

Ethiopian Civil Service University

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The 6th National Research Conference

on
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on
Public Sector Transformation and Development

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Foreword

Ethiopian Civil Service University (ECSU) was established to support the transformation drive of building capacity of the public sector both at federal and regional levels through providing specialized education, training, research and consultancy programs and services. The University has been organizing scientific forums such as workshops and conferences with the aim of disseminating scientific research outputs and enriching the same to maintain its quality at different times.

Against this backdrop, the conference was as a continuation from 2019¹ conference under the theme 'The Sixth National Research Conference on Public Sector Transformation and Development.' A total of 69 research papers were collected by the 6th national research conference organizing committee. Of these, 50 were collected from higher education and training institutions, while 19 were funded by ECSU in the 2012 E.C. (2019/2020) calendar year. Passing through rigorous review process, of the 69 papers, 41 were successfully recommended for conference representation (18 from ECSU and 23 from outside). The papers primarily were considered since they are directly related with the ECSU research thematic areas and believed to address problem-solving inquires.

This proceedings contains 37 papers that were successfully presented during the two-day conference. The papers have been enriched through incorporation of comments and suggestions gained during the conference. The papers are categorized into eight sub-thematic areas, the three dominant ones being Governance & Development; followed by Economy & Development and Cross-cutting issues. The other sub-thematic areas are: Public Expenditure Management ; Leadership & Development; Human Resource Management; Environment & Development; and Public Service Ethics.

Finally, the RPCO presents this proceedings with great pleasure and sense of honor to all relevant stakeholders.

Research and Publication Coordination Office, July 2021

Message from the Vice President for Research and Community Services

¹ *In the wake of Covid-19 onslaught, 2020 conference could not be undertaken.*

THEME 4 PUBLIC EXPENDITURE MANAGEMENT

The Budgetary Implication of Aid Flow Pattern and Modalities onto Ethiopian Health Sector

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Abstract

In Ethiopia health sector foreign aid is a major source of revenue which contributes to the achievement the sector development goals. The purpose of this study is to examine the existing aid modalities and channels and how it is impacting the budget practice specifically the Ethiopian Health sector. The research employed a descriptive research method which involves both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The total population of study is composed of different experts found in the Federal Ministry Health and the two Cities Administration and all of them were taken as a study unit. Interview and questionnaires were used as a data collection tool. Qualitative data of the study were analyzed narratively while quantitative data were analyzed descriptively and presented using tables, graphs and percentages. The study found out that, Ethiopia's health sector is greatly depending on donor financing. In the sector donor's support has been provided through three different funding channels and modalities which all of them have different impact on the management of foreign aid and budget practice specifically on allocation of resources. Accordingly channel one A and channel two A found the most preferred funding modalities for the sector since it helps in budget management and resource allocation efficiency of the sector. On the other hand channel three funding modality, while it contributes a significant amount of resource to the sector, it is difficult to track and record and ultimately makes difficult to know much is being spent on health hence affect resource allocation efficiency of the sector. Therefore the research recommends that there is a need for further negotiation with donors to shift off-budget financing to on-budget in order to better track, plan and execute foreign aid along the country own resource and direct funding towards sustainable financing of the health.

Key words: *resource allocation efficiency, aid modality and budget management*

1. Introduction

Aid modality as a means of delivering aid determines how funds and knowledge are transmitted to recipient countries, how goods are procured, and how recipients and donors interact in such processes. Consequently, it importantly affects the nature of aid relationship and the effectiveness of addressing development problems in recipient countries (Ohno & Niya, 2004). During the last

decade in aid effectiveness agenda, aid modality is one of the central issues that determine effectiveness of development assistance. It is in a sense that aid effectiveness is about delivering aid in a way that maximizes its impact on development and achieves value for aid money. It is clear that the way aid delivered affects outcomes, and some aid modalities are argued to be more effective than others (Bandstein, 2007).

The modern aid-modalities argument says that, as a general rule, “it is better for countries’ development in the medium and long run to channel assistance through their official budgetary and accounting systems” (Booth, & Fritz 2008). Further this issue is strengthened by the agreements in the Paris Declaration (2005) and Accra Agenda for Action (2008) and become the only international framework on the quality of aid. Accordingly this agreement put a significant pressure on donors to integrate aid resources into recipient country budgets, so that aid can be allocated alongside domestic resources and provide a comprehensive and accurate estimate of total available resources by increasing aid transparency and predictability. Accordingly improving the predictability, transparency and accountability of aid flows and strengthening the government capacity for integrating projected and actual (disbursed) flows in the budget process are essential elements of "good donor ship" principles (Ohno & Niya, 2004).

Ethiopia, like any other developing country is not in a position to mobilize enough domestic resources to finance government spending on different sectors of the economy. To finance this gap it resorts to external assistance. According to OECD-DAC statistics, net ODA disbursement to Ethiopia amounted to USD 4074 million in 2018, making it the largest recipient among top ten aid receiving developing countries (OECD, 2018).

Being the largest recipient of official development assistance in the African region and other developing countries, donors play a significant role in Ethiopia’s health system. The health sector has been one of the top aid investment destinations for several bilateral and multilateral donors. For instance Ethiopia received the highest share of total development assistance for health amounting to US\$ 828.3 million in 2015 and 50% of annual health sector budget in the year 2014/15. And in this specific year the average annual share of bilateral ODA to the health sector was one of the highest which is 23% of the total. Though this is large in terms of magnitude, the way of aid delivery, donor harmonization and fragmentation has been affecting the quality and its effectiveness.

Evidences showed that uneven aid disbursement and uncertain financial flow in the sector can undermine long term effort to build health system especially in the country like Ethiopia which aid covers most of the sector's budget form (Tolesa, 2017). The unpredictability of future funding and the sizable funding gap that existed in the sector worsened by the existence of low budget credibility which ranged from 94% to 17% during the 2013/14–2016/17 period and timely utilization of resources. These may be explained by limited budget preparation and forecasting capacity, as well as unpredictable external aid flows to the sector (UNICEF, 2017).

Donor may contribute much amount of money than the government, however if this can be performed in such a way that maximize the value for money, it may not finance the priority of the government. This means that the fund allocated to programs and projects that may not always contribute to reaching the country's priority. Therefore priorities identified in the health sector strategic plan may remain underfunded while other less prioritized areas may be funded enough or over funded.

In this regard there are few studied conducted in Ethiopia. Tolesa (2017) conducted a study on the role of development partners on the Ethiopian Health sector during Health Sector Development Program IV and found out that the sector heavily financed by foreign aid. However, utilization of foreign aid resulted in less performance in the sector. Similarly a study by Shumey, Teshome & Paul (2018) on the topic of Aid, Ownership, and Coordination in the health sector of Ethiopia found out that the sector has at once been heavily dependent on foreign sources and characterized by high aid fragmentation. A study by Getnet (2009) considers aid effectiveness in the health sector and found out that aid is not effectively coordinated in the health sector rather it is fragmented and unpredictable. There are several donors that have several projects but only a small share of the aid market.

However none of this studies were tried to connect aid with the budget practice in Ethiopia. Therefore the literature on the interplay between foreign aid and budgetary practice is so scarce that it could be said to be almost non-existent. In this respect, the researcher hope that this paper will provide an important contribution to a debate that has mostly happened in the policy arena the contribution of foreign aid flow in the country budget practice, largely unsupported by rigorous underlying research. Thus the current study has tried to investigate the impact of different aid

modalities on the budget allocation and utilization specifically in Ethiopian Health sector and addressed the following specific objectives:

- To evaluate the extent of aid predictability in Ethiopia health sector;
- To assess the effectiveness of different aid modalities from the perspective of budget allocation and utilization in Ethiopian health sector;
- To identify the challenges and constraints that affect effective aid utilization in the sector.

2. Methodology

The research employed descriptive research method and have both qualitative and quantitative approaches during the data collection and analysis. However because of the nature of the problem and study questions, it profoundly depends on qualitative analysis of data from both primary and secondary source. For qualitative component data were collected from concerned parties on their opinions of the current aid flow pattern and the modalities in Ethiopian health sector and how impacting budget allocation efficiency of the sector. The quantitative component has been employed in collecting and analyzing data generated in quantitative form through questionnaires which are distributed and collected from the experts found FMOH and Bureau of Health.

Regarding the study area because most of the transactions related with the external assistance are managed at the federal level, the study focused at the ministry level which is the ministry of health (MOH). Nevertheless in order to critically see the resource management, budgeting and financial reporting structure and relationship down the line, the two city administration (Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa) are considered together with the federal ministry. Therefore the target population of the study is individuals which are found in the MOH and bureau of health of the two city administrations. Thus, departments which have a direct linkage with research area are targeted for the research. Therefore individuals or experts which are found in these departments are taken as a target population of the study and the study applies census method by taking all the total population as a study unit.

In the study both primary and secondary source of data were used to obtain the required data. Therefore questionnaires and in-depth interview were used as a primary data collection tools from primary source and secondary data was collected from different data bases of FMOH, OECD/DAC, and NHA. Accordingly the data's collected both from primary and secondary

sources have been analyzed using different techniques sequentially. Therefore the qualitative data obtained from different sources were analyzed narratively and the quantitative data collected were analyzed descriptively and presented using graphs and percentages.

3. Results and Discussion

a. The Predictability of Aid in the Health Sector Financing

It is known that aid transparency is crucial for giving recipient governments clarity on available resources; line ministries can better formulate sector policies and plans, while ministries of finance and planning can allocate resources more efficiently among sectors (OECD, 2016). In this part of the study analysis were made to investigate to what extent aid is predictable to be included in the medium term expenditure frame work and in the annual budget of the sector. Aid predictability can be measured in different way. One of the common ways is comparisons of aid flows expected at the beginning of the year and outturns or comparing aid flows anticipated by aid recipients and ultimate disbursement by the donors of these recipients (Celasun & Walliser 2008).

Therefore in this regard analysis of secondary data showed that even though medium term and annual aid predictability is increasing from time to time, there are still challenges that require further attention.

1. Table-1: HSTP Resource Mapping summary of commitment by Development Partner

Development Partners Name	Provision of Medium Term Resource Projection	Development Partners Name	Provision of Medium Term Resource Projection
USAID	2015/16 to 2019/20	WHO	3 years
PEPFAR	5 years	World Bank	5 years
DFID	3 years	Global fund TB	3 years
EKN/the Netherlands Embassy	3 years	Global fund malaria	3 years
Irish Aid	5 years	Global fund HIV	3 years
Coraid	3 years	Global fund HSS	3 years
European union	5 years	GAVI HSS	3 years
Spanish aid	5 years	CIF	3 years
UNICEF	5 years	GAVI Vaccine/forecasted	5 years

Source: Health Sector Transformation Plan, 2015/16 - 2019/20

The table above (Table 1) indicates that among the 24 donors only 15 (62%) of them provided resource projection during resource mapping exercise in the health sector transformation plan preparation. therefore the information on the amount donor's contributions has been incomplete as information from some donors has not been captured.

Accordingly, to tackle this problem and to reduce the effect on overall resource management and allocation, the sector have a good practice of preparing the plan by considering this uncertainty. This is done by preparing the long range plan under the two scenarios which is scenario one based on the financial data or resource projection by donors and the other is based on the simple analysis of past trend on the provision aid. In the preparation of the current HSTP a total of 3.3 billion USD was projected to be available for HSTP period under the first scenario. And a total of 4.3 billion USD was projected to be available for HSTP period under the second scenario. This shows there is one billion dollar gap between the two scenarios. Preparing the budget under different scenario would be helpful from the perspective of resource allocation decision (HSTP, 2015/16 - 2019/20).

On the other when we see the predictability based on commitment verses disbursement, donors are more predictable on annual than on medium term. The table below (table 2) indicates that donors make a commitment of USD of 946,915,360 for the year 2015/16 on the HSTP resource mapping or projection during the preparation of HSTP which is made on medium year bases whereas donors makes a pledge of USD 271,508,677.44 on annual bases for the same year 2015/16. This shows a deviation of 248 % between the two. This indicate that when donor provide projection on medium term bases it is more relaxed and less realistic and ultimately the affect the resource allocation decision especially on the medium term bases during the preparation sector programs.

Table: 2 Comparison of aid projection on annual bases and on medium year bases

Development Partners Name	Year 2015/16		Year 2016/17	
	Annual pledged resource based on medium year commitment	Annual pledged resource based on commitment on annual bases	Annual pledged resource based on medium year commitment	Annual pledged resource based on commitment on annual bases
DFID	89,602,858	56,498,792	75,354,562	57,578,20
EKN/the Netherlands Embassy	115,891,429	15,891,429	15,000,000	11,000,00
Irish Aid	8,051,530	8,051,530	8,051,530	5,019,75
Coraid	2,485,009		1,295,836	
European union	26,434,563	9,487,386	64,181,970	9,658,12
Spanish aid	2,348,363	1,200,000		1,115,50
UNICEF	43,550,000	2,496,420	42,050,000	3,722,79
WHO	15,363,000	21,647,616	15,514,500	10,767,91
World Bank	31,575,230	10,000,000	30,222,135	6,000,00
global fund total	93,484,922	110,562,067	165,544,598	109,706,25
GAVi total	76,800,000	35,673,438	88,166,331	28,121,94
Total	946,915,360	271,508,677.44	505,381,462	242,690,489.0

Source: author calculation based on FMOH HSTP 2014/14-2019/20

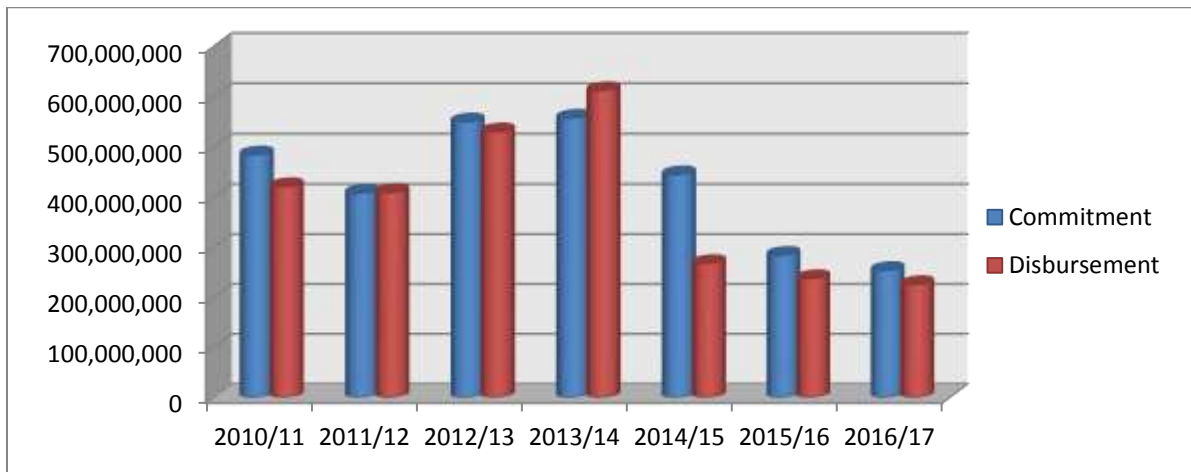
Annual predictability of aid considered to examine to what extend aid provision can be included in the annual budget of the sector and to be planed and allocated alongside the country own resources.

Table 3: comparison of commitment vs. Disbursement of aid

Year	Commitment	Disbursement	% of disbursement
2010/11	485,439,775	422,351,726	87%
2011/12	409,345,028.61	410,996,784.23	100%
2012/13	550,989,473.01	531,133,786.35	96%
2013/14	558,327,539.00	612,865,345.00	109%
2014/15	445,962,581.60	269,070,132.35	60%
2015/16	285,432,599.70	238,538,548.10	83%
2016/17	255,026,932.00	226,734,672.00	89%
2018/19	364,206,971 83	312,181,715 12	85 %

Source: Annual reports of FMOH for the year 2010/11-2018/19

Data shows that even though it is improving there is still a challenge. The annual report of FMOH showed that aid predictability trend is not uniform and volatile from time to time. The graph below (graph 1) shows predictability rate varies from year to year which ranges from 60% minimum to 100% of the maximum. Again the graph depicted that not only the predictability of aid but also the donor contribution for the sector is also decreasing from time to time. This alarms the government for mobilizing additional resources from different domestic sources. It is obvious that when the committed amount is not released based on the plan, it is difficult for the sector to keep the budget credible and provide the planned service or it requires other source of revenue which affects the efficiency of the sector.



Graph 1-Aid Commitment vs. Disbursement by development partners. Source: FMOH HSDP annual reports 2010/11-2016/17

b. Aid Modalities and Its Effect on Budget Practice

It is obvious that the regular inclusion of development co-operation funding on budget helps to align development efforts with countries' own priorities; strengthens the comprehensiveness and credibility of domestic budgetary system (OECD, 2016). Thus in this part of the study analysis was made to identify the funding modalities and how much they are effective from the perspective of budget management specifically from the perspective of ensuring resource allocation efficiency of the sector. Accordingly for most of the decade of the 2000s, the largest source of funding for Ethiopian Health

sector was international development co-operation. This support has been provided in many ways and through different funding channels (Channel 1a and 1b, Channel 2a and 2b and Channel 3).

Channel one A which have sub component of A and B is a funding channel on which channeled from MOF to the implementers. This channel of funding uses MOFED's financial management system, integrated budget and expenditure (IBEX) system and is fully on budget, on treasury and on account (MOF cash management manual, 2016). Even though this channel is the most preferable channel for government of Ethiopia it is less effective for the FMOH. As it is stated as by one of the interview:

"Channel one fund, even though it helps to put aid on budget and help the government to know the comprehensive amount of resource and helping efficient allocation and management of resources, at the sector level it is less effective because it increase the complication of fund flow as the government release the fund after achievement of specific target which could be achieved by the contribution effort of different sectors; which is challenging to coordinate across sectors. Therefore the release of fund is impacted by the performance of different sectors".

It is known that budget support aid modalities are advantageous to both the recipient government and donors for aid management and development planning. Therefor the government should put additional effort to mobilize such resources in order to increase the budget efficiency of the sector and to get the most out of it.

On the other hand channel one B, even though funds are earmarked for specific purpose, this fund use the government financial management system, allocation follows national allocation criteria using the "off-setting" principle. This modality used mostly used by UN agencies and resource transferred in this channel is fully on budget, on treasury and on account and managed according the financial management procedure of the federal government. However the amount of resource through channel is very small. As per the report from MOF, donors that provide budget support at the national level take the smallest share of the entire donors fund that is only 4.7, 8.2 and 7.1% in

the year 2014/15, 2015/16 and 2016/17 respectively (MOF, ODA statistical bulletin, 2016/17).

Channel 2 funding which has a component of channel 2 A and B is managed by the Federal Ministry of Health to finance specific programs with resources allocated by donors. Channel 2A is an un-earmarked funding channel which mainly consists of Sustainable Development Pool Fund (SDG PF) of the health sector. It is a pooled funding mechanism managed by the FMOH, using the government of Ethiopia financial procedures. It provides flexible resources, consistent with the ‘one plan, one budget and one report concept, to secure additional finance to the Health Sector Transformation Plan. This is explained by one interviewee as:

"SDG fund is the most preferable funding modality, as it is a pooling fund arrangement it decrease the transaction cost for the government. For instance if there are eleven donors in the SGD fund arrangement, if it would have not been SDG fund; it would have required eleven plans and another eleven reports".

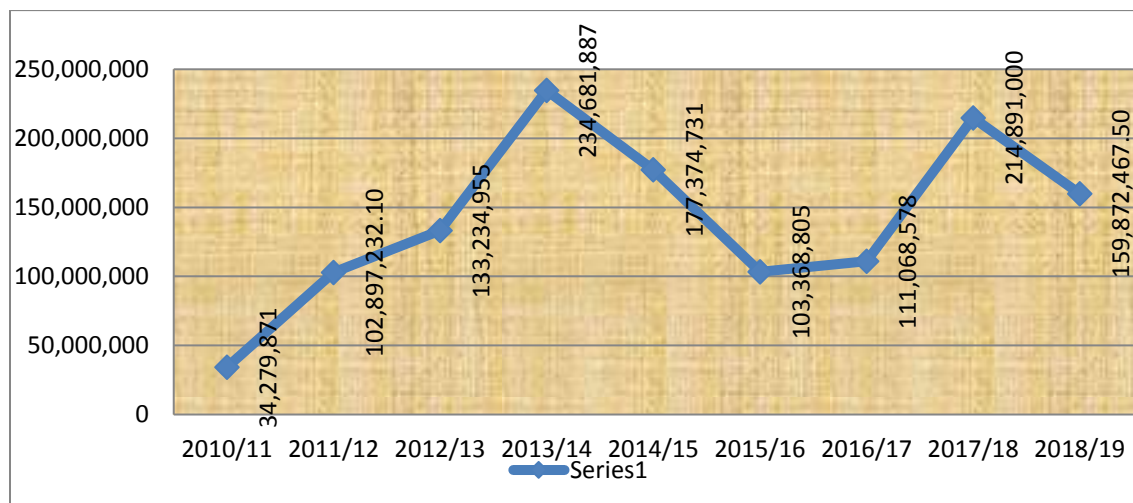
The preferably of SDG fund is expressed by other interviewee as: "SDG pool fund is flexible fund, the government can allocate the resource for the most preferred and prioritized area, so it increase the allocation efficiency of the government and it can minimize transaction cost that come from special management and reporting requirements by multiple the donor since it follow the harmonized donor accounting and reporting procedure".

However, even though it is one of the GoE’s preferred modalities for scaling up development partners assistance in support of HSTP, the amount of fund channeled in this modality very small. In this channel resources are allocated based on agreed work plans and follow the decentralized system, meaning the FMOH allocates resources to the Regional Health Bureaus (RHBs) which are then allocate to the Woreda Health Offices (WHOs). The specific scope of activities to be financed by MDGPF is determined through a consultative process involving all key stakeholders every year (WB, 2017).

Contributions to the MDG PF have been steadily increasing over the last 10 years, as apparent from graph 2 below. While the number of contributors has been increasing

from 2 up to 12 in 2017/18, there is also an impressive increase in the amount of US\$ 34 million in 2010/11 to 215 million in 2017/18. According to FMOH 2018/19 annual report starting from the initiation of this performance pooled fund, a total amount of USD 1.32 billion has been collected in the last one decade from twelve DPs. This indicate that the FMOH has putting effort to attract many donors to this channel envelop. However the major funder of the health sector Global fund (37% contributor of the 2018/19 donor fund is not part of this modality which require further work and negotiation of the ministry. This result is also substantiated by Shumey, Teshome etal, (2018).

When the trend of MDG/SDG PF flow is seen, it shows fluctuation from time to time which affects the sustainability of the fund. The figure below shows that it has been a sharp growth in the year between 2010/10 till 2013/14 with the amount of 585% growth rate (USD 3, 4279, 871--234,681,887). And then continue to decrease gradually to 103,368,805 in the year 2015/16 and increased to 21, 4891,000 in the year 2017/18.



2. Graph 2: Trends in the disbursement of MDG/SDG PF. *Source: Author presentation form HSDP annual report of FMOH*

a question was raised for interviewee that what is the reason for that other donors are not joining the SDG pool fund as it is the most preferred funding modality. The interviewee responded as

“Some donors do not want to join the SDG fund because SDG Pull fund is un-earmarked fund that the government can use it flexibly, but the earmarked fund is used only for special purpose for which the fund is allocated therefor joining SDG fund may cause to loss donors focus or priority area”.

From this it is possible to understand that, the SDG PF is one of the effective funding channels with high country ownership by the Ministry of Health. It is one of the most preferred funding modality which provide flexible fund to fill the financing gap of underfunded area. The fund gives unremarked resources that is used for flexible resource allocation and leave the government discretion on resource allocation decision and better use of the government financial management system. This is helpful to strengthen the overall budget system especially resource allocation efficiency of the sector as it is used to allocate resource based on the priority of the government and used the government financial management system.

On the other hand earmarked fund of channel 2B resources from partners, such as Global Fund, GAVI, and UN agencies allocate resource for specific programs may affect the resource allocation decision of the sector. Because the funds are reported on and accounted for separately, and used to pay only for activities agreed by the particular donor, often according to its specific procurement and disbursement procedures. These resources are managed by the FMOH but accounting and reporting mainly follow donor procedures.

The interviewees were asked why the other channel two donors do not want to join the SDG pooling fund arrangement since it is the most preferred one, and they responded that

"Some donors do not want to lose their focus special area. And if they join the SDG pooling funding arrangement the government may allocate the resources flexibility for the area most prioritized which may not be their priority".

Channel 3 is a channel on which donors provide support in kind and directly to the final beneficiary without the intervention of government. In this funding arrangement even though partially donor agency may report on the use of funds in the resource mapping,

the day-to-day financial management and procurement and management of the project are firmly in the hands of the donor (interview result).

Since it is Off-budget financing, donors allocated fund to programs and projects may not always contribute to reaching the country's priority populations, interventions and services. Donor may contribute much amount of money than the government, however if this allocation cannot use the government budget system it may not finance the priority of the government. As result and the primary health care and other priorities identified in the health sector strategic plan may remain underfunded while other less prioritized areas may be funded enough or over funded.

NHA, 2017 report substantiate this. According to the report the priority of the government and donors are in different. And this is reflected in the share of resource allocation between two different health policies of the sector. It is known that the Ethiopian government, as a health sector policy it gives priority for prevention and allocate 51% of the government managed resource while donors allocates only 29% of the donors fund for prevention and (NHA, 2017).

This is also reflected between the share of resources in capital and recurrent expenditure. Government provide larger share of resource allocation for capital budget. Accordingly, in the NHA report, the capital spending out of government-managed resources was approximately 17%, while NGOs spent only 5%. And over the last decade from the aggregated national health expenditure nearly 59 % was allocated to finance capital expenditure. However donors had been making some contribution for aligning with the government budget.

According to one of the interviewee "even though channel three funds are not aligned with the budget, plan alignment exercise is there every year in the month Hamele. And this helps to enhance efficiency of resource allocation in the budget practice of the government."

c. Challenges and constraints that affect efficient aid utilization in the sector

In this study different problems and challenges were assessed that affect tracking and including of aid resource in the national budget of the health sector which is analyzed by triangulating secondary data, survey of questionnaires and interview results.

Accordingly, the first issue considered was the utilization of aid. In this regard evidences showed that there is a problem of timely utilization and reporting of resources which could affect the smooth release of fund from donors. The problem of aid utilization in the sector was also substantiated by the study Tolesa, (2017). In this regard the result of secondary data analysis showed that aid utilization ranged from 62% (minimum) in the year 2013/14 to 93% (maximum) in the year 2016/17.

According to the information from grant management department of the sector, the reason for less utilization was the bureaucracy of procurement and construction. Concerning this the respondents were asked the underlying reason for underutilization and reporting problem of the sector and said that

“Long chain (from federal to region then to worada) on the release of the fund and reporting affect the timing of resource utilization and reporting. This also affects the timely receipt, utilization of resources and reporting of the utilized resources”.

According to the survey result, implementation capacity problem is also one of the factors that affect the aid flow pattern of the sector. As one of the interviewee mentioned that:

“The sector requires gap filling in terms of human resource, ICT and technology for effective management of grant. Most of the existing staffs especially on resource mobilization and grant management are hired by the donors as a support of filling the capacity gap and this responsible should be also taken over by the government too”.

Therefore the government should take the initiation for building the capacity in terms of human capacity and better financial management for attracting donors to the government preferred funding modality.

Because, if the organizations cannot have the required capacity to manage and coordinate the resource, donors might be forced to use other less preferred modalities or channels. Because donors may not have a confidence to use the government financial management and procurement system and leads them to use modalities such as project fund which help them more intervention and control of the finance and the program.

The survey result also shows that, late transfer of fund is affecting the timely utilization of resources in the sector. To know the reason for this interview question was asked for respondents and their response indicate that:

“Late transfer of the fund is because of not utilizing, liquidating and reporting by regional governments is the main reason for late transfer of the fund by the donors”.

There are also different issued that are raised by the respondents through open ended questions that are considered as a problem in the sector that affect efficient aid utilization by the sector. Such as having different budget year between donors and the government, Poor utilization and reprogramming of activities, timely liquidation and reporting of budget down the line in the financial administration.

4. Conclusion and Recommendation

In this study the availability of aid information or aid predictability and the efficiency of different aid modalities and channels have been evaluated from the perspective of efficient budget allocation and utilization mainly using secondary data and document analysis annual aid predictability is gradually increasing from time to time. However, in the medium term aid predictability, even though there is a progress, there are still challenges, which require better donor coordination and negotiation by the sector so that this medium term predictability will be completed to advance the budget allocation and utilization.

The study found out that different aid modalities have different contribution and impact on the budget management of the sector. modalities such as channel 1A or direct budget support and channel two A sector budget support of SDG pool fund are the most preferable funding modalities since it provide un-earmarked and flexible resource which can be used the fill the financing gap and managed according the government budget and finance management procedure. However the share of this modality is very small when it is compared with the entire fund of other modalities. And significant amount of resource in the health sector flowed off- budget which is not reflected in the national health sector budget which means the state health budget reflects only a portion of Ethiopia's health spending and this understate the total amount of health expenditure and difficult to know how much is spent in the sector. Therefore this ultimately biases the overall resource allocation decision of the government. Hence the government has to put additional effort and further negotiate to attract various donors to the preferred modalities in order to effectively prepare and plan a comprehensive budget and utilize it accordingly.

The finding of the research also indicated that there number of challenges which have an impact the budget management of the sector. Such as timely utilization, liquidation and reporting on the use of resources, capacity problem on aid utilization especially on skilled man power, ICT technology, late transfer of fund are among the identified challenges that affect the budget performance of the sector. Therefore the government has to consider these problems put the necessary measures to solve, to attract donors to the most preferred modalities and utilize the limited available resource efficiently and effectively

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Determinants of Micro Finance Institutions Sustainability: The Case of Selected Microfinance Institutions in Ethiopia

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Abstract

Microfinance institutions are established to serve the poor which are ignored by the conventional banking sector. To achieve such a golden objective continuously for a long period of time these institutions need to be financially self-sufficient. The objective of the study is therefore to assess the sustainability of MFIs found in Ethiopia. To achieve the objectives of the study both primary and secondary data sources has been used. The primary data was collected from managers and finance related officers via questionnaire and interview. The Secondary data was gathered basically from the annual bulletins of the Association of Ethiopian Microfinance Institutions and National Bank of Ethiopia. A purposive sampling technique was applied to select the sample Micro Finance Institution. Accordingly based on the availability of 10 years data; twenty five MFIs are selected forming a panel data observation of 250. Conducting appropriate tests fixed effect model was used to analyze the determinant factors. The regression output of the study shows that $PAR > 30$ and risk coverage have a positive and significant effect on the financial self-sufficiency of the MFIs. While the age of MFI, cost per borrower and percent of women borrowers, debt to equity ratio, average loan balance per borrower and borrower per loan officer have no significant effect. based on the findings of the study the researcher recommend to enhance the number of active borrowers; small and new MFIs are recommended to share experience from their elders; close supervision and organized efforts should be made to minimize the default rate ($PAR > 30$) and enhance the provision of appropriate level of risk coverage; the government is also recommended to help the efforts of the MFIs by provision of different infrastructures and framing flexible and up-to-date regulations and directives.

Key words: *financing structure, productivity, efficiency, liquidity, outreach, financial self-sufficiency, MFIs found in Ethiopia*

1. Introduction

Microcredit is the practice of providing small loans to poor people who are not conventionally being served by the commercial bank, was first pioneered in Bangladesh in by Nobel laureate Mohammad Yunus and the organization he founded, Grameen Bank. Following the success of Grameen Bank, this financial innovation has not only been used in Bangladesh alone, but also has been replicating by the most other countries in the world with some modification based on contextual differences (Ferdousi, 2013).

The history of microfinance in Ethiopia is often associated with the rise of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) providing micro credit services to the poor and the development of a handful of microfinance institutions. In the early 1990s (E.C), standards began to emerge calling for stronger financial management of micro credit providers, particularly in their delinquency management and reporting. The government of Ethiopia has made significant steps toward economic development over the past decade, with relatively stable macro-economic indicators and the gradual privatization of its economy (Basaznew, 2009).

Since the mid- 1980s, many non-governmental organizations (NGO) in Ethiopia have started providing micro- credit to poor households for income generating activities (Michael 2006). Moreover, as cited in Goshim (2011), the development bank of Ethiopia, in collaboration with the ministry of trade, has launched a micro enterprise lending program (Kereta 2007). While the formal microfinance in Ethiopia started in 1994/5 E.C. In particular, the Licensing and Supervision of Microfinance Institution Proclamation of the government (proclamation40/96) encouraged the spread of Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) in both rural and urban areas as it authorized them among other things, to legally accept deposits from the general public, to draw and accept drafts, and to manage funds for the micro financing business (Getaneh, 2005).

As per the Proclamation No. 626 /2009 Federal Negarit Gazeta of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia The purpose and activities that are allowed to MFIs include collecting deposits and extend credit to rural and urban farmers and people engaged in other similar activities as well as micro and small scale rural and urban entrepreneurs.

To achieve the objective of any institution, periodic evaluation of the performance is a must. Several performance evaluation indicators and different measurement models are emerged in relation to different areas of management from time to time. At the same time different organizations are applying different measurement tools like CAMEL, PEARLS and MIX model to measure the performance of MFIs.

CAMEL model: As discussed in Rai and Anil, (2011), ACCION and Women's World Banking have given some popular tools for the performance indicators and standards for MFIs. This Model uses 21 indicators to evaluate performance emphasizing on the financial management of the MFIs. The abbreviation CAMEL represents 'C' for Capital adequacy (Leverage, Reserve adequacy and other indicators); 'A' stands for Assets Quality (PAR, Write off ratio and other quality level indicators.); 'M' stands for Management (Human resources, process, controls and audits); 'E' stands for Earning (ROE, Operational efficiency and other earning indicators.) and 'L' stands for the level of Liquidity (Cash flow projection and other liquidity level indicators)

Another performance measurement tool is PEARLS Model (1990) as discussed in (Rai, 2011) from the World Council of Credit Unions. The model uses 45 indicators aiming at monitoring performance of microfinance finance institutions. The abbreviations of the PEARLS model represents as 'P' for Protection; 'E' for Effective Financial Structure; 'A' for Asset Quality; 'R' for Rate of Return and Costs; 'L' for Liquidity and 'S' for Sign of Growth.

The MIX provides detailed financial and social performance information from Microfinance Institutions (MFIs), as well as business information from market facilitators and leading donor organizations and investors in Microfinance. To address the issue of diversity in operating environment of MFIs it has adopted a peer group framework, where financial performance of MFIs are compared among peer group members on 8 broad parameters (Institutional characteristics; Financing Structure; Outreach Indicators; Macroeconomic Indicators; Overall Financial Performance; Revenue and Expenses; Efficiency as well as Risk and Liquidity parameters) which have list of different ratios for each of the performance indicators (Rai, 2011).

It is obvious that performance of any institution shall be measured from the objectives of the organization angle. Microfinance's goal is to eradicate poverty. In the early days when MFIs started they were financed by donor funds that have a poverty eradication goal. Hence, the performance of the MFI was measured on how much MFI reach to the poor and impact. But as the MF industry grows in size, the need for increased financing coupled with unpredictability of donor funds trigger the issue of building a sustainable MFIs that stand on their own leg. Generating their own revenues that could cover the expenses incurred (Letenah, 2010). The direction of focus was changed (that is not only serving the poor but also sustaining for a long period of time) as a result of failure of most MFI due to high default rates, poor fund management and lack of knowledge on the better use of funds among the community members served (Kipsha, 2013).therefor there is a need to identify the main determinants of financial performance of the MFIs that could help them made an informed decision. While reviewing the works done on similar areas; Gershwin (2015) conducts a study by taking 25 MFIs found in Ghana entitled 'Determinants of Financial Sustainability of Microfinance Institutions in

Ghana'. This study uses unbalanced Panel data of 2006-2011 From MIX Market. The finding of the study shows that sustainability of MFIs is positively and significantly related to the yield on gross portfolio while the ratio of operation cost to loan portfolio and staff productivity has a significant negative influence on sustainability. The results of (Mahapatra & Dutta., 2016) shows that MFIs' operational sustainability is positively and significantly influenced by the ratio of gross loan portfolio to total asset and size. Management inefficiency and PAR > 30 days are found to have a negative and significant impact on operational sustainability of MFIs in India. Similarly the study conducted by (El Kharti, 2014) shows that share of equity in total assets, staff productivity and the percentage of female clients and PAR >30 have a negative and significant effect on financial performance of MFIs found in Morocco. Whereas the findings of Tinotenda, (2019) shows a positive but not statistically significant effect of PAR>30 days and lending rate whereas the OSS of the MFIs is found to have a negative and statistically insignificant effect while inflation rate is found to have a negative and statistically significant effect on the performance of the MFIs found in Zimbabwe.

While reviewing the studies conducted in Ethiopia; the findings of (Woldeyes, 2012) shows that the size of a MFI, average loan balance per borrower, cost per borrowers and yield on gross loan portfolio affects the operational sustainability of Ethiopian MFIs significantly. Similarly the output of (Gudeta, 2013) shows that Age of microfinance institutions has a positive and statistically significant effect on the profitability of the MFIs. However, operating expense ratio and PAR> 30 have a negative and statistically significant effect on the performance of the MFIs understudy. Still the findings of (Zeray, 2013) shows that Debt to Equity Ratio and Deposit to Total Asset have negative and significant effect on the performance of the MFIs i.e. ROE while size of MFIs have a positive and significant effect on ROE of the MFIs.

The findings of Yenesew (2014), show that, operational efficiency, GDP and size of MFIs affect MFIs financial performance significantly whereas, Age of MFI has a positive but statistically insignificant effect on the financial performance of the MFIs. While the study found that Portfolio at risk>30, Gearing ratio, capital to asset ratio and Market concentration affect negatively but not significantly. Similarly the output of Mirani (2015), shows that grant to asset ratio, cost per borrower, GDP growth rate, deposit to loan ratio and gross loan portfolio, affects the financial self-sufficiency and sustainability of Ethiopian MFIs significantly. Similarly, return on asset, experience of MFIs, cost per borrower, portfolio at risk and operating expense ratio affect their operational sustainability. While the study of Haile, (2016) shows that PAR, operating expense ratio and size of the MFI affects ROA negatively and significantly whereas, OSS, and FSS have a positive and significant impact on ROA. While reviewing the existing literatures conducted to analyze the determinants of sustainability

(profitability) of MFIs both the dependent (OSS, FSS, ROA, ROE) and independent variables used by the scholars is not consistent even the output of the studies conducted is not conclusive. Therefore the objective of the current study is to analyze the determinants of financial sustainability of the MFIs found in Ethiopia by taking the MIX model and using the financial self-sufficiency as a proxy to financial sustainability.

More over the study involved different finance related officials and managers of the MFIs to share their experience regarding the factors that affect the financial performance depending on their institution's perspective and assess the challenges and problems faced related to operation of MFIs. Since it is important to evaluate the activities and efforts that are undertaken to minimize the negative effect the significant factors; the current study assessed the activities of the MFIs in mitigating the different problems that can affect the financial self-sufficiency of the MFIs. The main objective of the study is to assess the Sustainability of Micro Finance Institutions found in Ethiopia. Specifically the study tried to achieve the following specific objectives

- 1. To analyze the determinants of financial performance of the selected microfinance institutions*
- 2. To assess the practice of the MFIs managing the financial performance of their organizations*
- 3. To assess the challenges and problems faced by MFIs*
- 4. To assess the actions undertaken by the MFIs to mitigate the problems faced*

Hypothesis

Hypothesis 1: Age has a significant effect on FSS.

Hypothesis 2: debt to equity has a significant effect on FSS.

Hypothesis 3: numbers of active borrowers has a significant effect on FSS.

Hypothesis 4: average loan balance per borrower has a significant effect on FSS.

Hypothesis 5: percent of women borrowers has a significant effect on FSS.

Hypothesis 6: cost per borrower has a significant and on FSS.

Hypothesis 7: borrower per loan officer has a significant effect on FSS.

Hypothesis 8: portfolio at risk >30 has a significant effect on FSS

Hypothesis 9: risk coverage has a significant effect on FSS

2.Methodology

The study employed casual and descriptive research design as well as mixed research approach. Sample of 25 MFIs were selected based on the availability of at least 10 years (2009-2018) data that has been reported to the Association of MFIs (AEMFIs). Accordingly the sample MFIs taken into consideration includes AVFS, Degaf, Letta, Meklit, , Lefayeda,, Dynamic, Harer, Dire, Gasha, Metemamen , Aggar, Shashemen, Harbu, Benishangul, PEACE, SFPI, Sidama, Eshet, ACSI, ADCSI, DECSI, Buussa gonfa, OCSSCO, OMO, and Wasasa.

Both primary and secondary data sources were considered. To this end the secondary data was collected from the annual bulletin of the association of Ethiopian Microfinance Institutions (AEMFI) and audited financial statement submitted to the national bank of Ethiopia. As a primary data source the participants have been selected based on the availability of head office or branch MFIs in the capital city Addis Ababa. Accordingly 230 finance related officials (five finance related officers from each MFIs and 2 from 2 from AEMFI) and 42 managers (manager from each MFIs and 4 from AEMFIs) have been voluntarily participated. To analyze the indicators of sustainability of MFIs correlation analysis and regression analysis has been used.

To measure the sustainability of the MFIs different scholars used different indicators of financial performance including but not limited to ROA and ROE; Next to these traditional measures, financial performance is also evaluated by using indicators that are more specific to microfinance. These indicators include measures such as the operational self-sufficiency and financial self-sufficiency (Niels and Marek, 2018). In the current study the financial self- sufficiency of the MFIs taken as the dependent variable; it is due to the reason that this indicator measures how well an MFI can cover its costs, taking into account a number of adjustments to operating revenues and expenses. This indicator is used by different scholars to identify the major determinants of sustainability especially for microfinance institutions (AbdurRahman & Mazlan, 2014; Bhuiyan et.al. 2011 as cited in AbdurRahman & Mazlan, 2014, Rai and Anil, 2011; Rai, 2011, Aemiro, 2013).

To measure the predictor variables of financial self-sufficiency, nine measures have been used as independent variables. These independent variables constitute from different indicators such as Institutional characteristics (age), Financing structure (Debt to equity ratio), Outreach (Number of active borrowers, percent of women borrowers and average loan balance per borrower), Efficiency (Cost per borrower), Productivity (Borrower per loan officer) as well as Risk and liquidity (Par>30 days and risk coverage) indicators based on the MIX model.

The regression model which is adopted from (AbdurRahman & Mazlan, 2014), with major modification as per the MIX model is expressed as follows:

$$FSS_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_1 \log AGE_{it} + \beta_2 DER_{it} + \beta_3 \log NAB_{it} + \beta_4 \log CPB_{it} + \beta_5 \log ALBPB_{it} + \beta_6 PWB_{it} + \beta_7 \log BPLO_{it} + \beta_9 PAR > 30_{it} + \beta_{10} RC_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \dots \dots \dots \text{equation 1}$$

Where: FSS_{it} is the Financial self-sufficiency ratio of microfinance i at time t (which is the dependent variable);

α_i is a constant term; β measures the partial effect of independent or explanatory variables in period t for the unit i (MFI); X it are the explanatory variables as described above; and ϵ it is the error term. The variables,

4.Results and Discussion

4.1. Descriptive statistics

The following session discuss the description of the variables understudy i.e. mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values of the different indicators used in the study. Age of the MFIs ranges from minimum of 2 years to 21 years throughout the study period.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Age	250	12.86	4.316821	2	21
DER	239	2.093967	1.783737	.2	18
NAB	171	124613.4	252073.9	128	1490356
ALBPB	170	4030.92	4416.291	553	39077
PWB	167	49.64503	19.1223	0	85
CPB	233	508.0017	416.3307	36	2203.1
BPLO	226	468.2876	343.1029	38	3018
PAR30229	6.050131	9.418692	0	81	
RC	228	85.17101	84.74973	1	937

Source: survey result, 2020

Age of the MFIs shows minimum of 2 years operation in the market, maximum 21 years of operation and on average 12 years of service.

Based on the above table (table 1) , The debt to equity ratio of the MFIs understudy shows a minimum of 0.2%, maximum of 18%and on average 2.1% with an overall SD of 1.8. Since this measure provides information on the capital adequacy of MFIs and assesses their susceptibility to crisis, microfinance investors mainly rely on this ratio as it helps predict the probability of an MFI honoring its debt obligations. On the other hand this ratio depicts the extent to which an MFI has leveraged its own funds to finance its portfolio and other assets. However Excessive leverage increases the risk profile of an MFI, as the institution may have limited ability to absorb unexpected credit losses or it may have borrowed more than it can repay in times of troubles. According to AEMFI, (2013) report Ethiopian micro finance institution on average debt to equity ratio was able to maintained 1.5 of their equity.

To assess the level of outreach of the microfinance institutions the study used the number of active borrowers, the percent of women borrowers and average loan balance per borrower. Accordingly The number of active borrowers' of the MFIs shows a minimum of 128 borrowers, maximum of 1,490,356 borrowers and on average 124, 613.4 borrowers throughout the study period with a SD of 252, 073.9.

The average loan balance per borrower shows a minimum of Br 553 per borrower, maximum 39,077 and on average Br 4031 per borrower throughout the study period with SD of 4416.29.

The percent of women borrowers (PWB) which is also as a basic indicator outreach of MFIs shows a minimum of 0%, maximum 85% and on average 49.6% with SD of 19.1. As the objective of the MFIs is to serve the poor who are ignored by the conventional banks as well he the women deserves a special attention. While assessing the percent of women served during the study period the minimum share is 0% that implies there was a time by which even a single woman didn't take the service of the MFIs. On average from the number of active borrowers served by the MFIs 50% are women and the maximum percentage is only 85% on which the MFIs are devoted to serve the women borrowers.

To assess the level of efficiency and productivity of the MFIs the study used the most widely used indicator that is the cost per borrower and borrower per loan officer. Accordingly the cost per borrower (CPB) which is one of the efficiency indicators of

the MFIs shows a minimum of Br. 36 per borrower, maximum of 2203 per borrower and on average Br 508 per borrower with overall SD of 416.

The borrower per loan officer as an indicator of productivity of the MFIs shows a minimum of 38 borrowers per loan officer, maximum of 3018 borrowers per loan officer and on average 343 borrowers per loan officer with a SD of 468.

Concerning the portfolio at risk greater than 30 days, as an indicator of risk, of the sample MFIs the minimum is zero percent, while the maximum is 81% and the average shows 6% with SD of 9.4. There was also a significant variation on this variable across microfinance institutions and over observation periods. Since the higher the value of the PAR > 30, the riskier the credit portfolio, which can have a negative influence on the financial performance of the MFI (Abewaw, 2014). In addition to this as discussed in the bulletin of the AEMFI (2013), a par > 30 days greater than 10% is a cause for concern. While the average level of the PAR > 30 is less than the threshold (6%) there are MFIs with good level of par 30 (0%) and some MFIs institutions are also in serious problem of PAR 30 that is up to 81% of their loan portfolio is post due for greater than 30 days. This calls for serious attention for the specific MFIs.

In line to the level of the riskiness of the loan portfolio MFIs need to be prepared for the worst scenario. This is measured by the level of risk coverage of the MFI. This ratio shows the percent of portfolio at risk that is covered by actual loan loss reserves as recorded in the balance sheet. The risk coverage level of the MFIs shows a minimum of 1%, maximum 937% and on average 85% with SD of 84.7. which the average level of preparedness for MFIs shows 85% which shows that the actual loan loss reserve is going to cover only 85% of the portfolio at risk while there are institutions that have only 1 % available reserve for the PAR which is far less prepared for the worst case scenario while others highly (over) prepared for the worst case scenario that is 937%.

4.2. Diagnostic tests

i. VIF test for Multicollinearity

To make sure the independent variables are not highly correlated (existence of multicollinearity) The variance inflation factor (VIF) of the variables under study was checked as depicted below, which depicts all the variables have no multicollinearity problem even the VIF is less than 5 since as a rule of thumb VIF of less than ten refers to no multicollinearity problem and the 1/VIF is less than 1. Note that all the variables are free from multicollinearity.

Table 2 VIF Test for Multicollinearity

Variable	VIF	1/VIF
Number of active borrowers	3.77	0.265110
Cost per borrowers	3.43	0.291275
Average loan balance per borrower	2.37	0.421084
Age of the MFI	1.76	0.569103
Borrower per loan officer	1.60	0.625650
PAR>30 days	1.25	0.800648
Percent of women borrowers	1.24	0.808804
Risk coverage	1.15	0.870116
Debt to equity ratio	1.14	0.876658
Mean VIF	1.97	

Source: survey output

ii. **Homoscedasticity Assumption**

To test for the presence of heteroscedasticity, the popular reusch-Pagan / Cook-Weisberg test was employed. The result of the test shows a Prob > chi2 = 0.5537; since the p value of the Breusch-Pagan / Cook-Weisberg test for heteroskedasticity, as depicted below, with Ho: constant variance is greater than 0.05 the data is homoscedastic.

Breusch-Pagan / Cook-Weisberg test for heteroskedasticity

Ho: Constant variance

Variables: fitted values of FSS100

chi2(1) = 0.35

Prob > chi2 = 0.5537

iii. Normality test

To check the normal distribution of the data, the shapiro-wilk test for normal data was employed. The output shows that financial self-sufficiency, average loan balance per borrower and cost per borrower are normally distributed while the remaining variables are not normally distributed.

Table 3 Shapiro-Wilk W test for normal data

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
Financial self-sufficiency 0.22735	236	0.99199	1.380	0.748	
Age of the MFI 0.00000	250	0.88783	20.343	7.010	
Debt to equity ratio	171	0.97298	3.519	2.872	0.00204
Number of active borrowers 0.00204	171	0.97298	3.519	2.872	
Average loan balance per borrower	170	0.98449	2.010	1.593	0.05559
Percent of women borrowers 0.00002	166	0.95090	6.233	4.170	
Cost per borrower	233	0.99016	1.678	1.200	0.11513
Borrower per loan officer 0.00172	226	0.97868	3.538	2.925	
PAR>30 days 0.00000	224	0.53973	75.806	10.015	
Risk Coverage 0.00000	228	0.50317	83.106	10.237	

iv. Autocorrelation test

To test for autocorrelation the Wooldridge test for autocorrelation in panel data was employed. The result of the test, as depicted below, couldn't reject the null hypothesis there is no first order autocorrelation.

Wooldridge test for autocorrelation in panel data

H0: no first-order autocorrelation

$$F(1, 22) = 9.018$$

$$\text{Prob} > F = 0.0066$$

4.3. Regression Analysis

Model Specification

To select an appropriate model to conduct the regression analysis for the panel data on hand the Breusch and Pagan Lagrangian multiplier test for random effects was conducted to select either OLS or random effect is appropriate. Since the output of the test has a significant test result (0.0001) the OLS shouldn't be used.

At the end to select either random or fixed effect model the hausman test is conducted and the prob. value of chi-square in hausman test is 0.0000 that shows null hypothesis is rejected and alternative is accepted. Therefore, fixed effect model is an appropriate model for this study. Since the data under study area, as depicted in the diagnostic tests discussed above, are autocorrelated a command xtregar has been used to produce an output that are robust standard error to disturbances being autocorrelated with AR (1). The following session discusses the finding of the regression result based on table below.

Table 4 summary of regression output of OLS, random effect and fixed effect

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	OLS	RE	FE
Age	16.58**	17.94*	14.74
	(6.264)	(7.123)	(9.310)
Debt to equity ratio	-2.015	-1.317	-0.753
	(1.274)	(1.229)	(1.357)
Number of active borrowers	0.0000208	0.0000172	-0.00000510
	(0.0000113)	(0.0000128)	(0.0000155)
Average loan balance per borrower	29.98*	10.48	-14.16
	(12.12)	(12.23)	(13.97)

Percent of women borrowers	-15.82	-2.138	25.41
	(14.48)	(14.62)	(16.73)
Cost per borrower	-43.20***	-32.06***	-10.33
	(9.889)	(9.599)	(11.34)
Borrower per loan officer	-37.66**	-20.04	-14.14
	(11.55)	(10.80)	(11.19)
Portfolio at risk > 30 days	-5.797	39.43	67.00**
	(21.67)	(20.75)	(21.80)
Risk coverage	4.505	6.656	9.710*
	(4.971)	(4.553)	(4.575)
_cons	159.5**	133.2*	146.4**
	(59.51)	(53.40)	(55.48)
N	117	117	117
R2	0.367	0.221	

Standard errors in parentheses

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Source: survey result, 2020

Institutional characteristics (age) of MFIs and financial sustainability of MFIs

The age of the MFIs positively but not significantly affects the FSS of the MFIs under study. Depicting as the age of MFIs increases from new to maturity their experience will be high and level of activities will be complex resulting in improvement in the level of the financial self-sufficiency of the institutions. This is in confirmation to the hypothesis developed at the beginning of the study and descriptive statistics and correlation analysis conducted in the previous sessions. This result is also in line with the findings of Mirani,(2015); Yenesew, (2014) and Woldeyes, (2012) who found a positive but statistically insignificant effect on the financial performance of the MFIs. This indicates that there is no evidence for microfinance institutions financial sustainability to depend on their age. Whereas the study conducted by Sima, (2013) and Lahcen, (2014) found a positive and significant effect of age on the profitability of MFIs

Financing structure (DER) of MFIs and financial sustainability of MFIs in Ethiopia

The DER has found to have a negative but not significant effect on the FSS of the MFIs under study during the study period. A number of studies provide empirical evidence supporting this negative relationship between debt level and firm's performance or profitability. This finding is similar with the finding of Yenesew (2014), Sisay, (2016) and Mirani (2015) who found a negative but not statistically significant effect on profitability of MFIs; as well as with the findings of Muhammad et. al. (2016); Rahman and Mazlan (2014); Kinde (2012); Moususmi and Swati (2016) as well as G/Michael (2013) who found negative and significant effect of DER on the financial performance of the MFIs.

Outreach indicators (ALBPB, NAB and PWB) of MFIs and financial sustainability of MFIs in Ethiopia:

The average loan balance per borrower (ALBPB) has a positive and statistically insignificant effect on the FSS of the MFIs. This finding show that the increment of the loan balance dispersed for the borrowers have a positive effect on the FSS of the MFIs even though it is not statistically significant. This finding is in line with the findings of sintayehu and Mesfin (2017) and Woldeyes, (2012). The NAB has a positive effect on the financial performance of the MFI implying that as the number of active borrowers increases the financial performance of the MFIs is improved. In addition to this the percent of women borrowers has found to have a positive but not significant effect with coefficient of .3287395 on the level of the FSS of the institution under study. Since the increment in the outreach (i.e. PWB is an indicator of an outreach of the MFIs) of the MFIs which is expected to increase in the level of FSS. This is in line with the findings of sintayehu and Mesfin (2017) and El Kharti, (2014) who found a positive and

statistically significant at 5% significant level effect of female borrowers on the financial performance of the MFIs. Generally as the level of outreach of the MFIs increases the financial self sufficiency of the MFIs is also improved since the findings of the regression result shows that ALBPB, NAB and PWB positively but not significantly affects the FSS of the MFIs.

Efficiency and productivity level of MFIs (CPB and BPLO) and financial sustainability of MFIs in Ethiopia

The cost per borrower has found to have a negative and statistically insignificant effect on the FSS of the MFIs understudy implying that as the cost per borrower increases the FSS of the MFIs will decrease which calls for the officials of the MFIs manage their cost. Since minimization of cost is expected to maximize performance. This finding is in line to the findings of Muhammad et. al. (2016); Rahman and Mazlan (2014); Mirani (2015); and Kinde (2012). The borrower per loan officer is found to have a negative and statistically insignificant effect on the level of the FSS of the MFIs understudy in the study period. This is in line with the findings of Gershwin Long, (2015) and Moususmi and Swati (2016) while to the contrary of the findings of Muhammad et. al. (2016) and Kinde (2012); El Kharti, (2014). This might be explained that the excess number of borrower per loan officer might result in worker overload and might result poor portfolio quality which in turn affects the financial performance of the MFIs. This calls for serious attention by the MFIs to critically analyze the productivity level of their employees because over burden of this officers might affect the quality of the loan portfolio.

Risk and liquidity level of MFIs (PAR > 30 and RC) and financial sustainability of MFIs in Ethiopia-

The PAR >30 days Which is an indicator of the risk of default of the outstanding, loan having a positive and significant effect, with a coefficient of .8515, on the FSS of the MFIs understudy during the study period. The current finding is similar with the finding of El Kharti, (2014) Mersland and Strøm (2009) as cited in El Kharti, (2014); Tinotenda, (2019) as well as Zeray (2013) While to contrary to the findings of Muhammad et. al. (2016); Gudeta, (2013); Haile, (2016); Moususmi and Swati (2016); Yenesew (2014). The risk coverage on the other hand is an indicator of the preparedness of the MFIs has positive and statistically significant effect on the FSS of the MFIs with a coefficient of .08240. showing the level of readiness of the MFIs to the worst level of default rate scenario saves from undertaking unplanned and infeasible decisions which results in improvement in their sustainability.

4.4. Primary data analysis

4.4.1. Profile of the participants

To assess the perception of the managers and finance related officials about the financial performance of their institutions 230 questionnaires were distributed to the finance related officers of the sample MFIs. From this 130 questionnaires were properly filled and returned back constituting a response rate of 56%. To support the findings of the questionnaire an interview were conducted with 42 MFIs managers. The following session briefly summarizes the output of both the questionnaires and interview to strengthen the findings of the descriptive as well as inferential analysis conducted in the previous session and assess the perception of the different stakeholders.

Table 4.4: Educational back ground and work experience of the participants

Profile of participants

position

Total	%
manager	finance

Educational

Background	B.A degree	-	100	100	58%
	Post graduate	42	30	72	42%
	Total	42	130	172	100%

Work experience	Less than 3 years	7	25	32	19%
	3-5 years	7	40	47	27%
	6-10 years	20	50	70	41%
	Above 10 years	8	15	23	13%
	Total	42	130	172	100%

Source: primary data, 2020

some (48%) of the participants are masters holders and others are degree holders (52%). regarding their experiences some (13%) have more than 10 years' experience; others (41%) do have 6 to 10 years of experience and still some others (27%) have 3 to 5 years of experience and 19% of the participants have less than 2 years of experience.

The managers and finance related officials of the MFIs understudy believe that the financial performance of the MFIs should be evaluated periodically and they confirmed that they are conducting the assessment of the financial performance of their institutions monthly, quarterly as well as annually. and they confirmed that age, size, DER, NAB, ALBPB, PWB, CPB, BPLO, PAR > 30 and RC are utilized as a basic indicators to assess the financial performance of their institutions. In addition to this some institutions are also using PAR > 1 day, ROA, ROE, profitability, total portfolio outstanding, operating expense ratio, saving to loan ratio as an indicator

The participants were also asked to identify the challenges and problems faced. Accordingly lack of management information system and core banking system; lack of awareness of the society about MFIs; high level of default rate; Lack of capital; lack of good infrastructure; Lack of experienced man power; carelessness to see and control the operations seriously; low productivity of credit and saving officers; high turnover of operations staff; High transaction cost ; The legal environment which does not allow MFIs to sell assets which are taken as collateral without declaring to the court; Low saving habits of the society; portfolio funding limitation; high portfolio at risk and low attention by the government to support MFIs other than the government owned MFIs were the challenges and problems faced by the sample MFIs managers and finance related officers.

Based on the identified problems and challenges, the participants were requested to share the strategies and techniques used to mitigate it; accordingly awareness creation and promotion; designing different products; capacity building (intensive training); mobilizing huge amount of saving from the public; facilitating commercial loan access; soliciting donors; targeting women and attracting new financial intervention programs of NGOs were the efforts made by the institutions to mitigate the challenges and problems faced.

At the end respondents were requested to provide recommendation on how to enhance the sustainability of the MFIs. creating an efficient long term strategy; strengthening corporate governance; conducting continuous researches; regulatory bodies should customize the regulations to be flexible based on international best practices of similar industries; create staff commitment; improving infrastructure to reach to the poor who is found in different parts of the country; increasing the attention to the poor people found in rural areas of the country; to create a suitable legal environment especially in the equity market; mobilizing saving to address the problem of loanable fund; portfolio funding diversification; have appropriate interest rate that can result in sustainability; operate with minimum operating and administrative responses; have sound financial management and check efficiency and portfolio quality along with sustainability; cost minimization; build robust management information system; design affordable saving and loan products; pay better and competitive salary and benefits to the employees; the

government should avail loanable fund to MFIs as much as possible; National Bank of Ethiopia or development bank of Ethiopia should support MFIs in liquidity problem as it is done for banks; government to focus on facilitating balanced financial market and Customer need assessment and impact of existing services should be undertaken continuously were the major recommendations of the participants to improve the performance of the MFI and sustain in the market serving the poor.

5. Conclusion and recommendation

To assess the financial sustainability of MFIs in Ethiopia, descriptive statistics and inferential analysis have been undertaken. As per the descriptive statistics the debt to equity ratio of the MFIs is on average 100 but some MFIs have more than the required level of leverage that calls for an attention by the responsible bodies. While the number of active borrowers though increasing from time to time the lion share is taken by the large and established MFIs so a lot of efforts should be made to enhance the number of active borrowers. The number of women borrowers entertained by the MFIs is on average 50% which is not reasonable while dealing from the objective of the MFIs. The productivity and efficiency indicators of the FSS show that there is a great difference among the MFIs indicating that there are institutions which are highly productive and efficient and others which are not productive and less efficient. The risk level and risk coverage level of the MFIs still depicts a significant difference among the MFIs, indicating that some of the MFIs have low level of risk and risk coverage and others have extremely high level of risk as well risk coverage. The regression result shows that age, DER, ALBPB, NAB, PWB, CPB and BPLO have no statistically significant effect on the level of the FSS the first seven hypotheses were rejected. While the level of PAR > 30 days and RC have positive and significant effect on level of the FSS of the MFIs. So one can conclude for MFIs under study as the level of PAR > 30 days and level of RC increases the FSS of the institutions also increases accepting the last two hypotheses.

regarding the challenges and problems faced by MFIs the managers and finance related officers have mentioned multi-dimensional challenges and problems which can be concluded as a infrastructural problem (lack of MIS and core banking system); administrative challenges and high level of default risk; lack of skilled man power and portfolio funding limitation. to mitigate the problems and challenges a lot of efforts has been made by the MFIs including awareness creation, creating a linkage with donors and banks, capacity building activities, mobilizing saving.

based on the findings of the study the researcher recommend to enhance the number of active borrowers through awareness creation, introduction of new and needed services like provision of Islamic micro financing services and other required as well as affordable services which can help to increase the outreach level by serving to the poor

and women; small and new MFIs are recommended to share experience from their elders since age has a positive effect on the level of the sustainability of the MFIs which can be done through introduction of different programs that can help to share experiences among MFIs; to enhance the efficiency and productivity of the workers still the management bodies by collaborating with different stakeholders are recommended to modernize the way of doing their activities like by introducing strong MIS, core banking system and other tools; the government is also recommended to help the efforts of the MFIs by provision of different infrastructures and framing flexible and up-to-date regulations and directives.

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Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Internal Control Practice in The Ethiopia's Public Universities

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Abstract

The main objectives of this study were to evaluate effectiveness of the internal control practices in selected Ethiopia Public Universities. Semi-structured questions were designed based 17 principles of internal control framework model of the Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission (COSO), five elements of internal controls: control environment, risk assessment, control activities, information and communication, and monitoring. The data was collected from five properly selected public universities and a total of 100 of their respective administrative and academics employees were used as the study unit. The research employed the explanatory research approach using both qualitative and quantitative data (i.e., mixed approach). And furthermore, qualitative information from interviews was supplemented the quantitative data. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis methods. The result is presented in statistics such as mean, standard deviation, frequency, and percentage with help of SPSS outputs. Over all finding of the study reveals that Effectiveness of Internal control practice positively and highly correlated with all Elements of internal control system. Moreover, the study indicated that, Higher education institutions (HEIs) managing bodies are less than average in proactively responding to changing aspects of HEIs fraud risks, weak in IT securities control and less effective public university board of directors overseeing functions. Thus, the study recommended that the HEIs needs more effective implementation and monitoring of its policies and procedures and creating proactive risk assessment to improve its internal control system.

Key words: *Internal control effectiveness, Higher education institutions, principles of ICF and, public universities of Ethiopia.*

1. Introduction

Internal control is designed to provide reasonable assurance that the organization's general objectives are being achieved. As per Institute of internal auditors (IIA, 1999) internal control is actions taken by management to plan, organize, and direct the performance of sufficient actions so as to provide reasonable assurance that accomplishment of established objectives and goals for operations and programs, the economical and efficient use of resources, the safeguarding of assets, reliability and integrity of information, compliance with policies, plans, procedures, laws, and regulations. Hence, clear objectives are a prerequisite for an effective internal control process. The COSO, in the year 2013, identifies five essential components of an effective internal control system namely: control environment, risk assessment, control activities, procedures and practices that ensure that

management objectives are achieved and risk mitigation strategies implemented information and communication, and monitoring. These elements must be present and functioning effectively for any internal control system to achieve an organization's objectives. According the study made by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2011), of 29 member countries, 26 (91%) countries, adopted an internal control framework (ICF) comprising control activities, control environment, risk assessment, and monitoring. Affirming the above points, the price water house coopers (PwC), Global Economic Crime Survey (2011), for the public sector, 31% of fraud is detected by an internal tip-off and 14% by external tip-off, and 14% by accident. Another survey by AIC's survey found that 90% of external fraud and 40% of internal fraud is detected by internal controls.

In Kenya, according Joseph et al, 2015, between 25 and 30 percent of the national budget or about Kshs. 270 billion is lost annually through fraud as result of weak internal controls. These losses were mainly attributed to the escalation of costs in Government procurement occasioned as result ineffective control functions. There is a significant relationship between financial governance control, budget control and level of fraud prevention and detection. (Kabue et al, 2017).)

In Ethiopia, Office of Auditor General(OFAG) , as major overnighting body in the country, emphasized that the internal control systems must be structured so that it can deliver reasonable assurance to management and stakeholders that to all revenues accrue to its benefit, all expenditure is duly authorized and properly disbursed, all assets are adequately safeguarded, all liabilities are recorded, all statutory requirements relating to the provision of accounts are complied with and all financial reporting provisions followed.(MOF, audit manual 2006)

Besides, in recent times there has been an emphasis on not just the presence of internal control but also the effectiveness of internal controls practice. The internal control unit can be present but they are not effective (Omonyemen et al, 2017). still existing ICF implementation has facing many challenges such as by the independence of internal audit, the competence of internal audit, the management support for internal audit, and the quality of internal audit.

Ethiopia's higher education sector has been considered by a remarkable expansion over the last 25 years. According to (Kibrom,2020) described about Ethiopia HEs, Education in general and the country's 51 public universities in particular are among key priority sectors of public investment, attracting the highest spending allocation in federal budget. Nevertheless, the sector faces challenges, which call for new approaches.

Revised Higher education proclamation number 1152/2019 of FDRE the public universities required to report to the Ministry of science and higher education of Ethiopia (with exception of some like Ethiopian civil service university) to ensure its compliance with the law and strategic plan agreements. The president of public HEIs shall conduct the financial affairs of the institution following the law and with the principles of efficiency, efficacy, frugality and transparency. The proclamation also instructs the top management of the universities to install an accounting system, including income and expenditure accounting, and a reporting system, appropriate to its responsibilities. Accordingly, top university management is responsible for developing an effective internal control system in their respective institutions. However, personnel throughout an entity play important roles in implementing and operating an effective internal control system. Simply, internal control helps university management achieve desired results through effective stewardship of public resources.

In recent years, the Ethiopia government expanding the public Universities intensively to attain objectives of growth and transformation plans (GTPI & GTP II). According information from (Dea, 2016) the total budget allocated to education, lion share (up to 40 %) of the recurrent and capital budget goes to Ethiopian higher institutions.

The office of the general auditor is in charge of auditing public bodies and presents its findings before the House of Peoples Representative reporting to ensuring whether the revenue utilization is according to rules and regulations, the disbursement is made according to budget, public property is kept safe, and also the recording and accounting procedures are up to the required standard. Starting from 2004, most public HEIs in Ethiopia been trying to introducing and implementing program budgeting system in its financial management. This includes introducing accrual budgeting and accounting, double- entry accounting, IFMIS, and program budgeting. But despite the efforts, there are strong claims by (FEACC, 2012), increasing investment in the sector is increasing corruption risks in procurement, management, and delivery of stock and building equipment, and so on. According the other source (Kibrom B. 2020) the expansion of public universities has also put university administrations under pressure. The administrative sections of most Ethiopian public universities appear to be insufficient and unable to effectively manage modern universities with huge budget. Still the role and capability of administrative staff are also problematic.

This all issues call worth to undertake study on higher education internal control practice in Ethiopia. Therefore, the focus of the current study is to evaluate and

provide empirical findings on internal control practical effectiveness in five selected public universities of Ethiopia.

The major causes of public money misuse are mainly resulted because of ineffective internal control mechanism, ineffective court system to prosecute frauds, corrupt behaviors of top management (Oduro et al 2018). according to Baltaci and Yilmaz (2006), economic implications of ineffective, weak internal control & internal audit function: may result in such problems as unethical, uneconomic, inefficient, and ineffective operations; weak accountability links; unlawful actions; and lack of safeguarding measures against waste, abuse, mismanagement, errors, fraud and irregularities.

The office federal auditor general (OFAG) report to the parliament of the FDRE government for the budget year ended 2017/2018, revealed figures of unaccounted and illegal expenses as well as uncollected revenues. From the report, public universities are dominating in their practice of public money mismanagement. In view of that, a total of over one-billion-birr worth illegal procurements were made by several government offices during the budget year. The government offices committed a sum of over 1.3-billion-birr worth of unaccounted and inappropriate expenditures during the last budget year. What more problematic is that, this type of report is not new for the auditor general who presented similar reports for 10 consecutive years. From the same source, several public universities were at the forefront in presenting erroneous reports and 67-85 percent of their purchases were not done essentially following procurement procedures. The audit report has also identified several institutions for breaching the budget proclamation.

