Issues Surrounding The Academic Efficiency Of Addis Ababa University

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1. INTRODUCTION

ue, in past, to the changing fashions in development policy, less attention given to the qualitative is improvement of the teaching staff and in the production of books, the improvement of libraries and laboratories, in the recognition of potentialities of teachers and students, and the promotion of research and inquiry. regardless of ideological Government. persuasion or economic stress, sees higher education as an important priority, and is now devoting substantial attention and resources to higher education development. With this realization as of today, higher education is given free of charge to all eligible students. Free higher education has not always been the case in almost all developing countries.

Such countries as Singapore, Malaysia, Taiwan, the Republic of Korea, Zimbabwe, Indonesia, Turkey and Nigeria (Philip G. Altbach ,1993) and the oil leading nations of the Middle East have invested a lot in higher education. But the characteristics of these nations is that their population tend to be manageable, the resource base better. Rates of economic growth have been high and in general there has been a degree of economic. and political stability. Government efficiency has permitted development plans to achieve a measure of success. These countries, and a number of others, have different ideological perspectives and certainly have their share of socio-economic problems, but they are nonetheless in a relatively good standing in terms of the development of an academic

system. The advanced developing countries also have some distinct advantages in educational terms. Their relative economic prosperity has permitted them to provide funds sufficient to build and to maintain educational institutions at all levels. Their well-developed societal infra-structures have given needed support for the growth of educational institution. Where established institution did not exist, it was possible to import appropriate technology or personnel. For example, most of . the advanced developing countries have access to computer based technologies for use in education, government and commerce. Planning has been deliberate and the relationship between the process of planning and the implementation of educational policy, and programs has been reasonably close.' The process of academic development is complex and relates to the internal realities of a country, to international knowledge network, and to historical traditions.

The Addis Ababa University established in 1951 as the university college has been a leading third level institution which has assisted in the establishment and expansion of another university in Alemaya and other colleges and training institutions. From an initial enrollment of 90 students and 12 teaching staff in 1951, it has grown to 7500 student and some 1250 teaching staff in 1995/96 (HEMD, 1991) excluding 6000 students attending evening classes. Currently, there are around sixteen colleges, faculties or schools offering post-secondary education and training to regular day students in over 30

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undergraduate degree programs, over 20 twoyear diploma programs, and over 30 graduate programs. There are five research institutes publishing nine scientific journals in different fields. Over sixty percent of post-secondary level students are enrolled at AAU, almost all being accommodated with full lodging and food services. Over eight hundred academic staff and nearly three thousand administrative staff are actively working in the university. At present AAU has its campuses located in Addis Ababa, and Debrezeit. The continuing education division of AAU offers training to over six thousand adult students through evening classes and summer in-service programs. AAU's contribution to the economic, social and cultural development of the country is no less significant. Neither is the change agent role of AAU less important in the future(Zewdie Shibre et al, 1994).

There are still opinions that university education has been irrelevant as evidenced by its urban orientation, and its lack to respond to However, community needs. university education has achieved numerous notable results. It succeeded in fairly quickly training basic staff with expertise to administer the country and provided education in scientific fields. It has also served as a means for social and occupational mobility for lower economic strata. With some tension and stress the university has expanded rapidly to meet the manifold demands placed on it. The difficulty is in obtaining measurement criteria to determine efficiency and relevance in the educational process (Agedew, 1987).

The prime objective of higher educational institutions is to enhance economic development of the country thereby to improve the living conditions of the society. This is clearly explicated in the objectives of higher educational institutions in Ethiopia in general, and Addis Ababa University in particular in its five year plan as follows: that broadly speaking, the mission of the AAU is to contribute to solving the basic problems of

development of the country through producing professionals, skilled and highly trained manpower to meet the country's labor market and wider social needs (AAU Planning Office, 1995). In its general statement, this objective pinpoints the allegiance of the university's curricula to the demands of the country. Though he agreed with this type of objective, in his polemical research outcomes against the existing higher education curricula in developing countries, Adiseshiah (1982: 25 & 27) argued that higher education curricula in the developing countries are discipline because, as in the case of such based institutions everywhere, the disciplines are a means of taking advantage of historically given fund of knowledge, of probing frontiers and penetrating them, and in the process of maintaining and raising academic standards. the disciplinary structure of However. universities and institutions of higher education in developing countries do not provide a conceptual framework within which the demands of national and international development can be met. In the same vein, the need for continuously re-examining and relating the programs of higher learninginstitutions to the dynamic needs of society is very essential. Such an undertaking helps not only make the curriculum relevant to the prevailing manpower demands of the country but also combats the problem of labor market and wastage of resources.

