

**TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING JOB MATCH IN
OROMIA REGIONAL STATE: THE CASE OF ILU ABA BOR ZONE**



**A THESIS RESEARCH SUBMITTED TO COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL
PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THEREQUIREMENTS FOR POST GRADUTATES IN SCHOOL
LEADERSHIP**

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MANAGEMENT**

**BY
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DECLARATION

Statement of approval This Thesis is prepared by Zemedu Dubale for partial fulfillment of the requirements of MA degree in school leadership.

Technical and Vocational Training Job Match in Oromia Regional State: The Case of Ilu Aba Bor Zone

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

MOE: Ministry of Education

ANOVA: Analysis of Co-variance

TVET: Technical and Vocational Training

SNNPRS: Southern Nation Nationality Peoples Regional State

REB: Regional Education Bureau

SDPs: Successful Development plans

UNESCO: United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

DAs: the extension workers (commonly known as Development Agents)

TQM: Total Quality Management

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ABSTRACT

This research was to investigate technical and vocational training job match in the Ilu Abba Bor zone. The descriptive survey research design was used. In this study, both qualitative and quantitative method were employed. Among seven TVET in the Ilu Aba Bor Zone four officers and four deans were purposely taken from four weredas, namely Mettu wereda, Darimu werda, Gore wereda, and Yayo woerda after these TVETs which were selected randomly. Here, 74 teachers, and 20 graduated students in the last three years who were unemployed using a simple random sampling technique. Based on this fact, 133 respondents were taken for this study from four weredas. The research was conducted by using instruments such as questionnaire, interview and document analysis to collect data. The data were collected through qualitative and quantitative method. The data obtained through qualitatively analyzed and narrated to strengthen the result from the quantitative analysis and presented with the qualitative part. Thus, the data were collected through a questionnaire, which was tallied and tabulated by frequency, percentage, standard deviation, and variance. Percentage was used to present background information about respondents and to identify which of the items were rated as the major factors. Similarly, the collected data was organized, tabulated, and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 26). The result show that the training was not related with the actual job and this was uniform in all weredas. Moreover, the one-way ANOVA was conducted to identify if any difference existed in the respondents' perception across the four woredas. Result shows that no significant difference existed among the woredas except for item number with a confidence interval of $p < 0.05$ and $F(4, 119) = 3.61$. The distribution of F at 5% level with the degree of freedom being between groups = 3 and within groups = 129 could have arisen due to chance. This analysis supports the null hypothesis of no difference in sample means. However, there is a significant difference as the calculated values were 0.01 and 0.05, as the p -value is 0.05, which reveals they benefited. In other words, there was no statistically significant difference between all respondents from all woredas. Regarding the basics factors TVET institution leaders' lack of commitment to working to build trust in the capacity of trainers to prepare their trainees properly for industrial operation and the relevance of TVET acquired skills to their industry. On the other hand, leaders of TVET complained that industries are wasting time on creating an encouraging environment for frequent communication on how the relationship is to be managed in the partnership. The development and implementation of partnership management strategies determines the continuous growth and maintenance of the collaboration between TVET institutions and industries. From this study, it can be concluded that the TVET training intuitions were established for small-scale industries; however, the job match should be a matter which needs attention. It is expected that TVET trainers be productive in their actual jobs. TVET has a vital role in minimizing unemployment

CHAPTER ONE

1 Introduction

This chapter introduces ideas focusing on background, statement of the problem, objectives of the problem, research questions, and scope of the study. Its significance and delimitations are also explained in this chapter. So, it presents each of these topics under their titles, as indicated below.

1.1 Background of the Study

In developed countries, the emphasis given to technical and vocational education and training (TVET) has preceded those of developing ones. However, as described in journal Total Quality Management (TQM 2013), "despite the political attention that is being given to TVET, the literature on TVET lacks agreement on the relevance and effectiveness of TVET in developing countries." This shows that the expansion of TVET has been given attention in Africa.

As cited in the same article, there is an expectation that TVET facilitates economic growth and poverty alleviation by serving as a mechanism to prepare people for occupational fields and by enhancing their effective participation in the world of work (UNESCO, 2001 and NUFFIC, 2010). Furthermore, TVET has also gained attention in Africa as a result of the fact that TVET is part of the education system. It describes the relevance of TVET for the fast development of countries like Ethiopia.

However, over the last two decades, TVET has been incorporated into the Ethiopian curriculum as a secondary school course. Referring (Wanna,1998), Endalkachew (2018) described this concept briefly as follows:

In the 1960s, in order to alleviate the problem of unemployment among high school completers, the Ethiopian government in 1962 changed the existing high schools to what are called "Comprehensive High Schools." This period mainly characterized the attempt to vocationalize high school education programs. The first comprehensive education program started at W/ro/Sihen comprehensive high school in 1962. Reports related to these schools indicated that the programs commenced without proper study, and as a result, there was a lack of human and material resources, a shortage of qualified teachers, and a limited budget. Thus, the quality of graduates was not as expected, and the problem of unemployment among high

school graduates did not improve much. Moreover, as compared to the academic stream, relatively few high school trainers attended vocational-technical programs. Thus, one can say that the program failed to achieve its mission of reducing unemployment among high school graduate .

As time went by, the training given in comprehensive TVET needed revisiting (Wanna, 1996). In 1978/1979, a study was conducted by the MOE to review the quality of training in comprehensive secondary schools. The results of the study recommended that a few comprehensive TVET be selected and strengthened to give effective training. As a result, 14 consolidated government training schools and 3 non-government schools were established. These schools were organized to admit trainers who had completed Grade 10. There were two streams in secondary schools—academic and vocational. Trainers who performed well in completing Grade 10 and who were interested in entering a technical school were assigned and trained for three years.

At that time, it was given in the compulsory schools of the country as a multidisciplinary subject. For instance, woodwork, metalwork, etc. are some of the subject courses given independently. However, recently, the Ethiopian Education and Training Policy (MOE, 1994) gave special attention and action priority to the change of educational organization and management in the country. As a result, TVET was set up, separating from TVET (9_12). This policy was aimed at demonstrating that TVET plays a great role in the fast development of the country. The concept of establishing TVET as an institution also plays a great role in minimizing unemployment. In particular, for those trainers who have not succeeded in achieving grade ten results, it gives an opportunity to those who have different potential. Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013) argued that “the trainers who pass the exam in grade 10 can continue to preparatory school (grades 11 and 12), while the remainder are expected to pursue TVET or join the labour force.” Moreover, grade twelve trainers are those who do not get the chance to join or lack the willingness to join universities, but there are numerous people participating in TVET. Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013) also argued that, "There is another stream of individuals that can go to TVET – those who could not get sufficiently high scores to go to university during the national exam at the end of grade 12. In addition, trainers can go to TVET from the universities, in which case they can go to level 5. “

After completing their levels, they have an opportunity to create an occupational career with further options for further training (Messay and Teferi, 2016). This idea is also further upheld (MOE 2008).

TVET providers are also encouraged to consider the work environment in the local micro and small business sector when designing their training programs. This includes, for example, the introduction and use of appropriate technologies and the organization of internships or cooperative training programs with micro and small enterprises. The TVET executive bodies also undertake initiatives to strengthen and raise the quality of traditional apprenticeship training, as this mode of TVET delivery is particularly effective in preparing youth for self-employment.

Though one of the targets of TVET is to create occupational opportunity and self-employment, there are problems faced as there are not enough intended outcomes.

Accordingly, the national TVET strategy (Amharic version of 1999) was aimed at general and specific objectives. Thus, the main goal of TVET is to produce confidential and self-reliant citizens in a field that brings economic and social development to the country by eradicating poverty and improving the living conditions of its people continuously.

However, according to the document of mobilizing societies for the implementation of TVET (the Amharic version of 2001), there were concerns with attitudes, understandings, and competency in different social prospective. Thus, the following eight stakeholders were mentioned in the document with their specific concerns in implementing TVET. These problems were seen in industry, in training organization management, in social, at zone/woreda/town level, in trainees, at regional level, and in trainers' teachers as well as at the federal TVE level.

These related problems are still seen in most of the above-mentioned stakeholders. In particular, in producing market-oriented manpower, it is due to attention given to zone/woreda level. As most of the TVETs serve in zone but not in all colleges, it is difficult to match the trainees and market-demanded jobs because the training in each institution should be given based on solving trainees' local issues, including unemployment. However, the following idea indicates that there are difficulties to some extent. As a result, the training has dual responsibilities to Ethiopian youth in terms of salary and wages; however, due to oversupply and a skills gap, some TVET graduates were unable to secure employment even in highly sought-after jobs. It is also noted that training in entrepreneurship is devoid of

practical application and has not enabled graduates to initiate self-employment as an alternative to salary employment (The Ethiopian Journal of Education, 2010).

Based on global experience, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) play a great role in forwarding economically backward countries. Thus, it has its own share in the increment of a country's GDP and solving unemployment concerns. It brings competent, motivated, and productive manpower to the country (MOE, 2008). So, the expansion of TVET has multiple significance for developing countries such as Ethiopia. This can be targeted through producing capable and competent manpower. However, after completing their training levels, most of the trainees are jobless, i.e., they neither work in government institutions nor create their own jobs. In other words, the training that trainees receive is insufficient to enable them to apply it on their actual job(s). To minimize such problems, it is necessary to conduct different research from time to time to know whether TVETs' implementation is going on properly or not. Therefore, this study focuses on technical and vocational education and training and job matching in TVETs at the zone level.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The government of Ethiopia strongly believes that to achieve fast development on all sides, producing effective and productive manpower is needed to put the country equal to with those of middle-income countries. To do this, the manpower that has graduated only from formal schools cannot fulfil the expected growth of the country. For this reason, expanding TVET in all locations is important to attract investors and to create skillfully self-employed people as well as innovators. However, the technical and vocational education and training that trainees acquire do not prepare them well enough for their occupation. For instance, to solve problems related to TVET, different studies have been conducted on the related with TVET in Ethiopia. These studies have been conducted at a national level. However, it is difficult to say they deal enough with local zone/woreda level issues and problems. For example, the training has to be given considering the weather, topography, infrastructure, etc. of the zone/woreda. Lack of facilities is one of the challenges to TVET trainees having to do with DAs (Messay, M. & Teferi, 2016) has been mentioned.

The major findings of Endalkachew, W. (2018) have been summarized below. Thus, With regard to the graduates' retrospective views, the sample TVET institutions which they attended proved to be a major significant factor in developing and enhancing employability. This was the extent to which TVET institutions equipped graduates with the employability

skills required in the world of work. Referring to the level of competence of transferable skills, graduates ranked seven skills above the mean value of three, whereas employers ranked four of the transferable skills above the mean value of three points. In contrast, graduates rated three skills (i.e., customer service, reasoning, and information communication technology skills) with the lowest mean score, below the mean value of 3, whereas employers rated four skills (i.e., problem-solving, adaptability, ICT skills, reasoning, and written communication skills) lower than the mean value of 3 points.

Additionally, his study also showed that trainers sent for industrial attachments to firms and industries to practice on-the-job training did not adequately acquire practical skills during the training. The study indicated a number of approaches for promoting employability skills, such as practical demonstrations, project work, and case studies. Interviewees were also of the view that employability skills could be better promoted using teaching strategies such as demonstrations, group work, case studies, or visits to companies. Related to this, the predominant method used by graduates to find employment was responding to vacancies advertised in newspapers (55.3%). With regard to the applications made by graduates to find a job, it took relatively little effort to secure one, with 58.3% of the respondents making at most 1–5 applications to the employers. It was also found that when asked about the reasons for a long period of job search, graduates identified major factors as limited job opportunities (41.7%) and lack of work experience (21.7%).

The study also found that lack of systematic communication between the supply side (training providers and graduates) and the demand side (employers and private sectors) as well as the important skills employers consider when hiring manufacturing technology graduates, including sex graduates and training centers, has had an influence on the employability of manufacturing technology graduates. The findings of the study also reveal the strategies that are essential to enhance the employability of TVET graduates. The main issues to be considered include review of curricula, provision of enough facilities and equipment, developing the competency of teachers, adequate finance and linkage with industries.

According to the findings of Alemayehu's (2010) study, “training TVET instructors, effectively modularizing the curricula, implementing a proactive TVET management, putting in place facilities for practical application, and changing the TVET to a demand-driven system are some of the prerequisites to the strategy's implementation.” Constantly “

Messay & Teferi (2016) study findings indicate that the role of TVET in technology transfer, productivity enhancement, agricultural commercialization, rural economic growth, and environmental protection is vital. However, its realization has been constrained by several adverse factors, such as graduates' lack of practical skills and the stamina to work in rural areas, farmers' attitude towards rural development agents (DAs), weak industry-TVET Ilu Abba Bor TVET linkage, and poor administrative support to DAs. The study concludes that there is a need for tailored TVET curriculum development and strong Ilu Abba Bor TVET-industry linkages to realize the immense role of the TVET program in Ethiopia.

