	Percentage reached as to projection
First Level	100	30 - 50
Second Level	23	17 - 20
Third Level	2.0	Close to 2.0

Any acceleration of economic and program development would of course bring the attainment of the percentages enrolled at commensurable higher levels.

The Contribution of the Non-Government Schools

From constituting 11.6 per cent of the total enrollment at the first level in 1956/57, the non-government schools constituted 25.7 per cent of the total enrollment in 1960/61 and 23.7 per cent in 1967/68. The decline was probably due mainly to the fact that the community schools, which in 1960/61 made up 4.6 per cent of the total enrollment, from 1964 were included in the statistics of the government schools.

Since the first community schools were started they have in fact been more related to the government schools than to non-government schools through the administration by the local community, and the inclusion of these schools into the statistics of the government institutions may be looked upon as rather a normal development.

The non-government schools were found to be smaller, have a lower student/teacher ratio, have fewer students per classroom unit, and have a higher percentage of girls enrolled. In addition they enrolled a larger percentage of the total enrollment at the second level in the vocational/technical section than was the case with government schools. There are indications that costs per student are higher than in the government schools.

The results on the ESLCE seem to indicate a higher

percentage of passes from the non-government schools compared with the government schools.

CONCLUSIONS

The educational needs in Ethiopia as crystallized from the expressed objectives in the educational plans that were discussed seem to be of a nature that is common to most African nations.

The progress that has taken place up to the time of the Addis Ababa Plan, 1961, was compared with the "desired averages" as expressed in this plan, and there seems to be a considerable lag. This means that Ethiopia has a considerably greater task ahead than most of the African countries in order to catch up with the goals of the "desired averages."

The government in Ethiopia has increased its financial support for education in order to reach the national goals and the objectives of the Addis Ababa Plan, but as a whole the educational expenditures have not matched the enrollment increase. The results can be seen in the trend of per-student costs which is dropping, in the increasing trend of the student/teacher ratio as well as in the trend of students per classroom unit. The constant drop in the percentage of students passing the ESLCE may testify to the same fact.