Adiseshiah (1982) claimed that authorities in developing countries nowadays seem to understand that in order to meet the present demands of the society and thereby to overcome social problems, there is a need to integrate the disciplinary structures that universities adhere with action or problem oriented interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, transdisciplinary structures. and Only focusing on the existing' fragments of disciplines that deal with basic knowledge areas of physical, natural and moral world would not be sufficient to the attainment of the new demands of international economic order.

This paper addresses issues related to the promotion of efficiency in the teaching/learning process in Addis Ababa University. To this end, an attempt is made to explore and analyze the challenges and problems surrounding the teaching learning scenario at Addis Ababa University. Furthermore, a comparative study of the teaching/learning situation in higher learning institutions in other developing countries is made. This exercise is hoped to help us know how close or far we are from the international standard and shed light on designing appropriate strategies of interventions in order to rehabilitate the existing teaching -learning situation at tertiary level. Obviously, Addis Ababa University, as the oldest institution for higher learning has a lot of favorable advantages against other higher learning, institutions in the country. The status of Addis Ababa University in relation to the international standards gives us an insight into the situation of other institutions in the country at large. If not for the time constraint, it would have been interesting to chart out and compare the instructional and research scenario of all higher learning institution's in the country. The main limitations of this technical paper includes that it is based on secondary data and the scope is delimited to only to major factors affecting instructional situation at Addis Ababa University. The paper briefly treats three interwoven and interdependent areas which are sought to have a direct bearing on the academic activities of higher learning institutions, vis- a- vis :

- 1..Staff Related Issues
- 2. Students Related Issues and
- 3. Instructional Facilities and Materials

2. STAFF-RELATED ISSUES

As to Onushkin (1977) each higher educational institution should concentrate in upgrading the teaching staff by introducing to modern technological and scientific developments if it wants its staffs to share current information to the students. Thus, post - experience education is the most urgent event that has to be conducted to up date the teaching staffs. regardless of their qualification.

2.1 Staff Mix by Qualification and Rank

Among several indispensable conditions for better promotion of educational qualities, the one that is considered crucial is the qualification of the academic staff. In this vein, Husain, et al (1987) stated that the quality of teaching effectiveness is assessed in the light of its qualified manpower. Thus, higher education in Ethiopia cannot be an exception. In order to fulfill the objectives set by higher learning institutions, the quality as well as the quantity of teaching staffs is of paramount importance. An assessment of the profile of the teaching staff in AAU (Planning Office, 1994/95) that is, full time academic staff, research staff with home base in the faculties and part-time instructors, reveals that 65.6 per cent of the total teaching staff have not yet acquired terminal degrees. In fact, while 23.7 per cent of the total have B.A./B.Sc. degrees, 41.9 per cent have M.A./M.Sc. degrees. The teaching staff with terminal degrees make up 33 per cent of the total teaching staff. A faculty-wise examination of this attribute has disclosed the following discrepancy. . The Faculty of Business and Economics, one of the most leading faculties in terms of student enrollment, for instance has 40.5 per cent of its full time academic staff with B.A. degrees, 78.6 per cent of the staff of the faculty have not yet acquired terminal degrees. The Faculty of Law for which there prevails a

continuously increasing number of student applicants, is significantly overwhelmed by holders of B.A. degrees that is, 73.4 per cent of the staff of the faculty have B.A. degree. The Library Science Department has a teaching staff all holding M.A. degrees. Across the faculties, the Faculty which seems to stand in a good stead in this regard is the Faculty of Medicine where by 98 per cent of the staff of the faculty have already acquired MD degrees.

Furthermore, the report of the AAU Planning Office (1994/95) indicates that out of the total full time staff, that is, academic staff in the faculties and research institutes, 50° per cent hold the ranks of assistant professor and above, while 45.8 per cent have the ranks of lecturers and below. The teaching staff with full professorial rank accounts for 4.7 per cent of the total teaching staff of the University. In the Faculty of Medicine, only 3.9 per cent of the staff holds the rank of lecturer. All the rest have the ranks of assistant professor and above. Conversely, in the Faculty of Business and Economics, 73.8 per cent of the staff hold the ranks of lecturer and below (AAU Planing Office, 1994/95). It is also important to note that a sizable number of the teaching staff are on parttime basis.