In blue print, OFAG is legal oversighting body to conduct monitoring and take strict measures on case of any incidence of malpractices on public money. While on ground practice so challenged. As it is known, the ministry of science and higher education is giving due attention to higher education sector administrating more 51 universities and much of the resource is being allocated to it. Education holds the highest spending allocation in Ethiopia, in this year's (2019/20) FY federal budget, at Birr 50.6bn, with funding in this line-item mainly allocated to about 51 federally-administered universities (for an average allocation of around one billion per university). But there are strong claims by (FEACC, 2012), increasing investment in the sector is increasing corruption risks in procurement, management, and delivery of stock and building equipment, and so on. According the other source (Kibrom B. 2020) the expansion of public universities has also put university administrations under pressure.

Presently limited HEIs studies are existed, they are also with narrow scope and focus, and they fail to explaining why public universities internal control system has major weakness in their internal control practice.

All things considered; it is essential to evaluate effectiveness of the current internal control of practice in higher education institutions of Ethiopia; particularly these public universities largely funded by tax payer's money.

Hypothesis of the Study

In this study the following research hypotheses were formulated and tested

- H1: Control environment has positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice.
- H2: Risk Assessment practices have positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice.
- H3: Control activities have positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice.
- H4: The presence of information and communication has positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice.
- H5: Availability of monitoring activities has positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice.

More specifically, the research aims: -

To determine the effect of control environment on internal control practice effectiveness in selected public universities.

To assess the effect of risk assessment on internal control practice effectiveness in selected public universities.

To evaluate the effect of control activities on internal control practice effectiveness in selected public universities.

To examine the effect of information and communication on internal control practice effectiveness in selected public universities.

To examine the effect of monitoring activities on internal control practice effectiveness in selected public universities.

2. Methodology

Research Design and Approaches

The research employed explanatory research approach using both qualitative and quantitative data (i.e., mixed approach). The combined methods are aimed to complement one another and gather reliable information to draw representative outcome and conclusion.

Source of data and collection producers

Both quantitative and qualitative types of data from both primary and secondary sources was used. The primary data source was from selected public organizations internal auditors, accountants, and academic staffs. Secondary data was obtained from audit reports, published a journal and different published overseeing bodies reports. The researcher focused on these public universities which have sufficient internal audit staff, accountants' staffs, financed by big-budget, homogenous, very popular and have a greater impact to influence the country's overall social, political and economic issues. And also, for the selection of the universities, the serious irregularity finding of OFAG audit report criticism was considered.

Population

The total population of the study includes 51 public universities in Ethiopia. From which representative sample size was drawn. It is not possible to know the exact number of targeted employees in some of selected universities because of the absence of reliable statistics of the number of auditors, audit department heads, accountants, procurement officers, and ethics- officers for the reasons mentioned, high turnover of employees and lack proper track record human resource data in these selected universities. So average numbering was used to determine sample size from each university.

Sampling size and techniques

The study used purposive sampling specifically expert sampling techniques. There are a wide range of purposive sampling techniques that you can use (see Patton, 1990, 2002; Kuzel, 1999, for a complete list). Expert sampling is a type of purposive sampling technique that is used when your research needs to glean knowledge from individuals that have particular expertise. The target respondents

who were participated in this study was selected with purposive sampling particularly (purposive expert sampling) from selected public organization employees who are the accountant, budget officers, internal auditors, audits departmental heads and senior accountants, procurement officers and university lectures. This sampling technique is proposed to be employed because the targeted respondents are experts in their position and said to have access to vital information, experience, and professional skills that were necessary and relevant for the study. Due to their public service duty and responsibility, they have a better understanding of internal controls system of their respective institutions. Therefore, From the population of 51 public universities, only 5 public universities are purposively selected and these universities administrative and academic staffs' responses are accessed and useable for data analysis. Specifically list of these universities and their respective respondents from: Ethiopia Civil Service University (ECSU),²⁵, Debre-Berhan University (DBU), 12, Kotebe Metropolitan university (KMPU), 20 ,Haramaya University (HU),²⁰, and from Dire Dawa (DDU), 23, respectively used . Of 100 individual participants 20 of them (who are Finance Director, IT directors, budget officers, senior lectures, Internal Auditors and procurements officer) were interviewed to get further clarifications on application of internal control elements in their respective universities.

Methods of data collections and instruments

This study used survey type questionnaires and key informants' interview to gather data from different sources were used. Standardized Semi-structured questions were designed based 17 principles of internal control framework model of the Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission (COSO), five elements of internal controls: control environment, risk assessment, control activities, information and communication, and monitoring.

These The semi-survey questionnaires are designed in the form of the Likert-scale

type that shows respondents agreement or disagreement by constructing it into a five-point scale. In addition to survey questionnaires, primary data is collected through key informants' interviews from selected public organizations especially focusing on Finance directors and internal audit leaders.

Methods of Data Analysis

The data collected from different sources is analyzed using descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis. The data is presented in statistics such as mean, standard deviation, frequency, and percentage with help of SPSS outputs. From

inferential statistical tools, correlation, ANOVA (F-test), T-test, OLS estimator of multiple regression analysis, chi-square (R²) etc. is used. OLS estimator of multiple regression Analysis is also conducted to examine ICS determinant factors effect over ICS effectiveness. And furthermore, qualitative information from interviews was analyzed narratively.

Model Development & Specifications

Hence, the researcher adapted the following formula and the model equation is presented mathematically as follows: -

$$ICE_i = \alpha + \beta_1(CE)_i + \beta_2(RA)_i + \beta_3(IFC)_i + \beta_4(CA)_i + \beta_5(MA)_i + \varepsilon \quad \text{Eq 1}$$

Where,

ICE=Internal Control Effectiveness

CE=Control Environment

RA=Risk Assessments

IFC=Information and Communication

CA=Control Activities

MA=Monitoring Activities

β_1 - β_5 : Parameters or coefficients of explanatory variables to be estimated

α =Constant term (Intercept of the Regression Line)

ε =Residual/error terms of the model

i = i th observations for the given variables

4.Results and discussions

Demographic Profile of the Respondents

The demographic information of the respondents' gathered for this study was gender, level of education, work experience and field of study. From total of 100 overall respondents of the survey, 67 % were male and 33% were females. Regarding level of education, 6% of the respondents were diploma holders, 61% of them were Bachelors, and 27% of them were Master/second degree holders and also 6% of the participants Ph.D. holders. This indicates that the majority of the

respondents are highly educated can easily comprehend and fill out the questionnaires. Job responsibility, accountants 36%, Auditors 9%, lectures 29%, HODs and directors 11%, and others 15% respectively.

Concerning work experience of the respondents, 24% of them were up to 5 years of work experience, 37% had work experience between 6-10 years, 25% of them had 11-15 years of experience and the remaining 14% had worked for over 15 years. This indicates that most of the respondents are at their senior level stage of their career has rich experience in the internal control practice of their respective universities.

Reliability and model fitness test

the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for CE, RA, CA, IFC & MA Were 0.9, 0.8, 0.92, 0.91 & 0.85 respectively and their internal consistency were reliable while the internal consistency (reliability) of overall internal control effectiveness was excellent as its Cronbach's alpha value is 0.96.

Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

Control Environment: Regarding, control environment, the majority of respondents 48% agreed that their organization demonstrated a commitment to integrity and ethical values. This implies that selected HEIs committed to integrity and ethical values for ICS of control environment. But, above average respondents 39% uncertain that the university Board of Directors periodically exercises oversight responsibility. Only 26% agree they do.

There is high agreement 53%; The University established an effective structure, reporting line, and appropriate authorities and responsibilities in the pursuit of objectives. Similarly, 48% highly agree that the university management demonstrates a commitment to attract, develop, and retain competent individuals in alignment with objectives and also 40% agree the university Management holds individuals accountable for their internal control responsibilities in the pursuit of objectives. However, interviewee participant's claims that control environments of public universities are practically ineffective. Because of University Board of Directors are not exercising oversight responsibilities effectively. Some says, role of the BOD not known, they are busy and their assignment is not professional they did not know characteristics of modern higher education. And HR system of HEIs needs to be audited for verification how individuals are recruited, employee's performance efficiency, and retention of employees and segregations of duty. Presenting more reasoning, Lack proper fulfillment employee's individual role and responsibility as per rule and regulations. Enormous gap between their

qualification and competency. Additionally, stated Lack of qualified personnel at administrative wing and no rotation of duties (unless they promoted or retire or dies) they said one person may work up 10 years in the same position without change the same position. Sometimes posts (positions) one left vacant for relatively longer time and covered by other individuals who may their role overlap control requirement of segregations of duties. Poorly motivated staff administrative works. More justification one assistant professor, who has serviced different public university over 10 years, said 'I don't think that the most of public Universities are good in controlling and auditing practices. The university has very poor financial management approaches as well as auditing approaches. It has weak approach in recruitment and job rotation on highly sensitive areas such as financial administration, procurement, and finance and property management. These areas are very risky and the areas where high embezzlements take place in public universities. There are no good practices and no responsiveness to take corrective actions although many times communicated for correction during in various academic meetings as well as overall university discussions. Moreover, there are very less freedom for internal auditors though the Ministry of Finance has provided some independence of internal auditors and detached hierarchy of reporting. More works are needed in public universities in general.

Risk Assessment: Concerning Risk Assessment, above average respondents (43%) agreed that their organization specified objectives with sufficient clarity to enable the identification and assessment of risks relating to objectives. Also, above average respondents (40%) agreed that their organization identified risks to the achievement of its objectives across the entity and analyzed risks as a basis for determining how the risks should be managed. And nearly average respondents (39%) also agreed that the university Management considers the potential higher education related fraud in assessing risks to the achievement of objectives. But only (35%) participants agreed decided that their organization identified and assessed changes that could significantly impact the system of internal control. However, this result contrasts interviewee finding claiming HEIs managing bodies are not effective in proactively responding to changing aspects of HEIs specific fraud risks.

Control Activities: Control activities include methods such as; preparation of reliable reports, update documentation, authorization of transactions, independent review and more in era advanced technology control activities also includes information technology data process and IT infrastructures controls. There is high agreement regarding the establishment of internal control over activities (45%) and their effective implementation (53%) but majority of respondents (46%) keep natural to say HEIs has effective information technology system controls.

About control activities, interview participants narration indicated that, there is little relationship between budget as formulated and budget as executed, poor planning, work scheduling and End of year over spending leading to wastage public money, procurements of less quality and high price good and service. And also, reckless handling and carrying of fixed assets and Stocks. And claimed some procurement is made mostly from limited suppliers at unfair price. Others saying stating rework of tasks are common which leads to high cost of repairs and nonessential expenditures.

while few saying IC activities are relatively effective in HEIs where IFMIS in practice because they use IT system to controls most Financial transaction flows, controls material, service provisions and also reporting to within given time period.

Information & Communication: Internal communication is the means by which information is disseminated throughout the organization, flowing up, down, and across the entity. Based on frameworks of an effective information and communication in an internal control system. the survey result and interpretation as analysis shown generally, the higher mean value for all question of IFC activities ranging 3.36 to 3.74. This implied respondents' agreement on several expected questions, therefore the Public HEIs in general is good in using information and communicating across departmental level and including external communication with MoSHE and MOF. But evidence from interview opposite this conclusion as one assistance professor said, "My University is effective in communication with MoSHE and others but weak to communicate internally using appropriate means and not ready to accept complaints from the university community".

Monitoring Activities: These parts of COSO Components evaluate the processes used by university management team to examine and assess whether its internal

controls are functioning properly. Thus, from the result of the survey majority academic and administrative participates are uncertain (41%) regarding effectiveness of self-evaluation performance of ICS practice. Where us (44%) agreed that university leadership /with BOD implements major corrective recommendations of internal audit, external audit / management consultants on a timely basis.

Generally according qualitative evidence from interviewee participants, ICS implementations are challenging because of the following reasons: Political interest & Interference, lack of commitment, lack of adequate penalty or no measurement taken by the appropriate body, Lack of proper Segregation of duties, less effort to shape behavior of employees, ethics and code of conducts, lack of

effective policies & Procedures specific to HEIs. And Data base system (Documentation) Problem, lack clear awareness about ICS especially IT controls, Lack of knowledge of modern HEIs leadership and oversighting. More severely ineffectiveness of internal audit function and non-value adding audit work, less commitment from management to implementing internal auditors' recommendation and suggestions. Finally, existence of less motivated employees and with mismatched qualifications and inefficiency are mostly described by interview participants as hindering factors.

Inferential Statistics

Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation analysis result indicated, Internal control effectiveness is highly positively correlated with Control Environment, risk assessment, Control Activities, Information & Communication and Monitoring Activities positively ($r=0.858$ at p-value of 0.00), ($r=0.822$ at p-value of 0.00), ($r=0.868$ at p-value of 0.00), ($r=0.803$ at p-value of 0.00) and ($r=0.734$ at p-value of 0.00) respectively.

The findings again demonstrated that, there is a positive relationship between the dependent variable "internal Control effectiveness" and all the independent variables "control environment, risk assessment, control activities, information & communication and monitoring activities. For example, The Pearson's correlation coefficient between internal Control effectiveness and control environment is 0.858 at P-value of 0.000, this means that the two variables move in the same direction. This implies that an increase in control environment activities increases internal control effectiveness. The same token increasing Risk assessment Control activities, information and communication and monitoring activities will increase positively internal control effectiveness respectively.

Regression Analysis

4.7.1 Model summary

To verify the assumptions of classical linear regression model fitness the researched conducted normality, multi-collinearity, and homoscedasticity tests/assumptions and proved the data used are relevant to conducted regression analysis and explore the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Tabulated result from statistical analysis of the multiple correlation coefficients ($R=98\%$), represent the linear correlation between the observed and model-predicted values of the dependent variable.

Its large value revealed a positive and strong relationship between the predictor variables and the dependent variable. R² is 96%, adjusted R Square is 95% and F-statistics is 463 with p-value = 0.000 < 0.05. The result of Durbin Watson stood at an acceptable level of 1.731. The results from the multiple regression analysis therefore showed that 96% variation in the dependent variable, internal control practice effectiveness is accounted for by the predictor variables, CE, RA, CA, IFC and MA when taking as a whole. Also, considering the overall influence of all the components of the COSO internal control framework on organizational effectiveness of the selected tertiary HEIs, the results showed that COSO internal control components had significant influence on organizational effectiveness of internal control practice of investigated public universities of Ethiopia. (F=463, P<0.05).

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) or F-Test

The ANOVA table shows the overall significance of the model from a statistical perspective. As the significance value of F statistics shows a value (0.000), which is less than 0.05, the model was significant. This indicates that the variation explained by the model is not due to chance. the p-value of 0.000 for the model was less than 0.05 significant level. This indicates that the sample data provides sufficient evidence to conclude that the regression model was well fitted. In other words, the p-value (0.000) is highly significant and can be concluded that the five internal control components can predict effectiveness over all internal control practice significantly.

Coefficients of Variables

In addition, the study revealed that internal control components had positive influence on the internal control practice of selected HEIs in terms of Control environment (CE), Risk assessment (RA), Control activities (CA), Information & communication (IFC) and Monitoring activities (MA). Moreover, only 4 out of the 5 predictor variables were statistically significant to explain the unique variance in the dependent variables. Considering the influence of each component of internal control on the overall effectiveness of controls , the results showed that Control activities (CA) (t = 9.774, p = 0.000 < 0.05), Risk assessment (RA) (t = 9.312, p = 0.000 < 0.05), Control environment (CE) (t = 8.55, p = 0.000 < 0.05) and information and communications (IFC) (t = 7.111, p = 0.000 < 0.05) had significant and positive influence on internal control effectiveness of the public universities while monitoring activities (MA) (t = 1.656, p = 0.101 > 0.05) had positive but insignificant effect on overall control effectiveness at 5% significance level.

Incorporating the coefficient of the predictor variables, the multiple regression analysis can be written as follows:

$$ICE_i = -0.161 + 0.266(CE) + 0.221(RA) + 0.308(CA) + 0.2(IFC)_i + 0.041(MA) + \varepsilon \quad \text{Eq 2}$$

Equation 2, above depicted that internal control practice effectiveness of selected public universities will be enhanced on average by 0.266, 0.221, 0.308, 0.2, and 0.041 given a 1-unit increase to strengthen control functions will contribute to improved control environment, better risk assessment, increased control activities, improved information distribution and effective communication and increased monitoring activities respectively.

Testing the Research Hypotheses

Table 5. 1 Summary of Hypotheses Results/Decisions

Hypotheses	St.Coef	Beta	Sig. and T value	Decision/Result
H1 CE had positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice	.280	.033	(-2.17)	Fail to Reject
HO				
H2 RA had positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice	.282	.000	(8.56)	Fail to Reject
HO				
H3 CA had positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice.	.316	.000	(9.31)	Fail to Reject
HO				
H4 IFC had positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice.	.222	.000	(7.11)	Fail to Reject
HO				
H5 MA had positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice	.050	.101	(1.66)	Rejected H0

Source: Own Survey (2020)

The study result indicated that the effect of CE on effectiveness of internal control practice was significant and positive. That is means statically Hypothesis 1 which stated that control environment has positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice in selected Ethiopian public universities is retained. From the result in table 5.1 above, the quantitative analysis fails to reject, Hypothesis 2 (H2) stated that Risk Assessment practices have positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice in selected Ethiopian public universities.

Similarly, Hypothesis 3, Control Activities have positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice in selected Ethiopian public universities and Hypothesis 4, the presence of Information and Communication has positive significant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice in selected Ethiopian public universities are accepted. But Hypothesis 5, rejected. That means Availability of Monitoring Activities has positive but insignificant effect on effectiveness of internal control practice in selected Ethiopian public universities.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

Over all finding of the study reveals that effectiveness of IC practice positively and highly correlated with Control Environment, Risk Assessment, Control Activities, Information & Communication and Monitoring Activities. Moreover, the study indicated that, HEIs managing bodies are less than average in proactively responding to changing aspects of HEIs fraud risks, weak in IT securities control and less effective public university board of directors over sighting functions.

To sum up, the study concluded based on qualitative interviewee and quantitative data result reveals HEIs have wide-ranging internal control policy and procedures similar COSO components but the problems are in the practical functionality of these controls are limited. Overall, the researcher concluded that the HEIs internal control system was not very effective instead highly challenged on implantations internal controls procedures and policies.

5.2 Recommendation

The damage made to public money indicates in this study could probably have been avoided, or otherwise minimized, had the HEIs maintained functional effective internal control systems practiced. Such systems would have prevented or enabled earlier detection of the problems that led to the losses, thereby limiting damage to public money. Accordingly,

To Enhance the HEIs ICS effectiveness, policy makers and higher education leaders should reform modern HEIs specifics integrated internal control process which is supported by strong external oversight bodies and making them true center of excellency and relatively independent institutions to achieve their established objective.

The BOD is required to exercising strong strategic oversight responsibility effectively taking into account lesson of modern higher education leadership system.

Enhance the institution's risk assessment policies to detect and prevent any possible risk before occurrence of loss via ongoing risk assessment and effective risk based Internal audit functions.

HEIs need to implement/strengthen use of IT based system products and proactive controls. Also advised to seize opportunities of National digital strategy titled “Digital Strategy for Inclusive Prosperity 2025” initiatives of e-governance service by FDRE which university specific Digital Technologies to modernize academic and Administrative Activities, Data Protection, Security and Confidentiality.

Develop Human Resource Controls, motivation and retention scheme. and also require ensuring that the segregation of duty and authority of each administrative and academic employee is properly implemented.

Creating enduring awareness/training /Competency / Everyone in public HEIs has some responsibility for effective internal control and aware of role ethics and positive code of conduct for Modern HEIs effectiveness.

Finally, it is important to work on institutional controls in Collaboration with external oversighting bodies on Including (Information Network Security Agency, office of federal auditor general)

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THEME 5: LEADERSHIP AND DEVELOPMENT

The Effect of Servant Leadership on Organizational Justice at The University of Gondar

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of servant leadership on organizational justice at the University of Gondar. Explanatory sequential mixed research design was employed. The size of the population was 696. Of these, 240 instructors were taken as sample using a combination of proportionate stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques. Five college deans were also included in the sample to collect the qualitative data. Questionnaire and interview were used to collect the data for this study. The result of one sample t-test indicated that servant leadership and organizational justice were moderately observed in the university. This result is similar with the qualitative finding obtained through the interview. There was statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and perceived organizational justice with standardized correlation coefficient ($r=.561$) at $p<.05$. The result of structural equation modeling indicated that 31.4 % of the variance in organizational justice was predicted by servant leadership with standardized regression coefficient ($\beta=.561$) at $p<.05$. This means that instructors are more likely feel justice when their leaders tend to show servant leadership behaviors in the workplace. With regard to multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA), significant differences were not observed among instructors on distributive, procedural and interactive justice based on gender at $\eta^2 = .994$, $F(226, 226) = .434$, $p=.729$, multivariate $r^2 = .006$; experience at $\eta^2 = .949$, $F(226, 452) = 1.982$, $P=.067$, multivariate $r^2 = .026$; and qualification, $\eta^2 = .989$, $F(226, 226) = .815$, $p=.487$, multivariate $r^2 = .011$. Based on the finding of this study, it is concluded that servant leadership had significant effect on organizational justice though interactional justice was observed to a little extent in the workplace. Therefore, it is suggested to improve the current status of servant leadership and organizational justice to make instructors satisfied in their job.

Key words: *Servant leadership; Organizational justice; University of Gondar*

1. Introduction

Many organizations highly depend on the quality of leadership to facilitate the changes and create conducive work environment to be effective (McEwen, 2003). For leadership to be effective, it must be built on a solid foundation consisting of clear mission, vision, specific strategies and culture instrumental for success. Effective leaders exhibit specific skills and attributes to achieve the goal of the organization through creating conducive work environment. They are also focusing on building a community of learners, sharing decision making process, supporting professional development for employees and creating a climate of team work (Brewer, 2001). Most importantly, strong communication skills, self-confidence, the ability to manage others and willingness to embrace change are the qualities of good leaders (Investopedia, 2016). This shows that organizations will not be effective without quality leadership.

Leadership is a highly complex concept to define in which most of the definitions focus on the ability of individual person to influence others, but currently many scholars have shifted their attention from self-centered forms of leadership towards follower oriented types of leadership (Peterson & Galvin, 2012). In this regard, servant leadership is one of the leadership approach initiated by Greenleaf in 1970 which focuses on human needs as a top priority (Ehrhart, 2004; Northouse, 2013). Servant leaders have moral obligation to look the needs of their followers over their own well-being and the interests of the organizations (Russell & Stone, 2002). Similarly, Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) noted that servant leaders can develop and empower followers to reach their highest potential in order to achieve certain goals. This can be achieved through developing self-confidence, inspiring trust and providing information, feedback and resources (Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson, 2008).

Although some scholars criticize servant leadership as idealized which cannot be implemented in the real world, it has become popular issue in the literature as organizations increasingly demand ethical and genuine leaders (Blanchard, 2002; Boyum, 2006; Covey, 2006). That is, organizations with servant leadership cultures tend to be healthy, efficient and leader-employee relationships are smooth and synchronized (Doraiswamy, 2012; Korkmaz, 2007). Servant leadership has the potential to offer organizations with leadership approach grounded in values, ethics, morals and empowerment of others. Strong ethics, beliefs and values are seen as the core of servant leadership which brings long-term success in the organizations. Servant leader produces motivated workforce through cultivating participatory approach, empowering environments and fostering the talents of followers (Liden et al., 2008). Servant leadership gives special emphasis for personal and professional growth of followers through encouraging self-actualization, high performance and organizational sustainability (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

Organizational justice is one of the numerous job related attitudes which is concerned with employees' perception of fair treatment in the organization (Fernandes & Awamleh, 2006). It has been conceptualized in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice (Cohen-Charash, 2001). Distributive justice is viewed as workers' perception of the fairness of the distribution of

outcomes (Folger & Greenberg, 1985). It relates to equity as perceived by the workers about their input and output in the organization. Thus, workers are able to establish the extent of fairness of such distribution to themselves in comparison with others. On the other hand, procedural justice tends to justify the fairness of the process by which outcomes are assigned (Cakmak, 2005). Interactional justice is another dimension of organizational justice which focuses on the interpersonal relationships among employees and the fairness of communication within the organizations. Niehoff and Moorman (1993) viewed interactional justice as the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment exhibited by leaders and managers. This indicates that organizational justice is not merely concerned with the fairness of rewards employees receive but also the fairness of the decision making process to allocate rewards and interpersonal relationship among employees.

Individual behavior in the workplace is affected by organizational justice. This means that employees will perform their tasks effectively when they are fairly treated by their leaders in the organizations. Employees want to be treated with respect, and their contributions to be matched with the outcomes they receive. Not only do workers want to be fairly compensated for their inputs, but they also choose the procedures that delegate outcomes, and the individuals associated with the delegation of outcomes to be fair. When employees perceive as they are fairly treated in the workplace, they are more likely to contribute to the success of the organizations they work for. Similarly, having procedures that are consistent, unbiased and good interaction between employees and leaders are basic elements for ensuring fairness (Greenberg, 1993; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Leventhal, 1980). However, employees with the feeling of unfair treatment will less likely motivated to support their organizations to be successful (Pfeffer & Langton, 1993), and they are subject to dissatisfaction and frustration (Greenberg, 1993).

Servant leadership plays an indispensable role in determining employees' feeling of fair treatment in organizations in which they are employed. When organizations foster strong sense of justice in the workplace, employees will work as a team rather than individuals. According to Ehrhart (2004), servant leadership was positively related with follower procedural justice climate. In an effort to link servant-leadership to an overall organizational justice judgment, we draw on the literature on justice rules. Similarly, servant leaders provide an opportunity for followers to voice their concerns, as a result of which it is likely that justice perceptions will be more favorable when one has a servant leader. People are naturally attentive to the justice of events and situations in their everyday lives across different contexts (Gopanzano & Stein, 2009). Servant leaders are more likely to influence perceptions of all the justice dimensions which should translate into an overall sense of justice (Ehrhart, 2004).

Therefore, based on the discussions made so far with regard to the servant leadership and organizational justice as well as the relationship between these variables, the researcher has synthesized a new conceptual framework for this study as indicated in Figure 1 below.

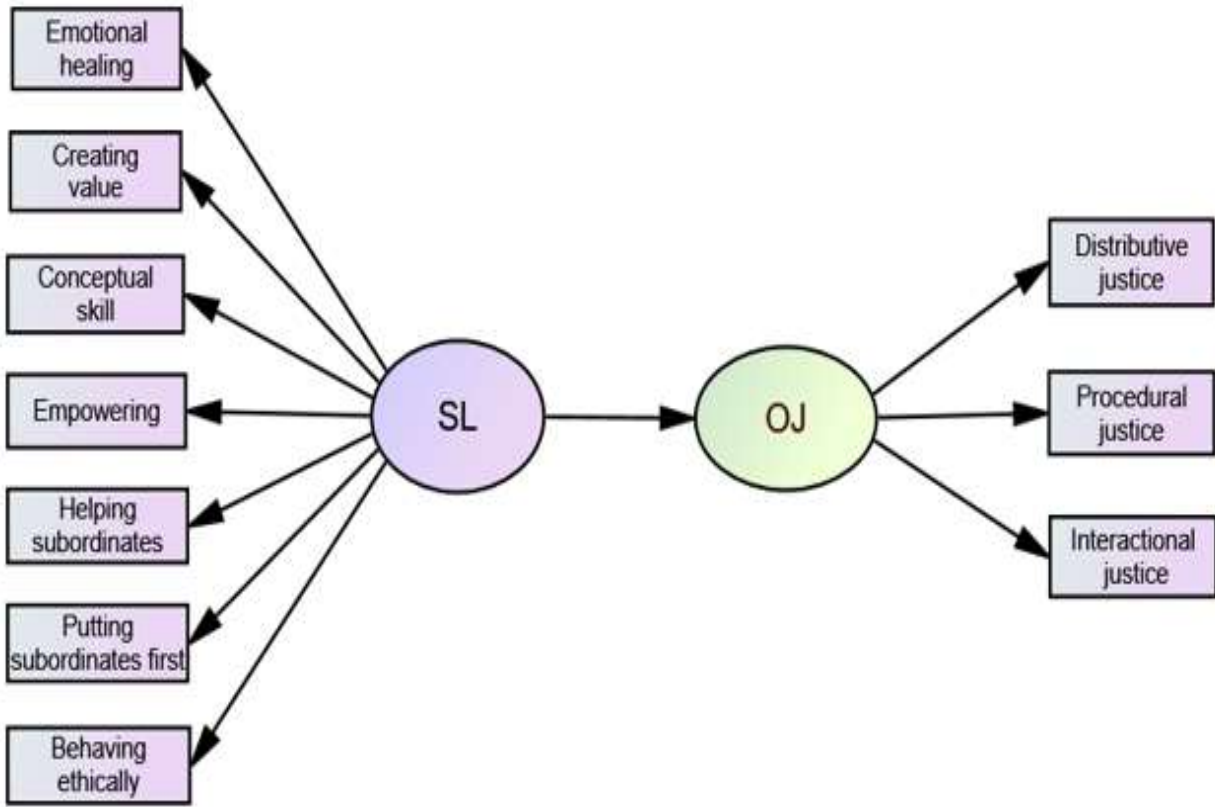


Figure 1. The conceptual framework of the study

There appear to be increasing interest among scholars in servant leadership in which the leader is perceived as the servant to his or her followers (Graham, 1991). Servant leadership is an important factor linked with the success of an organization. This indicates that leaders who exhibit servant leadership behaviors tend to increase employees' feeling of fair treatment in the workplace, while the opposite feeling does not bring the same result. In an attempt to keep employees satisfied with their job, organizations need to follow servant leadership approach (Ehrhart, 2004). It is evident that servant leadership is sensitive to the needs of employees, thus improving followers' sense of justice. According to Northouse (2016), servant leaders advocate those who are less privileged due to injustice and inequality in the organizations.

Leadership and organizational justice are thought to be important factors for the effective functioning of an organization. Thurston and McNall (2010) claimed that the feelings of fairness were considered as an important position in decision making process concerning rewards, benefits and other compensation issues. A research conducted by Fentahun and Matebe (2020) indicated that servant leadership was applied by the leaders of public higher education institutions of Ethiopia. They also added that leaders are good at resolving difficult issues in facilitating team spirit, valuing and respecting diversity. Conversely, other researchers found the poor practices of leadership in higher education institutions. For example, some public universities of Ethiopia lack ethical and genuine leaders which have negative effects on organizations' health and effectiveness

(Frew, Mitiku & Mebratu, 2016). These leaders showed aloofness and dissociated from their tasks lacked concern about the wellbeing of their followers and were poor at showing ethical behaviors (Abeya & Frew, 2016).

In addition, Teshome (2003) found that leader-employee relationships in Ethiopian higher education institutions are authoritative and undemocratic which are responsible for employees' disengagement and turnover. Likewise, Kassahun (2015) and Lerra (2015) showed that higher education institutions in Ethiopia lacked leaders with profound feelings of professionalism who perceive leading as the responsibility to serve staff and the community at large. Similarly, shortage of professionally capable, motivated and committed leaders is another challenge of effective leadership in Ethiopian public universities (Mulu, 2012). These studies indicate that leaders in Ethiopian public universities are characterized by autocratic in nature that led to decline the effectiveness of the institutions.

Although some studies have been done on the practices of leadership, study may not has been conducted on the effect of servant leadership on organizational justice in the context of Ethiopian higher education institutions. This study, therefore, conducted to examine the effect of servant leadership on organizational justice in the University of Gondar. Thus, the researcher formulated the following research questions:

1. *How well does the proposed measurement model fit to the data?*
2. *To what extent are servant leadership and organizational justice being observed in the University of Gondar?*
3. *What is the relationship between servant leadership and organizational justice in the University of Gondar?*
4. *What is the effect of servant leadership on organizational justice in the University of Gondar?*
5. *Do instructors differ on the three dimensions of organizational justice based on sex, qualification and work experience in the University of Gondar?*

2. Methodology

2.1 Research Design

Based on the nature of the problem, researchers may follow different research designs to obtain answers to the research questions. For the purpose of this study, explanatory sequential mixed design (QUAN → qual) was employed to understand the quantitative results in depth using the qualitative data. Explanatory sequential mixed design has strong quantitative orientation in which the researcher first gathers the quantitative data and analyzes the results, and then plans the qualitative phase of study using the quantitative results (Creswell, 2014). This design will capitalize the strengths and minimize the limitations of quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). A simplified illustration of explanatory sequential mixed design is shown in Figure 2.

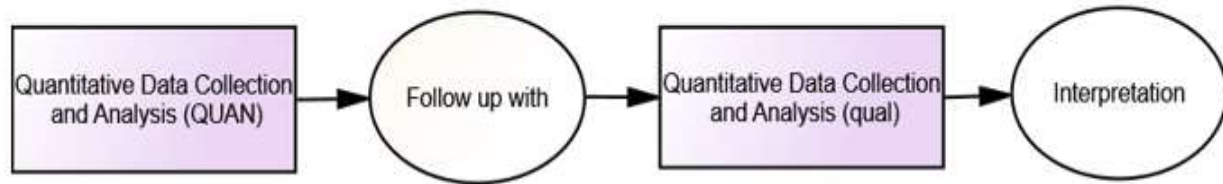


Figure 2. Explanatory Sequential Mixed Design, Adapted from Creswell (2014)

2.2 Population, Sample and Sampling techniques

There are five campuses at the University of Gondar. Of these, Maraki and Fasil campuses were selected using simple random sampling technique. These campuses consist of College of Education, Law, Business and Economics, Social Sciences and Humanities as well as Institute of Technology which have a total of 1055 instructors with different qualifications, experiences and gender composition. Out of 1055, 359 instructors were on study leave, while 696 instructors were on duty. Thus, 696 instructors who were on duty taken as the population of the study. Of the total 696 instructors; 44 from Education, 118 from Business and Economics, 235 from Social Sciences and Humanities, 269 from Institute of Technology, and 30 from School of Law were considered as the subpopulations of the study.

Researchers use different sampling techniques to determine the size of sample that represent the larger population. The base for the decision on sample size was item-respondent proportion requirement highly recommended by different authorities to undertake factor analysis. For example, Kline (2011), Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and Ho (2006) suggested item respondent ratio as a procedure to determine the sample size of the studies. Although there is no single criterion that determines the necessary sample size, Gorsuch (1983) suggested that the sample size with a minimum of 100 would be sufficient to carry out factor analysis irrespective of the number of items. Based on the suggestions of Osborne and Costello (2004) and Raykov and Marcoulides (2006), five respondents per each item were used as a procedure to determine the sample size for this study. Accordingly, the total sample size of this study was 240 since the number of items under the dimensions of the variables in the questionnaire were 48.

After determining the total sample size of the study, the sample size of each stratum was determined based on the size their respective population using proportional sample allocation method developed by Pandey and Verma (2008). Hence, the researcher determined the sample size of each stratum through dividing the population size of the k^{th} strata by the total population size and multiplying by the total sample size using Pandey and Verma (2008) formula as given below.

$$n_k = \left(\frac{nk}{N} \right) * n$$

Where;

- n_k = Sample size of k^{th} strata
- N_k = Population size of the k^{th} strata
- N = Total population size
- n = Total sample size

This helps to avoid miss representation of some members of the population in the study. Then, these respondents were selected using simple random sampling technique, mainly lottery method with the intent to have equal chance to be selected in the sample. The summary of population and sample of the study are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Summary of Population and Sample of the study

Strata	Population size of each university (N_k)	Sample size of each university (n_k)
School of Education	44	15
College of Business and Economics	118	41
College of Social Sciences and Humanities	235	81
Institute of Technology	269	93
School of Law	30	10
	N= 694	n= 240

With regard to the qualitative phase of study, five college deans were included in the sample using comprehensive sampling techniques to collect the qualitative data through semi-structured interview to further explain the quantitative results.

Therefore, 240 instructors and 5 college deans were used as a sample making a total of 245 respondents for this study.

2.3 Data Gathering Instruments

Both questionnaire and semi-structured interview were used to collect the data for this study. The questionnaire had three parts containing close ended items. The first part of the questionnaire contained items about the characteristics of research participants. The second part of the questionnaire comprised 28 items which were developed by Liden and his colleagues (2008) to measure the seven dimensions of servant leadership behaviour in the workplace from respondents' perspectives. The third part of the questionnaire consisted of 20 items developed by Moorman (1991) and Niehoff and Moorman (1993) to assess respondents' perceived organizational justice in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice.

Finally, respondents were asked to rate items using five points Likert type items that range from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very great extent*) to measure servant leadership practice and organizational justice in the workplace.

With regard to qualitative data, semi-structured interview was conducted about the status of servant leadership and organizational justice in the workplace.

2.4 Data Gathering Procedures

Before starting to gather data, the researcher sought permission from the university to get their consent. Based on the permission given, the researcher distributed the questionnaire to the sample teachers with the help of college deans and department heads. The respondents were given three days to complete the questionnaire. After the questionnaires were returned to the researcher, interview was conducted with the five college deans through taking 20-25 minutes with each interviewee.

2.5 Data Analysis Techniques

Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques were used to analyze the data since the study employed questionnaire and semi-structured interview to gather the data. Quantitative data collected through the questionnaire were analyzed with the help of both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. Specifically, factor analysis, one sample t-test, structural equation modeling (SEM) and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Finally, the data gathered through semi-structured interview were analyzed qualitatively.

3. Results and Discussion

This section began with testing the measurement model and then presented the results of the study according to the themes of the research questions.

3.1 *Measurement model fit*

The researcher identified the seven dimensions of servant leadership (emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skill, empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first and behaving ethically) and three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice), as indicators. Taking the identified dimensions of the two latent variables, the researcher constructed the measurement model using AMOS version 23 as shown in Figure 3.

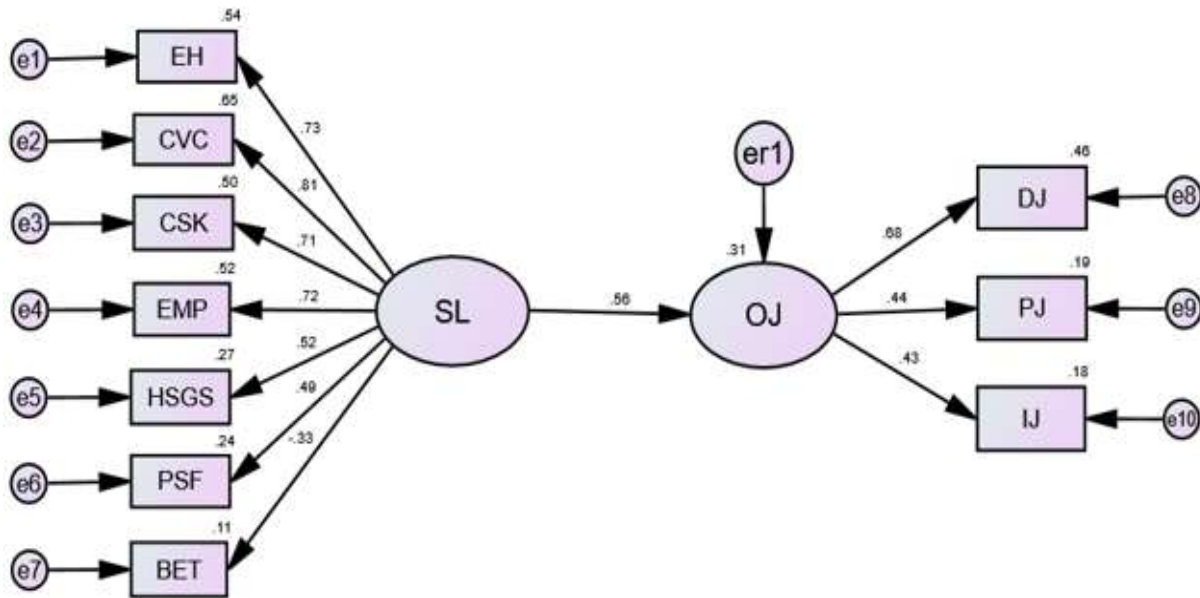


Figure 3. The measurement model of the study

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out with the respective dimensions of servant leadership and organizational justice to assess the parameter estimates and the overall fit of the measurement model to the data. Based on the suggestion of Ho (2006) and Byrne (2010), the researcher used relative chi-square (CMIN/DF), goodness fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), incremental fit index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used to assess the degree to which the measurement model fits to the data using AMOS version 23. The goodness of fit indices used to assess the measurement model fit are indicated in Table 2.

Table 2: AMOS outputs on the fitness indices against the criteria of the measurement model

Criteria	Obtained values	Threshold
Relative chi-square (CMIN/DF)	3.432	<5
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	.938	>.90
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	.918	>.90
Normed fit index (NFI)	.911	>.90
Incremental fit index (IFI)	.916	>.90
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	.907	>.90
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.915	>.90
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	.048	<.05

As indicated in Table 2, the measurement model fits to the observed variance–covariance matrix well by the CMIN/DF (3.432). In addition, the fit indices of GFI (.938), AGFI (.918), NFI (.911), IFI (.916), TLI (.907) and CFI (.915) were higher than the threshold of .90 and a RMSEA (.048) was lower than the cutoff of point .05 with $p = .000$.

The maximum likelihood estimates of the unstandardized regression and standardized regression weights also confirmed that all the path coefficients in the measurement model are significant at $p < .05$ as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Regression and standardized regression weights of the measurement model

Parameters/dimensions			Unstandardized				Standardized
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Estimate
Emotional healing	<---	SL	1.000				.732
Creating value	<---	SL	1.136	.055	20.833	***	.807
Conceptual skill	<---	SL	1.077	.058	18.505	***	.708
Empowering	<---	SL	1.000	.053	18.820	***	.721
Helping subordinates	<---	SL	.778	.057	13.712	***	.524
Putting subordinates first	<---	SL	.728	.057	12.790	***	.489
Behaving ethically	<---	SL	-.468	.054	-8.605	***	-.329
Distributed justice	<---	OJ	1.000				.682
Procedural justice	<---	OJ	.558	.066	8.406	***	.441
Interactional justice	<---	OJ	.698	.085	8.241	***	.428

As indicated in Table 3, the unstandardized regression weights of all the dimensions of servant leadership and organizational justice are significant with the critical ratio test greater than ± 1.96 at $p < .05$. From this, it is possible to conclude that the critical ratio tests of the 10 dimensions are extremely far from the threshold of ± 1.96 indicates a significant path at $p < .05$ and demonstrated the greater explanatory power of the observed variables in representing their respective latent variables. Likewise, the standardized regression weights of all the 10 dimensions in the measurement model were significantly represented by their respective latent variables. Specifically, the standardized regression weights of the observed variables in the measurement model range from $-.329$ (behaving ethically) to $.807$ (creating value for the community). These values indicated that servant leadership and organizational justice were significantly measured by their respective dimensions at $p < .05$. This means that the observed variables explained the respective latent constructs ranging from 10.8 % (behaving ethically) to 65.2 % (creating value for the community). This indicated that the observed variables were significantly represented by their respective latent variables.

Although there were variations among the observed variables in their regression coefficients, the measurement model analysis confirmed that all the dimensions were structurally valid to measure servant leadership and organizational justice.

3.2 The status of Servant leadership and Organizational justice

Table 4: A one sample t-test of servant leadership and organizational justice

Variables with their dimensions	N	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Sig.
Servant leadership						
Emotional healing	240	3.86	.370	36.048	239	.000
Creating value for community	240	3.42	.429	15.215	239	.000
Conceptual skills	240	3.68	.597	17.659	239	.000
Empowering subordinates	240	3.10	.682	2.247	239	.026
Helping subordinates grow	240	3.87	.357	37.475	239	.000
Putting subordinates first	240	3.77	.515	23.097	239	.000
Behaving ethically	240	3.67	.485	21.287	239	.000
Grand mean score of SL	240	3.62	.309	31.294	239	.000
Organizational justice						
Distributive justice	240	3.57	.558	15.886	239	.00
Procedural justice	240	3.70	.573	19.041	239	.00
Interactional justice	240	2.64	.263	-26.508	239	.00
Grand mean score of OJ	240	3.53	.382	21.505	239	.00

The result of one sample t-test indicated that the mean scores of emotional healing (3.86), creating value for the community (3.42), conceptual skill (3.68), empowering subordinates (3.10), helping subordinates grow and succeed (3.87), putting the interest of subordinates first (3.77) and behaving ethically (3.67) were higher than the expected mean value (3) at ($t = 36.04$), ($t = 15.21$), ($t = 17.66$), ($t = 2.25$), ($t = 37.48$), ($t = 23.10$), ($t = 21.29$) and ($t = 31.29$) respectively with $df = 239$ at $p < .05$. Similarly, the grand mean score of servant leadership (3.62) was higher than the expected mean value (3) at ($t = 31.29$, $df = 239$), $p < .05$. This means that servant leadership is to some extent implemented. This result is quite similar with the qualitative finding obtained through the interview. All participants told that servant leadership is moderately implemented in their respective colleges though it is not reached at the expected level. The finding of this study is consistent with the work of Fentahun and Matebe (2020) who found that servant leadership fairly implemented in the public universities of Ethiopia. A research conducted by Fikre (2017) also proved the successful implementation of servant leadership in Compassion International organization. Similarly, Hu and Liden (2011) and Van Dierendonck (2011) reported that leaders in the organizations properly applied servant leadership.

With regard to organizational justice, a one sample t-test indicated that the mean scores of distributive justice (3.57) and procedural justice (3.70) were higher than the expected mean value (3) at ($t = 15.89$) and ($t = 19.04$) respectively with $df = 239$, $p < .05$. On the contrary, the mean score of interactional justice (2.64) was lower than the expected mean value (3) at ($t = -26.51$, $df = 239$) at $p < .05$. But the grand mean score of organizational justice (3.53) was higher than the expected mean value (3) at ($t = 21.505$, $df = 239$), $p < .05$. This implies that organizational justice was properly observed in the universities. This finding is supported by the qualitative result found through the

interview. This means that almost all participants reported that organizational justice was moderately observed in the universities. Consistent with this, Jahangir, Akbar, and Begum (2006) found that employees were fairly treated in the workplace so that they had no intention to leave their job. This means that employees are more likely to contribute for the success of their organizations when they perceived as they are fairly treated in the workplace. Similarly, Abo (2012) and Ajlouni (2010) reported that moderate level of organizational justice was observed in the Governmental organizations of Jordanian.

3.3 The relationship between Servant Leadership and Organizational justice

Table 5: Correlation coefficient of servant leadership and organizational justice

Latent variables in the structural model			Unstandardized				Standardized
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Estimate
Servant leadership	<-->	Organizational justice	.418	.041	10.193	***	.561

As indicated in Table 6, positive and statistically significant relationship was found between servant leadership and perceived organizational justice with standardized correlation coefficient ($r=.561$) by the critical ratio test greater than ± 1.96 at $p<.05$. This implies that the value of servant leadership increases when the value of organizational justice increases. This result is consistent with the work of Ehrhart (2004) that positive and significant relationship was observed between servant leadership and organizational justice. Cropanzano, Prehar, and Chen (2002) also reported that servant leadership was significantly associated with organizational justice. In the same way, the work of other researchers agreed on the existence of significant relationship between servant leadership behavior of leaders and perceived organizational justice of employees (Zehiria, Akyuzb, Eren & Turhand, 2013).

3.4 The effect of Servant leadership on Organizational justice

Structural equation modeling was computed to analyze the effect of servant leadership on organizational justice and the result of the analysis is shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Regression of organizational justice on servant leadership

Latent variables in the structural model			Unstandardized				Standardized
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Estimate
Organizational justice	<---	Servant leadership	.651	.058	11.802	***	.561
R-square			.314				

Figure 3 and Table 6 revealed that the path that links servant leadership and perceived organizational justice with standardized regression coefficient ($\beta =.561$, $p<.05$) indicating that servant leadership as significantly predicts perceived organizational justice. Thus, the value of R-square indicated that 31.4 % of the variance in perceived organizational justice was predicted by

servant leadership, while the rest 68.6 % of the variation in organizational justice was attributed to the residual variances that cannot be explained by this model. This result is similar with the finding of Oner (2008) that servant leadership significantly predicted employees' feeling of justice. A study conducted by Subramaniam (2011) also indicated that servant leadership had positive effect on organizational justice. Congruently, researchers found that that servant leadership should be considered by the leaders in the organization (Blanchard, 2002; Covey, 2006). It is obvious that servant leaders can influence the perceptions of all the justice dimensions which should translate into an overall sense of justice. Ehrhart (2004) and Zehir et al. (2013) found that servant leadership had positive effect on organizational justice. This indicates that servant leadership is a vital component of job that determines employees' feeling of justice in the organizations.

3.5 Results of Multivariate Tests of Effects

Table 7: The Results of Multivariate Tests of MANOVA

Sources	Wilks Lambda (η^2)	F	Hyp.DF	Error DF	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	.010	7367.296b	3.000	226.000	.000	.990
Sex (S)	.994	.434b	3.000	226.000	.729	.006
Experience (E)	.949	1.982b	6.000	452.000	.067	.026
Qualification (Q)	.989	.815b	3.000	226.000	.487	.011
S X E	.977	.898b	6.000	452.000	.496	.012
S X Q	.995	.356b	3.000	226.000	.785	.005
E X Q	.898	4.170b	6.000	452.000	.000	.052
S X E X Q	.954	1.788b	6.000	452.000	.100	.023

The result of MANOVA indicated that significant differences were not observed among instructors on distributive, procedural and interactive justice on the basis of gender at $\eta^2 = .994$, $F(226, 226) = .434$, $p = .729$, multivariate $r^2 = .006$; experience at $\eta^2 = .949$, $F(226, 452) = 1.982$, $P = .067$, multivariate $r^2 = .026$; and qualification, $\eta^2 = .989$, $F(226, 226) = .815$, $p = .487$, multivariate $r^2 = .011$.

Similarly, significant difference were not observed among instructors on distributive, procedural and interactive justice based on the interaction effects of S*E, at $\eta^2 = .977$, $F(226, 452) = .898$, $p = .496$, multivariate $r^2 = .012$; S*Q at $\eta^2 = .995$, $F(226, 226) = .356$, $.785 = .00$, multivariate $r^2 = .005$; and S*E*Q at $\eta^2 = .954$, $F(226, 452) = 1.788$, $p = .100$, multivariate $r^2 = .023$.

However, significant differences were observed among instructors on the three dimensions of organizational justice with the interaction effect of E*Q at $\eta^2 = .898$, $F(226, 452) = 4.170$, $p = .000$, multivariate $r^2 = .052$.

4. Conclusion and Recommendation

4.1 Conclusion

Based on the empirical evidence obtained from the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study, the following conclusions are drawn.

- *The proposed measurement model was found internally consistent and structurally valid to measure servant leadership and organizational justice. This means that all the 10 dimensions were significantly represented by their respective latent variables.*
- *The quantitative results revealed that servant leadership and organizational justice were moderately observed in the universities. These results are similar with the qualitative results found through the interview.*
- *There was positive and statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and organizational justice with standardized correlation coefficients .561 at $p < .05$.*
- *Servant leadership had statistically significant effect on organizational justice.*
- *Significant differences were not found among instructors on the three dimensions of organizational justice based on gender, work experience and educational qualifications.*

4.2 Recommendations

- *Use different models of servant leadership to measure its effect on organizational justice.*
- *It needs to strengthen the current status of servant leadership and organizational justice in a way that make instructors feel justice in their job.*
- *Further studies need to be conducted in other Ethiopian universities with large sample size to generalize the results.*

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Factors Affecting Corporate Leadership Development of Government Banks in Ethiopia

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Abstract

The success of an organization lies in the strength of its leaders. With that, organizations need to make continuous efforts to develop leaders who will pave the way for that success. Leadership development is a common process in succession planning for short and long run, which aims to produce high calibre leaders who will take over senior position when they become vacant. The focus of this study is to investigate factors affecting corporate leadership development of government banks in Ethiopia. The study has employed both mixed or concurrent research design. The census was carried out to consider all top officials of both government banks, (CBE & DBE). 123 respondents were taken as to fill questionnaire by ranking on the identified 10 variables/factors by using Response form, whose sources were from different theory and empirical evidence of HRM and leadership development. Only the primary data was used and analyzed by SPSS version 22 was carried out by applying Friedman Test and Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance. To measure the reliability of the data Cronbach's Alpha was used with 8.9 result. The limitation of this research is it is focus only on the government banks, factors which affects leadership development of government banks in Ethiopia. The study was considers 10 obstacles or variables which affect leadership development; among this lack of working experience, problems of change management and absence of strategy execution guideline are the top most obstacles. The major finding of the study was there is significant difference between mean ranks towards factors affecting on leadership development with P-value (0.000), and chi-square (969.842) at 1% level of significance. To sum up, Mean ranks were computed for all the items and Chi-square value also was computed with respective p-value. It is suggested that by giving training and creating awareness for top leadership is necessary to curb the problems related with the management of leadership development program in both government banks in order to bring banks success.

Key words: Leadership development and government banks

1. Introduction

The success of an organization lies in the strength of its leaders. With that, organizations need to make continuous efforts to develop leaders who will pave the way for that success. Leadership development is a common process in succession planning for short and long run, which aims to produce high calibre leaders who will take over senior position when they become vacant(Hartel, K. (2007). Today in the world of, global competition, knowledge economy and competitive market development, it is the basic element to define firm's strategies as a result industrial economy has been experienced to pass toward to knowledge economy. As being a competitive market development day by day it is very difficult to enhance sustainable growth for the firm's side. All researchers and practitioners are aware of the advantages and disadvantages of a competitive work environment and try to find ways for adapting to competitive conditions. These efforts have mostly focused on human resource management practices in the last two decades especially with the emergence of strategic human resource management approach (Rawashdeh & AlAdwan, 2012).

The increasing significance of people to organizational success has been observed to have corresponded with the rise of Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) as a field of study on global scale (Hartel, 2007). Since its emergence, SHRM has been the focus of debate over whether it exists in reality or is merely rhetoric. Research has, however, shown that human resource management practices have the ability to create firms that are more intelligent, flexible, and competent than their rivals through the application of policies and practices that concentrate on recruiting, selecting and training skilled employees, as well as directing their best efforts to cooperate within the resource bundle of the organization (Rawashdeh, 2012).

As stated above the corporate HRM strategy is helpful for organizational performance. The strategic human resource management system is new phenomena for Ethiopian banking institution. The main aim of this research is to investigate those factors affecting corporate leadership development strategy of government banks in Ethiopia. Company's profitability and its return on invested capital are determined by the strategies they adapted by the top leadership. Management lead role requiring strategic thinking, planning, decision-making and ultimate implementation could also have much to contribute to the fortunes or otherwise of the various organizations in their respective industries. Much as the differences in the performance levels of various organizations are to be expected, it is still strongly believed that the strategies pursued by each organization are largely accountable for the outcome of their performances(Charles et. el, 2004).

Leadership and management development is a strategic issue. In the knowledge economy, an organization cannot grow or prosper beyond the capability of its leadership and the commitment and skill of its workforce. Management effectiveness is directly related to organizational effectiveness, employee engagement and competitive advantage. Retention, talent development,

organizational performance and employee engagement are objectives that can be delivered only through the leadership and management development that people experience each and every day (Sofia Kjellstrom, et. el 2020).

Corporate leadership development can help leaders and managers of public and non-profit organizations think, learn, and act strategically. Many of the studies on the relationship between corporate strategy and leadership development were done between 1970s and early 1990s. Another studies focused on the direct relationship between corporate strategy and leadership development strategies. Performance Management of Canadian Consultant, found that how each leadership theories relates with corporate strategies. Although the studies within the African context noted that organizations that practiced human resource strategic planning recorded better performance compared to non-planners.

According to Annual Report of National Bank of Ethiopia (NBE, 2017/18), there were high levels of employee movement among the existing banks in the country. This is mainly due to banks are focused on snatching scarce skilled labour from the market through alluring them with attractive benefit packages. Since CBE and DBE are market price follower, unless the deployment of other HR strategic options in the future, the snatching will adversely affect the market position of the these banks. And also acquiring and maintaining highly qualified staffs is becoming difficult in the market due to the stiff competition among the existing banks. Thus this demands the bank to review its HR policies to stay in the market as well as to achieve its vision, the banks has been investing in acquiring new potential employees and maintaining existing staffs in order to build sufficient successor pool by developing and implementing various policies and strategies concerned with human resource (CBE Annual performance report 2017/18). However a survey conducted by Senait, 2017 on Employee commitment revealed that there is high level of potential successor's turnover, moderate employee engagement, low morale, and reduced employees desire to learn and apply new skill. This helped the researcher to think there is some sort of gaps in the organization with respect to the concept of strategic human resource development and management practices and need additional assessment in the area.

According to CBE report the banks corporate leadership development is takes more time due to due to the following reasons; unanticipated problems, poor coordination and communication, unplanned banks expansion without feasibility studies, lack of banking and financial management competencies, and problems of banking infrastructures. The government bank of Ethiopia was selected for this study due to the fact that the CBE and DBE sectors represents an ideal case of an established sector in the relatively and no one conducted the research in the problems in relation to factors affecting corporate strategic leadership development. Numerous studies conducted on HRM, HR, training and development, HR compensation system, HR, performance appraisal and HR recruitment and selections system. According to Professional development training courses in Ottawa (Performance Management Consultants, 2014-2021) there are 7 factors affecting the impact of organizational leadership development. Thus, the current study of this

study is focus ten factors to investigate the top most variables, whose source is from conceptual and empirical vies of HRM. Thus, this paper is going to investigate which factor/s would top most and possibly affect corporate leadership development strategy on government banks of Ethiopia.

The overall aim of this study is to investigate what are top most factors affecting corporate leadership development of government banks in Ethiopia.

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between mean ranks towards factors affecting on corporate leadership development strategy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a significant difference between mean ranks towards factors affecting on corporate leadership development strategy.

2. Methodology

(i). Research Approach and Design

For this study the researcher was used mixed approaches to research, viz., quantitative approach and the qualitative approach. The former involves the generation of data in quantitative form which can be subjected to rigorous quantitative analysis in a formal and rigid fashion. Qualitative approach to research is concerned with subjective assessment of attitudes, opinions and behaviour. Research in such a situation is a function of researcher's insights and impressions. Thus, the data gathered from the respondents was employed by using both words and quantity. The road map for any research is the research philosophy which adopted for entire investigation of research outcomes. The design of this study is descriptive and inferential one. According to (C.R. Kothari, 2004), descriptive research studies are those studies which are concerned with describing the characteristics of a particular individual, or of a group. Thus, the design of this research is descriptive. The descriptive research collects data in order to answer questions concerning the current status of the subject under study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

(ii). Source of Data and Its Collection Process

To obtain and gather relevant and reliable data only primary source of data was used. The primary data was collected through structured and semi-structured questionnaire from CBE and DBE managers. Data gathering was taken place at A.A, capital city of Ethiopia, from both CBE and DBE by using purposive sampling process. The reason for purposive sampling is the researcher judgement which shall yield a favourable for investigating; the entire inquiry may get validated without any bias. The data collection method employed in-depth by structured questionnaires of respondents from managers as well as non-planning members in each identified categories/banks. To gather the relevant information's research questionnaires was prepared based on Response form (Rating scale, Cr. Kothari, 2004).

(iii). Survey Method

The survey method was used to collect the data. According to the CBE and DBE annual magazine, 2016, there are 156 top levels managers in both banks. Questionnaires were distributed to managers and executives directors of commercial and development bank of Ethiopia. Both of these organization head office located in capital city of Ethiopia, Addis Abeba. A 10-point scale (rating scale) was used in the questionnaire; 123 completed questionnaires were received. The demographic data were included in part 1 of the questionnaire and consisted of questions based on nominal and ordinal scales. The sampling frame should be predetermined quantity from a batch of the same kind, a quantity considered adequate and representatives of the whole batch and population (Deepak Chawla and Neena Sondhi, 2011). By using census sampling method from banks presidents, vice presidents, and

Directors were taken as target respondents. The target populations are all category of top management levels. Furthermore, suppose we will desire a 99% confidence level and 1% precision. The resulting respondents and their mean difference were calculated. Among 18 banks 2 government banks purposively selected. These two government banks constitute 35% of the remaining 16 private commercial banks, by their market share.

(v). Data Analysis

The questionnaire responses were clean grouped into various categories and entered in the SPSS software version 22 to facilitate for analysis using descriptive statistics. Frequency distribution tables were used to summarize the data from respondents' including their demographic information. Data analysis was present in frequency distributions tables and pie charts for ease of understanding and analysis. The relationship between factors affecting development of corporate leadership strategies was analysed by using Friedman Test and Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance (W). The Friedman test is a non-parametric alternative to ANOVA with repeated measures. No normality assumption is required. The test is similar to the Kruskal-Wallis Test. The researcher was used the terminology from Kruskal Wallis Test and Two Factor ANOVA without Replication. The Friedman test is the significance test for more than two dependent samples and is also known as the Friedman two-way analysis of variance; it is used to test the null hypothesis. In other words, it is used to test that there is no significant difference between the size of 'k' dependent samples and the population from which these have been drawn. In SPSS, the Friedman test is done by selecting "Nonparametric Tests" from the analyze menu and then selecting "K Related Samples." After this, select "Test Variables," and then under the option test type, select "Friedman." The Friedman test statistic is distributed approximately as chi-square, with $(k - 1)$ degrees of freedom. The Friedman test statistic for more than two dependent samples is given by the formula:

$\text{Chi-square}_{\text{Friedman}} = ([12/nk(k + 1)] * [\text{SUM}(T_i^2)] - 3n(k + 1))$. **Kendall's W Test** is referred to

the normalization of the Friedman statistic. Kendall's W is used to assess the trend of agreement among the respondents. In SPSS, Kendall's W Test is done by selecting "Nonparametric Tests" from the analyse menu, and then by clicking on "K Related Samples." After this, select "Test Variables," and then under the option test type, select "Kendall's W." Kendall's W ranges from 0 to 1. The value '1' refers to the complete agreement among/between the ratters, and value '0' refers to the complete.

$$Q = \frac{12}{nk(k+1)} \sum_{j=1}^k R_j^2 - 3n(k+1)$$

Where k = the number of groups (treatments), n = the number of subjects, R_j is the sum of the ranks for the jth group. If the null hypothesis that the sum of the ranks of the groups are the same, then

$$Q \sim \chi^2(k-1) \text{ when } k \geq 5 \text{ or } n > 15. \text{ The null hypothesis is rejected when } Q > \chi_{crit}^2.$$

Kendall's coefficient of concordance (aka Kendall's W) is a measure of agreement among raters. defined as follows.

Definition 1: Assume there are m raters rating k subjects in rank order from 1 to k. Let r_{ij}= the rating rater j gives to subject i. For each subject i, let R_i = $\sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij}$. let \bar{R} be the mean of the R_i and let R be the squared deviation, i.e.

$$R = \sum_{i=1}^k (R_i - \bar{R})^2$$

Now define Kendall's W by

$$W = \frac{12R}{m^2(k^3 - k)}$$

Observation: For each rater j

$$\sum_{i=1}^k r_{ij} = 1 + 2 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$$

And so the mean of the R_i can be expressed as

$$\bar{R} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k R_i = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=1}^k r_{ij} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{k(k+1)}{2} = \frac{m(k+1)}{2}$$

Observation: By algebra, an alternative formulation for W is

$$W = \frac{12S^2}{m^2(k^3 - k)} - \frac{3(k + 1)}{k - 1}$$

Where

$$S^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k R_i^2$$

If all the raters are in complete agreement (i.e. they give the same ratings to each of the subjects) then

$$S^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k R_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k (mj)^2 = m^2 \sum_{i=1}^k j^2$$

But

$$\sum_{i=1}^k j^2 = \frac{k(k + 1)(2k + 1)}{6}$$

1.7 Validity and Reliability

Reliability and validity are concepts used to evaluate the quality of research. They indicate how well a method, technique or test measures something. Reliability is about the consistency of a measure, and validity is about the accuracy of a measure. It's important to consider reliability and validity when you are creating your research design, planning your methods, and writing up your results, especially in quantitative research. Based on this the consistency of research methodology and research questionnaire reliability was confirmed whose cronbach's alpha value was 0.89.

Table 1.1: Reliability test of the Questionnaire

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.888	10

Source: Own Survey, 2021

3. Review of Related Literature

3.1 Concept of HRM and Its Strategic Management

Although most of the researches around the world were undertaken on the relationship between SHRM and firm performance, little has been done to examine SHRM in the banking industry. The rationale for the study is therefore to address this gap. In the 1990s the increasing forces of globalization and stiff competition through technological innovation changed the bases of organizational effectiveness from the traditional use of human resources to the more strategic version of human resource management.

SHRM is the process of developing HR strategies that are integrated with business strategy vertically and horizontally with one another. It is the macro organizational approach of viewing the role and function of Human Resource Management (Abdulrahim, A. 2011). In this definition all HRM practices in the organization are linked and have a direct impact on the overall corporate business strategy of the organization. It is looking holistically towards the traditional HRM. The main focus on this definition is to achieve organizational objectives through people management (Batt, 2007).

Singh, K., 2003, defined Strategic human resource management in a manner that this study has framed; it is about integration and adaptation. According to Singh, K, SHRM is largely deals about ensuring three major concerns in an organization firstly; ensure human resource management is fully integrated with the strategy and strategic need of the firm second HR policies cohere both across policy areas and across hierarchies and finally HR practices are adjusted, accepted and used by line managers and employees as part of their everyday work. In strategic thinking HR Managers should be appraised based on the value they added to the organization in terms customer satisfaction, cost reduction, quality standard, productivity ratio, and other performance oriented indicators. Thus, the strategic objective of HRM is mainly focused on ensuring the capacity of such an organizational function to attract, retain, and develop human resources to ensure the efficient and effective materialization of the organizational vision and goals (Cascio, 2012). Finally, Strategic Human Resource Management, encourage positive work environment within the organization. This environment will eventually bring rise in the employee's progressive & productive work graph. The positive work environment ensures the favourable benefits in organizational aspects(Singh, K.).

3.2 Theoretical Frame Work of SHRM

The linkage between strategic human resource management and firm performance has been considered basic and important (Jackson et al., 2014). According to resource-based view human resources are rare, precious, can't be substituted and can serve as organization's competitive advantage (Wernerfelt 1984; Barney, 1991;). According to this viewpoint, many researchers have given the theories regarding why HR practices , strategies & systems can be measured as a

foundation of organizational advantage (Lado and Wilson, 1994). Such kind of theoretical work has made it possible to apply the resource-based view to S-HRM and several research studies have drawn upon resource based view to elucidate the significant relationship between systems of HR and effectiveness of organizations. In accordance with resource based view, theory based on human capital takes into consideration how much human capital and strategic leadership has contributed for the organizational effectiveness. Performance and generation of monetary value (Wright & McMahan, 2011). Though, employees have the possession of human capital and if they leave it gets transferred to other firms. Consequently, it has become mandatory for organizations to use HR systems to upgrade present supply of human resource and prevention of losing human assets to other organizations (through employee motivation and retention). The application of Human Capital Theory to different topics in strategic human resource management is evident in the past. Few of them include HR architecture (Lepak & Snell, 2002) and also studies related to association between HR systems and organizational effectiveness (Kroon, B., Van de Voorde, K. and Van Veldhoven, 2009). Few recent studies have focused on understanding those processes which help the organizations to make the human capital of each employee strategically valuable (Polyhart et al., 2014; Wright and McMahan, 2011; Polyhart and Moliterno 2011;). Another framework which has been discussed in the Strategic human resource literature is AMO framework. The AMO framework was originally given by Bailey (1993), according to him three components are required to ensure discretionary efforts of employees which include skills, motivation and opportunity for participation. The AMO model is taken as a different form of social perspective (Jackson et al., 2014). This model suggests that performance is an outcome of skills and drive to perform.

3.3 Empirical Evidence on Factors Affecting Leadership Development

There are seven commonly known tips about successful SHRM. These are, involve your business unit managers, clarify why participants are in the program, partner with your leadership development provider, prioritize your leadership development efforts, don't focus only on senior-level leaders, think beyond the program itself and share the impact of your leadership development initiative in terms your business leaders understand (Performance Management Consultants, Canada, 2021).

Many studies have explored factors influencing T&D, HRD, workplace learning (WPL) and strategic human resource management. For example, Long, et al., (1999) identify four factors influencing training: worker characteristics, job characteristics, enterprise characteristics and socio-political and economic environment. (Sambrook 2005, P. 209-229) has studied factors influencing the context and process of work related learning. She identified contextual factors influencing learning at three levels: organizational (Culture, structure, senior manager support, organization of work, work pressure, target, and task vs. learning orientation). Functional (HRD, role clarity, understanding of HRD, tasks and new initiatives, number of staff, expertise, amount of information). Personal, (responsibility for learning, motivation to learn, time, skills,

confidence). Further, she categorized the factors into four main themes: motivation, HRD, culture and pragmatic factors (attitudes to training, managerial skills, lack of resources, lack of time, lack of reward). She states that inhabiting factors were insufficient HRD resources, a traditional culture and an entrenched attitude toward training, business pressure, and poor managerial skills. Whereas, the supporting factors were: sufficient HRD resources (HR such as facilitation skills, learning expertise, flexible solutions, and financial resources), management support for learning, increasing willingness to learn.

Sambrook and Stewart (2000) have investigated factors influencing lifelong learning. They suggest that factors enhancing learning included motivation (enthusiasm, involvement, clarity and understanding of own role, and increased responsibility), culture (developing a learning culture and senior management support), practice (organization restructuring, job design, investment in HRD and learning environment). Managers skills (leadership style and role clarity), employees' attitudes (confidence), organization of work (time for learning and work environment), and HRD (resource availability and quality of HRD staff) also have positive influences on workplace learning.

Ellinger (2005) identified positive and negative organizational factors influencing informal WPL. Positive organizational contextual factors included senior management/ leadership commitment, an internal culture committed to learning, managers who both act as role models and encourage learning and the sharing of learning. Negative organizational contextual factors included leadership/ management not committed to learning, structural inhibitors, an internal culture of entitlement, work tools and resources, people who disrupt webs of relationships for learning, lack of time owing to job pressures and responsibilities, too much change too fast, and not learning from learning.