Part of this conclusion is illustrated in Figure 32,

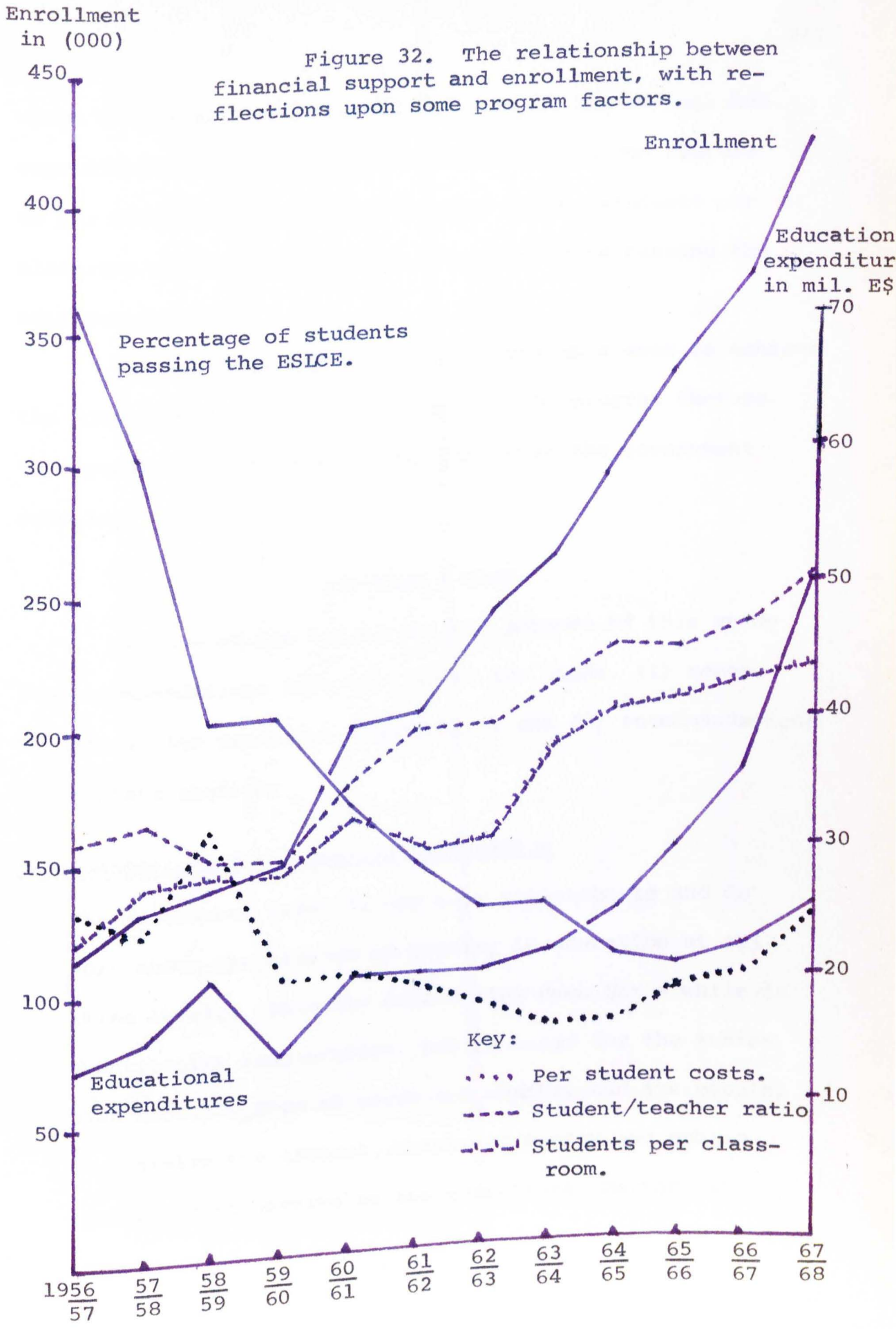

Figure 32. The relationship between financial support and enrollment, with reflections upon some program factors.

where the relationship between enrollment and educational expenditures reflects upon the different program factors as per student cost, student/teacher ratio, students per classroom unit and the percentage of students passing the ESLC Examination.

The non-government schools in Ethiopia seem to achieve the educational objectives related to the program factors to a greater degree than is the case with the government schools.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Because of the nature and the purpose of this study the recommendations made will be of two kinds, (1) recommendations for practical application, and (2) recommendations for further studies.

Recommendations for Practical Application

1. The government ought to pay more attention to and do more about the problem of quality in education at all three levels. This may mean a slow down for a while in quantitative acceleration, but in order for the Ethiopian school system to serve the country and its people, to minimize the present wastage of energy and public money, and to survive at the educational market, an

improvement of the quality seems to be a must for Ethiopian education in the future.

2. Because of the high percentage of children not attending schools and the great shortage of national teachers, the government ought to investigate the possibilities of using some of the modern technical devices in education such as films, tapes, T.V., radio, and programmed instruction. The basic enrollment targets set by the local educational plans in Ethiopia as well as the Addis Ababa Plan were all based on the traditional student/teacher ratio and classroom units. The possibility of not only reaching a larger unit but also improving the instruction by using the best teachers available may lie within the scope of the modern instructional media.

3. As the government's investment in education is still below the African average, and the need for more as well as better education will require additional economic support, the government has to search for a better utilization of old sources as well as discovering new sources for economic support.

4. As non-government schools are increasing their share of the educational burdens, the government should continue its friendly policy toward expatriates and its expressions

of appreciation and encouragement for the educational work done by the non-government schools, particularly when they follow the government's curricula, while exercising a reasonable latitude, and should aid in attaining governmental educational objectives.