The present mix of academic staff across faculties could be a good indication that Addis Ababa University scenario is not able to retain its staff or attract qualified academic personnel. As studies indicate, among the major factors contributing to this problem are uncompetitive salary scale, shortage of staff development opportunities, lack of enabling environment to undertake research, poor administration and having political problems (Ayalew, 1995; Mekete, 1991). Seyoum in his study (1992) further confirms that the most applicable causes for brain drain to Ethiopian academicians are political instability, poor salary and poor working conditions. According to the recent practice . prevailing in the higher learning institutes, there is no set of criteria to guarantee continuity of teaching and research. This is partly due to lack of tenurship.

2.2 Class-Size

The qualification of staff only cannot be the major determinant of the quality of education. The number of students attending a class under the presentation of a lesson by a teacher also plays a crucial role. This is because of the fact that for better communication between students and teachers when a class is conducted will be effective only when students in the class are small in number. Since teaching - learning processes depend almost entirely on communication between teachers and students, the number of students in a class determines the amount and quality of knowledge imparted to and gained by the Thus, the larger the size of students. students' number in a class, the more difficult communication between the teacher and students becomes, the more the effectiveness of teaching will be hindered, and the lower the quality of education will result.

As a standard, in one class the number of students should be 40 (Hallack, 1990). This is also indicated in the Senate Legislation of Addis Ababa University (1987) stating that the normal "lecture " type of class should not exceed 40 students. However, wide variation is observed in the class sizes of freshmen courses as well as service courses offered at Addis Ababa University. Therefore, attempt shall be made to minimize the class-size at tertiary level to. allow effective communication in the learning- teaching process. At least, the limit 'set by the AAU Senate Legislation should be respected.

2.3 Student - Teacher Ratio

As to student -teacher ratio is concerned, World Bank reported a world wide statistics depending on the economic development of the countries as follows: Low income countries 18, Low middle income countries 19, Intermediate middle income countries 16 and upper middle income countries 14 (Husain, et al., 1987)

However, different researchers reported different sizes of student - teacher ratios in various countries in higher education institutions. The following table depicts the state of student - teacher ratio in some countries.

Table 1: Size of Student - Teacher 1	Ratios Among	Different	Countries
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Researcher(s)	Country	Type of Higher Education	Student -Teacher ratio	Year
Iusain, ct al., 1987)	Pakistan	Géneral	12	1977/78
	Service Service	Technical	-13	0
	Provide Provide	General	11	1981/82
Contraction of the second		Technical	17	
Sanyal & Yaici (1985)	Yemen	Total	10	1980/81
Base, Sanyal & Mukherjee (1983) *	W. Bengal	Total	32	1975/76
Sanyal & Jozefowiez (1978)	Poland	Total	10	1975/76

Though these figures portray the general average ratios for different countries, variations in universities within a country, and within a university in different faculties have been noted. For example, in Pakistan, the ratio varies from 11 in Education and Science to 40 in Commerce and 93 in Law.

According to SIDA's report, student - teacher ratio in higher education in Ethiopia for three years of academic calendar were 13:1, 13:1 and 11:1 for 1981, 1982 and 1983, respectively. On the basis of the currently available data of full-time academic staff of the various faculties of Addis Ababa University with the exclusion of the Faculty of Medicine, student/staff ratio of the faculties gave global student - staff ratio of 17:1 (AAU Planning Office, 1994/95).

Student - teacher ratios in different countries indicate the economic situations of a country that allow students to enroll and pursue their education in higher institutions of learning. And the size of student - teacher ratios most often decreases from first year through the year of graduation (Sanyal & Yaici, 1985; Husain, et al., 1987; Sanyal & Jozefowiez, 1987; Bose, Sanyal & Mukherjee, 1983). The decrease in the size was accounted for by attrition rates in the respective institutions. The review of the above reports indicate that student-teacher ratio in Addis Ababa University is favorably comparable with the ratio attributed to low income countries.