Regarding factors influencing HRD in Arab organizations, Abdulrahim (2011) states that factors influencing HRD in the Libyan manufacturing sector were: lack of qualified HRD practitioners, lack of long term HRD plans, policies and performance evaluation. Analyzing HRD needs and evaluation processes are restricted by factors including time availability, financial limitation and lack of expertise. HRD activities were not associated with reward strategies, lack of motivation among employees. In addition he added that top management support, commitment, involvement of line managers in HRD processes especially TNA and assessment are critical elements for the advancement of HRD.

Altarawneh (2005) claims that factors inhabiting T&D in the Jordanian banking sector were: lack of specific T&D units, lack of experienced HR/T&D managers and professionals, lack of motivation and facilitation for employees to attend T&D programmes, inaccurate TNA, sending inappropriate staff to training, lack of on-the job training, poor training planning, lack of appropriate training centers, senior managers doubt about the importance of training, and lack of understanding of training importance.

Ensour and Kharabsheh (2015) have investigated the factors that shape the conceptualization and practice of T&D in the Jordanian electricity industry, stating that the electricity companies shared almost the same training problems, particularly poor top management commitment, employees' lack of willingness to learn, a high degree of centralization, poor quality of external T&D providers, failure to evaluate training outcomes, inadequacy of TNA and lack of well-qualified HR staff. Abdullah (2009) has examined challenges to effective management of HR/T&D activities in manufacturing firms in Malaysia. The study revealed three major challenges including a shortage of intellectual HRD professionals to manage HR/T&D activities, coping with the demand for knowledge workers and fostering learning and development in the workplace. Two basic points can be inferred from the above: first, the factors that influence HRD were categorized according to their influence on T&D/HRD or work place learning, but were not studied in term of influencing HRD strategic position. Second, despite some efforts to classify the factors as inhibitors and/or enhancing factors, they were not investigated to show which factors have the most influence on SHRD. But, there is no study undertaken in government bank of Ethiopia in relation to factors affecting corporate leadership development strategy. The critical analysis of this study is to investigate the top most variables which would be affect corporate leadership development strategy on government banks of Ethiopia. Thus, based on review literature, (theoretical and empirical views) this research study can be hypothesized, there is no significance difference the mean values of selected items.

4.Result and Discussions

4.1 Profile of the Respondents

Demographic information refers to the statistics that describe a population and can be used to divide that population into different groups. Examples of demographic information include age, gender, race, income, marital status, employment status, nationality and political preference. Demographic information is often gathered about the subjects of scientific research or as a part of surveys related to marketing and public opinion. Using the demographic information helps the testers understand how the data is different for certain groups of the population. For example, a scientist conducting an experiment might want to know if males react differently than females, or a company launching a new product might want to know how American opinions differ from European opinions. Hence, demographic information in this research describes as; sex, gender, marital status, educational level and managerial positions of the banks workers.

Table 4.1: Sex composition of the respondents

Sex composition	Number	Percent
Male	104	84.6
Female	19	15.4
Total	123	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey, 2021

The composition of respondents gender was found to be mainly males which constituted 84.6% while females also represented 15.4%, this structure is due to the fact that, the males were more dominant in higher or top level management position in both government banks than the females. Hence, the females have an unfair representation in the analysis. This is not essential in order to have a combined view of both male and female in the analysis.

Table 4.2: Marital status

Status	Number	Percent
Married	98	79.7
Unmarried	22	17.9
Divorced	3	2.4
Total	123	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Survey, 2021

The composition of respondents' marital status was found to be mainly married which constituted 79.7% 17.9 represented unmarried and 2.4% constitutes for divorced. It is inferred that the majority of respondents are represented by married.

Table: 4.3 Age of the respondents

Age	Number	Percent
20-30	3	2.4
41-50	101	82.1
>51	19	15.4
Total	123	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Survey, 2021

Table 3.3 summarizes the study finding on the age bracket of the respondents'. From the findings, most (82.1%) of the respondents' were within the age bracket of 41-50 years, 15.4% were aged between for above 51 years old and 2.4% were between 20-30years. This implies that most of the employees in commercial and development banks in Ethiopia were energetic and experienced; such that they can adjust to the strategies adopted within the organization with the aim of improving organization performance.

Table: 4. 4 Educational levels of the respondents

Education	Number	Percent
Degree	11	8.9
Post Graduate	112	91.1
Total	123	100

Source: Researcher's Field Survey, 2021

Table 3.4 shows the educational level of the respondents, evidently; the educational levels of the banks workers are consistent with this research, the quality of staff of the bank, since the industry requires high calibre of working force to operate the activities. However, majority of the respondents have tertiary level education which comprises first degree levels and masters, a significant number of 8.9% comprises first degree holders and 91.1% holds master's degree. This indicates the professionalism of staff and management of the bank, as all the respondents possess

the necessary certificates to hold the various positions within the bank and can confidently attest to the strategic planning on the performance and operations of the bank. The researcher requested the respondent to indicate their highest level of academic qualification they held. This depicts that most of the employees working at commercial and development banks of Ethiopia are literate hence they are capable to adopt any strategic issues that the organization formulate and implement with aim of improving financial performance to survive in competitive environment it operate on.

Table: 3.5 Position in the organization

Position	Number	Percent
President	2	1.
Director	77	62.6
Manager	44	35.8
Total	123	100.0

Source: Researcher's Field Survey, 2021

The above table 3.5 indicates that the position of top level managers in their respective organization. Thus, 62.6 represent directors of both banks, 1.6 comprises for presidents of both banks and 35.8 consists for managers of the government banks. It inferred that majority of the respondents comprises for the directors of government banks.

To sum-up, it is concluded that the demographic features of both banks managers and top level employees has high work experience and academic profile, which will help them for strategic human resource development.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

In this section of analysis, Friedman test and Kandall's W. test is done (MilošSimić, (2016)). Both tests are used to find out the significance of difference between mean ranks of each of the selected factors affecting corporate leadership development strategy. To find out which factor/s is/are affecting corporate leadership development; from different theoretical, empirical and NBE's HR development manual was used. These factors consists of; Reward system, Lack of experience, Problem of coordination, Problem of poor strategic definition, Engagement of top management, Problem of change management , Absence of SI guideline , Lack of trust , Problems in applying management tools, e.g. BSC, and Problems of proper controlling mechanism.

Hypothesis, “there is no significant difference between mean ranks towards perception on factors affecting on corporate leadership development, Friedman test and Kendall’s W. test was used. Mean ranks were computed for all the items and Chi-square value also was computed with respective p-value. The results are summarized in Table 3.6

Table: 3.6 Friedman test and Kendall’s W. test

S.NO	Variables	Mean	Mean rank	Chi-square	p-value
1	Lack of experience	1.49	2.03	969.842	0.000**
2	Problem of change management	1.62	2.17		
3	Absence of SI Guideline	1.60	2.21		
4	Problem of poor strategic definition	3.24	3.94		
5	Problems in applying management tools, e.g. BSC.	4.67	5.17		
6	Reward system	5.73	6.46		
7	Engagement of top management	6.87	7.56		
8	Coordination	7.22	7.76		
9	Lack of trust	7.79	8.55		
10	Problems of proper controlling Mechanism	8.64	9.14		

****Denotes significant at 1% level**

Source: Researcher Survey, 2021

Table 3.6 reveals that since p value is less than 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1 per cent level of significance. Hence, it is concluded that there is significant difference between mean ranks towards factors affecting corporate leadership development.

The experience in banks is an important component to leadership development to achieve good result. The study found that among ten identified variables the respondents rank with 1.49 mean

and 1.003 standard deviation on the factor. Thus, both banks lack of experience are in first place with mean rank (2.03) by affecting corporate leadership development strategy program.

The study reveal that, about problem of change management based on this among ten identified variables the respondents rank with 1.62 mean and 0.996 standard deviation on the factor. Thus, both banks problem of change management are in second place with mean rank of (2.17) by affecting corporate leadership development strategy program.

The third top most influencing factor is absence of SI guideline in both banks. Based on this the respondents rank with 1.60 mean and 1.014 standard deviation on the factor. Thus, in both banks it is noticed that absence of SI guideline are in second place by the mean rank of (2.21) affecting corporate leadership development strategy program.

Strategic definition is important factors to understand companies' mission and vision statements. Based on this among ten identified variables the respondents rank with 3.24 mean and 0.445 standard deviation on the problem. It is observed that both banks problem of poor strategic definition are in fourth place with mean rank (3.94) by affecting corporate leadership development strategy implementations.

Problems in applying management tools, e.g. BSC, in both banks are the main problem or obstacle for corporate leadership problem. The study pointed out that the respondents rank with 4.67 mean and 0.473 standard deviation on the factor. Thus, in both banks problems in applying management tools, e.g. BSC, are in the fifth place with mean rank (5.17) by affecting corporate leadership development strategy..

The managerial working experience is the first most influencing factor. It is recommended that they should attract highly talented and experience persuade to ensure effective implementation of corporate leadership development strategy, thereby to have good performance.

In many organizations resistance to change management is the major problem. In corporate strategy there is always resistance from lower level employees. Therefore, it is suggested that the banks top leadership have create awareness on lower level employees to reduce resistance on change management.

Corporate strategy implementation guideline or Manuel is a basic thing for effective leadership development strategy implementation. Hence, it is recommended that both government banks have to prepare strategy implementation Manuel to curb the problem noticed, thereby to increase banks performance and to attract high calibre work force.

The most important thing is every organization's is employees have to understand the mission and vision statement of their company. Hence, it is suggested that there is an urgent need to create awareness for all employees to understand the mission and vision of their banks.

Applying management tools, for business organizations, like bank is the most paramount thing. By giving training and creating awareness is necessary to curb the problems related with in the application of management tools in the both banks to bring good leadership development strategy.

Recommendations

The managerial working experience is the first most influencing factor. It is recommended that they should attract highly talented and experience persuade to ensure effective implementation of corporate leadership development strategic policy, thereby to have good performance.

In many organizations resistance to change management is the major problem. In corporate leadership development strategy there is always resistance from lower level employees. Therefore, it is suggested that the banks top leadership have create awareness on lower level employees to reduce resistance on change management.

Corporate strategy implementation guideline or Manuel is a basic thing for effective leadership development strategy implementation. Hence, it is recommended that both government banks have to prepare strategy implementation Manuel to curb the problem noticed, thereby to increase banks talented leadership.

The most important thing is every organization is employees have to understand the mission and vision statement of their company. Hence, it is suggested that there is an urgent need to create awareness for all employees to understand the mission and vision of their banks. This will bring leaders those have to understand the importance of leadership development in the banks.

Applying management tools for business organizations like bank is the most paramount thing. By giving training and creating awareness is necessary to curb the problems related with in the application of management tools in the both banks in order to bring good leadership and banks performance.

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Democratic vs. Destructive Leadership: The Comparative Analysis of Foreign Policy Successes and Failures, President Trump vs. PM Dr, Abiy Ahmed

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Introduction

Leadership is a multifaceted concept, and interest about it “extends far back in to the history of social thought, and conceptions of it have fluctuated from the Hero concept to that of the leadership of the Common Man” (Dion, 2009). Contemporarily, leadership can be analyzed from three important angles: - political, economic and social perspectives in the study of social science and human life. This study is mainly dealing with one dominant aspect of leadership; political leadership that attracted attention in the prominent scholarly works of “classic authors such as Niccolò Machiavelli, Max Weber and Robert Michel’s” (Elcock, 2001), and it focuses on “governing, governance and allegiance roles political leaders play” (ibid.), identified as either Democratic or Destructive. Academically, political leadership can be explored from the personal behavior, psychological make-up and trait of the leader, and it will also be examined from the existing political system of a given state in the modern times. In order to explore, examine and categorize the type of political leadership pursued by Donald J. Trump and Dr. Abiy Ahmed, it is essential to define the key concepts of: Destructive and Democratic political leadership. Therefore, Destructive leadership is defined as “the systematic and repeated leadership style by a leader that violates the legitimate interest of the organization by undermining and/or sabotaging the organization’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of his/her subordinates” (The Leadership Quarterly, 2007). Destructive leadership model exhibits three vital categories of: “tyrannical, derailed, and supportive–disloyal leadership

behavior” (ibid.). On the other hand, democratic leadership is “defined as the performance of three functions: distributing responsibility among the membership, empowering group members, and aiding the group's decision-making process” (Gastil, 1994), and personally a democratic leader “will make the final decision, he/she invites other members of the team to contribute the decision-making process” (Bhatti, et.al, 2012:193). Based on the above definitions, this study attempted to comparatively analyze and assign the respective type of the political leadership that was pursued by Donald J. Trump (2017-19) and Dr. Abiy Ahmed (April, 2018-19). The findings of this study are supported and substantiated by the facts, the objective realities and comments, writings and research papers forwarded by different prominent scholars, political analysts, plus the findings mainly depended on the foreign and domestic policies both adopted, the political actions and measures both took, where the reports of mainstream media outlets and concerned national and international organizations were incorporated as the benchmarks in this study.

This study has the major objective of forwarding its findings whom among Donald J. Trump (2017-19) and Dr. Abiy Ahmed (2018-19) to be qualified in pursuing either the Democratic or Destructive political leadership. The comparative analysis was made on both leaders because both

- ❖ *The US (globally) and Ethiopia (regionally) are hegemonic powers,*
- ❖ *The US and Ethiopia are founding members of the UN having equal voting rights in the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA),*
- ❖ *Leaders being heads of government had constitutional mandate and prerogative on the foreign policy of their respective countries, and*
- ❖ *Leaders came unexpectedly to power reversing the political status-quo (anti-establishment / populist vs progressive) respectively.*

It is based on the above comparative parameters and the three levels of analysis of foreign policy in the international relations (System, Nation-state and Individual) that the resultant impact of their political leadership on their foreign policy achievements (successes & failures) had been explained in the overall international relations of the two states from multiple actors' perspective at the global level by exploring, explaining, and describing the answers for the following research questions:

- ❖ *Which leader was qualified to be either as democratic or destructive political leader? How is the particular type of political leadership exhibited and characterized? And,*
- ❖ *What were the impacts of the democratic and destructive political leadership on the foreign policy achievements (successes & failures) of each leader in the overall international relations of both states?*

2. Methodology

Methodologically, this study employed qualitative research approach that has the major task of “exploring a problem and developing a detailed understanding of a central phenomenon” (Creswell, 2012: 16). By using this approach, the study generated “results either in non-quantitative form or in the form which are not subjected to rigorous quantitative analysis” (Kothari, 2004:5) but only exploratory, explanatory and descriptive. The both qualitative and quantitative

data collecting methods used to gather both qualitative and quantitative data including: - the researcher's personal observation and professional judgments were used as primary data, and secondary data was gathered from desk-based review and examining of important and key documents including: books, research reports, various research strategic documents, national and international journals, plus public and private publications, newspapers, audio-visual and electronic sources, Text and Image analysis methods of data were used in forwarding the findings of this study. This article has six major parts, and it is further divided into sub-parts. Part one dealt with the introduction, part two dealt with the objectives of the study, part three mainly focused on methodology, part four discussed findings, part five wrapped up the conclusion and finally references are listed.

4.Results and Discussions

The research forwarded its major findings by conducting academic and scholarly investigation with the explicit identification of who (either Donald J. Trump or Dr. Abiy Ahmed) pursued and exhibited democratic or destructive political leadership? And, by exploring the impacts of the type of political leadership pursued on the foreign policy achievements (successes & failures) of the individual leader in the overall international relations of each state.

Foreign policy “refers to external affairs, particularly to decisions and actions taken by states in their dealings with other states or such external actors as international organizations, multinational corporations and other transnational actors” (Viotti and Kauppi, 1987:590). Foreign policy achievements (successes & failures) of the individual leader are dependent on the personal knowledge and experience in which understanding the three levels of analysis of foreign policy and their impacts deem very vital in guiding the leaders and their governments' foreign policy objectives and achieving national interests. The three levels of analysis of foreign policy in the international relations of states are defined by Jackson and Sorensen (2007:228), as:

1. *The systemic level (e.g., the distribution of power among states; their economic and political interdependence),*
2. *The nation - state level (e.g., type of government democratic or authoritarian; relations between the state apparatus and groups in society; the bureaucratic make-up of the state apparatus), and*
3. *The level of individual decision - maker (his/her way of thinking, basic beliefs, personal priorities).*

Based on this definition, what were the separate individual political decisions and actions taken by both leaders and the respective consequences in their dealings with other states which affected by the type of their separate political leadership? The nation - state level analysis of foreign policy can be affected by the domestic policy leaders pursue because “all in all internal policy and foreign relations are highly interrelated” (Shushay, 2018), and this is mainly dependent on the type of political leadership which exists in that particular state. For further understanding of the research topic and depicting the clear picture of the research findings, the study began with the very brief analysis of political biography and the life facts of both leaders, identified as the preliminary

evidences to understand the type of political leadership pursued by Donald J. Trump and Dr. Abiy Ahmed respectively.

Donald J. Trump: The Businessman turned Politician

The 45th president of the US (2017 –2020) **Donald John Trump** was born June 14, 1946, New York who is real-estate developer and businessman that owned, managed, or licensed his name to several products and outlets having some 500 companies involved in a wide range of businesses, entertainment and television (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2019), having no prior civic experience where “Trump did not have a career’s worth of political and government contacts to call on” (Wolff, 2018:30). Trump’s political career emerged, since the 1980s, when he periodically announced to the public about running for president, but those moments were widely dismissed in the press as publicity stunts. By rejoining the Republican Party, he maintained a high public profile during the 2012 presidential election even if he did not run for office at that time. But he gained much attention for repeatedly and falsely implying that Obama was not a natural-born U.S. citizen. In June 2015, Trump announced his candidacy in the 2016 U.S. presidential election, pledging to “make America great again (MAGA)” (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2019).

The Individual Level Analysis of President Trump’s Political Leadership (2017-20)

Donald J. Trump assumed the 45th presidency of US in January, 2017 which is the leader of the Western Liberal Democratic Order with the largest economic and military power in the world. Trump’s presidency (at the individual level of analysis) was unusual and peculiar in the US history for several twists and setbacks beginning the campaign trail, such as “the Russian investigation”, and other controversial and divisive policy directions in which since “the election campaign, some of Trump’s critics had warned that his presidency could create a unique and immediate constitutional crisis” (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2019), and this had come true since his immediate presidency. The post January, 20, 2017 political scenarios in the US have casted the doubt on Trump’s political fitness to lead the US both in the domestic and international stage. For instance, after assuming power, Trump’s unstable and incoherent type of political leadership began to take shape by numerous swift measures that were realized through signing several Executive Orders, depicted him to be an outsider, lacking experience and clear picture of the Washington politics which is the core and the nerve center of the US and global politics, thereby contributed in developing his anti-establishment nature and attitude towards the US government and international relations. As a result of this, contrary to his predecessors, Trump’s cabinet was the collection of personally loyal individuals who were “drawn from the billionaire class, largely financial institutions, and military and so on;” (Rosenman, 2017) exhibiting the personal style that “was unusual, if not unique, among national political figures in modern U.S. history” (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2019) because his team was comprised of Washington’s outsiders where most of his inner circle were assigned with their overnight responsibility for assembling a government, who had almost no any relevant experience as such and “nobody had a political background. Nobody had a policy background. Nobody had a legislative background” (Wolff, 2018:30). Concerning Trump’s type of political leadership, personal capacity and effectiveness, it was attached with his individual character, and as a president he began to vividly show and

expose it since the first months in office when, “Trump threw his power about as if it were an infinite resource. He growled threats, issued commands, picked quarrels, and played favorites” (Frum, 2018) which indicated the type of political leadership taking shape with Trump’s presidency in the USA (United States of America). Another vital scenario that revealed the type of political leadership he pursued could be examined in his relationship and use of the mainstream and social media where his twitter account had more than 40 million active and ardent followers. Trump efficiently used his Twitter account against the conservative mainstream media outlets, and his rivals across the isles by mainly undermining and ignoring the presidential moral and ethical standards in achieving his destructive, at a times disruptive and divisive political leadership when he “angrily attack Democrats and Republican rivals and critics, the news media, job-exporting corporations, and anyone else who had provoked his ire in comments [which he alleged to be] as aggressive, boastful, petty, and vulgar, [including he also scorned] the disability of a reporter he dislikes (ibid.). Trump’s potential damage to Americas’ respect for democratic values, principles and institutions and his totalitarian attitude went bare and wild since the early presidential campaign and immediately after the election he openly attacked freedom of the press and the rule of law by labeling and attacking unfavorable press reports about him as “fake news,” implying that the news organizations in question knowingly published falsehoods, frequently condemning the rival major news organizations as “the enemy of the American people,” using a phrase reminiscent of totalitarian societies. Furthermore, in contrary to “American democratic ideals and principles”, Trump praised “some of the world’s most brutal autocrats and he has taken every opportunity for self-enrichment, nepotism, and endless taxpayer-funded visits to his own properties, all while refusing the most basic measures of transparency, plus he dishonored the ideals of the country and turned its people against one another” (Foreign Policy and Security, 2018), and with all these premises he caused huge political discontent on the American elite where his “job approval rating has never been above 45% in Gallup numbers” (Cillizza, 2019). Trump was identified as the highly unpredictable and often inflammatory leader, and his supporters established theoretical frameworks in the field of psychology clearly describing his five (5) personal traits which he exhibited and adapted during his presidential tenure by summarizing them as follows: -

- 1) *Authoritarian Personality Syndrome [APS] that refers to the advocacy or enforcement of strict obedience to authority at the expense of personal freedom, and is commonly associated with a lack of concern for the opinions or needs of others.*
- 2) *Social Dominance Orientation (SDO)—different but related to [APS]—refers to people who have a preference for the societal hierarchy of groups, specifically with a structure in which the high-status groups have dominance over the low-status ones. A 2016 survey study of 406 American adults published in the journal “Personality and Individual Differences” found that those who scored high on both SDO and*

authoritarianism were those who intended to vote for Trump in the election (His Nationalist Inclinations).

- 3) *Prejudice: - Trump's shockingly direct a routine appeal to bigoted supporters when he calls Muslims "dangerous" and Mexican immigrants' "rapists" and "murderers," often in a blanket fashion. A new study has shown that support for Trump is correlated with a standard scale of modern racism.*
- 4) *Intergroup contact refers to contact with members of groups that are outside one's own, which has been experimentally shown to reduce prejudice. There is growing evidence that Trump's white supporters have experienced significantly less contact with minorities than other Americans. For example, a 2016 study found that "...the racial and ethnic isolation of Whites at the zip-code level is one of the strongest predictors of Trump support", and at last*
- 5) *Relative Deprivation refers to the experience of being deprived of something to which one believes they are entitled. It is the discontent felt when one compares their position in life to others who they feel are equal or inferior but has unfairly had more success than them. Trump supporters are simply angry that American jobs are being lost to Mexico and China, and they are experiencing relative deprivation, and are common among the swing states like Ohio, Michigan, and Pennsylvania (Azarian, 2017).*

What had been discussed so far above could be used as the logical point of departure in passing the judgment to the individual level analysis of President Trump's type of political leadership. The summary of President Trump's type of political leadership would be explained and described in the following part after the brief analysis of his administration major political features at the national level analysis of foreign policy.

The National Level Analysis of President Trump's Political Leadership (2017-20)

Trump's political leadership at the national level has its root from his populist agenda that is derived from populism which is 'profoundly illiberal and, in the end, directly undemocratic understanding of representative democracy' (Muller, 2011:6). Populism is "fundamentally a style of politics, in which "the people"—an imaginary moral monolith—is pitted against an enemy, typically "the elite" or, in nationalist populism, immigrants. It is antagonistic, divisive, and hostile to pluralism" (Gardner, 2018). Therefore, Trump's populist campaign theme and his administration's policy in general were divisive and hostile to pluralism where even his "proponents and its supporters exhibit a distinct social-psychological profile" (Muller, 2011:10), Trump and his supporters were attacking immigrants, Muslims and other minorities in the US and abroad. The above-mentioned psychological traits plus what had been discussed so far describe and designate Trump as a president who was pursuing destructive political leadership (the systematic and repeated leadership style by a leader that violates the legitimate interest of the state by undermining and/or sabotaging the government goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness) that

clearly and openly violated the legitimate interest of the US by undermining and /or sabotaging the US democratic system with its long-standing principles and values negatively affecting the well-being of the US citizens and the global society at large. Trump pursued “the Derailed” destructive political leadership that was clearly characterized by (Rubin, 2019) as the “mob-boss presidency” where he was characterized by “bragging about a plot to abuse power, using federal resources to enact political revenge. [And] he tried to induce wrongdoing with a pardon offer” (ibid.) in which he purposefully derailed the American Democratic system to his own destructive attitude, agenda and personal behavior that is contrary to Western Liberal Democratic Order where the US is its archangel.

Dr. Abiy Ahmed and the Type of Political Leadership

Prime Minister Dr. Abiy is the third head of government in the post-1991 Ethiopia which then was ruled by the Ethiopian People’s Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) that was “founded by the Tigray people’s Liberation Front (TPLF) in 1989” (Pausewang et.al, 2002:13-14). The Ethiopian state for the last 27 years was mainly characterized as the most totalitarian, authoritarian and repressive one, dominated by the Tigrayan ethnic minority elite of TPLF, well defined and characterized as:

Except for a brief period during the 2005 general election, the government has severely restricted the rights to freedom of expression and association, arbitrarily detained political opponents, intimidated journalists, shuttered media outlets, and made independent human rights and elections monitoring practically impossible. Citizens are unable to speak freely, organize political activities, or challenge government policies without fear of reprisal (Human Rights Watch 2010, 14–15).

Dr. Abiy who was born in Agaro, in southern Ethiopia on 15 August 1976 to an Oromo Muslim father and an Amhara Christian mother in the Jimma Zone, Oromia Regional State, has come to power when the Ethiopian state was mired in continuous political crisis with the deepest polarization and fragmentation of the public along ethnic lines. His ascension as Africa’s youngest leader was also predicated on the resignation of Premier Hailemariam Desalegn, who left in February, 2018 paving the way in institutionalizing “sustainable peace and democracy” (Dahir, 2018) in the country. Examining his short autobiography; as a teenager in 1990, he joined the armed struggle against the Marxist Derg regime, and after the 1991 political change in Ethiopia, he devoted hugely in advancing his military, academic and professional endeavor. Militarily, he had served in the Ethiopian Defense Force and rose to the rank of Lieutenant Colonel and assigned to serve in 1995 with the UN peacekeeping Ethiopian contingent in Rwanda. Academically, he graduated with the Master's Degree in Transformational Leadership from the University of Greenwich; London and got PhD degree in Peace and Security Studies from Addis Ababa University. He is also multi-lingual speaks fluent Afan Oromo, Amharic and Tigrinya, as well as English. In his career civil service (professionally), in 2007, he founded the Ethiopian Information Network Security Agency (INSA) and served as a board member of various public institutions such as Ethio-Telecom and Ethiopian TV. His political life commenced when he joined politics in 2010 as an ordinary OPDO (Oromo People’s Democratic Organization) member, before joining

the party's Executive Committee in 2015. In 2016, he briefly served as Minister of Science and Technology, and finally on 2 April, 2018 he became Prime Minister of the FDRE (BBC, 2018). According (Dahir, 2018), Dr. Abiy has shown his astuteness in politics with impressive academic and military credentials by hugely transforming the traditional, highly ethnicized, minority elite based oppressive and kleptocratic politics of the Ethiopian state in to democracy. PM. Dr. Abiy political leadership motto is “Medemer” that emphasizes on to the adherence of “Democracy” and “Rule of Law” in which he is being able to fulfill the following major achievements in the first six months by:

.....ending a decades-long schism in the Ethiopian Orthodox Church and by welcoming home exiled dissidents from all ends of the political spectrum, including the pro-democracy group Ginbot 7—which was branded a terrorist group by the government until Abiy came to power—and the Oromo Liberation Front [OLF], both of which held large rallies in the capital in September. Abiy has also warned against seeing ideological opponents as traitors or mortal foes, a characteristic of Ethiopian political culture since at least the 1970s (Gardner, 2018).

By achieving this, he has ensured “the opening of the country, its democratization as well as regional repositioning” (Gouriellec, 2018), with the “immediate end of an internet blackout, released journalists and critics, closed notorious prisons, and promised to open up the economy which was totally unthinkable during TPLF dominated government. Dr Abiy's rapid paces of democratic political reform include the following major political measures in the first six months of the post-April, 2018 period: -

- ❖ *May - frees thousands of political detainees, including opposition leader Andargachew Tsiege,*
- ❖ *5 June - lifts state of emergency two months early, and agreed to accept border ruling giving disputed territory to Eritrea,*
- ❖ *9 July - alongside the Eritrean president declares the end of war between the two countries, and on 11 September - reopened land border with Eritrea, and*
- ❖ *On, 16 October - appoints women to half of ministerial posts (BBC, 2018).*

By examining the above analysis and the overall positive domestic political achievements of Dr. Abiy’s leadership in this short period of time, this study found out that they are very significant and outstanding in comparison to the last 27 years of TPLF dominated EPRDF rule that was characterized by kleptocracy, endemic corruption. patron-clienteles and nepotism, combined with “consistent pattern of grave violations of human rights including torture, arbitrary killings, restrictions on freedom of the press and expression, denial of religious freedoms, and the politicized use of its notorious anti-terrorism legislation” (Allo,2014). Contrasting this objective reality and change in the Ethiopian politics, those who oppose Dr. Abiy political leadership began to label him “populist” by using the most common and severely compelling argument blatantly stating that “Abiy is a populist in the mold of Turkey’s Recep Tayyip Erdogan, India’s Narendra Modi, and U.S. President Donald Trump” (Gardner, 2018). But, with explicit scholarly counter

argument, this study had found out that the PM is not a populist, rather he is identified as a Utilitarian political leader who diligently worked to achieve Utilitarianism that is defined as a: -

Philosophical view or theory about how we should evaluate a wide range of things which involve choices those people face. Among the things that can be evaluated are actions, laws, policies, character traits, and moral codes. Utilitarianism is a form of consequentialism because it rests on the idea that it is the consequences or results of actions, laws, policies, etc. that determine whether they are good or bad, right or wrong in general, whatever is being evaluated, we ought to choose the one that will produce the best overall results. In the language of utilitarian's, we should choose the option that "maximizes utility," i.e., that action or policy that produces the largest amount of good (Internet Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2019).

This philosophical view has never existed let alone in Ethiopian politics but in its political dictionary, but. Dr. Abiy actions, policies, new legislations, measures so far taken and his political leadership approach proved to be Utilitarian political leader because "despite being a member of the ERPDF, he has mostly sidelined the party and appealed directly to the public over the heads of his colleagues" (Gardner, 2018), that was previously dominated by TPLF in the last 27 years of Ethiopian politics and ethnic policies that can be labeled as "Populist" because of its similar trends and political strategies of "Populism" that has a single defining characteristic where,

It may be the invocation of "the people" who are betrayed, wronged, or otherwise left vulnerable to forces outside their control. In fact, we find in the corpus that populism is typically a reaction to a deep crisis, real or perceived, in diverse and large democracies. Of course, the culprit of the crisis as well as the identity of the victimized people are highly contested and vary widely (Gagnon. 2018).

Based on the above definition and provided evidences, this study strongly refuted and denounced labeling Dr. Abiy government as a "Populist", rather it identified that Dr. Abiy government pursued democratic political leadership that practically achieved its political objectives by performing the three major functions of the democratic political leadership which include: "distributing responsibility among the membership, empowering group members, and aiding the group's decision-making process" (Gastil, 1994), thereby disproving the phony "populist" argument of his opponents where "it's a critique worth contemplating; it also happens to be wrong" (Gardner, 2018).

Comparative Analysis of Foreign Policy Successes & Failures: Trump vs. Dr. Abiy

The study found out that PM. Dr. Abiy pursued democratic political leadership with the utilitarian perspective in contrary to president Trump's destructive political leadership that he explicitly adhered to the populist political agenda. The next part analyzed comparatively the respective achievements (either success or failure) of both leaders in their foreign policy engagements. Political leadership manages both the domestic and foreign affairs of the state where "the internal and external affairs of a given country are inseparable like the two sides of a given coin. That is why the foreign policy of the nation is described as the reflection of its internal affairs" (Shushay,

2018), directly contributing either in the success or failure of the foreign policy engagements of leaders of states in the international relations.

President Trump's Foreign Policy Failures

Trump's foreign policy reflects his destructive political leadership that originated from his populist and anti-establishment policies which were "said to be simplistic, irresponsible, even irrational, pandering to people's short-term desires, etc." (Muller, 2011:10), and in one of his major themes of presidential campaign he claimed that: - "the United States had long been treated unfairly or taken advantage of by other countries, including by some traditional U.S. allies, and under Obama's leadership the United States had ceased to be respected in world affairs" (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2019). And with this policy he pitted the people against an enemy, typically "the elite" or, in nationalist populism. Trump's contribution in failing the US foreign policy was facilitated by his administration's "daily campaign against the nation's diplomats, intelligence community, law enforcement, and civil servants" (Foreign Policy and Security, 2018). Another important factor was the lack of his personal knowledge in the overall governmental and political sphere where there was "simply no subject, other than perhaps building construction that he had substantially mastered. Everything with him was off the cuff. Whatever he knew he seemed to have learned an hour before—and that was mostly half-baked" (Wolff, 2018:27). Those mishaps mainly contributed to the failures of the US foreign policy under the destructive political leadership of Trump since January 20, 2017, and marked his administration mainly to be characterized with the highest turnover of political and administrative appointees in the modern US political history. The major foreign policy failures of the US under Trump's destructive political leadership are described as follows: -

- ❖ *America has retreated from its global and moral leadership roles, alienated its democratic allies, and abandoned the bipartisan defense of liberal ideals that led to more than 70 years of security and prosperity. America is more isolated, less respected, and weaker at home, and ultimately less safe under President Trump's leadership.*
- ❖ *Surrendered its global leadership to China: -Trump began withdrawing America from the world, [including] the Paris Climate Agreement, Trans-Pacific Partnership, UNESCO, and global migration talks, among others; helping China fills the void at the United States' expense.*
- ❖ *Emboldening Putin's Russia with no plan to defend democracy: Trump has failed to formulate a serious response to ongoing assaults on U.S. democracy and those of our allies. On the contrary, by downplaying support for democracy and human rights and undermining efforts such as the Global Engagement Center, [his administration] hobbled efforts to counter Russian propaganda in Eastern Europe (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2019)*
- ❖ *Increased the chances of war in the Middle East with his across-the-board military escalations, blank check to impulsive U.S. partners, hostility to the Iran deal, and disinterest in peace making, made the Middle East less stable and increased the*

risks of conflict with silent surge of military operations from Afghanistan to Syria and Somalia, risking a slippery slope to getting America caught in another endless war with no end in sight. Trump's blank check and unconditional military support to countries such as Saudi Arabia escalated conflicts and inflamed the terrorist threat posed to the United States. Trump's decision to move the U.S. embassy to Jerusalem—without any effort to link the move to larger plans for Mideast peace— isolated America internationally and was condemned by close allies.

- ❖ *Weakened America's hand against Iran by unilaterally withdrawing from the Iran nuclear deal that blocked Iran's path to nuclear weapons, [he] undermined the most effective aspect of America's Iran policy. His saber-rattling has isolated America and its allies while convincing the world that failure of the nuclear deal ultimately as Trump's fault. By breaking America's commitment, Trump is making North Korea and other problems harder to solve by undercutting the value of a deal with Washington.*
- ❖ *Trump has contributed to the militarization of U.S. foreign policy by eroding of civilian control, —trampling on another set of long-standing norms that have benefitted the U.S. military and political system alike since its founding.*
- ❖ *Offending and alienating people everywhere: Trump's offensive, bigoted comments reportedly questioning whether America should accept Haitians or other immigrants from "shithole countries," Trump earned the condemnation of the United Nations, African Union leaders, the Vatican, and people everywhere.*
- ❖ *America's approval ratings were sinking: in the six months after Trump took office, global confidence in the U.S. president sunk from 64 percent to 22 percent.*
- ❖ *Gutting and undercutting American diplomacy Trump tore down the U.S. Department of State, an irreplaceable pillar of American influence around the world, saving a few dollars in the short run at the cost of a more dangerous world. Pushed on his dangerous lack of nominees, Trump declared, "I'm the only one that matters!" (Foreign Policy and Security, 2018).*
- ❖ *Trump broke with international norms to back Israeli positions. In 2017, the president recognized contested, Jerusalem as Israel's capital, and he signed a presidential proclamation to recognize Israel's full sovereignty over the Golan Heights, saying: "This was a long time in the making. Should have taken place many decades ago." (DW.COM, 2018).*
- ❖ *Trump has withdrawn the US from the Intermediate-range Nuclear Forces (INF) treaty (Borger, 2019).*

These were the major foreign policy failures of the US under Trump's destructive political leadership that contradicted the long-standing American principles of democracy and its core values and fundamental ideas which are having long term negative consequences in the international relations of the US with multiple actors at the global level. In short, "the president's unpredictability once worked to his advantage—but now, it is producing a mounting list of foreign-

policy failures” (Frum, 2018) in which the president’s character was identified and clearly portrayed grossly as “the conduct of a movie mob boss, not a president. Trump is so brazened he’d rather lie to make himself appear more politically vengeful than tell the truth that his suggestion apparently was rebuffed” (Rubin, 2019). The only success of president Trump’s foreign policy was the promotion and advertisement of his business, and this was effective because the “Trump” brand of products was highly publicized at the global market by putting the US foreign policy objectives and national interest at the altar of his personal fame, adventure, financial gain, wealth generation and business success.

Prime Minister Dr. Abiy Foreign Policy Successes

PM. Dr. Abiy political leadership “implemented several reforms across the political, economic, diplomatic and social spheres” (Mumbere, 2019) of Ethiopia, and it was identified as democratic by different scholars, politicians and mainstream media outlets based on the objective reality and the political outcomes of his administration in a very short span of time that was derived from his leadership motto of “Medemer” which is resonating across Ethiopia’s national boundary. His leadership motto of “Medemer” has made the U-Turn in the Ethiopian foreign policy objectives to the right direction by departing from the last 27 years policy of policing the region that flared implicit and explicit hostility and suspicion in the Horn of Africa, in which

Ethiopia has long been an imperfect hegemony. Indeed, the size of the country and its population—as well as its location and history—mean that Ethiopia has stood out as the regional power. This is also clear from its foreign policy which is ‘characterized by a relationship of dominance over and assumption of allegiance from its neighbors’; an attitude which paradoxically could lead to further destabilization (Gouriellec, 2018).

PM. Dr. Abiy democratic political leadership has hugely contributed mainly in building confidence and transforming the Region’s image where for the first time in several decades when “World leaders gather in New York [in 2018] to tackle a plethora of global problems, from climate change and migration to humanitarian disasters and war. Amid all these challenges, there is at least one positive note: The Horn of Africa’s swift and crucial diplomatic turnaround (Dahir, 2018). This swift and crucial diplomatic turnaround in the region was the undeniable positive outcome (achievements) of the following major successes in Ethiopia’s foreign policy and its international relations at the regional, continental and global levels by the democratic leadership model of PM Dr. Abiy and his administration in which he

- ❖ *Has prioritized regional integration with clear strategy, and provided an opportunity to pursue new relationships without the legacy of historical baggage, reducing the prospect of political competition in the Horn*
- ❖ *Reached out to long-time foe Eritrea, saying Ethiopia by fully accepting the terms of an agreement signed in 2000 which ended the war between the two nations over a disputed border.*
- ❖ *Cooled tense relations with Egypt over the Nile hydro-politics, flew to Mogadishu to solidify bilateral and trade relations, and oversaw the first meeting in two years*

between South Sudanese president Salva Kiir and his arch-rival, Riek Machar (Dahir, 2018).

- ❖ *Political leaders, such as Israeli's Premier, US Acting Assistant Secretary of State for African Affairs and senior officials of Saudi Arabia and China have all come and visited Ethiopia and discussed with government officials on ways to solidify the relations between their respective countries and Ethiopia (Shushay, 2018).*
- ❖ *Dr. Abiy supported Eritrea from the cold by convincing the lifting of UN Security Council (UNSC) sanctions and allowing it back into the East African trading bloc IGAD. Nations have started work on the technical details of cooperation.*
- ❖ *The Horn of Africa's swift and crucial diplomatic turnaround. After decades of hostility and rivalry, a recent thaw in relations between nations in the region has shocked observers and brought hope for long-term peace (Dahir, 2018).*
- ❖ *PM. Dr. Abiy democratic political leadership is also important in recognizing Ethiopia's benefits from an international context that is highly favorable both to the role of a hegemony and to the regime's strategy which attempts to exploit the resources offered by the international system in an effort to gain international legitimacy (Gouriellec, 2018).*

The above-mentioned foreign policy successes were the outcome PM Dr. Abiy's democratic leadership, that was all inclusive aiming the overall stability, peace, security and mutual development of the Horn of African and the continents people with other global partners. In short PM Dr. Abiy's democratic leadership was an important milestone in the foreign policy success and ensuring Ethiopia's dominant position in all aspects of its international relations at the regional, continental and global levels.

5. Conclusion

The study found out that the US foreign policy was hugely failing and continued to fail with president Trump pursuing destructive political leadership (populist and anti-establishment), in contrary to PM. Dr. Abiy who pursued democratic political leadership that achieved the highest foreign policy success. With such stark differences in the type of political leadership between the two leaders, what made them similar was, both made U-turn in the policies pursued by both states governments for long time at the domestic and foreign aspects of the political, economic and social set-ups. But to conclude this study, the record and the results so far discussed are clear: President Trump and his destructive political leadership with the populist and anti-establishment policies were contrary to the long-standing American principles of democracy and its core values and fundamental ideas. This needlessly alienated the US at the regional, continental and global levels from its allies; stoked tensions and heightened risks by damaging its credibility; squandered the goodwill of people everywhere; and surrendered the high ground of America's moral and global leadership. Trump dishonored the ideals of the country and turned its people against one another. Trump committed serious, lasting damage to America's security at home and standing in the world. One year later, the country was divided and distracted by Trump's foreign policy from the challenges and opportunities of a fast-changing world, and the American people were less safe

with his cumulative foreign policy failures. On the other hand, PM Dr. Abiy's democratic leadership had fruitful foreign policy successes that guaranteed the overall stability, peace, security and mutual development of the peoples and states of the Horn and that of Africa's with other global partners by tearing apart divisive and separatist walls of hatred, envy and suspicion by building constructive, uniting and cooperating bridges in contrary to Trump who built the long wall at the southern border of the US which negatively characterized the US politically, economically and socially across the globe being the icon and statue of hatred, envy and suspicion in the globalized, interdependent world. Another important issue concerning these two leaders and their foreign policy paradox were the following: -

- ❖ While the US used Saudi Arabia and the Gulf states as proxy fighters in Yemen by committing heinous crimes against humanity, Dr Abiy and Ethiopia used them to be agents of peace with Eritrea and the other Horn states,
- ❖ ICC and other rights groups have focused on American War Crimes in Iraq and Afghanistan, whereas since Dr. Abiy came to power Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch witnessed positive and radical transformations in Ethiopia's Human Rights record,
- ❖ Trump was very busy in scaring foreign investors and the flow of FDI (Foreign Direct Investment) got minimum, in contrary Ethiopia attracted foreign investors and the flow of FDI by opening the economy and exercising new liberal economic policies.

Finally, what made both leaders similar in terms of their domestic policies and citizens' outlook regarding their leadership is its divisive nature, where President Trump was populist who stirred national division where his supporters are still attacking immigrants, Muslims and other minorities in the US and abroad. At the same token, PM Dr, Abiy is a utilitarian political leader focusing on uniting the Ethiopian people who were purposefully divided across ethno-linguistic lines that inculcated mistrust and hatred for the last 27 years for the sole agenda of ensuring the continuity of kleptocratic elite based TPLF rule. As a result of this, there is domestic political division among those who are the die-hard supporters of the TPLF dominated rent-seeking and repressive rule and those who support the new change that is in full swing since April, 2018 but continuously marred by deliberate political, economic and social tragedies, conspiracies and sabotages.

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THEME 6 ENVIRONMENT & DEVELOPMENT

Climate Change Adaptation Response and Its Impact on Household Food Security

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Abstract

The impact of climate variability and extremes on agriculture and food security is severe on countries like Ethiopia which heavily depend on rainfed subsistence agriculture. This study examines the impact of climate variability on household food security and determinant factors for the adaptation response in Basona Werana, central highland of Ethiopia. Data were collected from randomly selected 138 sample households, key informants and National Meteorological Agency. Rainfall and temperature trend and variability were analyzed using Linear regression of annual and seasonal rainfall patterns was used and Precipitation Concentration Index to determine distribution behavior. Household food security was determined using Household Food Insecurity Access Scale and Food Consumption score. Tobit model was used to examine climate change adaptation option, while, ordered logistic regression was employed to examine the contribution of climate change adaptation on household food security status from the food consumption dimension. In the study site increasing of minimum and maximum temperature and decreasing and variable annual and spring season rainfall was observed. The site has experienced recurrent drought for the last 35 years. Farmers were practicing biophysical soil and water conservation technologies, agro-forestry, small scale irrigation, livelihood diversification. The study identified extension advisory service, training access, farm size; sex, flood frequency, and credit access determine farmer's climate change adaptation options. Household food insecurity access Scale and Food consumption score analysis shows that food insecurity is high in the study sites. Household food security status was influenced by climate variably and limited adaptation responses. The study suggests the need of feasible soil and water conservation, and livelihood diversification intervention to ensure household food security.

Key words: Adaptation, Climate, Variability, Food security, HFIAS

1. Introduction

Climate change and variability are the most significant challenges facing people and environment of the world (SNV, 2012). Human-induced climate change and extreme events are affecting the wider environment and the wellbeing of peoples in the world (Herrero et al., 2010; Rao et al., 2015; 2019). The more severe impact of climate change and extremes is expected due to past residual effects and continuous emission of greenhouse gases (Part, 2014). Thus, billions of people particularly in developing countries could face serious water shortage, food insecurity, and more related risk (Shukla et al., 2019). The African continent in general and the Ethiopian economy in particular is heavily dependent on rain fed subsistence agriculture (Mahoo et al., 2013; Thornton, 2010). The Ethiopian agriculture, health, and water sectors have been repeatedly affected by climate change extremes (Change, 2007). The agriculture sector and food security are most vulnerable due to weak adaptive capacity to respond and benefit from the changing climate (Ayal and Leal Filho, 2017). Ethiopia is frequently depicted as a drought stricken country for so long. Hence, the estimation of the severity, spatial extent, frequency of droughts, lack of resources planning and management cause the country chronically food insecure for decades. Adaptation is an adjustment of a human and natural system to expected impact of climate change (Bethel, 2018). Drought is the main concern in North Shewa Zone, Ethiopia like Basona Werana Woreda, recent high frequency and larger area coverage is also becoming drought prone. According to Basona Werana Woreda agricultural office report Wayous Kebele is one of frequently face climate change hazards in the area this cause soil erosion and degradation this result the Kebele become one of frequent food aided Kebele. As large the zone belongs to one of the most vulnerable places to climate variability in the country a lot of population is already food insecure in Amhara Regional State the state has been reported that only nearly 20% of the households cover their food requirements from their own production for three months only in many areas of the region, mainly due to natural hazards, uneven distribution of rainfall, land degradation and pest damage which all are related to climate variability (BoARD, 2016). This clearly indicates the relevance of empirical research that considers the impact of climate change extremes on food security at the micro and household level. Therefore, this research examines the impact of climate change on household food security and determinants of adaptation responses which are crucial for the stakeholders' effort to ensure household food security.

Ethiopia agricultural sector dominate by small scale farmers who relay on low input and low production rain fed mixed farming with traditional technologies. The Ethiopia government has given top priority to the sector and has taken steps to enlarge productivity. However, various obstacles are grasp back the main causes of inadequate production or less than expected production due to disaster like drought, which frequently causes famine and floods. As follows climate connected disaster makes the nation dependent on food aid. (Gutu, 2019). Facing climate change-induced hazards may not be new for the Ethiopian peoples. The challenges are both diversified and frequent hazards in the current climate system. Now days the magnitude

and number of hazards are beyond the control of local people. In addition, the mitigation plans taken so far were reactive while it should rather have been preventive. In addition, the practical measures taken with the aim of developing adaptation strategies and enhancing capacities of different stakeholders was not adequate.

According to FAO, 95% annual gross total agricultural output of the country comes from smallholder agriculture and only 5% commercial farms contribute to gross total agricultural output (FAO, 2016). These large numbers of smallholder farmers need intervention than ever. This intervention is to cope up with different calamities includes climate change impact. Climate change impact varies with different land formation the intervention also varies since it depends on the agrological and land formation of the area. The country is extremely vulnerable to the least change in climate. If the rain is late, does not arrive or irregular, it immediately result in an increase in the number of people who need help because they are already living on the margins of life. According to Amhara regional Disaster prevention and Preparedness Bureau report in 2017, food security status of the region becomes severe even before about 42% of the total population and 52 Woreda are recognized as food insecure and drought-prone respectively. North Shewa administrative zone, which are surplus- producing areas before the two decades, became food insecure and livelihood vulnerability trap (Bethel,2018). Community perception regarding climate change is the root for the necessary replay mechanisms to cope with climate disaster the degree of awareness within the community controls the extent of execution that requires to tackles the problem.

Lack of awareness can cause arbitration to misappropriate understanding. Understand the level of awareness among the community support the implementation of climate change adaption option to tackle problem. To bring a sustainable solution for climate change impact on household food security status local adaptation mechanizes are needed current studies are needed due to variability of climate change events are still existing problem in the study area. This shows that the climate change response mechanism should be reviewed. However, only few researches are conducted that link people perception on the climate change and their adaptation response strategies determinate factors, impact to household food security to asses those this study employed on the study area. These results of the study were used as an input for the government and other stakeholders working on the area of climate change adaptation impact on household food security. According to Basona Werena Agricultural office report, majority of the residents in the Wayau kebele face frequent climate change effect like flood, landslide which caused crop failure throughout the kebele. This has made 93% of the household to be dependent on government food aid in 2017/2018 budget year. In 2019/2020 budget year, from the total of 1267 households 1252 households continued receiving government food aids. The figures show that climate change impact on Wayau kebele is increasing time to time which as a result the residents become more dependent on government food aids. To provide a sustainable intervention for climate change impact in household food security status, climate change adaptation is one of the options. Failing to identify determinate factors of climate adaptation has made sustainable intervention incomplete in Wayau kebele. According to Basona

Werena Agricultural office recommendation, identifying determinate factors of climate adaptation option is highly needed. The impacts of climate change should be known and studied in terms of local people, as well as the right perception of the residents should be understood. Otherwise, it would be impossible to use and apply adaptation actions. In order to fill the gap seen in Basona Werana Woreda Wayau Kebele this research were carried out with a focus on understanding the perceptions of people, assessing climate change adaptation strategies and identifying determinate factors contributing on household food security status of the residents.

The questions of this research were to:

1. Does the level of perception of the people about the existence of climate variability or change affect climate change adaptation option?
2. What are the impacts of climate change adaptation on food security?
3. What is the major determinates factors of adaptation strategies on household food security?

2.Methodology

2.1. Description of the Study Area and Research Methods

Location of Basona Worena woreda

This study was carried out in one kebeles in the Woreda Basona Worena. The woreda is one of the 10 woreda of the North Shewa Zone in Amhara National Regional State the woreda is located in the north at a distance of 130 km from Addis Ababa on the main road to Dessie. It is located between 9° 38'00''-09°41'00'' North Latitude and 39°30'00''-39°32'00'' East longitudes (MoA, 2016).

This study was conducted at *Wayou Kebele* depicted below.

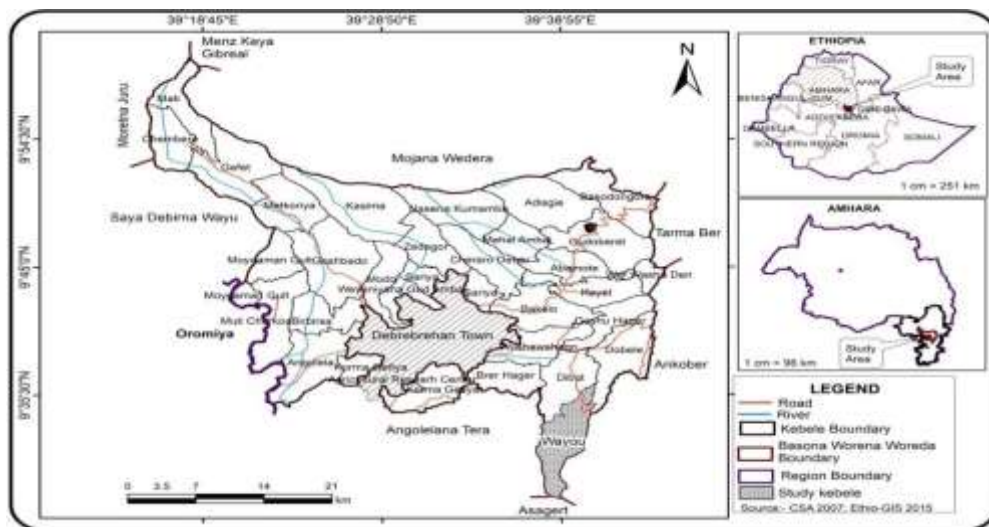


Figure 1: Map of the study area Source: CSA 2007, Ethio-GIS 2015

2.2. Sampling Design and Procedure

In the North Shewa Zone Basona Werana Woreda there are thirty-one kebeles. There as the report of Woreda administrators Wayou Kebele were selected due to frequently expose to climate change impact and persistent food insecurity. Wayou Kebele was 98% of total household dependent of government aid this due to climate change impact from the past many years this make the resident persistently food insecure and according to national disaster risk management commission and Basona Werana Woreda agricultural office report out of thirty one kebeles Wayou kebele is one of severely and frequently affect by climate change events and cause food insecurity on resident households. Reason for this Wayou kebele was selected purposive sampling method.

Wayou kebele one of food insecure Kebele in North Shewa zone in Amhara regional state and frequently exposure to drought for the last four consecutive years due to climate change. National meteorology agency the degree of exposure to climate variability and impact and physical accessibility in the kebele is high (NMA, 2016).

The appropriate sample size for this study for household survey questionnaire, were used a Cochran (1977) formula at 95% confidence level.

Where 'Z' is 95% confidence level/limit, 'P' is 0.1 proportions of the population to be include in the sample, i.e. 10%, 'q' is $1 - p$, 'N' is the total population, 'd' is marginal error or degree of accuracy desired 0.05, was the desired sample size when the population greater than 10,000 and 'n' is number of sample size when the population is less than 10,000.

138 sample households were the sample size for the study.

Individual households from each selected by simple random sampling method were selected from kebele households head list were used, every Kth/P every 7thfarmers in the sample frame select after the first observation was pick randomly from 1030 male head household and 237 female head households. Total 138 households of the study area have equal and independent chance of being included for the sample. In addition, key informant interview was conducted to agricultural office leaders and agricultural and rural development experts. Moreover kebele agricultural and rural development experts and kebele administrators from kebele were participating through purposive sampling.

Moreover, data were collected from key informants and NMA. Thematic content analysis was applied to analyze the qualitative data. Quantitative data collected from sample households were analyzed using descriptive statistics, Household Food Insecurity Access Scale, Food Consumption Score, and Ordered Logit Regression Model. Likewise temperature and rainfall data obtained from national meteorological agency were analyzed using precipitation concentration Index and Mann-Kendall test to determine distribution behavior

and trends. For this study McKee et al. (1993) classification were applied from moderate to extreme drought classification. Household Food Insecurity Access Scale Score (HFIAS) and Food Consumption Score used to determine food security from utilization dimension considering eight food groups within a week. Ordered logit regression model was used to identify factors affecting household level of dietary diversity, food frequency, and relative nutritional (Food consumption score). Tobit Regression Model used to empirically identify the determinants of climate change adoption status of sample households. Food Insecurity Access Prevalence this indicator is used to report food insecurity (access) prevalence and make geographic targeting decisions through categorization of domain questions. (Gemma et. al, 2015).

4.Results and Discussions

4.1. Demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of sample respondents

Out of the total of 138 respondents, 26.1 % were food secure, 39.1% were mildly food insecure and 34.8% were moderately food insecure households. Result from agricultural households in Basona Werena Woreda of the Wayo kebele this section briefly summarizes farmers' adaptation options in response to climate variability and change. In this study adaptation options for climate variability and change farmers used includes using Soil and water conservation, small-scale irrigation, crop diversification , agro-forestry, diversification of sources of livelihood, were used to measure adaptation status of sample households. Farmers who were applying one or more strategy it could be traditional or modern way consider to be adopter and those farmers in sample study doesn't apply all of them consider non-adopter. Result shows that 87 (63.04%) of the sample respondents are engaged in climate change adaptation strategies. Nevertheless, the number of farmers who did not adjust their farming practices in response to climate variability and change 51(37.96%) is found to be large in the study locality.

4.2.Climate change and variability trends of the study area

This section makes a brief summary of the situation of climate change and variability in the Basona Werena Woreda, North Shewa, Zone Amhara region which are important for this study. the table future explain that the four season maximum and minimum temperature, rainfall distribution the past 30 years in the study area.

Table 1: Slope and significant level of trends in annual and seasonal climate parameters

Climate Parameters	Season	Slope	P-value	Mean	Min	Max
Maximum temperature (°C)	Summer	0.006	0.581	19.65	18.68	21.27
	Autumn	0.032	0.003***	18.86	17.37	19.90
	Winter	0.029	0.006***	19.77	18.50	20.63
	Spring	0.034	0.025**	21.03	19.43	22.25
Minimum temperature (°C)	Summer	0.019	0.031**	8.35	7.48	9.25
	Autumn	0.014	0.38	4.37	3.13	5.83
	Winter	0.012	0.662	4.60	1.80	7.13
	Spring	0.013	0.447	7.68	5.65	9.56
Rainfall (MM)	Summer	5.851	0.006***	626.0647	341.8	817.7
	Autumn	-0.115	0.887	107.1529	27.3	175.8
	Winter	-0.555	0.298	36.24706	0.8	90.8
	Spring	-0.139	0.888	145.6853	40.3	300.6

Source: own design based on the satellite data, 2020

4.3. Severity of drought

This study was focused on meteorological drought, which can be expressed by the so-called drought indices. According to Agnew and Chappel (1999) drought severity assessment method, shows that the drought severity scales in the study area between the years 1984-2014. Extreme droughts observed in the study area in the year 1991, 1992, 1994, 1997, 1998, 2009, 2013 and

2014 (-2.14632, -6.13027, -1.77513, -7.43661,-1.7602, -8.52684, -3.10865 and -10.5985respectively). Severe drought appeared in 1995 (-1.582), moderate drought shows in the years 1984, 1987, 1989 and 2002 (-0.38966, -0.47571,-0.55933,-0.60912 and -1.18327 respectively).

The rest year was not observed drought in the study area. Drought severity shows that the study area had sever climate change impact this gives evidence that the study kebele food security status highly impacted on climate change due to drought. Furthermore the meteorological drought indicate that severity of drought contribute directly to food security of household status.

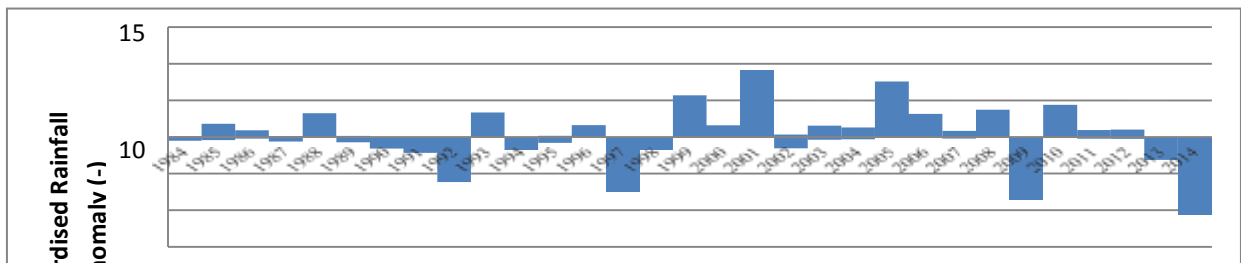


Figure 2: Drought severity source: NMA (2020)

4.4. Climate Variability and Extremes Adaptation Response

Based on the data collected from the farm households of Basona Werana Woreda, Wayou Kebele this sub-topic investigated whether farm households made some adjustments in their farming practices in response to the long-term changes in temperature and rainfall variability by adapting some particular strategies. Adaptation is well-planned and applied for long term response climate change and induced shock. Climate change accounts for a significant reduction in renewable surface water and ground water storage in most dry regions. Climate variability in relation to water scarcity results in serious environmental and social consequences that not only threaten agricultural production.

To cope with these risks, farmers decided to perform their adaptation response by adjusting or adapting their farming practices. More specifically, adaptation is pressing to reduce the vulnerability to the adverse impacts of climate change, maintain the rural livelihood of poor communities, and ensure food security.

Table 2: Farmers Adaptation strategies adopters and non-adopters and food security status

Climate change adaptation measure		Food Consumption Score (%)			Total	Chi-square	P-value
		Acceptable	Borderline	Poor			
Soil and water conservation	Adopters	38 (80.9)	31 (54.4)	3 (8.8)	72 (52.2)	41.208	.000***
	Non-adopters	9 (19.1)	26 (45.6)	31 (91.2)	66 (47.8)		
Irrigation	Adopters	40 (85.1)	41 (71.9)	8 (23.5)	89 (64.5)	35.012	.000***
	Non-adopters	7 (14.9)	16 (28.1)	26 (76.5)	49 (35.5)		
Grow crop varieties	Adopters	44 (93.6)	45 (78.9)	16 (47.1)	105 (76.1)	23.941	.000***
	Non-adopters	3 (6.4)	12 (21.1)	18 (52.9)	33 (23.9)		
Agro-forestry	Adopters	16 (34.0)	10 (17.5)	5 (14.7)	31 (22.5)	5.585	.051**
	Non-adopters	31 (66.0)	47 (82.5)	29 (85.3)	107 (77.5)		
Livelihood diversification	Adopters	37 (78.7)	35 (61.4)	10 (29.4)	10 (29.4)	20.054	.000***
	Non-adopters	10 (21.3)	22 (38.6)	24 (70.6)	56 (40.6)		

Table 2 shows farmers were practicing biophysical and livelihood adjustments to manage the adverse impact of climate variability and ensure food security. Farmers were implementing biophysical soil and water conservation measures including stone bound, trench, mulching, area closure, strip cropping, contour sloughing, check dam and crop rotation to adapt climate variability and extreme events. The presence of statically significant ($p < 0.000$) difference

between soil and water conservation adopters and non-adopters food consumption score confirms that biophysical soil and water conservation measures helped them to adapt the adverse impact of climate variability. Key informants and FGD participants also explained that biophysical soil and water conservation measures reduced the formation and expiation of gully, landslide, crop damage by flood, flooding of grazing land, reduce soil erosion & runoff and improved soil moisture in the cultivated and communal grazing land. Further, underlined that farmers have observed the positive effect of the biophysical soil and water measures on their.

land fertility, soil moisture, and agricultural production they have requested more soil and water conservation resource support that food aid. This means, farmers didn't develop dependency syndrome and rather seeking support for sustainable management land management. Similar study done in Ghana indicates that adaption capacity- building resources and improved the adaptive capacity of farm households to mitigate projected climate change impacts on their livelihood and household well-being (Assan et al., 2018). In key informant interview Basona Werena administrator asked an informal question what is the reason farmer of the kebele practiced SWC at the communal land and what is the major problem to on climate change adaption? He answered "The kebele was vulnerable to climate hazard like floods, decline land fertility, deforestation, erratic rainfall, frequent drought, land degradation, and other climate related hazards. For this reason the farmers presented in the communal land every day this is to check which or where part of the kebele is affected by the hazard and always ready to give a response to the hazard. The major adaption problem on the kebele is the cost of climate change adaption technologies. It have high cost, budget is one of the problem most of the budget is applying for food aid there is savoir climate change hazard in the kebele due there is frequent crop failure in the kebele so that more budget need to address household food security. The hazard didn't give us time so we apply the budget more for food aid that is the major problem."

Irrigation: about 89 (64.5%) of respondents were practicing small scale irrigation to produce various types of cereal crops, vegetables and fruits. 85.1% of small scale irrigation adopters food consumption score were acceptable, whereas 76.5% of small scale irrigation non adopter sample households food consumption score was poor. The chi-square result shows the existence of statistically significant ($p < 0.000$) difference food security status among small scale irrigation adopters and non-adopters sample household farmers. Thus, small scale irrigation could play crucial role to adapt erratic rainfall distribution and recurrent drought and hence, ensure household food security.

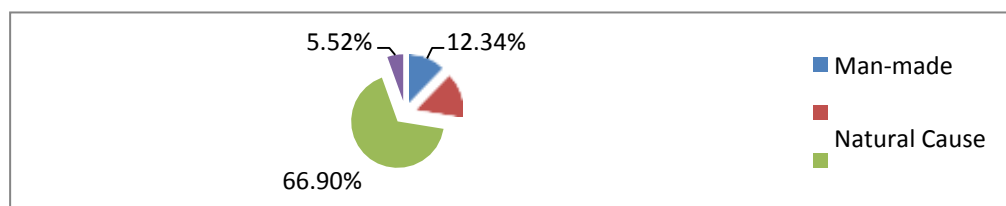
Growing Crop Varieties: quite diverse cereal crops (e.g. Sorghum, Wheat, Maize, Teff, and Barley), pulses (field pen, bean, and chick pen), vegetables (tomato, onion, green pepper) and fruits produced in the study area. 76.1% of sample households grow diverse crop variety. The food security status of sample households found to be statically significantly ($p < 0.000$) better than those farmers depend on growing less diversified crop, vegetable and fruit varieties.

Key informants reported that farmers were encouraged to diversify drought resistant and high yield varieties. Livelihood diversification particularly tends to climate resilience and reducing pressure on the natural resource base could reduce risks. Cognizant the importance 59.4% of sample households engaged in diverse on-farm and off-farm income generating activities. We found significant ($p < 0.000$) food security status difference among sample households who participating in diverse income generating activities. Non-agriculture-based livelihoods are likely to play an increasingly important role in building resilience among agricultural populations due to projected population growth patterns as well as potential climate change impacts (FAO, 2016). Agro-forestry is a farming practice which integrates agriculture and forestry. About 22.5% of sample respondents adopt the integration of crop, livestock and forestry farming in a same plot.

A majority of non-adopter of agro-forestry sample household farmer's food consumption were borderline (43.9%) and poor (27.1%), whereas, majority of agro-forestry adopters' food consumption found to be acceptable. The result shows food security variation between agro-forestry adopters and non-adopters was visible ($p < 0.05$). The current findings align with other studies association membership was all positively associated adaptation methods, likely denoting the role of access to information and other resource which empower the farm household to adopt such climate-risk coping strategies including agro- forestry (Ali, 2017).

Farmers' perception of the causes of climate change and variability

Farmers' perceived causes to change and variation in climate of the earth 66.9% of total perceived the combination both man-made and super-natural forces are the cause for the change. 15.25% and 12.34 % respondents perceived the cause is only natural cause, and only man-made cause respectively. The remains 5.52% of the respondents are they did not know the cause of the climate change and variability key informants of the Wayou Kebele of listed activities like deforestation, limiting knowledge on how to use natural resources, land degradation and soil erosion, frequent agricultural flow without rest, over-population and other related issues as the man made cause to climate change and variability.



*Figure 3: Perceived cause of climate change and variability,
Source: own survey data, 2020*

4.5.Determinants of household's food security status

On this section the main part of the discussion is the competing factor explain here is analysis of contribution of climate change adaption strategies on household food security status.

Ordered logistic regression due to the dependent variable the estimated results of the model of the maximum likelihood of the result and the marginal effects are analyzed. On food consumption score analysis a total of 12 explanatory variables were used to compute the econometric model in order to identify determinate factor that were contribution on food consumption of the sample household the result show that food consumption score is affect by cultivated land hectare increase food consumption score increase that means their significant difference in the three categories of food consumption score the contribution were positive and significant at ($p < 0.1$) level of significant. The result also indicate that a with a history of increases crop failure were odds of 0.60 times more likely decrease food consumption score among sample households the significant at ($p < 0.01$) level of significant. As well as household food consumption score were determine by use of climate change adaption measure. Sample households that were used soil and water conservation odds of 3.25 times more likely to have better food consumption score comparing those how are not using at significant ($p < 0.05$) level of significant. Similar to this sample household were used small scale irrigation odds of 3.00 times more likely improved food consumption score than those not using small scale irrigation the significant at ($p < 0.05$) level of significant marginal effect indicate that those farmers households not practice small scale irrigation their household food security status were negatively affected. The result further shown that sample household who were more active in agro- forestry in their land and beyond odds of 2.4 times more likely increase their food consumption score than not much active sample household the significant at ($p < 0.1$) level of significant and diversification of new crop variety significantly influence sample household food security status those how were diversifying new crop varieties odds of 3.03 times more like to household food security status than those how were not diversified new crop at significant of ($p < 0.05$) significant level. Addition to this the measured result show sample households they were diversified their livelihood odds of 3.06 times more like to have acceptable level of household food consumption score comparing with those how were not diversified their livelihood the significant at ($p < 0.05$) level of significant.

