DEBRE MARKOS UNIVERSITY JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY STUDIES (DMUJIDS)

VOLUME 1 NUMBER 1

2017

DEBRE MARKOS UNIVERSITY JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY STUDIES (DMUJIDS)

Content **Page**

Local and International Advisory Board

No	Name	Location	Place of Work
1	Prof. Belay Kassa	Ethiopia	Africa Union
2	Prof. Tirusew Tefera	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa University
3	Prof. Masresha Fetene	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa University
4	Dr. Belay Simane	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa University
5	Dr. Endaweke Yizengaw	USA	Boston College
6	Prof. Demel Teketay	Botswana	Botswana Agri and Natu. Res.Univ.
7	Prof. Teshale Tibebu	USA	Temple University
8	Dr. Benjamin Zaitchik	USA	Jhon Hopkins University
9	Prof. Jonathan Patz	USA	University of Wisconsin-Madison
10	Dr. Getie Gelay	Germany	Hamburg University
11	Prof. Baye Yimam	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa University
12	Prof. Abebaw Gashaw	Ethiopia	Jimma University
13	Dr. Tilaye Gete	Ethiopia	Ministry of Education
14	Prof. Afework Kassu	Ethiopia	State Min. of Science and Technology
15	Prof. Darge Wole	Ethiopia	Addis Ababa University

GUIDELINE FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Debre Markos University, as part of its mission, is responsible not only to assist its academic staff to conduct problem solving research but also to disseminate research findings timely and appropriately. To this end, it has been publishing the research findings on annual symposium proceedings. However, the demand from the academic staff to have a scientific journal to publish their works initiates the launching of Debre Markos University Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies, (here after referred to as DMUJIDS), the first journal in the history of the University.

DMUJIDS is an interdisciplinary journal that aims to contribute knowledge to the academic world by publishing original research works from various disciplines. Our dedicated technical and editorial team members from different fields of studies ensure the quality and standard of the journal.

1. Aims and Scopes

This journal is published bi-annually and is peer reviewed, dedicated to issues in all disciplines. The journal publishes original researches and review articles in areas of agriculture, technology, science, health, business, justice and humanities. The journal addresses both theoretical and empirical problems related to the areas of study aforementioned.

2. Submission of Manuscript

Authors should read the "Instruction for Authors" section below before making a submission. Manuscript should be prepared according to the style and specifications of the journal's policy (APA style). Submission should be electronic, provided that the text, tables, and figures are included in a single Microsoft Word file in Times New Roman font. A cover letter that contains the corresponding author's full address, i.e. telephone/fax numbers, should be sent to the editor as an attachment with the file name that begins with the first author's surname. The author(s) may also suggest three to five reviewers for the manuscript, however, DMUJIDS may designate other reviewers.

The submitting (corresponding) author is responsible for ensuring that the article's publication has been approved by all the other coauthors. It is also the author's responsibility to ensure that the articles emanating from a particular institution re-submitted with the approval of the necessary institution. Authors listed on the manuscript should meet the requirements for authorship specified above. The contribution of each of the authors shall be specified.

All authors should approve the final version of the manuscript prior to submission. Once a manuscript is submitted, it is therefore assumed that all authors have read and given their approval for its submission. Only an acknowledgement from the editorial office officially establishes the date of receipt. In this regard, a manuscript number will be mailed to the corresponding author within two days. Further correspondence and proofs will be sent to the corresponding author before publication unless indicated otherwise.

3. Instructions to Authors

DMUJIDS welcomes the submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance and scientific excellence. English is the official language of the journal. Before submitting articles to the journal, authors must confirm that the submitted manuscript is their original work and it is not published or submitted to other journals concurrently. Conflict of interest should be clearly stated, the sources of data used in the development of the manuscript should be properly acknowledged, and all errors discovered in the manuscript after submission must be swiftly communicated to the editor.

3.1. Manuscript preparation guidelines

Preparation of the manuscript to be published in DMUJIDS should be made as per the following guideline.

3.1.1. Manuscript Preparation Checklist

All the articles should adopt the APA style (latest edition) and should include the following items as per their order.

3.1.2. Types of articles considered for publication in DMUJIDS

Original research papers, review articles, correspondences (letter to the editor), short communications, case reports, and new perspectives are eligible for publication in this journal.

3.1.2.1. Original Research paper

Papers should be prepared in A4 (8.27X 11.69") page size, using standard fonts with size of 12, double-space with at least 1" (2.5cm) margin all around. All pages should be numbered starting from the title page. Times New Roman fonts must be used and remain uniform throughout the text.

The authors must strictly adhere to the proper format of the journal for all sections of the manuscript. reference should be made to papers in recent issues for the general layout of the paper and also for details. For authors whose native language is not English, DMUJIDS strongly recommends serious edition of the language of their manuscripts before submission to avoid delays in receiving and processing the publication.

The manuscript should be organized in the following order:

A. Title

The title should be a brief phrase accurately describing and reflecting the contents of the paper. The title page should include the author's full names and affiliations, the name of the corresponding author along with phone, fax, E-mail information. Present addresses of authors should appear as a footnote.

B. Abstract and Keywords

The abstract should be informative and completely self explanatory. It should briefly present the topic, state the scope of the study, indicate significant data, and point out major findings and conclusions. The abstract should not be more than 300 words. Complete sentences, active verbs and the third person should be used. The tense should be in simple past. Standard nomenclature should be used and abbreviations should be avoided. No literature should be cited.

Following the abstract, about 3 to 7 keywords that may provide indexing references should be listed.

C. Introduction

The introduction should provide a clear statement of the problem, the relevant literature on the subject, and the proposed approach or solution.

D. Methodology

Materials and methods should be complete enough to allow the study to be produced. However, only truly new procedures should be described in detail; previously published procedures should be cited and important modifications of published procedures should be mentioned briefly. Methods in general use need not be described in detail.

E. Results/Findings

Results should be presented with clarity and precision. They should be explained, but largely without referring to the literature. Discussion, speculation and detailed interpretation of data should not be included in the results but should be put into the discussion section.

F. Discussion

The discussion should interpret the findings in view of the results obtained in this and in the past studies on the topic. This section can include subheadings, and when appropriate, both sections can be combined.

G. Conclusion and Recommendations

State the conclusions in a few sentences at the end of the paper. Your recommendations should be related to your discussions throughout the paper.

H. Acknowledgement

The acknowledgements (if necessary) of people, grants, funds, etc. should be brief.

I. References

Consult APA (latest edition)

3.1.3.2. Review Articles

It is expected that review articles would be written by individuals who have done substantial work on the subject. The following five types of reviews can be considered for publication in DMUJIDS.

A. Current Perspectives: These articles should provide insight into or comments on current directions of research on a topic, or they discuss potential new approaches to an area of investigation. It may include: abstracts (not more than 300 words), Keywords(3-5), up to 20 typewritten pages for the main body of the text, and minimum of 40 references.

B. Critical Reviews: These should cover a current topic of interest that has not been recently reviewed, emphasizing a critical discussion of noteworthy developments in the field; they should not be just a compendiumof studies on the topic and should not be only autobiographical. Its components are: abstract (300 words), keywords 3-5, up to 40 typewritten pages for the main body of the text, and maximum of 110 references.

C. Survey Reviews: Should be a comprehensive survey of the research on a topic that has not been recently reviewed. It includes: abstract (300 words), keywords 3-5, up to 70 typewritten pages for the main body of the text, and maximum of 320 references.

D. Forum Mini reviews : One set of reviews is put together by an organizer(s) on a particular topic; each set is composed of a maximum of 6 mini review articles and a preface. It covers: abstract (200 words), keywords 3-5, up to 15 typewritten pages for the main body of the text, and a maximum of 30 references.

E. Recent Techniques (in any area): The purpose of these review is to introduce recently developed techniques worldwide. These articles should be written in sufficient scientific detail and format to explain the characteristics of the techniques. It contains: abstract (250 words), key words 3-5, up to 70 typewritten pages for the main body of the text, and a maximum of 300 references.

The journal expects contributors to give post-publication updates on the subject of review. The update should advance in the field after the publication of the article and should be sent as a letter to the editor.

3.1.3.3. Correspondence (Letter to the Editor)

These should be short and decisive observations. The journal will occasionally consider publishing letters to the editor from readers and authors in the "Correspondence" section. Letters should be comments and clarifications on articles that have recently been published in this journal and be in concise form. They should preferably be related to articles previously published in the journal or they should not be preliminary observations that need a later paper for validation. The letter could have up to 700 words, and it could be generally authored by not more than four authors.

3.1.3.4. Short communications

Short communications should present a complete study that is limited in scope than is found in full-length papers. The items of manuscript preparation listed above apply to short communications with the following differences: abstracts are limited to 100 words; main body of the text of these communication should be not more than 2,000 words that normally occupy four journal pages and without any subheadings; manuscripts should not contain more than two figures and/or tables; maximum of 15 references and 2-4 keywords or short phrases for indexing should be mentioned

3.1.3.5. Case reports

New, interesting and rare case can be reported. They should be unique, describing a great diagnostic or therapeutic challenge for the readers. Cases with clinical significance or implications will be given priority.

The manuscript could be up to 1000 words (excluding references and abstracts). These reports should have the following headings: abstract (150 words), key-words (3-5 words), introduction, case report, discussion and reference (maximum 12).

3.1.3.6. New perspectives

Newly detected diagnostic method, new drug or indication, any new finding or anything still under research which is going to be available can be discussed here. Word count should be maximum of 800, eight references, two table/figures and four authors.

3.1.4. Manuscript Submission Process

As part of the submission process, authors are required to check off their submission's compliance with all of the requirements stated in this guideline. Submissions which do not adhere to this guideline will not be considered.

3.2 Research Ethics

Studies involving human subjects should be conducted according to the World Medical Association (WMA) Declaration of Helsinki-Ethical Principles for Medical Research Involving Human Subjects. Studies involving animals should follow appropriate ethical guidelines such as the Animal Welfare Act, The Animals Act (Scientific Procedure) order 1993, the EU parliament directive on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes, ARRP policies and guidelines.

SURFACE WATER POTENTIAL ASSESSMENT OF WABISHEBELE BASIN, ETHIOPIA

Kindie Engdaw[1]

[1] Department of Hydraulic and Water Resources Engineering, Debre Markos University
Email: engdawkindie @yahoo.com;

Abstract

The objective of this study was to quantify the surface water resource potential of Wabishebele River Basin using soil and water assessment tool (SWAT). The SWAT model was successfully calibrated and validated for measured stream flow at Gode gauging station. Flow calibration gives coefficient of determination (R2) and Nash-Sutcliffe simulation efficiency (ENS) of 0.70 and 0.82 respectively. Flow validation gives 0.70 and 0.87 for R2 and ENS values respectively. Model performance evaluation statistics (R2 and ENS) values were in the acceptable range. Therefore, the SWAT model yields average annual runoff of 3.67 Billion m3 at Gode stream gauging station.

Keywords: Calibration, surface water, SWAT, validation, Wabishebele basin;

1. INTRODUCTION

Water, like the air we breathe, is a basic requirement for all life on Earth. It is vital for many aspects of economic and social development, e.g., for energy production, agriculture, domestic and industrial water supply, and it is a critical component of the global environment. There is growing awareness that development, including development of water resources, must be sustainable, which implies that the world's natural resources must be managed and conserved in such a way that meeting the needs of present and future generations.

Water is the most complex natural resource correlating its availability from the atmosphere to lithosphere through hydrosphere. The availability of water is highly uneven in space and time. Improper assessment of water resources is potentially disastrous (Fekadu, 1999). For instance, under estimation of flood can lead to overtopping of dam and consequent failure of its structure. On the other hand, for projects where water potential is overestimated, the system may not come to a position to fill up to the full reservoir level.

Water-resources information is useful for regional and national assessments of water availability. Therefore, collection and analysis of long term hydrological and meteorological data like rainfall, runoff, infiltration characteristics,temperature, humidity, wind-speed and others for the area are essential.

A systematic assessment of water resources availability with high spatial and temporal resolution is essential in basin for strategic decision-making on water resource related development projects. Hence, a comprehensive understanding of hydrological processes in the watershed is a pre requisite for successful water management and environmental restoration.

Wabishebele River Basin is the largest basin in Ethiopia' with low water resources' potential, very little of which has been developed for agriculture, hydro power, industry, water supply and other purposes. Apparently, there has not been any in-depth study done to address surface water potential in the basin with up-to-dated information and suitable methods. River flow data are limited to the upstream and rarely available to downstream part of the basin as there are no evenly distributed hydrometric stations, large areas lack gauging stations, and only a few years of data are available.

The basin water resources are under pressure by increasing population, new infrastructure and new large scale irrigation projects development. Therefore, determination of the surface water potential of the basin is fundamental to sustainable water allocation and conflict management (Adane, 2009).

The general objective of this study was to come up with better estimates of available surface water which are key tools to sustainable water management.

In the Wabishebele River Basin, Integrated Master Plan Study carried out over years with different Phases. In the master plan the total mean annual flow from the river basins is estimated at about 3.49 BMC.

Many studies have successfully applied the SWAT model in Ethiopia, on different river basins.

Examples include, among others: calibration of the SWAT model on the Nile basin, the Awash basin and the Omo gibe Basin. However there are no published works on the application of the SWAT model on the Wbishebele River Basin.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Study Area Descriptions

Wabishebele river basin is situated between 4045'N to 9045'N latitude and 38°45'E to 45°30'E longitude. Wabishebele river basin has an area of 188,320 square kilometer, covering parts of the. Somalia, Oromia, Harari and a small area at the source of the Wabi River in South Nations Nationalities and Peoples (SNNPE)

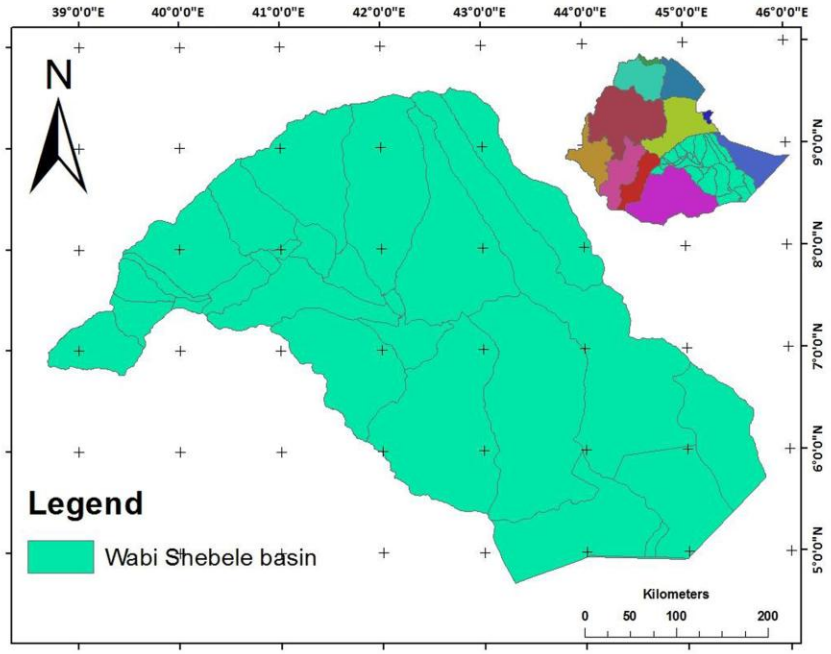

Figure 1: Location map of Wabishebele Basin, Ethiopia

2.2. Method

Meteorological, hydrological and spatial data were prepared as per the requirement of the model and SWAT model application was followed with calibration and validation after re-adjusting the model parameter at sub catchment. The model computes the surface flow of the Wabishebele River Basin.

The Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) model (Neitsch, 2005) is a distributed parameter and continuous time simulation model. The SWAT model has been developed to predict the response to natural inputs as well as the manmade interventions on water and sediment yields in un-gauged catchments (SCS, 1972). The SWAT model is a long-term, continuous model for watershed simulation. It operates on a daily time step and is designed to predict the impact of management on water, sediment, and agricultural chemical yields. Major model components include weather, hydrology, soil temperature, plant growth, nutrients, pesticides, and land management. The model has been validated for several watersheds. In SWAT, a watershed is divided into multiple sub-watersheds, which are then further subdivided into unique soil/land-use characteristics called hydrologic response units (HRUs). The water balance of each HRU in SWAT is represented by four storage volumes: snow, soil profile, shallow aquifer and deep aquifer. Flow generation, sediment yield, and non-point-source loadings from each HRU in a sub watershed are summed, and the resulting loads are routed through channels, ponds, and or reservoirs to the watershed outlet.

Thus, the lumped conceptual model selected for use in this study is SWAT 2005. It is chosen because it suits the interfaces of Arc GIS 9.3, which is not difficult for the classification of spatial data, the most versatile and ease of use

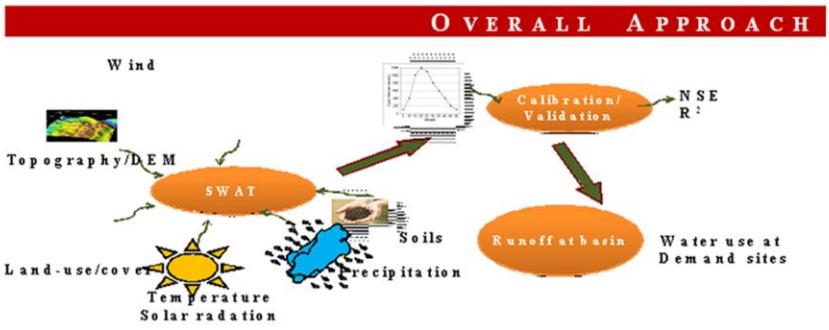

Figure 2: Conceptual frame works

2.2.1. Input data/database

Data was collected from various sources Ministry of water, Irrigation & Electricity, Ethiopian Mapping agency, National Meteorological agency and some literature. The following basic primary and secondary data sets were necessary for the modeling work: Meteorological (rainfall, temperature, relative humidity and solar radiation), hydrological data and spatial data (topographic map, soil, land use/cover, digital model (DEM)) and were prepared as per the requirement of the model.

2.2.2. Swat Model parameterization

Watershed delineation

The watershed delineation interface in Arc-View is separated into live sections including model Set Up, Stream Definition, Outlet and Inlet Definition, Watershed Outlet(s) Selection and Definition and Calculation of Sub basin parameters. In order to delineate the networks sub basins, a critical threshold value is required to define the minimum drainage area required to form the origin of a stream.

After the initial sub basin delineation, the generated stream network can be edited and refined by the inclusion an outlet. Adding an outlet at the location of established monitoring stations is useful for the comparison of flow concentrations between the predicted and observed data. Therefore, one sub basin outlet was manually edited into the watershed based on known stream gage location that had sufficient stream flow data available from 1976-2005.

Hydrologic response unit definition

Hydrologic response units (HRUs) are lumped land areas within the sub - basin that comprised of unique land cover, soil and management combinations. HRUs enable the model to reflect differences in evapotranspiration and other hydrologic conditions for different land covers and soils. The runoff was estimated separately for each HRU and routed to obtain the total runoff for the watershed. This increases the accuracy of inflow prediction and provides a much better physical description of the water balance, the land use and the soil data in a projected shape file format. These shape files were loaded into the SWAT interface to determine the area and hydrologic parameters of each land-soil category simulated within each sub-watershed. The land cover classes were

defined using the look up table. A look-up table that identifies the 4-letter SWAT code for the different categories of land cover/land use was prepared so as to relate the grid values to SWAT land cover/land use classes. After the land use SWAT code was assigned to all map categories, calculation of the area covered by each land use and reclassification were done. As for the land use, the soil layer in the map was linked to the user soil data base information by loading the soil look-up table and reclassification was applied for it. The DEM data used during the watershed delineation was also used for slope

Weather data definition

Available meteorological records (i.e. precipitation, relative humidity, minimum and maximum temperature, solar radiation and wind speed) and locations of meteorological station were prepared based on SWAT CN table format The applicability of the model for intended purpose should be evaluated through the process of sensitivity analysis, calibration and validation (White and Chaubey, 2005) for further analysis of the result. After the model setup has been completed, the model was run and the simulation result was analyzed.

