From Policy to Practice: Perceptions of Effective Teaching in Ethiopia

A Qualitative Study of Public and Private Primary Schools in Addis Ababa

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Abstract

This qualitative study explores how effective teaching is perceived and practiced in Ethiopia using a case study of Addis Ababa. The aim of the study is to identify to what extent there is a common understanding of effective teaching. This is conducted through an exploration of the experiences of different educational stakeholders including policy makers at all government levels (local, regional, federal), primary school administrators and teachers who teach upper level primary school, grades 5th to 8th. School administrators and teachers came from a total for four schools, two private and two public (government), of which one is low-resourced and one is high-resourced.

This study does not attempt to provide an objective understanding of effective teaching or to tell teachers how they should teach. Rather, the aim is to stimulate educational stakeholders in Ethiopia to reflect upon their own perception by presenting them with accounts of other’s experiences. These experiences can then be used to re-conceptualization how one thinks of, acts on and interprets effective teaching. Different contexts influence on effective teaching along with constraints are also presented in order to shed light on parts of the Ethiopian education system that should be addressed. With a common understanding of the concept of and approach to effective teaching in Ethiopia, policies and communities can plan, create and sustain the required environment for quality teaching and learning to flourish.
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And last, but certainly not least, my thanks and gratitude to my family–Sandy, David, and Max–for their undying support and love and to my friends back home–especially to Danielle, Lauren and Tyler for their advice–and here in Ethiopia who have become family and provided comfort and immense amounts of encouragement.
Dedication

To my second home, Ethiopia, more specifically to the first primary school I stepped in Ethiopia for their warm welcome and insight into education in Ethiopia and to Tigist Baye whose friendship and passion for teaching inspired me to come back;

To my inspiration, Dr. Patricia Cunningham II (aka Dr. Patty), whose legacy I hope to carry on;

And to my own legacy, Dr. Arnold (Gramps) Roseman, whose footsteps I hope to follow in one day.
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AAEB</td>
<td>Addis Ababa Education Bureau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABE</td>
<td>Alternative Basic Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>ADEA</td>
<td>Association for the Development of Education in Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUC</td>
<td>African Union Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>CBA</td>
<td>Competency-Based Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continuous Professional Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>Cluster Supervisor</td>
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<tr>
<td>CTE</td>
<td>College of Teacher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<tr>
<td>EI</td>
<td>Education International</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESDP</td>
<td>Education Sector Development Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>ETA</td>
<td>Ethiopian Teacher’s Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>ETP</td>
<td>Education and Training Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDRE</td>
<td>Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEQIP</td>
<td>General Education Quality Improvement Program</td>
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<tr>
<td>GHR</td>
<td>Government High-Resourced</td>
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<tr>
<td>GLR</td>
<td>Government Low-Resourced</td>
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<tr>
<td>GPE</td>
<td>Global Partnership for Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communications Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICQN-TL</td>
<td>Inter-country Quality Node- Teaching and Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSET</td>
<td>In-Service Education and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KG</td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
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<tr>
<td>LOI</td>
<td>Language of Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRD</td>
<td>Licensing and Re-licensing Directorate</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>NLA</td>
<td>National Learning Assessment</td>
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<td>NPST</td>
<td>National Professional Standards for Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHR</td>
<td>Private High-Resourced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLR</td>
<td>Private Low-Resourced</td>
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<tr>
<td>PTR</td>
<td>Pupil Teacher Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REB</td>
<td>Regional Education Bureau</td>
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<tr>
<td>SDG</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goal</td>
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<tr>
<td>SIDA</td>
<td>Swedish International Development Authority</td>
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<tr>
<td>SNNPR</td>
<td>Southern Nations, Nationalities and People’s Region</td>
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<td>SSA</td>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>TDP</td>
<td>Teachers Development Program</td>
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<tr>
<td>TEI</td>
<td>Teacher Education Institution</td>
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<tr>
<td>TESO</td>
<td>Teacher Education System Overhaul</td>
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<tr>
<td>TGE</td>
<td>Transitional Government of Ethiopia</td>
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<tr>
<td>TVET</td>
<td>Technical and Vocational Education and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>UDHR</td>
<td>Universal Declaration of Human Rights</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>WASH</td>
<td>Water, Sanitation and Hygiene</td>
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1 Introduction