Atakilt, & Evardvan's (2013) findings indicated that Ethiopia's TVET system adopts/adapts international best practices. Following the implementation of the 2008 TVET strategy, the proportion of formal TVET graduates who were recognized as competent by the assessment and certification system increased from 17.42 percent in 2009/2010 to 40.23 percent.

Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2012) argue that given the supply-driven nature of the TVET system in Ethiopia, it is important to improve its efficiency, and they propose two ways of doing this: (1) improve the efficiency and equity of the centrally-driven allocation mechanism by drawing on recent advances in matching algorithms and their application to school choice; (2) impact evaluation of graduates' final labour market outcomes must be an integral part of the TVET system, and they discuss various methods for doing so.

In all sectors, to increase self-employment and economic growth in Ethiopia, TVET plays a great role in engaging the youth in different activities/jobs (MOE 2008, Krishnan and Shaorshadze, 2012, Endalkachew, 2018, Alemayehu, 2010, Atakilt, & Everardvan, 2013). What has to be considered after the training is that most of the trainees wish to work close to their residence, kebele, or woreda. So, to transfer the intended technology through communities, the trainees must be trained not only based on their field/job willingness but also on the infrastructure and local conditions that help them for their implementation, which has to be considered.

As Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2012) describe, the Growth and Transformation Plan was planned in 2010 by the Ethiopian government. It has given emphasis to linking agriculture and industrialization, especially in the sugar, textile, and leather industries, to provide demand-driven services such as employment and self-employment. This indicates that the training sites/TVET and trainees have to pay attention to weather, infrastructure, etc. from the beginning of the training. In other words, to enhance the economic growth of society, training in TVET must be given using various technologies and facilities. Unless it is

incompatible with the job(s), it motivates young people to put their newly acquired skills to use.

The other thing is that most of the trainers in TVET of Ilu Abba Bor zone are up-warding their level while giving training. Hence, it is better for the trainees to be trained at the same level as the teacher than the trainees themselves. Moreover, the lack of continuous experience sharing among TVET within the zone and other zones is one cause of the mismatch between training and jobs.

To sum up, the studies conducted till recently have considered the training in TVET with its relation to youth job occupation opportunities. However, this study thus tries to examine the extent to which TVET benefits graduates in getting employment. It also tries to investigate the extent to which TVET creates better job opportunities for unemployment. Additionally, it tries to investigate the extent to which TVET graduates are productive in actual jobs. Moreover, the study deals with the extent to which the TVET institutes in the Ilu Abba Bor Zone are competent. Finally, the study finds the main challenges that TVET faces in producing qualified and competent graduates.

1.3 Research Questions

The study attempted to answer the following research questions:

To what extent do technical and vocational education and training Ilu Abba Bor Zone help graduates find work?

To what extent are these TVET graduates of Ilu Abba Bor Zone productive in actual jobs?

To what extent is the TVET institute Ilu Abba Bor Zone qualified and competent of the staff or the institutions?

What are the challenges TVET in Ilu Abba Bor Zone faces in producing competent graduates?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective

The general objective of the study is to investigate technical and vocational training job match in oromia regional state: the case of ilu aba bor zone

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

Specifically, this research is intended to:

- ✓ To determine whether or not TVET trainees apply their Knowledge and skills in actual jobs.
- ✓ To point out the extent to which the training in TVET benefits the trainees in Knowledge and skills,
- ✓ To identify how competent the staff in TVETs Knowledge and skills
- ✓ To assess the status of the institute, the TVET qualifications and competency Knowledge and skills
- ✓ To identify the main challenges in TVET Knowledge and skills

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study has the following significance:

- ❖ .A finding of the study would be helpful to TVET instructors to gain Knowledge and skills about the trainees.
- ❖ It can benefit trainees to obtain the expected training.
- ❖ This study's findings also assisted administrators and other stakeholders in identifying and addressing the major challenges that impede TVET training implementation.
- ❖ .This study can also be a background for those who want to conduct a study in a similar area in the future.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study was limited to technical and vocational education training in Ilu Aba Bor Zone and their impact on youth employment, which are found in the Ilu Aba Bor Zone. As a result, the findings of the study may not be sufficient to make generalizations at the national level. The study also needs participating all the stake-holders to know their understandings to ward it(TVET). Therefore, it would be better and more effective if many TVET and participants were included in the study to gather adequate information to make sound generalizations.

1.7 Limitation of The Study

Due to shortage of time and insufficient budget, the study may not give full information. So it would be better to conduct similar and /or related study by giving necessary budget and time to discriminate the deficiencies on the area and to give solutions for them.

1.8 Operational definitions of key terms

Technical Vocational Education and Training: Activities that emphasize the application of the skills, knowledge, and attitudes required for employment in a particular occupation or cluster of related occupations in any field of social and economic activity, including agriculture, industry, commerce, the hospitality industry, and the public and private sectors.

Trainer:A person who teaches people in government or private schools, Ilu Abba Bor TVET, universities, etc., to perform a particular skill or job well. Trainees: are people who are being taught in government or private schools, Ilu Abba Bor TVET, universities, etc., how to do or perform a particular skill or job. Self-employment: Earning one's livelihood directly from one's own trade or business, rather than as an employee of another.

Market-oriented: the availability of skilled manpower that is institutionally or socially desired and demanded to solve their problems. Job match: the trade of providing job opportunities through the training that one gains and implements, tangibly employed governmentally, privatively or self-employed.

1.9 Organization of the study

This research report consist a total of five chapters. Chapter one: provide an overview of the study and explaining the research problem. It contains a brief introduction of the research; statement of the problem, objectives, significance of the study, delimitation and limitation of the study. The second chapter explains the context of the study. It describes the historical development of the education system in general and TVET in particular. These serve as a contextual basis for the study. Chapter Three: focused on the research design and methodology. It includes the research design, population, data collection methods, sample, and sampling procedure, research instruments, data processing, and data analysis. It also highlights the ethical issues considered for data collection. . Its contents include the concept of employability, theoretical models, and factors that influences graduate employability. Chapter four outlines analysis, presentation and interpretation of data. That is it provides the empirical findings based on the questionnaires and interview analysis and interpretation of the data gathered .The final chapter (chapter five): includes the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations on the study.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of The Related Literature

This chapter provides the literature review of the relevant sources on TVET. In particular, explanation of conceptual development, theoretical development, empirical development, practices and policy of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Ethiopia and its purpose as well as its significance are also discussed.

2.1 The Concept of TVET

Nearly before the three decades internationally, the emphasis to TVET is too less. However, it has recently returned to the international development policy agenda. As it was cited in Krishnan (2012) the discourse on TVET has been reinvigorated under three themes. (1) During the last decade, the issue of TVET has been linked to the topics such as the Millennium Development Goals. Under-development is often being framed as the consequence of the lack of skills, to which TVET is cast as an obvious solution. (2) As a result of the demographic transition (i.e., decreased infant mortality and increased life expectancy) many developing countries have a large share of the population that is young. In these countries, youth unemployment is an economic and social problem and is increasingly feared to create political problems. TVET is cast as a solution to these issues. (3) It was hoped that the technological advances of the last couple of decades and globalization would improve opportunities for all.

The conceptual development of TVET is different from country to country. Thus, why do developing countries follow the developed ones as models? For the time being, let us see the concept of TVET in an Ethiopian context.

During the last couple, the World Bank's advice to developing countries seems to have been that basic education should be the top priority, and that public expenditure on VET should be reduced (Bennell & Segerstrom, 1998). Such advice is based on the proposition that the provision and funding of VET is best left to individuals, private enterprises, and private institutions. This is justified by the fact that demand-driven training systems have outperformed supply-driven systems. During the last couple decades, interest in TVET was also low within the donor community, partly as a result of the increased focus on sectorial work. By its nature, TVET is multi-sectoral, and it was relatively neglected as a result. Significance of TVET As Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013) cited, in Africa, the concept of

TVET was introduced by Phillip Foster (1965) in Ghana. In their essay, they also listed the following four different types of programs, referring to Grubb and Ryan (1999), under the umbrella of TVET, as listed below:

(1) pre-employment VET-prepares individuals for the initial entry into employment. The regular track of the TVET in Ethiopia falls under this category. (2) Upgrade training provides additional training for employees; (3) Retraining provides training for people who have lost their jobs or want to change careers; and (4) Remedial VET provides training to people who are not in the mainstream labour force.

As the above idea indicates, in Ethiopia, TVETs play a great role in pre-employment. The number of young people needing employment increases from time to time. So, the government of Ethiopia has given attention to TVETs to employ youths in different government sectors, NGO's and to be self-employed. Alemayehu Kebede (2010) also argued the following ideas regarding the importance of TVET in his journal:

Human resource development must be targeted at raising and augmenting the productivity of labor. Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is instrumental in developing human resources and enhancing human capital formation. It provides job-specific technical and non-technical training to prepare individuals for paid jobs or self-employment. It is worth noting that proactive TVET management coupled with a significant amount of investment can augment the productivity of the labor force.

From the above concept, TVET is the major tool, especially in developing countries that have a large number of unemployed youths, such as Ethiopia. It also helps with the vast expansion of investment throughout the country and ignores the youth's reliance on the government. On the other hand, as TVETs train productive labor, unemployment will decrease. However, an increase in self-employed productive labor will contribute to the rising GDP of the country. Recently, it has also been given attention as an innovation center to transit the country from small factories to large manufacturing industries. Generally, TVET has major significance and purposes in moving the country forward.

2.5 Qualification of TVET Teachers

It is true that in order to gain the desired skill and knowledge, one must be trained by or learn with qualified teachers. In Ethiopia, the earlier qualified level was expressed as follows: According to MoE (2010), the Ethiopian TVET system is structured into four levels

such that levels one and two are given to trainees below grade 10, levels three and four are for those who have completed grade 10 in general education, and the fifth level is training at the polytechnic level. To pass from one level to another, a person must pass a national job qualifying test given by the Centre of Competency (COC). (Alemayehu, the Ethiopian Journal of Education, No. 2, December 2010).

However, as Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013) point out, after completing grade 10 or grade 12, a person must be at least qualified with level C to be assigned as a level 1 and level 2 TVET instructor. In other words, to be a C-level teacher, he/she must complete level 4 at TVET level and must receive the necessary pedagogic knowledge.

2.6 Tvet Trainees and Occupation

It is intended that skilled power from any institution should be employed privately or in the government sector. This means the main goal of TVETs is to prepare the skilled labor force for employment. Similarly, training to a level that the occupation requires is a precondition for employment (Kebede 2010).

For this reason, producing skilled manpower without occupation is a bankruptcy that comes from playing with time and budget. So, giving emphasis to this, the government has to expand more widely both TVETs and trainees with suitable conditions for occupation.

2.7 TVET for Jobs Creation/ Self-employment

TVET has a vital role in minimizing unemployment. For countries that have a large population, it creates different alternative jobs for youths. TVET providers are also encouraged to design their training programs with the work environment in the local micro- and small-business sector in mind. This includes, for example, the introduction and use of appropriate technologies and the organization of internships or cooperative training programmes with micro and small enterprises. The TVET executive bodies also undertake initiatives to strengthen and raise the quality of traditional apprenticeship training, as this mode of TVET delivery is particularly effective in preparing youth for self-employment.

Moreover, in countries still developing, like Ethiopia, TVET helps the youth not only to be self-employed but also supports them to be competent and innovators. Having youths as primary manpower, it is believed that TVETs can energize these youths to generate both the agricultural and industrial sectors. So, when TVETs expand with sufficient training, the possibility of job-fewer youths becomes less. Generally, in eliminating or minimizing unemployment as well as poverty, the significance of TVETs cannot be denied. In the last

more than two decades, it has been a fact that the trainees who joined TVETs are those who failed the grade ten national exams. Or entrance exams for the twelfth grade. However, TVETs have provided numerous benefits to the country's economic growth. For this reason, trainees have to get training that helps them match it with their jobs' knowledge. Connected to this, the facilities where they work have to be considered.

2.2 Empirical studies on TVET Africa countries

According to Pramila Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013), Phillip Foster's (1965) classic essay "The vocational school fallacy in development planning" was based on his work in Ghana. In this essay, he argued that vocational education in Africa was a myth. He argued that small-scale vocational training schemes might be more fruitful if they were divorced from the formal education system. He also argued that the burden of vocational training should be borne by the groups that demand skilled labour. The dilemma of whether to concentrate investment in general education or in vocational training has persisted in many African countries ever since this seminal essay (Oketch, 2007).