5. As educational research at the local level, and not merely borrowing from other cultures, will be the soil from which the Ethiopianized curriculum as well as methods of instruction will grow and develop, the government ought to increase its support of local research. Part of the Ethiopianization of the curriculum could be to introduce some of the disciplines still existing in the traditional church schools in order to preserve traditional values which otherwise may die out with the church schools.

6. In view of the lag in attaining the objectives of proportional enrollment in the respective school divisions, a re-evaluation of the objectives is to be recommended and measures should be taken to control development in accord with the objectives.

Recommendation for Further Studies

As there is very little research done in the field of education in Ethiopia and as this study has gone into

different facets of educational needs and plans, it is inevitable that there are many areas into which further research has been seen to be desirable and of great importance for the educational development in the future. The problems which will be stressed are those which are closely related to the problems to which this study was addressed and areas from which this study could be a point of departure.

After the educational needs have been crystallized and the trends of development have been traced, the following questions present themselves as problems for which more studies are recommended:

1. What has been the demographic as well as geographic trend in the distribution of education in Ethiopia up to date? Where and who are the students that are the few privileged to obtain an education in present-day Ethiopia?
2. Why is the attrition rate so high? Why do the students drop out of school at the different levels and grades? How are students' social, cultural, religious, and socio-economic situations related to his continuation in school? The answer to some of these questions may be helpful in finding a solution to the high attrition rate that exists in the Ethiopian school system today.
3. As the present speed of the conventional one teacher/

one classroom concept of instruction does not seem to match the urge for a quantitative as well as qualitative extension of educational opportunities, the answer to more efficiency in education may be found within a new concept of the method of instruction as well as the group or class size of the learners. A study of the possibility of a higher efficiency within the educational system in Ethiopia by utilizing modern audio-visual and technical aids in instruction is therefore to be recommended.

4. As the growth of the student enrollment has resulted in an extensive overcrowding of the existing facilities, what are the possibilities of designing a standardized model which might be prefabricated in order to put together classrooms or school structures that can be functional for the Ethiopian climate and school program and at the same time inexpensive and easy to assemble?

5. In order to find the actual reasons for and possible solution to the low percentage of girls enrolled in the schools, a study of motivation and challenge of the Ethiopian system to the female section of the school age-group population as well as of the parents may be of great help and importance in planning education for the future.

6. As the non-government schools are fulfilling many of the educational objectives to a larger extent than the government schools, it may be of interest to find out why this is so and if it is related to methods or educational philosophy or any combinations of reasons.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

PLANNING OF EDUCATION

I. Critical problems of educational planning

It is recommended:

1. That precise estimates be made of requirements for higher-level manpower;
2. That the following measures be adopted for absorbing the surplus of unskilled manpower:
   (a) that primary education be given a practical bias and be sufficiently developed and expanded so as to cease to be a contributory cause of migration from rural areas to the towns,
   (b) that all children who are capable of benefitting thereby be allowed access to secondary and technical schools as soon as practicable,
   (c) that living conditions in rural areas be improved by a vigorous attempt at country planning and community development,
   (d) that the system of land tenure and inheritance of real estate should be altered if necessary;

3. That governments establish priorities as between the different levels and types of education, in view of the dearth of resources, while maintaining the balanced development of these closely complementary levels and types of education and remaining faithful to the principles of universal, free and compulsory primary education;
4. That teacher training and the adaptation and reforms of the content of education should be regarded as priorities, and that the principle of priorities should extend to both qualitative and quantitative requirements;
5. That technical and vocational education and specialization should be greatly developed in the African countries to keep pace with the recent technological progress and development requirements, a proper balance being struck between general and technical education on the basis of objectively determined needs;
6. That in view of a marked flight from the teaching profession steps be taken to improve the status conditions of the teachers both with regard to salary and the standing of the profession;
7. That until such time as the African States have produced their own senior personnel, particularly at the top levels, the services of foreign experts and teachers

and of training fellowships be planned for under bilateral and multilateral agreement;

8. That the latest techniques and teaching aids, which to some extent can offset the shortage and shortcomings of teaching personnel although they can never replace personal contact with the teacher, be used to the fullest.