Education today is more far-reaching than ever before. It is no longer only a means for attaining general knowledge or advanced skills in a particular field of study. It aims to impart critical thinking skills for solving problems of poverty and climate change and advancing science, technology and innovation, to promote peace-building and eradicate violent extremism, and to contribute to sustainable development, human rights and the notion of global citizenship (UN General Assembly, 2015). It is viewed as a prerequisite for significant involvement in today’s knowledge-based economy and a means for minimizing social and economic inequalities and increasing social mobility opportunities (Sedel, 2005). The United Nation’s 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes the importance of education and dedicates one of its 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), SDG4, specifically to education. SDG4 aims to “ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all” (UN General Assembly, 2015, p.17).

Nations around the globe have embraced the SDGs, which build upon the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that ended in 2015 (UN General Assembly, 2015). While access to education rose under the MDGs (and continues to rise under the SDGs), quality did not equally kept pace and a global learning crisis ensued. Children around the world, out of school as well as those in school, are not learning even the basics (UNESCO, 2014a; AUC, 2016). Africa was specifically noted in Agenda 2030 for its uneven progress and some off-track MDGs (UN General Assembly, 2015). Research in East Africa by Wim Hoppers & Amina Yekhlef (2012) found that “there are many indications that children in basic education are not learning and that in particular ineffective teaching-learning practices and use of languages of instruction in which learners have low proficiency continue to hold back learning achievements” (p.16). Learning achievements are so low throughout Africa that basic literacy and numeracy skills have not been obtained after multiple years of schooling (Sedel, 2005).

This has turned the international agenda for education (and African nations) to consider aspects of quality. It is widely recognized by policy makers and researchers that the quality of an education system is based upon the quality of its teachers (Carron & Chau, 1996; UNESCO, 2015; UNESCO-UIS, 2018; Nordstrum, 2015). SDG4 stands in agreement and acknowledges that teachers are a key to its achievement by setting Target 4e “to substantially
increase the supply of qualified teachers by 2030” (UN General Assembly, 2015, p.17). Moreover, the effectiveness of a teacher has been found to be the most important of school-based factors in student achievement (Pretorius, 2012; GPE, 2017b; UNESCO, 2015; World Bank, 2018). How effective a teacher is makes a difference to student learning and outcomes (UNESCO, 2004; World Bank, 2012). The World Bank (2012) states that “a number of studies have found that… several consecutive years of outstanding teaching can offset the learning deficits of disadvantaged students” (p.1). A study conducted by Hanushek (2014) in the United States confirms this as well, finding that, “a good teacher will get a gain of 1.5 grade level equivalents while a bad teacher will get 0.5 year during a single academic year” (p. 24). Additionally, although a policy may outline or stipulate effective teaching practices, a teacher may have a different belief or practice in the classroom. Despite how well an education policy may be crafted, teachers are the ones who “apply policies and interpret curricula... it is what teachers do or fail to do that determines the bottom line index of the success of educational policies” (Obanya, 2010, p. 42). At the end of the day, teaching and learning is in the hands of teachers.

If effective teaching is the crucial ingredient in the 21st century’s complex, multifaceted era of education, then a deeper investigation of what it is and how to practice it is required for education systems and nations to improve the quality of education (Pretorius, 2012). This study is an examination of effective teaching perceptions and practices in Ethiopia. It is interested in understanding what teachers, as well as other education stakeholders, conceptualize as effective teaching and how they practice it in the classroom. Views and actions are compared to reveal the extent of a common understanding of effective teaching. This makes it possible to also shed light on outlying interpretations and constraints in practice.

This chapter introduces the background of the study and provides the rationale for examining effective teaching in Ethiopia. The chapter then presents the research questions, methodology, and scope of the study.