Table 3: Ordinal logistic regression of household's food consumption score

FCS	Odds Ratio	Marginal effect dy/dx	Std. Err	z	P> z
SEX	.9264545	.0132362	.4898444	-0.14	0.885
AGEHH	.9868767	.0022889	.0151842	-0.86	0.391
FAMSIZ	1.012492	-.002151	.108616	0.12	0.908
NLIVESTO	.9361454	.0114332	.0604283	-1.02	0.307
CULAND	.6057197	.0868671	.1625856	-1.87	0.062**
CROPFAI0	.6099925	.0856491	.0727549	-4.14	0.000***
SWC	3.25961	-.2047377	1.608966	2.39	0.017**
IRRIGATI	3.007288	-.1907775	1.354172	2.45	0.014**
DIFFCROP	3.038033	-.1925399	1.532456	2.20	0.028**
AGRO	2.464026	-.1562547	1.16427	1.91	0.056**
LIVELIHO	3.061773	-.1938886	1.357554	2.52	0.012**
FERTILIZ	1.69722	-.0916586	.8402726	1.07	0.285
cut1	4.538259	1.865815			
cut2	7.673522	1.978119			

$y = Pr(FCS==1) (predict) = .22299906$ Notes: **, ***, show significance level Source: Computed from own survey (2020)

4.6.Determinants of Climate change adoption

Factors affecting decision of climate change adoption option

Since the values of Climate change adoption falls in between 0 and 1, Tobit model has been used. The estimated results of the model of the maximum likelihood shown below a total of 12 explanatory variables were used to compute the econometric model in order to identify factors that determine household's food security status and climate change adoption option participation level computed. The sample households climate change adoption option were affected negatively significantly by increasing distance to market center ($p < 0.05$) and drought frequency ($p < 0.05$). The analysis shows a positive significant influence of climate change strategy adoption related to the sex of household head ($p < 0.1$), family size ($p < 0.01$), extension advisory service ($p < 0.01$), training ($p < 0.01$), credit ($p < 0.01$), flood ($p < 0.01$), and household food security status ($p < 0.01$).

Table 4: Estimated result using Tobit model

Variable	Coef.	Std. Err	t	P-value
SEX	.1873944	.1110758	1.69	0.094**
AGEHH	.0038536	.0034744	1.11	0.269
FAMSIZ	.1089978	.0266019	4.10	0.000***
LIVESTOC	.0841468	.1738468	0.48	0.629
EXTSERV	-.9372407	.3093225	-3.03	0.003***
TRAINING	.8003806	.108209	7.40	0.000***
MARACC	-.194229	.1081717	-1.80	0.075**

CREDIT	.477214	.1180542	4.04	0.000***
EFFECTCC	.3036796	.0799906	3.80	0.000***
EVENTS	-.0806514	.0389864	-2.07	0.041**
FLOODC	.080059	.0294985	2.71	0.008***
HFIAS	.4052512	.0766013	5.29	0.000***

Number of obs =138, LR chi2 (12) = 186.57, Pseudo R = 0.7145 Prob> chi2 =0.0000, Log likelihood = -37.275025, Obs. summary: 87 left-censored observations at ADAPUSED<=1

51 uncensored observations 0 right-censored observations

Note: ***, **, show significance at $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$ respectively

Source: Computed from own survey (2020)

Sex of the household head expected to have either negative or positive significant correlation with agricultural adaptation technology as a response to climate change. Male-headed households are more ready to adapt climate change than female headed (Temesgen Deressa et al., 2008). Study conducted in 11 African countries, indicated that male headed households are more probably adapters of climate change than female-headed households (Hassen and Nhemachena, 2008). Family size of the household according to the result of the study, family size has positive correlation climate change adoption with irrigation, diversification of new crop variety, livelihood diversification and SWC. Market distances expected to have a significant and negative effect with agricultural adaptation technology as a response to climate change. Access to extension advisory services of the household head from extension agriculture workers is one of the significant explanatory variable and farm household heads have access to extension advisory services from agricultural extension experts have a positive significant relation with climate change adaptation. The result of the model indicated farmers have not access to extension advisory services; the probability of using adaptation is affected and decrease ($p < 0.01$) compared with to farmers could have access. Access to agricultural and non-agricultural credit services of the household head is one of the significant explanatory variables access to farm and off-farm credit is expected to have a significant positive with

climate change adaptation.

4.6.1. Status of Food Security

Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS)

Out of the total number of respondents who adopt Climate change adaptation option 39.1% of the respondents food secure, 3.90 % of non-adopter were food secure and 49.40% adopter were found mildly food insecure and 21.60 % non-adopter.74.50 % non-adopter their household food

security status were moderately food insecure, and 11.50 % adopter were moderately food insecure among sample household (Gemma et. al, 2015).

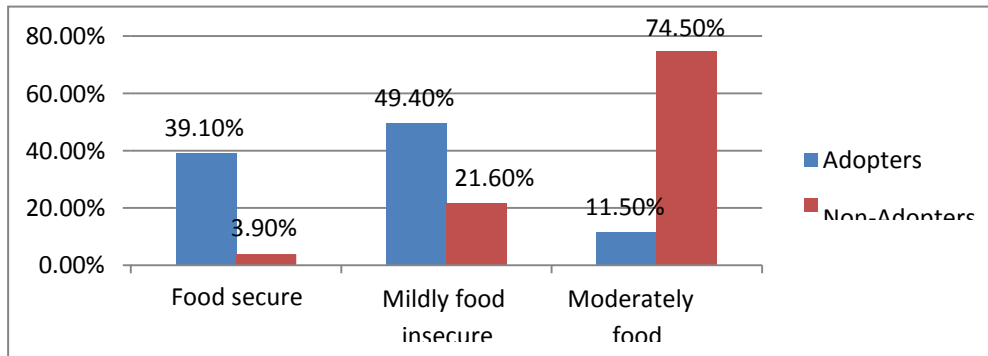


Figure 4: Household HFIAS

Households Food Accessibility

Table 5: Food Insecurity Access Prevalence Sample households

Food security status	Frequency	%	Food insecurity magnitude
Food insecurity	54	39.1	Mild
	48	34.8	Moderate
	0	0.0	Severe
Food Secure	36	26.1	

Source: own survey, 2020

Food insecurity Access Prevalence showed that 26.1% of sample households were food secure, 39.1% were mildly food insecure and 34.8%, moderately food insecure. However, there was no severely food insecure household in sample households. This showed that over 70% of the study population was in a state of some degree of food insecurity. This showed survey was made immediately after harvest (November, December and January), when food was relatively abundant, the level of food insecurity was telling of what could happen in the months (July, August and September). Although, Food Insecurity Access Prevalence the result shows the absence of severe food gap; the proportion of food insecure in general and moderate food gap and mild food gap points that majority of the sample households were affecting by food insecurity problem. Global Hanger Index (GHI) (2018) reported that food insecurity is

rampant in Ethiopia.

5. Conclusion

The study concludes that in the study site food insecurity was rampant and linked with the ever rising of temperatures, small rainy season rainfall variability and recurrent & persistent drought.

Farmers were implementing various biophysical, technological and economical related climate change adaptation responses. However, their effort to avert the adverse impact of climate change and ensure food security was determined by demographic, economic and farming practices. We suggest the regional and federal government should strengthen the implementation of feasible biophysical soil and water conservation measures. Beside, to reduce the natural resource burden due to high population pressure; it is wise to introduce and encourage livelihood diversification in the area. Based on the findings and results of the study, the following recommendation forwarded to improve farmers of Basona Werena Woreda Wayou Kebele adaptation to climate change and variability for enhancing household food security status. Introduction and promotion of successful rainwater harvesting technology is a means to achieve twin objectives i.e. save water for home garden farming and reduce soil erosion. Agro-forestry farming also has multiple economic and ecological importance's; especially in degraded areas like the study site.

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Determinants of Livelihood Diversification Strategies and Outcomes: Insights from Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve, Ethiopia

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Abstract

Diversification of livelihood for communities, especially the poor and fixed income households, is a vital coping strategy for economic, environmental and social problems and instrumental to combat poverty. The purpose of this research was to investigate determinants of livelihood diversification for livelihood strategies and four components of livelihood outcomes for both stratified rural and tourism enterprises and related urban households in Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve. A total of 305 households from six sample sites were interviewed and binary logistic regression was employed using SPSS version 23 using 11 indicators of households' variables. Determinants of the likelihood ratio of respondents to engage in more than a single livelihood portfolio to enhance either or all of their livelihood capitals were investigated assigning values of "1" for probability to engage other than one livelihood strategy and enhance either of livelihood outcomes and values of "0" to the opposite responses. The results indicated that the indicators age, education level, gender, household's livelihood adequacy, household's income source, membership to an association, household's residence location, and household size were identified as significant factors for livelihood diversification strategies. Households both from the tourism enterprises and rural household's stratum wish to diversify other than highly vulnerable livelihood activities to less vulnerable and market oriented production. Besides, age, membership to club, household's livelihood adequacy for economic outcome; age for social outcome for the HHs stratum whereas education level and residence location for economic outcome for TEs were significant indicators at .05 significance. Hence, it can be proved that livelihood diversification strategies and outcomes could significantly determine in protected areas and in other areas too.

Key Words: *Livelihood Diversification Strategies; Livelihood Outcomes; On-farm; Off-farm;*

Non-farm; Determinants; Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve, Ethiopia

1. Introduction

Livelihood is a means of earning a living. Livelihood is defined by Department for International Development (DFID) as "it comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living (DFID, 1999). Income diversification can't be used interchangeably for livelihood diversification (Ellis, 1998). Income diversity refers to the composition of various household incomes at a given instant in time. And, diversification on the other hand, construes this as an active social process whereby households are observed to engage

in increasingly intricate portfolios of activities overtime (Ellis, 1998). Livelihood diversification (or occupational diversification or off-farm diversification we use the terms interchangeably), is one of the most remarkable characteristics of rural livelihoods (Gautam & Andersen, 2016). Diversification is said to be occurred without ceasing the existing livelihood product or service and when a household unit produces a new product or renders a paid service (Fabusoro et al., 2010). Diversification has been understood to be a rational response to lack of possibilities and opportunities for specialization (Iiyama et al., 2008). Livelihood diversification is not only motivated by constraints or the unrelenting for survival of the poor but also determined by incentive for better off (Adi, 2007). Subsistence producers and small farm wage laborers in the rural areas of low-income countries constitute over two thirds of the global poor and food insecure populations (Gautam & Andersen, 2016). Ethiopia endowed with immense natural and cultural resources, large number of its population are still in extreme poverty. Dependent on traditional livelihood strategies and little adoption technologies are also major problems apart from its population being rural residence which accounts 85% of the total population (Shibru et al., 2017). Local communities nearby and people in and around protected areas are not also benefited from the activities in protected areas and enhance their well-beings. The focuses of the earlier studies to this research were mainly rural farmers who are highly dependent on rural farming and merchants whose permanent residence is in rural area. Hence, the previous studies in the country focus mainly on determinants of livelihood diversification and mainly investigate for rural households employing socioeconomic variables (Beyene, 2008; Demissie, 2013; Gebreyesus, 2016; Wegedie, 2018). Protected areas such as biosphere reserves and tourist destinations geographically and determinants of livelihood diversification outcomes or livelihood assets and urban and tourism enterprises remain untapped areas that need an investigation. Thus, this research has investigated livelihood diversification determinants for both livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes entertaining both rural households and tourism enterprises and related organizations households in Lake Tana Biosphere, the fourth UNESCO registered biosphere reserve site in Ethiopia. The foundational cause that motivated this research is not only due to the nature of the study area as place of agriculture for farming around the lake and other primary economic activities such as fishing but also it is world heritage which also has historical, religious and touristic values where many people could have an interest to engage in various economic activities in the biosphere.

2. Methodology

2.1. Description of the study area

Lake Tana is Ethiopia's largest lake possessing half of the nation's freshwater and the source of the Blue Nile supporting the lives of over hundreds of millions in the Nile Basin (Goshu & Aynalem, 2017). It is the home of 37 islands and sacred monasteries located in North-Western Ethiopian Highlands in the Amhara National Regional State between the geographic coordinates of 10⁰58'-12⁰47'N latitude and 36⁰45'-38⁰14' E longitude with its surface area ranges from 3,000 to 3,500 km² depending on season and rainfall (Admas et al., 2017). Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve, registered in 2015, is among the fourth UNESCO world biosphere reserve sites of Ethiopia (Worku, 2017).

2.2. Research Approach

A cross-sectional study based mixed research approach employing both descriptive and inferential statistics was used. Besides, qualitative analyses were used for triangulation of the quantitative data and to describe data obtained through observation and unstructured interview. Multi-stage stratified random sampling for self-administered survey questionnaires and judgmental purposive sampling were used for the selection of respondents for interview and sample sites respectively. Stratification of the respondents was based on the variables main means of livelihood strategy or economic activity, residence area (rural or urban), expected and perceived knowledge of respondents about the environment, life style and expected income difference. The two startups were: Rural Households (HHs) stratum which consists of mainly rural residents dependent on farming, non-timber forest production, sale of fire wood, fishing activities and members farmer's associations such as unions who are entirely rural, and Tourism enterprises and related organizations (TEs) stratum that consists of enterprises who are working in tourism and related services such as production and sale of fish products, souvenir shops, boating and guiding associations, employees in hotels, restaurants, travel agencies and tour operation companies, hotels and hoteliers as well as employees in tourism and environmental-related government and private organizations.

The samples were drawn from 6000 household population (ANRS BoFED, 2018) taken from 6 sites (Bahir Dar, Zeghe Peninsula, Kunzila, Gorgora, Yifag, Woyna) selected purposively based on the series of criterion. The rationale behind the selection of sample studies was due to the fact

that tourist flows are available or availability tourism activities are available or not, status of water hyacinth as invasive species affecting both tourism and livelihood practices, existence of relatively better economic practices undertaken in the biosphere, and direct access to the lake with better transportation access to shore of the lake. Sample Respondents were selected responsibility (i.e., responsibility to manage or administer the biosphere reserve), engagement in activities in the biosphere ecosystem and livelihood attachment (i.e., dependence of livelihood activities undertaken in the biosphere) to the biosphere. The sample size was determined based on (Yamane, 1967) sampling design technique. The sample size was 374 and 10% (37) were also added to reduce the non-response rate. Of those 375 were returned and 70 were excluded from analysis due to invalid responses. Thus, a total of 305 respondents based on the proportion (159 from rural households and 146 from tourism enterprises and related organizations) were used for quantitative analysis. Data were collected from September 2017 to June 2018 for 10 months. Data collection was made by the corresponding author. Assistant data collectors were employed to accompany with the researcher from Kunzila, Gorgora and Woyna sample sites where the researcher has little awareness about the area.

Data for the livelihood diversification were collected on a five-point Likert scale in terms of its respective outcomes viz., Economic, Social, Physical and Institutional Livelihood outcomes for Livelihood diversification (LD). Finally, the mean of the summation of dimensions for the constructs were taken for analysis purpose aimed at examining the determinants of livelihood diversification. Five-point Likert scale was prepared that consists from strongly disagree to strongly agree with intermediate and neutral answer option in between positive and negative answers ranging from 1 for strongly disagree and 5 for strongly agree as it is recommended by scholars like (Grassi et al., 2007) but transformed into dummy variable for binary logistic regression analysis. Descriptive analysis was computed to present demographic characteristics of respondents. Hierarchical regression analysis was employed to measure the impact of tourism dimensions on livelihood diversification outcomes and simple linear regression was used to examine the contribution of tourism construct for livelihood diversification construct.

2.3. Research Model

The binary logistic regression was used to identify the determinant socioeconomic factors for livelihood strategies (On-farm, Off-farm and Non-farm), and livelihood diversification outcomes

(Economic, Social, Physical and Institutional) for two strata where the first is Rural Households (HHs) and the 2nd is Tourism Enterprises and related Organizations (TEs).

The binary logistic regression model assumes dependent variables: a) the livelihood strategies: on-farm, off-farm and non-farm which is a dichotomous dependent variable (1= No and 2= Yes), b) Economic, Social, Physical and Institutional predicted variables (1= No, not enhanced, & 2= Yes, it is enhanced), and the independent variables that consist of both dichotomous and continuous as well as ordinal data (gender, age, education level, employment status, marital status, household size, membership to environmental club, household income source, household income level, livelihood adequacy and residence location). In the regression model of the logistic regression analysis results are explained below; here is the general binary logistic regression model:

$$\ln(Y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3 + \dots + \beta_n \text{ ----- (1)}$$

Where, Y is the dependent variable, β_0 is constant and $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \dots, \beta_n$ be the coefficients of independent variables in the logistic regression model.

3. Results and Discussion

The descriptive analysis revealed, among the rural households (HHs) respondents, the majority of the households are dependent on farming (19.5%) followed by fishing (18.9%), trade (17.6%) and production of handicrafts (17%) (*Mean= 5.20; Std. Deviation= 3.760*). On the other hand, respondents' livelihood from Tourism Enterprises and related Organizations (TEs) stratum was largely depend on salary (48.6%) followed by trade (17.1%) and tourism (15.8%) (*Mean= 3.29, Std. Deviation= 1.606*). Households dependent on daily wage (5%), wood and wood products (3.1%) and beekeeping (1.9%) from rural households' stratum, and urban farming (7.5%), fishing (6.8%) and beekeeping (2.7%) from Tourism related enterprises stratum follow the next category of livelihood strategy. For TEs stratum, agriculture as source of income for livelihood is related with urban farming that are dependent on dairy farming, beef farming and poultry. Households leading their livelihood with daily wage in off-farm related activities and beekeeping took the least percentage with 1.4% and 2.7% respectively.

3.1. Binary logistic regression Analysis for Livelihood diversification strategies

3.1.1. Measure of Goodness of fit test:

The measure of goodness of fit test for the rural households stratum reflected by the omnibus test chi-square value 24.878 (sig. =.006) for On-farm, 43.005 (sig. =.000) for Off-farm and 28.202 (sig. =.002) that shows as there is significant improvement in the model with the introduction of

block variables. The model appropriateness was indicated by insignificant value the Hosmer and Lemeshow test (Hosmer et al., 1997) chi-square value of 4.270 (sig. =.832), 10.342 (sig. =.242) and 4.478 (sig. =.812) for on-farm, off-farm and non-farm livelihood strategies respectively. Moreover, the model summary shows the reduction due to block variables with -2Log likelihood value of 171.529 for on-farm, 81.114 for off-farm and 180.444 for non-farm livelihood strategies as well as with the respective unit of variance explained Nagelkerke R Square value of .204, .437 and .222 shows meaningfulness and significant of variance explained in the model based on (Allison, 2014).

Table 1: Measure of goodness of fit test for Livelihood Strategies (HHs + TEs)

Dependent Variables	Omnibus Test		-2 Log likelihood	Nagelkerke R Square	Hosmer and Lemeshow Test		Classification Table ^a	
	Chi-square	Sig.			Chi-square	Sig.		Overall %
On-farm	HHs	24.878	.006	171.529 ^a	.204	4.270	.832	74.2
	TEs	17.891	.084	86.156 ^a	.228	6.944	.543	89.4
Off-farm	HHs	43.005	.000	81.114 ^a	.437	10.342	.242	89.9
	TEs	40.308	.000	63.739 ^a	.476	116.669	.000	94.4
Non-farm	HHs	28.202	.002	180.444 ^a	.222	4.478	.812	71.7
	TEs	27.662	.004	146.496 ^a	.250	6.870	.551	75.4

Source: Field survey, 2018

On the other hand, for the 2nd stratum, the model is appropriate for the measure of goodness of fit test is indicated by the model summary table that exhibited -2Log likelihood (On-farm =86.156; Off-farm =63.739 & Non-farm = 146.496) was meaningful and significant except for On-farm livelihood strategies with which the Omnibus test reflected no significant improvement in the model (chi-square = 17.891, sig. =.084 at .05 significance level). In addition, the meaningfulness of the model and total variance explained by Nagelkerke R² value of .228 for On-farm, .476 for Off-farm and .250 for Non-farm respectively based on (Allison, 2014) that revealed the model is meaningfully explained. The Hosmer and Lemeshow Test based on (Hosmer et al., 1997) revealed the model is best fitted model with respective chi-square and significant value for On-farm (6.944 & .543) and Non-farm (6.870 & .551) whereas the model was identified as inappropriate for Off-farm livelihood strategies with chi-square value of 116.669 and sig. =.000).

3.1.2. Coefficient of determination in binary logistic model

Three separate hypotheses were regressed and tested for each of the two stratum using 10 socioeconomic variables and the addition of employment status only to the 2nd stratum i.e., Tourism Enterprises and related Organizations in order to identify the determinant for each of the

livelihood diversification strategies for both of the stratum. Thus, the result revealed that the equations with significant explanatory variables for each dichotomous dependent variable can be visible as follows (*see Table 2*).

For On-farm hypothesis, three variables (respondent's age (OR= .489, P =.027), educational level (OR =.621, P =.003) and adequacy of livelihood (OR =.329, P =.009) were found significant for rural household respondents whereas none of the variables were found significant for tourism enterprises and related organizations stratum significant at .05 level of significance (*Table 2*) which is also reflected by the omnibus test in *Table 1*.

The Off-farm hypothesis revealed household's income source (OR =1.460, P =.000) and their place of residence (OR =.541, P =.010) significantly affects people's likelihood to engage in off-farm livelihood activities for rural households' stratum whereas only household's income source was found significant predictor for off-farm livelihood strategies (OR= 2.450, P =.000) both significant at less than .05 significance level (see *Table 2*).

In the third hypothesis, only the gender explanatory variable (OR= 4.246, P =.000) was found significant predictor at less than .05 level of significance for non-farm livelihood strategies for rural households whereas two variables: educational level (OR= 1.391, P =.040), household's income source (OR= .680, P =.006) were the significant variables for the likelihood of livelihood diversification of tourism enterprises and related organizations households in non-farm livelihood strategies (see *Table 2*).

Table 2: Variables in the binary logistic regression model: Rural Households (HHs +TEs)

Explanatory Variables	Stratum	On- farm			Off- farm			Non- farm		
		B	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Sig.	Exp(B)
Gen	HHs	-.752	.105	.472	-1.100	.527	.591	1.446	.000**	4.246
	TEs	-1.219	.081*	.295	-1.100	.206	.333	.202	.656	1.224
Age	HHs	-.715	.027**	.489	-.112	.644	.801	.028	.926	1.029
	TEs	-.444	.359	.641	-.112	.816	.894	.029	.935	1.030
EDL	HHs	-.477	.003**	.621	-.256	.178	.704	-.081	.598	.922
	TEs	-.344	.109	.709	-.256	.337	.774	.330	.040**	1.391
MS	HHs	.081	.635	1.085	.481	.682	.887	.139	.400	1.149
	TEs	.190	.525	1.210	.481	.165	1.618	-.392	.069*	.675
MEC	HHs	-.122	.764	.885	-.633	.380	.531	-.116	.770	.890
	TEs	.646	.356	1.907	-.131	.869	.878	-.332	.504	.717
HHS	HHs	.345	.170	1.412	.374	.377	1.453	-.343	.187	.709
	TEs	1.014	.006**	2.755	-.122	.781	.886	-.476	.083*	.622
HHIS	HHs	-.093	.087*	.911	.378	.000**	1.460	-.057	.282	.944
	TEs	-.224	.230	.799	.896	.000**	2.450	-.386	.006**	.680
HHIL	HHs	-.218	.390	.804	.176	.597	1.192	.164	.435	1.178
	TEs	-.523	.189	.593	.060	.880	1.061	.062	.792	1.064

HHLA	HHs	-1.110	.009**	.329	-1.207	.070*	.299	-.096	.802	.909
	TEs	.324	.633	1.383	-.737	.345	.478	-.488	.303	.614
RL	HHs	-.077	.582	.926	-.615	.010**	.541	-.260	.063*	.771
	TEs	-.320	.370	.726	-.625	.194	.535	-.133	.454	.876
EmpS	HHs	NA			NA		NA			
	TEs	.255	.374	1.290	.487	.166	1.628	.302	.272	1.353
Constant	HHs	5.227	.003	186.151	1.586	.551	4.883	-.658	.666	.518
	TEs	-.589	.815	.555	-2.332	.463	.097	2.509	.200	12.291

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Gen, Age, EDL, HHS, MEC, HHIS, HHIL, HHLA, RL, EmpS
b. **, * : significant at 5% and 10% level of significance respectively

Source: Field survey, 2018

3.2. Binary logistic regression for Livelihood Diversification Outcomes

3.2.1. Measure of Goodness of fit test:

The measure of goodness of fit test for the rural households stratum reflected by the model appropriateness that is indicated by insignificant value the Hosmer and Lemeshow test (Hosmer et al., 1997) chi-square value of 6.941 (sig. =.543), 13.671 (sig. =.091), 6.642 (sig. =.576) and 5.111 (sig. =.746) for economic, social, physical and institutional livelihood capital outputs respectively. Besides, the model summary shows the reduction by the chi-square value due to block variables with -2Log likelihood value of 160.098 for economic capital, 180.479 for social capital, 187.882 for physical capital and 205.936 for institutional capital of livelihood diversification outcomes as well as with the respective unit of variance explained Nagelkerke R Square value of .320, .153, .104 and .067 shows meaningfulness and significant of variance explained in the model based on (Allison, 2014) (see *Table 3*).

Table 3: Measure of Goodness of Fit Test for Livelihood Diversification Outcomes (HHs + TEs)

Livelihood Diversification Outcomes	Stratum	Omnibus Test		-2Log likelihood	Nagelkerke R Square	Hosmer and Lemeshow Test		Classification Table ^a
		Chi-square	Sig.			Chi-square	Sig.	Overall %
Economic (EconLD)	HHs	41.499	.000	160.098 ^a	.320	6.941	.543	78.5
	TEs	20.348	.041	175.123 ^a	.179	8.537	.383	67.6
Social (SocLD)	HHs	18.270	.051	180.479 ^a	.153	13.671	.091	67.1
	TEs	12.081	.098	180.697 ^a	.110	10.094	.258	61.3
Physical (PhyLD)	HHs	12.319	.264	187.882 ^a	.104	6.642	.576	71.5
	TEs	9.334	.591	186.815 ^a	.085	4.798	.779	57.0
Institutional (InstLD)	HHs	8.110	.618	205.936 ^a	.067	5.111	.746	59.5
	TEs	8.896	.631	187.704 ^a	.081	6.745	.564	62.7

Source: Field survey, 2018

On the other hand, for the 2nd stratum, the model is appropriate for the measure of goodness of fit test is indicated by the model summary table that exhibited -2Log likelihood (economic capital =175.123; social capital = 180.697, physical capital =186.815&institutional capital = 187.704) was meaningful and significant. Furthermore, the meaningfulness of the model and total variance explained by Nagelkerke R²value of .179 for economic, .110 for social, .085 for physical and .081 for institutional capital respectively based on (Allison, 2014) that revealed the model is meaningfully explained with the unit of Nagelkerke R²value (see *Table 3*).

But, as far as this study is concerned except for economic livelihood outcome for both stratum at .05 level of significance, and social livelihood outcome for HHs at .05 and for TEs stratum at .10 level of significance were indicated by significant Omnibus test of model coefficients which indicates significant improvement in the model due to block variable introduction. The rest of livelihood outcome and hypothesized model were found insignificant for both stratum both at .05 and .10 significance level (see *Table 3*). Conversely, the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test based on (Hosmer et al., 1997) revealed the model is best fitted model with respective chi-square and significant value for economic (8.537 & .383), social (10.094 & .258), physical (4.798 & .779) and institutional (6.745 & .564) livelihood outcomes (see *Table 3*).

3.2.2. Coefficient of determination in binary logistic model

The binary logistic regression result revealed the determinant factors for the probability of livelihood diversification outcomes. Four separate hypothesis testing models for each livelihood diversification outcomes were applied and determinant factors were identified based on the beta value or likelihood odds ratio in the conventional significant value in this research i.e., .05 significance level. The results for the four binary logistic regression models are presented in the table below (see *Table 4*).

For economic livelihood diversification outcome hypothesis, out of 10 socioeconomic variables, only 3 variables namely; age of household head/member (OR =.324; P =.003), membership to a club/ association (OR =.230; P =.002) and livelihood adequacy of household (OR =.219; P=.001) for rural households stratum at .05 level of significance. Whereas for economic livelihood outcome of tourism enterprises and related organizations stratum, out of 11 variables, only two variables were found significant predictors of the predicted variable, i.e., educational level of household head (OR =1.377, P =.025) and resident location of household from the biosphere reserve zone (OR =.700, P =.035) at .05 significance level.

The 2nd hypothesis revealed the only block variable that predicted the social livelihood outcome was age of the household head/member with OR= .487 and P =.035 which is significantly less than .05 level of significance for rural household's stratum but no variable was found significant for the tourism enterprises stratum within the conventional significance level.

The physical livelihood diversification outcome hypothesis, on the other hand, portrayed no significant variable for both strata at .05 level of significance. Similarly, the institutional livelihood diversification outcome hypothesis found none of the employed block variables as significant predictors in the logistic model at .05 significance level. Age of household head/member for physical and institutional outcomes of rural households, educational level for physical outcome for both rural and tourism enterprise households and resident's location for institutional livelihood outcome of rural households stratum was found significant predictors at .10 level of significance (see *Table 4*).

Table 4: Variables in the binary logistic regression model of LD outcomes: (HHs +TEs)

Explanatory Variables	Stratum	EconLD			SocLD			PhyLD			InstLD		
		B	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Sig.	Exp(B)
Gen	HHs	.190	.681	1.209	.207	.614	1.230	.088	.830	1.092	.152	.698	1.164
	TEs	-.174	.667	.841	-.763	.060*	.466	-.364	.348	.695	.137	.721	1.147
Age	HHs	-1.128	.003**	.324	-.720	.035**	.487	-.549	.087*	.577	-.557	.064*	.573
	TEs	-.065	.834	.937	.042	.891	1.043	.525	.106	1.690	.163	.587	1.177
EDL	HHs	-.086	.605	.918	-.162	.289	.850	-.242	.098*	.785	-.004	.978	.996
	TEs	.320	.025**	1.377	.256	.066*	1.292	.231	.087*	1.259	.038	.776	1.038
MS	HHs	.174	.342	1.190	.218	.180	1.244	.105	.501	1.110	.072	.643	1.075
	TEs	-.236	.223	.790	.249	.183	1.282	.205	.276	1.227	.092	.618	1.096
EmpS	HHs												
	TEs	-.188	.397	.828	-.222	.336	.801	-.245	.261	.783	-.281	.209	.755
MEC	HHs	-1.469	.002**	.230	-.599	.144	.549	-.157	.685	.854	-.447	.235	.639
	TEs	-.256	.537	.774	.304	.461	1.355	-.274	.500	.760	-.398	.327	.672
RL	HHs	.140	.332	1.150	-.036	.787	.965	.119	.362	1.126	-.217	.088*	.805
	TEs	-.357	.035**	.700	-.155	.350	.856	-.075	.639	.928	-.261	.113	.771
HHS	HHs	.907	.001**	2.476	.153	.525	1.165	-.192	.423	.825	.188	.416	1.206
	TEs	-.273	.259	.761	-.064	.793	.938	-.086	.718	.918	-.361	.134	.697
HHIS	HHs	.034	.529	1.034	-.072	.163	.931	-.007	.884	.993	-.063	.183	.939
	TEs	.021	.862	1.022	.032	.796	1.033	-.048	.692	.953	.049	.683	1.050
HHIL	HHs	.298	.237	1.347	.052	.806	1.053	.194	.327	1.215	.264	.177	1.302
	TEs	-.084	.679	.919	-.104	.604	.901	-.125	.524	.883	.107	.582	1.113
HHLA	HHs	-1.517	.001**	.219	.436	.257	1.547	.119	.362	1.126	.360	.318	1.433
	TEs	-.735	.076*	.480	.525	.200	1.691	-.137	.724	.872	.133	.731	1.143
Constant	HHs	2.249	.205	9.479	.323	.834	1.382	-.160	.915	.852	.408	.779	1.503
	TEs	2.441	.119	11.49	-1.476	.348	.229	.186	.901	1.204	.784	.600	2.190

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Gen, Age, EDL, MS, EmpS, MEC, RL, HHS, HHIS, HHIL, HHLA

b. **, * : significant at 5% and 10% level of significance respectively

Source: Field survey, 2018

4. Discussion

4.1. Determinants of Livelihood Strategies

The binary logistic regression result divulged age (-), educational level (-) and livelihood adequacy (-) were found significant determinants of On-farm livelihood strategies for rural households stratum at 5% level of significance and income source (-) at 10% significant level. The present study implied as of the age of the household head/member increases continuously, the likelihood of engagement diminishes because On-farm livelihood activities such as farming, firewood gathering, and mining given technology development constant are difficult and labor intensive with which they cannot copeup with. People having their higher level of academic achievement won't be dependent on On-farm rural livelihoods rather they shift to other livelihood strategies such as trade and salary. So does to livelihood adequacy when people will not engage in On-farm strategies. An increase in age, educational level and livelihood adequacy would affect the likelihood of household's dependency on traditional and labor intensive On-farm livelihood strategy negatively and households would shift their strategy to non-farm. The higher in age, the lesser to be able to engage in on-farm; the more households are educated the more they will migrate to urban areas and engage other than on-farm activities. Moreover, people with no problem of cloth, shelter and food for their household's livelihood would prefer other economic activities than on-farm strategies due to nature of On-farm strategies. This study was in line with the study of (Paudel Khatiwada et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2015). Similar to the present study age of the household head and educational level were found significant determinants of rural livelihood diversification (Khatun & Roy, 2012). Household size (+) at $P < .05$ and gender (-) at $P < .10$ significant level were found significant predictors of On-farm livelihood strategy for Tourism enterprises and related organizations but the omnibus test of model coefficient showed no significant improvement was drawn by the addition of block variables.

Households resident location (-) from the protected area buffer zone and source of income (+) significantly affecting households engagement in off-farm livelihood strategies for rural households at .05 level of significance. As place of residence for households from the buffer zone increases, the probability of households to engage in off-farm activities in the biosphere reserve decreases. People in remote areas are always marginalized from participating from many opportunities including access to infrastructure and market access. The study of (Yenesew et al., 2015) employed market distance but the current research used location/distance of households'

residence but found similar result that verified resident location is determinant factor for diversification at .10 and .05 level of significance respectively. The Hosmer and Lemshow test (Hosmer et al., 1997) and (Allison, 2014) depicted that the binary logistic model was inappropriate fitted model for off-farm strategy for Tourism enterprises and related organizations stratum.

Non-farm livelihood strategies of rural households were significantly determined by gender (+) at less than 5% and resident's location (-) in line with (Yenesew et al., 2015) at 10% significant level. Health status trainings for household members have significant positive effect on choice of off-farm decisions for male household members that shows gender as significant determinant factor (Beyene, 2008) in line with the present study. On the other hand, for households of tourism and related enterprises' respondents education (+) similar to the study of (Eneyew, 2012; Yenesew et al., 2015; Gebru, Ichoku, & Phil-Eze, 2018) and income source (-) in which income was significant factor in study of (Gebru et al., 2018) were significant factors in the households engagement in non-farm activities 5% at significant level. But, education was not found as significant determinant factor of livelihood diversification (Beyene, 2008) unlike the present study. In line with the present study, geographic location of households was also found the significant determinant factor affecting livelihood strategies of rural households (Peng et al., 2017). Besides, marital status and household size were also found significant and negatively influencing non-farm livelihood strategy engagement of households from TEs stratum at 10% significant level. Similar to the present study, family/household size was found significantly and negatively affecting factor for non-farm livelihood diversification strategies (Gebru et al., 2018). Unlike the present study where age was insignificant, age were found significantly and negatively affecting non-farm livelihood strategies whereby the old farmers failed to diversify their livelihood beyond on-farms activities (Kassie et al., 2017).

4.2.Determinants of Livelihood Diversification Outcomes

The result of the binary logistic regression revealed that out of the 11 socioeconomic factors introduced into the model, age (-) for Soc_{LD} and Econ_{LD}, household size (+), household livelihood adequacy (-) and membership to an environmental club (-) for Econ_{LD} were found significant for rural households stratum at .05 significant level. Besides, age (-) and educational level (-) for physical, age (-) and residence location (-) for institutional livelihood outcome for rural households' were found significant determinant factors at .10 significance level. On the other hand, the respondents educational level (+) and resident location (-) for Econ_{LD} were found significant

for tourism and related enterprises (TEs) at .05 significance level. Educational level (+) for physical livelihood outcome, gender (-) and educational level (+) for social livelihood outcome were found significant factors at .10 level of significance but no significant variable was found for institutional livelihood diversification outcome for TEs respondents.

Age: Age was found as the determinant of economic livelihood diversification. It influenced significantly and negatively at 5% significant level where rural households' likelihood to diversify their livelihood other than their current livelihood strategies will be in opposite direction. This result was in line with the study which revealed similar results as determinants of livelihood's diversification into wildlife tourism (Avila-Foucat & Rodríguez-Robayo, 2018). But, the households' age negative relationship with likelihood of diversification was disproved by the positive and significant relationship of age and livelihood diversification research done in Bahir Dar sub-urban households (Wegedie, 2018). The age determinant indicates the more the household heads young in the acceptable age category, the more they will engage in diversified livelihood strategies.

Gender (sex of Head/household member) (Gen): Gender has influenced the diversification of livelihood strategies negatively and significantly at less than 5% level of significance. This finding was in line with the study of (Yenesew et al., 2015). It implies that those households headed by females are less likely to diversify their livelihood than household headed by males. The result of this study was also in line with a study on peri-urban households in which sex of respondents influenced livelihood diversification strategy significantly and negatively at less than 10% significant level (Wegedie, 2018).

The present study result was also found significant factor of livelihood diversification which is similar to the study (Smith, Gordon, Meadows, & Zwick, 2001) whereby men had high degree of occupational livelihood diversification. The result of the present study outlined gender significantly affects social capital of livelihood which is in line with (Smith, 2014). Sex of the household head had also a significant and negative impact on on-farm and non-farm livelihood diversification of household diversification strategy choice at 5% level of significance (Yenesew et al., 2015). Besides gender as determinant factor for diversification, previous study revealed female headed households were also found less likely to diversify and participate in any of the livelihood categories and earn significantly lower income (Rahman & Akter, 2014).

Education level (EDL): In the current study, education was found as significant determinant factor for livelihood diversification for both households and tourism organizations and related enterprises stratum. But, the effect of education on livelihood diversification was found positive for TEs and negative for HHs stratum. The positive effect of education on livelihood diversification strategies was also revealed (Rahut&MicevskaScharf, 2012; Rahman & Akter, 2014). As far as poverty is closely allied with low level education and lack of skills, it was found as a significant and key contributor of livelihood diversification and support for better off families as compared to poor families with low level of education for TEs. A study on peri-urban livelihood diversification in one of the sample sites of the current study also found education as positively affecting significant determinant factor affecting diversification of peri-urban households' livelihood (Wegedie, 2018). But, for rural households where majority of the households can read and write solely, education affects significantly but negatively due to the fact that rural households will not be expected to continue living in rural areas when their education level increases. Rather they will migrate into urban areas for seeking urban life ceasing their rural life as far as the study area and the Ethiopian national scenario is concerned.

Membership to an Environmental Club (MEC): Opposite of the hypothesized effect, membership to a cooperative union or association influenced diversification of livelihood negatively and significantly at less than 5% level of significance. Membership to an association was found significant in line with this study but positively affecting diversification for economic/financial livelihood outcome (Gautam & Andersen, 2016;Gebru et al., 2018). Membership to an environmental club was found similar to the present study as a determinant factor for livelihood diversification in the study of (Kassie et al., 2017) though the type of association varies in the present study which took the environmental clubs into account but the previous study took cooperative associations. This result is in contrary to the study that revealed that membership to a club as determinants of livelihood's diversification into wildlife tourism affects positively (Avila-Foucat & Rodríguez-Robayo, 2018). Therefore, households who are members to a group or an association are more likely to diversify their livelihood both in rural and urban areas around Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve. The result corresponds to (Nguyen et al., 2015).

Household Livelihood Adequacy (LA): the status of the adequacy of livelihood of households negatively and significantly affects the likelihood of households' livelihood strategy at 5% level of significance. Households possessing adequate livelihood would have lower likelihood of

diversification as far as diversification is a means to be out of poverty or maintaining one's own household's livelihood. In the opposite, households without adequate livelihood status would demand a livelihood activity or more number of livelihood strategies other than the old livelihood strategy in order to fulfill the family members' consumption and basic needs. Therefore, livelihood adequacy is negatively and significantly affecting the choice of livelihood diversification strategy in this study. The present finding was similar with the study from Humla, Nepal (Gautam & Andersen, 2016).

Household Size (HHS): Household size, as hypothesized, influenced the likelihood of livelihood diversification of households positively and significant at less than 5%. This implies that the increase in the size of the households results in the increase in the idle labor force and household demand which can be engaged in livelihood activity other than the current or old livelihood strategy. The similar result was shown in the study on determinants of livelihood diversification in Debre Elias Woreda of Ethiopia where household size insists households to engage in diversified economic activities (Yenesew et al., 2015). The study of (Gautam & Andersen, 2016) found household size affecting livelihood diversification negatively which contradicts the present study that demonstrate likelihood of diversification increases as household size is getting larger.

Resident Location (RL): As hypothesized, resident location or distance was proposed to have a negative effect to livelihood diversification where longer distance from the protected area results in less likelihood to diversification and shorter distance results in higher likelihood to diversify. It was found significant at less than 5% level of significance for both TEs and HHs stratum. This was also in line with the study on rural livelihood diversification determinants which found resident location, education and ethnicity as significant factors (Rahut et al., 2014). Similar finding was also exhibited in the study of (Yenesew et al., 2015). The logistic regression result was also supported by the observation made during the survey. Households who are geographically close to the edges or buffer zone of Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve were observed engaging in more than one livelihood activity. This was manifested in locations of Zeghe Peninsula, Kunizla Port and Yifag sample sites of the present study. In addition, FGD with Fishers association at Zeghe revealed majority of households nearby the lake were engaging in coffee harvest, beekeeping and fishing.

Vulnerability, Shocks and Seasonality: Moreover, livelihood diversification of the urban and rural households i.e., TEs and HHs is affected by the vulnerability, shocks and seasonality in the

area. Tourism industry is vulnerable to a dynamic change in technology, political and socio-cultural system. Vulnerability of households' livelihood diversification strategy has been affected by the political unrest against the regime (Ethiopian People's Democratic Front-EPRDF and ethical conflicts between Qimant and Amhara ethnic groups for political objectives of the Qimant committee on the northwest of the biosphere reserve which in turn affected households' likelihood in diversifying livelihood in tourism. The severity of water hyacinth invasive species over the lake in the north and northwest had made diversification of households difficult and tourism livelihood vulnerable. The seasonality nature of tourism on the other hand, is also another problem that pulls people from diversifying in tourism and make adequacy of livelihood insufficient in the study area.

5. Practical Implications

The present study aimed at identification of determinants of livelihood diversification; i.e., strategies and livelihood outcomes in Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve. Some of the socio economic variables were also found significant and some of them show deviations from the common sense. For instance, literally membership in an institution is assumed to increase livelihood diversification opportunity but found in the reverse in the current study. This may be associated with either inefficiency of institutions already existed or households' lack of awareness about institutions usage for diversification. Thus, various associations should be promoted to be organized, provide trainings and consultation to capacitate them together with the existing associations and institutions operating. Rural households' likelihood of livelihood diversification is highly determined by household's socio-economic variables than tourism enterprises and related organizations. This shows rural communities are not engaged much and benefited from the activities in the biosphere reserve. Therefore, involvement of communities should be encouraged and promoted to let communities in the diversification process promote peoples' effort to be out of poverty. Political instability, natural calamities such as draught, presence of hazardous invasive weeds, flooding and other factors that determine livelihood diversification strategies and hurt enhancement of livelihood capitals by making safety and security of tourist and communities as well as limiting the activities to be undertaken in places like marine areas in this study. Hence, political unrest should be legally controlled and mitigating measures should be adopted in order to assure security and enhance livelihood diversification process for people in and around protected areas. Future researches should focus on other determinant factors than socio-economic variables and diversification portfolio projects to help communities engage in non-farm and off-farm

activities in biosphere reserves and other protected areas where tourism is priority and lion sharing non-farm livelihood strategy.

5. Conclusions

Livelihood diversification is essential to boost people's livelihood especially in rural areas and communities around the tourist destinations such as biosphere reserves. In the present study, households both from the tourism enterprises and rural household's stratum wish to diversify other than highly vulnerable livelihood activities to less vulnerable and market oriented production. The government efforts and other stakeholders' involvement are low to support urban and rural communities' engagement in livelihood diversification process. Socioeconomic variables were found significantly determining both livelihood diversification strategies and livelihood outcomes. Findings from the present study have drawn the following concluding remarks. 1) Diversification of outcomes and livelihood strategies are not only determined by socioeconomic variables, vulnerability seasonality and shocks. 2) Lake Tana Biosphere reserve has immense potential for various livelihood portfolio of strategies such as fishing, boating, tourism and some other non-farm and off-farm activities but majority of them are dependent on on-farm strategies especially rural households and households from tourism enterprises are also constrained by restrictions and diversifying opportunities besides household factors, 3) Unlike the potentials of the area and similar destinations in the country experience of institutional formation and capacitating of existing institutions is poor that failed to support diversification, pro-poor support and combat extreme poverty in many protected areas and world heritage sites.

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Socio-cultural Considerations in Environmental Policy Formulation and Implementation in Ethiopia

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Abstract

The idea of policies for holistic social development, healthy communities, and resilient socio-cultural institutions is one of the core issues of literature on sustainable society, development and environment. The nexus between national economic policies, resilient communities, and development is best understood in the context of policies for social development, particularly in terms of building resilient socio-cultural institutions, protecting communities, and ensuring useful traditional knowledge systems. Some existing researches on environment, society and development in Ethiopia generally focus on policy failures and institutional dysfunctions leading to natural resource degradation and environmental exploitation. Others address increasingly insecure livelihood and political instability as a manifestation of unsuitable society, environment, and development. Further, policy instruments pertaining to environment, and the impact assessments are often analyzed in light of the formal, legal perspective. This study aimed at understanding how existing environmental policy instruments define and represent socio-cultural matters; and the way policy formulators and implementers perceive social and cultural issues as part of the environment policy and impact assessment frameworks of the country. The study adopted a mixed method approach through analyzing existing policy documents and interviewing relevant actors. The study found out that while existing instruments do indeed address socio-cultural issues, the main problem lies in adequacy of representation of socio-cultural issues, particularly cultural resources (notably heritages, identities, belief systems social institutions, etc.). More so, the problem lies in the disturbing state of realizing the policy provisions for socio-cultural issues. Policy formulators and implementers' general level of socio-culturally sensitive awareness, attitude and commitment is a key gap.

Key words: *socio-cultural issues, environmental policy, representation, Ethiopia*

1. Introduction

The issue of unsustainable development, environmental problems, climate change and their impacts on societal wellbeing and development are high on the international agenda (Conway & Schipper, 2011; Dove, 2014; Salick & Ross, 2009). Academic and policy literature on sustainable development and impact assessment call for careful considerations of socio-cultural issues in development policy formulations and practice. The Millennium Development Goals and the Agenda 2030- the Sustainable Development Goals have empirical and tangible points whereby issues of social and cultural significance are made part of the global policy dialogues (MEA, 2005; UN, 2015).

Some studies in Ethiopia show societal wellbeing, institutional resilience and livelihoods are being challenged through increasing risk of environmental problems and the inadequacy or poor implementation of policy frameworks to contain these challenges (Zerihun 2015). These also explore how local communities in the age of increasing environmental problems and risks cope with socio-cultural and livelihood challenges in Ethiopia (Dira & Hewlett, 2016; Hameso, 2018). Socio-cultural impacts of development activities in Ethiopia exist showing the in-salutary effects of such activities on local communities (Zerihun, 2015; Abbute, 2004; Berisso, 2004).

Relevant articles of the Ethiopian Constitution (FDRE Constitution, 1995), the Environmental Policy of Ethiopia (FDRE EPA, 1997) and Culture Policy of Ethiopia (MoCT, 1997) provide standard setting frameworks of regulating development activities, environmental impact assessments and the protection for social institutions and cultural heritages; but these often are seen as more of principles than of materialized realities (Keeley & Scoones, 2000), as well as imposed requirements for the sake of securing grants (Ruffeis, Loiskandl, Awulachew, & Boelee, 2010).

Recent national development policy and strategy documents (See, for example, National Planning Commission, 2016) provide for the inclusion of social issues along with environmental aspects in development impact assessment requirements. Further, the country has produced a range of regulations and protocols to guide financing of development projects within the framework of the country's development agendas and the climate resilient green economy, which in principle requires development projects to address social and cultural issues in planning and execution stages (See for example, Ethiopian Investment Authority, 2018; Development Bank of Ethiopia, 2017; Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change, 2015).

However, there is a dearth of information on how socio-cultural aspects are represented in existing policies and, above all, how are they being implemented in the assessment of development impacts arising from various national and regional development endeavors. Further, gaps exist on how policy implementers perceive socio-cultural matters, how they are implementing the policy provisions relating to safeguarding social and cultural lives and rights of the communities affected by various development endeavors.

There is a need for an analysis of the representation of these issues so as to assess how the country's policy frameworks and their implementations align with the international expectations and how they take on board globally legitimate conventions pertaining to socio-cultural aspects of environment and development. The objective of this study, was therefore, to address socio-cultural considerations in environmental policy formulation and implementation in Ethiopia, with specific objectives of:

1. assessing the *representation* of socio-cultural issues in the environmental policy of Ethiopia and related national development impact assessment frameworks;
2. describing the relevant implementers' awareness of socio-cultural components of the environmental policy;
3. assessing the current experiences of relevant government organs in implementing socio-cultural provisions stipulated in the policy and impact assessment framework; and
4. identifying major challenges facing implementation of the policy provisions.

2. Methodology

2.1 Study Paradigm and Design

The study maintains a paradigm of broadly qualitative, **interpretivist research orientation**. The strategy was cross-sectional, descriptive oriented. The data were generated on how socio-cultural issues are defined, scoped, and represented in policy instruments and the challenges facing implementation of policy provisions.

Data Sources

Both primary and secondary sources of data were employed.

2.2 Sampling and Sample Size

The principle of *information redundancy* or *data saturation* determined the number of informants required for qualitative interviews. Key informant interviews with relevant office holders in the Environment Protection Commission at Federal level were undertaken.

2.3 Methods of Data Collection

2.3.1 Critical Content Analysis Through Policy Document Reviews

This involved critical reviews of the contents including primarily the National Environmental Policy. Other relevant national instruments such as the National Constitution and National Environment and Social Impact Assessment Framework were also be reviewed.

2.3.2 Key Informant Interviews with Policy Formulators & Implementers

Key informant interview with 11 officers at the relevant federal offices was conducted. Initial plan of interviewing a total of 35 key informants did not materialize due to logistics and informants' accessibility. However, the data that came from the 11 cases did a fairly good level of saturation.

Instrumentation and Data Collection Procedures

Key interview question guides were designed to generate data through interviewing the policy formulators and implementers. Question guides prepared in English were translated into Amharic and interview session were undertaken on face to face basis with each informant. The session was digitally audiotaped whenever feasible. Audio-recording was supplemented by careful notetaking.

2.4 Data Analysis

Data transcription, management and analysis was done using Microsoft Excel 365 and MAXQDA 2020 computer assisted qualitative data analysis software. The former was used to prepare the transcribed data before importing to MAXQDA 2020. The data obtained through note taking and digital voice recording were organized through transcription and summarization before being entered to the software. The interview data were transcribed using Google Live Transcript software and the transcribed data were then thoroughly edited for consistency, accuracy, formatting, and editorial issues. The data were exported to Microsoft Excel where they were prepared further for importation to MAXQDA 2020. Using MAXQDA 2020 Thematic Analysis approach, the responses were coded, and then thematic issues were identified through word/ theme frequency run. Analysis was undertaken based on the question guides in the instrument.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Description of Study Institutions & Informants

The primary field data as well as supporting secondary data mainly came from various institutions in the Federal Environment, Forestry & Climate Change Commission. Justification for focusing on this public service organization is already outlined in the methodological section. As a small scale, qualitative study, this project is a snapshot of issues from the focal point of the Commission, which is a major actor and mandate- holding government organ in issues pertaining to environmental policy formulations and how these impact social and cultural issues.

The key institutions within the Commission where our informants were based at included the Ethiopian Wildlife Protection Authority, the Ethiopian Biodiversity Institute and most of all, the various directorates in the Federal Commission for Environment, Forestry and Climate Change. As the demographic background description below shows, much of our informants were based at the Commission. Of 11 key informants, 8 were from various directorates of the Commission, two from Ethiopia Biodiversity Institute and one was from Ethiopian Wildlife Authority.

The informants' posts in their institutions at the time of the interview ranged from Directors to Experts. Most of the informants held the post of a researcher. Four of the informants were experts at various levels of seniority; three were directorate generals, two were researchers and one, advisor. Regarding educational status, 56% of the informants held a master's degree, one had a PhD and the rest, bachelor's degrees. Two of the informants were female, the rest males. All the eleven informants represented eleven different but related fields of studies, ranging from forestry and climate change, environmental law, biology, sustainable development and legal studies.

Overall, the data coming from these 11 informants may not be used as a basis for solid recommendations, perhaps from quantitative research perspective; however, it is important to note that the key principle in qualitative research is data saturation, and as such, a fairly rich data was generated from these informants who represent the various spectrums of their organizations, from expert level to directors.

4.2 Socio-cultural Issues in Environmental Policy Instruments: Representation and Instances

Analysis of the responses shows that a range of issues defined as socio-cultural were reported to be included in the existing environmental policy and legal documents, mainly the national environmental policy. The issues, according to the informants, that counted as socio-cultural directly or indirectly ranged from health, livelihood, economic development, cultural values, to natural heritages. As the figure below shows, most of the informants referred to such issues as gender, community participation, cultural values, and indigenous knowledge. Mention is also made of health, livelihood, and impact assessments.

Sure enough, the list of issues defined as social and cultural in the existing environmental policy and related documents reflect the views and experiences of the informants, and they may not be as exhaustive enough. Nonetheless, it is interesting to observe that, in the views of the informants, the things defined as social and cultural in the policy documents are diverse enough. There is a note of mixing, however, social-cultural, and economic development issues, all seemingly lumped as social. So the definition of social-cultural issues as represented in the policy documents, at least the way the documents are perceived by the informants, seem to be incomplete, or rather not very clearly singling out social issues. Moreover, as some informants acknowledged, there is even more confusion as to *what cultural or socio-cultural issues are* and all the various issues, including health, economic development, social security, livelihood, natural heritages, local community participation, and gender, are lumped together as *social issues*.

What are the actual instances of strategies, directives or regulations that make specific references to socio-cultural issues? Informants were asked to cite specific, tangible instruments that are in place in this regard, particularly, any specific references to socio-cultural issues as such.

The informants were more convinced, when asked this question that many of the now known national policy and strategy documents and proclamations can be taken as clear, tangible instances of the specific references made to socio-cultural issues in the documents. Informants cited instances of existing policy and legal documents that in one way or another make references to socio-cultural issues. For example, according KII-03-: 2 – 2-2020, there are clear references to socio-cultural issues in The 1997 Environmental Policy; Environmental Impact Assessment Proclamation No. 299/ 2002 and the detailed implementation strategies; and Biosafety Law.

Another informant argued that clear references are made to indigenous knowledge registration and recognition by Ethiopian biodiversity Institute; and cultural and heritage sites conservation and development by Culture Tourism Ministry (KII-01-: 2 – 2; 2020).

Some commonly cited instances of national policy and strategy instruments:

- The Environmental Policy of Ethiopia, 1997;
- Climate Resilient Green Strategy;
- National Adaptation Plan-NAP
- Environment Impact Assessment Proclamation No. 299/1995;
- Flower Crop Production Sector Procedure Code 200 7/2003
- Health Policy of 1993;
- Water Policy 1997;
- Community Involvement in the Environmental Impact Assessment Process;
- Environmental Pollution Control Proclamation;
- The Green Growth Strategy for the Climate Change Resilient Economy
- The Proclamation on Genetically Modified Species;
- Bio-Safety Proclamation; and
- Conservation and Use of Forestry

According to a senior officer at the Commission, overall, social and cultural issues are clearly referenced in the existing legal and policy documents of the country in both broader framework such as, for example, in the national Constitution of 1995 where it is declared that citizens have the rights to live in green and clean environments; the 1997 environmental policy; and narrow, sector-wise policies. In broad frameworks, the environmental policy generally aims at creating environment based on sustainable economic development and stable social security. Social security, peace, indigenous knowledge, peoples' rights, local knowledge, and community participation issues are among the key pillars of the policy frameworks. According to this senior

office, the various sector-wise policy documents and regulations further enshrine social issues as key components (KII-10-: 8 – 11; 2020).

As informants further noted, sector-wise policies and strategies such as the national disaster risk management strategy considers how cultural heritage may be affected through disasters. There are also gender aspects and indigenous people's rights. The national forestry policy has a key component called Participatory Forest Management (PFM). The PFM enshrines participation of the community and other stakeholders as central; this is about social issues. It gives due attention to the role of the community, considering the role of the local community and their indigenous and traditional knowledge in these areas.

The Climate Resilient Green Economic Strategy is a specific policy that focuses on climate issues. It pays much attention to resilience which is about people and social issues: how to be resilient in terms of risks and shocks to any kind of shocks to climate change manifesting itself in such disasters as drought or floods. Furthermore, according to an informant, the 1999 Water Policy, although mainly part of environment, is also social security issue in that water is public resources and public access to clean water is very important. It's also viewed as part of human rights issue.

Similar things are reported to found in the conservation strategy of the country. For example, the beneficiary schemes recognize local communities because their roles are very high in protecting the resources. These are in policy frameworks and these are materialized through specific laws and proclamations: how to share, whom to share, how much, etc. Similarly, in Wildlife protection there is beneficiary scheme; much of the benefit should go to community empowerment issues so that the community has the sense of ownership of the wildlife resource. The national environmental impact assessment proclamation, it is argued by some informants, makes vivid references to social issues, as it sees the impact on environment, economic development and social security as three key components. These are very important components in environmental impact assessment proclamation.

It appears that the informants are overall confident that social-cultural issues are well represented in the national policy instruments. But from the overall tone of the data, it is fair to state that the existing environmental policy and related documents duly represent social and cultural issues. As one informant argued, while the documents fairly represent and define social issues, the issue of *how complete and adequate* as well as *clearly making distinctions between social and cultural*

issues are matters for further debate. It is fair to note that the *extent of completeness and with what level of sensitivity are social and cultural issues defined and considered*, etc. are open to question.

When the more nuanced aspect of ‘social’ and ‘cultural’ issues is considered, it becomes even clearer that the existing documents do not duly consider and define these aspects adequately. Nonetheless, as noted above, it does not seem fair to argue that environmental policy should be detailed and specific enough to cite cultural and social issues in more details. As a policy document, and above all, as primarily targeting environmental sustainability concepts, these documents may not necessarily and fairly be expected to cover social and cultural issues in the level desired by concerned professionals of socio-cultural matters. But given the long accepted tradition in the environmentalism and conservation movements and paradigms where biodiversity conservation and economic growth have been much emphasized and socio-cultural issues sidetracked, it is important to challenge and ask existing environmental policy frameworks whether they duly define, represent and consider social and cultural issues.

4.3 Policy Implementers' Awareness

Existence of socio-cultural issues in environmental policy instruments is one thing; awareness of the policy implementers with positive readiness to implement is another thing. Further still, the state of implementation of policy provisions for socio-cultural issues in various environmental policy documents is quite another important issue.

Although difficult to judge, given the limited cases we have in this small-scale study, policy implementers' awareness of socio-cultural issues as defined in existing environmental related policies and laws is overall reported as weak. Informants used various expressions for this: some stating it is “satisfactory”; some argued policy implementers have ‘little awareness.’ As one informant noted, “In general, the awareness level is not bad but... there is no separate component for social issues during project development and implementation as well as monitoring and evaluation,” (KII-05-: 9 - 9).

Another informant generally made a solid argument saying “Many awareness creation activities have been done in the last three decades. The laws and policies have been progressively improving and the problems are also getting more complicated And, it requires lots of resource. But we must ask: has it got broad impact? ...” (KII-10-:25-25). This connotes awareness in general exists

and it has improved, but the real question becomes: To what extent has it been implemented? We need to look at this in the following section.

4.4 Implementation State of Provisions for Socio-Cultural Issues in EPIs & Best Lessons

As the data show, overall, informants argued that while the existing policy and strategy documents are very impressive on the paper, their implementation state is woeful. Thus, to the question, “Are socio-cultural provisions in environmental related policy and legal instruments duly implement? If so, why?”, all of our informants resoundingly replied that implementation is very weak. Quite wide-ranging reasons were offered for the failure, ranging from the challenge of implementing socio-cultural provisions in a multi-cultural, ethnically diverse society like ours; to lack of commitment and corruptive, selfish interests, as one informant noted: “Totally not implemented in our country because our politicians and implementers are selfish and rent-seekers,” (KII-01-: 4 - 4). Another informant called attention to problems in integrating social and cultural issues with environmental issues: “They are not being implemented because economic and social issues have not been properly managed in integrated manner to ensure sustainable development,” (KII-06-: 4 - 4)”

Other informants called attention to commitment citing it as very important. Even if there is proper awareness, it is difficult to implement given lack of commitment, as one informant noted: “They are not implemented correctly. This is because most communities and stakeholders have awareness problems. Even among those who have an understanding, there is also an unwillingness to implement due to the problem of negligence and commitment,” (KII-07-: 4 - 4).

In general, the main reasons for poor implementation of socio-cultural provisions in environmental policy instruments may be categorized as: limited awareness and knowledge on the issue; lack of commitment; poor integration and coordination: lack of uniform implementation strategies across the board; social and cultural issues given very low attention in developmental project activities; and low implementation capacity.

In summary, while existing environmental policy and legal instruments are impressively crafted to include social and cultural issues, the provisions are generally poorly implemented. Of course, some level of implementation achievements may be cited, and indeed our informants made mentions of some model cases whereby socio-cultural issues are duly getting implemented. For

example, as one informant mentioned, the community-forestry conservation and the participatory forestry programs may be a good model examples of implementation. A case in point may be that which is found in south-western Ethiopia and in western Oromia regions where robust community conservation and forestry programs have considered social and cultural issue, acknowledging the values and role of local knowledge and indigenous resource management practices. Socio-cultural issues in such endeavors as gender participation, participatory decision-making, benefit-sharing, sustainable use and conservation of forest resources, conservation of cultural and natural heritages, promotion of forest and biodiverse-friendly religious worldviews, etc. may be cited as good cases.

But apart from these limited cases, overall, the implementation state is generally reported as very poor and in need of reformation. To be fair, it is reasonable to acknowledge the good lessons in participatory forestry management areas, and in the now relatively stronger emphasis being put on the need for social, health and cultural impact assessment when reviewing and approving development projects. Encouraging community participation, providing for protecting cultural heritages and local knowledge systems, safeguarding the rights of marginalized social groups and mainstreaming gender and youth matters in environmental related policy and strategy instruments may thus be acknowledged as good signs of implementing.

However, when taken overall, translation of policy provisions for social issues and cultural values in environmental policy formulations and implementation have remained elusive, weak, and very much wanting, with much stress still being laid on the purely physical-environmental aspects and the economic growth initiatives overshadowing the more soft power issues of cultural heritages, social institutions, local knowledge systems and world views, which are being considered very crucial part of the environment and conservation endeavor as a whole at global stages.

4.5 Key Challenges Facing Policy Implementation

What factors exist that impede the realization of socio-cultural policy provisions in environmental policy instruments? There is no lack of issues standing out as challenges. Many factors work towards limiting the realizations of policy provisions, in general not just for socio-cultural issues. The problem ore intensifies when it comes to ‘soft power’ of socio-cultural aspects. The various factors mentioned by the informants, indeed may be regarded as a representative sample of factors, the size of sample notwithstanding.

The issues are the same issues that also showcase in other areas. Staff turnover and the resultant institutional memory loss is a key issue that is hampering implementations in many public service organizations. Lack of capacity (financial, knowledge and skills) are also very important. Much more emotionally charged factors are the issues of lack of political will, motivation and commitment from both policy formulators and implementers. One of the informants best summarizes the key challenges as follows, emphasizing the more neglected issue of peace and security and what he calls the ‘Silo Approach,’ i.e. lack of integrations among sectors as well:

The socio-cultural provisions in environmental policy documents have suffered from these assorted and interlinked challenges which are very much pronounced in the country.

5 Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Discussion

The issue of unsustainable development, environmental problems, climate change and their impacts on societal wellbeing and development are high on the international agenda (Conway & Schipper, 2011; Dove, 2014; Salick & Ross, 2009). Academic and policy literature on sustainable development and impact assessment call for careful considerations of socio-cultural issues in development policy formulations and practice. The Millennium Development Goals and Agenda 2030- the Sustainable Development Goals have empirical and tangible points whereby issues of social and cultural significance are made part of the global policy dialogues (MEA, 2005; UN, 2015).

Literature on environmental policies and the definition and representing of socio-cultural issues is generally patchy, particularly in Ethiopian context. However, some source suggests that there has been an increasing acceptance and recognition of social and cultural issues in environmental policy formulations in the recent decades across the world (Cahill, 2002). Despite such increasing recognition, hazy definitions and misrepresentations of socio-cultural issues when considering policy formulations in the hard, physically oriented fields is still a challenge (Sagnia, 2004).

Viewed from the literature context, the result on whether, how and to what extent socio-cultural issues are defined and represented in Ethiopia’s environmental policy documents may be considered as technically and conceptually sound, given the improving trends in the past recent decades. Ethiopia’s policy instruments on paper are generally touted as very impressive and

progressive, these including those addressing socio-cultural issues in environmental policy formulations (Ruffeis et al., 2010).

Many policy and strategy instruments in recent years have been put forward, that directly or indirectly provide provisions for socio-cultural issues. This appears to be much so in the recent trends in putting up frameworks and instruments for guidance of social, economic, and environmental development projects. The national constitution, environmental policy, and a host of other policy instruments all make some references to social and cultural issues (FDRE EPA, 1997; FDRE-the CRGE Initiative, 2011).

Some most recent policy and strategy documents seem to draw home the message of the importance of socio-cultural nexus with environmental and economic sustainability. The national social and environmental impact assessment frameworks and in light of this, many initiatives from the private and para-governmental sectors have made efforts in putting forward policy directives and guidance on how best to consider social and cultural issues in the industrial development processes (DBE, 2017; EIA, 2018; MOST, 2016; Ministry Of Industry, 2014).

While these and other empirical sources suggest the definition and representation of social and cultural issues can be considered fair and commendable, many of the problems are linked to the desired level of possessing appropriate awareness and attitudes towards socio-cultural issues, the level of actual implementation of the policy provisions and thus the scale of desired positive impacts that have accrued from the existing policy and legal frameworks.

With respect to these issues, the findings of the study as presented above compares with the empirical studies documenting the state of the successes of environmental policies and environmental impact assessment tools. The implementation status of environmental policy and impact assessment proclamations in the general sense has been assessed by many scholars, particularly from legal studies perspectives (see for, example Abdi, 2012; Bayou, 2008; Dantie, 2008; Gubena, 2016; Ruffeis et al., 2010; Takele, n.d.). These studies generally focus on the implementation lacunae and not necessarily on whether and to what extent provisions for social-cultural issues are addressed and implemented. An unpublished master thesis report makes a good attempt at assessing how Ethiopia's environmental policies and impact assessment proclamations treat socio-ethical issues (see Taye, 2019, *Is Ethiopia's Environmental Policy ethical?* See also Desta, n.d., Environmental Policy for Ethiopia's Sustainable Social and Economic Development: A Working Paper, n.d.).

The empirical studies make reference to the most pressing factors that impede proper implementation of environmental impact assessment and similar policy instruments, although they do not make specific reference to socio-cultural issues. Nonetheless, the issues they raise as key challenges are also most notably the ones that are presented above. For instance Taye (n.d.), Damtie (2008), Gubena (2016) argue that awareness limitations, resource shortages, and above all low political will and commitment, along with also knowledge and technology gaps are among the key factors that impede proper implementation of environmental policies and instruments in Ethiopia.

Some sources suggest that Ethiopia has put in place one of the best policies and legal instruments concerning environment, social development, and the nexus of society, development, and environment. The 1997 environment policy is a very comprehensive and cogent one (Abdi, 2012; S. Edwards, 2010; Gubena, 2016; Janka, 2012; Tekelemichael, n.d.), the poor implementation state notwithstanding. Perhaps, it may be fair to cite some cases in Ethiopia, as part of policy supported and promoted matter, the issue of participatory forest management (PFM), such as the case in southwestern Ethiopia and in western Oromia, which are taken as best lessons of environmental and conservation policies marriage amicably with social and cultural goals, some of the cases featuring in UNSECO World Heritage and Man & Biosphere Program (Vaughn, 2010; Woldemariam & Fetene, 2010; UNESCO, 2014).

5.2 Conclusion

Ethiopia's Constitution provides clear support for social and cultural goals linking with environmental rights and values. It stipulates that citizens have the rights to live in green and clean environments, to participate in national development initiatives affecting their lives, and obliges governments and other actors to uphold these goals. Existing environmental policy and the various proclamations and strategy documents on environment, pollution, development, and social inclusion all provide for social and cultural issues, promoting integration of local lives, livelihoods, and beliefs and identities with sustainable environments and economic development. The environment policy is hailed as very much replete with socio-economic and cultural goals, with issues of participations, the role of local communities, indigenous knowledge, bio-friendly religious worldviews and institutions, and benefit-sharing mechanisms very much showcasing the pages of the various policy documents. Sector-wise policy and strategy documents likewise do not lack focus on how social and cultural issues may be entertained. Respect and recognition for local

role and knowledge in biodiversity and natural resource conservation, and the varieties of age-old local practices relevant for national and economic and social development, peace, are generally referenced in several policy documents.

However, the main problem lies in adequacy of representation of socio-cultural issues, particularly cultural resources (notably heritages, identities, belief systems social institutions, etc.). More so, the problem lies in the state of realizing the policy provisions for socio-cultural issues. Policy formulators and implementers' general level of socio-culturally sensitive awareness, attitude and commitment is a key gap. Often, policy formulators and implementers so often ignore socio-cultural issues, mainly out of low sensitivity and sometimes due to bias and low concern for these elements.