Sensitivity analysis evaluates the influence of different parameters on simulation result, the response of output variable to a change in input parameter (White and Chaubey, 2005) Sensitivity analyses were conducted using the entire flow parameters. In this research, model sensitivity and calibration were performed using the output of SWA T-CN method. A SWAT model was calibrated and validated on a monthly basis to estimate the flow using a time series dataset of 10 years from 1990 to 2000 and only a

classification. After the reclassification of the land use, soil overlay operation was performed.

The second step in the HRU analysis was the HRU definition. The HRU distribution in this study was determined by assigning multiple HRU to each sub-watershed. In multiple HRU-definition, a threshold level was used to eliminate minor land uses, soil or slope classes in each sub – basin. Land uses, or soils which cover less than the threshold level were eliminated. Soil was reapportioned so that 99.93% of the land area in the sub- basin is modeled. The threshold levels set is a function of the project goal and amount of detail required and integrated with the model using weather data input wizards. Gode meteorological station data were used as weather generator.

2.2.3. Sensitive analysis, calibration and validation

few years of data are available. The first year of the modeling period was used for model “warm-up". Data for the period 1991 to 1996 were used for calibration and the remaining part of the dataset was reserved for validation. The watershed was subdivided into 15 sub basins based on a chosen threshold area of 700,000 ha. The overlay of land use, soil and slope maps resulted in the definition of 270 HRUs. The simulated stream flow at the outlet of the watershed gauging station was compared with the observed stream flow.

Stream flows, measured at Gode stream gauges were used for calibrating and validating the model. This stream gauge is not affected by reservoirs, diversions, or return flows that is why it was selected for model calibration and validation.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Stream flow calibration and validation

Model calibration involves adjustment of parameter values of models to reproduce the observed response of the Wabishebele basin within the range of accuracy specified in the performance criteria. After the sensitive parameters were identified using sensitivity analyses, a combination of manual and automatic calibration method were used to calibrate the model using the observed monthly stream flow for a flow calibration period (1991-1996). Calibration resulted in Nash-Sutt cliffe simulation efficiency (ENS) of 0.81 and correlation coefficient (R2) of 0.70 showing a good agreement between measured and simulated monthly flows. The result has shown in table below also indicated that model was calibrated satisfactorily to simulate monthly stream flows adequately. The calibration result demonstrates the SWAT's ability to predict steam flow.

Some stream flow events are still not completely represented by the calibrated modeled. This may be due to inaccurate representation of the spatial distribution of precipitation within the watershed by the available rain gages used as model input.

Table 1: Calibrated and default SWAT parameter value

No.	Parameter	Description	Initial value	Calibrated value
1	Alpha_Bf	Baseflow alpha factor	0.00	0.00
2	Biomix	Biomass	0.20	0.20
3	Ch_K2	Effective hydraulic conductivity in main channel alluvium	0.00	0.00
4	Cn2	Moisture Condition of Curve Number	94.00	57.00
5	Epco	Plant uptake Compensation Factor	0.00	0.00
6	Esco	Soil Evaporation Compensation Factor	0.90	0.31
7	Gw_Delay	Groundwater Delay	31.00	31.00
8	Gw_Revap	Groundwater Reavap Coefficient	0.02	0.02
9	Gwqmn	Threshold Water Depth in the Shallow Aquifer for Flow	0.00	5000.00
10	Revapmn	Water in shallow aquifer	1.00	1.00
11	Sol_Alb	Soil albedo	0.13	0.13
12	Sol_Awc	Available Water Capacity of the soil layer	0.15	0.10

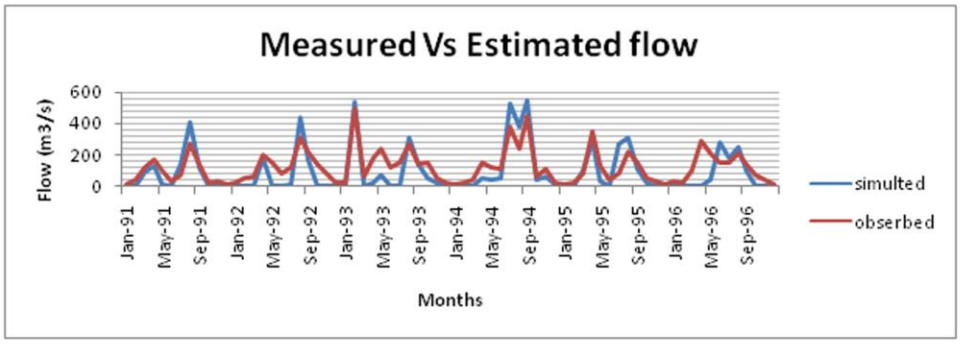

Figure 3: Monthly Measured Vs Estimated flow

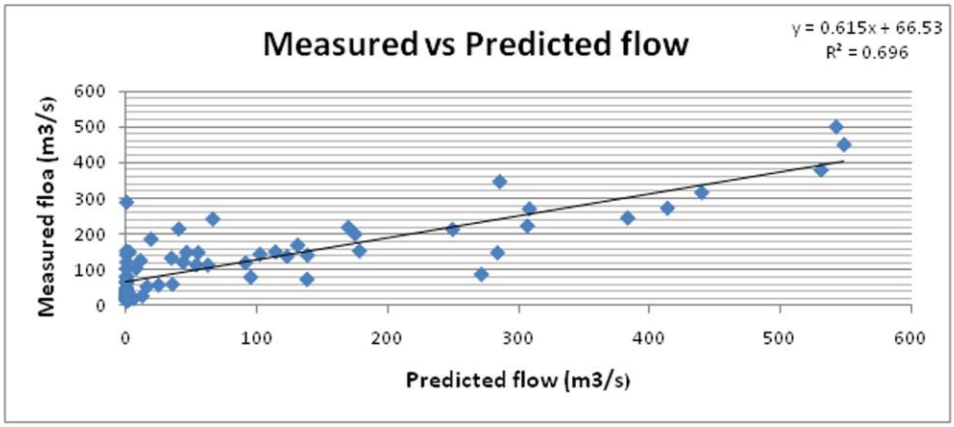

Figure 4: Monthly measured vs. estimated flow, calibration

In order to utilize any predictive watershed model for estimating the effectiveness of future potential management practices the model must be first calibrated to measured data and should then be tested (without further parameter adjustment) against an independent set of measured data. This testing of a model on an independent data set is commonly referred to as

model validation. Model calibration determines the best or at least a reasonable, parameter set while validation ensures that the calibrated parameters set perform reasonably well under an independent data set. Provided the model predictive capability is demonstrated as being reasonable in both the calibration and validation phase. The model can be used with some confidence for future predictions under somewhat different management scenarios (Kassa, 2009)

Calibrated parameters were validated for the period of (1997-2000) and the model results are then compared with observed stream flow values measured at Gode gauging station

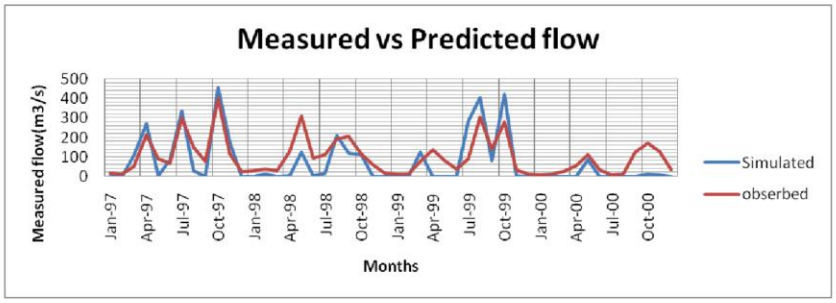

Figure 5: Monthly measured vs. estimated flow, validation

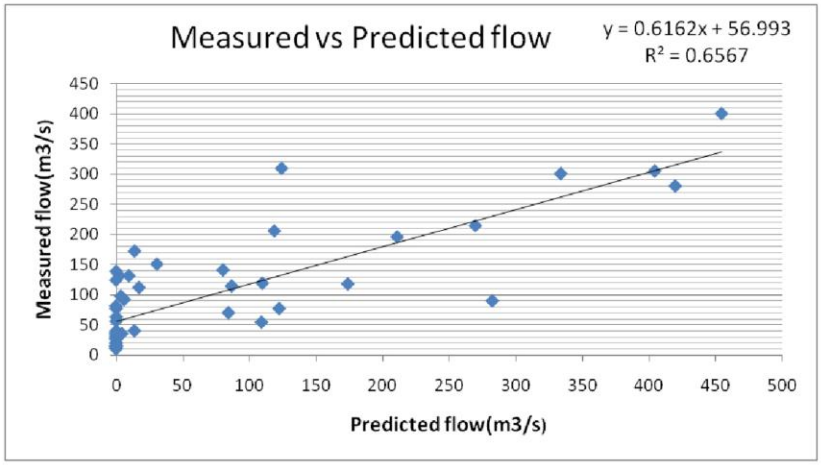

Figure 6: Measured Vs Predicted flow

3.2. Output of the model/stream flow simulation

After compiling all data, several simulations were carried out. The model computes the surface flow of the Wabishebele River Basin, the flow rate, the pick runoff rate, potential and actual evapo-transpirations, and water yield, some of the simulated parameters were compared with their corresponding measurements available in the existing master plan of Wabishebele River Basin.

Table 2: Comparison between model annual output and previous study in the master plan

Parameters	Own result	Previous result	Remark
Surface runoff(BM^3)	3.765	3.49	
Rainfall(mm)	468.1	425	
Actual evapo-transpiration(mm)	374.2		
Potential evapo-transpiration(mm)	1503.1	1500	
Water yield (BM^3)	3.154		
Area (km^2)	188818.89	200000	

Water yield (mm H2O) is the net amount of water that leaves the sub basin and contributes to stream flow reach during the time step. Surface runoff contribution to stream flow during time step (mm H2O) for each sub basin spatially clearly shown in the following figure.

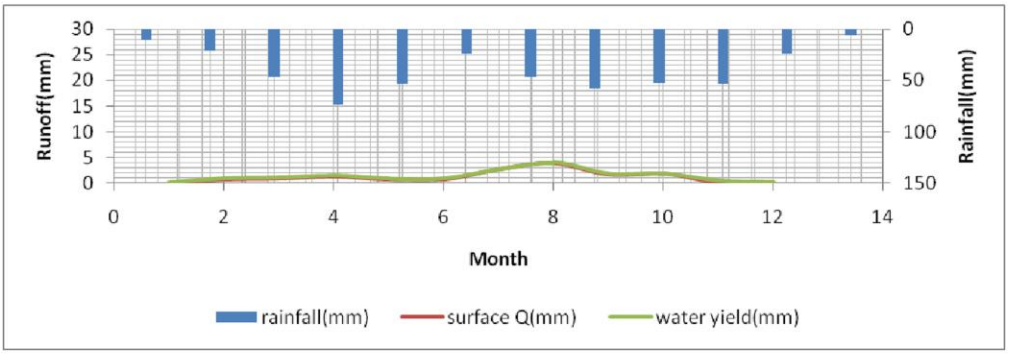

Figure 7: Monthly rainfall, runoff and water yield of the basin

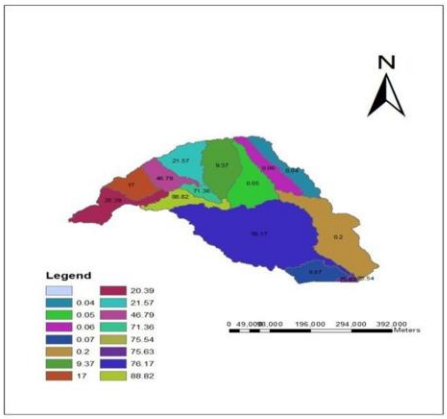

Figure 8: Surface runoff results for each sub basin

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

Sensitivity analysis is performed to select important model parameters. Both manual and automatic calibration was performed for stream flow using measured data at Gode gauging station for a period of 1991 -1996. The result has shown that the model performed well with ENS and R2 of 0.81and 0.70 respectively. The model was validated for the stream flow for the period of 1997-2000. The model performed well for monthly time steps with ENS and R2. 0.87 and 0.65 respectively. The simulate basin yield at the gauging station is 3.154 BM3.

In general, the SWAT model performed well in predicting the flow from the study watershed and its simulation results were acceptable. Therefore, it is a capable tool for further analysis of the hydrological responses in the watershed.

The calibrated model can be used for further analysis of surface water potential and to investigate the effect of different management scenarios on stream-flows in the watershed.

Data quality and availability should be stressed much more while using distributed hydrological models. The applications SWAT 2005 models were very challenging and a lack of appropriate data was one of the biggest concerns throughout. Without proper data, model implementation is very difficult.

The use of new data gathering techniques should be envisaged for developing countries so that local and regional authorities can be involved in integrated and coordinated data compilation.

A complete study should also take into consideration of integrating other factors such as existing infrastructure development within Wabishebele basin, industrial growth in the basin, and the groundwater recharge within the basin to produce more realistic water resources / availability scenarios.

Further runoff data from field sized plots for dominant land use / cover types in the watershed may help to characterize and validate generation mechanism as well as for better improvement to the model

REFERENCES

Adane, A. (2009). Hydrological drought analysis -occurance, severity, risks: the case of wabishebele river basin, Ethiopia. Msc Thesis. Univerisity of Siegn.

Fekadu, M. (1999). Conceptual rainfall-runoff models for different time steps with special consideration for semi-arid and arid catchmen. Vrije Universiteit Brussel.

Kassa, T. M. (2009). Watershed Hydrological Responses to Changes in Land Use and Land Cover, and Management Practices at Hare Watershed, Ethiopia. Msc Thesis. Universtiy Siegen.

Nash, J. (1970). River flow forecasting through conceptual models: Part I. A discussion of principles. *Journal of Hydrology* 10(3): 282−290.

Neitsch SL, A. J. (2005). Soil and Water Assessment Tool, Theoretical Documentation: Version 2005. Temple, TX. USDA Agricultural Research Service and Texas A&M Blackland Research Center, 2005.

SCS. (1972). National Engineering Handbook, Section 4, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

White and Chaubey. (2005). Sensitivity analysis, calibration, and validations for a multisite multivariable SWAT model. *Journal of . American Water Resource Association.*, 41(5): 1077–1089.

THE ROLE OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISOR IN PROMOTING INSTRUCTION, CURRICULUM AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT: BENISHANGUL GUMUZ REGIONAL STATE METEKEL ZONE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN FOCUS

Alem Amsalu Gashe[1]

[1] Debre Markos University, Institute of Educational and Behavioral Sciences, Department of Education

E-mail: alemamsalu96@gmail.com

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to scrutinize the role of instructional supervisors in secondary schools of Benishangul Gumuz Regional state in Metekel Zone, and thereby suggest possible remedies for the improvement of the practice. Descriptive survey design was used to undertake the study. Empirical evidences were collected from 135 sample teachers and supervisors. The sample schools were selected from five woredas, namely Mandura, Bullen, Dibati, Manbuck and Pawe. Simple random and purposive sampling techniques were used as the main sampling procedures. Questionnaire, interview and focused group discussions were the instruments used for gathering data. Quantitative data were analyzed by using percentage and mean, whereas qualitative data were analyzed through narrations. Accordingly, the following findings were revealed: teachers were not frequently supervised by their preferred supervisors and supervisors were not adequately carrying out their roles and responsibilities in area of instruction, curriculum and staff development activities. Another most conspicuous result was that the practice was not being implemented in a way that it achieves the pillar purpose of instructional supervision. Moreover, the supervisory practice has suffered from the following problems: supervisors lack of adequate educational experience, lack of interpersonal or human relation skills, lack of technical skills, inadequate training provision for supervisors, lack of commitment, willingness, and interest; teachers perceptions such as perceiving supervision as fault finding and instrument of controlling their activities; classroom observations were merely served for appraisal and fulfilling formalities. In conclusion, the practices do not seem a positive force/motivation for teachers to benefit from it and is accompanied by many problems. In due course, it could lead to teachers' dissatisfaction towards the supervisory practice. In light of these findings the following recommendations shall be useful: firstly, open and genuine discussion between supervisors and teachers has to be made on the purpose and procedures of classroom visitations. Secondly, the classroom visitation has to be conducted as frequently as possible to bring about instructional improvement through developing mechanisms of peer supervision and hence, supervisors are recommended to initiate, arrange and facilitate conditions for undertaking peer supervision. Lastly, provision of training, orientation, guidance and awareness raising conferences shall be arranged at different level for both supervisors and supervisees to bring about improved practice.

Keywords: Curriculum development, Instructional development, Instructional supervision, Staff development

1. Introduction

1.1. Background of the study

Educational organizations have one important business, that is to instruct or educating its pupil. Everything in school system is designed for the ultimate purpose of stimulating student learning growth. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) points out that the essential purpose of school system is the education of all students to high level through high quality so that they use their minds well, become productive and responsible citizens. Achievement of high quality learning demands strong and combined effort of stakeholders working in the system. In this regard, supervision is destined to play key role to bring all efforts of stakeholders together to achieve their school mission. The Dictionary of education has defined supervision as the effort of designated school officials directed toward providing leadership to teachers and other educational workers in the improvement of instruction, involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, the selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of instruction and methods of teaching, and the evaluation of instruction (in Harris 1963). Unruh and Turner (1970) saw supervision as a social process of stimulating, nurturing, and appraising the professional growth of teachers and the supervisor as prime mover in the development of optimum conditions for learning for adults. Writer like Harman (in Spear 1955) found three distinguishable concept of supervision: 1) a cooperative educational service, concerned with identifying and solving problems related to teaching and learning; 2) the in-service training of teachers; and a scientific enterprise concerned with evaluating and improving the instructional program of the school. Spear (1955), further explained that a good supervisory program works for the welfare of the people, the effort is being expanded by; 1) helping teachers as individual and as group with their instructional problems; 2) coordinating the total instructional effort in to a well balanced program; 3) providing proper conditions for the continuous in-service growth of teacher, supervisor and administration, and 4) developing proper and adequate instructional materials. As can be understood from different scholars in the field the general concept of supervision can be considered as any services for teachers that eventually results in improving instruction, learning, and the curriculum. It appears to suggest that the overall emphasis of supervision

needs to be on teaching learning situation. Thus, supervision should consist of positive, dynamic, and democratic actions designed to improve instruction through the continued growth of all concerned individuals.

Especially, in a situation where the staff members are not adequately qualified, experienced and where instructional and curricular materials are scarce, the role of supervisors becomes very important. In line with this, Mohanty (1990) indicated the supervisory services are destined to play an important function in deciding the nature and content of curriculum materials, in selecting the school organizational patterns and learning materials, in facilitating teaching, in giving guidance for professional growth of teachers and making new experiments, and in evaluating the entire educational process. In addition, Glickman et al. (2004) points out that without a strong, effective, and adequately staffed program of supervision an effective school is, unlikely to result. Supervision of instruction is seen as the glue to successful school. The glue is the process by which some person or group of people that is responsible for providing a link between individual teacher needs and organizational goals so that individuals in the school can work willingly in harmony withthe vision of what school should be (in Gentry 2002).

There are three large domains or territories within which supervision of instruction works, such domains are instructional development, curriculum development, and staff development and the four primary roles of the supervisor within those domains are coordinator, consultant, group leader, and evaluator. Instructional development involves what teachers perform in the instructional process and the leadership role that supervisors should exercise to help teachers perform their tasks of teaching effectively. Emphasizing this, Mohanty (1990) indicated that supervisors are mainly responsible to help teachers plan their instruction, supervises the actual classroom teaching, methods followed, audio visual aids used to make teaching interesting and effective, and evaluates the efficiency of teachers as well as the progress and standards of students. Curriculum constitutes all the educative experience that comes under the direction and control of the school. Curriculum development as defined by Harris (1963) is therefore, a task of supervision directing activities towards designing or re-designing that which is to be taught, by whom, when, where and in what pattern. Glikman et al. (2004) defined curriculum development as the revision and modification of the content,plans, and materials of classroom instruction.

Staff development involves well organized in-service programs like seminar, workshop, conference and school based discussions. In this regard, Glickman et al. emphasized that any experiences that enlarges a teacher's knowledge, appreciation, skills and understanding of his/her work falls under the domain of professional development. The role of instructional supervisor here, therefore, is much more to initiate staff members, plan, and facilitate conditions making appropriate decisions and deliver effective staff in-service programs.