1.1 Background

Ethiopia was one of the most economically deprived countries in the world in 2000 but has seen remarkable economic growth in the past decade along with significant progress in
expanding access to primary education. Several reforms and education system overhauls have been introduced in Ethiopia since 1994 resulting in an increase in access to primary schools. Great efforts were made to build more schools and employ more teachers. Currently, Ethiopia is employing more than half a million teachers in kindergarten (KG), primary and secondary schools throughout the country. Of these, 79% are teaching staff in primary schools (Federal Ministry of Education, 2017).

Despite the increase in access, increases in the quality of education have lagged behind. The rapid enrollment of students strained the education system and compromised the quality of education. Ethiopia’s current Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP) released in 2015 states that the Grade 8 completion rate is 47% (p.15) and that only 25% of Grade 4 students and 7.5% of Grade 8 students scored 50% or above on the 2012 National Learning Assessment (NLA) (p. 18). Grade 5 and Grade 8 completion rates have remained relatively the same since 2009/10 indicating a lack in quality improvement (Federal Ministry of Education, 2017). This begs the question of what is taking place in Ethiopian classrooms and what are the policies and standards that should guide a teacher’s actions.

In 2013, I had my first glimpse into Ethiopia’s education system. It was my first time to the country and I immersed myself in a poor, local community on the edge of a slum and the government primary school within. I was surprised how few seventh and eighth-grade teachers I could communicate with as English was supposed to be the language of instruction (LOI). I was in awe of some of the teacher’s drive and dedication to their students and shocked to learn that only roughly 60% of their eighth-grade students pass the primary school leaving certification exam and move on to ninth grade. If education is only required to Grade 8 and nearly half of Ethiopian citizens only have a primary school level of education, I wondered how poverty could be alleviated or the economy could develop. This is when my curiosity for the country’s education system began. Working with the teachers in the classroom, I noticed the differences between their teaching styles and how small changes could make such a large impact to student participation, understanding and excitement. This sparked my curiosity to understand more about why things are the way they are, i.e. how are teachers taught to teach, what do the country’s policies say about how they should be taught and what do teachers believe to work effectively in the classroom. This study is an attempt to better understand the practices I saw and to give a voice to teacher’s in the classroom, to make sense of the challenges they face and ways the situation could be improved.
1.2 Purpose and Justification

The purpose of this study is to understand the nature and extent of educational stakeholders’ views and actions in Ethiopia regarding effective teaching. This will shed light on the presence of a shared understanding and possibly constraints in quality teaching and learning. When there is “a shared understanding of what is needed to ensure that all learners are taught by good teachers and served by effective teaching... all partners are more likely to be firmly focused on learning for all and how to achieve it” (Naylor and Sayed, 2014 cited in Bainton, Barret & Tickly, 2016, p.14). It encourages accountability and mutual responsibility. With a common understanding of the concept of and approach to effective teaching in Ethiopia, policies and communities can plan, create and sustain the required environment for quality teaching and learning to flourish.

To understand various views, the perceptions and practices of teachers as well as other education stakeholders is explored. By doing so, a platform and voice is given to teachers, who are generally left out of or have little say in education policy decisions (McKnight, Graybeal, Yarbro, & Graybeal, 2016; Bainton, Barret & Tikly, 2016). The aim is to understand their perceptions and practices of what makes an effective teacher in the Ethiopian context. My research also examines the extent that teachers’ perspectives of effective teaching vary from policy makers, other education stakeholders, and Ethiopian policies and strategies on what makes an effective teacher. Constraints in practicing effective teaching will also be revealed in the study.

Ethiopia’s population is growing, with 44% currently between the ages of 0 and 14 (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). This will only exacerbate poor quality education levels if left unattended. Improving the quality of education, i.e. the effectiveness of teachers, is vital, not only from a human rights perspective and to obtain universal primary education, but also if Ethiopia is to reach its goal of becoming a middle-income country by 2025 (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). Thus, the specific objectives are:

- To clarify how various educational stakeholders in Ethiopia— the Ethiopian Government as represented by policies and policy makers and primary school administrators and teachers— conceptualization of effective teaching aligns
- To reveal how effective teaching is reflected in Ethiopian policy
• To understand how effective teaching is conceptualized by policy makers, school administrators and teachers
• To expose how effective teaching is practiced by teachers
• To identify the constraints in enacting effective teaching in Ethiopian classrooms