With all these challenges impeding the proper implementation, including capacity and technology limitations, lack of coordination and integration, low motivation and commitment as well as low level of capacity and awareness, some showcases exist that may best exemplify what happens when socio-cultural values and institutions are duly represented and considered both in paper and practice, this putting Ethiopia in the UNECSO world map.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the above findings and conclusions, the following recommendations may be put forward:

- Low awareness and sensitivity to socio-cultural issues among policy implementers in environmental areas suggests the need for continuous and concrete efforts in increasing the awareness and sensitivity of the stakeholders.
- While social and cultural issues are generally defined and represented in the policy documents, nonetheless they suffer from lack of focused and clear distinctions between the 'social' and the cultural'; the 'social' and the 'economic'. There is a need for clear definition and representation of socio-cultural issues in the future policy documents on environment protection.
- Lack of integration and 'Silo' approach was found to be a key challenge. Various sectors and actors working in the area of environmental and socio-cultural sustainability and the various government sectors and other statehooders need to work together. Integration of issues and actions between sectors that have the specific mandate for socio-cultural

resources (such as Culture and Tourism Ministry) and other relevant actors such as professionals on socio-cultural issues need to be consulted when national policy and strategy documents are designed on environmental protection issues.

- The requisite resources especially relating to socio-cultural issues and their implementation in the national environmental policy and impact assessment instruments, need to be in place if proper implementation of the policy provisions for socio-cultural issues are to be realized.

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Tourism as a Pathway to Livelihood Diversification: Evidence from Biosphere Reserves, Ethiopia

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Abstract

This study aims at investigating the impact of tourism components on livelihood diversification outcomes or assets in Ethiopian biosphere reserves. A cross-sectional study was employed using descriptive and explanatory research design where a mixed research approach was used to collect data from a total of 305 multistage stratified random samples (rural and urban households). To meet the research objectives both primary and secondary data sources were used. The hierarchical regression model was employed using SPSS version 23. Each tourism component had varied effects on each livelihood outcomes and it was in favor of tourism enterprises than rural household's stratum. Integrated and diversified livelihood approaches should be the focus of policymakers and researchers that shall involve communities in the development process to make tourism as a pathway for livelihood diversification.

Keywords: *Tourism; Livelihood Diversification Livelihood Diversification Outcomes; Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve; Ethiopia*

1. Introduction

Tourism is among of the fastest-growing industry in terms of both income generation and job creation. Tourism is the third-largest export category with international tourism receipts increased by 4.9% to reach US\$1,340 billion in 2017 with 1326 million tourist arrivals and a 7% growth rate (UNWTO, 2018). Thus, sustainable tourism development in protected areas will be a viable option to put an end to serious problems, particularly in developing countries (Nthiga et al., 2015) to support people living with poverty (Bennett et al., 2012; Tao & Wall, 2009b).

Enhancing the livelihoods of unprivileged people requires various livelihood strategies that enable people to engage in various practices that would make life better which resembles the concept of livelihood diversification. Rural households, especially the underprivileged communities strive to cope up with vulnerabilities and crises using various forms of economic activities. Households need to diversify their livelihood through either structurally shifting their livelihood from on-farm to non-farm strategies (Start, 2001; Timmer, 2009) or employing a diverse multiplicity of livelihood portfolios regardless of their sector and location (Alobo Loison, 2015). Livelihood diversification is defined as "the process by which rural families construct a diverse portfolio of

activities and social support capabilities in their struggle for survival and to improve their standards of living" (Ellis, 1998).

Sustainable livelihood framework emphasizes on the interests of the communities and identifies the intricacy of people's lives (Su et al., 2019). Tourism development influences those traditional livelihood strategies that possess a valuable share of the entire communities' wellbeing (Muresan et al., 2016; Su et al., 2016). Conversely, tourism most often triggers the complete transformation of traditional livelihoods and fully dependent on tourism (Lasso & Dahles, 2018) despite its meaningful potential to reduce the gap between the underprivileged and the affluent people (Wu & Pearce, 2014). Various researchers also argue that managing tourism sustainably has the tremendous potential to provide infrastructure, financial and employment opportunities to the marginalized rural communities in developing countries (Sloan et al., 2014). Besides, tourism is a major group of international trade in services that boasted virtually uninterrupted growth demonstrating the strength and resilience of the sector despite incidental shocks (UNWTO, 2017). This fact verifies that tourism can create jobs; the jobs that are created will increase incomes of a household which as a result will reduce household poverty which in turn will have a significant impact on livelihood options and tourism communities' income (Gartner & Cukier, 2012). It is truly found that tourism if promoted and enhanced, has an interesting significant impact on the people's livelihood due to the income generated from tourism activities and employment (Ahebwa et al., 2016).

Ethiopian economy is highly dependent on agriculture still employing over 83% of the labour force contributing more than 34.9% of GDP in 2016/17 (NBE, 2017/18) from over 112 million population of the country (United Nations, 2019). It constitutes 80% of the export value (Shibru et al., 2017). A contribution of agriculture is still an important role player not only in the national economy of Ethiopia (Gebre-Selassie & Bekele, 2012; Shibru et al., 2017) but also in the livelihood and socio-cultural systems of the country even though a large number of people are still under poverty (Endalew et al., 2015). The travel and tourism sector has contributed 6.8% of Ethiopian GDP (USD 5,074.3 million) in 2017 and is forecasted to rise by 6.3% in 2018 and to rise by 5.2% per annum to (USD 8,915.4 million), 6.1% of the GDP in 2028 (WTTC, 2018). Thus, tourism has long been considered to be a valuable catalyst in rural development and revitalization (Su et al., 2016).

Livelihood assets have a significant impact on livelihood options of income of tourism communities (Gartner & Cukier, 2012; Ma et al., 2018) because spatial, location and physical settings have always been detrimental in seminal of economic activities, culture, and livelihood of people in rural areas in particular (Roy, 2013). The first and second growth and transformation plan of Ethiopia has mentioned tourism as a means to make people out of poverty (Kebede & Bayeh, 2017) though practically emphasized measures are yet to be taken. Tourism serves as a livelihood portfolio of diversification strategy complement rather than replacing existing livelihood sources that lead to strategies of livelihood diversification (Tao & Wall, 2009a). As also pinpointed by previous studies, tourism has the potential to increase the livelihood portfolio of communities through increment of additional livelihood option which in turn can increase extra income and other non-financial assets other than replacing traditional livelihood strategies (Kheiri & Nasihatkon, 2016; Muresan et al., 2016; Su et al., 2016, 2019).

Although the contribution of tourism for community development in general and community livelihood in particular has been investigated by previous researches, the measurement of its contribution for livelihood diversification outcome (i.e., quantitative measurement of tourism component-based impact on each of livelihood capitals/assets) remain untouched and yet to be studied. The four livelihood outcomes viz., economic, social, physical and institutional livelihood outcome have been selected for this research purpose because these outcomes are visibly impacted by tourism (Ashley, 2000; Shen, 2009; Su et al., 2019; Tao & Wall, 2009; Zhang et al., 2019). Thus, the present research aims to analyze the contribution of tourism components (economic, socio-cultural, environmental and institutional) on the four livelihood outcomes at the household level of rural household and tourism-related enterprises in Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve.

2. Hypotheses

Based on these pieces of works of literature, connections between tourism with its dimensions were observed and the following general and sub-hypotheses were drawn.

H₁: Tourism and its dimensions have a significant effect on livelihood diversification.

H_{1a}: *Economic, socio-cultural, environmental and institutional dimensions of tourism have a significant effect on economic livelihood diversification outcomes for both Rural Households and Tourism Enterprises and related organizations.*

H_{1b}: *Economic, socio-cultural, environmental and institutional dimensions of tourism have a significant effect on social livelihood diversification outcomes for both Rural Households and Tourism Enterprises and related organizations.*

H_{1c}: Economic, socio-cultural, environmental and institutional dimensions of tourism have a significant effect on physical livelihood diversification outcomes for both Rural Households and Tourism Enterprises and related organizations.

H_{1d}: Economic, socio-cultural, environmental and institutional dimensions of tourism have a significant effect on institutional livelihood diversification outcomes for both Rural Households and Tourism Enterprises and related organizations.

2. Methodology

2.1. Description of the study area

Lake Tana is Ethiopia's largest lake possessing half of the nation's freshwater and the source of the Blue Nile supporting the lives of hundreds of millions in the Nile Basin (Goshu & Aynalem, 2017). It is the home of 37 islands and sacred monasteries located in North-Western Ethiopian Highlands in the Amhara National Regional State between the geographic coordinates of 10°58'–12°47'N latitude and 36°45'–38°14' E longitude with its surface area ranges from 3,000 to 3,500 km² depending on season and rainfall (Admas et al., 2017). Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve, registered in 2015, is among the fourth UNESCO world biosphere reserve sites of Ethiopia (Worku, 2017).

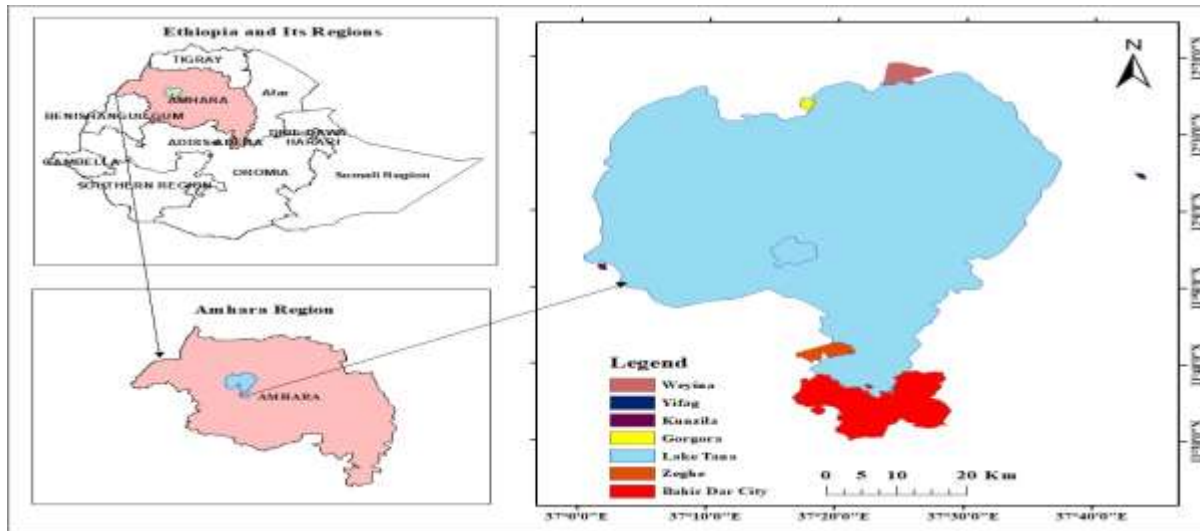


Figure 1: Map of the Study Area (Authors' Own: 2018)

2.2. Approach

A cross-sectional study employing both descriptive and explanatory design was used. A mixed research approach was entertained. Multi-stage stratified random sampling (based on main means of livelihood strategy or economic activity, residence area (rural or urban), expected and perceived knowledge of respondents about the environment, lifestyle and expected income difference) for self-administered survey questionnaires and judgmental purposive sampling for the selection of respondents for interview and sample sites were used.

The two strata were: Rural Households (HHs) stratum which consists of mainly rural residents dependent rural livelihood strategies and Tourism enterprises and related organizations (TEs) stratum that consists of enterprises who are working in tourism and related services.

The samples were drawn from the 6000 household population (ANRS BoFED, 2018) taken from 6 sites (Bahir Dar, Zeghe Peninsula, Kunzila, Gorgora, Yifag, Woyna) purposively selected. The rationale behind the selection of sample areas include availability of tourism activities and tourist flows, existence of relatively better economic practices undertaken in the biosphere, and direct access to the lake with better transportation access to shore of the lake. The sample size was determined based on (Yamane, 1967) sampling technique. The sample size was 374 and 10% (37) were also added to reduce the non-response rate that makes the total questionnaire distributed 431. A total of 375 questionnaires were returned and 70 were excluded from analysis due to invalid responses. Thus, a total of 305 respondents based on the proportion (159 from rural households and 146 from tourism enterprises and related organizations) were used for quantitative analysis. Data were collected by the corresponding author from September 2017 to June 2018 for 10 months. Data were collected on a five-point Likert scale from “1” for strongly disagree to “5” for strongly agree for the two constructs (tourism and livelihood diversification) based on their respective dimensions and outcomes respectively. This kind of scale is also a recommendation of scholars such as (Grassi et al., 2007). Descriptive analysis was computed to present the demographic characteristics of respondents. Hierarchical regression analysis was employed to measure the impact of tourism dimensions on livelihood diversification outcomes and livelihood diversification construct.

2.3. Reliability and Validity

Validity was checked consulting five professionals from disciplines related to the present study and the research supervisor by which the instruments were not merely developed by the researcher. A portion of instruments was also adopted from a standardized questionnaire. The reliability of the items was measured employing 10% of the total sample i.e., 37 out of 374 sample respondents in a pilot test. Reliability of the survey instruments estimated based on the Cronbach's alpha value for various items of the variables and the values varied from *0.749 to 0.930* and inter-item correlation $r > or = .30$, were found to be acceptable based on (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011; Wells & Wollack, 2003) measure of internal consistency.

3. Results

3.1. Characterization of the Sample Respondents

Table 1: Socio-demographic status of sample respondents (HHs and TEs)

Gender	HHs		TEs			Age category							
	C	%	C	%		18 -34		35-49		50-60		Above 60	
						C	%	C	%	C	%	C	%
Male	114	71.7	88	60.3	HHs	107	67.3	37	23.3	11	7.5	4	2.5
Female	45	28.3	58	39.7	TEs	112	76.7	25	17.1	3	1.9	6	4.3
		Education				Marital status							
		HHs		TEs				HHs		TEs			
Level	C	%	C	%	Status		C	%	C	%			
Can't read & write	9	5.7	-	-	Married		72	45.3	63	43.2			
Can read & write	20	12.6	6	4.1	Single		61	38.4	52	35.6			
Elementary	35	22.0	11	7.5	Partner		9	5.7	17	11.6			
Secondary	47	29.6	26	17.8	Divorced		7	4.4	8	5.5			
certificate/diploma	34	21.4	50	34.2	Separated		7	4.4	5	3.4			
Some univ. course	-	-	13	8.9	Widowed		3	1.9	1	.7			
University degree	-	-	36	24.7	HH size								
Masters and above	-	-	4	2.7			HHs		TEs				
Special training	14	8.8			HH Size		C	%	C	%			
Sample: Households (HHs) = 159, TEs = 146, and C= count, % = Percent						1-3	69	43.4	71	48.6			
						4-6	61	38.4	54	37.0			
						7-10	25	15.7	14	9.6			
						> 10	4	2.5	7	4.8			

Source: Field Survey, 2018

3.2. Assumptions

In order to make multiple regression analysis, all the assumptions have been checked and all the assumptions were fulfilled. The linearity of relationship between Independent Variables (IVs) i.e., economic, social, physical, institutional tourism dimensions and each Dependent Variable (DV) of livelihood diversification (LD) outcomes (ECON_{LD}, SOCLD, PHY_{LD}, and INST_{LD}) were checked using a scatter plot. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) less than ten and tolerance statistics greater than 0.2 show that there are no multicollinearity problems. But, multicollinearity problems exist environmental dimensions of tourism were found multicollinear with institutional dimensions for HHs ($r=.894$) and with social dimensions ($r=.933$) for TEs. To solve this problem the variable with a small correlation with the DV was removed from the hierarchical regression models for each DV (P. Vatcheva & Lee, 2016). The acceptable value of Durbin–Watson statistics between 1 and 3 for about 1.510 and 1.562 for ECON_{LD}, 1.483 and 1.624 for SOCLD, 1.555 and 1.954 for PHY_{LD}, and 1.667 and 1.748 for INST_{LD} for the rural households and tourism enterprises and related organizations stratum respectively that conveyed residuals are independent. The assumptions of homoscedasticity where values of residuals are constant for each of DVs were achieved based on

the normality probability curve. The closer the dots lie to the diagonal line, the closer to normal the residuals are distributed where the normal p-p plot dots line indicates that the assumption of normality has not been violated that indicates there is normally distribution. Furthermore, the value of Cook's distance values was not greater than 1 for each of DVs indicates there are no influential cases, for each of the outcome variables.

3.3. Regression Analysis Results

3.3.1. Rural Households

The model summary table that shows the percentage of variance explained in the dependent variable revealed the economic and social dimensions of tourism benefits have explained .285 (28.5%) of the variance in the dependent variable i.e., economic livelihood outcome seeking improved wellbeing of the households. Institutional and economic dimensions explain the 30.5% of variance explained in Social livelihood outcomes. Whereas the social and institutional tourism dimensions predict 14.9% of variance explained in the physical livelihood outcome. The economic and institutional tourism dimensions reflect the significant variance explained in institutional livelihood outcome that accounts for 20.3% of the variance. Moreover, the sum of the mean of each livelihood outcome was labelled as livelihood diversification and the model summary exhibited 34.1% of its variance is explained by institutional, economic and social dimensions of tourism respectively.

Table 2: Model Summary of Variance Explained for Livelihood by Tourism (HHs)

DV	Model Summary ^c					
	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
Econ _{LD}	2	.542 ^b	.294	.285	.773	1.510
Soc _{LD}	2	.563 ^b	.316	.308	.738	1.483
Phy _{LD}	2	.400 ^b	.160	.149	.791	1.555
Inst _{LD}	2	.462 ^b	.213	.203	.808	1.667
LD	3	.595 ^c	.354	.341	.60646	1.409

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tom_{Soc}, Tom_{Eco}, Tom_{Inst}

c. Dependent Variable: Econ_{LD}, Soc_{LD}, Phy_{LD}, Inst_{LD}, LD

Source: Filed Survey, 2017/18

The hierarchical regression retains only the socio-cultural and economic dimensions of tourism explaining significant variance in the economic livelihood outcome of diversification. The social livelihood outcome regression model retains institutional and economic dimensions only as significant predictors. Moreover, the only significant predictors were socio-cultural and institutional dimensions of tourism in the physical livelihood outcome regression model. The

economic and institutional tourism dimensions were found significant predictors for institutional livelihood outcomes whereas institutional, economic and social tourism dimensions were the significant predictors.

Table 3: Coefficients of Determination for Impact of Tourism on Livelihood (HHs)

Model	Coefficients ^a		t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics				
	Unstandardized Coefficients				Standardized Coefficients	Tolerance	VIF		
	B	Std. Error			Beta				
Econ _{LD}	2	(Constant)	1.110	.173		6.410	.000		
		Tom _{Soc}	.377	.075	.404	4.992	.000	.690	1.449
		Tom _{Eco}	.154	.062	.201	2.477	.014	.690	1.449
Soc _{LD}	2	(Constant)	1.263	.154		8.220	.000		
		Tom _{Inst}	.281	.062	.345	4.550	.000	.762	1.312
		Tom _{Eco}	.228	.056	.307	4.049	.000	.762	1.312
Phy _{LD}	2	(Constant)	1.673	.173		9.670	.000		
		Tom _{Soc}	.201	.083	.229	2.425	.016	.609	1.642
		Tom _{Inst}	.169	.074	.215	2.283	.024	.609	1.642
Inst _{LD}	2	(Constant)	1.655	.168		9.838	.000		
		Tom _{Eco}	.218	.062	.288	3.536	.001	.762	1.312
		Tom _{Inst}	.206	.068	.248	3.044	.003	.762	1.312
LD	3	(Constant)	1.349	.139		9.715	.000		
		Tom _{Inst}	.169	.058	.246	2.900	.004	.582	1.719
		Tom _{Eco}	.168	.050	.268	3.372	.001	.665	1.504
		Tom _{Soc}	.151	.068	.197	2.213	.028	.528	1.894

a. Dependent Variable: Econ_{LD}, Soc_{LD}, Phy_{LD}, Inst_{LD}, LD

Source: Filed Survey, 2017/18

3.3.2. Tourism Enterprises and Related Organizations

The model summary table revealed the economic and institutional dimensions of tourism that explained .407 (40.7%) of the variance in the economic livelihood outcome. Only institutional tourism dimension exhibit the 10.3% of variance explained in social livelihood outcome. The environmental and economical tourism dimensions predict the 33.7% of variance explained in the physical livelihood outcome, and the institutional, economic and environmental tourism dimensions reflect the significant variance explained that accounts 45.3% of variance explained in institutional livelihood outcome. Moreover, the sum of the mean of each livelihood outcome was labelled as livelihood diversification and 46.3% of its variance is explained by institutional and economic dimensions where the environmental tourism dimension failed to explain the scored livelihood diversification construct (*Table 4*).

Table 4: Model Summary of Variance Explained for Livelihood by Tourism (TEs)

DV	Model	R	R Square	Model Summary ^c			Durbin-Watson
				Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
Econ _{LD}	2	.644 ^b	.415	.407	.763	1.562	
Soc _{LD}	1	.331 ^a	.109	.103	.796	1.624	
Phy _{LD}	2	.589 ^b	.347	.337	.934	1.954	
Inst _{LD}	3	.682 ^c	.465	.453	.736	1.748	
LD	2	.686 ^b	.470	.463	.604	1.650	

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tom_{Env}, Tom_{Eco}, Tom_{Inst}
b. Dependent Variable: Econ_{LD}, Soc_{LD}, Phy_{LD}, Inst_{LD}, LD

Source: Filed Survey, 2017/18

The hierarchical regression model revealed only the economic and institutional dimensions of tourism explaining significant variance in economic livelihood outcome of diversification each with beta coefficients .330 and .264 respectively. For social livelihood outcomes, the model retains only institutional tourism dimensions with B=.226 as the significant predictor whereas, for the physical livelihood outcome model, the only significant predictors were environmental (B=.367) and economic (B=.301) dimensions of tourism. The institutional (B=.320), economic (B=.124) and environmental (B=.204) tourism dimensions were found significant predictors for institutional livelihood outcome. Furthermore, institutional and economic tourism dimensions were the significant predictors for total aggregate livelihood diversification with a B value of .270 and .255 respectively where social dimension was removed from the model due to multicollinearity (Table 5).

Table 5: Coefficients of Determination for Impact of Tourism on Livelihood (TEs)

Model	Coefficients ^a						Collinearity Statistics	
	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF	
Econ_{LD}	2 (Constant)	1.357	.176	7.697	.000	.664	1.506	
	Tom _{Eco}	.330	.066	4.986	.000			
	Tom _{Inst}	.264	.064	4.112	.000			
Soc_{LD}	1 (Constant)	2.142	.154	13.882	.000	1.000	1.000	
	Tom _{Inst}	.226	.054	4.158	.000			
Phy_{LD}	2 (Constant)	1.372	.232	5.909	.000	.513	1.948	
	Tom _{Env}	.367	.108	3.405	.001			
	Tom _{Eco}	.301	.092	3.275	.001			
Inst_{LD}	3 (Constant)	1.215	.180	6.762	.000	.458	2.184	
	Tom _{Inst}	.320	.074	4.311	.000			
	Tom _{Eco}	.124	.047	2.634	.009			
	Tom _{Env}	.204	.100	2.047	.043			
	2 (Constant)	1.546	.140	11.073	.000			1.270

LD	TomInst	.270	.051	.403	5.319	.000	.170
	TomEco	.255	.052	.369	4.865	.000	.151

Source: Filed Survey, 2017/18

4. Discussion

4.1. The Impact of Tourism Components on Livelihood Diversification Outcomes

The present study conducted on Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve analyzed the impact of each of the tourism components' (economic, socio-cultural, environmental and institutional) impact on each of the livelihood capitals (economic, social, physical, institutional) and livelihood diversification construct that can be replicated and results could be distributed to other similar areas.

4.1.1. The Impact of Tourism Components on Economic Livelihood Diversification

Outcome

For the rural households, the socio-cultural (B= .377) and economic (B= .154) aspects of tourism impact indicators were found significantly affecting the economic livelihood outcome with 28.5% of variance predicted (*Table 2 & Table 3*). This study portrays economic (B=.330) and institutional (B=.264) components of tourism significantly predict the economic livelihood outcome for about 40.7% of the prediction for Tourism enterprises and related organizations stratum (*Table 4 & Table 5*). The present study finding is supported by the study that revealed the role of tourism in many developing countries to reduce poverty was found to be significant in different developing countries. This similar result was revealed in the study of Croes (2014), that found the contribution of tourism to Ethiopian GDP was found 4.3% in from which significant portion of income had been expected to be redistributed to the poor in various ways.

The present study is aligned to the previous study that portrayed the impact of tourism for various aspects of community' benefits in China has revealed various dimensional impacts of tourism (Li, 2002) that play valuable role for communities at the local level (Tamene & Wondirad, 2019). In terms of economic livelihood outcomes for households, tourism employment generates low levels of income compared to alternative off-farm activities that enable households to strengthen livelihood strategies by investments in on-farm or alternative off-farm activities (Adiyia et al., 2017). But, the role of tourism to local communities and enterprises development has a higher potential in the global scenario where there is higher mobility, a curiosity of new culture, knowledge, and society has increased, and travel formalities have become deduced. The role of community-based tourism enterprises for poverty reductions accelerates the investments in various to improve community livelihoods (Manyara & Jones, 2007). The welfare of households

would be higher for those who engaged and diversify in tourism and other off-farm livelihood strategies (Adiyia et al., 2017; Su et al., 2019).

4.1.2. The Impact of Tourism Components on Social Livelihood Diversification Outcome

The impact of tourism on the social livelihood outcome for the rural households found the institutional factors (B=.281) and economic factors (B=.228) of tourism as significant indicators of livelihood whereas only institutional component of tourism (B=.226) coefficient of hierarchical regression parameter yields for a 10.3% of variance explained in social livelihood outcome for the Tourism enterprises and related organizations households (TEs) (*Table 2 & Table 3; Table 4 & Table 5*). The socioeconomic impacts of tourism have played a significant role in the majority of people living in highly populated rural communities but impacts are substantial for a few people who directly benefit (Spenceley & Goodwin, 2007).

Besides, the social livelihood outcome result revealed tourism has become the major livelihood strategy of Yuanjia Village, China (Gao & Wu, 2017) in which tourism has brought impacts on production activities, material lifestyle, household income, and job satisfaction (León, 2007). Moreover, Su et al., (2019) identified that tourism supports high recognition of positive impacts on living standards and local pride which enhances the social livelihood capital. These previous studies' findings have a strong linkage with the current study with which tourism in general and component impacts specifically have a valuable role to the social ties, socio-cultural exchange, and integration. Furthermore, the tourism induced growth supports tourism-induced human capital development and human capital development-induced growth also supports the valuable contribution of tourism in supporting the social capital (Fahimi et al., 2018; Su et al., 2019) in line with the present study.

4.1.3. The Impact of Tourism Component on Physical Livelihood Diversification Outcome

The enhancement of the physical livelihood outcome of the households was due to social (B=.201) and institutional (B=.169) tourism indicators with 14.9% of the total variance explained for rural households stratum (*Table 2 & Table 3*). About 33.7% of variance explained in the physical livelihood outcome for households in the TEs stratum was significantly predicted by environmental (B=.367) and economic (B=.301) components of tourism (*Table 4 & Table 5*). Surprisingly, communities in the rural household's stratum in this study found that the environmental component of tourism was not significant to enhance physical livelihood outcome and even it has a lower correlation coefficient than the social impact of tourism with physical

livelihood outcome. But, previous research showed physical asset is the most imperative asset in adopting sustainable environmental strategies which in turn shows the significant liaison (Dehghani Pour et al., 2018). This may be associated with a lack of adequate knowledge about the environment which could enhance the physical livelihood outcome. The finding of the present study is also supported by the study that revealed the people with high levels of participation in tourism possess high levels of livelihood assets mainly natural and physical capital assets (Su et al., 2019). Unlike the rural household's stratum, this study revealed that the environmental dimension of tourism has a significant contribution to the enhancement of physical livelihood outcomes for tourism enterprises and related organizations. This discrepancy between the stratus is due to a difference in knowledge and awareness of respondents that reflect the meaningful dissimilarity between rural households, and tourism enterprises and related organizations' respondents in the study area.

4.1.4. The Impact of Tourism Components on Institutional Livelihood Diversification Assets

The institutional livelihood outcome of TEs was significantly predicted by three-component of tourism viz., institutional (B=.320), economic (B=.124) and environmental (B=.204) components of tourism for about 45.3% of its variance explained (*Table 4 & Table 5*). For rural households', the economic (B= .218) and institutional (B=.206) indicators of tourism were found significant contributors for the variance explained institutional livelihood outcomes of rural households with a percentage of 20.3% (*Table 2 & Table 3*). The benefits of tourism in serving as a tool for livelihood diversification strategy in the study area helped the various tourism enterprises to be organized such as Bahir Dar Tour Guide Associations, Bahir Dar Boating Service Associations, Lake Tana Number 1 and number 2 fisheries Associations, etc which enhance the institutional livelihood outcome that in turn enhance the socio-economic livelihood of communities at large. Economic and environmental impacts of tourism enhance the establishment of tourism institutions which again enhance the enhancement of institutional capital which in turn can improve economic, social and physical livelihood assets of communities.

In line with the present study, people's participation in tourism improves political/institutional capital (Stone & Nyaupane, 2017) that help the development of policies and various institutions that could improve the peoples' livelihood (Su et al., 2019). The need to develop tourism sustainably and reduce poverty has insisted community-based tourism enterprises where tourism income captured locally improves rural households' livelihoods and engenders linkages in the local

economy (Lapeyre, 2010). Therefore, the government, communities and other stakeholders will benefit from tourism by enhancing tourism institutions and local enterprises that support people's livelihood. But, tourism's impact on institutional livelihood is still very low which requires planned and valuable intervention in many protected areas, especially in developing countries.

4.1.5. The Impact of Tourism Components on Livelihood Diversification

The result found that institutional ($B= 0.169$), economic ($B= 0.168$) and social ($B= 0.151$) aspects of tourism practices in this study significantly contribute for the improvement of rural households livelihood by 34.1% of an overall variance explained in the diversification of livelihood in the rural households stratum (*Table 2 & Table 3*). Increased employment to minimal and seasonal, increased to decreased wealth, rising costs and expenses, decreased well-being such as social impacts of tourism and displacement from accessing or using some area (Bennett & Dearden, 2014) that supports the findings of the present study. The impact of tourism component factors on livelihood diversification was assessed that revealed the institutional ($B=.270$) and economic ($B=.255$) for about 46.3% of prediction on improvement for the Tourism Enterprises and related organizations stratum (*Table 4 & Table 5*).

Local communities' richness in socio-cultural aspects would also benefit the communities in financial and non-financial aspects of livelihood at individual households and communities level. Reduced urban poverty though did not increase urban income inequality requires appropriate policies that are demanded to address the issues in rural and urban areas differently unlike in the rural areas (Mahadevan et al., 2017). This study also finds the contribution of tourism to enhance diversified livelihood and help to reduce poverty in rural areas and has still a viable role to support the poor and people from urban areas too. Tourism has heterogeneous effects on the poverty ratio in terms of a country's income per capita where its impact on poverty alleviation switches to be negative after a threshold of a country's income level (Kim et al., 2016). The negative impacts found in the study of (Bennett & Dearden, 2014) contradicts to the present study where tourism impacts were found significantly positive to the livelihood outcomes.

Tourism's contribution to both rural and urban regions led to poverty reduction and increase income inequality in rural areas (Mahadevan et al., 2017). The observations and semi-structured interviews revealed that there is no proportionate stake of communities to participate in different tourism-related activities livelihood activities. The majority of the respondents from local people at the Zeghe Peninsula, Maksegnit and Gorgora are still dependent on their traditional livelihood activities and only a few members of the household are engaged in activities related to tourism.

Whereas the tourism activities at Kunzila Port are found non-existent regardless of its scenic view, rich fishing grounds used to serve as a trade port are now closed. The financial, physical and human capitals of rural households are the significant factors for households to diversify the highest level livelihood strategy to improve livelihood (Liu, Zhu, Lin, Li, & Wu, 2017). Given the fact that the higher expectations of people living in and around the protected areas about what tourism could offer to them (Goodwin & Roe, 2001), most of the people around Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve didn't meet their expectations. The reason for the low level of communities' participation in tourism in the study area is due to inappropriate policy, lack of financial capital and lack of government support in terms of employment creation and revenue generation to improve and diversify local livelihood added with low-level tourist infrastructure. In line with the present study, tourism's impacts on the locals could also include socio-cultural, economic and environmental impacts (Medina-Muñoz et al., 2016) which could contribute to the enhancement of livelihoods and initiate communities in tourism.

As far as this study is concerned, socio-economic dimensions of tourism were found to have a significant effect on the economic wellbeing for rural households in which the social institutions, economic associations and the societal culture could contribute significantly to the positive tourism practice and enhancement of diversified livelihood in Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve. This was in line with the study that conveyed Least Developed Countries (LDCs) are benefited from the tourism industry in terms of reducing the poverty ratios (Kim et al., 2016). The tourism enterprises that are dependent on tourism earn better incomes than the rural households where institutional and economic aspects have a significant role in their improved economic livelihood benefits in Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve. Similar findings portrayed the distribution of economic benefits of tourism regionally also exhibited that tourism earnings were found higher in urban areas than rural areas in China (Cao et al., 2017).

The present study's finding of the positive contribution of tourism on poverty reduction was also proved by the study that revealed tourism has on poverty reduction (Anderson, 2014; Mbaiwa & Sakuze, 2009; Croes, 2014). The finding was in line with the present study in which many local communities from sample sites of Bahir Dar and Zeghe are mainly engaged in selling of their cultural and religious tourism products. Although such factors deterred households' communities from engaging in tourism, households with higher financial, social and human capital performed better in different tourism businesses (Xue & Kerstetter, 2019).

5. Practical Implications

Developing countries should recognize tourism as a tool to promote economic development (Tamene & Wondirad, 2019). Developing small and medium scale tourism enterprises should be flourished to help people out of poverty in Ethiopia whereby community-based tourism is a vital approach of rural areas (Qian et al., 2017; Su et al., 2019). Therefore, a separate Destination Management Organization (DMO) should be established that can enhance Lake Tana's contribution as a tourism destination for livelihood diversification and improvement of livelihood to reduce poverty.

Community involvement and community membership, as well as networking in the whole development process, are vital to enlarge social livelihood capital as suggested in the previous study (Guo et al., 2018; Ooi et al., 2015). Along with involvement, adequate pieces of training to rural households and different enterprises should be provided to boost awareness and increase the level of engagement in tourism. This is aligned to and linked with the study of (Beza, 2017).

Tourism development planners and destination organizations shall better integrate tourism development with other sectors (Ambelu et al., 2018; Tamene & Wondirad, 2019) that can help to enhance sustainable livelihood to communities and sustainable development which integrates the biosphere reserve, agricultural practice land and different investments.

Appropriate policies and destination management plans should be developed to heighten tourism effect on the overall livelihood and its livelihood outcomes (Shen, 2009; Tamene & Wondirad, 2019) which can also boost and frame institutional livelihood outcome and all other livelihood capitals.

Furthermore, future researches should focus on the policy development and conservation policies of integrated tourism development with traditional farming and urban economies for sustainable development and sustainable livelihood.

5 Conclusion

The rural households diversify their livelihood from on-farm agriculture and off-farm livelihood strategy whereas the urban households diversify other than their permanent job to tourism livelihood through a part-time job, night shift jobs, and operate and work as employee in souvenir shops. The finding showed economic, socio-cultural, environmental and institutional tourism impact dimensions have a significant effect on livelihood diversification outcomes given the difference in magnitude and occurrence of the insignificant effect of tourism dimensions on across

livelihood outcomes. In terms of income or economic return from tourism, households from TEs earn more than those from HHs stratum. But, in terms of social livelihood outcomes, rural households are better beneficiaries of tourism in the study area in terms of social ties, promotion of their traditional culture and having exposure with tourists. Moreover, the contribution of tourism on the physical livelihood is higher for TEs but very low for HHs which shows tourism doesn't provide local communities adequate access to pure water, health centers, paved road as well as electricity due to tourism. Only a few households nearby small towns are benefited from such services and facilities are not merely constructed from tourism though.

Furthermore, TEs households are more beneficiaries from tourism than rural households due to better institutional livelihood enhancement in the biosphere reserve. Hence, the households from TEs are better organized in associations and enterprises which could improve their livelihood, unlike rural HHs which are only limited to fishing associations in the study area. The effect of tourism on livelihood is too low despite the potentials of Lake Tana Biosphere Reserve. Lack of government support, inadequate awareness about tourism benefits, fish population decrement due to water hyacinth invasiveness and financial deficiency are the major hindrances raised by the households for the low level of benefits of tourism. Therefore, to make tourism as valuable pathway for livelihood diversification and tourism development sustainable in terms of its impacts in protected areas the following shall be good baselines; 1) develop a holistic and well-planned destination development, destination management and tourism development plan, 2) make the plan based on linkages of the protected area with other sectors, and 3) involve the communities both rural and urban to integrate livelihood and development with adequate finance, training, and relevant stakeholder involvement.

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THEME 7 PUBLIC SERVICE ETHICS

Teacher Incentives, Motivation and Professional Commitment in Primary Schools of Assosa Wereda, Beneshangul- Gumuz Regional State

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher incentives, motivation and professional commitment in primary schools of Assosa wereda. Explanatory sequential mixed research design was employed. The size of the population was 191. Of these, 161 teachers were selected using simple random and comprehensive sampling techniques. In addition, all the 12 school leaders were included in the study to collect the qualitative data. Questionnaire and interview were used to collect the data. The result of one sample t-test shows that teachers had strong desire towards the incentive which set out in the strategy. The result of a one sample t-test indicated that teachers had low level of motivation and professional commitment to do their job due to lack of incentives. There was low positive relationship between motivation and professional commitment of teachers with correlation coefficient ($r=.272$) at $p<.05$. The result of linear regression reveals that 7.4 % of teachers' professional commitment was determined by the motivation with significant model at $F(1, 159) = 12.686, p<.05$. Significant difference was not found between male and female teachers on affective, continuance and normative commitment. However, significant differences were observed among teachers in their perception of professional commitment on the basis of teaching experience and educational qualification. The incentive strategy was not effective to motivate teachers at the expected level due to lack of clear criteria to provide incentives, absence of commitment on the part of the management to provide incentives for teachers even if after performing the required tasks, lack of proper implementation plan, shortage of resources. Thus, it is concluded that the incentive strategy was not effective in enhancing teachers' motivation and professional commitment at the expected level. Therefore, it is suggested to provide incentives for those teachers who perform the required tasks in the strategy with clear performance criteria.

Key words: *Incentive; Motivation; Professional Commitment; Primary school.*

1. Introduction

Employees as the key resources of an organization that should have the required level of competencies and motivation to carry out their duties and responsibilities. Motivation is the driving force behind all human efforts which is essential to human achievement. McShane and Vonglinow (2000) argued that motivation is one of the key ingredients in employees' performance and productivity. In line with this, Mullins (1999) claimed that performance is the result of ability and motivation. If the manager wants to improve the work of the organization, attention must be given to employees' motivation and commitment. This implies that attempts to improve organizational performance including schools will never be successful without employees' motivation and commitment. Because, employee motivation and commitment have substantial effect on both task and behavioral outcomes (Karin & Birgit, 2007).

Mullins (1999) claimed that the behavior of an employee is depend on things that motivate them. Their performance is the result of both ability level and motivation.

$$\text{Performance} = \text{function} (\text{ability} \times \text{motivation})$$

The managers must also encourage staff to direct their efforts towards the successful attainment of the goals and objectives of the organization (Mullins, 1999). The basic model of motivation presented by Mullins (1999) has needs, deriving force, desired goals, and some form of feedback. This concept leads to the basic motivational model which is showed in figure 1.

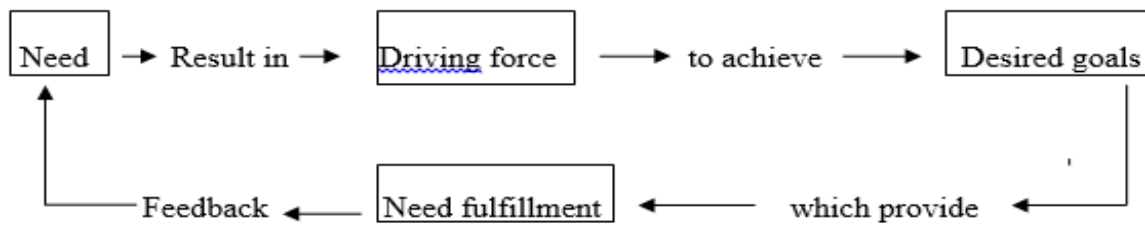


Fig.1 A simplified illustration of the basic motivational model (Mullins, 1991: 407)

As far as the issue of motivation is concerned, one of the first thing that comes to one's mind is the concept of incentive, which refers to any thing that makes an employee willing to do better, try harder and expend more energy (Yavuz, 2004). While there are some counters arguments that incentives may harm intrinsic motivation, public organizations are benefited from incentives, besides providing wages and fringe benefits to their employees, because incentives help to

encourage specific behavior that are not supported by the existing compensation (Yavuz, 2004). Moreover, if the incentive is paid in return for behavior that contributes to the organizations' goals, it will enhance organizational effectiveness in the long run and hence generates a positive outcome for both employer and employees (Torrington, Hall, Tayler, & Atkinson, 2009), cited in Mikander (2010). Therefore, it is better to pay special attention to employee incentive programs.

Incentive is important part of motivation to trigger individuals exert high level of effort so as to achieve certain goals. United Nation Development Program (2006) described the reason that incentives provide to make staff to join an organization and encourage employees and work group behavior. Organizations must continually seek ways to keep their employees and work groups effective, because the success of the organization depends on its ability to create conditions that attract the best people to work there and their commitment which is closely related to the level of motivation. Properly structured incentive schemes align the interests of workers and employers, provide information about the most valued aspects of an employee's job, and motivate workers to provide costly effort (Goodman & Turner, 2010). Most importantly, teachers' commitment and effectiveness depend on motivation, morale and job satisfaction (Shann, 2001). Motivated and committed workers lead to better performances and provide a higher service to the customers. Thus, it is understood that motivated employees will be much more productive and be retained within the organization for a longer period of time and will have a greater tendency to quit in the job (Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003).

Moreover, Katz, as cited in Lai (2009), stated that to encourage the achievement of those organizational goals, organizations provide employees with rewards to those who perform the desired behavior in the form of financial incentives and social affiliation. There are different strategies designed by the organizations to motivate their employees. Specifically, concerning teacher incentive schemes, Kermmerer (1990) stated that direct monetary benefits are packages of teacher salary, allowance, and fringe benefits; indirect monetary incentives are all the other offered to teachers. These might include (1) professional support such as initial and ongoing training programs, teacher guides, text books, instructional supervision and (2) personal support such as free or subsidized housing, food or transportation. Non-monetary benefits include professional status in the community, location or teaching position and recognition.

Teacher incentive strategies have enjoyed growing popularity. For example, in the United States, several teacher incentive strategies have been introduced in the past few decades, generally offering annual merit pay on the order of 10% to 40% of an average teacher's monthly salary (American Federation of Teacher, 2000), as cited by Glewwe, Ilias and Kremer (2004). Moreover, a study conducted by the Incentive Research Foundation (IRF) (2007) in the USA concluded that incentive programs were capable of improving performance from 20-25% to 40-44%, as cited by Coats (2009). Furthermore, Israel has also provided incentives to teachers based on students' scores (Cavy, 2002), and World Bank fund program in Mexico has been providing performance incentives to primary school teachers, cited by Glewwe *et al.* (2004). However, in many developing countries incentives for teachers are weaker than developed countries.

There appear to be a widespread dissatisfaction in the teaching profession (Agnihotri, 2013). This phenomenon has triggered various parties and researchers have assiduously conducted studies to get a better understanding of issues related to this problem. A range of research findings derived from quantitative and qualitative studies indicated that there was low level of teacher motivation which leads to the inefficient implementation of teaching learning process. For example, De Jesus and Conboy (2000) reported that many teachers were not motivated in Portugal. That is, it is estimated that less than 50 % of teachers want to continue in the teaching profession but the majority would prefer to change their profession. A research conducted by Martler (2002) also indicated that a significant number of teachers in USA had also low level of motivation and 34% of teachers want to leave their job if they get another opportunities. Similarly, low teacher motivation is offered by Boyer and Gillespie (2001) indicated that 6 % of teachers in USA leave the field of teaching each year.

In addition, a survey conducted in Asia and Sub-Saharan countries shows low teacher motivation which leads to absenteeism and lack of commitment to their work (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). Such malaise would appear to be especially pronounced among those who have been teaching for many years. Teacher motivation and commitment are also serious problems in Ethiopia which hinder the effectiveness of teaching. Related to this, Akiliu (1967) and Ayalew (1991) found low level of motivation among teachers due to insufficient payment and inadequate chances for career advancement. Similarly, teachers' motivation and commitment in Ethiopia decline because of insufficient compensation system and poor working condition (Getachew, 1999). The finding of

Fenot (2005) also revealed that 65 % of teachers want to leave their profession due to poor fringe benefits, management style of school principals, and poor relationship in the work place. Inappropriateness of these conditions make teachers feel demoralized, discouraged and demotivated with their job.

Although incentives are capable enough to bring motivation and increase performance on employees, it is difficult to implement it. Because, it is not easy to conclude that what motivates one employee may not motivate another because of individual difference so that it needs to know how they will be motivated. In this regards, Goodman and Turner (2010) stated that incentive strategies can be effective when employers have good measures of performance or observable effort is closely tied to organizational productivity. Moreover, incentive strategies must be implemented in ways that address all issues related to performance and human motivation (IRF, 2007), and Chung (1997) describes that determining the appropriate incentive system has been the greatest challenge for organizations as cited in Coats (2009).

Teaching profession is often criticized due to lack of performance incentives in Ethiopia for the past many years. In response to this challenge, the Ethiopian government has designed an incentive strategy in 2007 for teachers to enhance their motivation and commitment. Despite the incentive strategy has been designed, research has not been conducted in Ethiopia in general and in primary schools of Assosa wereda in particular to assess the effectiveness of the strategy in enhancing teachers' motivation and commitment. Thus, this study examined the status of teacher incentives, motivation and professional commitment in primary schools of Assosa wereda. Thus, the researcher formulated the following research questions:

1. To what extent are the incentives set out in the strategy attractive in primary schools of Assosa wereda?
2. To what extent are teachers motivated and committed towards their job in primary schools of Assosa wereda?
3. *What is the relationship between motivation and professional commitment in primary schools of Assosa wereda?*
4. *What is the effect of motivation on professional commitment of teachers in primary schools of Assosa wereda?*

5. *Do teachers differ on the three dimensions of professional commitment based on sex, qualification and work experience in primary schools of Assosa wereda?*
6. *How do school principals perceive the overall implementation of teacher incentive strategy and its result on teacher motivation and commitment of Assosa wereda?*

2. Methodology

2.1 Research Design

Research design is the blue print that describes the conditions and procedures for collecting and analyzing data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). With the purpose to integrate the quantitative and qualitative results, explanatory sequential mixed design (QUA → qual) was employed. Explanatory sequential mixed design has strong quantitative orientation in which the researcher first gathers the quantitative data and analyzes the results, and then plans the qualitative phase of study using the quantitative results (Creswell, 2014). This design enables to further explain and interpret the quantitative results in depth using the qualitative data. A simplified illustration of explanatory sequential mixed design is shown in Figure 1.

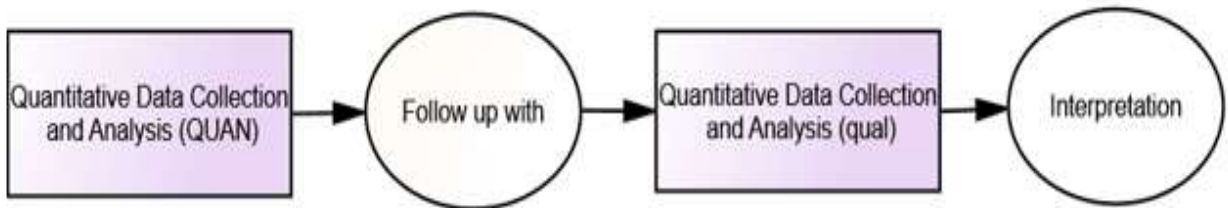


Figure 1. Explanatory Sequential Mixed Design, Adapted from Creswell (2014)

2.2 Population, Sample and Sampling Techniques

There were 12 school clusters in Assosa wereda which consisted of primary schools. Then, three clusters were selected using simple random sampling technique mainly lottery method. In these clusters, there are 12 public primary schools. 191 teachers (119 male and 72 female) and 12 school principals who were found in the three clusters considered as the population of the study. For manageability reason, the researcher selected 89 (75%) male teachers as a sample through proportionate stratified sampling technique because the number of teachers across the schools were significantly varied. However, the researcher took all 72 (100 %) female teachers as a sample using

comprehensive sampling technique due to the manageability of their numbers. This helps to keep the assumption of different statistical computations. With regard to principals, all 12 school principals were also included in the study using comprehensive sampling technique to collect the qualitative data.

Therefore, in this study, 161 teachers and 12 school principals were included as a sample making a total of 173 research respondents.

Table1: Summary of Population and Sample of the final study

School clusters	Name of schools	Number of Teachers		Sample of Teachers		Principals	
		Male	Female	Male (75%)	Female (100%)	Number	Sample (100%)
Hoha cluster center	Hoha number 2	11	7	8	7	1	1
	Hoha number 10	5	13	4	13	1	1
	Hoha number 15	6	4	4	4	1	1
Oura cluster center	Oura	19	7	14	7	1	1
	Hoha Number 1	6	2	4	2	1	1
	Hoha Number 3	12	2	9	2	1	1
	Aquda	14	4	11	4	1	1
Baro cluster center	Hoha Number 5	9	9	7	9	1	1
	Baro	12	10	9	10	1	1
	Robayu	5	4	4	4	1	1
	Afendhonso	13	5	10	5	1	1
	Selga 23	7	5	5	5	1	1
Number	12	119	72	89	72	12	12

2.3 Data Collection Instruments

Questionnaire and interview were used to gather the data for this study. The researcher developed 10 close ended questions to assess the attractiveness of the incentives in the strategy using Ethiopian government teacher development guideline. Concerning motivation, 8 questions were developed by the researcher using different literatures to assess teachers' motivation. In addition, 18 standardized items developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) also used to measure teachers' affective, continuance and normative professional commitment. For each dimension, research participants were required to rate items using the five points Likert type items that range from 1

(not at all) to 5 (a very great extent) to examine teachers' perception towards the incentive strategies, motivation and professional commitment. With regard to qualitative data, semi-structured interview was conducted on the implementation of the incentive strategy and its result on teacher motivation and professional commitment.

2.4 Data Gathering Procedures

Before starting to gather data, the researcher asked permission from school principals about their willingness to collect the data in their schools. After identifying the respondents, the researcher distributed the questionnaire to the sample respondents with the help of the unit leaders and department heads. The respondents have given two days to complete the questionnaire. After the questionnaires were returned to the researcher, interview was conducted with the 12 school leaders through face to face approach through taking 25-30 minutes.

2.5 Data Analysis Techniques

Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques were used analyze the data. Quantitative data collected through the questionnaire were analyzed with the help of both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. Specifically, a one sample t-test was used to assess teachers' perception towards the status of the incentives, motivation and professional commitment (RQ #1 &2). To examine the relationship between motivation and professional commitment, Pearson product moment correlation was employed (RQ #3). Linear regression was used to analyze the effect of motivation on the professional commitment of teachers (RQ #4). Due to the presence of three main effects: sex, qualification and experience, and four interaction effects: sex * qualification, sex *experience, qualification * experience and sex * qualification * experience. Accordingly, MANOVA was used to determine whether teachers differ in their perception of the three dimensions of professional commitment based on sex, qualification and work experience (RQ #5). Finally, the data collected through the interview about the implementation of incentive strategy and its result were analyzed qualitatively (RQ #6).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Attractiveness of teacher incentives

Table 2: A one sample t-test of teachers' perception towards the attractiveness of the incentives

Incentives	N	Mean	SD	Mean difference	t-value	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Free Touring/Trip	161	3.882	.817	.882	13.700	160	.000
Naming school after once name	161	3.531	.902	.534	7.517	160	.000
Acceleration in career structure	161	3.483	.690	.484	8.907	160	.000
Retirement with full salary	161	4.101	.868	1.099	16.080	160	.000
Further education chance	161	4.120	.610	1.124	23.389	160	.000
Certificate/Medellin award	161	4.242	.789	1.242	19.983	160	.000
Chance for free/subsidized house	161	3.445	.757	.441	7.392	160	.000
Financial rewards/bones	161	3.814	1.14	.814	9.003	160	.000
Land for house construction	161	4.043	.736	1.043	17.987	160	.000
Chance for bank credit	161	4.172	.779	1.174	19.118	160	.000

As indicated in Table 2, the mean scores of all incentives in the strategy were higher than the expected mean value (3) at $p < .05$. The positive mean differences and t-values of each incentives also proved that the obtained mean scores were significantly greater than the test values. This implies that the incentives set out in the strategy were found as attractive for teachers. This result is consistent with the work of Yavuz (2004) that incentive was found important to motivate teachers to exert maximum effort in performing their duties. A research conducted by Glewwe et al. (2004) also indicated that incentives have been providing performance incentives to primary school teachers. Similarly, Mikander (2010) and Coats (2009) further proved that teacher are now in a position to get different incentives based on their work performance. This suggests that educational planners and policy makers should design appropriate incentives or rewards to maintain optimally motivated teachers that will contribute towards professional commitment.

3.2 Status of teachers' motivation and professional commitment

Table 3: A one sample t-test of teachers' motivation and professional commitment

Variables	N	Mean	SD	Mean difference	t-value	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Motivation	161	2.568	.566	-.432	-9.675	160	.000
Professional commitment	161	2.405	.665	-.494	-9.45	160	.000

Results in Table 3 revealed that the mean scores of motivation (2.566) and commitment (2.405) were lower than the expected mean value (3) at $p < .05$. The negative mean differences and t values of motivation and commitment confirmed that the obtained mean scores were significantly lower

than the test values. These indicate that teachers were to a little extent motivated and committed to carry out their job due to lack of incentives. Concerning motivation, Maniram (2007) reported that teachers tend to show stress and burn-out, frequent absenteeism, underperformance of tasks, disobedient behavior towards their colleagues and learners, lack of cooperation and initiative to render services for customers due to low level of motivation, similar to the finding of this study. Other researchers also proved the presence of low teacher motivation which leads to the inefficient implementation of teaching learning process (Boyer & Gillespie, 2001; Tasdan & Tiryaki, 2008). With regard to commitment, the finding of this study is similar with the works of Bagraim (2003) and Nyengane (2007) about the existence of low level of motivation among employees. Similarly, a research conducted by Temesgen (2011) indicated that employees were less likely committed to exert maximum effort to support the function of the organizations.

3.3 Relationship between teacher Motivation and Professional commitment

Table 4: Correlation on the relationship between motivation and professional commitment

Variables	N	Motivation	
		Pearson Correlation(r)	Sig. (2-tailed)
Professional commitment	161	.272	.000

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4 indicated that low positive relationship was found between motivation and professional commitment of teachers with correlation coefficient ($r=.272$) at $p<.05$. This implies that motivation was less likely correlated with the professional commitment of teachers. This result is consistent with the work of Day, Elliot and Kington (2005) that found positive relationship between teacher motivation and professional commitment. Similarly, Henkin and Holliman (2009) reported that teacher motivation was positively related with their professional commitment. The findings of other researcher also indicated the presence of positive relationship between teacher motivation and professional commitment (Suliman & Iles, 2000). Even if the finding of this study indicated the weak relationship between the two variables under investigation, it is supported by the findings of the previous studies.

3.4 The Effect of Motivation on Professional Commitment of teachers

Table 5: Linear regression on the effect of motivation on professional commitment

Independent variable	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
				B	Std. Error	Beta	t- value	Sig.
Constant				1.989	.168		11.822	.000
Motivation	.272	.074	.068	.231	.065	.272	3.562	.000

The result of linear regression indicated that a total of 7.4% of teachers' professional commitment was predicted by the motivation while the rest 92.6% of the variation in teachers' commitment was predicted by other variables outside this study. The linear regression method revealed that there was a significant model at $F(1, 159) = 12.686, p < .05$. This means that motivation had an effect on the professional commitment of teachers though its contribution was low. Consistent with this, motivation functions as an important predictor of teachers' and it enables them to spend their time and energy in the organization (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). Intrinsically motivated teachers have been found to be more committed to teaching than extrinsically motivated teachers (Martinez-Pons, 1990). Committed teachers always put their students' needs, and interests first. An organization can be effective in attaining its goals when there is a spirit of cooperation between motivation and a sense of commitment within the sphere of its influence.

Motivation is considered as an important factor that increases employees' level of commitment. Now a days professional commitment is merely become the thought just to decrease continuously over the time of their teaching. Beginning of a carrier as a teacher, there is a starting level of dedication for teaching associated with the option of identification in carrier, followed by level of innovations and search for better challenges. There were many studies conducted on motivation with different variables but none of them investigated on the variable professional commitment of teacher educator's in relation to their work motivation. Teachers' commitment is vital for quality, productivity and performance (Henkin & Holliman, 2009). If the staff is committed, it can predict better future of organization. Professional commitment lies in accepting aims of the profession with full efforts resulting in strong desire to participate in job (Ferris, 2001). This suggests that schools need to design good incentive strategies for teachers to have strong desire, participation with devotion and loyalty towards their profession.

3.5 Results of Multivariate Tests of Effects

For the purpose of this study, the three dimensions of professional commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative commitments) were treated as dependent variables while sex, qualification and experience were treated as independent factors to compute MANOVA. Therefore, MANOVA was employed so that the results are shown in the table below.

Table 6: The Results of Multivariate Tests of MANOVA

Sources	Wilks Lambda (□□)	F	Hyp.DF	Error DF	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	.005	9351.829b	3.000	143.000	.000	.995
Sex (S)	.971	1.416b	3.000	143.000	.241	.029
Experience (E)	.891	1.880	9.000	348.175	.034	.038
Qualification (Q)	.948	2.610b	3.000	143.000	.042	.052
S X E	.942	.953	9.000	348.175	.479	.020
S X Q	.991	.440 ^b	3.000	143.000	.725	.009
E X Q	.960	.648	9.000	348.175	.756	.013
S X E X Q	.964	.588	9.000	348.175	.807	.012

As depicted in table 6, the result of MANOVA indicated that significant difference was not found between male and female teachers with affective, continuance and normative professional commitment at $\eta^2 = .971$, $F(143, 143) = 1.416$, $p = .241$, multivariate $r^2 = .029$. This result is congruent with the finding of Yahaya (n.d.) that significant difference was not found between male and female workers in professional commitment as long as they had been given equal training and opportunities to express themselves. Wiggins and Peterson (2004) also confirmed that male and female workers can produce similar quality of performance if they have received the same treatment from their employers. On the contrary, significant differences were observed between male and female employees in commitment due to the effect of working conditions and work-life balance issues (Wiggins & Peterson, 2004).

However, significant differences were observed among teachers in their perception of professional commitment on the basis of teaching experience at $\eta^2 = .891$, $F(143, 348.175) = 1.880$, $P = .034$, multivariate $r^2 = .038$, and qualification at $\eta^2 = .948$, $F(143, 143) = 2.610$, $P = .042$, multivariate $r^2 = .052$. In contrast to this, the results of the interaction effect of independent factors (S*E, S*Q,

E*Q and S*E*Q) were not significant to differentiate teachers in affective, continuance and normative commitments.

Table 7: Univariate Tests between subjects effects on Experience and Qualification

Main Effect	Dependent Variables	Type III Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Experience	Affective commitment	5.812	3	1.937	2.732	.046	.053
	Continuance commitment	.500	3	.167	.880	.453	.018
	Normative commitment	.206	3	.069	2.136	.098	.042
Qualification	Affective commitment	4.219	1	4.219	5.949	.016	.039
	Continuance commitment	.108	1	.108	.569	.452	.004
	Normative commitment	.029	1	.029	.904	.343	.006
E X Q	Affective commitment	1.418	3	.473	.666	.574	.014
	Continuance commitment	.144	3	.048	.253	.859	.005
	Normative commitment	.099	3	.033	1.023	.384	.021

As shown in table 7, teachers were significantly differed in perceiving affective commitment while significant differences were not found among them in continuance and normative professional commitment based on experience and qualification. In addition, significance differences were not observed among teachers on affective, continuance and normative commitments due to the interaction effect of experience and qualification.

3.6 Implementation of incentive strategy and its results on motivation and commitment

The results of different studies suggest that incentive strategies are most effective when they implemented as part of a broader, holistic retention strategy rather than as standalone initiatives. Compensation is not the only, or even primary, consideration teachers take into account in their decisions regarding where to work (Hanover, 2014). This shows that designing an incentive strategy by itself is not sufficient condition to motivate teachers unless it can be implemented in line with the formulation of the strategy. In this regard, school principals were interviewed to report the implementation of incentive strategies in their respective schools and its effect on teachers' motivation and commitment

The majority of interviewees highlighted about the poor implementation of teacher incentive strategy in their school due to different factors. But one of the respondent explained that, “Except education opportunities which are often provided, other type of incentives set out in the strategies were not yet implemented.” Similarly, five of my respondents also believed that getting the chance to be rewarded is very narrow. According to their expression, the incentive strategy has no clear criteria to reward teachers who showed excellent performance in their schools. This showed that despite an attempt was made to motivate teachers, there is absence of criteria to provide incentives for the teachers so that they are not so motivated and committed as expected. Consistent with this result, Hanover (2014) noted that the very existence of the specificity of the relationships between incentive motivation and performance in the public sector is only due to the difficulties of measuring performance.

Similarly, four of my interviewees told that the concerned body was not ready to give the incentives set out in the strategy for teachers even if they perform the required duties stipulated in the strategy. Because of this complexity, the result of this study indicated that the incentive strategy does not seem successful in enhancing teachers’ motivation and professional commitment at the expected level. Johnson and John (2009) also supported the finding of this study in that despite the prevalence of teacher-compensation reforms, their effect on teacher motivation and performance is weak. Moreover, the incentive strategy lack clear procedures, measurements, and implementation plan as well as the necessary resources to provide those who perform the required tasks in the strategy. This finding is supported by the quantitative result found through the questionnaire.

4. Conclusion and Recommendation

4.1 Conclusion

Based on the empirical evidence obtained from the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study, the following conclusions are drawn:

- *Teachers had strong desire towards the incentive which set out in the strategy.*
- *The result of a one sample t-test indicated that teachers had low level of motivation and professional commitment to do their job due to lack of incentives.*
- *There was low positive relationship between motivation and professional commitment of teachers with correlation coefficient ($r=.272$) at $p<.05$.*

- *The result of linear regression indicated that 7.4% of teachers' professional commitment was predicted by the motivation with significant model at $F(1, 159) = 12.686, p < .05$.*
- *The result of MANOVA indicated that significant difference was not found between male and female teachers on affective, continuance and normative commitment at Wilks Lambda ($\eta^2 = .971, F(143, 143) = 1.416, p = .241, \text{multivariate } r^2 = .029$). However, significant differences were observed among teachers in their perception of professional commitment on the basis of teaching experience at $\eta^2 = .891, F(143, 348.175) = 1.880, P = .034, \text{multivariate } r^2 = .038$, and qualification at $\eta^2 = .948, F(143, 143) = 2.610, P = .042, \text{multivariate } r^2 = .052$.*
- *The incentive strategy was not effective to motivate teachers at the expected level due to lack of clear criteria to provide incentives, absence of commitment on the part of the management to provide incentives for teachers even if after performing the required tasks, lack of proper implementation plan, shortage of resources.*

4.2 Recommendation

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher suggested the following points to improve the status of teacher motivation and professional commitment.

- *Incentive designer need to establish strong link between teachers' achievements perception and their perception of earning the outcomes through providing the incentives and commitment to pay those incentives with clear criteria.*
- *Teachers should develop trust towards the management that will provide incentives after performing the required tasks.*
- *It needs to provide incentives for those teachers who perform the required tasks in the strategy on the basis of clear performance measurements.*
- *The nature of the tasks which include in the incentive strategies should be reasonable, attainable, interesting or challenging to motivate teachers to exert maximum effort.*
- *Further studies need to be conducted on the implementation of the incentive strategy and its effect on the motivation of teachers and professional commitment at zonal, regional and national level to make the findings valid and reliable.*

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Role of Sense of Calling for Job Performance and Job Satisfaction in Public Universities: Lessons from Addis Ababa

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Abstract

Employee sense of calling and vocation (the meaning and purpose people attach towards a particular line of work) is considered as a significant element for job satisfaction, engagement and other positive organizational behaviors. This study investigates the role of sense of calling on job satisfaction and performance among academicians of public universities in Addis Ababa. The findings of the research informs university and top level government leaders about the level of academicians' job satisfaction which can be manipulated by personal sense of vocational calling. Quantitative method was chosen to collect a representative and reliable data from the participants. Multidimensional calling and vocation questionnaire (CVQ), job satisfaction scale (JSS) and Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) are used as a tool. The study employed random sampling technique to select research participants. The data was analyzed based on the interpretive key of the questionnaires. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations etc. are analyzed. Besides, correlation analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between the variables. The result of the study shows that the sampled academicians have moderate sense of calling dimensions. A significant percentage of academicians are still searching for a better pro-social orientation. The statistics showed that the level of academicians' task performance and contextual performance are moderate. Besides, the study uncovered that academicians are occasionally exhibited counterproductive behaviour. In addition, the study found out that sense of calling has no relation with two job performance dimensions called task performance and contextual performance whereas it has a significant inverse relation with counterproductive behaviour.

Key words: Sense of calling, Vocation, Job Satisfaction, Job Performance

1. Introduction

Over the last decade, the concept of calling and vocation is being debated and researched as one of the emerging concept which is widely studied by different scholars on disciplines such as organizational behavior, human resource management, leadership and vocational psychology. Senses of calling become one of the most influential elements of inspired and productive work in

various business and service companies. Yet, the issue of sense of calling seldom got the attention of researchers in Ethiopia. When it comes to educational institutions, it is vital to have an inspired, motivated and competent staff ready to work towards human development and flourishing the coming generation. Public universities are one of the most sensitive and fortune places to empower and nurture individuals in different facets of their life. Yet, they are suffering from different challenges. This research is needed to uncover some of the organizational behaviours manifested by academicians and to come up with the way forward. It is focused on the role of sense of calling to job performance and job satisfaction among academicians who work in different public universities.

The findings of the research expose the role of sense of calling on individual job satisfaction which indirectly affects individual job performance and organizational performance as well. It also informs academic staff and university leaders that sense of calling is a critical factor which can be attached to work and life in order to live a better and meaningful life. In addition, the study brings the importance of sense of calling into a discussion, which is a rarely studied concept of organizational behaviour in Ethiopian context. The findings of the research informs university and top level government leaders about the level of employees' job satisfaction which can be manipulated by personal sense of vocational calling. The study also notifies that job satisfaction might be the factor that transmits the effect of sense of calling on job performance. Besides, the study creates awareness about the impact of sense of calling/vocation on job satisfaction and job performance.

The performance of various public and business organizations are affected by employee behaviors. Employee behavior in turn is driven by diverse intrinsic and extrinsic factors which can impact their work and life motivation whether positively or negatively. In line with this, sense of calling is recognized as one of the core organizational behavior which can drive employee behavior to purposeful work, job engagement, job performance, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior and life meaning in resent research works (Bryan Dik J. Duffy D., 2008).

When we see the above organizational behaviors in the light of academic institutions, they are critical for a successful achievement of educational goals. The Ethiopian government is striving to assure the quality of education in different levels. The performance of public universities in

nurturing excellent, responsible, creative, passionate and knowledgeable professionals is invaluable.

On this regard, the new educational road map of Ethiopia presented that the educational system should reflect the creation of holistic development in all citizens, nurturing confident, critical thinkers and competent professionals who satisfy the requirements of the global market; entrepreneurs and innovative, strong ethical and moral values, stand for justice; peace, and unity in diversity (Ethiopian Education Development Roadmap, 2017). This indicates the great responsibility of academic institutions and the staff in order to cultivate an empowered, critical, competent, creative, ethical etc. future work force. The commitment and dedication of academic staff in various universities of the country take a huge part in achieving such kinds of objectives.

Unfortunately, research indicates that there is current teacher attrition in Ethiopia even if there has been limited research on teacher's motivation in the region (Klara Giertz, 2016). The above research put that the education system in Ethiopia is highly affected by the attrition and demotivated teachers (Klara Giertz, 2016). This has an implication on the quality of education.

Besides, there is a research gap on the issue of academicians work motivation, engagement, organizational citizenship behavior and sense of calling and vocation. In fact, there are few recent studies conducted on academic staff satisfaction level in the core elements of their job among government universities (Fekadu Mulugeta, 2020). For instance, the above study revealed that academicians are dissatisfied with research and community services, in the recognition given to their work, the quality of the students, education and related policies, the administration of universities etc. (Fekadu Mulugeta, 2020). From this study, we can see the challenges of higher educational institutions and its effect on the organizational behavior of the staff. This in turn affects the quality of the education and the capacity of students.

Furthermore, there is a significant research gap on the issue of academicians' sense of calling towards their line of work (the meaning and purpose they attach with their job), their performance and other organizational behaviors. The researcher did not come across an empirical study conducted on sense of calling among academicians as well as other employees in Ethiopian context. Yet, the meaning and purpose an academician attach with his/her profession and the inner

sources of motivation and dissatisfaction/de-motivation have to be deeply uncovered with researches so as to bring a solution to this critical problem.

In order to maximize the capacity and enthusiasm of the academicians, studies should be conducted on the area of professional and vocational development. This study can somehow fill the above gap and bring a discussion on the role of vocational calling on job performance and job satisfaction among academic staff such as teachers, consultants and researchers in various public universities.

The general objective of the study is to investigate the role of sense of calling on job satisfaction and job performance. Specific objectives are listed as follows: -

- a. To find out academicians level of sense of calling towards their line of work*
- b. To investigate academicians level of job satisfaction and job performance in the selected public service universities.*
- c. To investigate if there is positive or negative relationship between sense of calling and job satisfaction and between sense of calling and job performance.*

2. Methodology

The study employed a quantitative enquiry to collect empirical and reliable data. The study used random sampling technique to select research participants from various public universities in order to collect the needed data. Specifically, stratified random sampling was used for the study because it allows dividing the population into sub-groups and taking equal proportion of research participants from the whole population. The data is collected from academic staffs working in different campuses in Addis Ababa namely Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa Science and Technology University (ASTU), Ethiopian Civil Service University (ECSU) and Kotebe Metropolitan University. Proportionate sample size is taken from each campus.