Despite the fact that instructional supervision has a paramount role in improving instructional processes, the effectiveness of supervisory practices has been hampered by many factors in school. For instance, Goldhammer et al. (1980), concluded "teachers dislike being subject of supervision. They tend to perceive supervision as inherent in the administrative hierarchy and to see the supervisor as being somewhat of a threat. Therefore, the perception of teachers toward instructional supervision is one major factor that determines the effectiveness of supervisory practices. Glickman et al. (2004) in his part has indicated, for those in supervisory role, the challenge to improving students learning is to apply certain knowledge, interpersonal skills and technical skills to the tasks of instructional supervision that will enable teachers to teach in collective and purposeful manner. Furthermore, researchers like Amberber, 1975, Fekadu, 1992 and Zawdneh 1987 (in Haile, 2010) pinpointed the following problems that Ethiopian supervision practices faces. Some of the problems are: teachers have negative attitude toward the supervisory program, supervisor do not apply the principles and techniques they learned, supervisor lack skills in human relationships while working with teacher, and lack of necessary facilities for supervisors. Having all this issue in mind, this study was therefore, designed to scrutinize the extent of the role of instructional supervisor in enhancing instruction, curriculum and staff development in secondary schools.

1.2. Objective of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the current practice of instructional supervisors' in secondary schools of Metekel zone in Benishangul Gumuz regional state. The study has the following specific objectives.

- To examine the frequency of supervisory support and teachers preferences of by whom they want to be supervised
- To identify teachers view toward the current supervisory service rendered to them with respect to promoting three domains (instruction, curriculum and staff development).

- To scrutinize the views of supervisor in evaluating their supervision practice in relation to three domains (instruction, curriculum and staff development).
- To identify the major problems encountered in rendering supervisory services.

1.3. Significance of the Study

This study could be beneficial to all school stakeholders particularly in the study area. Woreda education office, supervisors, school boards, principals and faculty members could be the beneficiaries from this study. Firstly, the study help enable those involved in supervision practice to evaluate their practice; secondly, it could help supervisors to know the needs and expectations of teachers in professional support, and hence, adjust their practice in line with the needs and expectations of teachers; thirdly, it could be useful for woreda education office, supervisors, school boards, principals and faculty members in their efforts to improve instruction may be by facilitating and organizing need based trainings, workshops and seminars. Finally, this study may encourage others to study the issue in detail and wider scope.

2. Research Methods

Descriptive survey design was used to deal with the research questions in the study. The major objective of the study was to investigate the current practice of instructional supervisors' in secondary schools. Hence, it was believed that this design could provide a description of current practices, trends, attitudes or opinions about the issue under investigation.

2.1. Population, Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

The target populations of the study were all teachers and supervisors in secondary school of Metekel Zone Benishangul Gumuz Regional State. Metekle zone has seven woredas. From these woredas the researcher selected five woredas as the sample of the study through random sampling. In these sample woredas there are twelve (12) secondary schools, of which (8) were included in the study through random sampling. Teacher and supervisor participants were selected through simple random and purposive sampling techniques respectively from the sample schools. The distribution of population and sample of the study in each selected sample secondary school is show here below.

Table 1: The distribution of population and sample population in each selected sample secondary school.

No	Sample schools	No of teachers	Sample population		
			50% Teachers	Supervisors	Total
1	Bullen prepara. and secondary school	46	20	6	26
2	Dibati prepara. and secondary school	34	14	6	20
3	Mandura secondary school	18	6	6	12
4	Pawe k2v2 secondary school	14	4	6	10
5	Pawe k2v7 secondary school	30	12	6	18
6	Pawe Prepara. and secondary school	34	14	6	20
7	Manbuck prepa and secondary school	26	10	6	16
8	Gallessa prepa. and secondary school	21	8	6	13
	Total	223	87	48	135

Note: *Supervisors are those involved in rendering supervision services including principals, vice principals, department heads, and unit leaders. Those involved in supervision were not taken in to account while selecting teacher participants.*

2.2. Instruments

The major instruments used in gathering the data in the study were questionnaire, interview, and focused group discussions. Questionnaire comprising both open and closed ended items were used in this study. Part one of the questionnaire section dealt about participants' demographic background information and research question one. In part two of the questionnaire, questions using five point likert scale were developed so as to answer research question two, three, and four to elicit evidences about how the role of instructional supervisors were carried out in promoting instructional, curriculum and staff development, and major problems related with supervision practices. Open ended questions were prepared to allow participants to express their general perceptions, understandings and views toward instructional supervision in enhancing instructional, curriculum and staff development and problems related to instructional supervision practice. Semi structured interview was conducted so as to elicit an in-depth information about the participants point of view, thoughts, reasoning and feelings about the issues under the study. Interview was held with 6 principals and 16 department heads. Focus group discussion was used to generate rich understanding of the issues under study. In focus group the researcher used the same questions used in the interview and open ended questions. Focus group discussion was made with 21 teachers.

2.3. Data Analysis

Tabularizations and charts were used as the medium of data presentation. Descriptive statistical computations such as percentage and mean were used to analyze the data obtained from closed ended questionnaire. Data obtained from interview and focused group discussions were analyzed qualitatively to substantiate questionnaire data.

3. Results of the Study

3.1.Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The data presented were collected through questionnaire, interview and focus group discussion method. One hundred thirty five (135) copies of questionnaires were distributed for respondents, 87 for teachers and 48 for those involved in supervision (principals, vice principals and department heads). Out of these, 82 and 45 teachers and
supervisors respectively were returned the questionnaire. Information gathered through interview, open ended questions, and focused group discussions were used to substantiate the analysis and interpretation of data obtained through questionnaire. Respondents characteristics were examined in terms of sex, age, experiences and qualifications based on the response to the request for personal background information. The analysis and interpretations are presented in the table here under.

Table 2: Characteristics of respondents

Variables	Characteristics	Respondents			
		Teachers (N=82)		Supervisors (principles, vice principals and department heads) (N=45)	
		N	%	N	%
Sex	M	74	85.05	39	81.25
	F	8	9.19	6	12.5
	Total	82	94.23	45	93.75
Age in year	< 25 Years	25	28.73	8	16.66
	26-30 years	35	40.22	15	31.25
	31-40 years	14	16.09	16	33.33
	41-49 years	7	8.04	6	12.5
	50 and above	1	1.14	_	_
	Total	82	94.23	45	93.75
Work experience in current position	< 5 years	38	43.67	26	54.16
	6-10 years	25	28.73	16	33.33
	11-20 years	13	14.94	3	6.25
	21-30 years	4	4.59	_	_
	31 and above	_	_	_	_
	Total	82	94.23	45	93.75
Qualifications	Certificate	_	_	_	_
	Diploma	4	4.59	1	2.8
	First Degree	78	89.65	43	89.58
	Second Degree	_	_	1	2.08
	Total	82	94.23	45	93.75

3.2. Actual and preferred supervisors in schools

The figure below depicts out of 82 sample teachers, 46(56 percent) of respondents were usually supervised by the head of departments. During interview and focus group discussion, it was revealed the availability of department heads nearer to department teachers and his duty of managing the department staff were the reasons for being usual supervisors in schools. The study also showed 10 percent, 12 percent, 12 percent and 10 percent of the sample teachers were usually supervised by senior principals, Woreda Education Office supervisors, senior subject teachers and vice principals respectively.

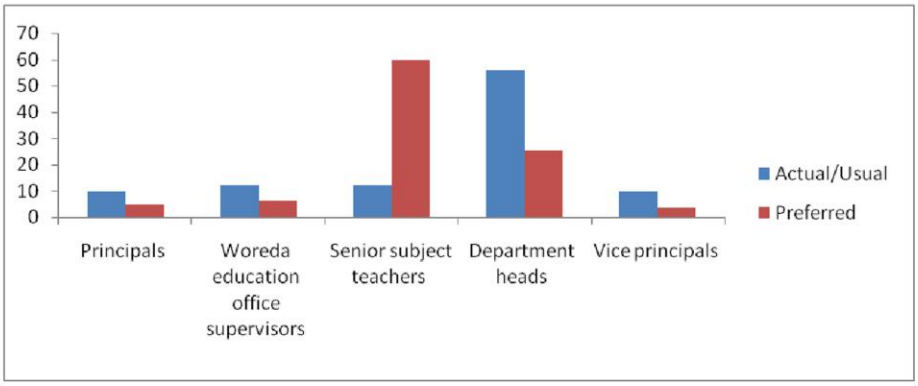

Figure 1: *Actual/usual and preferred instructional supervisors in schools*

On the other hand, 49(60 percent) of sample teachers indicated that they preferred senior subject teachers to supervise them. In this regard, the reason for their preference was discovered in the open ended question. Respondents preferred senior subject teacher because they knew more about teaching methodology and subject matter at that particular level than any other involved in supervision practice in schools. They believed that the senior subject teachers are equipped with good experience in his/her previous years of teaching about subject matter, teaching methodology as well as classroom management. However, 26 percent of teachers indicated they preferred to be supervised by the department heads. While 5 percent, 6 percent and 4 percent of teacher respondents were revealed they preferred to be supervised by senior principals, Woreda Education Officesupervisors and vice principals respectively.

3.3. Preferred and Actual Frequency of Supervision of instruction in schools

The figure below shows supervision of instruction was being done in the schools but frequency varies. Accordingly, out of 82 sample teachers, 41(50 percent) and 28(34 percent) of teachers indicated they preferred to be supervised more than four times per year and twice per semester respectively. It was also revealed 13 percent of teachers' respondents indicated they preferred to be supervised once per semester. However, 33(40 percent) of sample teachers revealed the actual frequency of supervision practice being done once per semester. Similarly, 19(23 percent) of sample teachers indicated that supervision of instruction was being done four times per year respectively.

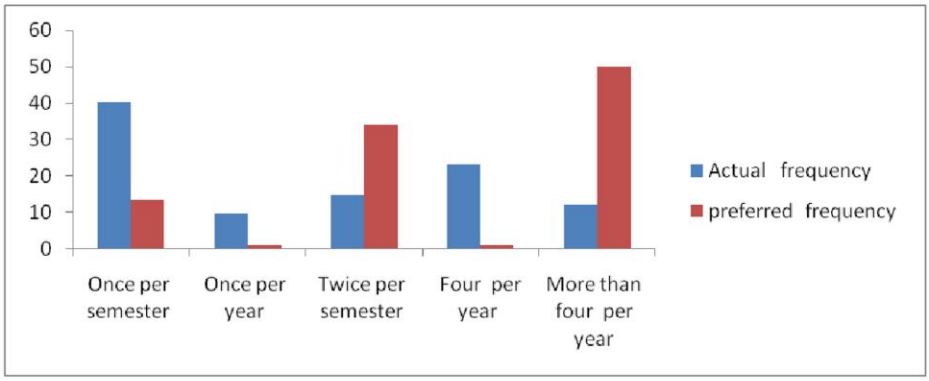

Figure 2: *Actual and preferred frequency of supervision of instruction in schools*

3.4. Role of Instructional Supervision in Instruction development

The two groups of respondents were asked to indicate the extent of practice in helping teachers to develop competences in lesson planning. In this regard, the data revealed the supervisory endeavor was found to be somewhat sufficient. This was revealed by the actual mean values of 3.06 and 3.44 for teachers and supervisors respectively. Concerning the supervisory practice in helping teachers to set up experimental classroom and evaluating it for improvement, the actual mean score for teacher respondents was 2.96. On the other hand, the actual mean value for supervisor respondents was 2.71. The mean value of the respondents indicates the practice was found to be below expected mean. The study also revealed the extent to which supervisory practices helps teachers to develop skills of applying different assessment and measurement techniques. In this regard, the supervisory endeavor seems somewhat sufficient with the actual mean values of 3.09 for teachers and 3.48 for supervisors' respondents respectively. Moreover, teacher and supervisor respondents indicated the extent of practice in helping teachers in the selection of appropriate resource like teaching aids. In this regard, the mean scores were 2.97 and 3.35 for teachers and supervisors respectively. Pertaining to extent to which supervisors provide immediate feedback during lesson observation, the mean scores were 2.93 and 3.48 for teachers and respondents respectively

Table 3: *Views on the endeavor of supervisory practices to promote instructional development*

No	The extent to which practice	Teacher respondents (N=82)						Supervisor respondents (N=45)					
		V.S	S	S.S	R.S	N.S	$\overline{X}$	V.S	S	S.S	R.S	N.S	$\overline{X}$
		%	%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%	%	
1	Help develop competencies in lesson planning	22	23.2	13.41	22	19.51	3.06	17.77	40	20	13.33	8.88	3.44
2	Help set up simple experimental classroom.	15.89	20.73	23.17	24.39	15.85	2.96	11.11	17.77	28.88	17.77	24.44	2.71
3	Help develop skills of applying different assessment techniques	22	20.73	22	20.73	14.63	3.09	20	33.33	28.88	11.11	6.66	3.48
4	Help in selection of appropriate resource like teaching aid	12.19	12.19	30.45	26.82	18.29	2.98	17.77	42.22	24.44	11.11	4.44	3.35
5	Enable obtain immediate feedback in lesson observation	12.19	25.60	19.51	29.26	13.41	2.93	20	44.44	15.55	6.66	13.33	3.48
						Grand mean	3.00						3.3

***Note**: V.S= Very Sufficient, S= Sufficient, S.S= Somewhat Sufficient, R.S=Rarely Sufficient, N.S= Not Sufficient at all, X =Mean Value*

3.5. Role of Instructional Supervision in Curriculum Development

The table 4 depicts the extent of supervisory practice in promoting curriculum development activities. As seen in the table, the curriculum activity with regard to the extent to which supervisors initiate teachers to find curriculum and instructional problem, was revealed by mean values of 2.78 and 3.6 for teachers and supervisors respectively. Two groups of respondents were asked about the extent to which supervisors assists teachers in curriculum innovation. It is important for teacher to be acquainted with new changes. So supervisors are expected to supply teachers with the many type of necessary resource help in innovation. In this regard, the evidence shows that there was difference between the opinions of the two groups. The mean scores indicate this difference with 2.02 and 3.97 for teachers and supervisors respectively.

Supervisory endeavor in leading curriculum committees during the development of teaching guide or guideline for instruction as curriculum development activity effort was considered. In this regard, empirical evidence shows that supervisors were rated they perform the activity positively whereas teachers were evaluated the practice not sufficient with the mean score of 2.48 and 3.57 for teachers and supervisors respectively. This implies the existence of differing opinion between the two groups. Concerning the extent to which supervisors' serves teachers and schools in locating and disseminating curriculum materials, books and other instructional materials, no respondent of supervisors respond their endeavor to this activity as rare and not sufficient at all. Some teachers and majority of supervisor respondents viewed the practice rarely sufficient and sufficient with the mean scores of 2.60 and 4.15 for teachers and supervisors respectively. It is clear supervisors are expected to provide time, facilities and resource when teachers perform their task of curriculum development unless curriculum development activities may lead to failure. In this regard, the mean scores of the two groups of respondents were 2.42 and 3.51 for teachers and supervisors respectively, indicating the practice was found to be rarely sufficient as perceived by teachers and somewhat sufficient as perceived by supervisors.

Table 4: *Views on the supervisory practice to promote curriculum development*

No	The extent to which practice	Teacher respondents (N=82)						Supervisor respondents (N=45)					
		V.S	S	S.S	R.S	N.S	$\bar{X}$	V.S	S	S.S	R.S	N.S	$\bar{X}$
		%	%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%	%	
1	Initiate teachers to find curriculum and instructional problems	9.75	21.95	24.39	24.39	19.51	2.78	20	44.44	20	6.66	8.88	3.6
2	Assist in curriculum innovation, for example describing change and supplying resource help necessary	7.31	13.41	28.04	28.04	23.17	2.02	28.88	40	31.11	-	-	3.97
3	Lead curriculum committees in the development of teaching guide or guideline for instruction	2.43	12.19	36.58	29.22	19.51	2.48	20	33.33	33.11	15.55	-	3.57
4	Serve in locating and disseminating curriculum materials, books and other instructional materials	6.09	19.51	24.39	29.82	20.73	2.60	37.77	40	22.22	-	-	4.57
5	Coordinate curriculum team with necessary materials and resources	4.87	10.97	23.17	32.92	28.04	2.42	20	33.33	3.33	4.44	8.88	3.51
						Grand mean	2.46						3.84

Note: V.S*= Very Sufficient, S= Sufficient, S.S= Somewhat Sufficient, R.S=Rarely Sufficient, N.S= Not Sufficient at all, =Mean Value*

3.6. Role of Instructional Supervision in Staff Development

Conducting teachers in-service need identification is very essential to define the gap that exists between the current level of teachers' competencies and the desired ends. Accordingly supervisory practice pertaining to this activity was found to be rarely sufficient with actual mean score of 2.64 and 2.95 for teachers and supervisors respectively. The involvement of teachers in planning and implementing in-service program like conferences, short term seminars, workshops and training sessions is also very essential. In this regard, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which supervisors hold conferences with teachers, and superintendents while planning in-service program. Consequently, the mean value of teacher respondents was 2.43. On the other hand, the mean score of supervisors was 3.24. Sharing of experiences with different schools is among very indispensable activities in schools. Supervisors are expected to facilitate conditions and assist teachers to share good experiences of one school with others. In this regard, respondents were asked to indicate their view. The respondents from the two groups revealed the current performance of supervisors with actual mean scores of 2.96 and 3.57 for teachers' and supervisors respectively.

Provision of induction for new teacher is very essential to help him/her to cope up with the new working environment. But what is viewed by majority of teacher respondents seemed not promising with mean scores of 2.52 and 3.4 for teachers and supervisors respectively. Teachers may undergo staff development activity as they practice skills in teaching and learning, and discuss different instructional techniques and problem in varies ways with their colleagues. Pertaining to this activity, the respondents were asked to indicate their views. Accordingly, the mean score were 2.39 and 3.08 for teachers and supervisors respectively. For the successful accomplishment of the in-service program, involvement of teachers in identifying, evaluating and in varies activity is very important. In this regard, what the study revealed was not really sufficient in school which is with mean score of 2.5 as viewed by teachers. This reveals that the current role of supervisors was not sufficient enough. This may ultimately leads to teachers' dissatisfaction with the in-service program.

Table 5: *Views on supervisory endeavor to promote staff development activity*

No	The extent to which practice	Teacher respondents (N=82)						Supervisor respondents (N=45)					
		V.S	S	S.S	R.S	N.S	$\overline{X}$	V.S	S	S.S	R.S	N.S	$\overline{X}$
		%	%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%	%	
1	Conducts survey to identify teachers in-service need	7.31	19.51	26.82	23.17	23.17	2.64	8.88	28.88	24.44	24.44	13.33	2.95
2	Holds conference with teachers in connection with planning of in-service program	4.87	17.07	34.14	26.82	17.07	2.65	6.66	33.11	33.11	24.44	6.66	3.06
3	Helps to share the good things one school doing with other	24.39	9.75	23.17	23.17	19.51	2.96	33.44	22.22	24.44	17.77	4.44	3.57
4	Provides orientation program for new teachers	12.19	15.85	13.41	29.26	29.26	2.52	33.44	17.77	22.22	17.77	11.11	3.4
5	Sets up conferences or workshop training in school	10.97	13.14	13.41	28.04	34.14	2.39	6.66	33.11	42.22	4.44	15.55	3.03
6	Invites teachers to involve in evaluating in-service program	7.31	15.85	15.85	31.70	24.39	2.5	15.55	22.22	40	15.55	6.66	3.24
7	Ensures the delivery of effective in-service program	7.31	20.71	20.75	24.39	19.51	2.71	13.33	33.33	33.33	20	2.22	3.35
						Grand mean	2.62						3.22

Note*: V.S= Very Sufficient, S= Sufficient, S.S= Somewhat Sufficient, R.S=Rarely Sufficient, N.S= Not Sufficient at all, X =Mean Value*

Regarding the extent to which supervisors ensure the delivery of effective staff in-service program through ongoing assessment, the mean score of respondents were 2.71 and 3.35 for teachers and supervisors respectively. This reveals that the current supervisory practice pertaining to this activity was found to be rarely sufficient as viewed by the teacher group. However, conducting in-service program without ensuring its effectiveness is meaningless. The ongoing assessment of in-service program is very necessary and it has to be in very constructive and sufficient way.