2.4 Teaching/Research Load

It is desirable to establish institutional policy to determine the workload of the academic staff assignment vis-à-vis teaching and To this effect. research. the former Commission for Higher Education issued guidelines to all institutions of higher learning regarding distribution of teaching and research loads. Accordingly, the following proportions were set : for teaching staff, 75% for instruction (teaching) and 25% for research, while for research staff 75% for research and 25 % for instruction (teaching). According to the report of the AAU Planning Office (1994/95), the instruction (teaching) load for full time academic staff is taken to be 12 credit hours per week, which is to be divided between course and research work as follows:

- (a) 9 credit hours per week for under graduate course and
- (b) equivalent to 3 credit hours of research per week;
- (c) 6 credit hours per week for graduate courses and
- (d) equivalent to 6 credit hours of research per week; and note that one lecture per week is equivalent to one credit hour/week.

To my understanding, the mix suggested above should be applied invariably in order to strengthen the link between the two interdependent components. This is also clearly indicated in the contractual agreement of each academic staff and stipulates that the duties must combine teaching and research undertakings together with other assignments. Towards this end, there should be a guideline to clearly define the interplay between research and teaching interms of maintaining load balance.

3. STUDENT - RELATED ISSUES

Despite the relative growth of students in institutions of higher learning during the last 40 years (1950 - 1989) the participation rate at this level, compared to the rest of Africa as a whole is very low. The average participation rate for Africa in 1985 was 1.1% while that of Ethiopia was less than 0.5% (Dialogue in Zaudneh et al., 1989). Even worse is that student attrition rate is very high in institutes of higher learning.

3.1 Magnitude of Attrition Rate in AAU

A multivarious reasons can be offered to explain why students discontinue their education at any educational ladder: elementary, junior, senior and higher institutions. In their nut shell, the reasons given as justifications for the termination of schooling could be personal, social, psychological, economical, academical and/or the combination of two or more of these factors. In this regard, therefore, it is hardly possible to confer all students the title or degree to which they were admitted. Because all of them would never reach, if not always is the case, the final "destination" of the programs.

Available research studies done in different countries and past experiences have indicated that at any rate, most of the time, whatever number of students are enrolled, all of them could never graduate (Sanyal & Yaici, 1985; Husain, 1987). Husain, et al. (1987) reported that in Pakistan attrition rates for general universities were, on the average, 0.54 and for technical universities they range from 0.07 to 0.18. The high rate of attrition that occurred in general universities, as Husain, et al. reasoned, is because of "the sensitivity of educational planning to the limited number of positions available for arts graduates." (Husain, et al., 1987).

In the education system of higher institutions, academic competencies or other factors that impinge upon students' academic achievements or motivation will compel students to leave or be dismissed from the institutions. Thus, attrition rates are evident, Temesgen (1991), claimed that the rate of attrition could have a relation to family background of students as well as the discrepancy of secondary and tertiary levels education system in Ethiopia. This, in some respects, was supported by Asmerome et al, (1989). The rate of attrition for Freshmen Science and Social Science faculties were reported independently also by two researchers.

Gebre-Sellassie (1993) presented the magnitude of attrition rates for freshman

students in the Social Science Faculty for the years 1980/81 - 1991/92.

Table 3 : Addis Ababa University Social Science Freshman Program 1980/81 to 1991/92 A.Y. Freshman's rate of Attrition

Academic Year	No. of Students sat for exam	Number of attrition	Rate of Attrition %
1980/81	2018	380	18.830
1981/82	1600	166	10.375
1982/83	2464	397	16.112
1983/84	2043	312	15.271
1984/85	2531	284	11.220
1985/86	1422	120	8.438
1986/87	1272	176	13.836
1987/88	1336	171	12.799
1988/89	1405	131	9.323
1989/90	1423	155	10.892
1990/91	1404	182	12.962
1991/92	1583	336	21.225
Total	20501	2810	13.706

He pointed out that the general trend of attrition rate dwindled over the years considered.

On the other hand, Temesgen (1991) reported the proportion of students who left or dismissed from Science Faculty, for whatever reasons. The data he investigated were as follows (see the table below). The conclusion reached by Temesgen was the same as that reported by Gebre-Sellassie (1993). That is, over the academic years 1980/81 - 1989/90, the magnitude of attrition rates of freshman students showed a decline.