To thoroughly investigate Ethiopia’s design of and practices in effective teaching along with various educational stakeholders’ views, predominately policy makers and teachers, Addis Ababa, the capital of Ethiopia, which is considered a region for educational purposes, was selected as a case study. Concentrating in one region allows a more thorough investigation of that local context, which is shaped by social structures, power relations and politics that “impact on the ways in which they [stakeholders] think about this experience” (Ashwin, n.d., p.10). Addis Ababa has some of the highest teacher qualification rates in the country and was the only region with a Grade 4 NLA average composite score above 50% in both the 2008 and 2012 assessment (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). By looking at schools in Addis Ababa the upper echelons of the teaching profession are sounded out and thus the best of how far the discourse on effectiveness has reached in the country is examined.

Nevertheless, quality improvements in education are still needed in Addis Ababa. Only 3 out of 4 students on average will complete Grade 5. Additionally, not more than 70.70% will pass the Grade 8 examination required to enter Grade 9 and just slightly over half of Grade 10 students will be promoted to Grade 11 (City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 2017). This significantly impacts the student readiness to enter the 21st century workforce and compete in the knowledge economy.

1.3 Research Questions

In line with the objectives and overall aim, the study has the following main research question and three sub-questions:

1. To what extent is there a shared understanding of effective teaching among different educational stakeholders in Ethiopia?

1a. How is effective teaching conceptualized and designed by policy makers at the federal, regional, and local levels?
1b. How do primary school teachers and administrators perceive and practice effective teaching in Ethiopia?

1c. What are the main constraints in practicing effective teaching in Ethiopia?

1.4 Methodology

This study employs a qualitative approach with a phenomenographic lens to a case-study in one region of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa. Four primary schools, two government and two private, in four different sub-cities of Addis Ababa were used as research sites. Of each of the two government and two private schools, one was high-resourced and the other was low-resourced. Semi-structured interviews with eight federal policy makers, regional and local education officers, a representative from the Ethiopian Teacher’s Association (ETA) and a representative from a teacher education institution (TEI) were conducted, along with four school administrators and 15 teachers. Additionally, there were four focus groups and 32 classroom observations of the teachers interviewed and several informal conversations. Federal education policy documents were also reviewed, and primary and secondary literature were analyzed to supplement the research data. Purposive sampling methods were used, and the data was transcribed, by the researcher and a team of translators, and coded inductively.

1.5 Study Scope

This study will look at the policy on effective teaching in Ethiopia and where relevant, consider the wider political, societal, economic and cultural background and issues. The outcomes do not claim to give a complete picture of the details within Ethiopian education politics. With a focus on Addis Ababa and within that on only four primary schools, the study also does not assert to give a thorough description of education in Addis Ababa or throughout the country. The scope of the study is limited to effective teaching in second cycle (5th to 8th grade) of government and private primary schools.
1.6 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into eight chapters. *Chapter One* presents a brief background on the issue under examination along with the purpose of the study and research questions. *Chapter Two* is a review of literature on the main topics in this thesis. *Chapter Three* explains the aspects of the analytical framework used to interpret the emerging data and *Chapter Four* provides an overview of the education context in Ethiopia. *Chapter Five* explains the design and methods used to collect and understand the data, plus their justification. *Chapter Six* presents the results obtained in the field and through document analysis, while *Chapter Seven* will go on to interpret the results and answer the research questions. Finally, *Chapter Eight* will summarize the thesis by reflecting on the dominant themes that emerged and present the conclusion of the study.
2 Literature Review

This section presents a review of literature as it relates to effective teaching. It begins with an overview of quality education and the important role that teachers play in it. It then moves into looking at what teachers do in the classroom to better understand what takes place in the teaching and learning process. This is followed by an examination of the concept of effective teaching.