3.7. Major Problems Related with Supervision Practice

In table six below, the respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which teachers perceive supervision of instruction as instrument for controlling their activity. In this regard, mean score of 3.12 and 3.71 for teachers and supervisors respectively showed respondents from the two groups were viewed supervision of instruction as means of controlling teachers' activity. However, now a day, supervision of instructions is providing assistance to teachers with the ultimate benefit of learners. Thus, it might be difficult to say that instructional supervision was serving its very purpose of assisting teachers.

With respect to the extent to which teachers perceive supervision as fault finding activity, the study showed the two groups of respondents' viewed with mean scores of 2.92 and 3.02 for teachers and supervisors respectively. Majority of supervisors were indicated as teachers were perceiving supervision of instruction as fault findings. Similarly some teachers were viewed this concept similarly. From this, we can infer that instructional supervision was not been really practiced in such way that it assist teachers to improve instruction.

Table 6*: Views on problems that arise from teachers' perception of instructional supervision*

No	The extent to which teachers	Teacher respondents (N=82)						Supervisor respondents (N=45)					
		S.A	A	UN	D	S.D		S.A	A	UN	D	S.D	
		%	%	%	%	%	$\bar{X}$	%	%	%	%	%	$\bar{X}$
1	Perceive supervision as instrument of controlling teachers activity	14.63	32.92	18.92	18.29	15.85	3.12	22.22	42.22	24.44	24.44	13.33	3.7I
2	Perceive supervision as fault finding	21.95	15.85	17.07	23.17	21.95	2.92	20	24.44	15.55	24.44	6.66	3.02

Table 7: *Views on problems that arise from supervisors*

No	The extent to which supervisor	Teacher respondents (N=82)						Supervisor respondents (N=45)					
		S.A	A	UN	D	S.D		S.A	A	UN	D	S.D	
		%	%	%	%	%	$\bar{X}$	%	%	%	%	%	$\bar{X}$
1	Lack adequate educational experiences	32.92	23.17	12.19	21.95	9.75	3.47	17.77	37.77	22.22	17.77	4.44	3.46
2	Lack interpersonal or human relation skills to inspire teachers for better performances	26.82	32.14	10.97	21.95	6.08	3.5	6.66	33.33	40	15.55	4.44	3.22
3	Lack technical skills in leading teachers for example, on how to plan lesson and adapt teaching methods	31.70	29.26	12.19	14.63	14.63	3.5	15.55	28.88	22.22	22.22	11.11	3.15
4	Inadequate training provision for supervisors	26.82	30.48	14.63	13.41	14.63	3.41	33.33	22.22	17.77	20	6.66	3.55

Note*: S.A (Strongly agree), A (Agree), UN (Undecided), D (Disagree), and S.D (Strongly disagree), =Mean Score*

Respondents were also asked to indicate their view on major problems arising from supervisors. In this regard, table seven above depicts views of respondents with respect to supervisors' lack of adequate educational experience. To this end, majority of the two groups of respondents were showed their agreement that supervisors were facing lack of educational experience with mean scores of 3.47 and 3.46 for teachers and supervisors respectively. It is clear that educational experience is very essential for those involved in supervision. With respect to lack of interpersonal or human relation skills to inspire teachers for better work, the mean score is 3.5 and 3.22 for teachers and supervisors respectively. Supervisors were lacking human relation skills in their supervisory endeavor. Pertaining to lack of technical skills in leading teachers the mean values of 3.5 and 3.15 for teachers and supervisors respectively showed teacher and supervisor respondents were agreed on this problem. Regarding inadequate training provision for supervisors, respondents from the two groups were viewed with mean scores of 3.41 and 3.15 for teachers and supervisors respectively. Therefore, lack of training for supervisors could lead to supervisors' lack of technical skill in serving teachers. Concerning the major problems related with supervision practice, the effort was also made to discover the fact through open ended question and focused group discussion. Accordingly the following problem were stated and explained by participant: problems related with supervisors such as lack of adequate educational experience, lack of interpersonal or human relation skills, lack of technical skills, inadequate training provision for supervisors, lack of commitment, willingness, and interest on the side of supervisors, giving less emphasis for supervision and not considering supervision as instrument for instructional improvement; problems related with teachers perception such as perceiving supervision as fault finding, viewing supervision as instrument of controlling their activity, viewing supervision as simple observation merely for appraising classroom performance of teachers and fulfilling formality, and lack of interest on the side of teachers to be supervised. Beside work load and shortage of time were also considered as the major problems related with supervisory practice.

4. Discussion

Actual, Preference and frequency of supervision in schools

The study revealed out of 82 sample teachers, 46(56 percent) of respondents were usually supervised by the head of departments, but 49(60 percent) of sample teachers indicated they preferred the senior subject teachers to supervise them. 41(50 percent) and 28(34 percent) of teachers indicated they preferred to be supervised more than four times per year. In most case teachers may prefer senior subject teacher for many reasons. One may be due to supervisory approach of head of departments. If Conventional approach to supervision is practiced in school by head of departments, they might not be willing to be supervised. Sergiovanni and Starratt, (2007) related conventional approach to tradition perspective of scientific management where close supervision is practiced. Collegial approach shall be introduced in school that is purposeful adult interactions about improving school wide teaching and learning Glickman and et al (2007). This could be better achieved when there is peer supervision practice in schools between and among teachers. Senior subject teachers shall be considered too for better practice of instructional supervision in schools. About 41(50 percent)) of sample teachers indicated they preferred to be supervised more than four times per year. This could help encourage schools to install supervision of instruction as an educational activity that should be done in schools.

Instructional development

The endeavor was made to discover the practice pertaining to instructional development activity. Both groups of participants perceive instructional supervision as to serve an important role in assisting teachers for instructional improvement, despite the manner in which it was being practiced. With actual grand mean of 3.00 and 3.3 for sample teachers and supervisors respectively, almost half of respondents expressed the practice was limited in existence. They believed that instructional supervision in their school was serving only for appraising of teachers performance. When dealing with instructional development the direct assistant to teacher allows the supervisor to provide one-to-one feedback and communication that allows teachers to learn from their past experiences and expertise of the supervisor. Lovell (1983) emphasized the delivery of direct support, consultation and service to help an individual teacher or group to improve in working with a particular group of students should be basic organizational expectations for instructional supervisory behaviors. According to Eye and Netzer (1965), instructional development includes all those activities involved in the whole process directing learning. Supervisors are expected to know how to analyze teaching, diagnose difficulties, confer with teacher and make meaningful recommendations to the teacher for improvement. They are required to bring skills in pedagogy and human relations in the process of instruction and instructional improvement.

Curriculum development

Regarding the supervisory practice in promoting curriculum development activities, the study revealed the practice was sufficient enough as viewed by supervisor, with grand mean of 3.84. Majority of supervisor respondents viewed they usually discuss with teachers in preparing, arranging, locating, coordinating and evaluating instructional materials like teaching aids, teaching guides, and other instructional materials. However, majority of teachers stated they have rare opportunities to participate in different curriculum development activities with actual grand mean of 2.46 which is below expected mean. This evidence shows somewhat opposing views of the two groups. The point here is teachers need to be engaged in varies curriculum development activities since they are the implementer of the curriculum. In this regard, Mohanty points out curriculum development is cooperative activity, by the teacher and supervisor with a view, to making learning experience of students worthwhile and updates (1990). Supervisor has several responsibilities in the process of curriculum development. He/she may initiate teacher to identify curriculum problems or suggest problems that might be interest to them to be studied, provide time, facilities, and resource when teachers perform their task of curriculum development. Unless the supervisors discharge his/her responsibility for the initiation of change, and ingredient resource is made available to the teacher, the task of curriculum development may remain static and hence, deliver an outmoded and irrelevant curriculum to its students.

Staff development

The study revealed staff development activities in school were found to be rarely sufficient with actual grand mean 2.62 and 3.22 for sample teachers and supervisors respectively. The essence of successful instruction and good schools come from the thought and action of the 38 professionals who reflect on their action and practice. The role of supervisor in facilitating environment for staff development is therefore, very essential.

Teachers may undergo staff development within instructional and curriculum domain as they perfect skills in learning and practicing pedagogical skills, solving instructional and curriculum problems with the help of supervisor. Scott (1998), described staff development not only to workshop and courses leading to credits and certification, but also to choices aimed at erasing weaknesses or enhancing previous experiences while developing new learning. Therefore, supervisor should rather engage in many possibilities of staff development activities. The supervisor may start his/her job by identifying teacher's in-service need through survey, observation and interview. He/she is expected to stimulate teachers want to find a new way of accomplishing their tasks. The supervisors are also expected to plan set in to operation evaluate the in-service program.

Problems related to supervision practice

The study revealed variety factors that can influence the effectiveness of supervisory practices. Some of the problems encountered during the practice of instructional supervision may arise from teachers' perception of instructional supervision, working environment and the supervisors. Accordingly, the following problems were identified: problems related with teachers' perception were perceiving supervision as fault finding, instrument of controlling their activity, simple observation merely for appraising classroom performance of teachers, fulfilling formality, and lack of interest on the side of teachers. With respect to teachers' perception, Miller (1944), state that the leading test of success of supervision is found in the attitude of the teacher towards the supervisors. Similarly, in a study of supervision and teacher satisfaction, Fraser in Mpofu (2007) state, the improvement of the teaching-learning process was dependent upon teacher attitudes toward supervision. He says that unless teachers perceived supervision as a process of promoting professional growth and student learning, the supervisory exercise will not have the desired effect. Moreover, Goldhammer et al. (1980), concluded teachers dislike being subject of supervision. They tend to perceive supervision as inherent in the administrative hierarchy and to see the supervisor as being somewhat of a threat. Therefore, the perception of teachers toward instructional supervision is one major factor that determines the effectiveness of supervisory practices. Problems related to supervisor were lack of adequate educational experience, lack of interpersonal or human relation skills, lack of technical skills, inadequate training provision for supervisors, lack of commitment, willingness, and interest on the side of supervisors, not considering supervision as instrument for instructional improvement were the major problems revealed. According to Glickman (2004), for those in supervisory role, the challenge to improving students learning is to apply certain knowledge, interpersonal skills and technical skills to the tasks of instructional supervision that will enable teachers to teach in collective and purposeful manner. Writers like Humer and Mittal (in Arefayne 2010), indicated that factors like personal ability of human relations skills as guiding the work force, instructing and inspiring them for better performance; the technical and managerial skills, training and wisdom as well as how supervisor best lead and supervise his/her workmen may affect supervisor in being effective. Researchers like Amberber, 1975, Fekadu, 1992 and Zawdneh 1987 (in Haile, 2010) pinpointed the following problems that Ethiopian supervision practices faces. Some of the problems are: teachers have negative attitude toward the supervisory program, supervisor do not apply the principles and techniques they learned, supervisor lack skills in human relationships while working with teacher, and lack of necessary facilities for supervisors. Therefore, in order to solve all these problems and ensure the effectiveness of supervisory practices all the stakeholders of the school should work together cooperatively.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusions

Evidences gathered in this study has pointed to the fact that majority of the teachers were aware of the importance of instructional supervision. Teachers could welcome supervision if it is done in the right sprit and with aim of improving the learning process and teacher growth. This was shown in the way most teachers responded on the question of usual and preferred supervisors. Moreover, majority of teachers were preferred having supervision of instruction more than the existing practice. Therefore, one could deduce teachers were aware of the importance of supervision of instructions. The major tasks of supervisors in general could be categorized into instructional development, curriculum development and staff development. Theoretically, it is understood that supervisors are expected to assist teachers during instructional development activity like how to plan lesson, how to select teaching aids and materials' and teaching methods, and how to apply different assessment techniques; supervisors should also act as a resource person in the activity of curriculum development; and he/she must stimulate, plan, coordinate, and guide the effort of the teachers and create conducive environment to bring professional growth and development of teachers. The result of the study however, revealed that supervisors were not in a position to shoulder these responsibilities sufficiently.As a result, teachers might not get assistance from supervisors as expected. This could make teachers to regard supervisors as not potentially valuable person in their effort of improving instruction and students learning. The major purpose of instructional supervision is to bring about improved students learning through improving instruction. One of the mechanisms to achieve this is assisting teachers through conducting clinical supervision (classroom observation). However, the finding in the study revealed that classroom observation was carried out mostly once a semester. The finding also revealed that the majority of teachers were viewed classroom observation merely for the purpose of appraising teachers' performance and formalities. This situation might not benefit teachers. Furthermore, it could not enable teachers to clearly understand the purpose of classroom observation. Because of this, teachers can develop sense of not good feeling towards classroom observation. As viewed by both groups of respondents, there are also a number of problems indicated. The major problems includes problem related with teachers' perception of instructional supervision, problems that arise from supervisors him/her-self and problems related with working environment. All these problems in one way or another might result in to lack of objectivity, incompetence of supervisors, distrusting relationship between teachers and supervisors and bias. This finally can lead to teachers' dissatisfaction with supervisory practices and hence hate it and develop negative attitude toward instructional supervision.

5.2 Recommendations

In light of the findings of this study and conclusions drawn, the researcher attempted to suggest the following recommendations:

- Instructional supervision is to improve instruction so as to bring improved students learning. In order to achieve this, supervisors are expected to be resource person to realize the continuous improvement of instruction. Beside, frequent classroom observation is also very essential to bring improvement of instruction. However, the finding has revealed that the frequency of classroom observation was mostly carried out once per semester. This could not be sufficient to see the improvement of instruction and students learning. Thus, it is good to suggest that classroom observation to contribute a lot for instructional improvement has to be undertaken as frequently as possible in a way to bring instructional improvement. This can be achieved through developing mechanism of peer supervision. This also helps teachers to share their experience without any tension. Therefore, principals, vice principals and department heads are recommended to initiate, arrange and facilitate conditions for practicing peer supervision in their school.

- Instructional supervisors are expected to perform various tasks so as to ensure better learning environment. The major tasks are related with provision of leadership role in areas of instruction, curriculum and staff development activities. However, as the finding of study revealed the current performance of supervisors pertaining to these three major tasks was found to be not sufficiently enough. Moreover, the finding revealed that supervisors were tending to emphasis on other school activities. To this end, it is needed to recommend both woreda education office and those involved in supervision. Hence, Woreda education office should provide appropriate support like short term training provision to acquaint supervisors with appropriate knowledge and skills of supervisory tasks. Supervisors are also supposed to perform supervisory activity willingly, carefully, and with commitment and devotion.

- There were also problems related with teachers' perceptions and supervisors. In this regard, it is good to recommend all concerned bodies such as woreda education office, principals, department heads and teachers to be aware of the problems facing supervision practice. Therefore, provision of trainings, orientations and awareness raising conference need to be arranged at different level. For instance, principals and department head can possibly conduct awareness raising conference at school and department level to discuss on teachers perception related and work environment related problems. Similarly, the woreda education office can provide short term training for those involved in supervision to higher up their knowledge and skills in supervision.

References

Arefayne Gidey (2010). Contributions and Challenges of Primary School Cluster Supervisions in Promoting School Based Supervision in Eastern zone of Tigray (Unpublished master's thesis). AAU, Addis Ababa.

Creswell, J.W. (2003). Research Design. Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Methods Approach (2nd ed). London: Sage Publications Inc.

Eye, G. and Netzer, A. (1965). Supervision of Instruction: A Phase of Administration. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.

Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004). Supervision and Instructional Leadership. A Development Approach (6th ed). USA, Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

Glickman, D.C., Gorden. P. S. and Ross Gordon M. J. (2005). Supervision and Instructional Leadership. Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krasewshi (1980). Clinical supervision. A special method for the supervision of teacher. New York: Winston Inc.

Haile Abay (2006). Practices and Problems of School Based Supervision in Selected Government Secondary Schools of the Central Zone in Tigrai National Regional State. Addis Ababa: AAU, Unpublished.

Harris, B. M. (1963). Supervisory Behavior in Education. London: Prentice, Hill Inc.

Harrison, R. (1968). Supervisory Leadership in Education. New York: Litton Educational Publishing Inc.

Johnson, B. and L. Christensen (2008). Educational Research. Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Approaches (3rd ed). New Delhi: Sage Publications Inc.

Lovell, T. J (1983). Supervision for better school (5th ed). London: New Jersey: Hall International Inc.

Lucio, H. W. and McNeil. D. J (1979). Supervision in thought and action (3rd ed). New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Miller, F.B. (1944).Trends in High School Supervision. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 37(5): 362-369. Retrieved from http:// www. jstor. org/ stable/ 27528474 on 01/10/2010 07:44.

Mohanty, J. (1990). Educational Administration, Supervision and School Management. New Delhi, Deep and Deep Publications.

Mpofu, L.C. (2007). Perception of Classroom Supervision by Secondary School Teachers in Harare Region. Tshwane University of Technology, South Africa.

Sarantakos, S. (2005). Social Research (3rd ed). New York: Palgrave Macmillan Company.

Scott, B.F. (1998). Appraisal/Supervision as a rational Process with Teaching as the Central Focus. vol. 71,. Retrieved from http://www. jstro. org/ stable/ 30189342 on 01/10/2010.

Sergiovanni, J. and R.J. Starratt. (2007). Supervision: A Redefinition (8th ed). New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Spears, H. (1955). Improving the Supervision of Instruction. New York: prentice Hall Inc.

OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES TO IMPLEMENT LEARNER–CENTERED APPROACH IN GENERAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF AWI ZONE IN AMHARA REGIONAL STATE, ETHIOPIA.

Gebeyehu Shiferaw Tegegne[1]

[1] Debre Markos University, Institute of Educational and Behavioral Sciences, Department of Education

E-mail: gebeyehushiferaw@ymail.com

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the existing opportunities and challenges that enable or hinder the realization of learner-centered approach in general secondary schools of Awi Zone, Amhara Regional State. Descriptive survey design was employed using the instruments of open and closed-ended type questionnaire, focused group discussion, observation and semi-structured interview. Teachers, students and school principals were made to participate in the study. All participants of the study were taken from five randomly selected general secondary schools. The data gathered through closed-ended questionnaire was analyzed using percentage, and the data obtained through open-ended questionnaire, focused group discussion, observation and interview were discussed in the form of narration. The findings revealed that the existing opportunities identified by respondents were availability of text books, library access, cooperative learning and exposure to continuous professional development including short term trainings and experience sharing. On the other hand, lack of awareness, past learning experience of teachers and students, lack of interest to teach and learn, low internet access, lack of meaningful supervision and follow up system were found to be the major obstacles to implement learner-centered approach. Therefore, accessing alternative capacity building mechanisms for teachers and students, recurrent follow up and support, considering the use of existing potentials to implement learner-centered approach are the possible solutions that should be taken into account to improve the implementation of learner-centered approach.

Key words: Challenges, Learner-centered, Opportunities, General secondary school

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

There are two commonly known instructional approaches: The teacher-centered and learner-centered approaches (Arends, 1991). The former approach tightly controls the students' activities and class room interaction (Aggarwal, 2008). Because of dissatisfaction with the teacher-centered, the learner- centered approach was developed during the latter part of the nineteenth century (Tylor and Mackenney, 2008). The term learner-centered is used interchangeably with active learning that focuses on the needs and interests of the learner (Derebsa Dufera, 2004; Eggen, 1988). Thus, nowadays the education system is changed from memorization type of learning into participatory type (Kumpulainen and Wray, 2002).

It is through the active engagement of students that behavioral change would take place. This concept is derived from two basic assumptions: learning by nature is an active endeavor and people learn in different ways at various situations (Brown, 1989). Learner-centered approach is allowing students' opportunity to think.

The key concept in learner-centered is that knowledge cannot be transferred but created (Wittrock, 1986). This requires the detail understanding, when learners process information, think about it, question it, use it and connect it to their existing knowledge and personal experience (Moore, 1992). Therefore, learner- centered instruction provides the experience for learners to develop the independent learning and critical thinking skills necessary for problem-solving.

The application of learner-centered came from the theory of constructivism that students are actively constructing knowledge through the active engagement process rather than merely copying knowledge (Moore, 1992). Learner-centered approach gives freedom to the student under the creative and sympathetic direction of the teacher (Marshal, 1990; Saylor et al., 1981).