II. The steps in the planning process

1. That an estimation of forward manpower requirements under the dual system of occupational and educational classification be undertaken by each country with the help of UNESCO;
2. That a survey of the present anticipated annual output of graduates from educational institutions at the primary, secondary and higher levels be undertaken in each country with the help of UNESCO;
3. That an estimate of future needs for imported high-level manpower by major occupational groups and by time periods be undertaken, bearing in mind the importance of making the most of the very limited resources of such personnel at present available;
4. That, as school education is not enough to ensure the training of certain types of manpower, employers share

this responsibility under joint training arrangements by the States and the private enterprise;

5. That an assessment of the long-range quantitative increases needed in education at the primary, secondary and higher levels in general and technical fields and teachers training be made by each country with the help of UNESCO as appropriate;

6. That a critical evaluation of the long-run qualitative changes needed throughout the ecuational system be undertaken by each country.

III. Machinery required for planning

1. That Ministries of Education establish adequately staffed planning groups responsible for the collection of statistics on education, the determination of costs of educational programs, recommending reform and revision of curricula, planning of teacher recruitment and training long-range forcasting of educational needs, research in new educational technology, and formulation of plans for the financing of education including the co-ordination of external assistance;

2. That countries establish, within a single Ministry or in the form of inter-ministerial commissions, manpower boards to assess present manpower resources and needs,

forecast long-range manpower requirements, develop programs for the education and training of manpower, formulate policy governing the importation of high-level manpower, formulate social security measures in relation to national plans for economic and social development including the study of incentives.

3. That in all countries which have no planning ministry or boards, an inter-ministerial Commission be set up which will be responsible for the co-ordinated planning of economic and social development, reporting directly to the Prime Minister's Office. The representatives of the Ministry of Education on the Commission should ensure that education is given its due weight as productive investment and as a basic factor in development.

APPENDIX B

GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF ETHIOPIAN EDUCATION

1. To produce people who can think objectively and dispassionately.
2. To train the emotions properly and open the heart to the interests and concerns of others and the world at large.
3. To develop inner resources of spirit so that one need not depend all the time on the titillation of the senses from the outside. There should be a segment of cultural interest in which one can find self-expression and achieve satisfactory growth.
4. To prepare one to participate efficiently in the productive work of the world so that one may contribute something of value to society. This includes both love of work, and appreciation of the dignity of all labour and insistance on high standards of efficiency and workmanship. These aims are practical as well as moral assets. General education thus defined should be such as to arouse in the young Ethiopian a spirit of inquiry

> in all fields of knowledge, to allow him to appreciate fully his duties as a citizen, to give him a genuine understanding of his national and regional environment, to strengthen his appreciation of his traditional and cultural values; and, by making him conscious of the wealth of the world's culture and the continuing progress of science, to give the feeling of being one with the whole of mankind. General education as seen in its true perspective ought to provide for the full development of all the natural abilities of the individual, to enable him to live a full life and to fit him to contribute as fully as possible to the spiritual, cultural, social, and economic progress of his country.

From other statements, it is indicated that literacy and compulsory education are additional educational objectives.

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APPENDIX C

MEMORANDUM ON EDUCATIONAL POLICY 1944

1. Mass Education. This, affecting all ages and both sexes, should be a primary objective. It is complementary to the maintenance of existing schools for children and the opening of new ones in the towns and other centers of population. It should aim at spreading literacy, promoting better hygiene and encouraging social life and recreation. The community center will be used as an experiment and training ground and will be extended through the work of teams of men and women. It is hoped that means will be found to ensure the cooperation of the interested government departments in these schools. The schools for industries, arts, and crafts will take their part in this drive for mass education.