Academic Year	Total number of students enrolled	Number of attrition	Attrition (%)
1980/81	1475	485	37.88
1981/82	906	242	26.71
1982/83	1405	345	24.77
1983/84	1073	325	30.29
1984/85	1337 .	287	21.47
1985/86	1077	249	23.12
1986/87	806	126	15.63
1987/88	793	139	17.53
1988/89	770	121	15.71
1989/90	732	96	13.11
Total	10374	2415	23.27

Table 4: Freshmen Attrition Rates in Science Faculty

Although attrition rate depends on a mass of factors, Gebre-Sellassie (1993) argued that the one that serves as a cause could be low educational and administrative facilities and/or qualities of the institutions. He goes on to say that "very high students' rate of attrition is not a mark of high academic standards and excellence but a system of fundamental problems in science, education and in the academic administration." Therefore, the quality of educational

provisions made at higher institutions are themselves responsible for the magnitude of attrition rates. When the general. profile of attrition rate assessed across all faculties of AAU, it has the following pattern:

Accordingly, the attrition rate for degree and diploma students for the year 94/95 is 17.2% and 19.4 % respectively which indeed is very high when compared with the attrition rates of other higher learning institutions.

In the following discussion, major factors which in one way or another are attributable to the high incidence of attrition and quality of education in AAU are addressed.

Table 5:	Faculty	and Program	Level for	the Regular	Undergraduate Programs	
	During	the 1993/94	Academic	Year.		

FACULTY AND PROGRAM LEVELS	ATTRITION RATES		
	Number	Percent	
Business and Economics - Degree	142	15.1	
Education - Both Levels	58	13.1	
- Degree	15	6.9	
- Diploma	43	11,7	
Language Studies - Degree	79	24.9	
Law - Degree	8	3.0	
Library Science - Both Levels	17	12.6	
- Degree	7	11.5	
Diploma	10	13.5	
Medicine - Degree	6	. 2.4	
Pharmacy - Degree	7	. 8.5	
Science - Degree	466	20.6	
- Freshman	225	21.3	
- Non-Freshman	241	20.1	
Social Science - Degree	289	21.9	
- Freshman	232	25.4	
- Non-Freshman	57	. 14.1	
Technology - Both Levels	187	. 15.6	
- Degree	148	15.0	
- Diploma	39	18.1	
Veterinary Medicine - Both Levels	. 50	19.8	
- Degree	6	5.5	
- Diploma	44	30.8	
All Faculties - Both Levels	1309	17.4	
- Degree	1173	17.2	
- Diploma	136	. 19.4	

3.2 Student Selection for Higher Education

Student who join higher education should sit for ESLCE and score at least the minimum requirement set. The entrance score is not the same from one year to another. Although the minimum university admission requirement was 2.00, the entrance ESLCE GPA has increased from 2.00 to 3.2 by 1990 to degree programs. There is no a clear criterion that it used to cut-off the entrance score of higher education. This could happen probably because of the ever increasing competition of high school students but the limited spaces of higher educational institutions to accommodate all students who got the specified ESLCE score. Thus, all competent high school student graduates cannot be placed to higher education albeit their interests to pursue their educational career.

Studies were commissioned by the former Commission for Higher Education to assess the validity and functionality of the ESLCE as a sole criteria for admission to third level institution. In addition, fragmented studies have confirmed that the predictive validity of ESLCE for learning is rather low and indicated that the dependence on ESLCE for admission and placement of students to higher learning institutions is not warranted for improved instructional efficiency for universities and colleges.

Other than the weakness of the ESLCE, there are a number of factors affecting the post secondary education. These factors have been articulated in a study conducted by the (MOE, 1986) under a title of Evaluative Research of the General Education system in Ethiopia: A Quality Study. The study revealed the following: secondary schools have no enough space, chairs text books, laboratories, libraries, clinics, assembly halls, rooms for practical teaching, audio - visual equipment, over crowded classrooms as well as limited financial resources to manage schools. In addition, secondary school laboratories and workshop equipment are not effectively utilized due to lack of qualified staff. In consequence, the students are ill prepared for third level education.

Apart from this serious problem which thwarted the educational ambitions and interests of students, those students who got. the chance to be admitted to higher education do not safely complete the programs to which they joined. As a result, attrition is a common phenomenon that ends in students' academic termination (Gebre-Sellasie, 1993, & Temesgen, 1991).