It is a way through which teachers improve their teaching, create two way communications between the teacher and the students as well as develop confidence. Therefore, the finding of the research is expected to be significant for teachers, school principals and educational experts to recognize and use the existing

potential to implement learner-centered approach. In addition, the students can develop positive attitude towards learner-centered approach that improves their learning. Decision makers can benefit from the result of the study to formulate suitable strategy to initiate teachers and students to apply learner-centered in the instructional process. Universities which are responsible to train teachers would take the findings as potential inputs to revise their training system. Finally, it is also hoped that the study would serve as valuable source of information for other researchers.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The current literature takes into consideration about the existing practice and challenges of learner-centered implementation (Taylor and Mackenney, 2008). In order to promote the implementation of learner –centered approach the Ethiopian government has made the necessary efforts in terms of providing teachers with in-service trainings and improving the supply of instructional materials. In spite of the efforts, teachers and students do not seem to have gone through any fundamental changes in their utilization of learner-centered approach (Ambissa, 2009). Some empirical studies also proved that teachers still depend on traditional approach that is teacher-centered approach (Amare et al. 2006; MOE, 2008). Hindering factors and recommendations identified by the previous studies mainly focused on teachers' background, commitment as well as resources without much consideration the student related issues.

In addition, the researcher heard supervisors' and school principals' frequent complaints and dissatisfaction during various university school workshops and meetings about the implementation of learner-centered approach. They indicated that there is a gap between what has to be done and what is actually going on. Thus, it seems a sound justification to explore the opportunities and challenges to implement learner-centered of teaching and learning.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study was to assess the existing opportunities and challenges to implement learner-centered approach. Specifically, the study tried to;

- Explore to what extent the learner-centered is implemented in general secondary schools.

- Identify factors that would affect the implementation of learner- centered approach.
- Show possible solutions to minimize the challenges of learner-centered approach

2. Methodology

The design of this study was descriptive survey that followed both quantitative and qualitative research paradigms. The reason was that it is preferable to collect the data from a relatively large sample size and to explore the current practice of learner-centered approach in general secondary schools (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2008).

2.1. Sample size and sampling techniques

The subjects of the study were teachers, students and school principals of general secondary schools in Awi Zone. Five general secondary schools were selected randomly out of thirteen general secondary schools. The sample schools consisted of a total of 386 teachers and 8147 students. The number of students was determined by multi-stage cluster sampling technique. First, students were clustered by grade level and then by their sections. The sample schools had 163 sections. From each section, two students were selected using simple random sampling. Therefore, a total 325 students were taken as sample respondents.

From the total population of 386 teachers, only 97 teacher respondents (25%) were selected as a sample by random sampling technique with the assumption that similar experiences are found and respondents have equal chance of being selected. Five school principals were also included as the subject of the study. They were selected using purposive sampling technique because they have special responsibility and experiences to facilitate and follow up the practice of learner-centered approach.

2.2. Data gathering tools and procedures

The data was collected through questionnaire and focused group discussion from teachers and students. Individual interview was conducted with school principals. Observation was also carried out to check the presence of school facilities. Before the actual administration of the questionnaire, pilot study was carried out. On the basis of comments and suggestions important improvements were made.

Data collection tools were developed in such a way that they would maximize the possibility of generating answers to the basic research questions. Then, the data obtained through different instruments were triangulated. Applying triangulation is fundamental in verifying the convergence and divergence of views and interpretationsregarding the issue

under study, and would help the researcher to secure a detail understanding of it.

2.3. Data analysis

The statistical data obtained from questionnaire was analyzed using frequency and percentage because they are easier to interpret and useful to compare the responses on each item. Whereas, data collected through focused group discussion, interview and observation were discussed in the form of narration. Finally, the overall course of the study was summarized with findings, conclusions and some possible solutions.

3. Result and Discussion

The data collected from teachers, students and school principals were analyzed and interpreted as follows.

3.1. Teachers' and Students' understanding of learner-centered approach

It is a prerequisite and very essential issue to consider the conception gap of teachers and students. Creating awareness is a fertile ground which is assumed to be conducted before the effective implementation of learner-centered approach.

Teachers and students have to understand the objective, importance, methods, principles and other related concepts about learner- centered approach they were asked through questionnaire about their understanding of the approach. Nearly half of teacher respondents (49.5%) replied that the level of awareness of teachers on learner-centered was average. This idea was also supported by 51.7 percent of students. In the focus group discussion, almost all teachers agreed that teachers' understanding of learner-centered approach was at the medium level. On this issue, one of the teacher discussants explained as:

> *I think teachers including myself have no significant problems about the conception of learner-centered. Even teachers can easily understand through reading and experience sharing without having the training opportunities. But the problem is to realize in the class room.*

In the above response, it is indicated that teachers could increase the capacity on learner-centered approach through readings and experience sharing although the training opportunities were not arranged. On the other hand, since teachers were not using learner-centered approach properly,

students believed that teachers lack awareness on it.

More than half of teacher respondents (60.9%) and student respondents (54%) replied that students' awareness about learner-centered approach was low. The above evidence was also supported by many of the student focused group discussants. One of the student discussants shared her experience to the group in the following way:

> *We heard about learner-centered approach and our teachers have told us that students have the right to ask and give answers because we are following learner-centered. But no one has explained about the advantages and disadvantages of learner-centered. We don't have any idea which instructional methods are classified as learner-centered and which one as teacher-centered.*

As compared to the awareness level of teacher, students' awareness about learner-centered approach was less. Regarding teachers' and students' awareness, school principals were also interviewed. Almost all of the school principals replied that the teachers' awareness was average and their awareness was developed through the experience sharing and occasional short term trainings. In this issue, one of the interviewee said:

> *In relative terms, I feel that the awareness of teachers seem to be fallen at an average level, but not enough. The conception of students on learner-centered is assumed to be low. This is because we are focusing on the capacity building of teachers but we are not thinking about the students' awareness. It is a critical problem that every educational stakeholder has to be given emphasis to facilitate the environment to create awareness to both teachers and students. Other problems such as, problems related to content coverage, interest and commitment will be solved when the awareness of teachers and students is increased.*

The above data indicated that different problems related to learner-centered approach could be easily solved when the understanding level of teachers and students is improved.

3.2 Interest of Teachers and Students to implement learner-centered approach

There are many factors that affect teachers as well as students' interest to implement learner-centered. Increasing their interest towards learner-centered approach is not a one side activity, rather it requires a collaborative effort expected from each educational

stakeholder at each level (Kumpulainen and Wray, 2002).

Data was gathered from teachers and students through questionnaire about their interest in employing learner-centered approach. First, both respondents were asked to reply on teachers' interest. A significant number (48.6%) of teacher respondents leveled their interest of student-centered approach at the position of average. However, 43% of the students considered teachers' interest lower.

In addition to the questionnaire, in the focus group discussions, both teachers and students forwarded almost similar idea. Most of them believed that teachers' interest was low. For example, one of the students in the focus group discussion argued as:

> *I am not saying all teachers have no interest. Though the reason is not clear for me, some of the teachers seem to lack interest not only exercising learner-centered approach but also the teaching profession. They are complaining now and then as they are teaching because they have no other alternatives. They have less interest to support and advise us. In fact, few teachers tried to encourage students to read additional materials from library, have good relationship with students and even discussed with students out of the classroom.*

One of the teacher focused group discussants briefly reported as the following:

> *I myself have less interest to employ learner-centered approach. This is because it is difficult to cover the course contents within the planned schedule. In addition, some teachers who applied learner-centered were not motivated and we are pulled to the traditional approach (teacher-centered). Even students have no interest to be treated in the learner- centered approach because they don't like to exert more effort and prefer the short path which is memorizing what the teacher is giving in a form of notes. Teachers who attempted to apply learner-centered were not accepted by their students. Therefore, teachers prefer to use teacher-centered.*

Teachers and students were also requested to write their assumptions why teachers lacked interest in learner-centered approach. The reasons forwarded by both of the respondents were; teachers' previous learning and teaching experience, fear of not finishing the contents within the given time frame and students lack of interest to be engaged in learner-centered approach.

Regarding students' interest, most of the students (65.8%) and more than average number

of teachers (56.2%) answered that students' interest in learner-centered approach was low.

The researcher invited the student focused group discussants to say something about the students' interest in learner-centered. The discussants shared the response given by teachers. For instance, one of the students reported as follows:

> *I observed that most of the students including myself have no interest to learn independently without the teacher. In fact, there are books and other reading materials in the library, but we don't want to refer and get additional knowledge. You could find very few students who read other than their notes. The rest (almost all) students are reading their notes which were given by their teachers. In addition, students have no culture to share their knowledge in the class room or out of the class room. Thus, students are more comfortable with teacher dominant type of approach.*

In general, the major reasons that inhibit the students not to have an interest on learner-centered approach were students' past experience of teacher-centered approach, considered the teacher as the only source of knowledge, prefer to use the simplest or easiest way, lack of awareness about learner-centered, focused on promoting from one class level of education to the other.

3.3 Instructional Methods

The teaching methods teachers commonly used in the classroom were based on the experiences they found when they are teaching. It is also from their training and existing current situations (Aggarwal, 2008). As indicated from the data, 86.7% of teachers and 70.3% of students replied that the traditional chalk and talk (lecture) method was dominantly applied. Although teachers and students' response varies, the remaining methods that were employed in the teaching and learning process were group discussion, question and answer, individual work in a form of home works.

According to the student and teacher focused group discussants, lecture method took the leading role and others like question and answer; group work and presentation were the commonly used instructional methods. Concerning this point, one of the student focused group discussants expressed as:

> *The common instructional methods that most of the teachers employed starts from reminding the main points of the previous lesson and followed by introducing the day's lesson. After this, lecturing takes most of the class time.*

Finally, the teacher gives chance to the classroom students to ask questions which are not clear for us and give feedback. Sometimes assignments are given in groups and presented by the group leader or any other volunteer of the group.

Similar question was also asked to teacher discussants and one of them said:

I am in doubt that teachers used different instructional methods which focus on the students' interest and effort. As far as I know instructional methods like lecture, question and answer, group discussion and individual homework were the most prevalent methods of instruction. During the classroom teaching, much of the time is spent by the teachers' talk.

From the above discussions, it is possible to conclude that teachers are using very few instructional methods and even these methods are not free from teacher dominated approach.

3.4 Opportunities to Implement Learner-Centered Approach

Knowledge can be constructed mainly through the maximum effort of learners (Moore, 1992). Teachers' and students' readiness and motivation are the necessary pre-requisite opportunities for them to implement learner-centered approach. Active learning strategies also serve as useful educational environments. As complementary responsibility, teachers and the school administrators need to monitor and support the system consistently. Adequate and up to date facilities have to be available to create healthy teaching situation.

A questionnaire was administered to teachers so as to identify the availability of different opportunities for the successful implementation of learner-centered approach. Very large number of respondents (80%) rated the availability of text books as high. Library service and cooperative learning was placed at an average level with the percentage of 61.9 and 52.4 respectively. The remaining opportunities such as internet access and the presence of motivational environment were almost none as reflected by 82.9 and 65.7 percent of teacher and student respondents respectively. The student respondents also shared the view of most of the teacher respondents.

The researcher was also observing the necessary facilities which would strengthen the learner-centered approach. It was found that there were shortages of adequate rooms and chairs to get library service. In addition, the reference materials in each department were not aveliable as required. Very few numbers of computers were avaliable (averagely 18 computers in each school) and even these were not accessible for students as an instructional resource.

In addition, school principals were asked through interview about the opportunities. They pointed out that in-service training opportunity for teachers on active learning and other pedagogical matters; the presence of classroom collegial observation (clinical supervision), the presence of fair number of students in each class (not more than 50) and exposure of teachers to continuous professional development were potential opportunities for teachers to implement learner-centered approach.

Thus, from the above response, one could infer that the exiting potentials to implement learner-centered approach was relatively encouraging and requires a common understanding to use them in school context.

3.5 Challenges to Implement Learner-Centered Approach

According to the respondents, challenges were related with students, teachers, school environment, course contents and administrative issues.

Challenges Related to Students

With regarded to students related challenges, majority of teacher respondents (87.6%) replied that unwillingness to learn through learner-centered took the leading rank. However, 77.6% of the student respondents considered lack of students' conception about learner-centered as the first challenge.

Both respondents (teachers and students) were asked to mention other challenges through open-ended question and they mentioned some challenges. These challenges include students' low value to their learning, high interest in the traditional lecture method, students' low self-reliance, lack of experience, problem of self-centered and less interest to learn from others.

Challenges Related to Teachers

Teacher respondents claimed that their past experience of teacher-centered approach (76.2%) and lack of interest to their profession (58.2%) were found to be major challenges. On the other hand, student respondents (81.4%) answered that the major challenge in relation to teachers was lack of interest to their teaching profession

Besides, in the open-ended items of the questionnaire, few students reported that absence of teachers' willingness to learn

from their colleagues, lack of preparation to use learner-centered approach, lack of encouragement for teachers who use learner-centered, and the teachers' high concern to cover course contents were additional challenges related to teachers.

Challenges Related to School Environment

Conducive physical environment demand good and up to date facilities. Teachers and students were requested to reflect on challenges related to the existing environment of the schools. The challenges had different ranks as responded by both respondents. Irrespective of their frequencies, except student text books, others like inadequate reference materials, teacher work load/ shortage of time, low internet access were critical challenges which need attention by all educational stakeholders.

Challenges Related to Course Contents and Administrative Issue

Regarding the administrative related factors, less attention was given to academic matters and it had become the biggest problem as responded by 81.9% of teachers and 65.4% of students. Next to this, unmanageable course contents took the second rank as 77.1 percent of teachers and 53.9 percent of students ranked it.

Limited supervision and lack of awareness on the side of school principals took the third rank with considerable number of respondents. Teachers were asked to say additional points through open-ended questions. Absence of motivation, focus on routine and occasional matters, absence of teachers' academic freedom, less opportunities for discussion, and limited monitoring and supporting system were pointed out as challenges.

School principals were also requested to reflect the challenges that would hinder the implementation of learner-centered. All of the interviewees externalized that most of the challenges were related to teachers. One of the school principals, for example, explained in the following way:

> Although there are problems related to administration at school, woreda, Zonal and regional level, the lion share of challenges on learner-centered would be on the shoulder of teachers. If teachers are committed, they can update themselves through reading and experience sharing about the implementation of learner-centered.

Therefore, the challenges were not from the specific area rather interrelated to each department and each educational stakeholder including the existing locality of the school.

The very important point to be emphasized is to identify the root cause of each problem and to solve it accordingly.

4. Conclusions and recommendations

4.1 Conclusions

The analysis of the data revealed that teachers as well as students need continuous access to be aware of the objectives and the implementation techniques of learner-centered approach. Very small number of teachers attempted to carry out learner-centered based on their background knowledge of their pre-service training on learner-centered approach and experience sharing in their respective school. Students' conception about learner-centered approach was very low. It is also evident that students depend on the teacher, and the teacher determines the kind of students' involvement. This would create a negative impact on the interest of students and teachers to implement learner-centered effectively. Teachers were not far apart from implementing the traditional model of teaching (lecture method) which is guided by the principle of teacher-centered. However, there were some opportunities to implement learner-centered approach. These include availability of sufficient text books, library access, reference materials and cooperative learning.

Teachers have also more exposure to continuous professional development (CPD) and experience sharing among staff members.

Lack of understanding, interest and instructional resource limitations were the most common challenges that lead teachers to use teacher-centered approach. Lack of continuous support and monitoring was also discussed as a critical problem to apply learner-centered approach. The overall reflections indicate that the teaching and learning practice in the General secondary schools of Awi Zone did not encourage learner-centered approach where students could construct their own meaning.

4.2. Recommendations

In line with the result of the study and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations were forwarded to mitigate the problem of learner-centered approach.

- To improve the quality of education in every general secondary school, teachers need to be equipped with pedagogical skill through consistently accessing alternative capacity building strategies.
- Teachers need to make themselves familiar with the existing dynamic changes for updating the self and their profession (teaching) through readings and experience sharing.

This environment should be extended to the students as well. Teachers and students who are direct actors in the instructional process need to have clear understanding about learner-centered.

- School principals and department heads are also responsible to make recurrent follow up and supervision as well as reinforcement for the realization of learner-centered.

- The use of existing potential and supplying the necessary facilities have to be considered to implement learner-centered approach.

- Policy makers and implementers at each level have to give priority to bring teachers' and students' interest for teaching and learning more than accessing instructional resources. This could be taken place through continuous open discussion with teachers and students.

- Identifying and motivating teachers who are implementing learner-centered approach needs to be emphasized. Continuous support and follow-up is also another basic strategy to develop the concept of belongingness.

References

Amare Asgedom, Daniel Desta, Derebssa Dufera, and Wanna Leka. (2006). Teachers and Principals Perceptions of Quality of Education. *The Ethiopia Journal of Education*, XXV1, 2:1-23

Ambissa Kenea. (2009). Students' Reactions to Active Learning Methods in Selected Classrooms of Addis Ababa University. *The Ethiopia Journal of Education*, Vol. XXXIX, 77-110

Aggarwal, J. (2008). Principles, Methods and Techniques of Teaching (2nd ed.). New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House PVT LTD.

Arends, R. (1991). Learning to Teach (2nd ed.). New York: Mc-Graw Hill.

Brown, R.N., Oke, E., and Brown, D. (1989). Curriculum and Instruction: An Introduction to Methods of Teaching. New York: Macmillan Publishers.

Derebsa Dufera. (2004). Fundamentals of Curriculum Development. Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University.

Eggen, P. (1988). Strategies for Teachers. (2nd ed). Los Angeles: Prentice–Hall.

Fraenkel,J.R.and Wallen,N.E. (2008). How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education (7th ed.). New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

Kumpulainen, K. and Wray David. (2002).Classroom Interaction and Social Learning: From Theory to Practice. London and New York: Routledge Falmer.

Marshal, J. (1990). Key Concepts for Understanding Curriculum. Oxford: Falmer Press.

MOE. (1994). Education and Training Policy. Addis Ababa: EMPDA.

Moore, K. (1992). Classroom Teaching Skills(2nd ed.). Ohio: McGraw –Hill.

Saylor, J.G., Alexander, W. M., and Lewis, A.J. (1981). Curriculum Planning for Better Teaching and Learning (4th ed.) New York: Hall,Rinehart &Winson.

Taylor,G.R. and Mackenney. (2008). Improving Human Learning in the Classroom: Theories and Teaching Practice. In Rowman & Littlefield Education

Wittrock, M.C. (1986). Handbook of Research on Teaching. New York: Macmillan.

INSTRUCTORS' BELIEFS AND ACTUAL PRACTICES OF ACTIVE LEARNING STRATEGIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: THE CASE OF DESSIE COLLEGE OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Gebeyaw Teshager Zelke[1]

[1] Debremarkos University, Institute of Educational and Behavioral Sciences, Department of Education; E-mail: gebuteshu@yahoo.com

Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to investigate instructors' beliefs and actual practices of active learning strategies at Dessie College of Teachers Education. To conduct the study, the descriptive survey type with embedded mixed method was utilized. The study was conducted at Dessie College of Teacher Education and the data were collected from 145 student teachers and 60 instructors of the college. Purposive sampling was used in the selection of the college. Comprehensive and simple random sampling techniques were employed for the selection of instructors and student teachers respectively. The main instrument of data collection was questionnaire. It was also substantiated with classroom observation, semi-structured interview, focused group discussion and document analysis. Frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation and Pearson product moment correlations were used to analyze the close-ended data; whereas, qualitative data analysis was used with the data obtained through open-ended questionnaire, observation, semi-structured interview, focused group discussion and document analysis. The results of the study revealed that although instructors have favorable views about the basic assumptions of active learning approach, their efforts of incorporating and implementing a variety of active learning strategies in their respective courses at the college was inadequate. The major factors as impediments to the implementation of active learning strategies at the college were lack of instructors' commitment to design a variety of active learning strategies in their lesson plans, the tendency of instructors to the traditional lecture method, lack of student teachers' motivation to engage independently and cooperatively in the given activities, the huge amount of contents to be covered, shortage of time and lack of instructional material. Finally, recommendations were forwarded based on the major findings so as to minimize problems encountered and maximize the practice of active learning in the study area.