The study determines sample size using sample size formula for simple random sampling. To use this formula expected prevalence and confidence level is required.

$$n = \left[\frac{z^2 \times p \times q}{e^2} \right]$$

Where n = Size of sample

z = Standard variate at a given confidence level

p = Prevalence

q = $1-p$ (expected non-prevalence)

e = Precision

The study applies 95% confidence level which is conservative that produces the largest sample size given the other parameters constant. The study considers available resources as well as time for deciding the level of precision since there is no standard precision. The higher precision consequences the higher sample as the square precision is the denominator in the formula (C. R. Kothari, 2004).

$$n = \left[\frac{1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{0.05^2} \right]$$
$$n=384.16$$

Assuming a 5% precision the sample size (n) is 384.16. Thus, 385 questionnaires are distributed to randomly select respondents.

2.1.Instrumentation

In this study multidimensional calling and vocation questionnaire (CVQ) and the brief calling and vocation scale (BCS) which is developed by Dik et al. based on the tripartite theoretical conceptualization of calling and vocation is used. The calling and vocation measure has two parts. The first part has 23 items and the second part has 4 items which address the search for a calling and the presence of calling. There are 4 response scales for each item in part one and 5 response scale for part two.

Totally, the questionnaire has 6 sub-scales for presence of calling and search for a calling. These are transcendent summons for presence, transcendent summons for search, purposeful work for presence, purposeful work for search, prosocial orientation for presence and prosocial orientation for search. The questionnaire included one reverse score or negatively constructed question.

The instrument selected to measure job satisfaction is job satisfaction scale (JSS) developed by Chris Stride, Toby D. Wall and Nick Catley. The Job Satisfaction Scale consists of 15 items, and respondents are asked to indicate on a seven-point response scale the extent to which they are satisfied or dissatisfied with each. The Intrinsic Job Satisfaction subscale comprises seven items (items 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14); and the Extrinsic Job Satisfaction subscale is made up of eight items (items 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13 and 15). There are no reverse scored items.

To evaluate job performance Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) is used. IWPQ was originally developed by Campbell which evaluates four dimensions of individual work performance.

2.2. Validity and Reliability

The questionnaires that are used in the study are standard questionnaires whose validity and reliability were tested by its developers. However, they are advised and evaluated by some professionals who have academic and research background to assess the questionnaires.

2.3. Data Analysis

After collecting the questionnaires the relevant data are sorted, coded and analysed using statistical software called SPSS. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations are analyzed. In addition, statistical result of correlation is computed and analysed. Correlation identifies the relationship between variables in which one variable changes with changes of the other (Stephen Gorard, 2003). The relationships are termed as direct if the value is positive or inverse if the value is negative (C. R. Kothari, 2004). The data is presented in tabular form.

3. Review of Related Literature

3.1. The concept of calling

Calling has been taken as a sacred religious term for many years. Recently, calling became a popular concept and one of the emerging research areas in the secular world in relation to motivation, occupation, career development, work engagement and satisfaction, sense of purpose and meaning of life which is derived from calling and vocation.

Calling is viewed as “a type of work that is highly personally meaningful, pro-social in nature, and often arises as the result of internal or external summons.” (Ryan D. Duffy et al, 2015). Dik and Duffy defined calling as:

A calling is a transcendent summons, experienced as originating beyond the self, to approach a particular life role in a manner oriented toward demonstrating or deriving a sense of purpose or meaningfulness and that holds other-oriented values and goals as primary sources of motivation (Bryan Dik J. and Ryan Duffy D., 2016).

The above definitions emphasized on the intrinsic and extrinsic nature of calling and its attachment with life direction, purpose, meaningfulness, goal and motivation. On the other hand, Dobrow and Tosti Kharas (2017) put three view points on how to conceptualize calling.

3.2.The Concept of Job Performance and Job Satisfaction

Job performance is one of the core organizational behaviors. It is defines as “the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time” (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). This definition is a slightly revised version of the definition in connection with a theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance. In this definition, performance is viewed as the expected organizational value and a distinct behavior which takes place over some span of time.

Job satisfaction is represented and explained differently by various scholars. It is the most complex element when it is described in the light of managers managing their employees (Brikend Aziri, 2011).The mostly sited definition views job satisfaction as workers sense of achievement, enthusiasm, happiness with one’s work, fulfillment, success, productivity, personal well-being and doing a job that one enjoys (Kaliski,2007). The elements pointed in this definition imply that the concept of job-satisfaction is mostly attached with the intrinsic motivation of one’s work.

3.3.Theoretical Framework

This study will be guided by two theories. The first theory is tripartite definition of calling as a theoretical ground. Tripartite definition of calling was developed by Bryan Dik and Ryan Duffy in order to develop and validate calling and vocation questionnaire (CVQ) and brief calling scale (BCS) (Bryan Dik et al., 2012). Tripartite definition of calling is a three part definition or conceptualization of calling.

This conceptualization of calling is described as “a transcendent summons, experienced as originating beyond the self, to approach a particular life role in a manner oriented toward demonstrating or deriving a sense of purpose or meaningfulness and that holds other-oriented values and goals as primary sources of motivation” (Bryan Dik et al., 2012).

This three understanding of calling can be summarized as first; people can be called by the supernatural power, second, by the needs of the society and third, by a person's own inner potential or passion.

Calling also theorized on two overlying predominant aspects of presence and search (Bryan Dik et al., 2012). Search indicates that people may report that they do not have a sense of calling currently but they can be actively seek or search for their calling and presence refers to people who believe that they currently have a sense of calling. The three detailed analysis or the tripartite conceptualization of calling through the lens of search and presence of calling and vocation is used as a theoretical guide for this study.

The second theory will guides this research will be Herzberg Motivator- Hygiene theory of job satisfaction. Herzberg's work motivation theory was introduced in 1959 by the book called "The Motivation to Work" (Smerek and Peterson, 2007). He developed the theory based on a study on 200 accountants and engineers employed by firms and he concluded that job satisfiers or motivators are connected with job content (Achievement, Recognition, Work itself, Responsibility and Advancement), job satisfies or hygiene factors which are not satisfiers by themselves but prevent dissatisfaction (e.g. Corporate policy, Administration, Supervision, Salary, Interpersonal relations, Working conditions, relationships with peers, personal life, relationships with subordinates and supervisors, status, security) and job setting (Abdul Sattar Khan et al, 2016).

Totally Herzberg put six motivators and ten hygiene factors. He argued that job satisfaction cannot be improved by the ten hygiene factors rather; it can be enhanced by maximizing the six motivators (Smerek and Peterson, 2007). Nevertheless, the absence of these six motivators may not result in job-dissatisfaction if there are the hygiene factors. This theory brought a significant insight and it is being used in contemporary researches and practice.

4. Results and Discussion

The researcher distributed 385 questionnaires to gather the required data whereas only 339 questionnaires were fully filled out and returned which makes the return rate 88.05%.

Table 4.1 General Information of Respondents

No.	Item	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Gender			
	a) <i>Male</i>	174	51.3	51.3
	b) <i>Female</i>	163	48.7	100.0
	Total	339	100	
2	Age			
	a) <33	114	33.6	33.6
	b) 33-40	125	36.9	70.5
	c) 41-49	69	20.4	90.9
	d) 50-59	23	6.8	97.6
	e) ≥ 60	8	2.4	100.0
	Total	339	100.0	
3	Service Year			
	a) <6 Years	112	33.0	33.0
	b) 6-10 Years	102	30.1	63.1
	c) 11-15 Years	68	20.1	83.2
	d) 16-20 Year	31	9.1	92.3
	e) >20 Years	26	7.7	100.0
	Total	339	100.0	
4	Educational Status			
	a) <i>Degree</i>	26	7.9	7.9
	b) <i>Masters</i>	213	62.9	70.8
	c) <i>Doctorate</i>	99	29.2	100.0
	Total	339	100	

Source: Survey 2020

Table 4.1 is sought to collect information concerning respondents such as biographical data, service year and educational status. The study identified that 51.3% of respondents are males while the remaining 48.7% are female. Though the total proportion of females is fairly lower when it compared with the proportion of males, they are well represented in the sample.

Employees who are aged below 33 are 33.6% while 36.9% are aged from 33 to 40. In addition, respondents aged from 41-49 are accounted 20.4% while 6.8% are aged from 50-59 and the remaining 2.4% are aged 60 and above. The data demonstrated that all age groups are included in the sample which assures the overall generational representation.

Employees who are working for less than 6 years are accounted 33% while 30.1% are working from 6 to 10 years. In addition, 20.1% of employees are working from 11 to 15 years and the

remaining 16.8% are working for more than 15 years. The data showed that most of respondents are working for more than six years which entails in validating their ability to judge the subject of discussion.

In an attempt to identify educational status of respondents, the study revealed that 29.2% of respondents are having a Doctorate Degree while 62.8% and 7.7% are having Masters Degree and BA/Bsc Degree respectively. This shows that most of respondents are qualified and considered that their understanding and judgement of the issue under discussion is more objective.

4.1. Reliability Analysis

On the study, standardized scales, internal consistency analysis was carried out through Cronbach alpha-reliability tests in order to re-affirm the reliability of the questionnaire. Inter-connectedness of the items which meant to measure the same construct is explained by internal consistency (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

Table 4.2 Reliability Analysis of the Item

No.	Description	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
1	Sense of Calling	.804	24
2	Job Satisfaction	.895	15
3	Job Performance	.807	13

Source: Survey 2020

The Cronbach's alpha results presented above measure the internal consistency or reliability of the instruments or scales used in the study. The cronbach alpha results satisfy the criteria set by Field because all of them are above the minimum threshold set by Field. Field suggested cronbach alpha values of .7 to .8 to be an acceptable value (Field, 2009). Similarly, Gliem provided the following rules of thumb by quoting George and Mallery: “_ > .9 – Excellent, _ > .8 – Good, _ > .7 – Acceptable, _ > .6 – Questionable, _ > .5 – Poor, and_ < .5 – Unacceptable” (Gliem, J. A., and Gliem, R., 2003).

4.2. Results of the Percentage Analysis and Descriptive Statistics

The frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations of the variables of the study are shown in the descriptive statistics.

Table4.3 Responses on the Level of Transcendence Summon Presence

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	78	23	23
>2-3	207	61	84
>3-4	54	16	100
Total	339	100	

The questionnaire contained 24 items intended to measure sense of calling out of which four items are supposed to measure a sub-scale called transcendence summon presence. As can be seen in the above table most of respondents (61%) rated their own behaviour within the range of 2 and 3 in a four point Likert scale while 16% of respondents rated between 3 and 4. Besides, 23% of respondents rated themselves below average.

Thus, it can be said that the level of transcendence summon presence is moderate as only 16% of respondents rate themselves within the range of 3 and 4.

Table4.4 Responses on the Level of Purposeful Work Presence

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	57	16.8	16.8
>2-3	119	35.1	51.9
>3-4	163	48.1	100
Total	339	100	

The above table showed that 48.1% of respondents rated their sense of being engaged on purposeful work within the range of 3 and 4 while 35.1% rated between 2 and 3. In addition, 16.8% of respondents rated themselves below average.

From this, it can be said that the sense of academicians engaging on purposeful work is more than average.

Table4.5 Responses on the Level of Purposeful Work Search

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	108	31.9	31.9
>2-3	123	36.2	68.1
>3-4	108	31.9	100
Total	339	100	

The above table showed that 36.2% of respondents moderately sensed that they are searching purposeful work as they rate themselves between 2 and 3 while 31.9% rated between 3 and 4. Besides, 31.9% of respondents have lower sense of searching a purposeful work as they rated

themselves below average. From this, it can be concluded that most academicians are searching a purposeful work. This finding has a great implication on how academicians are being recruited and joining to this line of work.

Table4.6 Responses on the Level of Prosocial Orientation Search

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	110	32.4	32.4
>2-3	128	37.8	70.2
>3-4	101	29.8	100
Total	339	100	

The results shown above indicate that 37.8% of the respondents are moderately sensed that they are searching for prosocial orientation as they rate their level of prosocial orientation between 2 and 3 while 29.8% sensed a high level of prosocial orientation search. On the other hand 32.4% of the participants responded between 1 and 2 which shows that they have sensed low level of prosocial orientation.

This result indicates that the majority of the respondents have a moderate and high level of search for prosocial orientation in their future career aspirations.

Table4.7 Responses on the Level of Prosocial Orientation Presence

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	22	6.5	6.5
>2-3	125	36.9	43.4
>3-4	192	56.6	100
Total	339	100	

The above table indicates that the majority of the research participants 56.6% have a high level of prosocial orientation presence as they rated their sense between 3 and 4 in their work followed by a moderate prosocial orientation presence 36.9% which they rated their level of sense between 2 and 3. The rest 6.5% sensed a low prosocial presence as they rated between 1 and 2.

The above finding shows that the majority of the academicians have prosocial orientation presence in their career.

Table4.8 Responses on the Level of Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	4	1.18	1.18
>2-3	46	13.57	14.75
>3-4	90	26.55	41.30
>4-5	129	38.05	79.35
>5-6	63	18.58	97.93
>6-7	7	2.07	100
Total	339	100	

The above table demonstrates that a significant number of academicians (41.3%) are dissatisfied extrinsically with their job. The other 38.05% and 18.58% are moderately satisfied. Only 2% of the participants are highly satisfied in their current job. This implies lack of extrinsic motivations in the working environment. Thus university leaders and concerned bodies have to revisit the working environment and identify the reasons which can add to the extrinsic dissatisfaction of the academic staff.

Table4.9 Responses on the Level of Intrinsic Job Satisfaction

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	5	1.47	1.47
>2-3	33	9.73	11.20
>3-4	70	20.65	31.85
>4-5	106	31.27	63.12
>5-6	113	33.33	96.45
>6-7	12	3.55	100
Total	339	100	

As indicated on table 4.9 a fairly significant number 31.85% of academicians are dissatisfied extrinsically. The other 64% of them are moderately satisfied. The rest 3.55% are highly satisfied intrinsically in their current line of work. When it is compared with the result of respondents in extrinsic satisfaction, the number of respondents intrinsically satisfied is better. This can imply that some academicians are linked their internal motivation drives with their job no matter what the external work environment look like.

Table 4.10 Responses on the Level of Task Performance

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	13	3.8	3.8
>2-3	36	10.6	14.4
>3-4	167	49.3	63.7
>4-5	123	36.3	100
Total	339	100	

The questionnaire contained 13 questions which are intended to measure job performance out of which three items are sought to measure employees' task performance. As indicated in the above table significant portion of respondents (49.3%) rated their task performance within the range of 3 and 4 while the other sizable portion of respondents (36.3%) fall within the range of 4 and 5. Therefore, the level of academicians' task performance is said to be high as only 14.4% of respondents rated their task performance below average.

Table 4.11 Responses on the Level of Contextual Performance

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	3	0.9	0.9
>2-3	31	9.1	10
>3-4	152	44.8	54.8
>4-5	153	45.2	100
Total	339	100	

The questionnaire contained five items which are intended to measure contextual performance of employees. As indicated in the above table most of the respondents (45.2%) rated their contextual performance within the range of 4 and 5 while the other significant portion (44.8%) of respondents rated themselves between 3 and 4.

Thus, it can be said that academicians are good in contextualizing themselves with their work environment.

Table 4.12 Responses on the Level of Counter Work Performance

Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	16	4.7	4.7
>2-3	124	36.6	41.3
>3-4	128	37.8	79.1
>4-5	71	20.9	100
Total	339	100	

The questionnaire included five questions intended to measure employees' counterproductive behaviour. The responses of respondents were required to be reversed as the questions were reversing phrase (Field, 2009). Therefore, these reverse-scored items are reversed in order to avoid response bias. As indicated in the above table, 36.6% and 37.8% of respondents rated their counterproductive behaviour within the range of 2 and 3 and 4 and 5 respectively. Thus, it can be concluded that most academicians moderately demonstrated counterproductive behaviour.

4.3.4.4. Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted in order to ascertain the existence of the relationship among the variables.

Table 4.14 Relationship between Sense of Calling and Job Performance Dimensions

		Task Performance	Contextual Performance	Counterproductive Behaviour
Sense of Calling	Pearson Correlation	.025	.060	-.281**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.647	.272	.000
	N	339	339	339

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The above table indicated the relationship between sense of calling and job performance dimensions. As indicated in Table 4.14 there is no relationship ($r=.025, p=.647$) between sense of calling and task performance. Besides, there is no relationship ($r=.060, p=.272$) between sense of calling and contextual performance. Conversely, there is a significant inverse relationship ($r=-.281, p=.000$) exists between sense of calling and counterproductive behaviour.

In contrast to the above finding, Dik and Duffy (2008) found out that sense of calling have a direct relationship with job satisfaction and job performance. Similarly, a study conducted in South Korea revealed that perceiving a calling is positively correlated to job satisfaction, job involvement and performance (Park, Kim, Lim and Sohn, 2019). This study also put that job involvement mediates the relationship between sense of calling and job satisfaction as well as the relationship between calling and job performance (Park, Kim, Lim and Sohn, 2019). Another study conducted in China among construction managers also put calling positively moderates the relationship between role conflict and job performance but the moderate effect of calling on job performance and job ambiguity is insignificant (Wu, Hu and Zheng, 2019).

Table 4.15 Relationship between Sense of Calling and Job Satisfaction Dimensions

		Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Intrinsic Job Satisfaction
Sense of Calling	Pearson Correlation	.086	-.037
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.492
	N	339	339

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The above table indicated the relationship between sense of calling and job satisfaction dimensions. As indicated in Table 4.15 there is no relationship ($r=.086, p=.112$) between sense of

calling and extrinsic job satisfaction. Besides, there is no relationship ($r=-.037, p=.492$) between sense of calling and intrinsic job satisfaction.

Unlike the above finding, in a study conducted by (Duffy et.al, 2015), calling was strongly correlated with job satisfaction and work engagement. Likewise, Douglass, Duffy, and Autin (2016) also found that there is a significant level of connection between sense of calling and job satisfaction.

Factors such as cultural and traditional differences, various situations, settings, institutional circumstances and other diversity factors might affect the relationship of sense of calling and the strength of its correlation with job-satisfaction and other organizational behaviors.

Table 4.16 Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Job Performance Dimensions

		Task Performance	Contextual Performance	Counter Productive Behaviour
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.503**	.392**	.340**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	339	339	339

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The above table indicated the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance dimensions. As indicated in Table 4.16 there is a significant positive relationship($r=.503, p=.000$) between job satisfaction and Task performance. There is also a significant positive relationship ($r=.392, p=.000$) between job satisfaction and contextual performance. In addition, a significant positive relationship ($r=.340, p=.000$) exists between job satisfaction and counterproductive behaviour.

The above result is supported by Revenio Jalagat (2016) who proved that job satisfaction and job performance correlates with each other and functioned interdependently. Higher job satisfaction leads to higher performance when job satisfaction and performance is linked with group performance (Jalagat, 2016).

On the other hand, the result of a study which used seven general models to see the connection between job satisfaction and job performance put an inconsistent relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Judge et.al, 2001).

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1. Conclusion

Conclusion is made based on the findings presented above. The moderate senses of calling infer that academicians consider their job as an ordinary task. However, the existence of high sense of pro-social orientation implies that academicians suppose their occupation as respected though they are still yearning for the most prized job.

The presence of high sense of searching pro-social orientation along with low job satisfaction could infer that academicians are searching a better job in order to get satisfaction while maintaining their respected job.

In addition, the absence of relationship of sense of calling with both dimensions of job satisfaction and the two job performance dimensions called task performance and contextual performance inferred that sense of calling is not a motivating factor for academicians. On the other hand, the existence of inverse relationship between sense of calling and counterproductive behaviour infer that sense of calling reduce destructive behaviour in the working environment of the academicians.

5.2 Recommendation

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are given which academic institutions would consider for improving academicians' satisfaction and enhancing performance and maintaining the same to contribute their utmost for the nations development.

- The academic institutions should strive to escalate academicians' morale by attaching meaning to their work; hence, they consider their job more than an ordinary task. Instead, they are engaging on a purposeful and respectable work which contributes a lot to the development, enrichment and betterment of the national society and beyond.
- Further research should be studied to identify reasons which are affecting academicians' level of satisfaction, sense of meaning and purpose in their profession in order to maximize their job satisfaction, a sense of meaning and purpose they attach in their work as it is a crucial occupation to nurture the coming generation or workforce and initiate change, transformation and holistic development.
- The academic institutions should bring sense of calling or the meaning and purpose academicians attach in their work and life into discussion as it has a diminishing effect on counterproductive behaviour.

- More studies should be conducted to address the absence of relationship of sense of calling with both dimensions of job satisfaction and the two job performance dimensions called task performance and contextual performance in contrary to the theories and empirical findings.
- Behavioural researchers also need to address the issue since some behaviour that lead to beneficial results in one culture do not necessarily lead to positive results in another culture. So a study which can provide evidence for cross-cultural differences of sense of calling is recommended to uncover more on the area.
- The way or the strategy that the academic staff is being recruited should be assessed and reevaluated as most academicians are searching for a purposeful work rather than taking their current line of work as meaningful and purposeful.
- Education policies and curriculums should also be seen and revisited on how they can incorporate the dimensions of sense of calling and vocation or the personal meaning, passion and purpose that individuals attach with various professions in order to lead the coming generation into what they inclined so as to help them grow reach and flourish.

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Mistreating Citizen in Municipals: Assessing Corruption in Municipal Service Delivery: The Case of Metekel Zone Woreda (Benshangul Gumuz Regional State)

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Abstract

Corruption in the public sector is often viewed as exacerbating conditions of poverty in countries already struggling with the strains of economic growth and democratic transition (Eric Chetwynd, 2003). Corruption is contemporary global issue that needs crucial attention. It should not be seen differently from HIV ADIS, Cancer, TB, poverty and the like that eroding the nations' welfare. This study was therefore targeted on assessing corruption in service delivery of municipal in Metekl Zone Towns (Benishangul Gumuz Region). The objectives of the study were; to identify the areas and types of corruption in municipals service delivery; To analyze the degree of corruption in Municipal's service delivery through the perception of people; and to assess the impact of corruption on town development. To achieve the intended objectives, data was collected in seven woredas of Metekel zone from the targeted population-local officials, elders and residents of capital towns of the woredas by means of structured and unstructured questionnaires. The questionnaires were supported by unstructured interviews. Self-administered questionnaire was distributed for 312 resident populations and 64 persons were interviewed. The finding shows that different types of corruption; nepotism, bribe, embezzlement and fraud were perpetrated in municipals at different service delivery process. And the magnitude was at severe situation. This was manifested by employment of incompetent personnel on key positions under pretext of different mechanisms. At different service delivery process such as in revenue collection, in land allocation, land use planning, expropriation of private property rights, construction of infrastructure, and in house related services corruption practice was found to be shocking. It affected thrust of community on government, infrastructural quality and expansion, sense of rent seeking and documentation problems. Consequently, using community as a means of preventive tool trough uninterrupted awareness creation, prevention of undue influence, monitoring and increasing public administration accountability through surveys and using religious leaders rigorously as means to shape their followers against corruption, are recommended.

Key words: *Corruption, Municipals, effect*

1. Introduction

Popular belief advocates that corruption and poverty are strictly related in less developed countries. Corruption in the public sector is often observed as intensifying conditions of poverty in countries struggling with the stresses of economic growth and democratic transition. Countries experiencing

long-lasting poverty are seen as natural breeding gardens for systemic corruption due to social and income disparities (Eric et al., 2003).

Scale of corruption in Africa is severe. The annual cost of corruption on Africa is speculated to be US\$ 148 billion which represents 25% of the continent's annual GDP and have the consequence of increasing the cost of goods by 20 % (FEACE, 2013). Other studies focus that, it is a fact that corruption floods almost every strata of public life in many African countries. Having reached pandemic levels in some countries, it is one of the leading causes of economic decline in those countries (Okori Uneke, 2006).

Concerning Ethiopia, the issue of corruption should not be underestimated. It is known that Ethiopia has been experiencing devolution of power in order to satisfy better the needs of local peoples. Nevertheless, in decentralization system of governance corruption is thought to wide spread more: Corruption is more widespread at the local than at the national level, and then decentralization inevitably rises the overall level of corruption within a country (Prud'Homme, 1995). The author inferred that why it is likely to be more rampant at the local than at the national level: Local politicians and bureaucrats are likely to be more subject to pressing demands from local interest groups. That might be a reason that government has been striving to minimize corruption, throughout the country by declaring different policies (FEACE, 2013).

Corruption devalues the quality of human life, robs schools, agricultural sectors, hospital and welfare services of funds. It discourages foreign investments leading to decrease in Foreign Direct Investment. It exacerbates inequality, decreases the rule of law and undermines the legitimacy and stability of democratic regimes. It slows down administrative processes thereby making the implementation of government reforms policies ineffective (Abiodun Elijah, 2007).

Corruption diminishes economic growth in a number of ways. It depresses investments and diverts public funds away from social expenditures (Ibid). He farther clarified that, corruption challenges the institutional basis on which economic growth depends, drops the value of public services and infrastructure, distorts government expenditure decisions, declines tax and customs revenues, and damages confidence in the rule of law. Corruption undermines confidence in public institutions and aggravates budget problems (Ibid).

The survey conducted by FEACC 2013 discloses that corruption is widespread in public organizations though much of it is petty corruption. Other study of FEACC also displays the abuse of power, acceptance of undue advantages, illegitimate collection of taxes, undue postponement of matters, granting and approving licenses improperly, unexplained property, and the like are common in the country.

Even though diverse mechanisms had been designed to minimize corruption in Ethiopia, it seemed that the delivery of public service was challenging. Based on our experience, we noticed that the

public service sectors in Metekel were often criticized for deliberate delaying of services, lack of transparency and accountability. Mostly people distrusted and gossiped that these problems were due to existence of corruption in service sectors though not proved by researches. Among frequently criticized sectors, municipals were the principal (Atnafu, 2011).

The doubt of community could not be overlooked because there must be a hidden issue that they insight. Personal observations of some occurrences in the study area supported the communities distrusting of their service providers. For example, people were not volunteer /happy/ in contributing for establishment or improvement of certain social services though they had an interest and capability to afford it i.e., the community have no trust on service provider. The reason community did not trust their local leader/service providers/ was a question that needed to be answered (Atnafu, 2011).

The rationale of the study was therefore communities suspect of the existence of corruption in service sectors, were to be justified and search solution, unless distrust of community on services providers could adversely affect the socio-economy and political development. Trust of community is crucial ingredient for accomplishing development programs. In other expression, we could not talk about development without trust because trust is motive force for community contribution and to realize desired level of development. Thus, assessing corruption in these institutions would enable service providers, people and the higher levels of governments to have a clear understanding on the nature of corruption in service delivery sectors (World Bank, 2012). I tried to explore diverse journals such as springer and the libraries existing in the region about the detail study of municipal service delivery corruptions. Since, there was no significant study conducted on the nature of corruption committed in municipal service delivery in detail and its consequence on local development, it sounds to have study on the issue to contribute some. The research questions are:

- ❖ *What are commonly observed area and types of corruption in municipal?*
- ❖ *To what extent community perceived the severity of corruption in delivering the Municipals service?*
- ❖ *What the impact of corruption was on development of towns?*

2.Methodology

cross sectional survey was design was used in this study. Survey is data gathering at a particular point in time for the purpose of describing the nature of existing circumstances. Classically cross-sectional survey method is used to scan wide information from people with different understanding and back ground on the same issue in order to measure or describe any generalized features (Marczyk et al, 2005).

Sequential explanatory mixed research approach was used in this study because quantifiable questionnaires and open-ended interviews were the source of the data. Sequential explanatory method is an expansive and creative form of research, not a limiting form of research (Creswell, 2003). Qualitative approaches typically employ a mixed methods design in which qualitative

methods are primary central to the research design and triangulation is the most commonly cited reason that mixed methods are incorporated into research (Hesse-Biber, 2010).

The data was collected in seven woredas of Metekel zone from the local officials, elders and residents of capital towns of the woredas by means of structured and unstructured questionnaires. The questionnaires were supported by unstructured interviews. In fact, unstructured interview was time taking but was must to dig out data in depth. Consequently, great effort was made to manage it. After each interview, summarizing the theme was undertaken as soon as possible.

Sampling Techniques and Size

All Woreda Capital towns (Debrezit, Bulen, Debati, GilgelBeless, Pawi, Manbuk, and Mankush) were intentionally taken as sample because they provide services for larger number of population than none capital towns.

Within each capital towns the target population were local elders, local residents, Woreda representatives, Metekel Zone Anticorruption officials, municipals and woreda justice office. The local elders were those who were supposed to have knowhow on the detail of service delivery of municipals. Thus, local elders were selected by snowball method. Officials were purposely selected for interviewing while local residents were selected too by available simple random sampling method from the total population in each woredas. The local residents were those who reside for 5 and above years in the towns in order to obtain viable data.

The estimated total population of urban house hold in Metekel was 13,778. Of this, 385 peoples were taken as sample population. According to (Ivan ,2003) method of determining sample size, for10,000 to 10,000,000 total population, 385 to 400 sample size is recommended at 95% of confidence level. Sample size for each town was determined by stratified sampling as shown in the following table. From the total sample size nine responses were rejected in the analysis because of inappropriate response.

Town	Sample Size
Manbuke	61
Mankush	28
Debrzit	60
G/Beless	62
Debati	40
Bulen	59
Pawi	75
Total	385

Tools of Data Gathering

Structured and unstructured questionnaires and open-ended interviewing were the major sources of collecting data that feed this study. Self-administered questionnaire which was both objective and open-ended questions were ready and disseminated for 321 resident population to assess the type, degree and effect of corruption. From local elders 42 people (7Woreda x 6 elders from each woreda), 7 woreda representatives, 1 Metekel Zone anticorruption official, 7 municipal Mayor and 7 woreda justice office were interviewed to cross cheek the information obtained from self-

administered questionnaires. Finally, 64 Persons were interviewed. Primary data were supported by secondary documents such as -municipals annual reports, urban proclamations and regulations and other previous research findings.

5.1.Data Analysis

This study was analyzed more of qualitatively and quantitatively to some extent. Those data which were obtained by self-administered questionnaires were described quantitatively using percentage and presented in charts and tables. where as those acquired through interviewing and open-ended questionnaire were interpreted qualitatively by narrating the theme. Both methods were supposed to use in order to support one another. 'When a researcher cannot rely on either qualitative or quantitative, he/she/ uses both methods' (Alan Bryman, 2004).

3. Review of Related literature

3.1 Definitions of Corruption

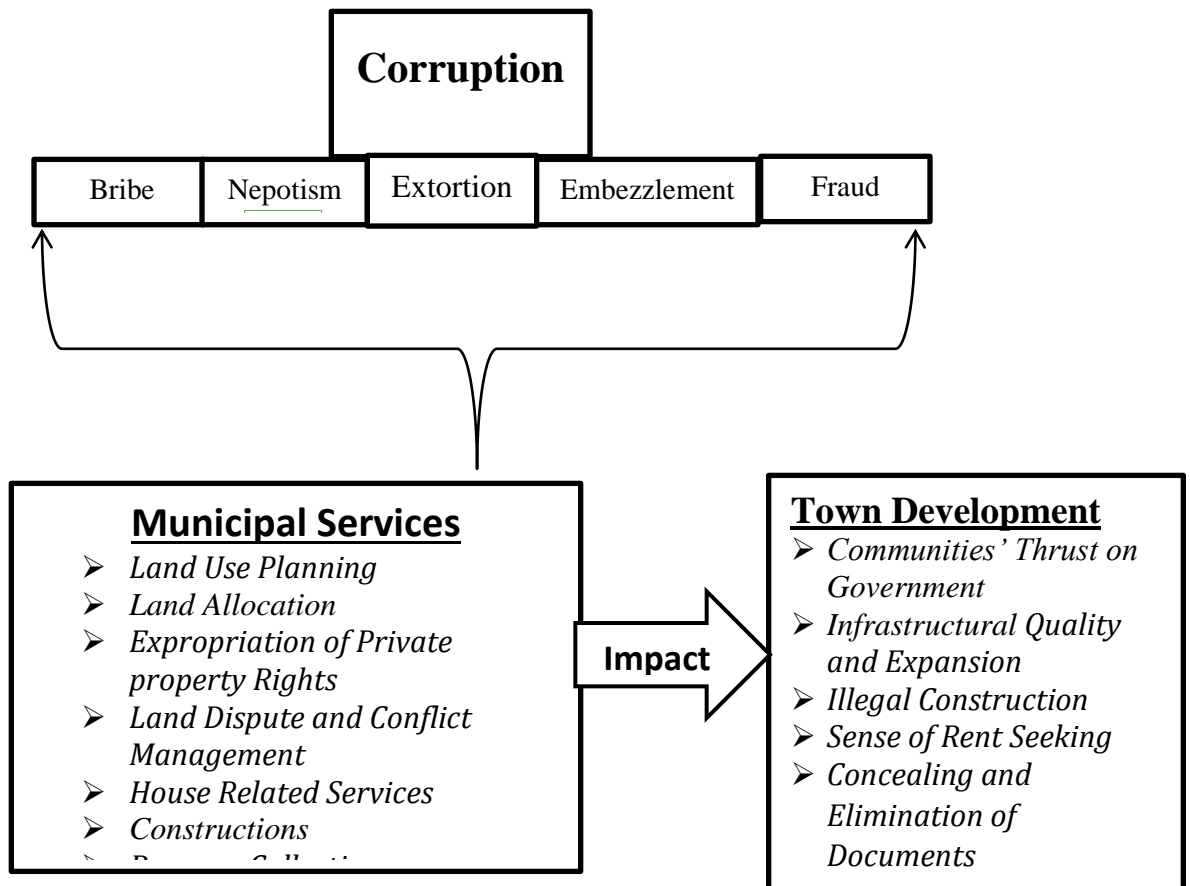
Corruption is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon with multiple causes and effects, as it takes on various forms and functions in different contexts (Jens Chr, 2000). He farther explained that corruption is the misuse of public resources by public officials, for private gains (Jens Chr, 2000). James Anderson shares this concept: A widely accepted definition of corruption is the misuse of public office for private gain (Anderson 2004).

Corruption takes place in many forms. Some examples of forms of corruption are bribery, collusion, embezzlement of public funds and theft, fraud, extortion, abuse of discretion, favouritism, nepotism, the sale of government property by public officials, etc (José G Vargas, 2006).

Bribery is the most widespread form of corruption driven by lucrative profits and the giving of some form of benefit to unduly influence some action or decision (José G.Vargas, 2006). Whereas Extortion is the converse of bribery the abuse or threat of power in such a way to secure response in payment of money or other valuable things (Frunzik Voskanyan, 2000). In another expression extortion is money and other resources extracted by the use of force, violence or the threats to use force (Jens Chr, 2000). As form of corruption nepotism is the granting of public office on the bases of family ties (Frunzik Voskanyan, 2000). The other form is embezzlement which is the direct theft or misappropriation of state resources (Anderson, 2003). Finally, fraud is a manipulation or distortion of information, facts and expertise, by public officials positioned between politicians and citizens, who seek to draw a private profit (Jens Chr, 2000). Even though corruption is manifested in many forms, the most common forms in municipals are bribery ('abuse of discretion in favor of a third party in exchange of benefits given by the third party'), Fraud ('abuse of discretion for private gain without third parties involvement') and Favoritism, Nepotism and Clientelism ('abuse of discretion not for self-interest but for the interest of family, clan, political party, ethnic group (Paul van der Molen, 2007)).

The effect of corruption has been explained by different writers in administrative, economic, political and social perspectives. Corruption has a damaging effect on administrative efficiency, which can lead to the misuse of human resources, inefficiency, and wastage. It affects professionalism in the public service and leads to frustration on the part of the few honest public officials. In essence, every time ignorant and incompetent people are used obstructively and wastefully at the helm of government agencies and public enterprises, competent personnel who serve under them are wasted too in the process, and the country loses at both ends (Okori Uneke, 2006). Effect of corruption on economic development is that the cost of supporting the public service is significantly increased. For example, the costs of public projects are usually inflated in order to generate kickbacks for members of the tender's board, based on a pre-determined percentage of the contract value. In some terribly bad cases, the project remains uncompleted. Meanwhile, millions or billions of dollars of public funds would have gone down the drains, without a commensurate tangible result (Okori Uneke, 2006). Corruption affects political development and stability in various ways. corruption affects political stability because it leads to military interventions in the political process. It is on record that corruption is the most frequently cited reason for *coup d'état* in Africa. The impairment of political development and stability is directly related to socioeconomic growth and development. National development is handicapped in an atmosphere of political instability and uncertainty, (Hope, 2000). The social impact of corruption is the creation of an atmosphere of tension, dishonesty, and weak and/or selective law enforcement, which, in turn, breeds cynicism and erosion of faith in the political and administrative system (Ake, 1991). But most importantly, in countries where corruption is pervasive, coupled with weak law enforcement or the absence of the rule of law, the corrupted value system engendered encourages the perception that corruption is not only normal but a survival strategy or the means to get ahead (Okori Uneke, 2006). From reviewing of literature, it is undeniable fact that corruption has diverse effect on socio-economic and political development of a country. But the effect and the severity may vary from region to region and even within a region because corruption is influenced by culture and socio-economic development. Previous Studies related to corruption lack in depth investigation and analysis of specific sectors. Therefore, this is an attempt to dig out in detail corruption practices in the woreda capital towns of Metkel.

3.2 Conceptual Framework of the Research



4. Results and Discussions

4.1. Manifestations and Level of Corruption in Municipal

4.1.1. Corruption in Human Power Assignment and Employment

Committing of corruption in Metekel zone municipals started at the period of manpower employment on key positions. The foundation for assigning of manpower on key positions was bribe, kinship, friendship, and special relation with higher officials at woreda or Zone level.

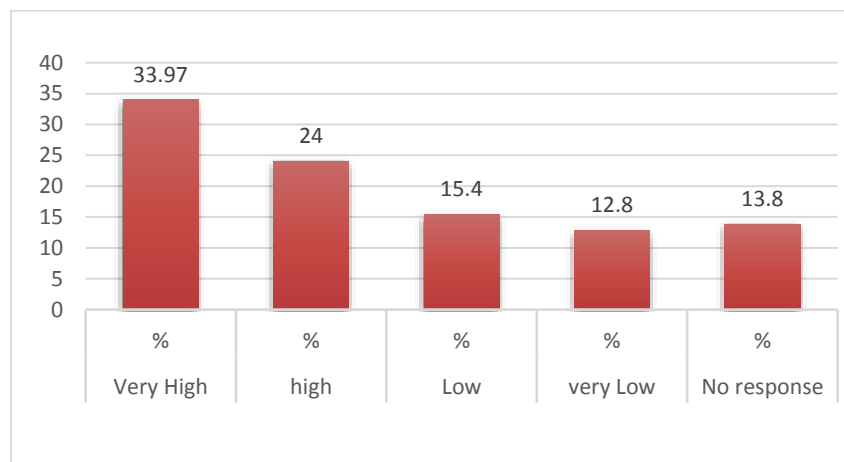
'Sometimes the required person was considered as politically indispensable person and directly recommended for the position. But such persons have no unique political

contribution and capacity than the others. Just they used politics as a cover to assist the interested persons. Particularly this happened during assigning of mayors.

Usually, the educational background and ethical consideration of competent were given less attention. Those who had firm relation with officials or those believed to be obedient for the interest of individual executives were intentionally assigned to key position. This created opportunity for unfit personnel to possess the position. Officials were happy of hiring non confident personnel because such persons obey and implement all orders from their boss. *The argument of Okori venke 2006 sounds hot here; Corruption leads to the misuse of human resources, every time ignorant and incompetent people are used obstructively and wastefully at the government agencies and public enterprises, competent personnel who serve under them are wasted too in the process, and the country loses at both ends.* Consequently, municipals were suffering from absence of knowledgeable and responsible professionals. Illegally assigning and employing personnel on key position was to create favorable environment to commit corruption in the way they favored.

The information obtained from questionnaire on degree of corruption regarding appointing and employing reflects the above discussion. Chart1 shows that about 34 % of respondents replied the degree of corruption in employment and appointment of man power was very high, while 24%, 15%, and 13% answered it was high, low, and very low respectively. Generally, more than 58 % of the respondents responded that it was high.

Chart1. Responses for Degree of Corruption in Personnel appointing and Employment



4.1.2. Corruption in Service Delivery

4.1.2.1. Corruption in Land Use Planning

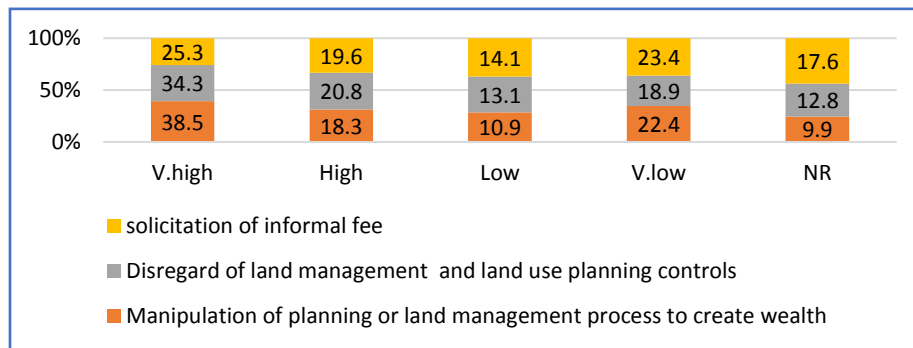
When urban plan was being made ready, the planning bodies prepares the plans according to their interest and benefit. Here series misconducts were frequently observed. Planners were often

criticized for their solicitation of informal payment. This happens when new plan commenced into towns so that planners have power to alter designs as their want. Plan design might force roads to be constructed through privately possessed land or constructions. But if some planners get certain amount of payment, they change the direction and save the building unless they crush it forever. The following quotation was one of interviewee’s witness in Manbuk town;

‘When the plan was introduced to our town the urban planner had drawn red ‘X’ sign on our building. My father asked the reason, and he responded it was the plan, not anyone. But the urban planner said if you give me 10,000 birrs, I could save your building. But my father was not interested to pay because religion forbidden him. After weeks our house converted into centre of road and we were displaced to elsewhere from our strategic site. Those who gave the requested amount of money to the planer were able to save their houses.’

The evidences obtained from questionnaires backed the information found from interviewing. Solicitation of informal fee by officials was highly present in land management and land use sector as chart 2 reveals.

Chart 2: Responses for Corruption in Land Management and Land Use Planning



Land certification and land record management was also exposed to corruption related practices. Collusion with applicants to undervalue land being certified or transacted; and refusal to process applicants in a timely manner without payment of informal fee were found to be common. About 56% respondents reply that existence of refusal to process applicants in a timely manner. For Collusion with applicants to undervalue land being certified or transacted, 26% respondents said it was very high and 22% reported it was high. Urban land should be identified and recorded to protect it from wastage and illegal usage (Land management policy of Ethiopia 2011-Amharic version). Nevertheless, the operation of this policy on ground has been crept and exposed to danger due to corruption.

4.1.2.2. Land Allocation

It is unambiguous that one of the principal and limited resources of a country is land. According to information obtained from ethics and anticorruption, the justice office, construction and urban development office of Metekel zone, this limited public resource has become principal source of bribe and nepotism for individual benefit.

The discussion made with local people, the demonstrations for the prevalence of corruption in resource usage-particularly land resource were: Occupation of strategic (commercial or business, conducive to residence) by higher officials- Woreda or zone, their relatives or those who can pay the requested amount of bribe. These sounds hot the finding of (Atnafu 2011) “land allotment was purely based on nepotism, friendship and bribe. In most cases, residents were not beneficiaries of land while none residents of respective woredas were getting land”.

The interviewees also perceive that the establishment of Tana- Beless project and the construction of the great Renaissance Dam on Abay River have prompted embezzlement of land resources in nearby woreda towns because these projects are expected to increase the socio-economy of Ethiopia at large, and nearby woredas in particular. In return, this is expected to boost the land value in future. Consequently, there was high rate of illegal land occupation or seek to occupy plots of land by official from kebele to regional level currently. Towns such as G/Belss, Manbuk,Pawi, and Mankush were prone to this scenario.

To know the extent of corruption in resource usage, local residents were asked using the parameters such as occupation of strategic sites, Illegal allocation of public land to individuals and an eligible persons and solicitation of informal fee by officials to allocate plot of land. The result shows similarity with the above information obtained through interview and open-ended questionnaire. It reveals that 38.14 % (119) of respondents reported the extent of occupation of strategic sites /plot / of land by elites/official / is very high. 20 % (65) of respondent said it was high. Illegal allocation of public land to individuals as a result of bribe or nepotism scored highest position for which 49 % (153) respondents reported was very high too and 22.1 % (69) of responded is very high in large. The degree of allocation of land to ineligible persons as a result of bribe or nepotism was about 44% (137) while for solicitation of informal fee by officials to allocate plot of land is 30% (94). This infers that highest corruption in land related resource was illegal allocation of public land to individuals as a result of bribe or nepotism followed by allocation of land to eligible persons, occupying of strategic sites of urban land by elites and solicitation of informal fee by officials to allocate plot of land respectively.

According to urban land Lease proclamation No 721/2011 now a day urban land has to be allocated to people by means of bidding. It seemed that the government designed this proclamation to minimize the embezzlement of land resources. However, bidding was not free from corruption as information obtained by interviewing discloses. Bidding was posted nominally; the winner was

known before competition. The person who would win the competition had to have discussion with bidding committee before posting of the invitation to bid. He/she had to negotiate and pay cash money. The bidding procedure looked transparent, but when noticed carefully it had a fault. The secret bidding committee used to commit fault was described as follows by one of the interviewees in Gilge Belse town;

Those who competed for bid are called on front of the bidding committee and the committee start to open bid. The first bid that had to open was bid of those who were not required to win. The committee read loudly the cost of every competent. Lastly, they opened bid of a person with whom they negotiated. Based on the cost provided by previously opened bids, they read the last bid as the highest cost provider, but this cost did not actually present on bidding paper he/she submitted. After the other competent went back to their home, presupposed person to win bid remained back and adjust the cost accordingly. They did this to block any audit challenge that could come after. This is an organized form of corruption in municipals.

An idea given by respondents to open ended questionnaire, urban kebele administrators were also the participants of urban land resource misuse because they have power over urban land. It is known that municipals commencement time in Metekel zone is recent phenomena so that municipals have no any evidence about private land ownership prior to their establishment. Thus, when any claim as ownership comes over certain plot of land the kebles have to approve or reject the possession. To make it more evident, they approved new plot of land as it was possession of someone to get benefit or support relatives. This had created opportunity for urban kebele administrators to get unsought benefits.

4.1.2.3. Expropriation of Private property Rights

Based on answers gained from open ended questionnaires, one of the burning issues about expropriation was that under pretext of local development, poor peoples were evicted from their land possession and not given compensation. Sometimes if given the compensation, it was plot of land, which value was not proportional to the former and the property on the land was not considered. There were occasions that the plots of land from poor evicted were given to individuals who have capacity to give bribe or have strong relative from government office/ kinship with the official/ without convincing reasons. Therefore, for a resident who was evicted from his / her/ tenure, it was must to give bribe or have strong relationship with top official to gain proportional reimbursement.

To know the degree of the problem quantifiable questionnaire was distributed among residents. According to response of the resident's high corruption was committed in expropriation of private property. Collusion with land holders to overvalue land being expropriated, misuse of expropriation process to abuse the right of others through bribery or nepotism and solicitation of informal fee by officials were reported by 21%, 27% and 30 % of respondents as very high

respectively. See Table 1. Here it infers that corruption practice in the process of private property expropriation was very high.

Table 1: Responses for Corruption in Expropriation of private property

Descriptions of Parameters	Responses										Total	
	Very High		High		Low		Very Low		No response			
	N ^o	%	N ^o	%	N ^o	%	N ^o	%	N ^o	%	N ^o	%
Collusion with land holders to overvalue land being expropriated	68	21.79	57	18.3	37	11.9	86	27.6	64	20.5	312	100
Misuse of expropriation process	85	27.24	58	18.6	38	12.2	75	24.0	56	17.9	312	100
solicitation of informal fee	94	30.13	58	18.6	27	8.7	78	25.0	55	17.6	312	100

The interview of local elders supports this evidence. For example, in wonbera , Pawi and G/blest town, when individual was evicted from their previous possession, but the compensation was not given. The typical example was the construction of hospital in Debrezait town in Woberda. For the purpose of the hospital construction, individual land possession; residence area and agricultural land of individual was taken away from them without compensation. Peoples perceive the reason is solicitation of bribe. On the other hand, municipals said the reason was not matter of corruption rather lack of capital that could be given as compensation. The municipals on the other hand said there was enormous potential for collection of revenue, but deficit of man power has become a challenge to make it practical. Whatever it is, failure to compensate the property right of residents, violets BGRS Urban Land Lease administration regulation number 65/2013. The regulation article 23 sates when legalized possessions are needed for urban redevelopment or for any other public benefit the individual lease agreement could be ended and should be given adequate compensation.

3.1.2. 4. Land Dispute and Conflict Management as A path

Amharic proverb says - '*Jib bekededew Wusha Yegebal*' –to mean 'Hyena creates opportunity for Dog to gain meat'. Likewise, as interviewed local elders affirmed, urban land disputes create favourable environment for bribes to be committed. Responses from questionnaires also tell that officials were participants of corruption in this regard. Parameters such as partiality in decision through bribery, fraud or nepotism in settlement of disputes; sale of judgments by officials; payment of bribe to influence the dispute resolution process; payment of bribes to officials or witnesses and the use of dispute process to export an advantage from other party were used to measure the degree of corruption in dispute and conflict management. The responses for all parameters were very high. See table 2.

Table2: Responses for Existence of Corruption in Land Dispute and Conflict Management

Descriptions of Parameters	Responses										Total	
	Very High		High		Low		Very Low		No Response			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Bias in decision through bribery, fraud or nepotism in adjudication of disputes	150	48.08	69	22.1	28	9.0	44	14.1	21	6.7	312	100
sale of judgments by officials	135	43.27	59	18.9	36	11.5	47	15.1	35	11.2	312	100
payment of bribe to delay or influence the dispute resolution process	167	53.53	58	18.6	33	10.6	33	10.6	21	6.7	312	100
payment of bribes to officials or witnesses giving evidences	88	28.21	64	20.5	40	12.8	74	23.7	46	14.7	312	100
The use of dispute process to export an advantage from other party	89	28.53	54	17.3	45	14.4	65	20.8	59	18.9	312	100

Source: field Survey

4.1.2.5. Mistreats on House Related Services

Here house related service referrers to house selling, permission to start new building, fencing and approval of plan/design/ of house plans.

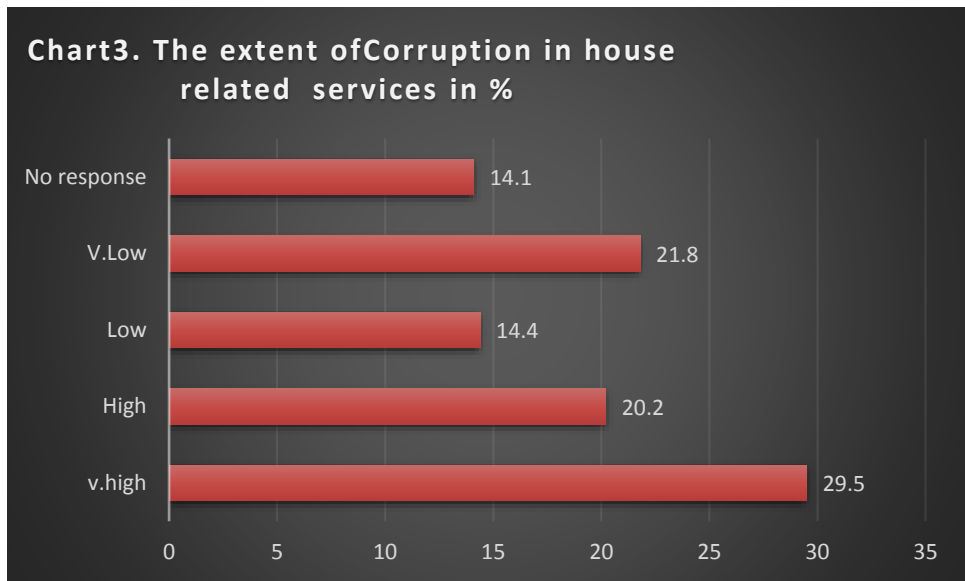
Concerning house selling and transferring of property, government income was misused in two ways as evidence from open ended questionnaire informed. The first one was the buyer and seller collaboration not to tell the true cost of the transaction. When they agreed to purchase a building at the cost, let say 100,000 Birr, they assume it as it was sold by 30 to 40 thousand birr and report it to justice to get approved. The second was informal agreement between the municipal professionals/cost estimators/ and purchasers. The buyer had to make informal agreement with cost estimator to pay certain amount of money and finally get the amount of sale tax reduced than as if it was at the normal condition, unless the estimation would be exaggerated to revenge the buyers.

As interviewed local elders showed, the other type of corruption was bias while permitting new building, and repairing the existing construction. It is not obligation to have permission for parties that have relation with municipal bodies. They could construct what they need without any ups and downs. Conversely to this, for parties that want to get service in legal way and have no interest to “worship” to officials, procedures become highly bureaucratic to get permission. Deliberate prolonging of procedure seems punishment for not providing informal payment.

The interviewed local elders also criticized the municipals for the reason that in house plan approval, there was practice of corruption. There were incidences you could not get your plan

approved unless informal payment has to take place. They said የትልቅ ሠው ብን ሰጥን ስንጠቅም ‘*Yetlk Sew firma Bekentu Aykenti*’ which means without a certain payment he/she/ could not sign on the plan easily.

To test the extent of misuse of power in house related service of municipals questionnaires were distributed to residents. The result is presented in chart 3. About 29 % responded that the degree of corruption in house selling-estimation by municipal (permission of construction and approval of house plans) was very high, while 22% ,20 %, 14%, respectively said it was very low, high and low respectively. Summing up high and very high figures, about 50% indicated the existence of the problem.



4.1.2. 6. Corruption in Construction of Infrastructure

Construction of Public Squares

Municipals are expected to spend their income on important and key issues. Divergent to this, what happening was another. Under the pretext of a certain construction or maintenance, public money was embezzled. Most of the time this was committed not individually, rather in team with different stake holders. For example, if public square was going to be built, there was co-optation among planner, officials, bidding committee, and bid winners.

Public squares were principal means for misusing of government budget. See fig1. This Square was found in Bullen town. It was constructed at the cost of 497,000 birr. Communities respond that it could finish around 50,000 Birr. From their experience of fencing their house they justified that they spend 30 to 40 thousand Birr for construction of fences at the same quality. Some key informant from municipal, who knew the secret witness that the cost of construction was too inflated because of design change. The original proposed design has been concealed and replaced

by another new low-cost design purposely to gain extra advantage. When low-cost design modification was made there was no cost change. There might be also many else changes such as amount and quality of inputs used to build and the depth of the base if examined by independent professionals. Okori Uneke, 2006 well-articulated that the costs of public projects are usually inflated in order to generate kickbacks for members of the tender's board, based on a pre-determined percentage of the contract value.

fig.1: public square that cost half a million Birr



Source: Field Observation

When embezzlement was committed the strategies, they design to escape from accountability were: Deliberate abolishment of existing committee and to avoid any written documents/evidences/ that are related to the issue; capturing auditors by benefits not to raise the issue; and made special relation with higher level of government to cool down the issue. This infers that corruption in the municipal was committed by ‘design’.

4.1.7. Revenue Collection

As Municipals annual plan shows that the main source of finance for Metekel zone municipals was tax from land and social services. The sources comprises of different taxes from export and import goods, public transportation, and general market site usage; technical services such as land allotment, approval of building blocks, and selling of house; and social services - kera‘service, marriage contracts and penalties.

Revenue collection of municipals was not free from criticism. Money always collected, but not devoted for proposed goals. To make intra-road asphalt, expand electricity demand, and other social services, capital was collected from government employees, government institution, merchants and other residents in the form of bazaar, bidding and direct cash mobilization. However, no any proposed activity was found on ground. Some activities like road maintenance were reported as work done but not pleasing according to residents’ view. In 2012 about 97,000 Birr was contributed by new keble settlers/Beless mado/ in G/Beless town to gain electric power. The

collected money was yet stored in Bank. Similarly, huge amount of was collected for the purpose of intra road asphalt in 1999/2007/. But still no action of road construction within the town was made, or what is being done by the capital was not made clear to residents (interview made with some former officials and local elders). Thus, this justifies the existence of transparency difficulties. The local elders perceived that the officials were waiting until the government delivers the service by its own budget and under the pretext of the government budget, they could share the collected money. The communities' perception could be right because when different government officials were requested about this issue some were not certain of it while others were not voluntary to say about it.

The other unfair work of municipals that residents condemn was discrepancy of tax collection throughout the towns. For example, some people who had larger proportion of plot of land and more business area pay smaller amount of tax, and vice versa. Municipals admit the existence of discrepancy in tax gathering. Unlike the residents, they perceive the reason was that the level /grade/ for urban land has not been given by regional government. But someone has to notice this is potentially conducive environment for tax collectors to gain undesirable benefit.

4.2. Impact of Corruption on Development of Towns

4.2.1. Eroding Communities' Thrust on Government

As interviewed officials' response indicates, due to absence of quick responsiveness, transparency and justice, the trust of peoples on the government was being eroded. Ake supports this finding in that he concluded corruption breeds skepticism and erosion of faith in the political and administrative system (Ake, 1991). This was sourced from absence of equal treatment of citizens-for customers with the same kind problems different responses given; lengthy and redundant appointments- residents perceived that if servants in municipals respond timely, the 'source of their income' could be dried. This suggests that when servants stress customers, the customers were forced to pay informal fee to emancipate from the yoke of complex bureaucracy. Even though it is difficult to observe while bribe offered, it is possible to know indirectly based on situation. For example, the response for rich people was swift and encouraging while for questions of poor it was the reverse. Thus, communities claimed BPR and BSC are professed for formality. No single sentences of such regulation were operated in offices. Most residents conclude that you could not get service by following legal procedures. These practises has became the source of untrust of community up on the government.

4.2.2. Infrastructural Quality and Expansion

Inability to use existing community resources / man power, finance, land/ appropriately and failure to collect revenue had have direct and indirect effect on infrastructural development of towns. Unequal handlings of residents have also negative repercussions on infrastructural quality and quantity. Municipals were not collecting revenue in the manner it should be. For illustration, unlawfully occupied plots of land have no revenue contribution. If these plots of land were given

by following rules and procedures, there could be continuous income for government from construction and renewal of houses. Moreover, strategic business sites that could be hotels and shops and which could have great contribution for augmentation of government financial capacity had become swallowed by unlawful way. These created difficulties for provision of electricity, sufficient water supply, roads, and other infrastructures.

Residents argued that road was one of indispensable component of urban infrastructure requirement. Accordingly, they used to demand the right to intra road construction and maintenance. Usually, reaction to the questions of the residents by municipals resembles relevant because there were frequent road maintenance and construction. What goes wrong was the quality of roads. The informants reported that it was better if not mended and constructed such roads since roads become worse than previous after maintenance. Under guise of road construction, embezzlement of public money was taking place. The evidence they provide was that they were under cloud of dust in winter and in mud during summer season.



Source: Field Observation; These photos are from a town at different season

Fig 2. the Quality of Constructed Roads in winter and summer

4.2.3. Expansion of Illegal Construction

When urban land was illegitimately occupied by individuals, most of time they negotiate with officials to gain informal payment and make it as lawfully gained plot of land. Except Debrezait town (wenbera) almost in all other towns ‘moon houses’ were widely spread. Some get it legalized while others were not for unknown reasons. Those who able to contact higher officials could get illegal construction legalized. Here what was criticized is not the legalization rather the treatment was not uniform for all occupants. As one official of woreda explained ‘*illegal constructions are uninterrupted and continuous source of income for some bodies therefore there was no control on illegal construction*’. As a result, significant numbers of illegal construction were spread in the towns. See fig 3.

Fig.3. Sample of Illegal Constructions



Source: field Observation

The expansion of illegal construction/ ‘Yeckerka Betch’/ had created challenges to expand infrastructure because it was not planned.

3.2.4. Expansion of Sense of Rent Seeking

Prolonged incidence of corruption has able to breed sense of rent seeking both in the mind of civil servants and residents. It is important to quat the narration of one of the interviewees from Metekel Zone.

‘Servants’ desire additional payments for the services they offered and at the same time affluent residents want to give bribe to gain services without any bureaucracy and legal procedure. Some members of community have developed the sense of gaining services without offering benefit is impossible and do not want to wait for legal procedures. In the condition when some new professionals or appointed mayors start to follow rules and regulations affluent individuals hated such officials. They perceived such peoples were rigid and conservative. They gave nick name $\frac{3}{4}N\tilde{A}pF \frac{3}{4}N\tilde{A}pF$ ‘yemaybela yemayasbela- wants to benefit neither himself nor others.

Here Okori Uneke, 2006 finding sounds hot: ‘in countries where corruption is pervasive, coupled with weak law enforcement , the corrupted system creates the perception that corruption is not only normal but a survival strategy.

3.3.6. Concealing and Elimination of Documents

Document hiding was a series problem in municipals. They do this knowingly to be paid and then return the document in their former places. According to informants view documents were concealed and ruined for two reasons. The first one was to gain informal fee-if they were given bribe, they developed a means and replace the document. Theother was to disable anybody that might question them based on the document so that they could not be accountable (Profile of Federal and Regional Ethics and Anticorruption, 2012).

This generally infers different types of corruption practices; nepotism, bribe, embezzlement and fraud were committed in municipals. Its magnitude was at severe situation. The foundation for

assigning of manpower on key positions was bribe, kinship, friendship, and special relation with higher officials at woreda or Zone level. Usually, the educational background and ethical consideration of competent were given less attention. This created opportunity for unfit personnel to possess key position. As a result, municipals were suffering from lack of knowledgeable and responsible experts.

The service delivery areas of corruption were in revenue collection, land allocation, land use planning, expropriation of private property rights, land dispute and conflict management, construction of infrastructure, and in house related services. The pervasiveness of corruption in land resource usage were occupation of strategic (commercial or business, conducive to residence) by higher official, their relatives or those who able to pay the requested amount of bribe. The commencement of Tana- Beless project and the construction of the Great Renaissance Dam on Abay River have initiated theft of land in nearby woreda towns. Even though, it is proclaimed that urban land has to be allocated to peoples by means of binding on basis of lease proclamation and regulations, bidding was posted nominally- the winner was known before competition. Expropriation of private property rights, and land dispute and conflict management were also another conducive environment for perpetrate of abuse of power.

When embezzlement and bias was committed the strategies they used to escape from accountability were deliberate destroy of existing committee and documents to avoid any written documents/evidences/ that related to the issue, capture auditors by benefits to raise the issue and making special relation with higher level of government to cool down the issue.

The corrupted activities have affected the development of towns directly or indirectly. Due to absence of quick responsiveness and transparency, the trust of peoples on the government was being eroded. Incapability to use existing community resources / man power, finance, land/ appropriately and failure to collect revenue had have repercussion on infrastructural development of towns. Unequal treatments of residents had also negative effect on infrastructural quality. Prolonged incidence of corruption had able to develop sense of rent seeking both in the mind of civil servants and residents.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusions

This research finding in line to pre stated objectives generally infers different types of corruption; nepotism, bribe, embezzlement and fraud were perpetrated in municipals in different service delivery process. It was an organized form of corruption that was being committed in municipals while delivering service for community. It was an organized in a sense that corruption is committed in collaboration among experts to high officials. This has been followed by significant repercussion on the development of the towns. Based on the finding it is easy to predict the future of corruption will be sever and will retard the development of towns easily unless it has to be minimized through different mechanisms intensively and extensively.

The conditions that shall create favorable environment for committing corruption were arranged carefully at time man power employment or appointment. Thus, this infers the corruption in the area becomes well-arranged and systematic. In turn this enforces us to claim that the implementation of legal rules related to corruptions were weak. In addition, the regional anticorruption follows up, monitoring and management was fragile because if it was strong, the severity of corruption could not reach at this level. Consequently, other policies like national and regional urban land proclamations of 2011 were not functioning due to prevalence and common committing of corruption. Both communities and governmentally responsible bodies has developed the mind set up that believes corruption practice as normal that is why service providers solicit extra benefit for the service they offer and at the same time service takers interested to give the required payment to break bureaucratic hurdles.

5.2. Recommendation

❖ *Using Community as a means of preventive tool*

Intensive and continuous awareness for community about activity, procedures and their rights over municipals could minimize the severity of the problem. Thus, continuous awareness creation has to be made about duties and responsibilities of municipals, and urban related proclamations to both community and woreda officials.

- ❖ *Ethics and Anti-corruption Commission should also penetrate the respective rules and regulation in the mind of community so that community could prevent corruption easily. Openness, equal opportunity and transparency in hiring and promoting public officials are essential to ensure honest, competent and independent public service.*
- ❖ *There must be strict implementation of Ethics and anticorruption codes and proclamation and strong investigation of cases so that rule of law has to be assured.*
- ❖ *This finding has to be presented for woreda officials so that they will be conscious on what they are doing.*
- ❖ *Using religious leaders rigorously as means to shape their followers against corruption. If each of us are honest towards our profession then corruption will automatically decrease. For acquisition of this character religious leaders could have significant role.*
- ❖ *Since the issue of corruption is too broad and complex, it could not be concluded everything in this research was addressed. So that potential researchers are invited to fill the gap instead of scrutinizing.*

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THEME 8 CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES

Digital Information Resources Access and Utilization in Ethiopian Civil Service University Library

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Abstract

The study assessed access and utilization of electronic information resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. Significant investment has been made in digital information resources in this University Library and yet it was not researched whether these electronic information resources are utilized or underutilized. The study is guided by four objectives namely; explore the extent of accessibility of electronic information resources by students, evaluate the extent of utilization of electronic information resources by students, find out the problems encountered by students while accessing and using the electronic information resources and recommend strategies that would help mitigate the problems. The survey method was used. The population of the study comprises 5132 postgraduate students. A sample of 400 postgraduate students was selected using simple random sampling techniques. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics of percentage and frequency count. Based on the findings of the study the extent of accessibility and utilization of electronic information resources are found to be both as a great extent and low extent. Lack of IT (Computer) knowledge and in adequate computers in the library were problems encountered by students. Lack of guidelines and electronic collection development rules and regulations, inadequate budget, lack of skilled technical staff, and unaware of the existence of electronic resources by students were major challenges. The study recommended the establishment of electronic collection development rules and regulations, guidelines and procedures for budget allocation. The library should improve appropriate user education for students, Technical training should be given for technical staff, avail computer facilities, enhance Internet connectivity and relevant electronic resources should be subscribed.

Keywords: *Digital Information Resources, Access, Utilization, Electronic Resources (E-Resources), Postgraduate Students.*

1. Introduction

The 21st Century has experienced a remarkable proliferation of electronic resources (E-Resources) which has tremendously changed the information seeking attitude of students and researchers globally. E-Resources, in most universities, are integral part of electronic library and stand as vital academic resources that support teaching, learning and research activities (Zhang Y. & Liu, 2011).

Today, it is very common to find electronic resources in most university libraries in Ethiopia, including Ethiopian Civil Service University Library (ECSUL). However, based on the national level librarian meeting discussion hosted by Addis Ababa University library in Ethiopia, it was pointed out that their availability does not necessarily equate their utilization. A lot of researches have been carried out in the area of access and utilization of electronic resources in African University libraries. However, as far as the knowledge of the researcher is concerned, there is no research output in this area in Ethiopian context. It is therefore, necessary to find out if the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library is performing its primary responsibility of providing E-Resources to meet its user's information needs, learning and research. This research, therefore, would examine factors affecting access and utilization of digital information resources at the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library.

In any institution, the library plays a vital role in making information available and accessible. To render such effective library services to the university community, academic libraries are investing hugely into the acquisition of electronic information resources such as e-books, e-journals and subscription to scholarly databases to facilitate teaching, learning and research. The true value of this huge investment will only be realized through the productive utilization of these resources. Xie (2006) stated that millions of dollars have been invested in the development of e-libraries despite they are still underutilized. Similarly, significant investments have been made in electronic resources and accompanying computer-based technology to ensure access to electronic resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library too.

As far as the knowledge of the researcher is concerned, there is no previous research work in this title, in Ethiopian context. In ECSUL, in spite of perceived availability of electronic resources, their effective utilization by students is not well known yet, and hence, it is important to find out their extent of accessibility and utilization. Besides, according to the ECSU Library annual users' satisfaction survey of 2019, the low use of electronic resources was revealed, which attract the attention of the researcher. Therefore, it is necessary to know why there is low usage of electronic resources at the ECSUL. Hence, the study investigated factors inhibiting access and utilization of digital resources in the ECSU Library. The study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. *To what extent are electronic information resources accessible by students in ECSUL?*
2. *To what extent do students utilize electronic resources in ECSUL?*
3. *What are the problems encountered by students while accessing and using the electronic information resources in ECSUL?*
4. *What strategies that would help alleviate the problems?*

2.Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey research design. It used both quantitative and qualitative approach. It is conducted in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library which is located in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The population of the study comprised of Five Thousand One Hundred Thirty-Two (5132) Postgraduate students who are registered and active in the Ethiopian Civil Service University at the time of this study (2020). To select the respondents, the overall sample-

sized for this study was 400 registered students of the University. This is determined using Taro Yamane's (1967) formula. Hence simple random sampling is used to draw the sample from the population of the study so that each member of the population is given equal or independent chance of being selected.

The questionnaire is administered to postgraduate students of the University. It comprises closed and open-ended questions to ensure that the respondents give comprehensive answers to the questions. In addition, Focus Group Discussion was used with the library administrator to clarify issues raised in the questionnaire.

The quantitative data collected is analyzed using descriptive statistics and SPSS software version 25. Descriptive statistics of frequency counts, simple percentages, and mode scores are used to analyze data generated by the research questions. The qualitative data is analyzed by sorting, classifying and arranging data which is examined in relation to combined thematic analysis.