In 2007, the African Union drafted the Strategy to Revitalize Technical and Vocational Education and Training in Africa (African Union, 2007). The report states that there is a fresh awareness among many African countries of the critical role that TVET plays in national development. The objectives of the strategy are to revitalize and modernize TVET in Africa and to transform it into a mainstream activity for African youth. See Kingombe (2011) for a discussion of the lessons learned in implementing TVET, with a particular focus on Africa. A comparative study of TVET in Southern Africa is presented by Akoojee et al. (2005).

After 1994, South Africa emerged from an educational system in which systematic disempowerment of black students was one of the main goals (Harley & Wedekind, 2002; Lemon, 2004; Meny-Gibert, 2018). This legacy continues to be a burden on the public education system today. Infrastructure, teaching and learning quality, safety, and spatial inequality are all issues that the public school system faces. The quality of learning outcomes has been questioned (Wolhuter, 2014; Spaul, 2015). The majority of these issues are shared by the post-secondary education (TVET) system. Furthermore, relevance is an area that needs to be improved (Akojee, 2016). Young individuals face obstacles such as entry criteria, curricular requirements, and financial constraints. The number of students who drop out is high (Branson, Hofmeyr, Papier, & Needham, 2015). Reform efforts are mostly

based on the skills-for-formal-jobs narrative. This refers to a policy of high productivity, technology-driven growth that necessitates the use of trained labour (Graham & Mlatsheni, 2015, p. 51). This contrasts with the difficulties faced by many unemployed youngsters who have either dropped out of under-resourced schools early or struggled as matriculates to enter or stay in the post-secondary (TVET) system, or even find work with their departure qualification. Institutional factors as well as a lack of endowments in youths' households are to blame (e.g., education, financial, social networks, and formal labour market experience). Unemployment among graduates is not uniformly distributed, and it is especially high in the TVET college sector. Elite universities, on the other hand, with more white alumni, are less affected (Kraak, 2010). Overall, evidence indicates that school-leavers are having a difficult time breaking into the formal labour market or transitioning into additional education. From Fluency Statistics South Africa, 2020, p. 41, shows that 69.5 percent of young people (aged 15–24, enlarged definition) are unemployed. Poverty impacts more than half of the population (Statistics South Africa, 2018, p. 6).

At the same time, the formal sector does not produce enough employment and is still an insider club (Friedman, 2017). Thus, unemployment cannot be remedied by merely upskilling people. A broader perspective on learning is necessary, one that includes a full spectrum of opportunities, ranging from finding work in the formal labour market through to the creation of meaningful livelihoods in the informal sector. Despite evidence of the multifaceted challenges young people face in their transition from school to work, the public education system follows the dominant economic narrative (Batjees et al., 2018, p. 155), as laid out in the National Development Plan 2030 and other related policy papers. The NDP emphasizes education for skills, innovation, and growth-based employment as a priority for progress (The Presidency, 2012). This narrative suggests that a growing and modernizing economy will create jobs and improve the lives of all South Africans. Formal education, at the secondary and post-secondary levels, seeks to prepare youth for entry into this system (Batjees et al., 2018, p. 155).

The terms “skills shortfall” or “skills mismatch” refer mostly to vocational education (Klees, 2017). This mindset is instilled in students as early as primary school through entrepreneurship education. According to this theory, young people lack sufficient entrepreneurial skills and must therefore develop them. School education and postsecondary education (TVET) both guarantee formal employment and the opportunity to start a business based on competencies. Despite the fact that many people in South Africa earn a living in

the informal sector, the concept of work in this sector as a space for livelihood creation and entrepreneurship is generally absent (Branson, Homer, Papier, & Needham, 2015; Fourie, 2018).

If the official version of social reality (Baatjes et al., 2018, p. 258) does not come true, i.e., if young people do not manage to find formal employment or start a business, they are less likely to have the analytical perspective with which to make sense of their situation. In such cases, the only apparent explanation is that one has failed to acquire adequate skills.

Entrepreneurship is a concept that has its roots in the realm of economic activity (Hébert & Link, 2009). Research on entrepreneurship is a young and developing field (Carlsson, Braunerhjelm, McKelvey, Olofsson, Persson, & Ylinnenp, 2013; Faltin, 2018). Entrepreneurship education has been growing since the 1970s in the US, with global interest increasing about a decade later (Kuratko, 2005; Kirby, 2007). Over time, entrepreneurship education has moved from an emphasis on business venture creation and small business development to a stronger focus on entrepreneurial skills, attributes, and behaviours (Kirby, 2007, p. 24). Therefore, approaches to entrepreneurship education have widened. Lindner (2018, p. 115) places entrepreneurship education in a societal development context and argues that the economy and society are shaped by the actions of citizens who take an active role. Thus, entrepreneurship education strengthens the individual's ability to act for a sustainable society. Lackéus (2015, p. 35) notes that entrepreneurship education is still in a quite early stage of development and that there is much confusion amongst various stakeholders around it. The author suggests the ability and willingness to create value for other people (p. 6) as a shared property of different approaches. In his overview of definitions, he identifies a broad spectrum of approaches. These range from a broad approach that focuses on practical doing with a focus on personal development, to a narrower approach with a stronger focus on theory and business orientation. The wider approach dominates within primary and secondary education, with a stronger business focus in the respective commercial subjects (Lackéus, 2015). In the European Union, entrepreneurship, together with a sense of initiative, has been defined as a key competency for lifelong learning (EU, 2006, p. 13). At its core, competency refers to an individual's ability to turn ideas into action, indicating a broad approach with a focus on society at large (EU, 2006, p. 17).

In Africa, entrepreneurship is widely debated as a measure against youth unemployment, as documented in a growing body of academic literature and donor publications (Chigunta, Schnurr, James-Wilson, & Torres, 2005; Gough & Langevang, 2016). This is contrasted by a more limited number of publications on entrepreneurship education. Globally, comparatively few approaches advocate a perspective that considers individual capabilities and agency to deconstruct the notion of the enterprising self (for example, DeJaghère & Baxter, 2014). Thus, there is a need for an approach within entrepreneurship education discourse that critically engages with the project of neoliberal hegemony and related strategies, such as self-regulation and optimization in view of the market, or the individualization of risk at the expense of becoming an autonomous subject.

The South African national school curriculum (CAPS) introduces entrepreneurship education in grade 7 through the subject Economic Management Sciences (EMS), which spans three grades: 7–9. In this, entrepreneurship education has a strong business focus. EE content in EMS () is mostly theory-based and more slanted towards business management practices, with little opportunity to apply their EMS entrepreneurship knowledge in a real-world context (du Toit, 2016, p. 15).

2.2.1 Entrepreneurship Education in TVET

Student preparation for entrepreneurship has become even more important recently because researchers anticipate a future business landscape will be dominated by small firms and self-employment (Shinnar, Pruett, & Toney, 2009). Therefore, exposure to entrepreneurship is needed to motivate students to engage in entrepreneurship after graduation and to avoid dependence on salaried work. According to Norasmah and Salmah (2011), entrepreneurship education and exposure to entrepreneurship training could profoundly change a person's perception of entrepreneurship. Research findings by Solitaries, Zerbinati, and Al-Laham (2007) found that a familiarization to entrepreneurship program for one semester (January-May) among 250 science and engineering students at two universities in Europe (London and Grenoble) led to higher entrepreneurial intentions. The authors used a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental research design, and data were collected before and after an entrepreneurship program. According to Ivan, Rahim, Ramlah, and Rosini (2008) and Fretwell (2003), Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is often seen in the context of the economy, and the intention is to produce quality human resources who are not only able to compete in the global engineering market but also in other professions.

Entrepreneurship provides space and opportunities for individuals to work on what the ideas they want to explore and create opportunities that allow for lucrative returns. Furthermore, this field provides an opportunity for all individuals to improve the economy and society. Therefore, entrepreneurship education should be embedded in the TVET curriculum either directly or indirectly in many countries including Malaysia. The purpose of embedding the curriculum is to enable graduates to compete in the job market and thus create self-employment. Most countries believe TVET system is capable of producing skilled workers and capable of creating alternative employment by encouraging students to venture into entrepreneurship. If the students do not become entrepreneurs, at least they will receive the benefits of an entrepreneurship education that teaches them to be creative and innovative at problem solving and innovation and helps them adapt to changes.

2.2.2 Development of Entrepreneurship Education (TVET) in Malaysia

The Malaysian government allocates large amounts of resources to training centres and infrastructure development through different government-appointed agencies. Even though there are many technical and vocational schools in Malaysia, public skills training institutes (PSTIs) continue to play a major role (Kirchberger, 2008). The Malaysian Skills Certification System (VCLS) and the development of National Occupational Skills Standards (NOSS) for all skills training are coordinated by DSD in accordance with technological and economic developments (Department of Skills, 2010). TVET institutions offer certificate, advanced certificate, diploma, and advanced diploma courses. Under the Department of Human Resources, the Manpower Training Institute (ILJTM) consists of 22 Industrial Training Institutes (ILP) and 4 Higher Technology Training Centers (ADTEC). The study explored the Japan-Malaysia Technical Institute (JMTI), NYSI under the Ministry of Youth and Sports, and MARA under the Ministry of Rural Development Institutions and TVET programs in Malaysia, including community colleges and NYSI.

2.2.3 TVET in Ethiopia

The government of Ethiopia has a strong belief in TVET as it brings secure economic development to the country. According to Endalkachew (2018),

The overall objective of the National TVET Strategy is to create a competent, motivated, adaptable, and innovative workforce in Ethiopia, contributing to poverty reduction and social and economic development through facilitating demand-driven, high-quality technical

and vocational education and training relevant to all sectors of the economy, at all levels, and to all people. (MOE, 2008).

Based on the objectives indicated above, the Ethiopian TVET programs are intended to play a crucial role in producing human capital and contributing to economic development. In line with this, the Ethiopian TVET Qualification Framework (MoE, 2010) also explains that the reformed TVET system is to be wage and self-employment oriented, demand-driven and outcome-based, and thus appropriate to the development needs of the Ethiopian economy.

Ethiopia has a long, gradual experience in using TVET to eradicate poverty compared to other African countries. The government has introduced different revised programs to economically move the country forward by involving youths of both genders. Concerning this, Atakilt and Everardvan (2013) Ethiopia shares the African socio-economic context described earlier. It is a fast-growing, low-income country with a growing labour force and low employment opportunities in the formal sector. When the 2008 national TVET strategy was introduced, TVET had low relevance to the world of work while the delivery was fragmented, uncoordinated, and unregulated. There was a lack of an assessment and certification system that recognizes competence achieved through non-formal and informal learning and training. In addition, the TVET system was characterized by poor quality management within and low effectiveness and efficiency among TVET institutions. There were regional disparities and gender inequities across occupations. The TVET system was not initially welcomed due to the poor perception of TVET by the public and stakeholders.

Consequently, there was limited stakeholder participation, underfunding, and inadequate resources. Furthermore, TVET was not supported by research, monitoring, and evaluation. Due to its historical detachment from colonial legacies in Africa, Ethiopia has enjoyed the freedom to make use of the best international experiences (Kingombe, 2011) rather than adopting the TVET system of former colonizers. Therefore, we expect and argue that the TVET system in Ethiopia and its implementation are highly likely to have unique features. For example, unlike the TVET model of the French-speaking African countries, TVET proclamation number 26 stipulates the integration of traditional apprenticeship into the TVET system. Unlike the TVET systems in the English-speaking African countries, the TVET strategy of Ethiopia promotes vertical and horizontal mobility and progression (MOE, 2008).

Many countries are believed to include TVET in their policy issues these days. To minimize poverty and unemployment, most developing countries use TVET in their policies. Pramila Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013) cited this as follows:

Skills development and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) are now becoming increasingly important on the international and national policy agenda. For example, UNESCO advocates TVET, claiming that technical and vocational education that is driven by market demand is more effective in enhancing employment and income for the disadvantaged (Adams, 2011). The World Development Report 2007 states that making labour, which is the main asset of the poor, more productive is the best way to reduce poverty (World Bank, 2006). As a concrete policy response in favor of TVET, the Dakar Framework for Action set explicit goals pertinent to TVET (UNESCO, 2000). Generally, there is an expectation that TVET facilitates economic growth and poverty alleviation by serving as a mechanism to prepare people for occupational fields and by enhancing their effective participation in the world of work (UNESCO, 2001; NUFFIC, 2010). Furthermore, TVET has also gained attention in Africa as a result of the fact that TVET is part of the education system (Oketch et al., 2009).

TVET is a crucial tool for the fast development of the country. Especially in the agricultural sector, it plays a great role in the fight against poverty. Messay Mulugeta and Teferi Mekonen (2016) also described how the government of Ethiopia has demonstrated a strong commitment to the development of the agricultural sector through various mechanisms, of which the integration of the agricultural sector into technical and vocational training is a vital aspect. Ethiopia has a National Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Strategy developed in 2008. This is the guiding document for all TVET programs in the country, including Agricultural TVET (ATVET).