Key words: *Active learning, Beliefs, Higher education*

1. Introduction

In the traditional approach to college teaching, most time is spent with the teacher lecturing and students are generally considered as passive learners and recipients of the educational content (Felder and Brent, 1999). In this approach, the students are expected to work different activities individually and the mode of assessments of the student learning are based on their individual work such as quizzes, examinations and tests regardless of group cooperation (Johnson and Johnson, 1990). In this context, there is very little interaction among the students and they rarely have an opportunity to work together as a team or in group and cooperate in their learning process. Thus, such teacher-centered approach makes students rely mainly on the teacher, 'the knowledge expert', for their knowledge and information.

However, the paradigm shift from a teacher-centered to active learning approach has been widely advocated throughout the world. Numerous research studies have shown that active learning methods are more effective than traditional methods in improving student academic performance (Cook and Hazelwood, 2002). Squazzin and Grann (1998) explained active learning as a social process that emphasizes on the process of collaborating and the exchanging of ideas, knowledge, experiences, skills, values and attitudes. Frazee (1995) also states that active learning is not simply the transmission of 'facts' or information but it is making learners how to learn, how to find information from themselves, in other words it is called learning by doing. In the same vein, Hatfield (1997) as cited in Teacher Education System Overhaul (TESO, 2003) also suggested that active learning is not only a set of activities, but also an attitude on the part of the teacher and the learner that makes learning effective.

In addition, in active learning students not only receive information, from lectures and books, but also they collect information, record it systematically, analyze it, discuss it, compare it, draw conclusions from it and communicate about it Institute of Curriculum Development and Research Studies (ICDR, 1999). Pertaining to the above idea, Leu (2000) also pointed out that in active learning student's previous knowledge and experiences are so crucial and valued since they help to construct new knowledge.

Recently, active learning seems to become a fact of life and is an increasingly used component of student learning in Dessie College of Teachers Education and in other educational institutions. However, the practice of active learning depends upon the knowledge and beliefs of members of the institute (i.e., student teachers, instructors, and other external community at large). In line with this view, Johnson and Johnson (1990) said that many teachers believe that they are implementing active learning when in fact they are missing the essence.

In reviewing the research literature, it is noticed that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices was open to debate. Conflicts between teachers' beliefs and the realities in their classroom practices have been widely reported in the literature. Some researchers have found consistencies between teachers' beliefs and their practices whilst others have found inconsistencies (Trigwell and Prosser, 1996).

Various literatures also proved that there are some constraints which can impede the proper implementation of active-learning approaches in college teaching. Some of the factors are connected with the pressure of the curriculum, improper classroom organization and management, lack of trained teachers, lack of support from top officials, perceptions of active learning and the problem with the students (Plass, 1988; Leu, 2000). Hence, unless carefully managed, active learning's disadvantages outweigh its advantages and it may turn to be as boring as the traditional lecture mode.

As indicated by Leu (2000), to make practical the new Ethiopian Education and Training Policy Document, extensive changes have been made to reform the curriculum in different ladders of education, including teacher training institutes and colleges. The shift in the new teacher education curriculum emphasizes a change from a rote, passive learning to a more active, learner-focused education and the development of higher-order thinking skills as the basis of the teaching and learning process (MOE, 2003). However, as public discourses and indigenous research findings revealed, the teaching-learning process of our education system at all levels in general and in Teacher Education Colleges in particular has been dominated with the traditional approach (Derebbsa, 2006; Fikirte, 2013; and Reda, 2001).

Dessie College of Teacher Education(DCTE) is one of the Teacher Education Institutes found in the Amhara Region that has been trying to involve active learning methods in the 10+3 training programs to produce effective teachers. However, student teachers were complaining their instructors' instructional approach in formal and informal meetings. Besides, from the researcher's exposure, as an instructor and a researcher, in the TEIs there are missing elements in the application of a variety of active learning methods.Thus, the main purpose of this study was to assess instructors' beliefs and their actual practices of active learning strategies in Dessie CTE. Based on this general objective, the following specific objectives were set.

- To investigate instructors' beliefs about the basic assumptions of active learning approach,
- To assess the extent to which instructors apply different active learning strategies,
- To examine the relationship between instructors' beliefs and their actual practices of active learning approach, and
- To identify the major factors hindering the implementation of active learning in Dessie CTE.

2. Methodology

2.1 Design of the Study

As it has already mentioned in the introduction part, the main purpose of this study was to assess instructors' beliefs and their actual practices of active learning strategies in Dessie CTE. To this end, a mixed method approach was used. Particularly, an embedded mixed method design that employs primarily a quantitative method and substantiated by qualitative method (Creswell, 2012) was used.

2.2 Study Area and Targeted Population of the Study

In the Amhara Regional State, there are ten governmental Colleges of Teacher Education. Among these, Dessie CTE was considered as the target area. All departments (Amharic, English,Mathematics, Social Science, Natural Science and Aesthetics and Physical Education) were used in the study to collect reliable information. Instructors and student teachers of Dessie CTE were included as the targeted population of the study so as to get more reliable information.

2.3. Samples and Sampling Techniques

Among the ten Teacher Education Institutions found in Amhara Region, Dessie College of Teacher Education was purposely selected. The total number of instructors who were teaching at the college was 84. Among 84 instructors, 24 instructors did not properly fill and return the questionnaire. Therefore, the questionnaire data was purely obtained from 60 instructors.

Among 1216 student teachers (693 second year and 523 third year), 145 student teachers (83 from second year and 62 from third year) were selected using simple random sampling. Because, the two groups of student teachers have stayed an average of three semesters and have taken the course"General Methods of Teaching" so that they could have relatively good experience about the problem under consideration than first year student-teachers.

2.4 Data Collection Instruments

Questionnaire was used for instructors and student teachers as a primary data gathering tool. Accordingly, questionnaires of 41 closed-ended items were employed. The questionnaire was grouped into three major categories. They were instructors' beliefs on the basic assumptions of active learning approach, the practice of active learning strategies, and factors inhibiting the implementation of active learning methods.

The first part of instructors' beliefs on active learning approach consists of twelve items. The second part of instructors' practice of active learning strategies has eighteen items. The last part (factors inhibiting the implementation of active learning methods) has eleven items. Besides, two open-ended questions were given. The closed-ended questions were developed in the form of 5-Point Likert-scale.

Six instructors, one from each stream, were interviewed using semi-structured interview questions. To obtain more information, semi structured observation in the actual classroom teaching and learning process was used as a data gathering instrument. Focus group discussion was made with 15 randomly selected student teachers, 3 from each department. The content of the FGD focused on instructors' actual practice of active learning methods. Moreover, to gather more information about the involvement of a variety of active learning strategies, six instructors' daily lesson plans (one from each department) were reviewed.

2.5 Data Collection Procedures

In the process of testing the instrument and collecting data for the final study the following procedures were followed. Before the final study was made, a pilot study was conducted totest the reliability of the instrument (questionnaire). The pilot study was conducted on six instructors of each stream.

The result indicated that the questionnaire had the reliability of 0.72. Besides, its face validity was checked by my colleagues and important corrections were made. Then, the questionnaire was administered by the researcher. Finally, the observation, interview, focus group discussion (FGD) and document analysis were conducted.

2.6 Data Analysis

This survey study employed both quantitative and qualitative data analysis. Thus, the data obtained through closed-ended questionnaire were quantified using descriptive statistics; mainly frequency count, percentage, mean, standard deviation and Pearson product moment correlations were used as appropriate tools to analyze the data. In addition, the data gathered through open-ended questionnaire, interviews, observations, focus group discussions and document analysis were analyzed using qualitative method such as narrations and direct quotations. Based on the data analysis, interpretations were made to reach at certain findings. Finally, conclusions and possible solutions were recommended.

3. Results and Discussions

In this part of the study the major findings of the study were discussed using related literature. The issues under discussion were categorized into themes and discussed as follows

3.1 Instructors' beliefs on the basic assumptions of active learning

Table-1 *Instructors' beliefs on the basic assumptions of active learning*

No	Items	Instructors' responses						Mean
		A		DA		U		
		f	%	F	%	f	%	
1	Active learning is appropriate for my subject (s)	60	100	-	-	-	-	4.46
2	Active learning decreases instructors' task load and saves time.	14	23.33	44	73.33	2	3.33	2.46
3	I believe that student teachers' current knowledge depends on their previous understanding.	42	70	8	13.33	10	16.66	4.06
4	Active learning helps student teachers obtain a deeper understanding of the material.	49	81.67	11	18.33	-	-	4.15
5	I believe that active learning enhances active participation of student teachers in their learning.	58	96.67	2	3.33	-	-	4.76
6	Using ALMs promotes friendships among student teachers.	52	86.67	8	13.33	-	-	3.91
7	I believe student teachers learn more effectively if they work individually than in groups.	4	6.67	56	93.33	-	-	2.00
8	Active learning helps to prepare student teachers for their own learning.	51	85	7	11.67	2	3.33	4.33
9	I lack personal commitment to use a variety of active learning methods in the college.	28	46.67	32	53.33	-	-	2.96
10	I prefer classes in which student teachers are quiet to receive the content to be presented.	5	8.33	55	91.67	-	-	1.48
11	In active learning my responsibility is to facilitate student teachers' learning	60	100	-	-	-	-	4.91
12	Active learning offers opportunities to enhance student teachers' progress.	54	90	2	3.33	4	6.67	4.65

Key: *A= Agree, DA= Disagree, U=Undecided*

As can be seen from table-1, twelve questions regarding instructors' beliefs about the basic assumptions of active learning were raised. Accordingly, it appeared that in almost all of the items, the majority of instructors have favorable beliefs about the basic assumptions of active

learning. However, in specific item (item-9) the respondents seem to disclose negative views. About 53.3% of instructors felt as they lack personal commitment to use a variety of active learning methods. This shows that though many instructors have positive views about the basic assumptions of active learning, their effort of employing a variety of active learning strategies was found to be low.

During the interview and FGD, many instructors and student teachers also reported that although active learning is one of the most important aspects in the teaching learning process, it is not effectively and properly implemented in Dessie CTE. For example, many of the interviewed instructors reflected the following views:

> *Although theoretically we believe that active learning is very useful for student teachers' learning and for their learning progress, we could not usually involve a variety of active learning methods due to various factors such as student teachers' lack of interest, the huge amount of content to be covered, shortage of time and lack of instructional material.*

One of the interviewed instructors has also the following to say:

> *"Though I know that active learning benefits the students' learning, I rarely employ it due to many reasons. For instance, it is difficult to ensure the active participation of each student in group activities, especially when students are involved outside the classroom. As the result of this, every member of the group is assessed as one regardless of his/her input in the groups".*

Many student teachers seem to share the view expressed above in different words. For example, in the FGD they frequently explain that *as the result of instructors' unfair assessment during the utilization of group work, they wanted to work their group assignments individually.*

In general, based on the information given by respondents, it is possible to say that a majority of instructors showed favorable beliefs about the basic assumptions of active learning.

3.2 The Practice of Active Learning Methods /Strategies

In order to assess the extent to which active learning methods have been practiced in Dessie CTE, both instructors and student teachers were requested to provide information.

Table 2: The extent to which active learning methods have been practiced in Dessie CTE

No	Instructional methods	Instructors' responses (N=60)			Students' responses (N=145)		
		Mean	SD	Ranking	Mean	SD	Ranking
1	Gapped lecture	3.82	0.66	2	3.94	0.71	2
2	Demonstration	2.71	0.75	8	2.64	0.83	10
3	Question and answer	4.04	0.78	1	3.80	1.06	4
4	Brain Storming	3.54	0.87	5	2.72	0.93	9
5	Think-pair-share	3.19	0.86	6	3.39	0.94	5
6	Small group discussion	3.79	0.67	3	3.80	0.99	3
7	Pyramiding	2.61	0.82	9	2.90	1.14	6
8	Jigsaw	2.07	0.75	13	2.84	0.95	8
9	Cross over group discussion	1.93	1.13	14	1.89	0.81	14
10	Role playing	2.39	0.77	10	1.94	0.96	11
11	Debates	2.32	0.93	11	1.89	0.81	13
12	Panel discussion	1.79	0.94	16	1.79	0.92	15
13	Field trip	1.43	0.62	17	1.50	0.76	18
14	Games	1.93	1.13	15	1.54	0.70	16
15	Group project	3.68	0.66	4	4.12	0.75	1
16	Seminars	1.43	0.62	18	1.50	0.76	17
17	Problem solving	2.32	0.93	12	1.94	0.96	12
18	Peer teaching	3.19	0.86	7	2.90	1.14	7
	Grand Total	**2.67**	**0.81**		**2.61**	**0.89**	

As shown from the above table the grand mean scores of instructors (2.67) and student teachers (2.61) are far below the expected mean (3.0).This implies that the extent of involving and practicing a variety of active learning methods in the college was not adequate as much as expected.

In one of the observed classes in the college, the teacher was lecturing the daily lesson and occasionally asked oral questions related to

the lesson. When five minutes or less remain for the period to end, opportunities was given to student teachers to ask any questions. Later in the interview, one of the instructors disclosed that *"I don't feel I am teaching if I am not dispensing information to student teachers using teacher-centered methods like lecture and question and answer methods".*

In relation to this, Leu (2000) states that despite the Ethiopian New Education and Training Policy strongly criticizes the conventional teacher based approach in education, the teaching learning process in most teacher education colleges in Ethiopia has persisted to be teacher dominated. Most classes are characterized by a situation where students are made to listen to their instructors and copy notes from the blackboard. She further indicated that learning by doing, problem solving and cooperative learning are limited.

Palmer, Peter and Streetman (2003) in their research showed that instructors who are unfamiliar with active learning methods may not initially accept this style of learning because they may feel they will lose of their classroom, or they may be unsure of the methods or techniques used or possibly even think that some active learning methods are too time consuming. Instructors and student teachers in the interviews and in the FGD also admitted that group projects, small group discussion, think-pair-share and brainstorming were the most widely used active learning methods in the college. Commenting on the implementation of these methods, one of the interviewed teacher educators said that:

> *Theoretically, I know various active learning methods; however, I have frequently employed very limited methods like small group discussion, project work and brainstorming. I also occasionally used think pair-share method. Because of time constraint to cover the content of the course, and additional responsibility in the college, I could not employ other active learning methods.*

The FGD reports of student teachers also posited that:

> *Many instructors frequently gave different group projects in different courses. The main purpose of these group projects was for assigning marks. They further stated that their instructors did not even return their project works back rather they told the total score of group project works. Besides to group project work, student teacher also reported that small group discussion was also one of active learning methods frequently used by their teachers though one or two of group members completed the group task while the other member desired their names to be listed on the assignment paper as if they were actively participated on the discussion.*

In this regard, Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1991) noted that cooperation in active learning is not assigning a report to a group of students

twhere one or two students do all the work and the others put their names on the product. Thus, cooperation is much more than being physically near students, discussing materials with them, helping them or sharing materials among students although each is important in active learning.

In general, based on the position of instructors and student teachers and the interview, FGD and classroom observation made by the researcher it is possible to deduce that the degree of practicing various active learning methods in Dessie CTE was found to be low.

3.3 Relationship between instructors' beliefs and actual practice of active learning methods

To examine the relationship between Instructors' beliefs (independent variable) and actual practices of active learning methods (dependent variable), Pearson product moment correlations was computed.

Table 3: Relationship between Instructors' belief and their actual practice of active learning methods

Variables	Instructors' belief	Actual Practice
Instructors' belief	1.00	*-0.42
Actual Practice of ALMs	* -0.42	1.00

*P < 0.05

The result in the above table shows that instructors' beliefs on the basic assumptions of active learning approach was significantly correlated with their actual practice of active learning methods (r = -0.42) with P< 0.05. Supporting this finding, Pajares (1992) summarized the results of research on teachers' beliefs by indicating that there is a strong relationship between pedagogical beliefs of teachers, their planning for teaching, teaching decisions and classroom practices. Ernest (1998) also says that teachers' beliefs have a strong effect on the teaching practices by converting those beliefs into a practical reality. On the contrary, some studies (Van Zoest, 1994; Nespar 1987) have shown that the teachers' classroom practices were inconsistent with their beliefs.

3.4 Factors Inhibiting the Implementation of Active Learning Methods

The following figure shows factors perceived by the two groups of respondents as impediments of the implementation of active learning methods in Dessie CTE.

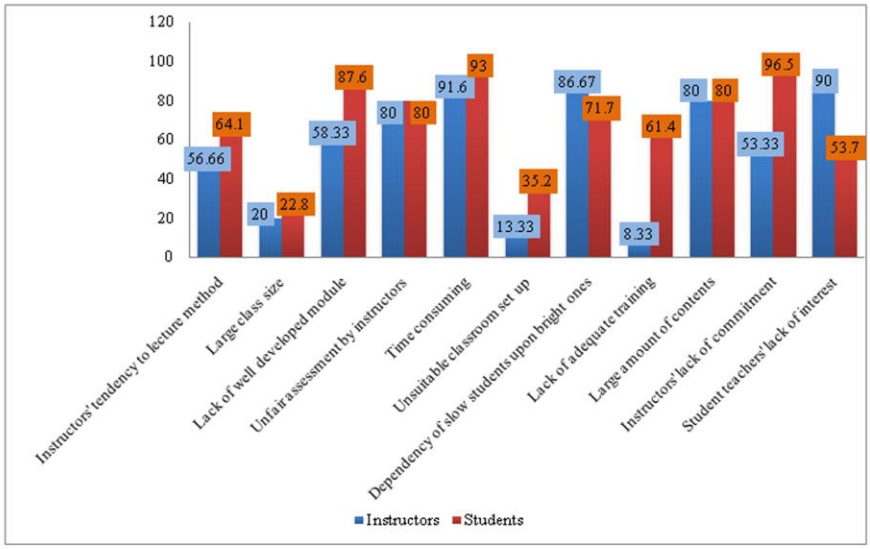

Figure-1: Factors inhibiting instructors in the implementation of active learning methods

Note: All numbers indicate percentage

As shown in the above figure, eleven factors assumed to be affecting the implementation of active learning strategies in the college were given to the respondents. In this regard, the two groups of respondents revealed that the tendency of instructors to the traditional lecture method, lack of well-developed training modules, problem of evaluating the progress of each trainee, time constraint, dependency of slow students on bright students, huge amount of contents to be covered and lack of commitments were found to be the most hindering factors in the implementation of active learning in the college.

Regarding the inclination of instructors to traditional approach, Gregory and Thorley (1994) stated that when a teacher lectures she/he gets the feeling that the content is being covered, because it has been presented to the students in an orderly fashion.

As clearly shown in the graph above, lack of well-developed training modules in different courses was one of the major problems that that made using active learning, Floden, Porter,

Schmidt & Schwille, 1985) noted that the use of active learning methods in the college difficult. In relation to this, some scholars (for instance, Irwin, Freeman, Alford methods requires teachers to build a set of handouts, which create interdependence among students and provide a basis and reason for their working together.

The other factor that hindered the implementation of active learning methods was providing unfair marks. During FGD, many student teachers also complained that their instructors gave unfair grades that were not commensurate with each individual's effort, contribution and quality of work. Commenting this problem, Reece and walker (2003) stated that getting assessment right is critical in active learning methods. They suggested that the problem, which arises as a result of assessing students' activities, could be resolved by developing criteria for doing assessment tasks and the criteria of marking as explicit as possible.

Regarding shortage of time many interviewed instructors admitted that mostly they gave individual and group assignments to students that can be done outside the classroom; subsequently students were frequently complaining about the lack of adequate time to accomplish their assignments. For Gregory and Thorley (1994), students need time to work together to reach a consensus and give opportunity for minority to be actively involved in the class.

The results of this study also indicated that due to students' lack of motivation and commitment, many students wanted their group assignments to be carried out by one or a few of competent and responsible students. In connection to this, Cooper et al. (1990) indicated that in order to minimize and if possible avoid such problems, the best advice is to explain the rationale, design well-structured meaningful tasks, give students clear directions, set expectations for how group members are to contribute and interact, and invite students to try it.

Regarding the amount of contents as inhibiting factor, Gregory and Thorley (1994) reflected that teachers fear a loss in content when they use active learning methods because students' interactions often take longer than simple lectures. Students need time to accumulate enough information in order to be able to use it within their groups. They need time to work together to reach a consensus. They further commented that since the major function of active or cooperative learning involves teaching students how to work together effectively, teachers need not to focus on how much they teach rather how much students are actively involved in the material.