3.3 Counseling Service and Overall Academic Advisement

Better courses, better coverage, better teaching machines will never resolve our dilemma in a basic way. Only persons acting like persons in their relationships with their students can ever bring to make a dent on this most urgent problem of education (Carl Rogers in Tirussew, 1994). Students are our concern, and the core of all programs, if we do not know their nature, if we do not communicate with them, if we do not understand them, motivate and work with them it will simply be a lip service to say we teach them (Azeb and Mekonnen, 1991). The availability of inadequate student services such as guidance and counseling have compounded the problems of students to progress through the academic programs. The sources of student - stress at higher learning institutions are divergent and numerous. Among others the most pertinent include: physical environment phenomena (such as institutional facilities), individual level phenomena (such as work load quantity, i.e., too much material to learn on studying under time pressure), institutional level phenomena (such as management style helping relations) and group level phenomena (such as lack of acceptance and disagreement with class and dormitory mates). According to a report of on Mental Health and Higher Education, one of the causes of student - stress in Addis Ababa University is difficulty in one's study. Many students complain of problems in finding. preparing' formats, references. selecting reading materials etc. It is reported that some of the academic advisors refuse to cooperate when requested, others respond with out right aggression, while some are not available at all (Menelik, 1995). Therefore, there is a need to develop a mechanism by the respective departments whereby students can secure overall academic advisement whenever the need arises.

4. INSTRUCTIONAL FACILITIES AND MATERIALS

A World Bank study entitled : Policy Study, Education in Sub-Sahara Africa (1988) made articulations on a number of factors that could improve the quality of education. According to this report, the quality of teaching and research in third level institutions could be improved by the establishment and implementation of standards of provision for the full rank of vital non-salary inputs to teaching and research such as supplying libraries with multiple copies of basic text books as well as supplementary books and periodicals. To this effect, better mechanism should be created to encourage teachers and researchers to produce teaching materials and textbooks followed by supplying laboratories and workshops with consumables and material need for equipment replacement, maintenance and repair. In addition, the research infrastructure should be conducive and appropriate for the conduct of research.

4.1 Classroom Facilities

For effective teaching - learning to take place, classroom facilities must be adequately organized and conducive enough. The crux of educational quality among others heavily relies upon the environmental (both internal and external) conditions and materials of the classrooms. Whenever theoretical issues are presented in classrooms for students, it is practically proved that students get the most out of them when they are supported by teaching materials. Ventilation, lighting, sound insulation, temperature, hygrometry, and sufficient spaces for students are considered as conformity to standards of comfort for any classroom (Hallak, 1990).

He further maintained that classroom should have furniture that are comfortable and sturdy, easy to move from one point to another and can be arranged for different purposes (e.g., from formal lecture room to practice exercise in small groups or individual work). He argued that a classroom should encompass teaching materials like textbooks, guides, maps, charts, pinboard, audio-visual, cupboard, and microcomputers.

Teaching is no single thing, even when there is no lack of equipment and material. However, even without textbooks, visual aids, and other materials that appeal graphically to the understanding of a pupil, it can be challenging indeed (Hallak, 1990). This statement describes that teaching materials and other classroom situations are of paramount importance in the process of teaching and learning where lack of which result in hampering effective transmission of knowledge. Thus, the general classroom facilities are critical phenomena that should be given due attention by policy makers and other concerned authorities to achieve high educational quality (Magnen, 1991).

4.2 Teaching Facilities

The quality of education in general, and the teaching - learning process in particular depends largely not merely on the availability of materials in classrooms, but also on teaching facilities that serve as general sources of information for students as well as for teachers. In this regard, Sanyal & Yaici (1985:47) said that laboratories and libraries can be thought of as the "... pillar of the University studies and scientific research activities." They go on to say that "The availability of text books, reference books, periodicals, bibliographies, etc. is imperative for providing a creative scientific atmosphere for students and research workers.".

Regarding libraries, to be the most beneficial for academic sectors, they must be well equipped with uptodate resource materials. However, in spite of the supreme demand placed on such materials, researchers reported that there are serious problem of securing them in sufficient amount in developing countries (Sanyal & Yaici, 1985; Husain, et al., 1987). Husain, et al. (1987) made a research in higher education in Pakistan and reported that the access to update the foreign journals is very disappointing. In addition, when one looks into the distribution of the journals in different universities of the country one can observe uneven and very discrepant conditions. Some institutions have higher rate of journals while others have nil. This was asserted by Sanyal & Yaici (1985) in their study conducted in Yemen (the former People's Democratic Republic). Such problem is a common phenomenon in almost all developing countries (Husain, et al., 1987).

Although the problem of securing materials (i.e. text books and references) may not be that much serious for teaching purposes, its severity becomes apparent in research activities (Husain, et al., 1987). This could probably be true in the sense that in teaching learning processes what is presented in classrooms may usually, if not always, depend on facts and generalities. But to do research studies, recent information concerning the issue(s) under consideration is mandatory.