MOE (2008) also raised the idea that the “National TVET Strategy is an important element of the overall policy framework towards development and poverty reduction.”

Moreover, the government is currently launching a new policy to link TVETs with the industrial sector to enhance the development of the country. It means relating both sectors with technologies that can accelerate social and economic growth. It creates opportunities for youths to be self-employed and innovators. So, more emphasis is being given to the linkage of these sectors.

The concept of TVET emerged in Ethiopia nearly a decade after the regime of Menilik II. Endalkachew (2018) has described it extensively, referring to different researchers as follows.

TVET in Ethiopia followed a school-based model of training from its conception. It was only after the expulsion of the Italians that the Ethiopian government paid some attention to the establishment of technical and vocational schools in Ethiopia as part of its educational system. As a result, some technical and vocational schools were established. In 1942, Addis Ababa Technical School was established to meet the growing demand for technicians. This school provided training in occupational areas like auto mechanics, carpentry, economics, accounting, and management. Admission to the program was for those who had completed 8th grade. Training lasted three years for each entry or batch of trainees, and diplomas were awarded upon successful completion. By that time, Addis Ababa Technical School underwent a number of changes in terms of training offered, as well as their entry level and duration. The programs offered by the school included 8+4, 10+2, and 10+3 programs, and applicants from many parts of the country with the best academic achievements competed for admission to the school (Ayele, 2010).

This was followed by Addis Ababa Commercial School and Engineering Ilu Abba Bor TVET in 1952. Subsequently, Ambo and Jimma Agricultural Schools, as well as the Bahir Dar Polytechnic Institutes, were established. From the fifties up to the seventies, the technical school used incentive mechanisms that helped them admit high-achieving trainees from different parts of the country. However, this situation gradually deteriorated and its quality was affected (Tekle Haimanot, 2002).

The rate of unemployment among high school graduates in the 1960s was high at the time. In order to minimize this, the government decided to change the previous high schools to comprehensive high schools. This also did not bring the intended target. So, in 1978/1979, MOE revised it and 14 consolidated government training schools and 3 non-government schools were established for interested grade 10 completers as academic and vocational. Since 1984, the Ministry of Education has managed all of these schools with the program 10+3. Based on the Education and Training Policy in 1994, TVET developmental centres were expanded to regions in 1997 by the Ethiopian government, adding one level of training (10+4). Endalkachew (2018) put the details into ideas:

Based on the 1995 regulation, according to education and training policy, many private institutions started giving training in 10+1, 10+2, 10+3, and 10+4 in Addis Ababa and in the

regions based on the curriculum prepared by the Ministry of Education. The responsibility of control and supervision was given to regional education bureaus (Tekele Haimanot, 2002). A national TVET capacity-building taskforce was established by the prime minister's office to study ways of enhancing TVET. Accordingly, the strategy was set and the implementation of an expanded, diversified, and integrated TVET system began in the 2001/2002 academic year when over 50,000 TVET trainees (including agriculture) were enrolled in 169 government and non-government institutions, using new modules of training and curriculum (Tekle Haimanot, 2002).

The TVET program, launched by education and training policy in 1994, was a forerunner to the one produced in 2008. This idea was also described by Endalkachew (2018). Starting in 2001/2002, the TVET program came into practice according to the 1994 education and training policy. Trainers who completed Grade 10 and were unable to continue academic learning were assigned to 10+1, 10+2, 10+3 (MoE, 2002: 2). In an Ethiopian context, the term TVET combines the theoretical and practical elements of education, such as specific calculations, knowledge about certain materials, working methods, and also practical training through instruction in the workshop of an institution or practical work in an enterprise (MoE, 2002).

As a result of the reform, the Ethiopian TVET system is undergoing fundamental change in its teaching learning approach, which enhances the goal of the poverty reduction strategy. According to the MOE (2008), TVET in the country has been reorganized into an outcome-based system. This reform is intended to ensure competences needed in the labour market, and it has become the final benchmark of teaching, training, and learning.

2.3 Tvet practices at oromia regional state

Because Oromia is a part of the national government, the government of this region places a greater emphasis on improving the people's social conditions. For instance, the study that was conducted by Endalkachew (2018) under the title "Employability of Manufacturing Technology Graduates from Ilu Abba Bor TVETs of Adama, Asela, Ambo, and Bishoftu" can be taken as the best model. However, more studies are needed in each zone and college.

2.4 Theoretical Development

The provision of TVET in many countries differs accordingly to the time they spend on giving various skills in classrooms. So, institutionally, educational teaching is the best practice to bring the intended outcome. To strengthen this, it is important to follow the best

model (s). In particular, forward-looking countries like Ethiopia, where the German model is the best practice. Pramila and Shaorshadze (2013) indicate TVET provision in different countries differs by the amount of time spent in the classroom gaining general skills versus time spent in enterprises gaining job-specific skills. In the German-style “dual” system, the theory is taught in educational institutions and practical skills are acquired through an apprenticeship in a company. The German system has long been admired internationally. It is typically observed that such a system is correlated with a lower rate of youth unemployment. This correlation need not be because of the causal link between the type of system and the employability of the graduates, but it is often interpreted to have such a causal link. Few countries have been able to successfully emulate the German system, notably Switzerland, Austria, and Denmark (Piopiunik & Ryan, 2012). The challenge in implementing the dual system is that a company has to be convinced that participating in the apprenticeship scheme is ultimately to its own benefit. In reality, the firm may resist the apprenticeship arrangement because training is expensive. Trainees need to be supervised and have to operate expensive equipment. In addition, trainees may be poached by other employers after they graduate. This presents a classic coordination problem, where every firm could possibly benefit if the entire labor force was more skilled as a result of the training. However, every firm prefers that the training be done by somebody else. Therefore, the total amount of training offered is less than socially optimal. Coordination concerns of this type are, of course, at least part of the reason separate TVET institutions exist, as opposed to the training being done by the employer. Institutional or public provision of TVET attempts to tackle this coordination concern, but cannot entirely escape it if firm-based training is desired—the coordination difficulty re-emerges in a different guise. He also stated that it involves four major sponsoring parties—the employer, the public authority, the trainee, and the trade union for the implementation.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This part focused on the methods that were used in the study. They included the research design, the instruments of data collection, the sampling techniques, and the method of data analysis.

3.1 The Research Design

This research employed a descriptive survey research design. In the descriptive survey method, data could be gathered from a wide population regarding their attitudes, practices, opinions, etc. In line with this, Kumar (2006) states that descriptive surveys or studies also serve as direct sources of valuable knowledge concerning human behaviors. Thus, as the study was aimed at investigating the technical and vocational training and job matches in TVET, a descriptive survey design was used to reveal their teaching.

3.2 Research method

In this study, both qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques were going to be employed. The collected data was organized, tabulated, and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 26). The quantitative data should be collected through close-ended questionnaires and analyzed using descriptive (frequency, percentage, and cross-tabulation) and inferential statistics, in particular ANOVA, to compare the variance of the mean results among each wereda TVET. Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis was used to assess the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and examined the questions addressed in the study.

3.3 Source of Data

To conduct this research necessary data was gathered from both primary and secondary sources of data. Thus, the primary sources were both the instructors (teachers) and the students currently under training and the graduated students in the last three years. Whereas the secondary source was the document from the dean's office and registrar's office. Besides, the secondary sources were documents of only sample instructors.

3.4 Participants of the Study

The study included four officers and four college Deans, purposely from the randomly selected TVETs and (see Table 3.1) 31 teachers, students currently under training, 74 teachers, and 20 graduated students in the last three years who were unemployed using a simple random sampling technique. Based on this fact, 133 respondents were taken for this study from four weredas.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

There were seven TVETs in the Ilu Aba Bor zone. Four weredas (25%) and teachers of TVETs in these weredas were chosen, using a simple random sampling method. Moreover, 15% of students (TVET trainees) were included in this study. Finally, five students from the graduating class in the last three years of each TVET were used in this study. Table 3.1 shows the samples collected from each of the four TVETs (Ilu Abba Bor TVETs).

Table 3.1 describes officers and TVET College Deans, who were selected from four weredas.

Name of TVETs	Officers			Collage Dean		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
MettuTVET	1		1		1	1
DarimuTVET	1		1	1		1
Gore TVET	1		1	1		1
YayoTVET	1		1	1		1
	Total		4	Total		4

As it can be seen in table 3.1, four officers and four deans were purposely taken from four weredas, namely Mettu wereda, Darimu werda, Gore wereda, and Yayo woerda after these TVETs which were selected randomly.

Table 3.2 describes TVET teachers which were selected from four weredas of Illu Abba Bor Zone

Name of TVETs	Instructors Participants			
	M al e	Fe mal e	T ot al	25% of the total
Mettu VET	22	14	36	9
Darimu TVET	26	5	31	8
Gore TVET	14	3	17	5
Yayo VET	30	7	37	9
Total	92	29	121	31

Since the research focused on job matches and the jobless, students are the main victims of these problems, so it is important to include the students currently under training and the graduates in the last three years. As it can be seen in table 3.2, 31 teachers from four weredas, namely Mettu werda, Darimu werda, Gore werda, and Yayo werda, were selected randomly from these areas.

Table 3.3 describes TVET trainees, who were selected from four weredas of Ilu Abba Bor Zone.

Name of TVETs	Student Participants			15% selected
	Male	females	total	
MettuTVET	76	82	158	24
Darimu TVET	48	53	101	15
Gore TVET	68	44	102	15
YayoTVET	95	34	129	20
	287 (15%=43)	206 (15%=31)	493 (15%=74)	74

As it can be seen in table 3.3, 74 students who are currently under training from four weredas, namely Mettu werda, Darimu werda, Gore werda, and Yayo werda, were selected randomly from these areas.

Table 3.4 describes TVET graduates who are unemployed and were selected from four weredas of Ilu Abba Bor Zone.

Name of TVETs	male	female	total
MettuTVET	4	1	5
DarimuTVET	3	2	5
Gore TVET	2	3	5
YayoTVET	3	2	5
total	12	8	20

As it can be seen in table 3.4, twenty (20) graduates who have graduated from four weredas, namely Mettu werda, Darimu werda, Gore werda, and Yayo werda, and who are currently unemployed were selected randomly from these areas.

Finally, the study included four officers, four college Deans, and (see Table 3.1) 31 teachers, students currently under training, 74 teachers, and 20 graduated students in the last three years who were unemployed. Based on this fact, 133 respondents were taken for this study from four weredas.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

3.5.1 Questionnaire

The researcher prepared questionnaire to compare and analyze the information gathered through interview and data analyze. It was believed that it helped to get tangible information which obtained quantitatively and qualitatively. The questionnaire was a closed-end question, so the participants had to provide important information. It was preferred for this study to collect necessary information within a given frame of time. This questionnaire was prepared and distributed to all participants.

3.5.2 Interview quantitatively

An unstructured interview was one important research tool employed in order to get in-depth information from the respondents. It was through this type of interview that the researcher attempts to achieve a holistic understanding of the interviewees' point of view or situation (Dawson, 2002). In the study, to get additional information from the data obtained from the participants, the questionnaire and interviews were used as data collection instruments. To this end, unstructured interviews were conducted to collect related information from both participants.

3.5.4 Document analysis

As to Best and Kahn (1993), when document analysis is used as descriptive research, current documents and issues are given emphasis. Likewise, in this study, in addition to the information obtained from the respondents with reference to the technical and vocational training and job matching TVET, document analysis was conducted. This instrument was especially designed to see the qualification level of the instructors. The aim of developing this instrument was to see whether the trainees were learning with professional teachers.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

Firstly, the researcher contacted the school directors and explained the purpose of the study before conducting it. This helped the researcher in order to collect the data effectively. Then, before implementing those instruments, a pilot test was given for a few Yayo TVET respondents ahead of time in order to check whether the instruments were strong enough to generate the kind of data the study wants. Based on the responses of this pilot test, the final study was conducted by using the data gathering instruments that were indicated above.