To assure reliability and validity of the research, the researcher used valid data collection instrument that is questionnaire that contain relevant information to the study. Pre testing was conducted to identify items characterized by difficulties and ambiguity. Regarding ethical considerations, letter of introduction was provided using the formal consent for the study. The principle of voluntary participation in the study was strictly adhered. Participants were well informed about the purpose of the study that it is purely academic and assure confidentiality. All references cited in the study were appropriately referenced.

3. Review of Literature

3.1 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework discussed below in different chapters revealed that accessibility of electronic information resources does not automatically imply its use. However, access to the electronic information resources will greatly enhance utilization of the resources thereby resulting in positive impact for students.

3.2. Concept of Electronic Resources

Adeleke and Nwalo (2017) defined electronic information resources as "resources in which information is stored electronically and which are accessible through electronic systems and networks". Different types of E-Resources that are used in this study are: e-journals, e-books, online databases (such as EBSCOHOST, JSTOR) electronic thesis and dissertation and Online Public Access Catalogue (OPAC).

3.3. Types of Electronic Information Resources

The various types and forms of e-resources in academic libraries are; e-databases, e-journals, e-data archives, e-manuscript, e-maps, e-books, e-magazines, e-thesis and dissertation, WWW, e-newspapers, e-research reports, and e-bibliographic databases (Ankrah & Atuase, 2018). Different types of electronic resources that are used in this study are: e-journals, e-books, online databases, e-thesis and dissertation.

E-Resources Accessibility

Access is a general term used to describe the degree to which resources, services, product, and the environment is accessible by as many people as possible. It can be viewed as the ability to access information with little or no stress. According to Aguolu and Aguolu (2002), resources may be available in the library and even identified bibliographically as relevant to one's subject of interest, but the user may not be able to lay hands on them. One may identify citations in indexes, but may not have access to the resources containing the relevant articles. Osundina (2004) studied the relationship between accessibility and library use in institutions in Nigeria and notes that the problem of users is not the question of wanting to use the library, but whether or not the library can provide for their needs and whether there will be access to the information provided.

Utilization of Electronic Information Resources

Amankwah (2014) suggested that to utilize the growing range of electronic information resources, users must acquire and practice the skills necessary to exploit them using a variety of online databases. Aguolu and Aguolu (2002) observed that the use of electronic information resources is also influenced by students' use of the library. The more a student uses the library the more familiar he/she becomes with its resources including its electronic information resources. In a study conducted by Luambano et al (2004), it was found that the users of academic libraries are increasingly utilizing electronic information resources as more access points are made available. Most of the studies investigating the impact of electronic information resources reported that users must have the requisite skills to effectively exploit the electronic information resources available.

The Problems Encountered by Students in Accessing and utilizing E-Resources

In order for academic libraries and information Centers to improve their e-resource services, it is imperative to better understand the impediments users encounter in accessing these resources. Bhatt and Rana (2011) also identified that the most common problems with e-resources are low Internet connectivity, lack of awareness about statutory provision for accessing e-resources by the institutions, technical problems, unavailability of sufficient e-resources, doubts in permanency, high purchase price and lack of legal provision. A similar study by Shukla and Mishra (2011) revealed that the majority of research scholars have problem of low internet connectivity. Oduwale and Akpati (2003) also indicated a lack of ICT and power outages as constraints to the use of electronic resources.

3.4 Empirical Studies

As it is mentioned earlier, as far as the knowledge of the researcher is concerned, there is no research output in this area in Ethiopian context. Hence, research gap is not identified based on previous local research works. However, based on international experiences, the following empirical studies are reviewed.

Ankrah and Atuase (2018) conducted a study on the use of electronic resources by postgraduate students of the University of Cape Coast. The cross-sectional survey design was used for the study.

Total population for this study was 915 postgraduate students with a sample size of 275 which is 30% of the total population. Simple random sampling was used to sample the respondents. Quantitative analysis including frequencies, percentages, tables and charts were used as data analysis technique. The finding revealed that most of the postgraduate students were aware of the e-resources in the library. the respondents identified poor internet connection as the most significant constrained for ineffective access to e-resources.

Similarly, Eden and Egbe (2016) examined the extent of availability and utilization of electronic resources by postgraduate (PG) students in the University of Calabar (UNICAL) Library. Five research questions and a single hypothesis were formulated to guide the study. Descriptive survey was adopted and the population of the study was two thousand, seven hundred and twenty-six (2,726), while a sample of four hundred (400) postgraduate library users were selected through stratified sampling; two hundred postgraduate student each from Faculty of Education and Faculty of Science. The result of the analysis revealed that electronic resources were available in UNICAL Library and Postgraduate students utilized them. However, online databases were underutilized. From the review, it is clear that all of the empirical studies were undertaken in geographical locations different from Ethiopian Civil Service University, Ethiopia. In the empirical studies, difference that existed between the reviewed studies and the present studies were noted. Therefore, it is clear that where variables matched, the geographical locations varied. This has created a gap in knowledge that the present study has intended to fill.

4.Results and Discussion

The results of the study are presented below. A total of four hundred (400) questionnaires were administered randomly to ECSU postgraduate students to collect primary data, three hundred twelve (312) copies representing 78% were returned and found useable. Statistics of sampled Colleges showed that College of Finance Management and Development (CFMD) had the highest response rate.

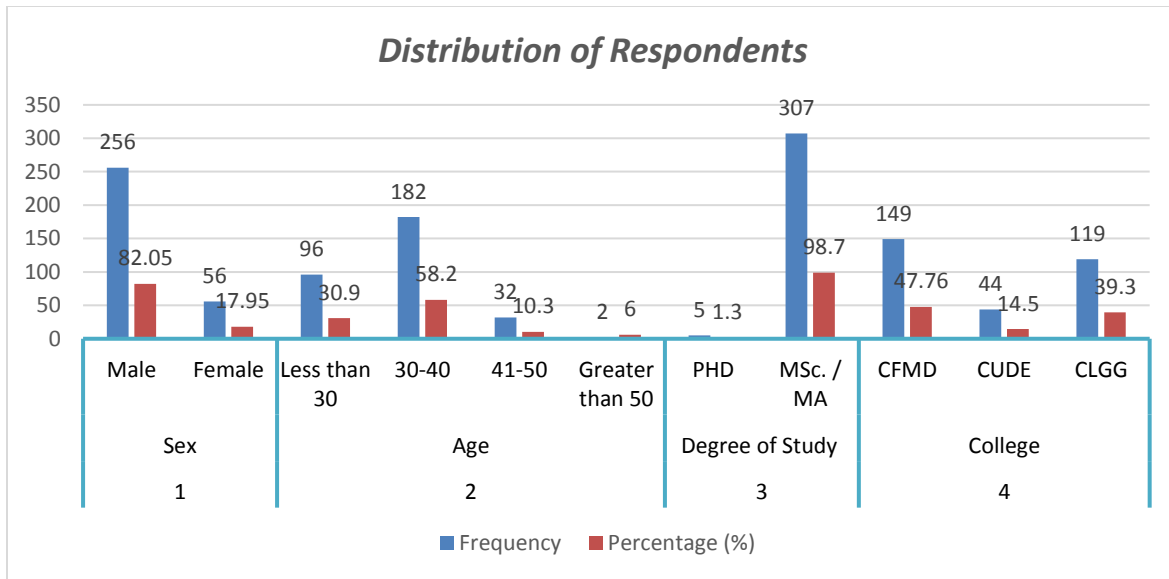
Table 1 below shows the distribution of respondents according to their Sex, Age, Degree of Study and Sampled Colleges. The majority of the respondents were male constituting (82.05%) while the remaining (17.95%) of the respondents were female.

From the age range of respondents, the majority of them (58.2%) were within the age range of 30-40 years. The second majority was the age range of less than 30 years, followed by the age range of 41-50 years. The least were respondents that were greater than 50 years of age constituting (6%).

Distribution of respondents according to their degree of the study showed that the majority of them (98.7%) were MA students, followed by PhD students which constitute (1.3%).

Out of three colleges of the University, the College of Finance Management and Development (CFMD) had the majority of respondents (47.76%) while College of Leadership and Good Governance (CLGG) and College of Urban Development and Engineering (CUDE) had (39.5%) and (14.5%) respondents respectively.

Figure 1: Distribution of Respondents



Research Question 1: To what extent E-Resources are accessible by students at the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library?

Table 1: Accessibility

S.No.	Item Statement	Very Great Extent		Great Extent		Low Extent		Very Low Extent		I Do not Know		Remark
		Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	
1.	E-Journals	53	27	12	6.2	87	44.6	26	13.3	17	8.7	Low Extent
2.	E-Books	38	13.1	110	37.9	74	25.5	52	17.9	16	5.5	Great Extent
3.	E-Thesis and Dissertation	38	13.3	87	30.4	87	30.4	47	16.4	27	9.4	Low Extent
4.	Online Databases	46	15.7	86	29.4	81	27.6	46	15.7	34	11.6	Great Extent

Source: Field Survey, 2020

From the table above, items E-Books and Online Databases are accessible by students at a great extent while, item E-Thesis and Dissertation and E-Journals were accessible in a low extent. In relation to accessibility, students were asked from which location they accessed the University Library information resources. Accordingly, the majority of respondents (56%) indicated that they accessed the resources from University Library, followed by (30%) respondents who access the library information from their dormitory, (10%) of respondents replied that they access the resources from University computer laboratories outside the library, while (4%) of respondents replied from other location.

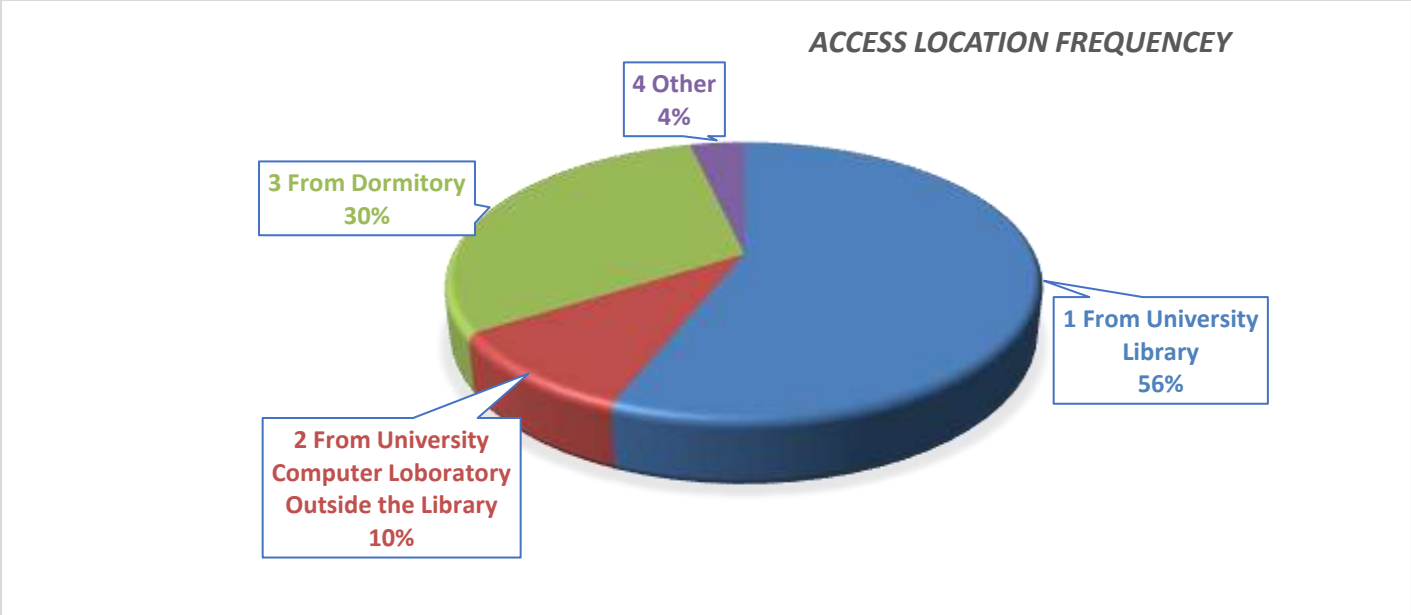


Figure 2: Accessibility Location

The researcher conducted Focused Group Discussion (FGD) with Library participants. In relation to accessibility, the following points were raised and responded. In order to make the E-Resources accessible, there should be collection development rules and regulation that should be applied in the library collection development process. In this regard the participants replied that the library does not have collection development rules and regulation, which may create hindrance to make resources properly accessible to actual users. On the other hand, infrastructure availability is the major means to make E-Resources accessible. In relation to this fact FGD participants were asked what type of infrastructure available at ECSU Library. They replied; computer laboratories, wired and wireless Internet services, Local Area Network, and Online Access Catalog were mentioned as the library infrastructure.

This finding agrees with the report of (Quadri, Adetimirin and Idowu, 2014) who revealed that electronic information resources, such as e-journals and e-books were accessible by students in academic libraries to a great extent. This also collaborate with Ibrahim (2006) who revealed that, electronic information resources are highly accessible by students with the highest frequency in the two MTN Universities. On the other hand, this research finding revealed that the majority of respondents frequently use electronic resources, which is similar to (Egberongbe, 2011) and (Sharm, 2009), who indicated that respondents usually access electronic resources.

Research Question 2.1: To what extent is digital resources are Utilized at the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library?

The study on the usage of electronic resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library by postgraduate students revealed that the majority of the respondents (9325%) were aware of the existence of electronic resources in Ethiopian Civil Service University Library, and made use of

them while the remaining (6.75%) did not make use of the electronic resources. On the frequency of use of electronic resources, the majority of the respondents (48.8%) indicated that they often made use of electronic resources, followed by (28.2%) of respondents who very often made use of electronic resources. The remaining (13.7%) and (8.9%) of respondents indicated that they are not very often used and rarely used electronic information resources respectively. The findings showed that the postgraduate students frequently used electronic resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library.

Responding to the purpose for using electronic information resource in Ethiopian Civil Service University Library, the result revealed that the majority of the respondents (63.3%) indicated that, they made use of e-resources for reviewing various literature, followed by 47.9% of the respondents who made use of them for getting general information, 31.8% of respondents use them for getting the answer for specific questions, while 27.7% of respondents made use of them for exams preparation.

The findings of this research question revealed that the majority of respondents were aware of the availability of different types of information resources in the library. This finding is consistent with (Okiki, 2012) who conclude that the majority of students are aware of the electronic resources available in their library. However, this result contradicts with the findings of (Togia and Tsigilis, 2009), who conclude that most students were not aware of certain electronic resources in Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. They indicated that 43.4% of the respondents were not aware of ERIC, the largest digital source of literature in education. Again, this finding does not agree with the work done by Bayugo and Agbeko (2007). They conclude that majority of students in University of Ghana were unaware of the two full-text electronic resource databases (HINARI).

Table 2: Utilization of E-Resources (Purpose, Frequency, Priority)

S. No	Items	Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
1.	Usage of E-Resources	Yes, I use E-Resources	291	93.25
		No, I don't use E-Resources	21	6.75
2.	Purpose of Using E-Resources	Research Work	177	56.9
		Exam	86	27.7
		For Reviewing Literature	197	63.3
		General Information	149	47.9
		Obtaining Answer for Specific Questions	98	31.5
3	Frequency of Using E-Resources	Very Often	82	28.2
		Often	142	48.8
		Not Very Often	40	13.7
		Rarely	26	8.9
4	E-Resources Often Used	E-Books	96	30.9
		E-Journals	133	42.8
		E-Thesis and Dissertation	92	29.6

		Online Databases	36	11.6
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Source: Field Survey, 2020

Research Question 2.2: To what extent Students Utilized digital information resources at Ethiopian Civil Service University Library? **Table 3:** Utilization of E-Resources

S.No	Item Statement	Very Great		Great Extent		Low Extent		Very Low		I Do Not		Remark
		Extent		Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Extent	Know	
1.	E-Journals	70	33.3	12	5.7	83	39.5	26	12.4	19	9	Low Extent
2.	E-Books	42	14.9	93	33.1	92	32.7	37	13.2	17	6	Great Extent
3.	E-Thesis and Dissertation	34	11.3	95	31.7	105	35	35	11.7	31	10	Low Extent
4.	Online Databases	40	14.2	66	23.5	81	28.8	50	17.8	44	15.7	Low Extent

Source: Field Survey, 2020

Results from table 3 above showed the extent of utilization of electronic information resources by postgraduate students in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. E-Journals, E-Thesis and Dissertation and Online Databases are utilized in a low extent by students while item 2 (E-Books) is utilized in a great extent.

This finding disagrees with that of (Akpojotor, 2016) who investigated the awareness and usage of electronic information resources among postgraduate students and reported that postgraduate students highly used electronic information resources. Similarly, the finding disagrees with that of (Quadri, Adetimirin and Idowu, 2014) whose study on availability and utilization of library electronic resources by undergraduate students reported that there was high level of utilization of e-journals and internet.

This finding agrees with that of Urhiewhu (2014) who study on availability and use of digital information resources (DIRs), by undergraduates' students, and reported that students make use of DIRs to a low extent. The finding also agrees with that of (Adeleke and Nwalo, 2017), whose study on availability, use and constraints to use of electronic information resources by postgraduate, and reported low level of usage of electronic resources. This research finding is also collaborated with different other researches. The study of Heterick (2002) reported high utilization of e-books because most library users relied on them for information to do assignments, write up term papers and dissertations.

Research Question 3: What are the problems encountered by students while accessing and utilizing the electronic information resources in Ethiopian Civil Service University? **Table 4:** Problems Encountered.

S.No	Item Statement	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		I Do Not Know		Remark
		Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	
1.	Utilization of E-Resources are time consuming	45	15.7	69	24.1	102	35.7	52	18.2	18	6.3	Disagree
2.	Lack of IT (Computer) knowledge to effectively use the services	34	12.1	97	34.5	75	26.7	52	18.5	23	8.2	Agree
3.	Uncooperative Staff to facilitate easy access	30	10.5	76	26.5	88	30.7	51	17.8	42	14.6	Disagree
4.	Inadequate computer in the library	82	28.6	76	26.5	64	22.3	37	12.9	28	9.8	Strongly Agree
5.	Poor Internet Connection	80	27.2	71	24.1	97	32.9	31	10.5	15	5.1	Disagree
6.	Limited subscribed titles	51	18.1	78	27.7	89	31.6	28	9.9	36	12.8	Disagree
7.	Power Outage	28	10.1	78	28.1	86	30.9	53	19.1	33	11.9	Disagree
8.	Lack of relevant E-Resources in various disciplines	56	24.8	32	14.2	68	30.1	40	17.7	30	13.3	Disagree

Source: Filed Survey, 2020

Results from table 4 above showed responses to problems encountered by students while accessing and utilizing the electronic information resources in the Ethiopian Civil Service University Library. From the above table, Lack of IT (Computer) knowledge and inadequate computers in the library are the problems encountered by students. While Utilizing E-Resources are time consuming, uncooperative staff, limited subscribed titles, lack of relevant E-Resources in various disciplines, poor Internet connection and power outage are not problems encountered by the students.

The researcher asked FGD participants to mention additional issues which might be considered as problems for students while they are accessing and using E-Resources. Accordingly, they mentioned the following issues; their annual budget was not sufficient to subscribe E-Resources, especially E-Books; on the other hand, while other E-Resources are subscribed students were not part of the decision-making process, even the faculties also were not active actors of the decision-making process. Besides, shortage of computer laboratories, shortage of professional skilled manpower, lack of awareness of e-resources availability among University community were

mentioned by FGD participants as problems that hindered users from access to and use of E-Resources.

As it is displayed on table 5 above, respondents showed that they encountered various challenges when accessing and using E-Resources at ECSU Library. The result of this study concurs with the work of (Gakibayo et al., 2013) who found that some students were not effectively Utilized E-Resources because they lacked computer skills.

Chimah and Nwokocha (2013), who study on motivation, challenges and strategies in the use of electronic information resources by postgraduate library user reported different challenges which include insufficient computer, slow internet connectivity and lack of ICT skills. This finding collaborates with the findings of this research. The finding disagreed with the report of (Ankrah and Atuase ,2018) that, poor internet connection, insufficient skills, as well as inadequate computers are hindrance to effective access and use of electronic resources in academic libraries. This also collaborates with (Eden and Egbe, 2016) who also reported that, lack of computer skills was the problem students encountered while accessing and using electronic resources in University of Calabar Library.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

Based on the results of the findings, it was concluded that, some item electronic resources are to a great extent accessible, while some others are not accessible. And majority of electronic resources types were utilized at low extent, while some are utilized at a great extent. Students have encountered problems while accessing and using the available electronic information resources. University researchers didn't upload their research work and past exam paper to be available for students to access and use online. The library didn't have an E-Resource collection development rules and regulations. Besides, students were not part of decision-making process while E-Resources were procured by the library.

The following points are major findings from this research: There was evidence from the research that the majority of the students were accessing digital information resources being in the library compound; The majority of respondents indicated that, e-books and online databases were all accessible by students. However, e-journals and e-thesis and dissertation are accessible at a low extent; The majority of the respondents agreed that, they are aware of the existence of E-Resources; The majority of them used the e-resources for research work. Electronic journals were the most often used electronic resources by postgraduate students.

Findings from the study revealed that, lack of IT (computer) knowledge to effectively use the services and inadequate computers in the library were the problems encountered by students while accessing and using electronic information resources. In addition, the study further revealed that major challenges in the library were inadequate budget and lack of skilled technical staff. A large

number of extension and weekend students were unaware of the existence of e-resources in the library; Students were not part of the decision-making process while E-Resources are procured by the library.

5.2 Recommendations

The recommendations presented were based on the findings of each of the research questions.

- User education (appropriate regular training and orientation) should be organized for students for better use of electronic information resources in the library. The current awareness campaign is a must for every academic library;
- Information literacy course/training should be included in the university curriculum or training program so as to regularly and continuously teach users how to know, locate, access, evaluate, use and communicate information;
- During orientation and information literacy training programs, the university and library should give due attention to weekend and extension students. Because, the research revealed that quite a number of extension and weekend students were unaware of even the existence of E-Resources in the library.
- Sufficient computer facility should be available in the library to give better chance for library users.
- The University Management should provide adequate funds for the subscription of relevant e-resources;
- Selection decisions for e-resources, especially for e-journals should be made with great care, taking into account the information needs of the academic community and collection relevancy, accessibility, usage, availability of full-text databases and the overall cost of e-journals;
- The University library must continuously review e-resources in light of the current interest of users, by conducting a need assessment about access to and use of e-resources;
- Efforts should be made by the University Administrator and Library Management to improve and enhance internet connectivity problems to enable the students to have easy access to online e-resources; especially, in the dormitory;
- Library technical staff should be informed and trained so as to actively help students in accessing and using electronic information resources;
- In order for ECSUL to be effective in influencing access to and use of e-resources, it is recommended that electronic collection development rules and regulation, guidelines and procedures for budget allocation, needs assessment, selection, collection maintenance, evaluation and resource sharing be formulated and be implemented to enhance the efficient management of e-resource collection in the library;
- The ECSUL is recommended to engage in professional development activities in a variety of formats including workshops, discussion groups and educational tours and trips in academic libraries;

- There should be some kind of mechanism for students to be part of the decision-making process in the procurement of e-resources.

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Factors Perpetuating Outbound Migration in Angacha Wereda of Kembata Tembaro Zone, SNNPR, Ethiopia

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Abstract

Nowadays migration is a global phenomenon as interconnectedness among nation is increasing especially among people of developing countries. As a result migrants are more connected to their origin than before. This opens a way for additional migration. Accordingly, this study has an objective of identifying the causes of migration by order of migration and understand how does migration affects the conditions of sending community in migration decision making taking the case of Angacha Woreda of Kembata Zone. To realize these objectives data from migrants' household was collected using questionnaire and key informant interview. The result revealed that causes of migration depend on order of migrants. The result from the analysis showed that for the first migrants the push factors like poverty, shortage of land, and unemployment were the main causes of migration while pull factors like expectation of better life in the destination were the main causes as the order of migrants in the household increases. The result further showed migration through remittance has resulted in perpetuation of migration as it resulted in inequality in income, housing, education and an increase in land price. The result suggests interventions that are used to reduce migration particularly irregular migration need to take into account factors that perpetuate migration. Also the result further suggests the need for developing strategies that may use the remittance obtained into productive activities that can enhance employment opportunities in the migrant sending community rather than perpetuating migration.

Key words: *Causes of migration; order of migrants; perpetuation of migration*

1. Introduction

Migration is as old as humanity (Hagen-Zanker, 2010). However, in recent years it has become an agenda at both local and international level. Migration has a wide range of effects on economic, social, and political life of both migrant sending and migrant receiving communities. Individuals may leave their origin temporarily or permanently seeking opportunities. These opportunities can be economic, social, political, and environmental or often are called push and pull factors of migration. Among the factors wage gaps between the developed and developing countries, conflict, poverty, environmental degradation, and lack of democracy and good governance are the most important ones (Portes, 1996). Africa particularly sub-Saharan Africa is the diverse source of migration because of a number of reasons (Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009). In Africa migration arises from a mix of income inequality, conflicts, poverty, and environmental factors such as droughts (IOM, 2010). Because of its dynamic nature the question what are the factors that facilitate migration will continue to be an interesting area in the coming years.

Migration has an impact on both sending and hosting countries. A possible benefit of migration for the sending countries may include easing unemployment pressures, bringing financial benefits to the sending communities in the form of remittances and providing much-needed foreign exchange. It may have also its own downside as it is socially disruptive and costs poor countries some of their most valuable people through brain drain (Meskerem, 2011). Therefore, migration has positive and negative impacts on the migrants, the family left behind, and the country in general.

Most migration studies in Ethiopia are concerned about internal migration and not much is done on international migration. International migration in Ethiopia is relatively a recent phenomenon that largely began in the 1970s with the Ethiopian Revolution. However, a few had been migrated during the Imperial period (Bariagaber, 1997). During the Imperial period, who did migrate were primarily elites who went abroad for professional purposes to learn. Those who had migrated were sponsored by the government hoping to return to the home country and contribute for the modernization of the administration system of the country. Significant migration from Ethiopia to countries beyond the Horn of Africa (HOA) began after the 1974 Revolution (Getachew & Maigenet, 1991). Most of the migrants were irregular migrants who were asylum seekers and

refugees to escape from political instability, famine and persecution (Bariagaber, 1997). International migration legally was restricted during the military government of Ethiopia. However, this was changed when the FDRE government came to power since 1991. In addition, the FDRE constitution has allowed to the free movement of people. The FDRE (1995) constitution in its Article 32(1) has stated “any Ethiopian or foreign national lawfully in Ethiopia has the right to liberty of movement and his residence, as well as the freedom to leave the country at any time he/she wishes to”. As a result the post-1991 period witnessed the booming of international migration from Ethiopia, particularly to the Middle East and Republic of South Africa (RSA) (Emebet, 2002). The post-1991 period observed the beginning of Ethiopian migration to the RSA, which was liberated apartheid yoke at the beginning of the 1990s, in search for greater economic opportunity (Candido, Mekonen, & Asfaw, 2016). Though the magnitude of Ethiopian migration to the RSA is lesser than to the Middle East, RSA has emerged as an important destination of Ethiopian migrants. Recently, there has been enormous amount of migrants from *Hadiya* and *Kembata–Tembaro* zones to the RSA (Abinet, 2011; Kanko, Bailey, & Teller, 2013). The vast majority of the migrants are young and economically active. Since the start of migration the number of migrants is rising even if there is no official record as most of the migrants use illegal routes.

There are different factors that cause the migration. Among these, poverty, unemployment, shortage of land are the most commonly cited ones. These factors are commonly believed to be the initial causes of migration. However, over the course of time the causes may change and become different. Migration has effect on migrant sending communities through remittance. Understanding its effect on migrant sending community is critical but it is less understood among the scholars in influencing migration decision. Accordingly, this study provides evidence on the dynamic causes of migration by order of migrants and understand the perpetuation of migration in the migrant sending community. Specifically, the research tries to identify the causes expanding migration using both traditional causes and perpetuation theory of migration among the rural households.

2. Methodology

2.1 Introduction

To realize the objective of the research descriptive research design was used. The study entirely used cross-sectional data. The study used mixed method research approach. It used both qualitative and quantitative data. The quantitative data was collected from households that have migrants. The qualitative data was collected using key informant interview from people that have better information on the dynamics of migration in the study area.

2.2 Sampling Method

The data was collected from one of the zones of Southern Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples' Region (SNNPR), namely Kembata Zone, where there is high migration to South Africa. From the zone again Angacha *woreda* was taken as there is high migration to South Africa and Arab countries. From Angacha *woreda* three Kebeles (lowest administrative level) were selected randomly. The sampling strategy was based on a two-stage approach. First a listing was made at each kebele to identify migrant-households that have at least one family member living in South Africa, Arab countries, Europe, and America as migrant. Once the list of migrant-households was obtained from the corresponding Kebeles, households were randomly selected from the list. A migrant in this study is defined as any member of the household who has been living in another country for a minimum of one year.

2.3 Tools of Data Collection

In collecting the data required to achieve the objective of the study both quantitative and qualitative data were collected concurrently. Accordingly, both questionnaire and key informant interview (KII) were used. The questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data from the sampled households. Data on migrants and household characteristics were collected. This may include demographic and socio-economic background information such as age, sex, religion, educational status, place of residence, and marital status of both the households and the migrants. As well data on migration were also collected. The questionnaire contained both close-ended and open-ended questions. The data was collected from 212 migrant-households. In addition to the questionnaire, qualitative data was collected using key informant interview from 8 key informants. The interview was conducted with individuals that have more information in the study area. The informants were

from Woreda administrative (3), Kebele administrative (3), and returnees (2). This was used to comprehend information that cannot be handled using questionnaire.

2.4 Method of Analysis

The objective of the study is to identify the causes expanding migration by order of migrants in the households and understand the causes of migration using perpetuate theory of migration among the rural households. To achieve this objective descriptive analysis was used.

3. Review of Related Literature

3.1 Theories of migration

Different scholars have defined migration in different ways although there are some common elements in their definitions. According to (Lee, 1966), migration is “a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence.” For (Hagen-Zanker, 2008), migration is permanent or temporary move of individuals or groups of people from one geographic location to another for various reasons ranging from better employment possibilities to persecution.

There are macro and micro level theories of migration. Among the macro level theories the neoclassical theory is the most known. This theory argues that migration arises because of differences in economic development. The Lewis dual economy model is the most known among the neoclassical theories of migration. The labor surplus in agricultural sector is absorbed by the modern sector (Lewis, 1954). Through accumulation of capital the modern sector grows higher than the traditional one. This ultimately leads to wage differential which leads to pulling of labor to the modern sector through migration. The other is the dual labor market theory (Piore, 1979) which argues that migration arises because of pull factors in advanced countries. There is economic dualism in advanced economy (primary sector (high-status jobs) Vs secondary sector (low-status jobs). Wage is high in the primary sector while it is low in the secondary sector. As a result the secondary sector may not be attractive for natives. Consequently the secondary sector acts as pull factor for migrants. This theory explains some of the current situation in western countries and Arab nations particularly to the Middle East. The other is the world system theory (Wallerstein, 1974) which argues that expansion of colonialism and capitalism have profound effect on migration. Expansion of capitalism enhanced communication and transportation so that migration. Globalization is a typical example of this theory. Politics can also affect migration. Laws of a nation in relation to migration has strong effect on migration. Countries that give due emphasis for

national identity and national security restrict migration. Also in countries where the political situation is repressive migration tends to be high.

The micro-approach to migration argues migration is the result of individuals' decision making. Migration is the result of pull and push factors that are at the demand and supply side of migration (Lee, 1966). The human capital theory of migration argues migration results from individual investment decision to increase productivity of human capital (Sjaastad, 1962). Migration is the result of cost benefit analysis on the return of migration. Individuals migrate if the expected returns are positive. The other is value expectancy model (Crawford, 1973). This is a behavioral model which argues that migrants make a conscious decision based on more than economic considerations (Hagen-Zanker, 2010). This model argues non-economic factors such as security and societal influence are important factors behind migration decision. There are a number of factors behind migration. For example, Sandell (1977) and Mincer (1978) viewed migration as a family decision. The new economics of labor migration argues that decision on migration is made by household members together and for the well-being of the family as a whole (O. Stark & Bloom, 1985). Based on the theory of new economics of labor migration a household maximizes joint income, status, and minimizes risk through migration. If a family expects higher income in addition to relative income migration is more likely. Relative income can be taken as a social status in the village or a town. This may have intrinsic value for the household. Thus households that are at the lowest end of both income levels are more likely to send migrants (Hagen-Zanker, 2010). However, Stark (O Stark, 1995) suggested this prediction may not hold for poor households as they struggle to fulfill the bare minimum for survival. They cannot afford migration. Absolute and relative income move in the same direction. So it is difficult to disentangle them. There are also difference in migration distribution depending on how income is distributed in the community. In a community where income inequality is high migration tends to be high especially among low income groups (Hagen-Zanker, 2010). The new economics for labor migration also observed that migration as a means of overcoming market failure. Where there is no social protection households are affected by risks. To reduce such risks households may be forced to make decision migration. So migration is one of the strategies of the poor in an area where there is high risk (Hagen-Zanker, 2010). Often migration costs are shared among household members. It is a cooperative game among household members. As a result the migrant is expected to send remittance to home to the family members.

Factors that make migration to start are different from factors that make migration perpetuate (Massey, 1990). Migration perpetuates through social capital and social networks (Hagen-Zanker, 2010). Social relationships and social capital in households, neighbors, and communities help in migration decision and adaptation process. They act as both a resource and an integrating device. Social capital is a resource acquired through relationships (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992) and can be converted into other types of capital (eg. Borrowing money for migration from neighbor). The pioneer provide new migrants to access the destination country is easily (Hagen-Zanker, 2010). New migrants receive help from pioneer migrants from arranging the trip to finding a job and make migration a cost and risk free. Through social networks migration becomes accessible to all levels of population. Migration results in income inequality this ultimately makes more migration to address income inequality (Hagen-Zanker, 2010).

To explain perpetuated migration, social network theories are the most known and frequently used theory. According to this theory as migratory flows are established, migrants and other actors develop networks and institutions to promote additional migration (Garni, 2010). The theory argues that the primary causes of migration that are rooted in both sending and receiving contexts are less important in explaining migration after some times. However, this theory does not takes into account the change in local conditions arised because migration in the sending community. Migration scholars are missing an important part of the story why many are continuing migrating leaving the community of origin. Understanding the local condition of migrant sending community is important why migration continue and how migration and development are continuing in the area.

4. Results and Discussions

4.1 Characteristics of the respondents' households and migrants

To realize this objective of the research data was collected from 212 households. Together data using key informant interview was collected and used. Accordingly, hereunder the characteristics of the migrant households head and the characteristics of the migrants are discussed.

Table 4.1: Demographic characteristics of the migrant household head.

Characteristics	Number	Frequency
Sex of the head	Male	142
	Female	70
Education of the head	Illiterate	102
	Primary	57
	Secondary	24
	Above secondary	19
Religion of the head	Orthodox Christian	32
	Protestant Christian	158
	Catholic	21
	Muslim	1
Livelihood of the household	Farming	162
	Trade	26
	Government work	15
	Private employee	5
	Others (like construction)	4

As can be seen in Table 4.1 there are significant number of households (33%) headed by women. This is higher than what is usually presumed. This high number of female headed households may arise partly because of migration of high number of married males to South Africa. The result also shows households were headed by individuals with various education levels. As the level of education increases the proportion of households head under each category declines. Significant number of households were headed (50.5%) by illiterate individuals. Also the table shows majority of the households head are followers of protestant Christians (74.5%). The majority (76.4%) of the households' livelihood depends on agriculture followed by trade (12.26%) and government work (7%). The average age of the household head was 51 years. The data also shows the average family size of the households was 6.34. All the above results showed data was collected from households of various characteristics.

Since recently migration is becoming a global phenomenon particularly in developing countries. These migrants have their own characteristics. From the total households, about 72% of the households had at least one international migrants while the rest (28%) had at least one domestic and one international migrants. About 57% of the households had one international migrant, 34 % had two international migrants, and 8.5% had more than two international migrants.

The average age of the migrants was 26.5 years. This implies most of the migrants are young. As Table 4.2 shows more than two third (66.67%) of the migrants are males. Most of the migrants to

the RSA are males while most of the migrants to the Middle East are females. As well most of the migrants were single (77.38%). The result obtained from key informant interview reflected that young and single have more intention to migrate to other countries particularly to RSA and to the Middle East. The data also showed that all the migrants have primary and above level of education. The data further showed the vast majority of the migrants (62.46%) had secondary level of education. About 7.16% of the migrants had above secondary level of education. When we see the destination countries of the migrants the data shows more than half (65.6%) of the migrants migrated to the Republic of South Africa. Still a significant proportion of the migrants migrated to the Middle East (29.7%). About 33.43%, 38.95%, and 27.61% of the migrants had a duration of 1-3 years, 4-6 years, and above 6 years since migrated. This implies migration is expanding in the Woreda in recent years.

Furthermore, the data showed more than 73.24% of the migrants migrated irregularly. The result from the key informant interview also showed that most of the migrants migrate irregularly. Individuals are migrating out despite a number of challenges they are facing even up to death. Also more than half (52.95%) of the migrants make a decision to migrate by themselves. Still a significant number of migrants migrate through family decision. This is especially common among the very young migrants. The data also showed more than three fourth (77.96%) of the migrants migrated to temporarily with the intention of return. As a result migrants tend to remit part of their income either to invest, save or consume.

Table 4.2 Characteristics of the migrants

Characteristic of the migrants		Number	Percentage
Sex	Male	244	66.67
	Female	122	33.33
Marital status	Single	284	77.38
	Married	83	22.62
Education levels	Primary	106	30.37
	Secondary	218	62.46
	Above secondary	25	7.16
Destination country	South Africa	210	65.6
	Middle east	95	29.7
	USA	15	4.7
Duration since migrated	1-3	115	33.43
	4-6	134	38.95
	7-9	63	18.31
	>=10	32	9.30
How moved out	Legally	91	26.76

	Irregular	249	73.24
Decision to move	One self	181	52.95
	Friends	42	12.28
	Family	114	33.33
	Other	5	1.46
Type of migration	Permanent	80	22.04
	Temporary	282	77.96

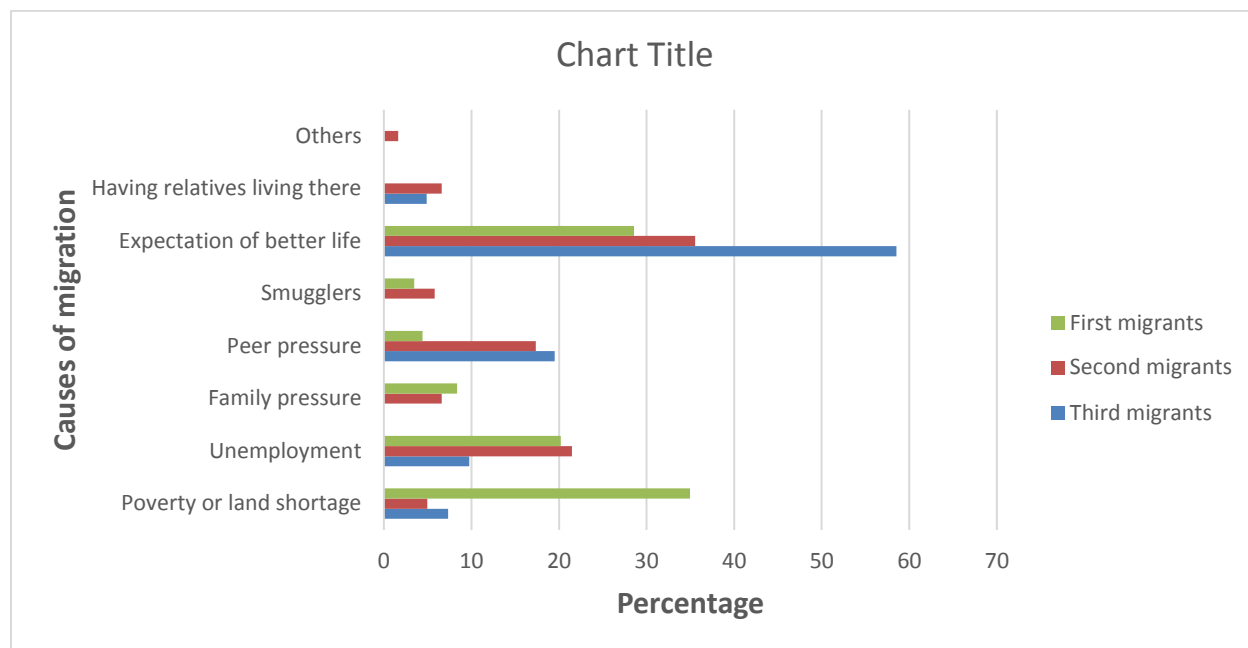
Currently large number of youths are not interested to go to school expecting migration either to the Middle East or to South Africa. Particularly it is common for the male youths to migrate to RSA while it is to the Middle East for young women. The result also showed more than two-third (68.29%) of the households have household members that have intention to migrate out abroad.

4.2 Reasons for Migration

There are wide range of reasons that derives individuals to migration. Broadly these reasons can be classified into push and pull factors. Accordingly, an effort has been made to identify the causes of migration. The results are displayed in Figure 4.1 below. As the result shows, expectation for a better life, poverty or shortage of land, and unemployment were suggested to be the most important factors behind migration. In addition to these family pressure and peer pressure were found to be important factors behind migration.

As the number of migrants from the households may be greater than one, the main reasons for migration for each of the migrants was asked. The results are displayed in Figure 4.1. Accordingly, for the first migrants the main factors identified are poverty or shortage of land (34.98%), expectation for a better life (28.57%), and unemployment (20.20%) while for the second migrants expectation of better life (35.54%), unemployment (21.49%), and peer pressure (17.36%) are the main causes. The data shows the majority of the third migrants migrated expecting a better life (58.54%). The result clearly shows the proportion of migrants migrate because of expecting a better life and peer pressure increases as the order migrants increases in the household increases.

Figure 4.1: Reasons for migration by order of migrants in the household



The theory of cumulative causation in migration is used to evaluate the qualitative data obtained from the Woreda using key informant interviews. The theory suggests the principal mechanisms to explain self-perpetuating migration (Garni, 2010). Migration may result in relative deprivation in the sending community thus it fuels further migration (De Haas, 2010; Garni, 2010; Massey, Goldring, & Durand, 1994). Nowadays emigrants have strong attachment to their origin. As a result they remit part of their income in their origin. This ultimately results in inequality in wellbeing between migrant and non-migrant households in the sending community. If means of improving for the livelihoods of non-migrant households is low, migration becomes a means to eliminate these inequalities. Thus non-migrant households will be forced to make migration decision (Massey et al., 1994).

As the result from above shows, historically the cause of migration in this particular area are lack of land or poverty, unemployment, and expectation of better life. These causes of migration are connected to poverty and unemployment which are the root causes of migration decision. These causes of migration over the course of time were replaced by social network theory. Often social network theory is used as a base for explanation of perpetuated migration. The social network theory argues migrants in developed world maintain ties with their origin. These ties may serve as social capital to those who want to migrate (Garni, 2010). However, studies so far done ignored

perpetuation theory which was developed based on cumulative causation theory. According to cumulative causation theory migration changes individual motivation and social structure opens a way for additional migration (Garni, 2010). Migration has cumulative causation through the expansion of networks, the distribution of income, and the distribution of land, and distribution of human capital.

Migration may have demonstration effect on non-migrant households. Remittance obtained may enable households to send their children to private school. As a result non-migrant households think if they had migrant household member they could have send their children too. *“I went to south Africa to obtain something for my family especially for my children”* (A key informant interview with returnee). Similarly one of the key informant interviewee from the Kebele administrator reflected his view on why he has migrated as follows:

“Often households that have migrant member send their children to urban area. Also most of the migrants are not that much educated. They want their children to be educated. Especially if they have very young children they prefer to send them to better schools in urban centers. Recognizing how much being immigrant is tough and risky for life often migrants want to invest much on education of their children or household member. Consequently non-migrant households will be motivated to send household member.”

Income send in the form of remittances is likely to widen income inequalities in migrant sending communities (Rybakovsky & Ryazantsev, 2005). Most informants reported repeatedly that households that have migrants are leading a better life in the community. Income inequality is increasing in their community. Remittances may enable migrant households to invest on businesses:

“Most businesses in the Woreda are established by migrants. For example, my two brothers migrated to South Africa. I opened this with the money they send to the family. Had they not been there life would have been difficult for us because the cost of living is rising. (Shop owner)”

Remittance is rising the cost of living. According to one of the key informant *“nowadays migration is becoming a common phenomenon in the Woreda. This is mainly because of the migration itself”*.

(Woreda education officer). Looking at what those educated and employed are getting many young children are not going to school or they lost the appetite to education. Looking at the style of wearing and shoeing of migrants households children may not be interested to go to school. As one of the Woreda education officer stated:

“The very effect of migration is its effect on education. Nowadays many children are not interested to go to school or they often miss classes because their intention is not to continue with education. They are spending school until they get a chance to migrate. Before students in this area were hardworking. But nowadays a lot are losing interest to education. For example, the number of students passing the national examination to join university is decreasing year after year”.

Remittances often spend on purchase of land in the sending community, this ultimately makes land price to be expensive. Thus ownership of land becomes unattainable for non-migrant member of the community (Garni, 2010). Consequently they will be forced to migrate to compete in land ownership. Thus changing conditions in the sending community are likely to induce further migration. In developing countries particularly in areas that are not the major cities land is the main area of investment. In the Woreda the flowing and growing of remittance could not stimulate investment in other areas than on land. It is resulting a rise of land price. According to one of the key informant interview from Kebele administrator:

“In this area agriculture is the only means of living. There is high demographic pressure with a growing labor force. The area is densely populated. There is no investment opportunity. Often families spend the money buying land. Land currently unattainable to the commons. The price of land is too much expensive compared to other areas of the country.”

The other factor in relation to demonstration effect of migration is housing. Often the money obtained through remittance is spend on house construction. Looking at the houses of their neighbor households may make migration decision. According to one of the key informant with the Kebele level administrator:

“The first thing that migrants do to their households is renewing or constructing new house to their families. In the community having a good house is considered

as prestigious. A household shows he has household member if it has a good house. The community appreciate this. This ultimately force non-migrant households to send their family member.”

Also households that have migrant member are able to feed their children better. Looking at this non-migrant households will be motivated to send their family member even up to leasing or selling their land. According to a returnee migrant:

“Before my children do not have milk. I went to South Africa five years before leasing my land. I send them some amount of money to buy milk-cow. Currently my children are getting milk. I could have not done this had I not gone to South Africa. There is nothing to look forward except to fulfill the basic things to my family. I took the risk of illegal migration to support my family”

All the above evidences shows migration is changing the local conditions of the migrant sending community. It is resulting a rise in land price, an increase in income inequality, a difference in education and housing which ultimately impacts non-migrant households to send their household member as migrant. These again are enhancing further migration in the Woreda.

5. Conclusion

Nowadays migration is a global phenomenon as interconnectedness among nation is increasing. Differently from earlier days currently the migrants are more connected to their origin than before. This is changing the social structure which opens a way for additional migration. Accordingly, this paper had an objective of identifying the causes of migration by order of migrants in the household and to understand factors that leads perpetuation of migration taking the case of Angacha Woreda of Southern, Nations, Nationalities and peoples’ region. The result showed first migrants are motivated more by push factors. As the order of migration in the household increases the effect of pull factors out weights push factors. Also, the result showed the current migration in the Woreda is resulting changes in economic and social conditions of the sending community. These changes may include the rise of land price, rise of income inequality, and expansion of social networks. The changing conditions are facilitating and encouraging perpetuation of migration. As a result, migration is perpetuating itself. The result suggests interventions that are used to reduce migration particularly irregular migration need to take into account factors that perpetuate migration. Also, the result further suggests the need for developing strategies that may use the remittance obtained into productive activities that can enhance employment opportunities in the migrant sending

community rather than perpetuating migration through increasing inequalities. This implies reducing migration without stabilizing the economy and understanding the cumulative causation of migration is impossible.

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Indigenous Knowledge vis-à-vis Development: The Role of Gadaa System in Leadership Development and Human Resource Management

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study was meant to explore the viable practices, principles and strategies of Gadaa system that helped in leadership development and human resource management in the society. The study was conducted using qualitative research method and exploratory research design. Relevant data of Gadaa system were gathered from key informants through focus group discussion and key informant interviews that were analyzed thematically. The study revealed that there were different practices, principles and strategies within the Gadaa system that helped the society to manage themselves and their resources properly, and develop their leaders perpetually. The study also revealed that the Gadaa system has got different leadership development techniques such as traditional education, training, experience sharing, observation, practicing and creating a sense of competition among individuals. On the top of that, there are different institutions such as Gadaa centers, parties, grades and structures of Gadaa system that enable the society in dealing with various challenges, ensuring good governance and enhancing efficiency in management. Moreover, the study also revealed that the Gadaa system has got checking and balancing system that undertaken in both the forward and backward directions. To this end, the researchers would like to suggest that some of the practices, principles, strategies and management skills in the Gadaa system could have a bearing on improvement of work environment in tandem with modern day techniques. Therefore, the government and concerned stakeholders should customize the

important practices, principles and strategies of Gadaa system with regard to leadership development and human resource management for ensuring good governance and shaping the behavior of workforce in carrying out their roles and responsibilities properly.

Key Words: *Indigenous knowledge, Gadaa system, Gadaa leadership, leadership development, good governance*

1. Introduction

A number of scholars have conducted studies on the Gadaa system of Oromo people. Among them, the prominent scholar is Asmerom Legese (1973) who described Gadaa as one of the most astonishing and informative breakthroughs in the evolution of mankind. In addition to his Harvard PhD dissertation, Asmarom Legesse (2006) has published a book positioning Gadaa as an African democracy that could inform constitutional thinkers. Similarly, Donald Levine (1974) has noted that Gadaa is "one of the most complex systems of social organization ever devised by the human imagination". Assafa Jalata (2012) has described that Gadaa represents "the totality of Oromo civilization". Marko Bassi (2005) also described Gadaa as the system of generational classes through which specific activities and social responsibilities are associated with each class.

Considering the symbolic significance of Gadaa for the Oromo as well as its structural innovations, researchers in law, indigenous studies and pan-Africanism have been exploring how the system could be utilized in the 21st century. For instance, a research by Zelalem Tesfaye (2012) entitled "Ethiopia: When the Gadaa Democracy Rules in a Federal State" explores how the system could be integrated with the contemporary federal structure of Ethiopia, serving as a governance mechanism for the Oromia Regional National State. Zelalem analysed that the techniques of Gadaa system whereby consensus is reached through dialogue is unique but firmly rooted in Western democratic norms, and thus well-suited to adoption within Ethiopia's federally structured democracy.

According to Dessu Dulla (2011), the Borana rely on water wells that are guided by an indigenous harvesting knowledge, management system, property rights arrangements and conflict resolution under the Gadaa institution for centuries. The appropriation of scarce natural resources, like water, requires robust management and conservation for present and future generations. In connection with this, Marko Bassi (2005), noted that the Borana refer to their own culture and norms as 'aadaa

Booranaa' (the culture of the Borana) that helps to manage and properly use natural resources (pasture, water etc.) through excavation of water wells. Furthermore, Efa Tadesse (2018) explored that Gadaa values and practices can have relevance in cultural development, social development, economic development and environmental protection and any other development of the society.

According to Dereje Hineu (2012), the Gadaa system provides a socio-political framework that institutionalizes the relationship between seniors and juniors among the members of the Gadaa grades so that the members can develop a consistent and stable sense of self and others. Additionally, Habtamu Disasa (2017) reiterated that leader and leadership development is a lifelong process wherein individuals are made to develop general gifts of leadership and learn knowledge, skills, and attitudes of leadership both individually and in groups before they assume power in the Gadaa system.

According to Solomon Emiru (2017), Gadaa system is a comprehensively guided, crafted and nurtured system of traditional administration under the superb wisdom of the ancient Oromo people. Gadaa system is extremely broad and comprises of all aspects of life like religion, politics, economy and culture of the Oromo people. As it reflects virtually every aspect of human experience, it is believed that there are many lessons to be learned if people strived to inculcate the principles of the Gadaa system in modern administration.

Moreover, Gadaa system nurtures every citizen with wisdom and skill to overcome any challenge and manage resources properly. It encourages people to be productive citizens thereby creating a system of competition among people. Accordingly, the essence of Gadaa practices seems to correspond with modern management techniques that have helped in leadership development and human resource management. Furthermore, several studies have affirmed Gadaa system as a form of indigenous knowledge possesses implications on several aspects of scientific knowledge. For example, in conflict resolution, youth empowerment, natural resources management and good governance, there are a number of empirical studies that have indicated that the system has a lot to offer in handling problems in the contemporary world.

However, the aspect of Gadaa system that has not attracted much attention appears to be its contribution to leadership development and human resource management in Ethiopia. Given its unique innovative structures, the Gadaa system has got institutional experiences pertaining to

practices, principles and strategies that could be worth analyzing in light of present-day leadership development and human resource management. It is often reported that although Ethiopia has got a lot of peculiar indigenous knowledge and skills, there is reluctance or even resistance to make use of these skills in tackling the challenges facing the country.

Additionally, a number of studies show that the motivation and commitment of workforce in their work place were very low in Ethiopia (Shimelis Legesse et al., 2018; Israel Bekele et al., 2017; Wolde Shiferaw et al., 2020; Tesfaye Teshome, 2018). To this end, revisiting the leadership development and human resource management system is compelling so as to seek ways of motivating the workforce. As a result, exploring indigenous knowledge of Gadaa system as a potential remedy seems to be a viable option. Thus, this study is meant to explore the potential practices, principles and strategies of Gadaa system that helped in enhancing leadership development and human resource management in modern industrial development.

2. Methodology

The study was conducted to investigate the role of Gadaa System with regard to leadership development and human resource management for ensuring good governance and thereby ensuring sustainable development. The study principally focused on qualitative research method and exploratory research design to find out the wisdom in the Gadaa system that helped the community to be more productive and profitable. Relevant data were gathered by using focus group discussion (FGD) and key informant (KI) interview from the informed practitioners of Gadaa system such as Gadaa leaders, Gadaa writers and senior elders who have got the wisdom of Gadaa system. The informants of the study were sampled by using snowball sampling technique. In addition, non-participant observation was used to collect relevant data of Gadaa system in dealing with leadership development and human resource management. The process of the study was such that firstly, the practitioners were informed about the intention and scope of the study whereby they agreed to comply with the researchers' demands. Afterwards, a common consent has been obtained authorizing the permission to go ahead. Thus, this study was basically focused on exploring the potential practices, principles and strategies of Gadaa system that are meant for enhancing leadership development and human resource management.

Finally, the collected data had been transcribed and compiled for analysis by using voice records and field notes. The organized data were thematically analyzed through maintaining the original

descriptions of the voice records and field notes. The overall data analysis and collation processes were iterative in that involved summarizing the data and interpreting their meaning in such a way that the results could be drawn.

3. Results and Discussion

This unit focuses on in-depth analysis of the potential practices, principles and strategies of Gadaa system in dealing with social organization, social development and leadership development in the society. In this study, narratives have been formed pertaining to how the conceptualizations and realizations of Gadaa system helped the community for enhancing leadership development and human resource management.

3.1 Potential Practices and Principles of Gadaa System

According to the informants, Gadaa system is a complex system that tantamount to the modern management system of the contemporary world. Moreover, the informants explained the main practices and principles of Gadaa system in the following ways.

- Gadaa system is a traditional and living system (*sirna jiraataa*) of Oromo people with the base of love, equality, freedom and democracy;
- Gadaa system incorporates all the political, economic, cultural, social and religious aspects of the Oromo people with a strong relationship between the creator (God), the nature and the society;
- Gadaa system is a system that helps to protect the cultural and moral values (*duudhaaalee*) of Oromo people and helps to transfer the values from generation to generation;
- Gadaa system involves everyone from the childhood (*Dabballee* grade) up to the elderly stage (*Jaarsa-Qululluu* grade) with different roles and responsibilities according to their grade;
- Gadaa system is a system of '*moggasaa*' (renaming as Oromo's clan) and '*guddifachaa*' (adoption as Oromo's son) with equal right and responsibility;
- Gadaa system is a system that incorporates different institutions such as *Siinqee* (women organization) and *Buusaa-Gonofaa* (institution of social support through contribution) that used for conflict resolution and supporting the needy individuals, respectively;

- Gadaa system is a system that holds moral values and thanksgivings (safeeffannaa and galateeffannaa) for the God and the nature;
- Gadaa system is a system that consists the values of respecting God and nature, father and mother, boy and girl, brother and sister, and younger and elder;
- Gadaa system is a system of norm (or supreme law) and law (heera and seera). The norms of Gadaa system can be respected by anyone forever without amendment. However, the laws of Gadaa system are dynamic as they can be revised and updated as required.
- Gadaa system is a system that has no drawback and that will not get older and expire since Gadaa system was above everyone in the truth, the son of God (waaqaa);
- Gadaa system is a system that consists of different values such as morality, ethics, and wisdom (safuu and safeeffannaa).
- Gadaa system is a system of reconciliation and compensation (araara and gumaa) among the society.
- Gadaa system is a system that consists of a structure of traditional management system of the Oromo people with predefined rules and regulations based upon the interest of the people.
- Gadaa system is a democratic system of true election with full support and no opposition (through common consensus).
- Gadaa system is a system of undertaking any decision with continuous discussion until everyone is convinced and agreed.

This shows that the Oromo have got different cultural and moral values that incorporate several practices and principles of Gadaa system in the society.

3.2 Strategies for Social Organization in the Gadaa System

According to the key informants, the Oromo were continuously organizing themselves from time immemorial up to the current time by using different practices and principles of Gadaa system. These practices and principles include the centers, parties, grades and structures of Gadaa system that are discussed as follows.

3.2.1 Centers of Gadaa System

As stated by the key informants, the Oromo organized themselves according to the centers (wiirtuulee) of Gadaa system at every corner of Oromia. The centers of Gadaa system have their own location (jiddugala) at every corner of Oromia. They are: Gumii Gaayyoo, Me'ee Bokkoo, Odaa Roobaa, Odaa Nabee, Odaa Bultum, Odaa Bisil, Odaa Bulluq, Odaa Dooggii and Odaa Hullee that were located at Borana, Guji, Bale, East Shoa, West Hararge, West Shoa, Horro Guduru Wollege, Ilu Abbaa Bor and Jimma, respectively. Moreover, the centers of Gadaa system were considered as holy places wherein the Oromo held Gadaa assembly (yaa'ii Gadaa) to amend and enforce new laws. The informants made it evident that the Oromo have further reorganized and added new centers at Karayu, Matakal and Wallo Oromo for the execution of Gadaa leadership and management. Moreover, the execution of Gadaa system (for instance Irreecha celebration) was expanding globally wherever the Oromo and the alliances exist. This shows that the Oromo usually organize themselves in a manageable manner based on their location in order to properly lead and manage the society.

3.2.2 Parties of Gadaa System

Furthermore, the Oromo organized themselves according to the five parties of Gadaa system that have different names among Borana, Macca-Tulama, Arsi, Hararge and Guji. Based upon the naming of Macca-Tulama, the parties were named as Birmaji, Horata, Michile, Dulo and Robale. According to the key informants, the Oromo should belong to one of the five parties of Gadaa system. The member of these parties should come to the power every eighth year in a rotational (or cyclic) manner. In connection with this, there were no competitions between the parties to assume power as the parties took power consecutively every eighth year. However, there is competition between the members of every party to take power based upon their experience and performance mainly at their Foollee, Kuusaa and Raabaa-Doorii grades. This implies the Gadaa system had enabled the Oromo to practice a multi-party system with the proper allocation of clear time for taking power and properly leading and managing the society.

3.2.3 Grades of Gadaa System

Moreover, the key informants added that the Oromo organized themselves according to the eleven grades of Gadaa system with their corresponding age ranges. They are Dabballee (D) (0 – 8), Gaammee-Xixiqqaa (GX) (8 – 16), Gaammee-Guguddaa (GG) (16 – 24), Kuusaa (K) (24 – 32), Rabaa-Doorii (RD) (32 – 40), Gadaa (G) (40 – 48), Yuuba 1ffaa (Y1) (48 – 56), Yuuba 2ffaa (Y2) (56 - 64), Yuuba 3ffaa (Y3) (64 – 72), Gadaamoojjii (GM) (72 – 80) and Jaarsa-Qululluu (JQ) (above 80). The members of every grade had gained particular social, economic and political privileges based on the eight-year increments of Gadaa system. The first five Gadaa grades (from Dabballee grade up to Raabaa-Doorii grade) were generally the periods of learning, training, development and military service in addition to shouldering some economic activities. The remaining five Gadaa grades (from Gadaa grade up to Gadaamoojjii grade) were the periods of educating, leading, advising, monitoring, and taking social, political and economic roles and responsibilities. The final grade, Jaarsa Qululluu was a stage that to be cared for in the cycle of Gadaa system as that of the childhood. As such, the Gadaa system instils the principles of leadership into the youth so that they can have a good mind set for properly executing respective duties and responsibilities at different points in their lifespan.

Additionally, the roles and responsibilities of every grade of Gadaa system would be represented in figure 1.

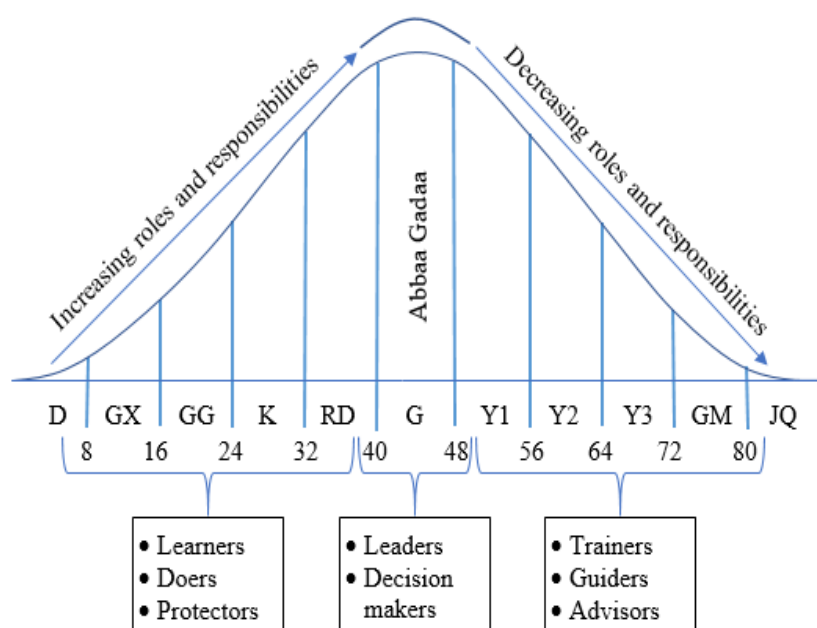


Fig. 2. The continual change of Gadaa grades with their roles and responsibilities

As it can be observed from figure 1, the role of a person increases along with increment of age until he completes the stage of Abbaa Gadaa. At the beginning, the new generations are expected to learn and protect the Gadaa system. As they reach the stage of Gadaa, they take over the decision making process and presiding over the issues of the society. However, after the execution of the stage of Gadaa, the roles and responsibilities decrease gradually. This system will help to delineate the roles that a person is supposed to execute. In other words, the older generation will gradually withdraw from decision making on the major events of the society and resort to giving advices and training the more energetic and powerful new generation.

3.2.4 Structures of Gadaa System

At the same time, the informants affirmed that the Oromo organized themselves according to the administrative structures of Gadaa system. These administrative structures consisted of the major nine Gadaa leaders (Abbootii Gadaa) of the Oromo people that came to the power every eighth year. These are Abbaa Gadaa – father of Gadaa, Abbaa Bokkuu – father of holy sceptre, Abbaa Muudaa – father of anointment, Abbaa Caffee – father of Gadaa assembly, Abbaa Alangaa – father of prosecution, Abbaa Seeraa – father of law, Abbaa Sa'aa – father of economy, Abbaa Duulaa – father of military and Abbaa Maatii – father of social affairs. These Gadaa leaders which had full responsibilities to govern the Oromo people politically, economically, socially, culturally and spiritually for eight years of their power time. Moreover, there are also supportive administrative structures of Gadaa system such as Abbaa Raagaa (father of forecast), Abbaa Dubbii (spokesperson), Abbaa Murtii (father of resolution), Abbaa Faajjii (father of Gadaa symbol/flag), Abbaa Malkaa (father of the riverbank), Abbaa Tulluu (father of mound), Abbaa Qaalluu (father of the hereditary spirit), and Abbaa Dhugaa (father of truth or God). As such, sound trust and credibility can be developed between the Gadaa leaders and the society based on the principles of Gadaa system and the belief that they had on Abbaa Dhugaa. This shows that there was a series of obedience to common values, norms and culture among Oromo under the Gadaa administration systems that enable them to have strong cohesion and oneness towards common agenda although they fan out across vast geographic territories.

According to the key informants, the Borana Oromo had additional structures that helped for the existence of the original Gadaa system and Gadaa assembly (yaa'ii Gadaa) at Gumii Gaayyoo. These structures were used for performing supportive activities that the main structures of Gadaa system (Gadaa leaders) could not manage to cover and execute. These structures consisted of: Adulaa – is the member of Kuusaa grade that is elected to serve as the member of Gadaa executive committee of the Borana. Garba – is an expert of goggeessa (hayyuu goggeessa) that is elected from different goggeessa (party) of the current Abbaa Gadaa. Meedhicha – is an expert of luba (hayyuu luba) that is elected from the same goggeessa of the current Abbaa Gadaa. Jaarsa – is a well-known father that can resolve conflicts (Araara Buusuu) of the society through discussion and agreement (jaarsummaa). Finally, Makkala – is a strong person that is elected to support the families of the experts (hayyoota) and Gadaa leaders (Abbootii Gadaa) for the next eight years.

Moreover, the key informants added that the Borana Oromo had additional administrative structures (sometimes known as clusters) that oversee the proper management of the society and their properties as well. These clusters helped the Borana to administer and manage the society and natural resources from family (warra) level that are led by Abbaa Warraa up to the entire Borana that is led by Abbaa Gadaa. These clusters included Warra (family), Shanacha (homestead), Ollaa (settlement), Reera (community), Dheeda (district), Gadaa (the entire Borana) and Dhugaa (truth) that are led by Abbaa Warraa (father of family), Abbaa Shanachaa (father of homestead), Abbaa Ollaa (father of settlement), Abbaa Reeraa (father of community), Abbaa Dheedaa (father of district), Abbaa Gadaa (father of Gadaa) and Abbaa Dhugaa (father of truth), respectively.

3.3 Strategies for Social Development in the Gadaa System

According to the key informants, the Oromo developed themselves based upon the hierarchical grades of Gadaa system. Every individual is nurtured and developed gradually through different educational techniques in the Gadaa system. The Oromo conducted these educational techniques phase by phase according to their importance and level of difficulty from the childhood (Dabballee) grade up to the administrative (Gadaa) grade of Gadaa system under the main supervision of Abbaa Maatii and Abbaa Gadaa. The techniques are:

- Traditional education (baruumsa aadaa): the elderly (from Gadaa grade up to Gadaamoojjii grade) usually offer traditional education through wit-improving activities such as riddles, songs, proverbs and folksongs among others used to enforce the right type of attitude;
- Training (leenjii): the elderly (from Gadaa grade up to Gadaamoojjii grade) usually offer training to the new generation on specific activities such as farming, ploughing, cattle farming, riding, storytelling, etc. The Gadaa leaders give anecdotes to help the youth get acquainted with the desired skill and attitude;
- Experience sharing and observation (muuxannoo): the youth (from Dabballee grade up to Raabaa-Doorii grade) given the opportunity to observe the manner in which the Gadaa leaders handle different situations be it in economic affair, social or environmental endeavours;
- Practicing (shaakalaa): what is so peculiar about the Gadaa System is that it does not just expose the youth (from Dabballee grade up to Raabaa-Doorii grade) to merely observe the skilled ones manoeuvring things but it also renders opportunities for the youth to practice and internalize the activities. As such mainly the Abbaa Maatii and Abbaa Gadaa coach the youth to make sure that the principles have been recited well; and
- Competition (dorgommii): competition and rewarding conducted for improving and assuring the performance of individuals based up on their stage from the childhood (Dabballee) grade up to the administrative (Gadaa) grade.

It can be seen from the above techniques that the Gadaa system enabled every individual to explore their potential and maximize their capacity through experiential learning. Moreover, the Oromo were capacitating themselves individually or in a team form so that the next leaders of the society could be selected based on the track record of their performances in every grade level before the Gadaa grade. This implies that the Oromo amass potential management skills and capacities through continuous learning and improvement.

3.4 Strategies for Social Administration in the Gadaa System

According to the informants, there are different practices and concepts of Gadaa administration of the Oromo. The informants noted that there are two types of leadership practices in the Gadaa system. These are:

1. Individual leadership (*geggeessummaa dhuunfaa*) at which an individual leads himself and his family by using the concept of Gadaa norms and laws. Additionally, the informants added that an individual with good experience and performance may also lead her/his surrounding society as well, and
2. Group leadership (*geggeessummaa waloo*) at which a group of persons known as Gadaa leaders (*Abbootii Gadaa*) collectively lead the society – the Oromo at large. The key informants also added that any problem encountered should be solved by using different mechanisms (such as *jaarsummaa*, *gumaa* and *araara*) with common consensus and full agreement in the Gadaa system.

This shows that the Oromo administer themselves through both individually brainstorming and holding continuous discussions within the group for a longer period of time so as to finally reach common consensus.

The informants also added that Gadaa leaders (*Abbootii Gadaa*) lead the society through power sharing (*aangoo walii qooduu*), and check and balance (*wal-too'achuu*). The hierarchy of the leadership varies from lower management level (*Abbaa Warraa*) that leads the family up to top management level (*Abbaa Gadaa*) that leads the Oromo at large. Moreover, a typical point the informants raised was that Gadaa system has got *safuu* – a principle of morality that people can abide by to live harmoniously. *Safuu* could serve as a code of conduct whereby anybody who violates the rules of Gadaa system will be alienated which will make the person devoid of any function from the society.