2. The Education of Girls. The education of girls is regarded as being at least as important as that of boys, though co-education after the most junior stage is not acceptable in Ethiopia. The Empress Menen school will develop

secondary and teachers' training departments, and the proposed University College will have women's hostels from the first.

3. Secondary Education. The present school near Addis Ababa must be the only full secondary school for the present in the whole country, so as to make sure that it is of a quality comparable with that of any other country and also in order to give mass education the first claim upon funds for the next extension of educational effort. Before starting a new school, there will be a system of classes in double shifts at the Haile Selassie school.

4. Higher Education. For the present a certain number of students will be sent abroad, though only after they have completed their secondary education. But a site will be set apart now for a future University College which will be specialized at first upon training doctors, agricultural and veterinarian experts, senior schoolmasters, and engineers. As this college develops it will not be necessary to send many students abroad except for post-graduate courses.

5. Language in the School. Amharic is the official language and an attempt will be made to build up in it a large literature. It is to be taught in all schools, English being the principal foreign language. In Muslim areas Arabic will be taught and other Ethiopian languages will be used in

the initial stages of education.

6. Foreign Staff. The Ethiopian Government is grateful for foreign help in providing teachers but every effort will be made to prepare Ethiopians to take over this work.

7. The Church in Education. It is hoped to help the large number of church schools to play a worthy part in education. The help of foreign missions in education will be welcomed.

8. Finance. It is recognized that the sources of the country will allow for only a gradual fulfillment of this plan. But the Imperial Government feels that, however, slow the rate of progress, it is necessary to have before it a complete picture of educational expansion.

Source:

Memorandum on Educational Policy for Ethiopia (Addis Ababa: The Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, August, 1944).

APPENDIX D

CURRICULA AND TIME ALLOTED FOR THE DIFFERENT LEVELS AND PROGRAMS WITHIN THE ETHIOPIAN SCHOOL SYSTEM

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Entry age: 6-7 years (Older boys and girls with no previous formal education may be admitted).

Six-year program.

Language of instruction: Amharic.

Program composed of academic and non-academic subjects:

Academic subjects	Non-academic subjects
Amharic	Health education
Arithmetic	Agriculture
Social studies	Arts and crafts
Natural science	Home making
English	Physical training
Morals	Music

Suggested Time Allotment in Periods Per Week
(one period = 40 minutes)

Subjects	Grades: 1	2	3	4	5	6
Amharic	5-8	5-8	5	5	5	5
Arithmetic	5	5	5	5	5	5
Social Studies	-	1	3-4	3-4	4	4
Natural Science	-	-	3-4	4	6	6

(Continued)

Suggested Time Allotment in Periods Per Week (Continued)

Subjects	Grades: 1	2	3	4	5	6
English	10 min. daily	same	5	5	6	6
Morals	1	1	1	1	1	1
Health Educa.	15 min. daily	same	1-2*	1-2*	1	1
Music	15 min. daily	same	1	1	1	1
Agriculture	2	2	1*	1*	1	1
Arts and crafts	5	5	2-3*	2-3*	1	1
Home Making	-	-	2-3**	2-3**	2	2
Physical training or games	5	5	3-4	3-4	2-3	2-3
Periods per week	28-31	29-32	30-35	31-35	35-36	35-36

*May be increased or decreased according to age group.
**For older girls only.

The first four years of the course may be regarded as a unit, as "community education" after which older boys and girls can return to the community and take up work. A final examination is given by the Ministry of Education, and Fine Arts is given at the end of the sixth year. On the basis of this test and school records, students are promoted. The Elementary School Leaving Certificate is awarded to those who pass.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Junior Secondary

Two-year program: Grade 7 and 8.

Language of instruction: English.

Program, general in character, in terms of "areas of study" an academic core of work (Amharic, Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies) as a basis for the program but with emphasis on guidance and vocational education.