Similarly, laboratories are other indispensable institutions where research experiments are conducted. Shortage of tools and materials in laboratories, both in quantity and quality, was the major problem faced by universities (Sandal & Yaici, 1985). Not only shortage of tools and equipment was the major problem but the purchased items were that have not taken into account the present and future demands and patterns of university growth. At the same time, they do not take into account the nature of research works that are to be done in the universities.

Though there are no systematically conducted studies and reports on the status of the laboratories libraries. and audio-visual facilities in AAU, there is a general consensus that there are shortages of up to text books, periodicals, date materials, equipment and audio-visual facilities available for teaching-learning and research According to the proposed purposes. standards for Addis Ababa University (1990), libraries should contain the following basic minimum components : book collections (30, 000 monograph titles, 300 space for readers, for books and for technical purposes (See annex 1 for details).

The budget allocation within the AAU is done not on the basis of proposed programs and activities. For example, see below the distribution of AAU expenditures in 1994/95 (Addis Ababa University Planning Office, 1996).

Table 6: AAU's Expenditure Allocation for the year 1994/95

EXPENDITURE CATEGORIES	ALLOCATION (%)
Teaching costs	34.17
Research costs	4.04
Student services (Dean of students)	20.79
Library services	. 6.11
Adm. and overhead	34.89
Total	100.00

The bulk of the expenditure goes to administration and overheads costs which do not have any direct link to the teaching and research of the University. In contrast to the, prevailing practice in AAU, a study conducted on university rationalization in Ghana in 1988 recommends a standard expenditure categories. Accordingly, it is suggested that 21 % of a university budget should only go to the administration . Furthermore , 10% of the university budget needs to be allotted to the libraries (Annex-2 for detail).

Generally, deteriorated educational quality seem to linger on lack of teaching facilities. In this regard, Hallak (1990) discussed that much of the furniture and equipment, in all educational hierarchies of developing countries, are obsolescent that need to be replaced.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In spite of being the oldest higher learning institutions in the country, Addis Ababa University still has a number of challenges and pitfalls which militate against carrying out its academic activities effectively, that is, teaching and research. The assessment of the status of the different parameters of the instructional situations against international norms and the experiences of other developing countries reveals that there is a long way to go in order to attain the required quality of third level education. For instance, the staff mix interms of qualification and rank; student recruitment; student attrition; class student guidance and counseling; size; availability of adequate instructional materials and facilities are issues which need immediate consideration. Indeed. Addis Ababa University is more or less favorably comparable to higher learning institutions of other countries. It is presumed that the situation will be worse when one compares other institutions of higher learning in the country with the international standards. Therefore, in order to redress the third level teaching-learning and research scenario, all higher learning institutions should critically re-examine and review their status and make the necessary interventions without anv delay to enhance effective and efficient instructional conditions and research environment.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Staff - Related

- Introducing a competitive salary scale and tenurship in order to retain and attract professionals.
- Creating an enabling work environment for instruction and research through providing the necessary resources, incentives, recognition and efficient management.
- Institutionalizing a comprehensive staff development scheme in order to meet the increasing demand for quality instruction and research.
- Harmonizing the staff mix and academic qualification of staff in the respective academic departments through re-examining the field of specialization in staff development scheme as well as setting priorities of staff recruitment.
- Establishing criteria and standardized procedure for staff appraisal geared to the improvement and development of performance.
- Conducting group and interdisciplinary research and discussions across the different departments, faculties or colleges.

2. Student - Related

 Raising the quality of education at primary and secondary level for there is an obvious linkage in the quality of education at tertiary level as the reverse is also true.

- Developing a dependable entrance criteria for selecting students for institutes of higher learning as it is one of the contentious issues in the educational system in the country.
- Catering for the learners needs by providing comprehensive guidance and counseling services.
- Providing special professional back-up support for students with disabilities as well as for female students.
- Making conditions available for students in the respective departments to secure an overall academic advisement whenever the need arises.
- Preparing student's hand book which among others can enlighten them about characteristics of a university education, rules and regulations and duties and responsibilities.