Thus, to approve what they replied to questionnaires and interviews, using the pre-planned interview and referring to the training schedule, the researcher observed the training site twice at different times and interviewed the trainees the necessary documents were approved. Thus, the pilot test was approved only for Yayo trainees. To conduct the actual study, Planning 129 students as participants 15% (20 trainees) were selected for pilot study to identify how much relevant the actual study. These trainees were interviewed presenting similar interviewing with woredas officers. The responses which had gotten from them nearly show similar results with that of the officers'. Thus, there were: no enough qualified teachers(12), no sufficient practicing(14), inappropriate training class(17), shortage of practicing machines(17), discontinuous electric power(18), gaps between teachers in experience sharing(6)

3.7 Methods of Data Analysis

The data were collected by different instruments of data collection and analyzed by different statistical methods of data analysis for presentation and interpretation of the data for the purpose of the study. The qualitative data obtained was qualitatively analyzed and narrated to strengthen the result from the quantitative analysis and presented with the qualitative part. Thus, the data were collected through a questionnaire, which was tallied and tabulated by frequency, percentage, standard deviation, and variance. Percentage was used to present background information about respondents and to identify which of the items were rated as the major factors. Similarly, SPSS version 26 was used to analyze quantitative data.

3.8 Consideration of Ethical Issues

The issue of ethics was given attention in this study. The cooperation letter was received from the department of Educational Planning and Management of Jimma University. Then, the letter was given to the zone education officer and a consent letter was prepared for the researcher to encourage participants to feel free to maintain the maximum confidentiality. A participant was fully informed about the purpose of the study and measures taken to ensure the respect, dignity, and freedom of each individual participating.

Generally, TVET plays great role in all Ethiopian societies which helps all the sectors to be productive and innovators. As it was described in MOE (2008), "The overall objective of the National TVET Strategy is to create a competent, motivated, adaptable and innovative workforce in Ethiopia contributing to poverty reduction and social and economic

development through facilitating demand-driven, high quality technical and vocational education and training, relevant to all sectors of the economy, at all levels and to all people.” Moreover, (Krishnan and Shaorshadze, 2012; Endalkachew, 2018; Alemayehu, 2010; Atakilt, & Everardvan, 2013; Messay and Teferi 2016) discussed TVET as it was enhance economy and forwarding the country.

CHAPTER FOUR

Analysis, presentation and interpretation of data

This part of the study presents the analyzed result and discussion of the data collected from respondents.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Here the demographic characteristics of the respondents were presented. Accordingly, the characteristics of the study groups were examined in terms of sex, academic qualification, and service years.

Table 4.1 the summary distributions of respondents in terms of sex

No	Characteristics	Sex of Respondents		
		Male	Females	Total
1	wereda officers	3	1	4
2	College Dean	4	-	4
3	Teachers	23	8	31
4	students (trainers)	43	31	74
5	Unemployed graduates	12	8	20
	Total	85	48	133

As it can be seen concerning the sex distribution of respondents, from wereda officers 3 of them were males and 1 is female. College Dean were 4 males and none of them were females. From teachers 23 of them were males and 8 were females. Among trainers 43 of them were males and 31 were female. And unemployed graduates 12 of them were males and 8 of them were females. These indicated that, the participation of females in TVET under the sample study were minimal both in teaching and administrative office. In supporting of this idea, Alutto and Belasco (1972, P .120) suggest that "... females participate less than males and desire low extent of participation".

Table 4.2 the summary teachers,wereda officers and college dean’srespondent’s distributions by educational qualification status

TVET Ilu Abba Bor	Diploma (C)level	First degree(B)level	Second degree(A)level
TVET			
Metu TVET	4	6	1
Darimu TVET	4	5	1
Gore TVET	2	5	-
Yayo	4	6	1

As it can be seen in fig 4.3 above with regard to respondents' qualifications, in Metu TV ET there are 4 diplomas and 6 degree teachers. In Darimu TV ET, there are 4 diplomas and 5 degree teachers. On Gore TVET, there are 2 diplomas and 5 degrees. In Yayo TVET, there are 4 diplomas, 6 degrees, and 1 master’s holder. This indicated that the respondents were well qualified and might understand the level and quality of the training in TV ET. Moreover, they might have had a high desire to participate in enhancing the training. This finding is supported by other research findings. For example, Riley (1984, P.40–41) pointed out that “highly educated employees desire greater participation because of a higher level of intrinsic need.”

Table 4.3 the summary of teachers, wereda officers and college dean’s respondent’s distributions by Service year

TVET Ilu Abba Bor	Below 5 years	5-10 Years	Above 10 Years
TVET			
Metu TVET	3	5	3
Darimu TVET	2	5	3
Gore TVET	3	2	2
Yayo	2	6	3

As can be seen in table 4.3, Concerning the service years of respondents, in Metu TVET only three teachers had served less than five years. Of those, 5 of them were from 5–10 service years, whereas 3 of them were above 10 years of service. In Darimu TVET two teachers had served less than five years. Of those, 5 of them were from 5–10 service years, whereas 3 of them were above 10 years of service. In gore TVET three teachers had served less than five years. Of those, 2 of them were from 5–10 service years, whereas 2 of them were above 10 years of service. In yayo TVET two teachers had served less than five years. Of those, 6 of them were from 5–10 service years, whereas 3 of them were above 10 years of service. In support of these findings, Alutto and Belasco (1972, P121) have reported that there is a positive relation between teaching experience and the extent of participation.

4.2 Results on the extent to which TVET benefits the graduates in getting employment

This part is about the extent to which TVET benefits the graduates in getting employment.

This part of study deals with the extent to which the TVET trainers training is related to their job match.

Table 4.4 descriptions of the result on the extent to which TVET benefits

	Mettu TVET			Darimu TVET			Gore TVET			Yayo TVET			Total (Grand result)			
	M	N	SD	M	N	SD	M	N	SD	M	N	SD	M	N	SD	SD
TVET emphasis on actual job	3.30	40	0.48	3.80	30	0.63	3.68	27	0.74	4.33	36	0.65	3.78	133	0.63	0.63
In TVET the theoretical and practical course given equally.	3.41	40	0.46	2.90	30	0.87	2.63	27	0.89	2.91	36	0.99	2.96	133	0.80	0.80
TVET teachers have sufficient practical skills	3.37	40	0.04	3.10	30	0.99	2.21	27	1.27	3.41	36	0.99	3.02	133	0.82	0.82
The TVET is equipped enough with training materials	3.67	40	0.45	3.70	30	0.82	3.47	27	0.84	4.00	36	0.42	3.71	133	0.63	0.63
Trainers are benefited from TVET's	3.66	40	0.50	3.0	30	1.05	3.31	27	0.82	3.41	36	0.51	3.46	133	0.72	0.72

the students in knowledge and skills that help them in actual job

As it is presented in Table 4.4, the mean value of respondents' opinions regarding the extent to which TV ET benefits graduates in getting employment indicates that it is unsatisfactory (medium) for all colleges. When we see the mean value of each Woreda, for item 1 (TV ET emphasis on actual job) in Mettu TVET (3.30), Darimu TVET (3.8), Gore TV ET (3.68), and Yayo TV ET (4.33). The respondents agreed (believed) that TVET has an emphasis on their actual job. For the discussion see the last paragraph.

Item 2 deals with whether the theoretical and practical courses are given equally in TVET, which means that in TVET, the theoretical and practical courses are given equally. On this item, respondents from Mettu TVET Woreda responded with a mean value of (3.41). However, others moderately responded. These are Darimu TVET (2.91) and Yayo TVET (2.91). According to data obtained from respondents of four colleges, the overall mean value curved to a low result. Which shows that the theoretical course and practical activities were not given equal weight in their TVET.

Item 3 shows the result on whether the TVET teachers have sufficient practical skills. The entire mean value for this item among the four college respondents showed less than moderate, with a mean value of 2.9. As it can be seen in Table 4.4, the highest mean value is Yayo TVET (3.41), and the lowest mean is Gore TVET (2.21). This implies that the TVET teachers do not have sufficient practical skills.

Concerning item 4, whether or not the TVET had an adequate workshop, more specifically, respondents from Mettu TVET (3.67), Darimu TVET (3.7), Gore TV ET (3.47), and Yayo TVET (3.6) were more. Moreover, the whole mean result was (3.6), which is moderate. This shows that the TV ET has some equipment in the workshop.

Item 5 deals with whether trainers have benefited from TVET. Regarding these items, respondents from all colleges rated them at a moderate level. To elaborate more, the mean score in MettuTVET (3.66), in DarimuTVET (3.0), in Gore TVET (3.31), and in Yayo TVET (3.41).

In general, regarding the extent to which TVET benefits the graduates in getting employment in Ilu Abba Bor Zone, they have the highest mean score of 4.33 from Yayo TVET regarding the first item. Whereas the lowest mean score of 2.21 was identified for the 4th item from Gore TV ET. This concluded that the TV ET of the Ilu Abba Bor Zone moderately benefits the graduates in getting employment. This was due to a lack of giving sufficient emphasis to the training provided for the actual job, which provided more theoretical courses than practical courses given equally. There is a scarcity of TVET

teachers with practical experience. In addition, a lack of equipment in the workshop makes TV ET less beneficial to the trainers.

As Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013) cited, in Africa, the concept of TVET was introduced by Phillip Foster (1965) in Ghana. In their essay, they also listed the following four different types of programs, referring to Grubb and Ryan (1999), under the umbrella of TVET, as listed below:(1) Employment VET-prepares individuals for the initial entry into employment. The regular track of the TVET in Ethiopia falls under this category. (2) Upgrade training provides additional training for employees; (3) Retraining provides training for people who have lost their jobs or want to change careers; and (4) Remedial VET provides training to people who are not in the mainstream labor force.

Moreover, as in our country Ethiopia TVETs case it was planned to play a great role for reducing employment. Thus, the number of youths needs employment increase from time to time. So, the government of Ethiopia has given attentions to TVETs to employ youths in different government sectors, NGO's and to be self-employed.

4.3 The TVET graduates productivity in actual jobs

This part of the result was to answer to what extent are the TVET graduates productive in actual jobs.

Table 4.5: describes the extent to which the TVET graduates were productive in actual jobs

	M	Metu TVET	SD	M	Darimu TVET	SD	M	Gore TVET	SD	M	Yayo TVET	SD	M	Tota l	SD
		N			N			N			N			N	
TVET graduates are always productive in actual jobs.	4.21	40	1.05	4.3	30	0.81	4.21	27	1.05	2.8	36	0.81	3.88	133	0.93
TVET graduates are not productive in actual jobs.	3.15	40	0.73	4.1	30	1.18	3.15	27	0.73	3.2	36	1.18	3.4	133	0.955
TVET graduates are sometimes productive in actual jobs.	4.11	40	0.92	4.21	30	1.05	3.16	27	0.91	4.67	36	1.02	4.0375	133	0.975
TVET not necessary for the productivity of the actual jobs.	4.33	40	1.41	3.15	30	0.73	4.58	27	1.11	3.3	36	1.08	3.84	133	1.0825
TVET is not related with actual jobs.	2.33	40	1.41	2.15	30	0.87	2.58	27	1.16	2.3	36	1.16	2.34	133	1.15

As it has been indicated in Table 4.5, Item 7 concerns whether TVET graduates are always productive in actual jobs. According to the results obtained from the respondents of Mettu TVET, Darimu TVET, and Gore TV ET, there is a high value. The obtained mean values are 4.21, 4.3, and 4.21, respectively. Yayo TVET woreda respondents, on the other hand, are moderate, with a mean value of 2.80. The entire mean value for this item was revealed to be high (3.88).

Item 8 was designed to obtain information about TVET graduates who are not productive in actual jobs. On this item, respondents from Darimu TVETworeda responded very highly (4.1). On the other hand, two colleges, such as Mettu TVET and Gore TVET, responded highly, with the mean of them having a value of 3.15. The sum mean value for this item was high (3.4).

Item 9 concerns whether TVET graduates are sometimes productive in actual jobs. Almost all respondents in all colleges responded poorly to this item. For instance, Mettu TVET Darimu TVET, and Yayo TVET (4.11, 4.21, and 4.67). Only respondents from Gore TVET woreda replayed moderate, with a mean value of 3.16.

According to item 10 TVET, it is not required for actual job productivity. Almost all respondents in all colleges responded highly to this item. For example, see 4:33, 4.58, and 3.30). Only respondents of Darimu TVET woreda replayed moderate, with a mean value of 3.15.

Nevertheless, based on item 11, TV ET is not related to actual jobs. They were rated at 2.33 and 2.15 mean scores for Mettu and Darimu, respectively.

But it was expected that TV ET trainers must be productive in their actual jobs. However, it was concluded that the TVET graduates of Ilu Abba Bor Zone were less productive in actual jobs. This was due to the training provided in the TVET of Ilu Abba Bor Zone was not sufficiently related to the actual job.