Junior Secondary School Timetable
(one period = 40 min.)

Academic			Non-Academic			Guidance and Vocational		
Subject	Gr.7	Gr.8	Subject	Gr.7	Gr.8	Subject	Gr.7	Gr.8
Amharic	3	3	Moral	2	2	Gen. Guid.	2	2
English	14	12-14	Health Ed.	2	2	Tech. Ed.	2	-
Mathematics	4	4				Agric. Ed.	2	2
Science	4	4				Home Mkg. (girls)	-	2
History	3	3						
Geography	2	2				Com. Ed.	-	2
Total	30	30		4	4		6	6

Guidance and Vocational Subjects:

General Guidance	Agriculture	Technical
Personal health	Gardening	Woodwork
Public health	Poultry	Electricity
Nutrition	Livestock	Metal-Working
Safety and first aid	Crop Production	
Mental health	Field Trips	

At the close of the two-year program, tests are given by the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts to assess the student's level of academic achievement as well as his interest and ability. Headmasters and staff play an important role in assessing the student's interest and ability, particularly as exhibited through the guidance and vocational program he has followed.

Senior Secondary

Four-year Program: Grades 9, 10, 11 and 12.

Language of instruction: English.

Senior secondary schools may offer academic, agricultural, theological, commercial, technical and vocational, police service, and teacher education programs.

Suggested Period Allotment for Academic Program
(one period = 40 min.)

Subject	Year: 1	2	3	4
Amharic	3-4	3-4	3-4	3-4
English	8-10	8-10	7-8	7-8
Mathematics	5	5	5	5
General Science	6	6	5	5
Chemistry or Physics or Biology	-	-	2-3	2-3
Geography	4-5	4-5	4	4
History	3	3-4	3-4	3
French	3-4	3-4	4	4
Total	32-37	32-38	34-38	34-37

Non-Academic Subjects:

At least one period per day for supervised games and/or physical training. Two or three periods per week to each of the following: Home Economics, Music and Art, Handicraft or Shopwork. One or two periods per week to Moral instruction.

At the close of the program, a final examination is given for the national School Leaving Certificate (E.S.L.C.), which serves as a qualifying entrance examination for the Haile Selassi I University (H.S.I.U.). Up until 1963 most of the students were also sitting for the General Certificate of Education of London University (London G.C.E.).

Grading according to the schedule of the Ethiopian School Leaving Certificate is as follows:

100-75	Excellent	A
75-60	Very Good	B
59-50	Good	C
49-40	Pass	D
39-0	Fail	F

Vocational and Technical Education

Four-year program.

Entrance requirements: Junior Secondary.

Commercial Training

Courses offered in Commercial Schools and in commercial sections of secondary schools.

General Courses: Amharic, English, French, Moral, Current Affairs.

Special Courses: Bookkeeping, Accounting, Typing, Shorthand, General Office Practice.

Technical and Vocational Training

Academic subjects: Amharic, Science, Mathematics, Moral, Mechanical Drawing.

General courses in basic skills, first year: Electricity
Woodwork
Metalwork

Specialization from second year in a trade chosen from: Surveying, Foundry, Forging and Welding, Arts and Crafts, Drafting, Cabinet Making, Automechanics, Sheet Metal Work, Machines, Radio, Electricity.

Teacher Education

Four-year course for training of elementary and junior secondary teachers.

Curriculum: Basic academic courses: Amharic, English, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies.

Professional courses: Psychology, History of Education, Teaching Methods, Statistics, Practice Teaching.

The first two years consist of a general secondary education. The third and fourth year include the professional courses. The following sample was taken from TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTE, Asmara.

Timetable
(one period = 40 min.)