2.1 Quality Education

The concept of quality is complex and multifaceted (Sanyal, 2013; UNICEF, 2000). Sedel (2005) as well as UNICEF (2000) found that different stakeholders typically have different perceptions regarding quality of education. Therefore, relevant stakeholders need to be included if a contextualized understanding of quality is to be established (UNICEF, 2000). This section thus presents various global actors and their understanding of quality education and the role of quality teachers.

2.1.1 The Drive for Quality Education

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) adopted in 1948 declared the right to education. Although, it did not specifically name ‘quality education’ it does state that education “shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and… promote understanding, tolerance and friendship” (United Nations, 2015, p. 54). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) builds upon the UDHR and began to make statements on quality as early as the 1970s. Today, UNESCO constitutes education quality through four pillars of learning: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be. UNESCO’s beliefs regarding quality also regard rights, equity and relevance, i.e. the right to education, equity in access and outcome, and a relevant education. (UNESCO, 2004). The United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) published its view on quality education in 2000 and identifies five dimensions- learners, environments, content, processes and outcomes. These interdependent dimensions are embedded in a complex system with political, economic and cultural contexts. Their view, just as UNESCO’s, accounts for the right of children to have an education (UNICEF, 2000).
A study entitled, “The Challenge of Learning: Improving the Quality of Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa” published by ADEA defines quality in terms of outcomes, i.e. “achievement by all children of learning objectives defined in the national programs and mediated by the quality inputs and processes” (Sedel 2005, p.47) It further explains that ‘outcome’ does not have to correlate with academic achievement in subjects such as mathematics or language, but could also relate to objectives regarding values and behavioral norms, which vary per context (Sedel, 2005). The assessment of outcomes should be against the agreed upon objectives. Outcomes are most easily measured by student’s academic achievements, i.e. performance on standardized exams (UNESCO, 2004).

Education International (EI), the world’s largest federation of teachers’ unions representing 30 million educationalists, and ASCD, a global community dedicated to excellence in learning, teaching, and leading, take a whole child approach to quality education. In a joint statement released in 2016, they describe a quality education as one that focuses on the social, emotional, mental, physical, and cognitive development of each pupil regardless of the child’s background (EI & ASCD, 2016).

2.1.2 Quality Teachers for Quality Education

The World Declaration on Education for All (EFA), adopted in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990, was reaffirmed by world leaders in the Dakar Framework for Action adopted during the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal in 2000 (UNESCO, 2000). The role of teacher’s in achieving EFA in the new framework was explained as follows:

Teachers are essential players in promoting quality education, whether in schools or in more flexible community-based programmer; they are advocates for, and catalysts of, change. No education reform is likely to succeed without the active participation and ownership of teachers. (UNESCO, 2000, p.20)

The notion that quality teachers are the foundation for a quality education system is becoming more and more widely recognized as education agendas turn to focus on aspects of quality (Carron & Chau, 1996; EI & ASCD, 2016; UNESCO ROSA, 2015; UNESCO UIS, 2018). The African Union’s 2063 Agenda: The Africa We Want (2015) aspires for “well educated and skilled citizens.” (p.2). Its current ten-year strategy, the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA) 2016-2025, aims to “revitalize the teaching profession to ensure quality and relevance at all levels of education” as its first strategic objective (AUC, 2016, p.8). It recognizes that attention first needs to be given to the teaching force, to issues of
training, deployment, continuous professional development (CPD), and working and living conditions, along with teacher accountability to quality teaching (AUC, 2016). EI & ASCD (2016) also recognizes the teaching force and sees their access and quality as a key pillar of quality education.

ADEA created an Ad hoc Working Group on Quality of Education in 2002 and dedicated one of its inter-country quality nodes to teaching and learning (ICQN-TL). This node aims to “support ministers of education to take the lead in developing and implementing policies and strategies for effective teaching and learning in Africa” (ADEA, 2018). This connection of effective teaching to quality education is one that the World Bank and the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) make as well. The World Bank recognizes that schooling is not synonymous with learning and without it, it is a wasted opportunity and injustice (World Bank, 2018b). They identify four ingredients at the school-level key for learning, which includes effective teaching along with prepared learners, inputs focused on learning and skilled management and government (World Bank, 2018b). GPE, a multi-stakeholder partnership and funding platform established in 2002, is the only global fund dedicated solely to developing countries’ education (GPE, 2018). They believe that “teachers are central to the learning process and play a critical role in improving learning outcomes. Beyond any other school-based factor, teacher effectiveness has been found to be the most important predictor of student learning” (GPE, 2017b).