It is intended that skilled power from any institutions should have employed privately or in government sector. Means, the main goal of TVETs is, preparing the skilled labor force for employment. Similarly, “Training to a level that the occupation requires is a precondition for employment.”(Kebede 2010)

For this reason, producing skilled man power without occupation is a bankruptcy comes from playing with time and budget. So, giving emphasis to this, the government has to expand more widely both TVETs and trainees with suitable condition for occupation. TVET has a vital role to minimize unemployment. For countries which have large population it

creates different alternative jobs for youths. MOE (2008) support this idea: TVET providers are also encouraged to consider the work environment in the local micro and small business sector when designing their training programmed. This includes, for example, the introduction and use of appropriate technologies and the organization of internships or cooperative training programmes with micro and small enterprises. The TVET executive bodies was also undertake initiatives to strengthen and raise quality in traditional apprenticeship training, as this mode of TVET delivery is particularly effective in preparing youth for self-employment.

4.4 Competence and Qualification of TVET institutions

This part of the result was to answer the extent to which the Ilu Abba Bor Zone TVET institute were qualified and competent.

Table 4.6: Responses about the extent to which the TVET institute was qualified and competent

	Mettu TVET			Darimu TVET			Gore TVET			Yayo TVET			Total		
	M	N	SD	M	N	SD	M	N	SD	M	N	SD	M	N	SD
TVET's teachers are share experience with other colleague to consolidate themselves	2.66	40	1	2.4	30	1.07	2.52	27	0.96	2.41	36	1.05	2.4975	133	1.02
TVET teachers are not professional	2.44	40	1.01	2.4	30	1.17	2.47	27	0.96	2.33	36	1.04	2.41	133	1.045
TVET teachers attend their training regularly	2.22	40	1.09	2.4	30	1.17	2.31	27	1.05	2.31	36	1.18	2.315	133	1.125
TVET teachers attempt to only certify than skillfully handed	2.22	40	0.97	2	30	0.66	2.15	27	0.76	2.33	36	0.8	2.175	133	0.795
TVET teachers have training guide materials	2.44	40	1.13	2.5	30	1.08	2.52	27	1.02	2.25	36	0.92	2.4275	133	1.0375
TVET teachers promote different evaluations	2.11	40	0.78	2.1	30	1.28	2.15	27	1.01	2.25	36	1.11	2.1525	133	1.045

Hence, according to Table 4.6 of Item 12, TVET's teachers share experiences with other colleagues to consolidate their own. In collage, respondents indicated that 2collage responded low (2.4). These are Darimu TV ET and Yayo TV ET. The rest of the two colleges, however, answered moderately, with a mean value of Mettu TVET (2.6) and Gore TVET (2.5). The sum value of this item was too low (2.49).

Item 13 was designed to extract information about whether TVET teachers are not professional. All four respondents' responses were similarly framed. The data obtained indicated that it was low.

Item 14 deals with information concerning whether or not TV ET teachers attend their training regularly. Two colleges scored similarly on this item, and the mean value was low (2.31). The other two colleagues also appeared to have similar mean values that showed low (2.2 and 2.4) for Mettu TV ET and Darimu TV ET, respectively. The total mean value of all college respondents for this item showed a low of 2.31.

Regarding TV ET teachers' attempts to only certify rather than skillfully hand in Table 4.3 of Item 15, all respondents of the four colleges' mean value for each category showed MettuTVET (2.2), Darimu TVET (2.15), Gore TVET (2.0), and Yayo TVET (2.33), and the overall mean value for this item was indicated as (2.17) low.

When we see item 16, whether or not TVET teachers have training guide materials, respondents from two colleges decided to be moderate. The remaining two-collage values were confirmed to be as low as Mettu TVET (2.4), Yayo TVET (2.2), and (2.2). The average values of all respondents in four classes were very low (2.42).

Item 17 is about TVET teachers promoting different evaluations. All four respondents' opinions disagreed (low). Mettu TVET, Darimu TVET, and Gore TVET respondents (2.1) and Yayo TVET (2.1) had the highest mean values. Finally, the overall mean value is also low (2.25).

During the last couple decades, the World Bank's advice to developing countries seems to have been that basic education should be the top priority, and that public expenditure on VET should be reduced (Bennell&Segerstrom, 1998). Such advice is based on the proposition that provision and funding of VET is best left to the individuals, private enterprises and private institutions. This is justified by the fact that the demand-driven training systems have outperformed supply-driven systems. During the last couple of decades, the interest in TVET was also low within the donor community, partly as a result of

the increased focus towards the sectoral work. By its nature TVET is multi-sectoral and it was relatively neglected as a result.

Nearly before the three decades internationally the emphasis to TVET is too less. However, it has recently returned to the international development policy agenda. As it was cited in Krishnan (2012) the discourse on TVET has been reinvigorated under three themes. (1) During the last decade, the issue of TVET has been linked to the topics such as the Millennium Development Goals. Under-development is often being framed as the consequence of the lack of skills, to which TVET is cast as an obvious solution. (2) As a result of the demographic transition (i.e. decreased infant mortality and increased life expectancy) many developing countries have large share of the population that is young. In these countries, youth unemployment is an economic and social problem and is increasingly feared to create political problems. TVET is cast as a solution to these issues. (3) It was hoped that the technological advances of the last couple decades and globalization would improve opportunities for all.

4.5 Challenges TVET faces in producing competent graduates

Table 4.7: descriptions of the challenges TVET faces in producing competent graduates

		Mettu TVET			Darimu TVET			Gore TVET			Yayo TVET			Total		
		M	N	SD	M	N	D	M	N	SD	M	N	SD	M	N	SD
18	There are various machines	2.11	40	1.92	2.6	30	1.32	2.42	27	1.07	2.33	36	1.75	2.365	133	1.515
19	There are conducive management system	2.55	40	1.33	2.2	30	0.81	2.21	27	1.08	2.33	36	1.3	2.2725	133	1.13
20	There is long stay electric power	2.55	40	1.01	2.9	30	1.1	2.68	27	1.15	2.91	36	1.08	2.76	133	1.085
21	There are enough teachers	2.77	40	1.2	2.6	30	1.07	2.57	27	1.12	2.58	36	0.9	2.63	133	1.075
22	There are enough workshops and computers	2.55	40	1.42	2.9	30	1.44	2.68	27	1.45	2.83	36	1.26	2.74	133	1.395

As it can be seen on table 4.7, the results of the respondents were given. Item 18 is about the respondents' opinion on whether or not there are various machines. Only respondents of DarimuTVETWoreda responded moderately, and the mean value of this woreda was (2.6). The other three collages played low (disagree) and the mean values were Mettu TV ET (2.1), Gore TV ET (2.4), Yayo TV ET (2.3), and (2.4). The sum total of the mean value for this item is indicated as low as (2.33).

Regarding the various machines on item 19, respondents still believed they were low. Furthermore, with a total mean value of 2.27, respondents from all colleges confirmed that low. Mettu TVET (2.5), Darimu TV ET (2), Gore TV ET (2.2), Yayo TV ET (2.33).

Item 20 is about whether there is a conducive management system. All respondents described themselves as moderate. The mean value for all four collegians was 2.76, which confirmed a moderate value.

Similarly, item 21 deals with whether or not there is long-term electric power. Respondents from four colleges believed these responses were moderate. The obtained mean values from these comparisons are for MettuTVET (2.77), Darimu TVET (2.6), Gore TVET (2.57), and Yayo TV ET (2.58). The overall mean value for this item was 2.63, indicating moderate, which is inclined to disagree or low belief.

Furthermore, item 22 discusses whether there were enough teachers on TVET to support the program. On this item, all respondents from four colleges agreed that there is a moderate belief in having an overall mean value of 2.7.

Finally, the difference between groups and within groups was calculated and observed by using one-way ANOVA. Thus, the results of ANOVA are presented in the next section (see section 4.6).

When we interviewed the TVET officer, he stated that our workshop has almost none. The difficulty of an unequipped workshop is the main problem for students' doing practical activities to put the theoretical knowledge into practice. So, these trainers are not related to the actual job.

When we interviewed some unemployed graduates they said that even though we have graduated before 2 years we are not working still now. The concern of unemployment is not only due to their qualifications, but also due to scarcity of industry and other work places. The business owners didn't request them. Moreover, another respondent states that, even though we try to produce and qualified students, private organization didn't want to take them to their organization. This zone is at far distance from the center Addis Ababa in which

most private company and industries were found, this is also another reason for to getting math's job with their qualification.

Ethiopia has a long gradual experience in using TVET to eradicate poverty regarding to others African countries. The government has introduced different revised programs economically to forward the country by participating youths in both gender. Concerning this Atakilt, H. and Everardvan, K. (2013) Ethiopia shares the African socio-economic context described earlier. It is a fast-growing low-income country with a growing labor force and low employment opportunity in the formal sector. When the 2008 national TVET strategy was introduced, TVET had low relevance to the world of work while the delivery was fragmented, uncoordinated, and unregulated. There was lack of assessment and certification system that recognizes competence achieved through non-formal and informal learning and training. In addition, the TVET system was characterized by poor quality management within and low effectiveness and efficiency of TVET institutions. There were regional disparities and gender inequities across occupations. The TVET system was not initially welcomed due to poor perception of the public and stakeholders about TVET.

Consequently, there was limited stakeholder participation, under funding and inadequate resources. Furthermore, TVET was not supported by research, monitoring and evaluation. Due to its historical detachment from colonial legacies in Africa, Ethiopia has enjoyed the freedom of making use of best international experiences (Kingombe, 2011) rather than adopting the TVET system of former colonizers. Therefore, we expect and hence argue that the TVET system in Ethiopia and its implementation is highly likely to have unique features. For example, unlike the TVET model of the French-speaking African countries, TVET proclamation number 26 stipulates the integration of traditional apprenticeship into the TVET system. Unlike the TVET system in the English-speaking African countries, the TVET strategy of Ethiopia promotes vertical and horizontal mobility and progression (MOE, 2008).

4.6 Results of one-way-ANOVA of the extent to which TVET benefits the graduates in getting employment As it has mentioned in the earliest part of this paper it is indispensable to see the significances differences between groups on the data obtained from four Woreda. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of four TVET as they are independent (unrelated) groups. Hence, using one-way ANOVA Table is required in order to apprehend difference

occur between groups on the first category and the second category of respondents opinion. Moreover, One-Way ANOVA is also needed to see the differences within groups and between groups on if respondents are capable enough to integrate the theoretical framework of TVET.

Table 4.8: one way- ANOVA about the extent to which TVET benefits the graduates in getting employment

Items		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
TVET emphasis on actual job	Between Groups	.364	3	.121	.522	.668
	Within Groups	30.022	129	.233		
	Total	30.386	132			
In TVET the theoretical and practical course given equally.	Between Groups	.033	3	.011	.024	.995
	Within Groups	57.605	129	.447		
	Total	57.637	132			
TVET Teachers have sufficient practical skills	Between Groups	.988	3	.329	.688	.561
	Within Groups	61.762	129	.479		
	Total	62.749	132			
the TVET is equipped enough	Between Groups	.561	3	.187	.424	.736
	Within Groups	56.943	129	.441		
	Total	57.504	132			
Students are benefited from TVET's	Between Groups	.481	3	.160	.321	.810
	Within Groups	64.389	129	.499		
	Total	64.870	132			

ANOVA Table 4.8: opinions of all TV ET respondents concerning the extent to which TV ET benefits graduates in getting employment. The mean difference is significant at 0.05 levels. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to identify if any difference existed in the respondents' perception across the four (four) TVET. The items under each variable were aggregated into categories based on inter-item correlation analysis of the data. The ANOVA

result in the Table shows that there was no significant difference among the TVET in each weredas. The distribution of F on the statistical value at 5% level with the degree of freedom being between groups = 3 and within groups = 129 could have arisen due to chance. This analysis supports the null hypothesis of no difference in sample means. There is a significant difference in the calculated values for all items, which are 0.01 and 0.05. The P-value is greater than 0.05, indicating that there is no statistically significant difference between all TV ET respondents.

When we interviewed some unemployed graduates they said that even though we have graduated before 2 years we are not working still now. The concern of unemployment is not only due to their qualifications, but also due to scarcity of industry and other work places. The business owners didn't request them. Moreover, another respondent states that, even though we try to produce and qualified students, private organization didn't want to take them to their organization.