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

4.1 Conclusions

Although instructors have positive beliefs about the basic assumptions of active learning, their actual efforts of employing a variety of active learning strategies were found to be inadequate. Hence, the result of this study revealed that there is a negative correlation between instructors' beliefs and their actual practice of active learning.

The major factors as impediments to the implementation of active learning strategies in the college were lack of instructors' commitment to design a variety of active learning strategies in their lesson plans, the tendency of instructors to the traditional lecture method, lack of student teachers' motivation to engage independently and cooperatively in the given activities, the huge amount of contents to be covered,shortage of time and lack of instructional material.

4.2 Recommendations

It is advisable that the college has to re-arrange continuous professional development opportunities or activities in the form of training, professional dialogue,peer observation or experience sharing to enhance instructors' knowledge, skills and commitment to implement active learning approach. Well organized follow-up and supportive mechanisms should be designed both at the department and college level on a regular basis in order to assess the effectiveness of active learning approach, to identify problems that hinder the practice of active learning methods and to take actions accordingly. Instructors should conduct regular reflection in action and reflection on action by asking their student teachers to rate and evaluate their teaching practices in general and their applications of active learning methods in particular. The college should play its part for the accessibility and improvement of the necessary resources such as training modules, library reference books, laboratory equipments, and if possible computers and network connections for each instructor. Contents of the courses and time allotted for them do not much each other. Hence, training modules should be re-written in a way they involve activities to be authentic, set in a meaningful context, and to promote student teachers' individual efforts and cooperation.

References

Cook, E.D. and Hazelwood, A.C. (2002). An active learning strategy for the classroom_ "Who wants to win some mini chips ahoy?" *Journal of Accounting Education*, 20(4):297.

Cooper, J. S., Prescott, L., Cook, L., Smith, R. M., and Cuseo, J. (1990). Cooperative learning and college instruction: Effective use of student learning teams. Long Beach, CA: California State University Academic Publications Program.

Creswell, J. (2012). Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, & Evaluating Quantitative & Qualitative Research (4thed). Boston: Pearson.

Derebssa Dufera. (2006). Tension between traditional and modern teaching-learning approaches in Ethiopian primary schools. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education*, 9(1):123-140.

Ernest, P. (1998). The impact of beliefs on the teaching of mathematics. Paper presented the 6th International Congress of Mathematical Education, Budapest, August.

Fleder, R.M; and Brent, R. (1999). Active learning versus covering the syllabus; dealing with large class. Retrieved 10/17/2013, from http://www.nscu.edu.edu/Fleder-public/column/faces-2htm/

Frazee, M.B. (1995) Integrated Teaching Methods: Theory Classroom Approach., and field based Connections. New York: McGraw Hill Inc.

Gregory, R. and Thorely, L. (1994).Using Group-Based Learning in Higher Education. London: Kogan

ICDR (1999).Teacher Education Handbook. Addis Ababa: Urael printing

Irwin, S., Freeman, D.J., Alford, L.E., Floden, R.E., Porter, N.C., Schmidt, W.H., & Schwille, J.R. (1985). Grouping practices and opportunity to learn: A study with in class room variation in a content taught class. Chicago

Johnson, D. and Johnson, R. (1990).What is Cooperative Learning? In Brubacher, M, R. Payne, and K. Rickett (eds). Perspectives on Small Group learning: Theory and practice. Ontario: Rubicon

Lue, E (2000). The New Curriculum: issues of Theory and Practice for Teacher Educators. Tigrai Education Bureau, BESO project (unpublished).

MOE. (2003). A National Curriculum Guide for Pre-service Teacher Training Education Program. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Nespar, J. (1987). "The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching". *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(4), 317-328.

Parmelee, J. M. (1992). Instructional pattern of student teachers of middle school mathematics: An ethnographic study. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, Illionis State University.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). "Teachers beliefs and pedagogical research: Cleaning up a messy construct". Review of Pedagogical Research, 62, 307-332.

Palmer, G., Peters, K., and Streetman, R. (2003). Cooperative Learning. In M. Orey (Ed), Emerging perspective on Learning, Teachingand Technology. Retrieved November 3, 2013 from: http:/www.coe,uga.edu/epltt/com.htm.

Reda Darge. (2001). Conceptions of Constructivist Teaching Approaches in Higher Education: A Case study. *Institute of Educational Research* (IER). 9(1):57-94

Reece, J. and Walker, S. (2003). Teaching, Training and Learning (5th eds). Great Britain: Business Education publisher LTD.

Squazzin, T. and Grann, M.V. (1998). Education Reform and Innovations in Namibia. Okahandja: Namibia.

TESO. (2003).Teacher Education System Overhaul Programme. Addis Ababa.

Trigwell, K., and Prosser, M. (1996). Congruence between intention and strategy in university science teachers' approaches to teaching. *Higher Education*, 32 : 77-87.

Van Zoest, L. (1994). Beliefs about mathematics teaching held by pre-service teachers involved in a first grade mentorship program. *Mathematics Education Research Journal*, 6(1):37-55

THE PROTECTION OF MINORITY SHAREHOLDERS RIGHT UNDER THE ETHIOPIAN COMPANY LAW

Alemu Taye Enyew[1]

[1]Debre Markos University, School of Law,

E-Mail: alextaye20@gmail.com

Abstract

Business organizations can be constituted in different forms, company being one. A company, once it acquired its legal personality, enjoys certain attributes, which differentiate it from other forms of business organizations like partnerships. In a company, there may be two types of shareholders. Those are minority shareholders and majority shareholders. The minority shareholders may face dual disadvantages from the managerial power and the majority rule. Minority and majority issue comes if the company ownership is not absolute diffuse or absolute concentrated ownership. The problem exists in between the two. Except financial institutions, there is no share restriction in the company under the company law of Ethiopia. Meaning, so long as minimum member requirements (five for share company and two for private limited company) and minimum capital requirement (50000 Ethiopian Birr for share company and 15000 Ethiopian Birr for private limited company) is fulfilled, it does not put any restriction as to the number of shares a member may hold in the company's total shares. However, for instance, if the company is Bank, no one is allowed to hold more than five percent of a bank's total shares either on his own or jointly with his spouse or with a person who is below the age of 18 related to him by consanguinity to the first degree. Absence of capital limitation in Share Company triggers the existence of majority and minority shareholder, which ultimately causes the manipulation of the right of a minority shareholder in the corporate governance. Hence, this article analysis and examines the strength and the weakness of the commercial code (hereinafter Com. Code or company law) in protecting the rights of minority shareholders in the context of publicly held share companies. It does not address financial institutions like bank and micro finance, despite the fact they are always established in the form of Share Company. The reason is they did not govern by the Com. Code. Instead, they are governed by Proclamation Number (No.) 592/2008 and Proclamation No. 626/2009 respectively.

Keywords: Company Law, Ethiopia, Minority Shareholder, Protection

1. Introduction

The formation of companies in the modern legal structure is a recent phenomenon in Ethiopian history (Getahun, 2010). It was formed mostly by public subscription, which allows the public to contribute and become a shareholder (Ermias and Nega, 2010). Companies often accumulate enormous capital through shareholding. It generates a vast proportion of the world's wealth (Jaint and Marious, 2009). Due to its limited liability, accumulation of enormous capital, and transferability of share, company has become a favorite business organization (Kisch, 1940-1941). Furthermore, it is suitable for running a commercial enterprise and it is the most comfortable way to work together (Jingyi, and Peng, 2009).

Company law deals with all aspects of companies such as membership in companies, management of companies, formation of companies, and other requirements to create companies (GOGNA, 2010). In Ethiopia, the main laws that govern companies are the Com. Code enacted in 1960 and commercial registration and business licensing proclamation enacted in 2010. Company law provisions are part of the Com. Code under the heading of "Business Organizations". The enactment of the company law had triggered the formation of several private companies in Ethiopia until 1974 (Gebeyaw, 2011). However, with the adoption of socialism from 1974-1991 it was utterly suspended due to the nationalization policy of the Dergue, where all incorporated companies had nationalized. After Ethiopian People Democratic Front (EPRDF) comes into power, its function has restored and different business organizations start to form. Currently, Ethiopia is witnessing the explosion of companies, which are offering shares for public subscription (Tikikile, 2011).

In the present day of Ethiopia, the numbers of companies are growing from time to time due to free market economy and privatization policy of the government. Despite the fact, people are interested in share ownership and its investment potential; many do not have a clear understanding of their rights that is enshrined in the Com. Code. Practically, it is quite apparent to hear that a few majority shareholders are manipulating a large number of shareholders in various ways. This article will examine and analyze the Ethiopian company law how it protects the rights of shareholders in general and minority shareholders in particular. In doing that, this article aims to contribute in creating investors' awareness as to the possible consequences of owning shares and participating in this area of investment. The article also aims to contribute towards policy discussions regarding the gaps and weakness

that exists in the Com. Code and how they should be addressed.

2. The Concept of Minority Shareholder

In Ethiopia company law; there is no clear definition of what is meant by a minority shareholder and majority shareholder. However, Black's law dictionary (1999) defines minority shareholders as follows:

> *Minority shareholders are shareholders who own less than half of the total shares outstanding and thus cannot control the corporation's management or single-handedly elect directors.*

This means, a shareholder that holds more than fifty percent of equity in a company considered as majority shareholder and shareholders who hold less than fifty percent of the capital of the company considered as a minority shareholder. Contrary to the Black's law definition, some scholars define minority shareholders without considering the mathematical calculation of shareholding in the company (Belayneh, 2012). Accordingly, minority shareholders are those shareholders irrespective of their shareholding in the company who are not capable of controlling the company's affairs (Timmerman, and Doorman, 2001). This means, regardless of the equity capital, the shareholder may be minority shareholder as long as the shareholder is unable to control the company because of various reasons, like preferential right, the less capital contributor in the company may manage the company than the majority capital contributor (Hirschman, 1990). In such cases, the majority shareholders are effectively in a minority position with regard to determining a company's affairs. Likewise, the United States Court (Hollis v. Hill, 2000) interpreted the issue of minority or majority shareholder not based on the shareholders capital or share in the company. Rather, the base to determine whether they are minority shareholder or majority shareholder is their controlling power in a business. Here is the interpretation:

> *The questions of whether the shareholder is 'minority' or 'majority' shareholders should not focus on mathematical calculation but, instead, should focus on whether they have the power to work their will on others and whether they have done so improperly.*

When we look at the provisions of the Com. Code in relation to the majority and minority shareholder issue, there is no precise definition as stated before.

However, some provisions give a hint indirectly on the conception of minority and majority shareholder. The company law stipulated that decision pass by simple majority voting (Com. Code, 1960, Article 421 (3)). This means fifty plus something positive vote is enough to pass a biding decision and it stated that every share has got at least one vote (Com. Code, 1960 Article 407 (2)). This indicates that, control of the company determined by the equity share capital that the shareholder owns in the company. A shareholder contributing a significant portion of the capital of the company possesses the majority of the voting right in the general meeting. Accordingly, minority shareholders are those shareholders that own less than fifty percent of the voting right in general meeting.

On the other hand, even if the Com. Code puts a general rule, which says, "Every share carries at least one vote", (Com. Code, 1960, Article 407(2)) it puts exception. The exception applies if there are preference shares. Hence, there is a possibility by which a shareholder may control the company without holding a significant percentage of the capital. In fact, preference shareholders may conduct their own special meetings, but they cannot control the decision-making process in the ordinary meetings of shareholders. Therefore, preferential shareholders are minority shareholders, according to the Ethiopian company law.

Most literatures use the phrases 'non-controlling' shareholders and 'minority' shareholders interchangeably (Paul, 2000). Hence, the writer used those words interchangeably and for this article minority shareholders are those shareholders who contribute less than fifty percent of the company capital regardless of their control power in a company.

3. Minority Shareholder Protection under the Ethiopian Company Law

The problem that a company law faces is trying to strike an acceptable balance between the right of the majority to have their way and the rights of a dissentient minority (Stephen, 2009) and (Walter, 1992).

An adequate protection of minority shareholders is unthinkable without legitimate legal norms (Tanja, 2012). Good corporate governance enhances the confidence of shareholders in general, and minority shareholders in particular ultimately it positively contributes towards the overall business environment (Hussein, 2012).

As far as the protection of the rights of minority shareholder is concerned, several writers believe that among other things, the interest of the

minority shareholders will be protected if they have representation on the board of director (BOD) (Fekadu, 2010). However, when we examine the powers of the BOD their influence is insignificant when we compare with the powers of the shareholders general meeting (Com. Code, 1960, Article 363 cum Article 388). In this regard, the law specifies that the BOD's power is subordinate to the power of the shareholders general meeting and dependent upon a resolution that is adopted by the shareholders meeting. The author is of the opinion that having representation in the board of director alone does not address all the issues that are related to the protection of minority shareholders. Rather, the issue of minority shareholder protection is associated with shareholder voting rights at general meetings since it is a critical way whereby shareholders may exercise their rights in a company (Ataollah, 2007).

Come back to the commercial code provisions which address the issues of minority shareholder protection, Article 352 seems vital since its' heading talks apparently about the protection of minority shareholders. Writers like Hussen (2014) understand Article 352 is applicable to minority shareholders in the same class of shareholders and his concern is the ambiguity of the phrase "legal status", about which the Com. Code gives no definition. However, instead of protecting the rights of shareholders within the same class, Article 352 protects a particular class of shareholders such as preference shareholders, who are in the minority most of the times, from abuse of ordinary shareholders who are mostly constituted the majority in the shareholding arrangement. The expression "legal status" in this Article addresses the various rights and obligations, these separate classes of shareholders has in the corporate structure. There is no difference in the legal status of shareholders within the same class. Therefore, Article 352 does not have much to do with protection of the rights of minority shareholders from abuse by the majority within the same class.

To point out some of the strength of the Com .Code, it recognizes the right to vote by proxy (Com .Code, 1960, Article 398(1) cum Article 402). Recognizing vote by proxy in the company law is one of the indices in the protection of shareholders, especially minority shareholders (Katharina, 2000). Obviously, due to less voting right attached to minority shareholders, they are reluctant to participate in every vote in person relatively with that of the majority shareholders. The concern of the large capital holder (majority shareholders), is not equal with the concern of the less capital holder (minority shareholders) in a company. Minority shareholders have less interest in attending the meeting in person than

majority shareholders. Had it not for proxy voting right, most probably minority shareholders would have failed to attend the meeting in person. However, proxy voting helps the actual owner can send a representative on behalf of him and exercise his right. Therefore, the recognition of proxy voting by law will have much benefit to the minority shareholders than a majority shareholder to exercise their voting right on proxy and it is a means to protect minority shareholders' right to vote.

Article 391 (2) (Com. Code, 1960) stipulates that the minimum percentage of share capital that entails shareholders to call general meeting is ten percent like that of Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2004) principles of corporate governance and La-Porta, Lopez, Shleifer, and Vishny (1998) standard. This helps minority shareholders to call a shareholders' meeting as long as they account ten percent of the capital of a company. For instance, if the minority shareholders are not happy the way the company was run and want a change in management, they can call a shareholder meeting and ask for the removal of the directors. This can be mentioned as a one instance of protecting the rights of minority shareholders. Of course, the right to call a shareholders' meeting does not necessarily mean they will be able to get the resolution passed due to the various requirements in the voting procedure. Still, this provision has a contribution in protecting minority shareholders as it enables them to promote their interests by putting pressure on both the management and majority shareholders.

The other right that is considered as a means of protecting minority shareholders as per La Porta et al (1998) analysis is pre-emptive right of the shareholders to buy newly issued shares. This right is provided in the Com. Code under Article 345(4) cum Article 470(1). However, a closer examination of the right reveals that pre-emptive right may not be as effective as it seems in protecting minority shareholders for the following reason. This right is given to all shareholders in proportion to their capital. This means, minority shareholders have the right to buy fewer newly issued shares as long as the shareholders buy proportionally, resulting no change as to their minority status. Hence, the pre-emptive right of shareholders may not provide the protection to minority shareholders as envisaged both the Com. Code and La Porta et al, (1998) standard.

According to La Porta et al (1998) analysis, shareholders' right to challenge decisions of the general meeting is considered as an instrument to protect minority shareholders and it recognized in the Com. Code (Com. Code,

1960, Article 416(2-5)). However, it is allowed in an exceptional situation with rigorous conditions. Looking at the principles, different writers conclude that Ethiopia does not recognize the shareholders' right to challenge decisions of the general meeting under its company law (Fekadu, 2004). However, this is a clear misreading of the law because the shareholder's right to challenge decisions of the general meeting is provided under Ethiopian company law, though it is in exceptional circumstance. Whenever the resolution of the meeting is against the law, article of association or memorandum of association, the shareholders can challenge it within three months from the resolution (Com. Code, 1960, Article 416(2)). Since the most important powers are found in the hands of the shareholders' meeting, most of the time minority shareholders' right may be abused by the decision of majority shareholders. Therefore, shareholders' right to challenge the decisions of the general meeting is the best mechanisms of protecting minority shareholders.

In addition, the Com.Code (1960) with rigorous conditions and in exceptional scenario recognizes oppressed minority mechanisms, which ensures the protection of the interest of minority shareholders' in the company (Com. Code, 1960, Article 463(1)). The notion of oppressed minority mechanisms is the right that is given to dissent shareholders, to withdraw from the company by selling their shares either to the company or to majority shareholders (Udo, 2006). The company or the controlling shareholders are duty bound to redeem the share of the dissent shareholders if their interest is affected by the resolution. Com. Code, (1960) Article 463 (1) stipulates oppressed minority mechanisms as follows:

> *Shareholders who dissent from resolutions concerning any change in the objects or nature of the company or the transfer of the head office abroad may withdraw from the company and have their shares redeemed, at the average price on the stock exchange over the last six months. Where the shares are not quoted on the stock exchange, they shall be redeemed at a price proportionate to the company's assets as shown in the balance sheet for the last financial year.*

The ground to exercise oppressed minority mechanisms is exhaustively listed in the above provision. A shareholder who does not agree with the decision of the meeting and believe that the change in the objects or nature of the company or the transfer of the head office abroad affects their rights, they can request the company to purchase their shares. This provision helps to protect minority shareholders

from abuse by majority shareholders and it is considered as one means of protection mechanism as the La Porta et al (1998) findings. The other strength of the Com. Code is the recognition of an absolute majority vote and absolute majority presence of directors in person or by representation to pass binding decision in the BODs (Com. Code, 1960, Article 358(1)). An absolute majority vote is not only for BODs decision, but also it is required for a resolution to be adopted at an extraordinary meeting (Com. Code, 1960, Article 425(1-2)). Meaning, simple majority vote is not enough to pass binding decision in the BODs and extraordinary meetings. In an extraordinary meeting, an absolute majority vote requires if the resolutions focus on the issue of change of the nationality of the company; or require shareholders to increase their investments in the company. The requirement of an absolute majority resolution vote helps to protect minority shareholders than a simple majority requirement. The issues that require absolute majority requirement is exhaustively listed under Article 425(3), which says other resolution can be adopted by simple majority requirement. Minority shareholders can affect the decision of the majority shareholders so long as they count more than twenty-five percent vote by pooling their voting right. Hence, to some extent it secures the interest of dissent shareholders. However, an absolute vote is exception of simple majority vote.

The Com. Code also provides the rule of "one share one vote" principle (Com. Code, 1960, Article 407(2)). It stipulates a mandatory rule, which states, "Every share carries at least one vote". It is a compulsory provision, from which no suspension is allowed by the resolution of the general meeting. Regardless of their capital, shareholders have a voting right. It is the inherent right of the minority shareholders despite the fact; this right has equally benefited majority shareholders. Had it been non-mandatory, majority shareholders would have been adopted other types of voting system or they would have been suspended the voting right of the minority shareholders as long as it promotes their interest. However, exceptionally the memorandum of association of the company may restrict the voting right of preference shareholders (Com. Code, 1960, Article 336(3)). In such scenario, the preference shareholders are dissenting shareholders and their inherent right is suspended. Generally, one share one vote rule is vital to protect the intrinsic right of minority shareholders from being suspended by the majority shareholder resolutions or by a company's article of association.