Additionally, the informants underscored that the Oromo live together with their cultures and values (*aadaa* and *duudhaa*). The Oromo believe that these cultures and values were given by God (*waaqaa*). The Oromo are administered and led by the Gadaa leaders (*Abbootii Gadaa*), more specifically by the Gadaa leader (*Abbaa Gadaa*) according to the norms and laws (*heera* and *seera*)

of Gadaa system. The norms and laws were generated (waraabbama) from the Oromo cultures and values with common consensus at Gadaa assembly (yaa'ii Gadaa). Thus, the administration and leadership (bulchiinsa and geggeessummaa) of the Oromo is a cyclic and sophisticated practice that was continuously updated based on the development (or level of consciousness) of the society.

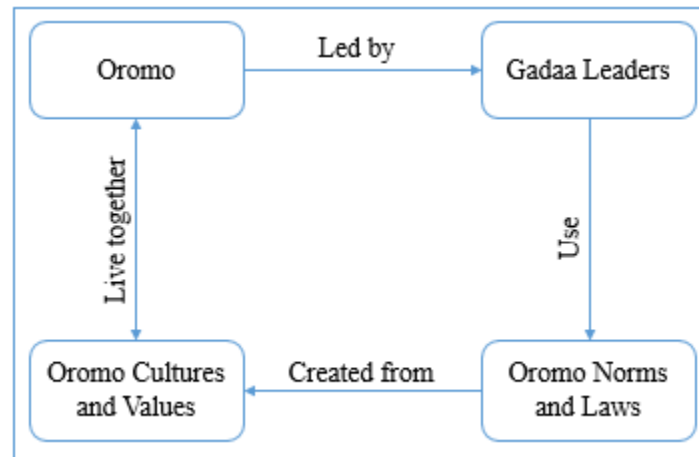


Fig. 3. The cyclic and sophisticated nature of Gadaa leadership

Figure 2 shows that the interconnections between the Oromo, Gadaa leaders, Oromo cultures and values, and Oromo norms and laws were very strong and tied so as to ensure the proper existence of every individual in the society in a holistic approach.

Moreover, performing forward and backward monitoring system was the key endeavours in the check and balance of Gadaa leadership. According to the informants, mainly the Foollee, Kuusaa and Raabaa-Doorii grades try to perpetuate and maintain Gadaa leaders by continuously voicing their disapproval and criticism in the form of songs. The Yuuba I, Yuuba II, Yuuba III and Gadaamoojjii grades also try to protect Gadaa leaders by guiding, advising, enforcing and even refusing to accept their decisions in the society.

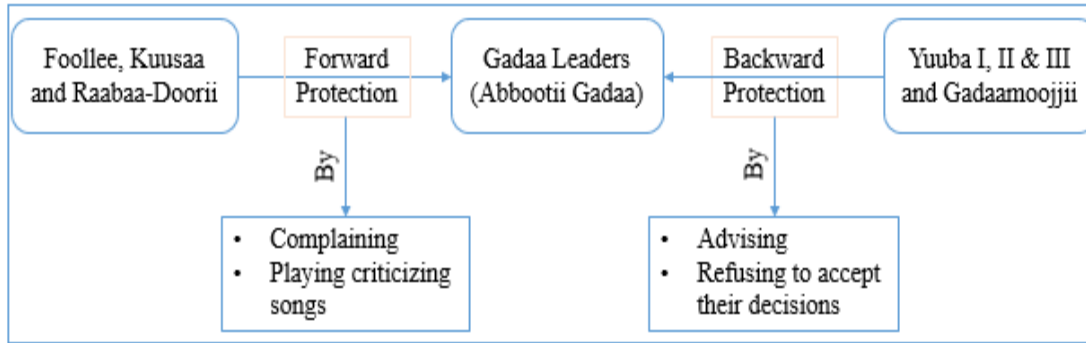


Fig. 4. Forward and backward monitoring system of Gadaa administration

As it can be observed from figure 3, Gadaa leaders are under a continuous supervision by both their juniors and seniors of Gadaa grades through check and balance. Moreover, figure 3 presents the iterative processes of evaluation that have helped the Gadaa system to remain intact through generations. The figure also shows that the dynamics of interaction between different Gadaa grades that have helped the Gadaa system to perpetuate by avoiding nepotism and biases. The interactions between the different actors are meant to inculcate the new generation with the right and desired type of skill and attitude at the different stages of Gadaa system. It also enables the youth to realize the code of conduct for dealing with different social events and circumstances that help them to become the next leader and/or manager of the society at their Gadaa grade. As such, the way the Oromo lead and manage themselves was of paramount significance in comparison to the modern leadership development and human resource management techniques.

4. Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to propound the potential practices, principles and strategies of Gadaa system in enhancing leadership development and human resource management in the society. The findings of this study made it evident that the Gadaa system is a superb administrative structure that can help to ensure good governance and leadership development with every aspect of human experience. Moreover, the potential practices and principles of Gadaa system can help to nurture the youth and every member of the society to become more creative and hardworking individuals. Additionally, different strategies of the Gadaa system are used so as to properly organize, develop and administer the Oromo people. What is more is that the Gadaa system has got practical experiences on human development techniques such as traditional education, training,

experience sharing, observation, practicing and creating a sense of competition among individuals. As such, it can be argued that the Gadaa system can contribute to leadership development and human resource management in Ethiopia in the contemporary time.

On the top of that, the Gadaa system has got institutions such as Gadaa centers, parties, grades and structures that enable the society in dealing with various challenges, ensuring good governance and enhancing efficiency in management. Moreover, leadership development and human resource management of Gadaa system can be performed in such a way that check and balance had be undertaken in both the forward and backward directions. Thus, based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that some of the potential practices, principles and strategies of Gadaa system can possibly be used as an alternative leadership development and human resource management technique in tandem with modern day techniques. Finally, the researchers would like to argue that as Gadaa system has been proven as a panacea to almost every aspect of life, the government and concerned stakeholders should customize the valuable practices, principles and strategies of Gadaa system. The researchers would also like to recommend that the development of structural framework of Gadaa system will be undertaken in the future in comparison with the modern leadership and management techniques.

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Opportunities Available and Challenges Faced by Students with Disabilities in Public Universities in Addis Ababa

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to assess the challenges faced and opportunities available for students with disabilities (SWDs) in public universities in Addis Ababa. To address the objectives of the study, mixed research design approach combining both quantitative and qualitative were used. The findings of this research showed that inaccessible physical infrastructures are the main challenge of visually and physically impaired student, although the magnitude varies from University to University. In addition, inability of disability affair offices to coordinate the overall support services (except AAU), unavailability of effective guidance and counseling service, lack of different entertainment means and different means of communication on academic/non-academic matters are identified as hindrances for their success. Further, difficulty of getting personal assistants is another critical challenge to SWDs. Pertaining to the attitudinal challenges, most administrative staff and students without disabilities have positive attitude towards SWDs while but most lecturers have negative attitude towards SWDs. The opportunities that SWDs have include having reasonable accommodation services in/around dormitory, library and cafeteria, getting recognition/award for best scorers, having training and induction programs (except KMU) and computer centers, and getting educational materials and supportive/assistive devices. But the available support services are inadequate to address their differential needs as per their disability type. The regression result confirms that accessibility of infrastructures, high school GPA, monthly

expenditure of students, occupation of parents, disability type and mother's education are significantly affecting the academic performance of students with disabilities.

Key words: *Students with disability, public universities, challenges, opportunities, support, Addis Ababa*

1. Introduction

It is clear that education is one of the fundamental human rights that uses as a springboard for socio-economic and political development for people around the globe. Therefore, the educational systems at all levels need to promote inclusion and provision of equity services for all students regardless of their backgrounds (Blessinger, Hoffman, & Makhanya, 2018).

Higher educational institutions around the world are places where students with different gender, racial, ethnic, (dis)ability and the like backgrounds are found. As the students' backgrounds are diverse, their needs and expectations from the system are also unlike. In order to accommodate the various interests of students with different experiences, many higher learning institutions are required to redesign/reshape their systems (Guri-Rosenblit, Sebkova & Teichler, 2007).

SWDs who have access to higher educations of Africa constituted less than 1 percent (Mutanga, 2017). The number of students with disability in Ethiopian higher education was 398 and 1,000 in 2010 and 2015, respectively (Wondwosen, 2018). These figures show as there is an increment on the participation of SWDs in higher education. Addis Ababa University's study (2014:2) has expressed it in quantitative terms "The number of students with disabilities enrolled in higher education of Ethiopia is increasing every year." However, different research findings have indicated, besides being a minority in terms of their participation in higher learning institutions elsewhere in the world including Ethiopia as compared to their non-disabled counterparts, SWDs are facing numerous challenges that hinder their academic success during their study (Wondwosen, 2018; Mutanga, 2017 & Kendall, 2016). The issues of students with disabilities (SWDs), most of the time, are not sufficiently addressed by the educational systems. Kochung (2011) has indicated in the study of the challenges that SWDs are facing at higher education with special experience of inaccessible physical environment, one fits for all curriculum and examination systems are some of the them. Morgado *et al* (2016) also has shared what Kochung (2011) has identified are the challenges and further added that negative attitudes towards students with disabilities by service

providers of university community especially by staff is one of their challenges. Kendall (2016) has also discussed as students without disabilities have also negative attitude for students with disabilities.

Different researches have conducted on the challenges of SWDs in higher education context of Ethiopia. For instance, a study of Abdulfettah (2018) dealt with the accessibility of physical environment for SWDs in five Universities. The challenges of female visually impaired students in Addis Ababa University is studied by Endalkachew & Dessalegn (2017). Abraham (2010) has also studied the challenges and opportunities of persons with disabilities (PWDs) with particular emphasis to the issues of inclusive curriculum in the field of physical education. The study of Yared (2008) emphasizes about policy and provision in higher educations that can address the issues and concerns of SWDs. A research finding of Addis Ababa University (AAU, 2014) has indicated similar challenges as SWDs are facing in different Ethiopian universities mainly based on the experience of 11 universities. Besides, ill-prepared and insufficient support service provision schemes are the other determinant factor for SWDs in Universities (Wondwosen, 2018). Although these researchers identified conditions of SWDs in higher educational institutions, their themes and target populations are quite different from this study. Because, this study focused on how the ECSU, AAU and KMU are managing the diverse types of disabilities, what challenges faced and opportunities have that students with different types of disabilities in the respective Universities. Therefore, the rationale behind to deal with this thematic area is to fill in the knowledge gaps with regard to managing the diverse types of disabilities and thereby to see the holistic picture of the issues of disabilities in university context. In addition, all of the researchers who have been conducted on the challenges of students with disabilities in higher education context of Ethiopia do not apply any inferential statistical tool to analyze the effect of the challenges on academic performance. Therefore, this research assessed the experiences on the opportunities available and challenges faced by SWDs in public universities of Addis Ababa with special emphasis in Ethiopian Civil Service University (ECSU), Addis Ababa University (AAU) and Kotebe Metropolitan University (KMU). The specific objectives of the research include:

1. To find out the enabling learning environments to students with disabilities that have been created by Ethiopian Civil Service, Addis Ababa University, and Kotebe Metropolitan Universities,

2. To investigate the main challenges that students with disabilities are facing during their stay in these respective Universities, and
3. To analyze the effect of those challenges on academic performance of students with disabilities in these respective Universities.

2. Methodology

To address the objectives of the study, mixed research design approach combining both quantitative and qualitative were used. The reason to use the mixed research method is to bring together the differing strengths and nonoverlapping weaknesses of quantitative methods with those of qualitative methods. In order to identify the challenges and opportunities of students with physical disabilities, concurrent triangulation research strategy was employed. In addition, to analyze the effect of the main challenges and support services provided by the universities on the academic performance of the students, explanatory research design was applied. The researchers used both primary and secondary sources of data.

The total number of the target population of the study constituted 480; of which 37, 388 and 55 were in ECSU, AAU and KMU, respectively. Out of these , 170 are visually impaired, 211 are deaf, 88 are physically disabled, and 11 of them are those who have other types of disabilities. With regard to sampling, from the public universities located in Addis Ababa city administration, three universities (ECSU, AAU and KMU) are selected purposefully. In order to determine the appropriate sample size for the study from the population, the researchers used Slovin's formula.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where n = Number of samples

N = Total population

e= Error tolerance (margin of error)

While using the Slovin's formula, confidence levels and margins of error should be taking into account. For this study a margin error of 0.05 (with 95% confidence level) is used. Given population (N) of 480 being the total number of disabled students in the two universities and a margin error (e) of 0.05, the sample size (n) is calculated as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} , n = \frac{480}{1+480*(0.05)^2} = 218$$

In this study, a three-stage sampling procedure was employed to select the sample respondents from the target population. In the first stage, proportional sampling method was applied to allocate the total sample to the three universities. In the second stage, students were categorized based on type of disabilities, then for each type of disability sample size was determined depending up on the proportion of size of the students in each type of disability. Finally, simple random sampling was used to select sample students from each type of disability.

Interview, questionnaire, and focus group discussions (FGDs) were the instruments that the researchers employed to collect the primary data. Some selected managers at different levels, student unions and other service providers in the respective Universities were parts of the interviewee. The collected quantitative data was encoded into STATA version 14.0 and analyzed using simple quantitative tools like percentage, mean, and variance. In addition, in order to analyze the effect of the support services made by the universities to SWDs on their academic performance, multiple regression model was used. To test the robustness of the estimated model, multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation test were conducted. The quantitative analysis was supplemented by the qualitative ones. Content analysis was also used to analyze the data obtained through interview and FGDs. The reason is to bring together the differing strengths and nonoverlapping weaknesses of quantitative methods with those of qualitative methods.

2.1. The model

In order to analyze the effect of the main challenges faced and the support services provided by the universities on academic performance of SWDs, the following multiple regression model was estimated. In addition to our variables of interest (accessibility of infrastructures, attitude towards SWDs, and academic environment), additional control variables that can affect the academic performance of SWDs are included in the model.

$$CGPA = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{infra} + \beta_2 \text{attit} + \beta_3 \text{acadm} + \beta_4 \text{suppo} + \beta_5 \text{higGPA} + \beta_6 \text{age} \\ + \beta_7 \text{expend} + \beta_8 \text{inthour} + \beta_9 \text{stuhour} + \beta_{10} \text{ocuppar} + \beta_{11} \text{distype} + \\ + \beta_{12} \text{univer} + \beta_{13} \text{mothedu} + \beta_{14} \text{sex} + u$$

Where GPA= cumulative grade point of the student, infra = accessibility of infrastructures, attit =attitude towards SWDs, acadm =academic environment, suppo =supports provided by universities to SWDs, higGPA =highschool GPA, age =age of the student, expend =monthly expenditure of students, inthour

=hours spent by the students browsing internet, stuhour = hours spent to study subject matter, ocuppar =occupation of parents, distype =disability type, univer =the university currently learning in, motheduc =mother's level of education. and u = error term.

3. Review of Related Literature

Many empirical studies have been conducted on opportunities available and challenges faced by students with disabilities, covering various scopes using different sample and methodologies globally. The findings of many studies with regard to the challenges of SWDs indicated that inaccessible physical environment also known as architectural or structural problems hinders SWDs to reach and utilize educational services provided in universities and not to use their full potential in their academic endeavors (Farooq, 2012). In addition, the negative attitude and stereotypes that university communities (staff and non-disabled students) developed are taken as one of the main hindrances of the academic success of SWDs (Kenda, 2016). The other challenge is related to academic environment (rigid curriculum). Inflexible or non-tailored instructional approach according to a specific disability type is acknowledged as one of the barriers for the academic success of students with disabilities in Ethiopian higher educational institutions (AAU, 2014).

3.2.1 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework indicated in Figure 1 shows the effect of accessibility of physical infrastructures, attitude towards disability, and academic environment on academic performance of students with disability. The figure clearly shows that, personal background, family background, accessibility of physical infrastructure, and academic environment can influence the academic performance of students with disability. There are also intervening factors (support services) that can affect the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. Support services such as guidance and counseling services minimize the negative effects of attitudes towards the disabled students and create an enabling environment (Maingi-Lore, 2016).

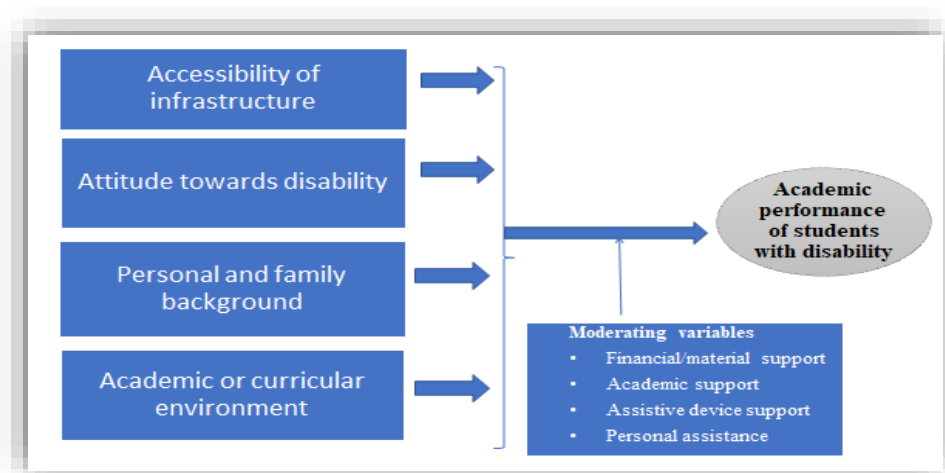


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework

4. Results and Discussions

4.1. General background of the Respondents

A total of 218 questionnaires were distributed to disabled students learning in the three Universities. Out of these 216, questionnaires were returned thereby giving a response rate of nearly 99.1 percent. The result of the survey indicates that the percentage of male and female respondents constituted about 65 percent and 35 percent, respectively. The overall mean age of the respondents is about 24 with age range between 18 years and 50 years. With regard to respondents' academic background, most of the respondents (about 78 percent) are attending first degree level. While nearly 14 and 8 percent of the respondents belong at diploma and post graduate levels, respectively. Regarding their field of study, most of them joined in social science streams accounting close to 73 percent of the total respondents. With regard to disability type, about 44 percent of the respondents have hearing impairment, close to 35 percent are visually impaired, and about 19 percent have physical disability while the remaining 2 percent of the respondents belong to others like students with learning disability, speech impairment and so on.

The result of the study shows that, on average, the respondents spent about 5 hours to study their subject matter while they spent 2.3 hours on browsing internet per a day. The monthly average expenditure of the respondents is about 1,186 Ethiopian Birr. The mean monthly of their expenditure ranges from 100 to 10, 000 Ethiopian Birr with high variation among sample respondents. Students' parents background like occupation, educational level of their mother and

father are important factors in their academic achievement. Accordingly, close to 36 percent of the sampled SWDs replied that their parents are farmers followed by civil servants (about 22 percent) and merchants (18 percent). In relation to education level of fathers, out of the total sample, near to 32 percent of the respondents replied that their father is illiterate. Those who attained primary education account about 19 percent, while about 18 percent can write and read. These three groups of educational levels of fathers together accounts about 69 percent while those who attained first degree and above account close to 17 percent. This implies that the educational level of fathers of SWDs is low. The educational attainment level of mothers is much lower than that of fathers.

4.2. Challenges of Students with Disabilities

4.2.1. Structural or Architectural Challenges

Inaccessible physical infrastructures exclude SWDs from educational and other social participations (ICED, 2019; UN-enable, 2003 and Agarwal, & Steele, 2016). The following table portrays the mean score of agreement and disagreement on the physical accessibility of Universities for SWDs. In this research, the sample respondents were asked to evaluate the accessibility of 17 types of infrastructures in their respective Universities. Table 5.1 summarizes the mean response rate of the students for each infrastructure.

Table 5.1: Accessibility of physical infrastructures for visually and physically disabled students

Structural or Architectural Challenges		Mean response rate					
		AAU		ECSU		KMU	
		Mean	Pr.	Mean	Pr.	Mean	Pr.
1.	Building entrance	3.51	0.00	3.56	0.01	1.61	0.00
2.	The Classrooms in the university.	3.66	0.00	3.06	0.41	1.82	0.00
3.	The Dormitories in the university.	3.63	0.00	3.72	0.00	3.22	0.17
4.	The Shower (Washing rooms) in the university.	3.26	0.01	3.56	0.00	1.91	0.00
5.	The Rest rooms (toilets) in the university.	2.93	0.27	3.28	0.13	1.56	0.00
6.	The ICT labs in the university.	3.34	0.00	3.11	0.33	1.67	0.00
7.	The Language labs in the university.	3.11	0.13	2.06	0.00	1.88	0.00
8.	The Libraries in the university.	3.77	0.00	2.56	0.02	2.36	0.01
9.	The Dining rooms in the university.	3.47	0.00	2.78	0.22	3.50	0.04
10.	The Administrative staff offices in the university.	3.02	0.41	2.11	0.00	2.73	0.16
11.	The instructor's offices in the university.	3.08	0.22	1.78	0.00	2.55	0.02
12.	Meeting/training halls	3.34	0.00	2.50	0.05	2.85	0.30

13.	The Clinic in the university.	3.13	0.10	4.06	0.00	2.24	0.00
14.	The places where you socialize and engage in school community activities.	3.09	0.20	2.72	0.18	2.18	0.00
15.	The banks/ATM machines in the university.	3.60	0.00	2.50	0.06	2.24	0.00
16.	Roads in the university	3.68	0.00	3.56	0.04	1.73	0.00
17.	Playground(s) in the campus.	3.37	0.00	1.78	0.00	2.55	0.03

Source: survey result, 2019

The result clearly shows that almost all types of infrastructures at KMU are inaccessible. The only accessible infrastructure in this university is dining room. Contrary to KMU, most of the infrastructures in AAU are accessible (except rest room, language labs, instructor's and administrative offices, clinic and recreational areas). Next to KMU, ECSU is subject to inaccessible infrastructures. According to the respondents, language labs, libraries, administrative staff offices, instructor's offices, meeting/training halls, bank/ATM machines, and playgrounds are not accessible. With regard to ECSU, building entrances, dormitories, showers, clinics and roads are labeled as accessible. This shows that there is a significance difference between universities.

The result of the qualitative analysis also confirmed that most of the buildings and their internal facilities in the sample universities are not accessible. This contradicts with the Ethiopian Building proclamation No. 624/2009 and Higher education proclamation No. 650/2009 which gave emphasis for the existence of accessible buildings and their inside facilities in organizations. Inaccessible training/meeting halls, washing areas, offices of academic advisors, lecturers, counselors and support staff, toilets around libraries and classrooms, the existence of fragmented physical locations of service providers' offices and lack of having certain permanent bus stations in Universities' compounds are the common challenges identified by visual and physical impaired students in their respective Universities. Not only entrances of the buildings but also the physical facilities such as chairs in classrooms, are identified as they are inconvenient especially for wheelchair users. Informants from disability offices in all Universities explained that most building entrances are inaccessible due to the reason that most of them were constructed before the issuance of the proclamations. But the buildings constructed recently are designed to address the needs of PWDs. In this regard, ECSU and AAU are trying to reasonably accommodate the issues of students with physical disability by preparing ramps into old buildings. The other identified challenge by

physical and visually impaired students is the existence of uncovered ditches and unnoticeable holes on the main roads and/or sidewalks. Almost all discussant of visually impaired students in KMU revealed that they are dependent on students without disability for their mobility in the compound and academic exercise.

Therefore, it is possible to conclude that, SWDs in all sample Universities are challenged by the inaccessible of offices and classrooms which has negative influence for their academic achievement as compared to their non-disabled peers. As the data obtained through observation, the case of KMU is quite serious as compared to the other two Universities. Because KMU has hilly topography and its internal compound is not asphalted. Construction is carried out in different places of the University. Therefore, SWDs have been burdened by such physical constraints.

4.2.2. Attitudinal Challenges

Attitude towards people with disabilities is among the factors that affect the socio-economic status of disabled students. Attitudinal barriers are recognized widely as an impediment to success of PWDs (Rao, 2004). In this research, attitude of classmates, friends, lecturers and administrative staffs towards SWDs have been investigated and the result is presented in Table 5.2 below. The attitude towards SWDs by non-disabled students, academic and administrative staff of universities was measured in terms of their initiative and willingness to support them in different aspects. As Table 5.2 illustrates, the respondents in all sample universities have indicated that students without disabilities and administrative staff have positive attitude towards disabled students. Further, respondents from ECSU and KMU replied that classmates do not consider their disability as an obstacle to their learning in classrooms.

Table 5.2: Attitudinal challenges of SWDS, by university.

Attitudinal Challenges	Mean response rate					
	AAU		ECSU		KMU	
	Mean	Pr.	Mean	Pr.	Mean	Pr.
1. Classmates consider my disability as an obstacle to their learning in classrooms.	3.15	0.11	2.50	0.05	2.09	0.00
2. My friends/peers are interested to support me in different aspects.	3.8	0.00	3.50	0.04	4.03	0.00
3. Some lecturers intentionally ignore disabled students during lectures.	3.09	0.17	2.22	0.00	2.58	0.01

4. Lecturers are concerned to solve non-academic issues of students with disabilities proactively.	2.85	0.08	2.83	0.30	2.49	0.01
5. The administrative staffs of the University are cooperative to help students with disabilities in their service provision.	3.27	0.00	3.388	0.10	2.58	0.04

Source: survey result, 2019

The discussants and interviewee in all the three Universities have also revealed that most of the students without disabilities and administrative staff are cooperative and helping them in different ways. On the students without disability side, pushing wheelchair, carrying educational materials; guiding(mobility) and reading service; recording of lectures notes and other reference materials and facilitating communication are among the different supports provided by students without disability. But the support services getting from their peer students especially in reading, pushing wheelchair, communication facilitation for visually impaired, physically impaired and deaf students with disabilities are not sustainable and organized. The support services provided by students without disabilities decrease when they get busy in course works especially when examination time approach when SWDs need much support at this time.

On the administrative staff side, it is reported that although there is unfamiliarity on the way how to treat SWDs, in ECSU and AAU they are trying their level best to address their concerns. On the other side, in KMU, most of the administrative staffs are uncooperative to provide the required services to SWDs. In this university, there is a big ignorance by support staff and the University's management.

Pertaining the lecturers, most of the respondents replied that lecturers do not intentionally ignore disabled students during lectures. However, lecturers particularly in AAU and KMU are found to be unconcerned to solve the issues of SWDs proactively. This shows their unexpected ignorance towards disability issues. Data obtained from the informants and discussants from all disability types indicated that most lecturers in AAU and KMU do not give proper treatment for them while lecturing and taking examination. The other concern that most of students of all disability types in AAU and KMU identified as there are lecturers who do not believe as SWDs have potential to do their course works independently and score better grades. There are lecturers who demoralize SWDs when they request reasonable accommodation in examination schedule and space, in

classroom learning. Data obtained from SWDs in ECSU is quite different with regard to the treatment of getting from their lecturers. Both informants and discussants appreciate the sensitivity of the lecturers during lectures, examinations and so on is found to be morale for them. One of the reasons for the sensitivity of instructors in addressing the concerns of SWDs in ECSU resulted from the inbuilt organizational culture that staff have in accommodating diversity while giving services as informant from Disability affairs office explained.

From the above discussion, it is possible to conclude that administrative staff and students without disabilities in the sample Universities have positive attitude towards SWDs thereby contributing a lot for their academic success. But except ECSU, most lecturers in AAU and KMU found to be insensitive in addressing the concerns of SWDs which is consistent with the findings of Getachew (2018).

4.2.3. Curriculum/Academic Challenges

The academic challenges of SWDs in terms of teaching and assessment methods like instructors' usage of teaching aids, module contents that take into account their diverse abilities and requirements, availability of relevant/appropriate teaching and learning materials and provision of tutorial/additional academic support service were assessed. The survey result on the curricula issues of SWDs are presented in Table 5.3.

The mean response rate presented in Table 5.3 are significantly lower than three for almost all types of academic challenges in the sample universities. This implies that disabled students learning in these universities are being constrained by different types of academic challenges. Specifically, the sample respondents confirmed that the teaching methods and assessment modes are not flexible; instructors do not use teaching aids to SWDs; module contents do not take into account the diverse abilities and requirements of SWDs; there are not appropriate teaching and learning materials (except in AAU); the available teaching and learning materials are not adequate; and the universities do not organize adequate tutorial classes to assist SWDs academically.

Table 5.3: Academic challenges of SWDs, by university.

Curricular/Academic Challenges	Mean response rate					
	AAU		ECSU		KMU	
	Mean	Pr.	Mean	Pr.	Mean	Pr.

1. The teaching methods of instructors are flexible to accommodate the needs of a specific disability types.	2.87	0.11	2.11	0.00	2.53	0.03
2. The assessment modes of instructors are flexible to accommodate the needs of a specific disability types.	2.81	0.03	2.11	0.00	2.47	0.02
3. Instructors use teaching aids to assist me because of my disability.	2.81	0.03	2.22	0.01	2.09	0.00
4. Module contents take into account the diverse abilities and requirements of students with disabilities.	2.842	0.05	2.17	0.01	2.28	0.00
5. There are relevant/appropriate teaching and learning materials like textbooks, references, audio, video, braille and other formats etc.	2.96	0.37	2.55	0.04	2.00	0.00
6. The available teaching and learning materials are adequate.	2.85	0.08	2.33	0.01	2.312	0.00
7. Special/remedial/tutorial classes are often organized to assist students with disabilities academically.	2.73	0.01	2.61	0.09	1.84	0.00

Source: survey result, 2019

The discussants of all disability types in the sample Universities have pointed out that the instructional and assessment modes that lecturers apply do not considerate the differentiated learning style of students with (out) disabilities. This problem even got worse or complicated when students with hearing and visual impairments learn in the same classroom when some lecturers do not read/say orally what they wrote especially for those visually impaired and others do not write what they say. Some times during lectures, when pictures or diagrams are demonstrated on board or papers as teaching aids, there are lecturers who could not explain them in the way it can be understandable for visually impaired and deaf students.

The other challenge raised by SWDs in all sample Universities is information inaccessibility mainly when there is a class/examination schedule change. As informants and discussants indicated, most of the time they get information through students' representatives. But there are times when representatives do not know sign language, they forget to tell timely and so on. Accordingly, most discussants confirmed that they missed examinations due to information inaccessibility.

The issues of timing, placement, diversification and others are critical concerns for SWDs in assessment process. During examinations, listening the question by readers, processing the

information to give answer, and to dictate readers to state their answers need extra time as compared with their non-disable peers (Ibid). But most informants and discussants in AAU and KMU have indicated as lecturers did not allow extra time during examinations.

Students with physical impairment have also concerns on time constraint of during examinations. The experience of a student in AAU whose right hand is paralyzed also said as the lectures are not considerate to give him additional time to complete his examination.

With regard to place of examination, assigning them in floors especially during final examinations is reported as a challenge by physical and visual impaired students in all the sample Universities. Especially visually impaired students in all the sample Universities explained as the place of examination are most of the time around corridors and/or somewhere at corners, verandas etc which passersby are disturbing around which negatively affects their concentration and to the extent creating miscommunication between the reader and the student.

During examinations, visual impaired students cannot easily understand diagrams and illustrations. According to students with hearing impairment discussants in AAU and KMU, one of the reasons for getting lower grades is inconsiderable examination items mainly the subjective ones like essays and/or short answers appear in examinations. Further, both the survey and the qualitative data result have shown that SWDs do not get additional academic support (tutorial) service in all sample Universities. However, the necessity of getting the service are underlined by most of the discussants in the Universities. From the above discussions, it is possible to understand that lack of reasonable accommodation during lectures and assessment are the major curricular challenges that SWDs faced.

4.3. Opportunities (Support Service and Related Issues)

Universities usually provide different types of support services to create and enhance conducive learning environment for the SWDs. The following table summarizes the extent to which SWDs are getting support services during their stay in their respective universities.

Table 5.4: Support services to SWDs, by respective Universities

Support Service and Related Issues	Mean response rate					
	AAU		ECSU		KMU	
	Mean	Pr.	Mean	Pr.	Mean	Pr.
1. The disability support center in the university properly coordinates the academic and non-academic support services required by students with disabilities.	3.42	0.00	2.33	0.01	2.25	0.00
2. The university provide financial support.	3.86	0.00	2.22	0.02	3.09	0.33
3. The University encourage best achievers of students with disabilities in different ways.	3.27	0.00	2.67	0.12	2.78	0.15
4. The University organizes workshops, trainings, seminar that can contribute to my academic success.	3.10	0.17	3.00	1.00	2.38	0.01
5. The guidance and counseling service in the University have contribution for my academic success.	3.15	0.08	1.83	0.00	2.50	0.01
6. There are different entertainment means for students with disabilities e.g. social clubs, discussion groups.	2.89	0.14	1.83	0.00	2.28	0.00
7. There are different means of communication on academic/non-academic matters through my mail, notice boards, etc.	3.02	0.43	2.44	0.04	2.44	0.01
8. Regular orientation (induction) program (s) for newly entrant (admitted) students with disabilities on the policies, physical surrounding, rights and obligations etc. is provided.	3.04	0.36	2.94	0.43	2.31	0.00
9. The university avail learning aids such as braille paper, slate, styles, computer, internet, recording system(materials) etc.	3.46	0.00	2.72	0.20	3.28	0.11
10. The university assigns someone to assist you with your day to day learning activities (Ex: Readers, sign language interpreters, helpers for those with physical disabilities and others)	3.042	0.35	1.67	0.00	2.16	0.00
11. The university avail assistive devices like wheelchairs, white cane, crutches, hearing aid, orthoses etc	3.20	0.03	1.78	0.00	2.34	0.01
12. The university arranges repair and maintenance service for your assistive devices.	3.02	0.43	2.11	0.00	2.22	0.00

According to the mean response rate presented in Table 5.4, the disability centers in ECSU and KMU are not properly coordinating the academic and non-academic support services required by SWDs while AAU is better in this regard. Especially, SWDs in KMU identified as their relationship with disability affairs office is too loose. Only one expert is assigned to coordinate the issue and most of the time he is engaged in teaching. Moreover, his office is located outside and about 500 meters far away from the main campus by crossing the main road of Kotebe. The only way of getting him is by scheduling through telephone arrangement. The qualitative data also strengthen this claim as the weakness of the centers results in difficulty of getting accessible lecture and examination room, delay in material support provision and others. However, informants argued that the challenges faced by SWDs are only due to the weakness of the disability affairs

offices/centers rather the inability of educational departments to mainstream the disability issues matters a lot.

Unavailability of effective guidance and counseling service, lack of different entertainment means and different means of communication on academic/non-academic matters, unavailability of assistive devices (like wheelchairs, white cane, crutches, hearing aid, orthoses) and maintenance services are also mentioned as constraints by ECSU and KMU students. The obtained quantitative and qualitative data contradicts each other with regard to the absence of assistive devices in the two Universities.

As discussant and interviewees pointed out, SWDs in AAU and KMU have formed associations in their respective Universities. Thus, living together in the university environment in organized and unorganized form helps them to support SWDs each other emotionally and to facilitate the flow information that concerns them among themselves, to push the concerned bodies of the Universities in organized way to address their requests.

In addition, both the quantitative and qualitative data have shown that one of the critical challenges identified by SWDs is difficulty of getting personal assistants in their day-to-day academic and non-academic lives according to their respective disability type like readers, sign language interpreters, helpers for those students with visual impairment, hearing impairment and physical disabilities, respectively. Although students with visual impairment are obliged to bring their own readers during examinations, however, difficulty of getting readers mainly during final examinations and weak reading competency of some readers especially technical words of particular courses are found a challenge.

Absence and/or competency problem of sign language interpreters in and/or outside classroom is explained as a challenge faced by students with hearing impairment in AAU and KMU and which have negative effect on their academic and social lives. Academically, absence of sign language interpreters in classrooms results in missing what lecturers talk without writing on the board about coverage and timing of examination, elaboration of diagrams, class rescheduling, assignments and so on. Informants and discussants also revealed that there are interpreters who cannot communicate in English language and there is also a problem of understanding the subject matter that they are interpreting for them on the interpreters' side. When the interpreters failed to understand what the

instructors have said they opted to escape intentionally. Absence of sign language interpreters inside the campuses of AAU and KMU limits the social services that students with hearing impairment have to get from clinics, registrar, dining rooms, dormitories, and so on. Thus, absence of and/or insufficient number and competency problem of sign language interpreters in AAU and KMU impeded visually impaired students from getting academic and social services that they have to get from their respective Universities and thus have negative impact on their academic achievement.

Students with physical impairment have also critical concern on the unavailability of personal assistants who can help them in pushing their wheelchairs, washing clothes, shopping, and in getting other social service in the three Universities. There are wheelchair user students who cannot go nowhere even to the toilet without the support of others. The case of a female student in KMU shows that since toilets are accessible for her, she stays the whole days without going to toilet.

SWDs complained that their respective universities do not assign assistants who can help them in their day-to-day lives. Instead, some volunteer students without disabilities are providing different kinds of assistances although the support systems are not organized, regular and sustainable. Since universities do not assign personal assistances, getting support from their non-disabled peers cause SWDs to feel as they are dependent.

The quantitative data shows that unlike the other two universities, AAU is better in terms of providing financial support, encouraging best achievers, providing guidance and counseling service, availing learning aids (such as braille paper, slate, styles, computer) and providing assistive devices (like wheelchairs, white cane, crutches, hearing aid, orthoses etc.). However, it does not mean that ECSU and KMU are not providing any form of support. The FGD and interview results in the sample Universities shows that there are different kinds of support services such as reasonable accommodation in/around dormitory, library and cafeteria and so on to SWDs which can be taken as opportunities for their academic success.

All the sample Universities were supporting SWDs financially although the amount of payment differs from University to University. For instance, the ECSU was supporting from 750 to 350 Ethiopian Birr per month according to the severity of the disability type. Also, additional money

was given for graduating class of SWDs when they conduct research. KMU was also provided 250 Ethiopian Birr monthly pocket money for all students with disabilities. But in 2019 the FDRE Ministry of Finance issued a guideline that decided the monthly pocket money and readers' payment in examinations for the visually impaired students to be 250 and 80 Ethiopian Birr, respectively. The Ministry of Finance's guideline obliged the Universities to assign sign language interpreters for students with hearing impairment. But this guideline does not include the concerns of students with physical disability. Therefore, during the data collection period, ECSU is following the guideline whereas KMU pended the payment. This has become a source of complaints for all most all SWDs in these two Universities. This is because on one side, it excludes students with physical disability, on the other side, the allowed payment could not be sufficient to support SWDs.

To sum up, living together in the university environment help them to support SWDs each other emotionally and facilitate the flow information that concerns them among themselves. From this finding it is possible to understand that SWDs are getting different kinds of support from their respective Universities which have positive role in their academic success, although the available support services are inadequate to address their differential needs as per their disability type. Moreover, it is also possible to conclude that, the academic and administrative support services of SWDs are not sufficient and guided systematically.

4.4. The Effect of the main challenges and support services on Academic Performance of SWDs

Table 5.5 presents the regression result. Accordingly, the result shows that, among the explanatory variables included in the model, accessibility of infrastructures, high school GPA, monthly expenditure of students, occupation of parents, disability type and mother's education are significantly affecting the academic performance of SWDs. However, the attitude towards disability, academic environment and the support services (material/financial support, assistive device support and personal support) provided by the universities are not significantly affecting the academic performance of SWDs.

This implies that although the universities are providing different support services, these services are inadequate to address the differential needs of students with disability. Similarly, the attitude

towards the SWDs and the academic environment is not contributing to academic performance of students with disabilities.

The regression clearly showed that as students' satisfaction towards infrastructure accessibility increases by one scale, their CGPA raises by about 0.117 point. The figure reported in Table 5.5 also shows that when monthly expenditure increases by 1 birr, CGPA raises by about 0.0001 point. This implies that the high economic status (high income) can fulfill their material needs and get better educational facilities which boost their academic performance marginally.

Further, the regression result shows that some types of parents' occupation have an effect on academic performance of students with disability. As compared to the students who have farmer family background (reference category), students with unemployed family background are more likely to score 0.74 less CGPA point. Obviously, the unemployed family (low income family) could not fulfill the educational and non-educational material need of their children. As a result, students with extremely poor family background will be forced to score less CGPA.

Table 5.5. The effect of the main challenges on academic performance of SWDs.

Dependent Variable= CGPA	Coef.	Std.err.	t	P > t
<i>Accessibility of infrastructure</i>	0.117	0.059	1.98	0.050*
<i>Attitude towards disability</i>	0.040	0.047	0.84	0.403
<i>Academic environment</i>	0.018	0.048	0.37	0.709
<i>Support provided</i>	0.003	0.061	0.04	0.964
<i>High school GPA</i>	0.001	0.001	2.13	0.036**
<i>Age</i>	0.022	0.014	1.66	0.100
<i>Expend</i>	0.0001	0.0001	1.89	0.061*
<i>Internet hour</i>	0.016	0.028	0.59	0.558
<i>Study hour</i>	0.015	0.021	0.73	0.464
<i>Occupation of parents</i>				
<i>Merchant</i>	-0.043	0.097	-0.44	0.661
<i>Civil Servant</i>	-0.163	0.121	-1.34	0.183
<i>Unemployed</i>	-0.737	0.214	-3.44	0.001***
<i>Unemployed</i>	-0.109	0.117	-0.93	0.353
<i>Disability type</i>				
<i>Hearing impairment</i>	-0.292	0.096	-3.04	0.003***
<i>Physically disabled</i>	0.098	0.116	0.85	0.399
<i>Others</i>	-0.009	0.437	-0.02	0.983
<i>University joined</i>				
<i>ECSU</i>	-0.456	0.316	-1.44	0.152
<i>KMU</i>	-0.144	0.256	-0.56	0.574
<i>Mother's education</i>				
	-0.032	0.170	-0.19	0.850

	<i>Diploma</i>	0.325	0.158	2.05	0.043**
Sex					
	<i>Female</i>	0.115	0.087	1.31	0.192
Constant		1.629	0.442	3.69	0.000***
Obs =134	R-Squared = 0.4420	Adj. R-Squared = 0.3373		VIF=1.75	
Breusch-Pagan test for heteroskedasticity (chi2= 0.11 Prob > chi2 = 0.7401)					

Source: survey result, 2019

Note: *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Again, there is a significant difference in CGPA between some types of disability. Those students with hearing impairment are more likely to score less CGPA as compared to the reference category (visually impaired students). On average, students with hearing impairment are more likely to score 0.29 point less CGPA than that of visually impaired students (reference category). Students with hearing impairment may face different challenges that affect their performance in the classroom. They may have difficulty of following lectures if the teacher speaks quietly, rapidly or unclear; class room environment, qualification of the sign language interpreters (Maingi- Lore, 2016). In addition, as compared to the other groups of disabled students, the probability of getting volunteer students who could help their day-to-day learning activity (sign language interpreters) is very low. Hence, in the presence of these challenges, their result is expected to be lower than the other students.

Mother's education is also another variable which affect the academic performance of students with disability. The regression result clearly shows that those students with mother's education above diploma level are more likely to score high CGPA as compared to those who have below diploma level. Specifically, on average, students with mother's education above diploma level are more likely to score 0.33 more than those who have below diploma level (reference category). This implies that mother's education is a key factor behind children's academic performance (quality of children's education). Parents with a high educational qualification are curious about their children education and try to provide learning materials to their children that in turn facilitate their learning and academic performance. It is important to note (Bakar, Mamat, & Ibrahim, 2017).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1. Conclusion

This study focused on assessing the challenges faced and opportunities available for SWDs in ECSU, AAU and KMU. The overall challenges that SWDs are facing include structural or architectural, attitudinal, curricular and others. Most buildings and their internal facilities, service providers' offices, and others are not accessible especially for those who are visually and physically impaired students. Besides, uncovered ditches and unnoticeable holes on the main roads and/or sidewalks and lack of having certain permanent bus stations in Universities' compounds are their common challenges.

Except in ECSU, most lecturers in AAU and KMU found to be insensitive in addressing the concerns of SWDs. Knowledge and skill gaps of lecturers and administrative staff in the three Universities are also identified as the root causes as SWDs failed to get support as expected. The finding revealed that reasonable accommodations during lectures and assessment are almost negligible.

The opportunities that SWDs have in the respective University's context include having reasonable accommodation services in/around dormitory, library and cafeteria and getting recognition/award for best scorers. Having training and induction programs (except KMU) and computer centers, and getting educational materials and supportive/assistive devices are also the opportunities which have positive role for their academic success. Monthly financial support can be taken as one positive measure by the Universities so as to support SWDs.

Conversely, inability of disability affair offices to coordinate the overall support services (except AAU are identified as hindrances for their success. One of the most critical challenges identified by SWDs is difficulty of getting personal assistants in the day-to-day academic and non-academic lives of SWDs according to their respective disability type. Regression result also confirms the different support services (academic support, material/financial support, assistive device support and personal support) provided by the universities have a positive effect on the academic performance of students with disabilities, though the coefficients are not statistically significant. Moreover, it is also possible to conclude that, the academic and administrative support services of

SWDs are not guided systematically. There is no University which has specific guideline that can address the needs and concerns of SWDs in organized and sustained ways.

5.2. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the research the following recommendations are given.

- To address the physical inaccessibility, the sample Universities should work to modify the entrance of buildings and make reasonable accommodation on classroom assignments, washing areas, toilets around classrooms, libraries, offices of lecturers and support staff. In addition, the Universities should prepare signals and other alternative means that can notify ahead as the area is dangerous for SWDs when the roads and/or sidewalks have holes. Furthermore, the respective Universities need to work to prepare a permanent bus stations as to reduce the physical barriers that SWDs are facing,
- In order to reduce the negative attitudes of lecturers towards SWDs, compulsory disability sensitization and awareness creation/raising training tailored to their respective roles should be given on regular basis,
- The finding has shown that the instructional and assessment (timing, space and diversification) modes of lecturers are not tailored to the special learning styles of the diverse disability types of students. Therefore, appropriate reasonable accommodation on course/module delivery and assessment processes needs to be made,
- Lack of personal assistants and the incompetency of readers in all sample Universities as well as sign language interpreters (in AAU and KMU) are also identified as the most critical concerns of SWDs. Therefore, the Universities should set strategies to organize and encourage voluntary services by staff and students without disabilities so as to strengthen their supports. Besides, the Universities should reduce the dependency of SWDs on assistants for their day-to-day academic and social lives through availing assistive technologies like braille embossers and providing trainings on how to use Job Access with Speech (JAWS) software and basics of computer mainly for those visually impaired students. Also, the Universities should work with other governmental and non-governmental organizations to provide motorized wheelchairs that can easily be manipulated by physically impaired students by themselves,

- Disability affair offices especially in ECSU and KMU are found weak in coordinating the overall support services of SWDs. Therefore, they need to be strengthened through availing human and non-human resources. On the other side, since the issues SWDs are found cross-cutting, the respective Universities should work to mainstream disability issues across all their respective departments theoretically (in policies, guideline, plans and so on) and practically (in implementation) instead of cornering it the offices/centers,
- To address the academic and other support service concerns of SWDs in organized, consistent, fair and sustainable way, separate policies and/or guidelines need to be issued in the respective Universities.
- This research finding will be used as an input for other researchers to conduct further research on the area under investigated.

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Portrayal of Women's Role in Ethiopian Cinema: Implications for Perpetuating Gender Stereotypes

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Abstract

Films, as one important part of the media, portray the roles men and women play in a society and have effects on one's construction of gender. This study explored how women's roles are represented in selected eight most watched films in Addis Ababa cinema in the year 2011 E.C and elaborated stereotypical images of feminine behaviors using qualitative content analysis. The study has found that some contents of the movies reinforce gender stereotypes. In the movies, women characteristics are depicted in general to play roles that are relatively less powerful than men with materialistic, dependent and emotional behavior. Also some movie contents are oriented towards sexual objectification of women and their submissiveness to violence. Most of the roles played by the women are found to be simplistic and focus only on limited role of women in real life. This is very reductive and fails to show the complex roles of women in real life. The stereotypical contents can possibly affect not only viewer's perception of women, but also women's projection of themselves. It is recommended that education be given, as part of school curriculums and in media studies at higher level, to open student's eyes to gender stereotypes and their effects. Moreover, movie critique and gender activism should be strengthened in order to discourage viewers and other stakeholders from investing in stereotypical movies, and awaken content creators to notice how their work affects gender equality. Laws and policies should also be promulgated to discourage the negative representation of women in the entertainment industry.

Key words: *Films, inequality, media, representation, stereotypes*

1. Introduction

Communication is an important element of human interaction, and media is a tool for communication. In our world today, media becomes so crucial that it is almost impossible to imagine a day without any type of media.

Cinema is one of the most popular and very powerful medium of mass communication. Through cinema, films are displayed and peoples such as producer, director, story or scriptwriter, songwriter want to communicate with the mass audience. In general, films are believed to be creative tools for disseminating information, education, entertainment and transmission of culture. They are powerful instruments to transmit valuable ideas and/or message to audience.

In films, role of men and women are represented. According to Stuart Hall, representation is the way in which meaning is given to the things which are depicted through the images or whatever it is, on screens or the words on a page which stand for what we're talking about (Hall, 1997). As one cultural object, content of films are evaluated by assessing the gap between what one might think of as the accurate meaning of an event (or an object) and how it is presented in the media' (Hall, 1997). Most films are believed to show the reflection of real life world and situations that everyone can connect with. Other times, films can be fictitious that shows the sophisticated imaginations of writers and predictions of the future. In any case, films have the potential to play an important role as a medium of entertainment, information and education and as a catalyst for social change.

In Ethiopia, in spite of the increase in number of production, films are generally criticized for lack of quality. According to Kindeneh (2014), the involvement of unskilled actors and producers as well as lack of educational institution that trains well qualified professionals in the entertainment industry play significant role in compromising the quality. In fact, he asserted that film making is mainly seen as profitable business (Kindeneh, 2014).

In addition to lack of quality production, Ethiopian films are also criticized for their stereotypical contents. For instance, the results of a study conducted by Gashaw and Ayele (2016), show that Ethiopian movies usually portray women in a negative and demeaning ways. The continuous negative portrayal of women in media, especially in films plays a role in reinforcing the existing stereotypes towards women in the society. It is thus important to periodically study content of films and their messages. This study focuses on assessing the contents of most watched films which have been viewed over Ethiopian Cinema outlets in the years 2011 E.C. and assess how women are projected with particular emphasis dominant women roles in the selected movies.

Ethiopian women, who constitute larger group of the labor force, are actively involved in all aspects of their society's life. Women in their productive capacity and reproductive capacity play

multifaceted and all rounded responsibility within the society. Despite their multiple roles, the discriminatory practices and biases hinder women from enjoying the fruits of their contribution (Women's Affairs Sector, 1993). This is mainly due to the stereotypical gender roles that the society assigned for male and female. The stereotypes towards women can be observed in social, economic, and political spheres of life. These stereotypes are also prevalent in the media.

Media is an important tool to reflect the role of men and women in society. It has the power to either challenge social norms in different society and gradually change it or reinforce existing inequalities. Films in particular, as part of the mass media, play an essential role in reflecting the role of men and women in the society. In films, the roles and images of men and women can be represented in different ways. Messages and images transmitted through films have the power to reinforce or subvert stereotypes, attitudes, expectations and values which society holds towards women that emphasize inequality.

Despite the development of film industry in Ethiopia, a closer look in to the content of films produced can show that stereotypes towards women are prevalent in the media. According to Gashaw and Ayele (20216), women are present in negative and demeaning ways in Ethiopian films. The study revealed that the image of women in Ethiopian films is often stereotyped sending the message that either provide women are the same or should be the same. Another article by Eyerusalem (2018) also provide that Ethiopian films homogenize women and depict them as keen gossipers about money, wealth whose character is often dependent and unfaithful. She stated that Ethiopian films tend to portray women as one dimensional and lacks to show women's complex role in the society. A close observation of Ethiopian films clearly shows the prevailing stereotypical attitudes, expectations and values which society holds towards women and normalizes it. This generally reinforces the existing stereotypes towards women and exacerbates inequalities between men and women in the society. It also plays visible role in sustaining unbalanced social views and roles.

The negative gender stereotypes towards women are also believed to be one of the fundamental causes of discrimination, abuse and violence in different aspects of human life (UNHR, 2014). This will in turn limit or cause to violate the fundamental rights of human beings. According to Office of High Commissioner of UNHR, gender stereotyping affects fundamental rights of women such as access to quality education, access to and participation in information and communication

technologies (ICTs) and violence against women (UNHR, 2018). It also shapes ‘self-perception, attitudes to relationships and influence participation in the world of work’ (Institute of Physics, 2018).

The continuous negative projection of women in films exerts negative influences on viewers, especially on children and youths, by affecting the attitude and values system in our society (Ward & Aubrey, 2017). Social Cognitive Theory provides that consumers of media, through observational learning, derive roles and expectations from the movies and use it in real world life happenings (Bandura, 2001). It posits that the continuous negative presentation of women in films possibly sends the message that women are what they are said they are in movies.

Nowadays, Ethiopian films are not only watched in cinemas but also sold to viewers in CDs and watched by television viewers on different Ethiopian TV channels such as Ethiopian Broadcasting Corporation, EBS and Fana Broadcasting Corporation. With this many people watching films, it is thus important to examine the content of these movies and analyze the representation of gender roles in media in general, and women portrayal in particular.

This particular study will supplement existing literature by adding a time period to the conversation of female representation in most watched film in Ethiopia. It will also provide socio-cultural context to the problem by analyzing the portrayal of women in popular cinema films screened in 2011 E.C. and identifying prevalent stereotypical contents. This research will attempt to respond to the following questions;

- ✓ What stereotypical contents are there in Ethiopian movies watched mostly in Cinema in the year 2011 E.C.?
- ✓ What are the implications of these stereotypical contents on gender?
- ✓ How does the portrayal of women in films affect the attitude and behavior of young viewers, especially in perpetuating gender stereotypes?

2. Methodology

2.1. Research Design

This research will mainly focus on analyzing the contents of most watched movies in the year 2011 E.C. using qualitative content analysis as a main research method to identify patterns of stereotypical contents from selected movies. It looked at eight most watched films in Addis Ababa

Cinema and analyzes the representation of women roles. Qualitative content analysis is the study of cultural objects to identify norms, beliefs and values in the cultural objects (Philip, 2014). In this research, textual analysis of female lead characters in selected movies was made to adequately describe how women roles are represented; identify stereotypical contents and analyze the inferential message.

2.2. Data Source

This study used both primary and secondary sources. As principal source of data, the study used eight most watched movies in Addis Ababa Cinema houses in the year 2011 E.C. Moreover, it also used data collected from 23 interviews made with selected group of stakeholders such as film directors, actors, media experts and university students. In addition to this, the research also utilized numerous written documents including books, journals, and other relevant publications.

2.3. Sampling

Purposive sampling was used to locate the movies selected for this particular study. Eight most watched Amharic movies which were screened in Addis Ababa in the year 2011 E.C (From September Meskerem to Pagume 5) were selected for analysis from three of the largest government owned cinemas (Ambassador Cinema, Cinema Ethiopia and Empire Cinema) and three privately owned cinemas (Alem Cinema, Ednamall Cinema and Century Cinema) were selected. These are *Mognu yearad lij 4* (ሞፍ የአራዳ ልጅ 4), *Bale Kemis* (ባለ ቀሚስ), *Beasrasebat Merfe* (በ17 መርፌ), *Wetoadar* (ወቶ አደር), *Sostegnaw Ayin* (ሶስተኛው አይን), *Misten Darkwat* (ሚስቴን ዳርካት), *Somalew Vandam* (ሱማሌው ሻንዳም) and *Astaraki* (አስታራቂ 2).

2.4. Unit of analysis

The units of analysis in this research are female lead characters from each selected movies. For the purpose of this study, coding will be conducted at character level as well as interaction level. At character level, the selected female characters, which are relatively dominant in the storyline and will appear on screen consistently, will be analyzed based on the coding categories derived from previous literature. At interaction level, the verbal and non-verbal stereotypical content characteristics of peer characters in the movie towards selected female characteristics will be coded and recorded. Moreover, this study also used data collected from interviews as a primary source.

2.5. Data collection, coding, and analysis

Most movies selected for this research were downloaded from online (YouTube) while others were purchased from movie houses. This helped access to the movies on continuous basis because watching and re-watching of selected movies was vital for analysis during open, axial and selective coding processes.

The coding frame used for analyzing selected movies was developed using combination of deductive and inductive procedures. First, the researcher used scholarly literature and pre-existing concepts to develop themes and sub-themes to identify stereotypical contents from selected films. This includes carrier orientation, sexual objectification, aesthetic, materialism, domesticity, dependent, 'women behavior', less intellectual, victim of violence. Then later, preliminary analysis was conducted taking two movies from the sample as a pilot. Accordingly, an additional theme such as singlism (stereotype against single women) was developed. Moreover, 'domesticity' and 'power relation' was removed from the coding frame as such behavior was not found in the data or found to be general. In addition to this the code 'less intellectual' and 'aesthetic' were decided to be sub-code of 'carrier orientation' and 'objectification' respectively. After ensuring the mutual exclusiveness and exhaustiveness of the coding frame, coding themes were finalized and was distributed to professionals who works on areas related to gender. A minimum of two professionals participated in identification of stereotypical contents from each movies selected for this study.

In the above table, the highlighted contents show the existence of stereotypical contents analyzed in this research

3.1. Representation of women in selected Ethiopian Films

Gender roles in films are usually stereotyped, more so in developing countries like Ethiopia. For the purpose of this study, stereotypical contents in selected movies are discussed according to the coding themes in the coding frame discussed above

Carrier orientation (Occupation): Currently, women are involved in different professional fields in the economy. Despite that, in films, women are frequently observed engaging in traditionally assigned female work such as secretary, hair dressing, and nursing.

Table 2: Occupation of women and men lead characters in selected movies

Characters	Occupation of women characters	Occupation of men characters
Films		
Mognu yearad lij 4	Prostitute, Prostitute	Business man, Students
Bale Kemis	Teaches modeling, models	Boutique owner, Importer, Tailor
Be 17 Merfe	Sex worker, House wife	University professor, Student, Broker
Wetoader	Vegetable seller on road (Gullit), student, police woman	Amateur Actor, Police officer, Business man
Sostegnaw Ayin	Works in Women and Children Affairs Office in Bishoftu	Honest Lawyer, police officers (Judge, persecutor)
Misten Darkwat	Hair stylist and owner of hair Salon, Hair stylist	Diaspora Investor
Somalew Vandam	Unknown, Mother	Fighter (Tera Askebari), lotto winner
Astaraki 2	Diaspora, Mother	Broker, Diaspora

As it can be clearly seen from the above table, almost all women characters in selected films are either not employed or are engaged in occupations that are traditionally assigned as ‘women’s work’. This is even clearer when we compare the works of women characters in selected films with their male counterparts. Most of the men in movies, knowingly or unknowingly, are assigned to play roles that either require professional qualification such as lawyer, judge, university

professor or engaged in different businesses. If they are not employed, men characters are at least observed thriving to follow their dreams.

On the other hand, in many instances, women are depicted as unintelligent and less active. In those instances where they have works, female characters in selected films are shown to work in relatively less paying jobs. They are also depicted as weak to handle their own living and so end up choosing shortcuts or engage in work that do not require any professional training. Usually, the work that female actors are shown to choose is prostitution. This is observed in two of the films selected for this study. Moreover, none of the female leading characters are depicted with occupation related to hard science.

In general, the above discussion shows that stereotypical gender roles can also be observed in choice of carrier aspirations and occupation in films. And this is prevalent in Ethiopian films.

Sexual objectification- According to Fredrickson & Roberts (1997), objectification refers to the treatment of human beings, usually women, as a body which is predominantly presented as an object for the pleasure of men. It refers to the state where women's body or body parts are singled out and separated from her as a person and she is viewed primarily as a physical object of male sexual desire (Bartky, 1990). In more than half of the movies selected for this study, multiple instances were observed where women are objectified. Women actors are observed to be appreciated or valued for their physical appearance rather than their merits.

In two of the selected movies (*Mognu yearada lij 4* and *Be 17 merfe*), female lead characters are shown in sexualizing and objectified manners. They are depicted as an object ready to satisfy men's character sexual desire. In addition to this, in the rest of the movies, multiple instances where observed where women are sexually referred and harassed, both physically and verbally. There were also instances where position and camera focus on particular portion of the body such as chest and lower back of women's body are zoomed and sexual comments were forwarded.

Researches on this area indicates that objectification of women can cause low self-esteem, depression and other disorders. It can also cause women to objectify themselves.

In addition to objectification, women are shown as victim of violence crimes such as abduction, physical and verbal assaults, rape, with no visible legal or social consequence. In some instances, women are depicted as they are fine with sexual harassment or that are they themselves brought the violent acts up on themselves.

Women as materialist: From the movies selected for this study, the leading women characters in the films *Mognu yearada lij 4* and *Be 17 merfe* are depicted as a person attracted to the male character's material possessions and wealth. In fact, these characters are shown to present their physical body for the sexual pleasure and exploitation of men characters with the intention of benefiting from their material possession. This suggests that women can easily use their body to get away with challenges that life brings them. It also implies that wealth is in general more important than intellectual or spiritual assets.

Dependent and supporting the men: Some of the characters in the selected movies show that women are dependent on men for decision making. In other instances, women are shown to wait for their family members such as brother, father or others for reassurance before making their own decisions.

In addition to this, in the movies *Weto Ader*, *Yesomalew Vandam* and *Sostegnaw Ayin*, the leading roles were men and the role of the women characters was to simply support the men characters. In the movie *Yesomalew Vandam* and *Sostegnaw Ayin*, the men characters were as heroes who fight for the women characters or solve the mysterious murder case of women respectively.

Singlism: In the movie '*Misten Darkwat*', the woman who plays the leading role was shown to be shamed because she did not marry. The woman is shown in constant pressure from her father to get married and decide multiple irrational decisions just because she want to make her father happy and meet societal expectation of marriage. This may send message to viewers that the societal and family expectation always stands taller than woman's personal achievement.

3.2. Implication of Identified Stereotypical Contents

When the presentation of role of women in reality is distorted, it play significant role in shaping the hopes, preferences, and dreams of young women and men. And this has broad range of implications.

3.2.1. Selection of carrier path

In the above selected movies, most women actors are engaged in the traditionally known 'women work'. These kinds of roles show what type of specific carrier orientation that a man and women should choose in life. As it can be seen from the above discussion, the occupations of female characters are prostitution, fashion designer, student, and hair salon owner. This perhaps implies the socially acceptable carrier path that a woman fits in is in such occupation. The gender

stereotypes associated with such occupations perhaps explains the level of participation of women in these fields. It limits women from pursuing jobs outside these jobs indicating that the right position of women is in these predefined carrier path. It also imply that the market should not hire women in other professions as they do not believe the carrier path is not appropriate for them.

Traditionally, women are considered as less competent than their male counterparts. In the movies, some of the leading female characters play roles that do not require special skills and use only their sexual identity to lead their lives. This misinform women viewer to believe that their sexual identify is powerful instrument that they can use anytime in their life rather than work hard to engage in different jobs that require skills. This will also imply both men and women to associate intellect with men and weakness and incompetence with women. In turn, the movies indirectly inform women to focus predominantly on things will make them 'beautiful' and easily give up on life challenges and men to toughen up and work hard for their dreams.

3.2.2. Behavioral Implications

The roles of women in the selected movies also show similar behavioral attributes. It indicates that women are emotional, dependent, materialistic, and sad creatures. These roles demonstrate that women should be submissive to the culturally acceptable emotional and behavioral makeups and affirms the assertion that women to be emotionally predictable. It also implies that women should rely on other individuals such as friends, families, whenever they encounter life challenges. Moreover, it also shows that women should be dependent up on men for their life challenges.

3.2.3. Normalization of sexual assaults

In the movies, there are multiple instances where women are shown to be victims of sexual harassment and violence in different settings. This suggests that sexual violence is normal happenings in women's life. Moreover, there were no instances where women characters defend their rights legally or criminals made accountable for their acts. This suggests that anybody can violate women's fundamental human rights at any time without being held legally accountable for their actions. Even though the movies attempts to showcase that sexual violence are morally unacceptable, the reaction to such behavior is normalized in Ethiopian society. It also suggests women should continue to expect sexual harassment and violence in their day to day life and get used to such acts without resisting.

3.2.4. Men as source of women's wealth

In two of the movies, women characters in this study are sex workers who relied on wealthy men to lead their life. This misleads the society to associate women's source of wealth as product of sexual affairs rather than hard work and efforts. These kinds of association and categorization can be frustrating for women as it can affect their social and economic interactions. The movie may contribute towards reinforcing the stereotypical behaviors.

3.3. Effect on Youth

The representation of women in stereotypical ways has multiple impacts on the society in general, especially on the younger generation. Children who grow watching stereotypical movies may be psychologically affected. Researches show that the behaviors of young boys and girls will be shaped by what they see on media (Ward & Aubrey, 2017). In fact, they suggest that 'gender stereotypes reinforced by the media have economic, as well as social consequences' (Ward & Aubrey, 2017). But this seems unnoticed by individuals and companies who work in the entertainment business in Ethiopia. Most interviewees in this research stated they do not think that film producers and script writers know what gender stereotypes are and how they are reflected in their products.

Now days in Ethiopian cinema, the pressure coming from the entertainment business and market calls for a specific type of movie. Most of the time, the films that cinema houses tend to choose to screen for the public are romantic comedy because, according to some cinema house managers, they believe that is what sell in the market. Often than not, most film makers knowingly or unknowingly, in an attempt to fit in to business, incorporate stereotypical roles where woman and her attributes are made fun of. The movie makers think that perpetuation of gender stereotypes and inequality will benefit them while it has negatively and immeasurably damage the perception of viewers towards women. This somehow shows that most film makers in the entertainment business are short sighted and are not capable of foreseeing the short and long term impact of their work.

Stereotypical movies create versions of womanhood that are so singular and not complex enough. This affects what people in general think of women in only limited way, whether they are empowered or not. The distorted representation of women not only affects how the society perceives women, but also how women look at themselves. This, according to participants of this

study, affects their self-esteem and how they view men in general. Moreover; it also affects young women's aspirations and career choices.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

4.1. Conclusion

Movies are an important part of mass media that portray the role of women and men. This research attempted to analyze the representation of women roles in Ethiopian movies screened in Addis Ababa Cinema houses in the year 2011 E.C.

The study identified multiple stereotypical roles of women from selected movies. In some of the movies, women leading characters were shown to have materialistic and dependent behavior with relatively less intellectual capacity. In some of the movies, women were sexually objectified and rely on their male counterparts for their life troubles. In fact women are presented as incapable of leading their own lives and so end up using their bodies as tradeoff to economically benefit them and take advantage of men. In some instances, women were portrayed having a job. But in most of the movies, if not all, they are shown to work in occupations that are traditionally known as 'women's work' such as a hair designer, modeling, and housewife. In addition to this, single women are also shown to be shamed by their families and society for not getting married. Moreover, women are presented as irrational, helpless victims of violence and sexual harassment or with some problem who simply wait for men to rescue them.

Stereotypical contents in movies have multiple impacts on viewers' perception. They reinforce stereotypical gender roles, starting from the negative perception of women in everyday life to career orientation; dreams, aspirations and expectations. They also influence the construction of women's behavior in real life. On the other hand, it plays a role in normalizing sexual assaults of women in the society. It will have influence on women's self-esteem and self-confidence as well.

The stereotypical representations of women in films also have possible impacts on young viewers. It affects not only how the society, both men and women, perceive women in general, but also how women value themselves.

4.2. Recommendations

In order to improve the representation of women in the movies, the following are recommended.

- **Make it all about market:** Since the focus of movies these days is market, it is recommended that individuals and organizations working on women encourage their members and people in their network to stop going to movies that represent women unfairly in stereotypical manner. Women, who are half of the population, can use their purchasing power to say 'NO' to stereotypes against them. This can be done by individuals or groups who write movie critique and identify certain movies in which women are represented unfairly. This perhaps inform peoples (script writers, directors, producers) in the industry to think twice before they write stereotypical roles of women.
- **More women film makers in the entertainment business:** More women need to get in to the business of film making business and write stories of women. Women script writers, producers and directors should enter in to the entertainment business and improve the representation of women by presenting the complexities of women lives from different perspectives. Moreover, women actors should be gender sensitive and be conscious of the role they are assigned to play. This will enable them to identify stereotypical roles and engage in movies that are more representative and meaningful to the society. This will contribute in changing the stereotypical narratives and produce role models where young girls can look up to.
- **Gender education in school system:** Children from young age have to be thought and made aware of gender stereotypes and its harmful effects in a society. They should be thought how dangerous stereotypes are and ways of identifying them in the day to day life. Moreover, gender sensitized curriculums should be developed from early stage to the university level that incorporate the stories and contributions of women in the country at different times. Unfair representation of women should be thought as something embarrassing and disguised. This will contribute to creation of generation conscious of unwanted stereotypes willing to fight for equality and fairness.
- **Trainings for individuals in entertainment business:** Short term and long term gender training should be provided for individuals who are currently working in the entertainment business such as script writers, producers, directors, actors, cinema owners. This will help them be aware of the existing stereotypes in the industry and help stop the unfair representation by playing their own role.

- **Fair gender representation as a standard to award movies:** Currently there are many instances where movies are awarded for their qualities with different standards. Among those standards, film awarding agencies should have gender or fair representation as criteria to evaluate movies before award. This will encourage film producers to seriously take fair gender representation as a standard before they produce any film.
- **Government banning stereotypical movies from screening in cinema:** The government should play role in identifying stereotypical movies and inform cinema owners not to display such films or discourage them from showing such movies in various ways. It should control government owned cinemas from screening stereotypical movies. It should also control the screening of these movies in different media outlets such as televisions.
- **Gender policies and laws for film making businesses:** The government shall issue laws and gender policies for different organizations working in the entertainment businesses. It should encourage organization to adapt and implement their own gender policies and discourage those organizations that do not follow the standard using means such as taxing.
- **Gender Activism-** The promotion of gender activism and media literacy will encourage men and women question the narrow representation of women in the media. Now days, social media play an important role in creating such awareness. Hence it can be used as a platform to promote gender activism and critique movies based on certain gender standards. This will put pressure on film makers to be mindful of their work and its implication on gender.

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