4.7 Results of one-way-ANOVA of the extent are the TVET graduates productive in actual jobs

Table 4.9: Results of one-way-ANOVA of the extent are the TVET graduates productive in actual jobs

Items		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
TVET graduates are always productive in actual jobs.	Between Groups	.159	3	.053	.122	.947
	Within Groups	55.842	129	.433		
	Total	56.001	132			
TVET graduates are not productive in actual jobs.	Between Groups	.988	3	.329	.688	.561
	Within Groups	61.762	129	.479		
	Total	62.749	132			
TVET not necessary for the productivity of the actual jobs.	Between Groups	.561	3	.187	.424	.736
	Within Groups	56.943	129	.441		
	Total	57.504	132			
TVET not necessary for the productivity of the actual jobs.	Total	.481	3	.160	.321	.810
	Between Groups	64.389	129	.499		
	Within Groups	64.870	132			
TVET is not related with actual jobs.	Total	.073	3	.024	.047	.987

ANOVA Table 4.9 Table of results of one-way-ANOVA of the extent to which TV ET graduates are productive in actual jobs, the mean difference is significant at 0.05 levels. One-way ANOVA was conducted to identify if any difference existed in the respondents' perception across the four (four) TVET. The items under each variable were aggregated into categories based on inter-item correlation analysis of the data. The ANOVA result in the table shows that there was no significant difference among the TVET. The distribution of F on the statistical value at 5% level with the degree of freedom being between groups = 3 and within groups = 129 could have arisen due to chance. This analysis supports the null hypothesis of no difference in sample means. There is a significant no difference in the calculated values for all items, which are 0.01 and 0.05, respectively. Shows there is no

statistically significant difference between all respondents and all TV ET as the p-value is > 0.05 and TV ET graduates are not productive in actual jobs.

Regarding teacher qualifications, interviews of school officers also showsx most of the teachers are diploma graduates. Moreover, they do not have practical skills.

4.8 Results of one-way-ANOVA of result on the extent to TVET institute are qualified and competent

Table 4.10: Results of one-way-ANOVA of result on the extent to TVET institute are qualified and competent

No	Items		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	TVET' s teachers are share experience with other colleague to consolidate themselves	Between Groups	1.377	3	.459	1.628	.186
		Within Groups	36.366	129	.282		
		Total	37.743	132			
2	TVET teachers are with best quality professionals	Between Groups	.294	3	.098	.311	.817
		Within Groups	40.621	129	.315		
		Total	40.914	132			
3	TVET teachers attend their training regularly	Between Groups	.309	3	.103	.462	.710
		Within Groups	28.785	129	.223		
		Total	29.094	132			
4	TVET teachers attempt to only certify than skillfully handed	Between Groups	.187	3	.062	.141	.935
		Within Groups	57.046	129	.442		
		Total	57.232	132			
5	TVET teachers have training guide materials	Between Groups	.988	3	.329	.688	.561
		Within Groups	61.762	129	.479		
		Total	62.749	132			
6	TVET teachers promote different evaluations	Between Groups	.561	3	.187	.424	.736
		Within Groups	56.943	129	.441		
		Total	57.504	132			

ANOVA (Table 4.10) Results of one-way-ANOVA of results on the extent to which TVET institutes are qualified and competent the mean difference is significant at 0.05 levels. One-way ANOVA was conducted to identify if any difference existed in the respondents' perception across the four (four) TVET. The items under each variable were aggregated into categories based on inter-item correlation analysis of the data. The ANOVA result in the table shows that there was no significant difference among the TVETs. The distribution of F on the statistical value at 5% level with the degree of freedom being between groups = 3 and within groups = 129 could have arisen due to chance. This analysis supports the null hypothesis of no difference in sample means. There is a significant no difference in the calculated values for all items, which are 0.01 and 0.05, respectively. Shows there is no statistically significant difference between all respondents (TVET as p-value is > 0.05) and TVET graduates who are not qualified and competent.

The interviewees indicates, it is obvious that technical and vocational education should be given for the coming generations. But the qualification is the main question that should be raised. The training should be related to that job, which was being done after graduation on the actual job. But one of the wereda officers from Ilu Abba Bor zone interviewed and responded to the students' training. They confirmed that the TVET training was not fit for the actual job.

4.9 Results of one-way-ANOVA of results of the challenges TVET faces in producing competent graduates

Table 4.11: Results of one-way-ANOVA of results of the challenges TVET faces in producing competent graduates

Items		Su m of Squ are s	df	M ea n Sq ua re	F	S i g n i f i c a n t l e v e l
There are various machine	Betw	.48	3	.16	.32	.
	een	1		0	1	8
	Grou					1

	ps					0
	Withi	64.	1	.49		
	n	389	2	9		
	Grou		9			
	ps					
	Total	64.	1			
		870	3			
			2			
	Betw	.07	3	.02	.04	.
	een	3		4	7	9
	Grou					8
	ps					7
	Withi	66.	1	.51		
	n	937	2	9		
	Grou		9			
	ps					
	Total	67.	1			
		009	3			
			2			
There is long stay electric power	Betw	.05	3	.01	.03	.
	een	4		8	8	9
	Grou					9
	ps					0
	Withi	61.	1	.47		
	n	315	2	5		
	Grou		9			
	ps					
	Total	61.	1			
		369	3			
			2			
There are enough teachers	Betw	.98	3	.32	.68	.

	een	8	9	8	5
	Grou				6
	ps				1
	Withi	61.	1	.47	
	n	762	2	9	
	Grou		9		
	ps				
	Total	62.	1		
		749	3		
			2		
There are enough workshops and computers	Betw	.56	3	.18	.42
	een	1	7	4	7
	Grou				3
	ps				6
	Withi	56.	1	.44	
	n	943	2	1	
	Grou		9		
	ps				
	Total	57.	1		
		504	3		
			2		

ANOVA (Table 4.10) Results of one-way-ANOVA of results on the extent to which TVET institutes are qualified and competent, the mean difference is significant at 0.05 levels. One-way ANOVA was conducted to identify if any difference existed in the respondents' perception across the four (four) TVET. The items under each variable were aggregated into categories based on inter-item correlation analysis of the data. The ANOVA result in the table shows that there was no significant difference among the TVETs. The distribution of F on the statistical value at 5% level with the degree of freedom being between groups = 3 and within groups = 129 could have arisen due to chance. This analysis supports the null hypothesis of no difference in sample means. There is a significant no difference in the calculated values for all items, which are 0.01 and 0.05, respectively. Shows there is no statistically significant difference between all respondents (TVET as p-value is > 0.05) and TVET graduates who are not qualified and competent.

Moreover, interviewing the TVET officer, they do not have practical skills. He stated that our workshop has almost none. The difficulty of an unequipped workshop is the main problem for students' doing practical activities to put the theoretical knowledge into practice.

4.10 Results of Document Analysis

Focusing on a well-organized record office, the document analysis indicated that it was unattractive and unsuitable record office in each TVET. As a result, most students' results were not recorded in a good and safe way. Similarly, it is too exhausting to get the previous graduate profiles easily. Regarding to identify strong and weak side of each instructors, there were not satisfactory meeting minutes in their files in all TVETs rather than files which show their education levels.

4.11 DISCUSSION

This research has highlighted the status of TVET-institute of Ilu Abba Bor zone, trainer job match.

Regarding the extent to which TVET benefits the graduates in getting employment in Ilu Abba Bor Zone, they have the highest mean score of 4.33 from Yayo TVET regarding the first item. Whereas the lowest mean score of 2.21 was identified for the 4th item from Gore TV ET. This concluded that the TV ET of the Ilu Abba Bor Zone moderately benefits the graduates in getting employment. This was due to a lack of giving sufficient emphasis to the training provided for the actual job, which provided more theoretical courses than practical courses given equally. There is a scarcity of TVET teachers with practical experience. In addition, a lack of equipment in the workshop makes TV ET less beneficial to the trainers.

Concerning whether TVET graduates are always productive in actual jobs or not, it was concluded that the TVET graduates of Ilu Abba Bor Zone were less productive in actual jobs. This was due to the training provided in the TVET of Ilu Abba Bor Zone was not sufficiently related to the actual job. It is intended that skilled power from any institutions should have employed privately or in government sector. Means, the main goal of TVETs is, preparing the skilled labor force for employment. Similarly, "Training to a level that the occupation requires is a precondition for employment."(Kebede 2010)

TVET benefits the graduates in getting employment the ANOVA result in the table shows that there was no significant difference among the TVET in each weredas.

Similarly, the ANOVA result in the table Shows there is no statistically significant difference between all respondents and all TVET as the p-value is > 0.05 and TVET graduates are not productive in actual jobs.

In the same way, there is no statistically significant difference between all respondents (TVET as p-value is > 0.05) and TVET graduates who are not qualified and competent.

Results of one-way-ANOVA of results of the challenges TVET faces in producing competent graduates there is no statistically significant difference between all respondents (TVET as p-value is > 0.05) and TVET graduates who are not qualified and competent. The result from interview also shows the difficulty of an unequipped workshop is the main problem for students' doing practical activities to put the theoretical knowledge into practice. Philip Foster's classic essay "The vocational school fallacy in development planning" (1965) was based on his work in Ghana. In this essay, he argued that vocational education in Africa was a myth. He argued that small-scale vocational training schemes might be more fruitful if they were divorced from the formal education system. He also argued that the burden of vocational training should be borne by the groups that demand skilled labour. The dilemma of whether to concentrate investment in general education or in vocational training has persisted in many African countries ever since this seminal essay (Oketch, 2007).

The government of Ethiopia has a strong belief in TVET as it brings secure economic development to the country. According to Endalkachew (2018),

The overall objective of the National TVET Strategy is to create a competent, motivated, adaptable, and innovative workforce in Ethiopia, contributing to poverty reduction and social and economic development through facilitating demand-driven, high-quality technical and vocational education and training relevant to all sectors of the economy, at all levels, and to all people. (MOE, 2008).

Based on the objectives indicated above, the Ethiopian TV ET programs are intended to play a crucial role in producing human capital and contributing to economic development. In line with this, the Ethiopian TV ET Qualification Framework (MOE, 2010) also explains that the reformed TV ET system is to be wage and self-employment oriented, demand-driven and outcome-based, and thus appropriate to the development needs of the Ethiopian economy.

Ethiopia has a long, gradual experience in using TVET to eradicate poverty compared to other African countries. The government has introduced different revised programs to economically move the country forward by involving youths of both genders. Concerning this, Atakilt and Everardvan (2013) Ethiopia shares the African socio-economic context

described earlier. It is a fast-growing, low-income country with a growing labour force and low employment opportunities in the formal sector. When the 2008 national TVET strategy was introduced, TV ET had low relevance to the world of work while the delivery was fragmented, uncoordinated, and unregulated. There was a lack of an assessment and certification system that recognizes competence achieved through non-formal and informal learning and training. In addition, the TVET system was characterized by poor quality management within and low effectiveness and efficiency among TVET institutions. There were regional disparities and gender inequities across occupations. The TVET system was not initially welcomed due to the poor perception of TVET by the public and stakeholders.

TV ET is a crucial tool for the fast development of the country. Especially in the agricultural sector, it plays a great role in the fight against poverty. Messay Mulugeta and Teferi Mekonen (2016) also described how the government of Ethiopia has demonstrated a strong commitment to the development of the agricultural sector through various mechanisms, of which the integration of the agricultural sector into technical and vocational training is a vital aspect. Ethiopia has a National Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Strategy developed in 2008. This is the guiding document for all TV ET programs in the country, including Agricultural TVET (ATVET).

MOE (2008) also raised the idea that the “National TVET Strategy is an important element of the overall policy framework towards development and poverty reduction.”

Moreover, the government is currently launching a new policy to link TVET with the industrial sector to enhance the development of the country. It means relating both sectors to technologies that can accelerate social and economic growth. It creates opportunities for youths to be self-employed and innovators. So, more emphasis is being given to the linkage of these sectors.

However to succeed such objectives (which mentioned above) through TVETs, there were a number of challenges faced by both TVET Ilu Abba Bor TVET and industries to practice effective TVET institutes in the Ilu Abba Bor zones. The first challenge that was highlighted and explained by TVET was the lack of readiness from the industries to strengthen their partnership with TVET Ilu Abba Bor TVETs. In terms of industry readiness for collaborative work, one respondent stated, "The majority of industry managers/supervisors of our partners have no clear awareness of the relevance of collaborative work. “They cannot consider it as a mutual benefit, but they perceive it as a burden to their industry.

Even if they accept trainees for cooperative training, the probability that trainees are assigned the appropriate job is low. On the other hand, the information providers of the industry reflected the low level of commitment from the TVET Ilu Abba Bor TVETs to enhance the TVET institute Ilu Abba Bor zones partnership. In this regard, one of the supervisors said the following: “Even though our company is a profit-making company, we believe in working in collaboration with TVET Ilu Abba

Bor TVET for mutual benefit, and it is our company's responsibility to do so as part of the community.” The training providers lack the ability to understand the work environments of the industries they serve, and they are not committed to improving the partnership with all its challenges.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1 SUMMARY CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Summary of the Major Findings

Under this section the major findings of the study tried to summarized. Thus, the major investigation of technical and vocational training job match in Oromia regional state: the case of Ilu Aba Bor zone was presented as indicated below.

The TVET of Ilu Abba Bor Zone moderately benefits the graduates in getting employment. This was due to a lack of giving sufficient emphasis to the training provided for the actual job, which provided more theoretical courses than practical courses given equally. A scarcity of TVET teachers with practical experience. In addition, a lack of equipment in the workshop makes TVET less beneficial to the trainers.