Also to the above method of protecting minority shareholders, there is a possibility of instituting proceedings against the directors if the

resolution is adopted by the vote of shareholders representing at least one-fifth of the capital to do so (Com. Code, 1960, Article 365(2-4)). Once the resolution to institute proceedings is adopted by shareholders with one-fifth of the capital holder, directors may be removed from their posts and others may replace them (Com. Code, 1960, Article 365 (2-4)). If a company fails from instituting proceeding against the directors, the shareholders who corroborate the resolution can initiate action by themselves (Com. Code, 1960, Article 365(2-4)). However, the right to institute action is not given to the individual shareholder. Had it been given to the individual shareholder, it would have been much better protection to minority shareholders. By pooling their capital, minority shareholders may force the company to institute proceeding against the directors and undoubtedly, it contributes in protecting minority shareholders even though this right does not give to individual shareholders.

4. The Commercial Code and Its Gaps in the Protection of Minority Shareholders

The fact that the Com. Code provides different methods for protection of minority shareholders like proxy voting, one share one vote mandatory rule, pre-emptive right, oppressed minority mechanisms, and the right to challenge decisions of the general meeting yet there are gaps that have to be discussed.

The general meeting of the shareholder has very broad powers in the Com. Code. Accordingly, it has not only met to decide on such ordinary matters such as the election, replacement, and remuneration of the members of the board of directors, or the approval of final statements, but also they meet to amend the memorandum of association and/or article of association, change the nationality of the company and require shareholders to increase their investments in the company (Com. Code, 1960, Articles 419, 423 cum 425) and (Christoph, 2005). This indicates, the company law gives high and ultimate powers to the shareholders general meeting. As a rule, the company law follows simple majority rule in the general meeting and it makes the position of minority shareholders weak when faced with that of majority shareholders. Following the simple majority as a rule, to pass a binding resolution is a significant challenge to minority shareholders to challenge the resolutions. No apparent right is stipulated which enables them to challenge the decision of majority shareholders. Exceptionally, resolutions of the general meeting can be challenged pursuant to Article 416 (2). It reads,

> Resolutions adopted contrary to the law, the memorandum or articles of association may be

challenged within three months from the resolution but in no case after three months from the entry of the resolution in the commercial register.

Meaning, the one who would like to challenge the vote should prove the fulfillment of those cumbersome conditions. The condition is less likely to be met and challenge the vote. Undoubtedly, an absolute majority rule helps to protect minority shareholders than simple majority rule (Aparajita, 2012). However, it is adopted as an exceptional scenario in the Com. Code.

At the time when a board of director commits a fault on the company or on any shareholders, to remove or to replace that board of director, the approval of the majority shareholders is needed. From this, we can say that, the board directors may not be quitted from the office, even if they commit certain abuses on minority shareholders as long as their action benefit majority shareholders due to the fact there action has a high possibility of support and approval by majority shareholders. There are no viable rules that allow minority shareholders to bring action against the board of directors when the latter commit wrongs that affect the interest of minority shareholders. The company law does not provide specific procedures for minority shareholders to exercise their rights or to seek for remedies when directors commit certain wrongs.

On top of that, the shareholders' right to vote mainly exercised at shareholders' meetings that are lawfully convened according to the company law rules. If not, the "resolutions" passed by the meeting would not be lawful, and binding on the company, the management or any other shareholders. Although the Com. Code requires that within four months at the end of each financial year, the directors shall call an ordinary annual general meeting, in their article of association, they may extend up to the maximum of six months since the law gives discretion to extend (Com. Code, 1960, Article 418(1) cum (2)). In fact, meeting before four months of the end of each financial year is not prohibited as long as it is necessary. As provided under Article 391 (2) minimum percentage of share capital that entails to call general meeting is ten present. However, as a normal course of things, the board of directors as a rule shall convene the shareholders' meeting (Com. Code, 1960, Articles 362(d) 391(1) and 418(1)). If the directors fail to do so for different reasons, the auditors shall convene the shareholders meeting and they are considered as part of the management. If still the auditors fail to call the meeting, the liquidators can call at the time the company is in dissolution only.

Lastly, the court can call a meeting of the shareholders if it is necessary (Com. Code, 1960, Articles 377(1) cum 391(1)). Hence, as a rule, the power to call the shareholders' meetings falls in the hands of the management (directors and auditors). This shows that, the possibility to call a general meeting out of the management of the company in the normal course of things is almost impossible. There is an exceptional way for minority shareholders to participate in the power of calling the shareholders meeting by applying to the court. If an urgent meeting before the four months of the end of the financial year is needed, it is difficult to call a shareholders' meeting if the management is not willing to do so. This puts minority shareholders in a disadvantaged position.

Once the shareholders' general meeting is convened, the next issue that would be raised the right to provoke motions, or preparing the agenda. The Com. Code gives the mandate to prepare the agenda of the meeting to the caller of the meeting (Com.Code, 1960, Articles 391(1) cum 397(1)). Thus, the minority shareholders may not have the right to raise and prepare the agenda of the meetings since they do not have a chance to convene the meeting. Rather, they can only "request" the court of the place where the head office of the company resides to convene the meeting if they hold one-tenth of the share capital of the company (Com. Code, 1960, Article 391(2)). Most probably, management of the company calls the meeting and they may not prepare an agenda that matters related to their faults. This indicates that, since agenda of the general meeting prepared by management of the company, most of the time the fault of the management towards minority shareholders may not be prepared as an agenda so long as the majority shareholders are the beneficiary. Therefore, under the Com. Code of Ethiopia, minority shareholders cannot stop the harmful acts of management (who are often controlled by the majority shareholders) with the convention of the shareholders' meetings. Therefore, a company law is not capable to protect them and it opens loophole minority shareholders to be abused by management of the company and controlling shareholders.

4.1.Absence of Cumulative Voting

The concept of cumulative voting allied with board elections. Fekadu, (2010) states that:

> Cumulative voting relates to voting during board elections in which the votes of the contending groups will be multiplied by the number of board seats and calculated for the contenders' nominees in accordance to the proportion of each group's summed up votes.

Cumulative voting system helps minority shareholders in the same class to get a

representative on the board as suggested by OECD (2004) principles. However, cumulative voting is not adopted in Ethiopian company law. Rather, it comes up with a different type of the representation system as stated under Article 352 (Com. Code, 1960). Though Article 352 provides representation of minority shareholders in the BOD, it does not state about representation of general minority shareholders in the company rather it states particular class of shareholders like preference shareholder who are minor due to loss of voting right. It has nothing to do with the representation of general minority shareholders through cumulative voting system. If it had been cumulative voting, no matter how much the shareholders invest in the company, by pulling together their vote, minority shareholders in the same class would have gotten representation on the board. Due to this ground, majority shareholders actually retain the power to appoint the directors. Despite the fact, minority shareholders in different class of shareholders have a chance to obtain representation on the board of directors, it is not a cumulative voting method and it is not for general minority shareholders in the same class (Com. Code, 1960, Article 352).

4.2. The Impossibility to Bring Derivative Action

Welling (1991) best describes the notion of the derivative action as follows:

> A shareholder derivative suit is a claim asserted by a shareholder on behalf of the corporation. In a shareholder, derivative suit the law recognizes that corporate directors may not be acting in the best interests of the corporation when they refuse to assert the corporations legal right to enforce the directors' fiduciary duty to the corporation. The purpose of the suit is to prevent abuse of authority by the board of directors.

Granting the right to bring derivative action is the crucial mechanism for the protection of minority shareholders. The derivative action only called “claims for fraud on the minority,” it has claimed when majority shareholders or director have done wrong at the company and/or minority shareholders (Przemysław, 2011). Any shareholder can bring a derivative action against the majority shareholders or director on behalf of other shareholders or in the name of the company (Lorenzo, 2006). Generally, it has been a meaningful protective device not only to the minority shareholders but also for the company (Mathias, 2007). However, the Com. Code does

provide a full notation of derivative action. It stipulates that any shareholders who are abused or mismanaged by the directors can bring proceedings on behalf of him, but not in the name of the company or other shareholders (Com. Code, 1960, Article 367). To say derivative action any shareholder can bring proceeding against majority shareholder or director not only on behalf of him, but also on behalf of other shareholders and the company. Had it been incorporated the full notion, in the event of the minority shareholders are unable to bring an action by themselves; the other shareholders would have brought proceedings on behalf of the other shareholders. Hence, our company law fails to incorporate the full sense of derivative action so that it loss the primary protection mechanism of minority shareholders.

4.3.Difficulties to Exit from the Company

Exit from the company is somehow similar to the concept of oppressed minority mechanisms. An oppressed minority mechanism is a scenario, by which a company itself or majority shareholders are forced to buy the applicant's share. The Com. Code recognizes the remedy of oppressed minority mechanism, if there is any change in the objects of a company or the transfer of the head office (Com. Code, 1960, Article 463(1)). It is an opportunity to minority shareholders to withdraw from the company by selling their shares to the company at the average price on the stock exchange over the last six months if there is any change in the objects of a company or the transfer of the head office abroad and if they are not agreed on the decision (Com. Code, 1960, Article 463(1)). Nevertheless, no stock market in Ethiopia yet and it is difficult to know the average price of the share (Solomon, 2011).

The company law of Ethiopia does not prohibit the free transfer of shares directly. However, the writer believes, one way or another it prohibits free transfer of shares indirectly contrary to OECD (2004) principles of corporate governance. Under Article 333 (1) it reads, "Provisions may be made in the articles of association or by resolution of an extraordinary meeting restricting the free transfer of shares." It allows the shareholders to restrict the free transfer of shares by the articles of association or by resolution of an extraordinary meeting. If the controlling shareholders decide in favor of not to transfer shares, free transfer of share is restricted. If members who are not satisfied with the company's activities would like to exit from the company, they cannot do that as of right. The implication of this provision is, so long as the majority shareholders agreed not transfer share and substitute by new members; they can restrict transfer of share and ultimately the minority

shareholders are bound to live as a member of the company regardless of their interest. This shows that, though shareholders are in need of transfer their share to the outsider, it may be impossible since there is a room of a restriction on transfer of share by majority decision. Therefore, without any doubt, it affects the interest of minority shareholders and it opens a loophole for the majority shareholders to misuse their power.

Furthermore, even if the company's majority shareholders and article of association allows free transfer of share, it is hard to sell shares due to the absence of the stock (security) market in Ethiopia. If someone wants to sell his share and withdraw from the company, there is no market access like any other good. Had it been in USA, shareholders would have sold their shares like any other good to withdraw from the company since there is equity market. Absence of a capital market (stock market) is not only makes the exit system hard, but also it makes the entrance system hard too in Ethiopia. Therefore, absence of stock markets contributes the exit rights of minority shareholders less likely. Moreover, despite the capital gain tax of 30% (Income Tax Proclamation, 2002 Article 37(1b)) is collected only when shares are sold at premium and is computed based on the difference between the par value and the selling price of shares, it does not motivate the transfer of shares.

Thus, this makes much more cumbersome to exit from the company. Hence, the company law of Ethiopia directly or indirectly and other factors restricted the possibility to exit from the company membership.

4.4. Absence of Fiduciary Duty of the Majority Shareholders towards the Minority Shareholders

Despite the fact, the company law has elaborated the legal liabilities of directors and managers for breaches of their legal obligations under different provisions; it has failed to address the idea of the fiduciary duty of the controlling shareholders towards the minority shareholders. Thus, in exercising their rights as majority shareholders, they are virtually free to exercise them in any manner, which they choose (Alessandro, 2015). They do not suppose to consider the general interest of the company and the interest of other shareholders. This would be problematic because the result of their voting as the majority shareholders does not only act for themselves, but also for the corporation and dissent shareholders. Hence, absence of such duty makes the abuse of majority would almost be inevitable (Carol, 2000). The Ethiopian company law imposes the fiduciary duty of directors towards the shareholders but it fails to impose fiduciary duty of majority shareholders towards minority shareholders (Susan, 2001).

5. Conclusion

One of the fears of establishing a company is there is certainly a risk that the majority will take advantage of the minority and that a company will be run at the expense of the minority shareholders. The general purpose of minority protection instruments is to minimize or avoid the abusive power of the major shareholders. Rights of minority shareholders should be protected for development of companies by attracting investors. The confidence of minority shareholders may be enhanced if the legal system provides mechanisms for them to get proper remedy. The government should introduce measures, or enhance existing measures, to provide non-controlling shareholders with adequate protection from exploitation by controlling shareholders and managers. By introducing instruments of minority protection, the law can make a balance between the interests of minority and majority shareholders.

This article tried to examine the defects and the strength of the company law of Ethiopia in the protection of minority shareholders. As strength, the company law provided one share one-vote rule, voting by proxy, the minimum of capital that entails shareholders to call general meeting is ten percent, and the right to challenge the decision of the general meeting exceptionally. Furthermore, oppressed minority mechanism with stringent conditions, possibility of instituting proceeding against the directors and the pre-emptive right of shareholders to buy newly issued shares in proportion to their shareholding are recognized in the Com. Code.

To mention some of the defects of the Com. Code from the point view of minority shareholder protection, it is mainly characterized by the two facts: first, the inabilities of the company law to protect minority shareholders from dual oppression by both the managerial power and the majority rule and the second one is, it fails to address the proper remedies when the problem materialized. To tackle those deficiencies, the company law of Ethiopia should recognize the rights of minority shareholders to convene the shareholders' general meeting and to propose resolutions. The law should also impose a fiduciary duty on majority shareholders towards minority shareholders. It should evade the right that is given to majority shareholders to restrict free transfer of shares. It should also adopt cumulative voting representation system to general minority shareholders in the BOD as the mechanisms to mitigate the absolute majority rule. Moreover, the law should avail remedies to minority shareholders through lawsuits, including the direct suit, the derivative action, the oppression remedy, the appraisal remedy, the remedy of liquidation and dissolution, and the compliance and restraining order.

Acknowledgment

I am grateful to my colleagues Misganaw Gashaw (Assistant professor), Dangachew Melese and Getnet Atnafu (PHD) for their comments on the earlier drafts of this article. I am grateful to Tilahun Teshome (Prof.) for his constructive and fruitful comments. I would also like to acknowledge the anonymous internal and external assessors.

References

Banking Business Proclamation. (2008). Federal Negarit Gazeta, 14th year, No.57.

Belayneh Ketsela. (2012). Evaluating the Concepts of Minority in Corporate Group Context: A Specific Look at Minority Shareholders of the Subsidiary Company, Bahir Dar university journal of law, vol 2, No 2, Bahir Dar, pp 232.

Bhargava, A. (2012). Protection of Minority Rights under Company's Affairs, Jaipur, India, PP 1-2.

Commercial Code of the Empire of Ethiopia. (1960). Negarit Gazzeta, Extraordinary issue, Proc. No. 166, 19th year, No. 3.

Commercial Registration and Business Licensing, Proclamation. (2010). Federal Negarit Gazeta, 16th Year No. 42.

Dine, J. & Koutsias, M. (2009). Company Law, (7th edition), Florence Italy.

Ermias Ayalew and Nega Mihretie. (2010). Law of Traders and Business Organizations, Bahir Dar University and Jimma University, pp 73.

Fekadu petros. (2004). **የኢትዮጵያ የኩባንያ ህግ**, 1st edition, **ፋር ኢስት ትሬዲንግ ኃላ.የተ.የግ.ማህበር**, Addis Abeba, p 138.

Fekadu Petros. (2010). Emerging Separation of Ownership and Control in Ethiopian Share Companies:Legal and Policy Implications,MIZAN LAW REVIEW Vol. 4 No.1, Geneva University, pp 16-17.

Garner, A. (1999). Black's law dictionary, (1999), Seventh Edition.

Gebeyaw Simachew. (2011). A Critical Analysis of the Ethiopian Commercial Code in Light of OECD Principles of Corporate Governance, Doctorial Dissertation, University of London.

Getahun Seifu. (2010). Revisiting Company Law with the Advent of Ethiopia Commodity Exchange, Mizan Law Review Vol. 4 No.1, pp 103 .

Gogna, P. (2010). A textbook of Company Law, (8th Revised Edition), New Delhi, pp 390-391.

Hirschman, M. (1990). Exit, Voice and Loyalty: Responses to Decline in Firms, Organizations and States, Harvard University Press.

Hollis v. Hill. (2000). court of appeal, 232 F3d 460, 5th Cir.

Hussein Ahmed. (2012). Overview of Corporate Governance in Ethiopia: The Role, Composition and Remuneration of Boards of Directors in Share Companies, MIZAN LAW REVIEW Vol. 6 No.1.

Hussein Ahmed. (2014). Reforming Corporate Governance in Ethiopia: Appraisal of Competing Approaches, Oromia Law Journal, Vol. 3, Ambo University.

Income Tax Proclamation. (2002). FEDERAL Negarit Gazeta, 8th Year No. 34.

Jingyi, W. and Peng, W. (2009). Discussion about Shareholders' Right to Information, Journal of Politics and Law, Shanghai.

Judge, S. (2009) Business Law, 4th Edition, Palgrave Macnillan, New York, pp p 227.

Kisch, M. (1940-1941), minderheidsrechten van den aandeelhouder in de naamlooze vennootschap (The minority rights of the shareholder in the NV), De Naamloze Vennootschap.

Kline, L. (2000). Protecting Minority Shareholders in Close Corporations: Modeling Czech Investor Protections on German and United States Law, 23 B.C. Int'l & Comp. L. Rev. 229, Boston.

Kuzman, T. (2012). Protection of Rights of Minority Shareholders: Legal Framework and Enforcement, National University of Singapore.

Mathias M. (2007). Shareholder Protection Around the World, Centre for Business Research, University of Cambridge Working Paper No. 359.

Micro financing Business Proclamation. (2009). Federal Negarit Gazeta, 15th Year No.33, ADDIS ABABA.

OECD. (2004). Principles of Corporate Governance, France, p 18.

Paul, L. (2000). Company Law Reform in OECD Countries A Comparative Outlook of Current Trends, Stockholm, Sweden.

Pistor, K. (2000). Patterns of Legal Charge: Shareholder and Creditor Rights in Transition Economies (European Bank Working Paper No.49).

Przemysław, S. (2011). Caring for the Small The Protection of Minority Shareholders under Polish and English Law, Warsaw University, p 15.

Rahmani, A. (2007). Majority Rule and Minority Shareholder Protection in Joint Stock Companies in England and Iran, Doctorial Dissertation, University of Glasgow.

Raphael, L. Florencio, L. Andrei, S., and Robert, V. (1998)," Law and Finance", Journal of Political Economy, pp 105-106.

Robert, W. (2000), the law of corporations, 5th edition, west publishing co.-united state of America, New York, pp 535-565.

Segato, L. (2006). A Comparative Analysis of Shareholder Protections in Italy and the United States: Parmalat as a Case Study, *Northwestern Journal of International Law & Business*, Volume 26.

Solomon Abay. (2011). Financial Market Development, Policy, and Regulation: The International Experience and Ethiopia Need Further Reform, Doctorial Dissertation, University of Amsterdam.

Susan, B. (2001). Textbook company law, 3rd Edition, Old Balley Press, Great Britain, pp 265.

Tikikile Kumulachew. (2011). Regulation of Initial Public Offering of Shares in Ethiopia: Critical Issues and Challenges, LM thesis, A.A.U.

Timmerman, L. and Doorman, A. (2001). 'rights of minority shareholders in the Netherlands' retrieved from http://www.ejcl.org/64/art64-12.pdf. pp 5.

Udo, C. (2006). Shareholder Protection in the USA and Germany - "Law and Finance" Revisited, GERMAN LAW JOURNAL . 07 No. 03.

Varrenti, A. (2015). Shareholders' rights in private and public companies, Second edition, Indonesia.

Walter, W. (1992). Protecting the Minority Shareholder, Singapore Academy of Law Journal, pp 123.

Welling, B. (1991). Corporate Law in Canada: the Governing Principles, 2nd, Toronto.

Call for manuscripts

The Editorial Board of DMUJIDS invites researchers and practitioners to submit manuscripts for possible publication. If you are interested in contributing, please submit your manuscript/s through the following address:

Editor –in-chief

DMU Journal of Interdisciplinary studies

Debre Markos University

E-Mail: DMUJIDS @ gmail.com

P.O. Box 269

Debre Markos, Ethiopia