Subjects	3rd Year	4th Year
Amharic	5	4
English	6	6
Mathematics	5	5
General Science	6	6
History	2	2
Geography	3	3
Educational Psychology	2	2
School Administration and Classroom Management	1	2
History and Philosophy of Education	1	1
Statistics		1
Methodology	1	2
Audio-Visual Aid	1	1
Handcraft	1	1
Physical Education	1	1
Health Education	1	1
Total per week	36	38

Community Teacher Training

Training of community school teachers to work in rural primary schools.

Entrance requirements: Junior Secondary School.

Two-year program and supervised field work.

Curriculum: Mathematics, Science, Social Studies, Morals, Health and Sanitation, Literacy Methods, School Administration, Methods of Teaching, Agriculture, Blacksmithing, Carpentry, Brickmaking, Pottery, Arts and Crafts, Sports.

Arts and Crafts Teacher Training

Four-year program.

First year: General courses: Amharic, English, Mathematics, Science, Morals.

Professional courses: Mechanical Drawing, Teaching Methods, Shop Management, Development of basic skills in handling electrical tools, Woodwork, and Metalwork.

Final three years:

Arts and Crafts courses: Leather Crafts, Ceramics, Basketry, Weaving, Fibrework, Carving, Painting, Sculpture, Drama and Puppetry, Classroom Art, Art History.

Professional teacher courses: Educational Psychology, Methods of Teaching, Arts and Crafts, Practice Teaching.

Sources:

Primary School Curriculum (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1963).

General Secondary School Curriculum (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1963).

Education in Ethiopia (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1961).

APPENDIX E

THE EDUCATIONAL SITUATION IN AFRICA DURING THE PLANNING STAGE OF THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE

Country	Year (1900's)	Enrollment First level	Enrollment Second level	Percentage of age-group: Est. pop. 5-14 yrs. (000)	Est. pop. 5-14 yrs. %	Est. pop. 15-19 yrs. (000)	Est. pop. 15-19 yrs. %
Basutoland	58	119,478	3,042	165	90.5	67	4.5
Bechuanaland	58	31,193	485	84	46.4	34	1.4
Cameroons (UK)	58	54,844	1,404	391	20.0	164	0.8
Cameroun (FR)	59	371,421	13,808	795	77.8	332	3.0
CENTRAL AFRICA Republic	58	45,774	1,480	280	27.2	117	0.9
Chad	59	53,973	1,473	647	13.8	271	0.4
Congo (Brzv)	58	78,962	3,259	187	70.3	78	3.0
Congo (Leop)	60	1,460,753	51,671	3,405	71.5	1,476	3.0
Dahomey	60	81,107	3,618	431	31.3	180	1.4
Ethiopia	59	158,005	8,144	5,338	3.8	2,235	0.5
Gabon	58	39,763	1,156	101	65.7	41	1.0
Gambia	58	4,595	794	72	10.7	30	2.2
Ghana	59	483,425	178,581	1,208	66.7	506	29.4
Guinea	60	79,373	4,563	671	19.7	281	1.1
Ivory Coast	58	125,727	5,104	641	32.7	269	1.4
Kenya	58	651,758	20,291	1,562	52.1	654	3.9
Liberia	60	55,026	3,397	308	22.4	129	3.3
Malagasy	60	364,217	25,290	1,299	46.7	544	1.4
Mali	58	42,053	2,749	918	7.7	384	0.5
Mauritania	58	6,493	291	155	7.0	65	0.3
Niger	58	11,811	395	603	3.3	252	0.1
Nigeria	58	2,545,336	117,414	8,129	42.9	3,403	2.9
N. Rhodesia	59	243,926	24,948	566	53.9	237	2.6
Nyasaland	58	269,693	3,042	667	50.5	279	1.4
S. Rhodesia	58	433,459	6,485	649	83.5	272	3.0
Ruanda-Urun.	58	246,149	5,480	1,156	35.5	484	0.9
Senegal	58	80,473	6,102	561	23.8	235	1.9
Sierra Leon	59	74,481	8,277	590	21.0	247	2.8
Somalia	59	16,485	1,828	325	10.2	136	0.8
Sudan	60	288,395	60,941	2,819	12.8	1,180	6.5
Swaziland	58	29,934	1,066	67	55.9	27	4.5
Tanganyika	58	422,832	15,315	2,193	24.1	918	2.1
Togo	59	78,689	2,373	411	31.8	172	1.0
Uganda	59	501,699	41,633	1,603	52.2	671	4.4
Upper Volta	60	40,543	2,447	991	6.8	415	0.4
Zanzibar	58	14,982	1,232	75	15.0	31	5.0