TVET of Ilu Abba Bor Zone makes them moderately productive graduates in actual jobs. This was due to a lack of TVET, which is not related to actual jobs.

As large numbers of responses show TVET's teachers share experience with other colleagues to consolidate themselves is low.

TVET teachers are not professional and their attending training regularly is low.

TVET teachers' attempts to only certify rather than skillfully hand in. The overall mean value for this item is low.

The responses on item whether or not TVET teachers have training guide materials indicates moderate. On the item TVET teachers promoting different evaluations the responses from the four colleges was disagree which implies low evaluations.

the respondents' opinion on whether or not there are various machines indicated low which shows no various machines in the four colleges. there is moderate response on long-term electric power. There is a low conducive management system. There is a moderate responses as whether or not enough teachers in all (four TVETs). For the item whether there were enough workshops and computers illustrated, the rating results showed an almost lower level of respondents' agreement for each of the items. One-way ANOVA was conducted to identify if any difference existed in the respondents' perceptions across the four (four) colleges. The items under each variable were aggregated into categories based on inter-item correlation analysis of the data. The ANOVA result in Table 4.6 shows that no significant difference existed among the colleges except for item number 3 (0.011) with a confidence

interval of $p < 0.05$ and $F(4, 119) = 3.61$. In the above table (4, 6: see distribution of F on statistical table value), at 5% level, with the degree of freedom being between groups = 4 and within groups = 119, could have arisen due to chance. This analysis supports the null hypothesis of no difference in sample means. For item 3, however, there is a significant difference as the calculated values were 0.01 and 0.05, as the p-value is 0.05, which reveals they benefited. In other words, there is no statistically significant difference between all respondents from all colleges, except for item 3. As Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013) cited, in Africa, the concept of TVET was introduced by Philip Foster (1965) in Ghana. In their essay, they also listed the following four different types of programs, referring to Grubb and Ryan (1999), under the umbrella of TVET, as listed below: (1) Pre-employment VET-prepares individuals for the initial entry into employment. The regular track of the TVET in Ethiopia falls under this category. (2) Upgrade training provides additional training for employees; (3) Retraining provides training for people who have lost their jobs or want to change careers; and (4) Remedial VET provides training to people who are not in the mainstream labour force.

As the above idea indicates, in Ethiopia, TVET play a great role in pre-employment. The number of young people needing employment increases from time to time. So, the government of Ethiopia has given attention to TVET to employ youths in different government sectors, NGO's and to be self-employed.

Alemayehu Kebede (2010) also argued the following ideas regarding the importance of TVET in his journal: Human resource development must be targeted at raising and augmenting the productivity of labor. Technical Vocational Education and Training (TV ET) is instrumental in developing human resources and enhancing human capital formation. It provides job-specific technical and non-technical training to prepare individuals for paid jobs or self-employment. It is worth noting that proactive TVET management coupled with a significant amount of investment can augment the productivity of the labor force.

From the above concept, TVET is the major tool, especially in developing countries that have numerous unemployed youths, such as Ethiopia. It also helps with the vast expansion of investment throughout the country and ignores the youth's reliance on the government. On the other hand, as TVETs train productive labor, unemployment will decrease, but there will be an increase in the self-employed productive force that contributes to the rising GDP of the country. Recently, it has also been given attention as an innovation center to transit the

country from small factories to large manufacturing industries. Generally, TV ET has major significance and purposes in moving the country forward.

Results of one-way-ANOVA show the extent to which TVET graduates are productive in actual jobs. The mean difference is significant at 0.05 levels. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to identify if any difference existed in the respondents' perceptions across the four (four) colleges. The items under each variable were aggregated into categories based on inter-item correlation analysis of the data. The ANOVA result in Table 4.7 shows that no significant difference existed among the colleges except for item number 8 (0.011) with a confidence interval of $p < 0.05$ and $F(3, 125) = 1.41$. In the above table (4.7: see distribution of F on statistical table value), at 5% level, with the degree of freedom being between groups = 3 and within groups = 125, it could have arisen due to chance. This analysis supports the null hypothesis of no difference in sample means. For item 7, however, there is a significant difference as the calculated values were 0.01 and 0.05, as the p-value is 0.05, which reveals that TVET graduates are not productive in actual jobs.

5.2 Conclusion

Based on this study, it can be concluded that the TVET training intuitions were established for small-scale industries. Industries have not seen the benefits and do not feel encouraged to realize industry collaboration with TVET. Similarly, TVET Ilu Abba Bor TVET also showed a low level of commitment to knocking on the doors of industry.

Most employers in the country forward complaints about TVET graduates as possessing low-level skills required for employment in industries, low practical knowledge, and a lack of confidence in carrying out their duties and responsibilities.

These studies also found that graduate competencies in using skills and knowledge acquired and the status of collaboration between TVET institutions and stakeholders have been found weak. Empirical evidence shows that the success of workplace-based training is made possible through an enduring partnership between TVET institutions and industries. International recommendations of UNESCO for the improvement of technical and vocational education and training systems systematically refer to the need to form closer links between training and the labour market.

It was found that industrial attachment was the most pronounced linkage; a lack of initiative by TVET institutions and a poor response from industry were among the major challenges facing the partnership of TVET and industry.

Other ranges of environmental factors, such as the issue of trainees' health insurance, collaborative work culture, and level of awareness towards the benefits of TVET-institute of Ilu Abba Bor zone partnership among the partners, were explored.

In connection with the training factors, the research findings highlight that there is a misalignment between the real operational situation of the industry or the needs and operational standards of the industry and the training/curriculum standards.

One of the industry supervisor respondents said that most of the time, there is a mismatch between the technology we are using in our industry and the technologies TVET Ilu Abba Bor TVETs are expecting to find from our industry as per their curriculum requirement. Since we must move with the needs of the labour market, ours are more advanced. Due to such factors, sometimes we are challenged to accept trainees for cooperative training purposes as one of the work components in our partnership. Studies indicate customization and operational flexibility in working with partner organizations play a critical role in success.

Regarding the basics of people factors TVET institution leaders' lack of commitment to working to build trust in the capacity of trainers to prepare their trainees properly for industrial operation and the relevance of TVET acquired skills to their industry.

On the other hand, leaders of TVET complained that industries are wasting time on creating an encouraging environment for frequent communication on how the relationship is to be managed in the partnership. The development and implementation of partnership management strategies determines the continuous growth and maintenance of the collaboration between TVET institutions and industries.

5.3 Recommendations

From this result, it was recommended that the government of Ethiopia should strongly believe these and take remedial action to bring fast development on all sides, producing effective and productive manpower.

TVET officers and deans should try to enhance the problem by facilitating office and managerial activities. From this study, it can be concluded that the TVET training intuitions were established for small-scale industries; however, the job match should be a matter which needs attention. It is expected that TVET trainers be productive in their actual jobs. TVET has a vital role in minimizing unemployment. For countries that have a large population, it creates different alternative jobs for young people. TVET providers are also encouraged to

create training programs that take into account the work environment in the local micro- and small-business sector. This includes, for example, the introduction and use of appropriate technologies and the organization of internships or cooperative training programmes with micro and small enterprises. The TVET executive bodies will also undertake initiatives to strengthen and raise the quality of traditional apprenticeship training, as this mode of TVET delivery is particularly effective in preparing youth for self-employment.

To implement a successful collaboration, both TVET providers and the industry should feel that they have mutual benefits; more importantly, the industry should feel that linking with TVET delivery will lead them to significant benefits.

Specifically, technical, vocational education and training have undergone qualitative and quantitative changes in Ethiopia. The number of TVET institutions and trainee enrolment has greatly increased. The budget allocated for TVET and the institutional capacities of regional TVET agencies are enhanced nowadays. Following the Education and Training Policy of 1994, TVET in Ethiopia was not only tremendously expanded and diversified, but efforts were made to make it relevant to the national development needs of the country. In connection with this, the Ethiopian national TVET strategy has been developed to respond to the competence needs of the labour market by creating a competent, motivated, and adaptable workforce capable of driving economic growth and development. Despite the government's ongoing efforts, particularly through the implementation of outcome-based training systems, skill development interventions, and efforts to make the TVET system more responsive to the labour market, the unemployment rate of TVET graduates remains high (MOE, 2008). In an outcome-based approach, the linkage between TVET and industry is very necessary. For TVET graduates, industry is the main place for the job market, and for the industry, technical and vocational training and training institutions are the main places. School-based training, internship, apprenticeship, and cooperative training programs are major forms of training integrated into the training activities of the TVET education system in Ethiopia. Investors and industry owners should attract self-employed people as well as innovators to expand TVET in all locations.

The report finds that given how the training in TVETs of Illu aAbabor zone specially in seven TVETs is going on. It is believed that TVETs are important to increase productivity and economic growth as a national. So, TVET program have to be expand through the country . To implement this the following major actions have to be taken :

- The Government and the concerned bodies have to full fill all the TVETs With necessary equipments .
- Different trainings are important to trainers from time to time .
- Policy makers would like to know how to up-grade the better TVET and ought to be expanded.
- Different organizations and private sectors have to employed and appreciate TVET's completers.
- The woredas' administrations have to co-operate the TVET completers to different small enterprises.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Questionnaires for respondents

Jimma University

College of Educational and Behavioral science

Department of EDPM

Dear Teachers, The objective of this questionnaire is to gather information about the training in your TVET. The information is needed for the MA thesis which is going to be done on the title Technical and vocational training and job match in VETs of Ilu Aba bor Zone. Your cooperation in providing the needed information plays a vital role for the success of the research.

Therefore, you are kindly requested to fill in your answers to the questionnaires on the basis of the given instructions.

PART I: Background Information

Indicate your response by circling on option provided for close ended questions

1. Woreda _____

2. Sex: Male Female

4. Educational qualifications?

Diploma

BA, BSC, BED, MA/MSC/MED

5. Service years (experience):

Less than 5 years

5-10 years above 10 years

7. Have you had any additional training?

Yes No

Part II: For each of the following please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement by putting (x) mark in the space provided according to the following scale: Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Uncertain=3, Disagree=2, and Strong disagree=1

No	Items on trainers benefited from TVET's.	Levels of Agreement				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	TVET emphasis on actual job					
2	In TVET the theoretical and practical course given equally.					
3	TVET Teachers have sufficient practical skills					
4	The TVET is equipped enough					
5	Trainers are benefited from TVET's					

Part II: For each of the following show how TVET graduates are productive in actual jobs by putting (x) in one of the boxes according to the scale below.

5=Always, 4 =Usually, 3=Sometimes, 2=Rarely, 1=Never

No	Items	Level of Agreement				
		5	4	3	2	1
6	TVET graduates are always productive in actual jobs.					
7	TVET graduates are not productive in actual jobs.					
8	TVET not necessary for the productivity of the actual jobs.					
9	TVET not necessary for the productivity of the actual jobs.					
10	TVET is not related with actual jobs.					

No	Items on TVET's teachers and institutions quality	Levels of Agreement				
		5	4	3	2	1
11	TVET's teachers share experience with other colleague to consolidate themselves					
12	TVET teachers are with best quality professionals					
13	TVET teachers attend their training regularly					
14	TVET teachers attempt to only certify than skillfully handed					
15	TVET teachers have training guide materials					
16	TVET teachers promote different evaluations					
17	TVET's teachers are share experience with other colleague to consolidate themselves					

No	Items the factors affect TVET training	Level of Agreement				
		5	4	3	2	1
18	There are various machine					
19	There are conducive management system					
20	There is long stay electric power					
21	the TVET is equipped enough					
22	There are enough teachers					
23	There are enough workshops and computers					

Thank you in advance!

Appendix B

Interview Guide for wereda officers and Collage Deans

Jimma University

College of Educational and Behavioral science

Department of EDPM

How do you see training in your school (TVET)?

Has your teacher ever shared experiences with his/her colleagues regarding the practicing of training?

Do you feel that your teacher is in a position to practice the trainees with enough skill properly?

Do you think that the training your teacher gives helps trainees to be achievers? How?

Do you know what is expected from you after completing your training?

What problem do you encounter in practicing the training in your class?

Is it always possible your teacher to provide necessary support to each trainees while training?

What do you generally suggest for improvement of your training in your class?

What do you suggest trainees not to be job-less as completing their level?

If there are any comments you add?

Appendix C

Secondary data from Document analysis

Jimma University

College of Educational and Behavioral science

Department of EDPM

Secondary information gleaned from document analysis guides

Is there a well-organized record office?

Is there a contract in place with the stakeholders?

Are the students' results recorded in a good and safe way?

Is there a file that was well organized?

Is there a record of previous graduate profiles?

Are there previous meeting minutes in their file?