- Initiating extra-curricular activities such as intra and interdepartmental discussions, field trips, clubs etc.
- 3. Instructional Facilities and Materials -Related
- Improving the non-salary inputs to teaching and research through equipping the libraries, laboratories with the necessary materials and facilities.
- Re-examining the existing budgetary expenditure categories and cutting down the administrative and overhead costs which does not compare favorably to the international standard.
- Keeping the class-size to the favored standard, that is, 40:1, so that the communication between teachers and students is effectively carried out.

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ANNEX1

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

19 March 1980

Proposed Students for Addis Ababa University Libraries

1.0 Library Budget. The current budget of the University Library is only 3.8% of the total University budget, while the normal figure among universities in other countries is 7%.

1.1 The University Library budget should, therefore, be raised to at least 6% of the total University budget.

1.2 In the case of the other University libraries, which are no strictly within the University Library System, e.g. College of Agriculture Library at Alemaya, Public Health college Library, Gondar, the budget of the library should also be at least 6% that of the parent institution.

2.0 Size of Book Collections and Professional Staff

2.1 Book Collection (to be calculated cumulatively)

2.1.1 Senior Faculties or College offering degree programs. Exclusive of textbooks, a senior faculty or college library should have a basic collection of at least

> 2.1.1.1 30,000 monograph titles, 50,000 volumes 2.1.1.2 300 periodical titles, 2,500 volumes

2.1.1.3 4,000 volumes of documents. That is, a total of 56,000 volumes of carefully chosen print and non-print materials that reflect the needs of the students and the faculty accurately. In addition to the basic collection stated above, the library should have

2.1.1.4 30 monograph titles, 50 volumes; 1 periodical title, 7 volumes; and 10 volumes of documents per faculty member (full-time equivalent).

2.1.1.5 6 monograph volumes (not titles) per student (graduate or undergraduate).

2.1.1.6 150 monograph titles, 200 volumes; 2 periodical titles, 25 volumes; and 35 volumes of documents per field of undergraduate study.

2.1.1.7 1,500 monograph titles, 2,000 volumes; 10 periodical titles, 50 volumes; and 300 volumes of documents per field of graduate study - Master's programme.

2.1.1.8 10, 000 titles, 15,000 volumes; 55 periodical titles, 200 volumes; 3,000 volumes of documents per field of doctoral study.

2.1.2 Junior Colleges. Exclusive of textbooks, a Junior or Two-year college library should have a basic collection of at least 10,000 monograph titles, 20,000 volumes, and 100 periodical titles, 1,500 volumes. That is, a total of 21,500 volumes of carefully chosen print and non-print materials that reflect the needs of the students and the faculty accurately.

In addition to the basic collection stated above, the library should have:

2.1.2.1. 20 monograph titles, 30 volumes, and 1 periodical title, 5 volumes per faculty member (full-time equivalent).

2.1.2.2 4 monograph volumes (not titles) per student full-time equivalent.

2.1.2.3 70 monograph titles, 100 volumes, and 1 periodical title, 15 volumes per subject field of study, i.e. "major" subject field in which a diploma is offered.

* Professional Staff (to be calculated cumulatively)

2.2.1 For each 500 or fraction thereof, fulltime equivalent students up to 1,500, and for each 50,000 or fraction thereof, volumes in the collection, there should be one professional librarian.

Q.2.2 For each 2,000 or fraction thereof, full-time students above1,500, and for every 5,000 or fraction thereof, volumes added to the collection, there should be one professional librarian.

3.0 Space

3.1 Space for readers. The library should have a seating capacity to accommodate at least one third of the student population at one time.

3.2 Space for books. For the first 50,000 volumes, 0.08 sq. ft. per volume, for the next 50,000 and above, 0.07 sq. ft. per volume.

3.3 Pace for technical services. For administrative activities as acquisitions, cataloguing, and for staff offices, catalogues, and files, one-fifth of the total space area needed for readers and books as calculated under 3.1 and 3.2 above should be made available.

* A professional librarian is one with a first degree in an academic degree plus a Master's degree or equivalent in Library Science.

ANNEX II

Contrary to this prevailing practice at the AAAU., a recent university rationalization study conducted for Ghana in 1988 recommends the following distribution in university expenditure on the basis of fixed percentages (In AAU Planing Office Final Report, 1996).

EXPENDITURE CATEGORIES ALLOCATION (%)

Administration	6.00%
Academic	45.00%
Library	0.00%
Academic staff & student facilities	5.00%
General education expenses	15.00%
Municipal services	15.00%
Misc.	4.00%
Total	100.00%
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