Sources: Statistics of population and pupils taken by UNESCO Statistics Div. from official publications and country replies to questionnaires: reported in Conference on African States on Development of Education in Africa, Final Report (Paris: UNESCO, 1961), Chpt. IV.

APPENDIX F

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS; AVERAGES FOR SCHOOL SIZE AND TEACHER/STUDENT RATIO; AND PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS ENROLLED IN THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS AT THE FIRST LEVEL, 1957/58-1967/68

Type of School	1957 1958	1958 1959	1959 1960	1960 1961	1961 1962	1962 1963	1963 1964	1964 1965	1965 1966	1966 1967	1967 1968
Mission Schools											
No. of schools	92	72	150	180	185	199	214	220	242	268	285
No. of teachers	572	405	804	942	1074	1178	1170	1234	1315	1403	1542
No. of students	13189	9422	20949	24398	27096	29889	32627	34216	38418	41312	44631
Avg school size	149	131	146	135	146	150	152	155	158	154	156
Stu/teach ratio	23	23	25	25	25	25	27	27	29	28	28
Percnt of girls	25.8	20.6	37.1	28.0	30.2	28.9	29.8	30.2	32.4	32.2	31.1
Private Schools											
No. of schools	42	19	78	127	138	193	277	291	308	328	374
No. of teachers	209	52	557	648	745	955	1171	1278	1482	1527	1756
No. of students	5820	1820	14790	20401	19570	28203	38122	42613	47916	52530	57648
Avg school size	136	95	198	160	141	146	137	147	155	151	154
Stu/teach ratio	28	33	27	31	26	30	33	33	33	34	33
Percnt of girls	33.4	20.6	33.0	27.6	32.9	31.2	33.2	33.7	34.6	34.8	35.4
Church Schools											
No. of schools	45	50	60	55	130	99	127	119	120	122	124
No. of teachers	170	185	180	282	369	288	499	468	458	443	433
No. of students	4260	4369	4389	7820	14680	10963	17198	17216	17482	17516	17824
Avg school size	95	87	73	142	113	110	141	144	145	143	144
Stu/teach ratio	25	23	24	33	40	38	35	37	38	39	42
Percnt of girls	10.2	11.3	10.4	15.6	17.6	16.2	18.2	20.1	24.3	26.2	29.8

(Continued)

APPENDIX F (Continued)

Type of School	1957 1958	1958 1959	1959 1960	1960 1961	1961 1962	1962 1963	1963 1964	1964 1965	1965 1966	1966 1967	1967 1968
Community Schools											
No. of schools	15	20	41	88	143	170	190	-	-	-	-
No. of teachers	65	72	136	232	408	510	581	-	-	-	-
No. of students	2165	2264	5095	11642	17869	22358	26415	-	-	-	-
Avg school size	144	112	124	132	125	131	141	Included in Government Schools			
Stu/teach ratio	33.3	31.0	37.0	50.0	43.0	44	35				
Percnt of girls	8.9	9.3	15	17.7	14.7	15.2	15.3				

Sources:

Government School Enrollment, 1959/60 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1960), pp. 1-5, 51-57.

Statistical Abstracts (Addis Ababa: Central Statistical Office, 1963), pp. 1, 103.

Ethiopian School Census, 1967/68 (Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1968), pp. 8, 20, 70-75.