UNESCO dedicated its annual EFA Global Monitoring Report in 2004 to quality. It provided an overview of humanist, behaviorist, critical, indigenous and adult education approaches/traditions to effective teaching (UNESCO, 2004). In 2008, the International Task Force on Teachers (the Teacher Task Force), a voluntary global alliance of nations, intergovernmental organizations, international development agencies, civil society and private sector organizations, was created. Its current mission is “to mobilize governments and other stakeholders for the advancement of teachers and quality teaching, acting as a catalyst of global, regional and national efforts through advocacy, knowledge creation and sharing and country support” (International Task Force on Teachers for Education 20130, 2018, p.5). If quality education and student learning are dependent upon teachers, then their actions in the classroom, their classroom practice and instruction, need to be explored.
2.2 Teachers & Teaching: Looking in ‘The Blackbox’

UNESCO (2004) explains that “a strong research tradition has sought to unpack the ‘black box’ of education by focusing on the learning process itself – the creative interaction between pupils and teachers in the classroom – with a view to drawing lessons from success” (p.20). This is necessary to unpack and understanding if effective teaching is to be explored. Schubert (2005) describes the classroom as the “‘workplace of learning’ – the authentic setting where the intended beneficiaries of any educational change (i.e., reform) demonstrate measurable improvement (or non-improvement) as a consequence of that change” (p.55). Looking inside the classroom requires an examination of the classroom dynamics, e.g. how teachers teach the expected content and their knowledge of it, what resources are (or are not) available and how they are used, and pupil actions (Schubert, 2005). This section provides an overview of various classroom practices, dynamics and interactions. It starts by covering what the classroom looks like and then delves into what happens in the classroom, as found in the literature and identifies what is common to Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).

2.2.1 What the Classroom Looks Like

Mingat (2005) states that the classroom activities matter more to quality education than the physical environment. Nonetheless, an attractive and functional classroom contributes to effective teaching (Anderson, 2004). A clean, orderly equipped classroom sets the tone for a welcoming environment conducive to learning (Mingat, 2005). A lack of resources typically plagues African classrooms (Sedel, 2005) as well as large disparities between school’s furnishings within a country (Mingat, 2005). Most teachers in SSA are also faced with many students in their classroom (Sedel, 2005). This negatively impacts the quality of instruction that a teacher provides (Michaelowa, 2003 in Sedel, 2005). For a smaller number of students is more easily managed, especially regarding student behavior and discipline, and in tailoring lessons and activities according to specific student needs (Mingat, 2005).

2.2.2 What happens in the Classroom

The actions a teacher takes in a classroom, their style of instruction, depends upon the curriculum, i.e. what the teacher is expected to teach. The extent to which a curriculum is relevant, i.e. that it responds to the needs and reality of the local environment and future development, impacts how motivated students are to learn. A relevant curriculum encourages active participation “in constructing knowledge and to establish an interactive relationship
between school learning and life experience” (Dembélé & Ndoye, 2005, p.142). According to Dembélé & Ndoye (2005), SSA’s development challenges require curricula that covers sustainable development with content on the environment, health, peace, tolerance, and human rights to name a few. Such curricula should also focus on developing cross-cutting skills and learning and study strategies instead of ‘encyclopedism’, i.e. book knowledge, as they have been found to be equally important to learning content. African schools have especially been criticized that “pupils do not learn how to learn or how to take initiative” (Dembélé & Ndoye, 2005). A relevant and well-designed curriculum along with available, essential teaching and learning materials means little without effective teaching instruction and a conducive classroom learning environment (Dembélé, 2005).

Students cannot learn if they are not being taught. Unfortunately, in the African context the theoretical time spent in the classroom learning typically is not the same as and may be significantly lower than the actual time (Mingat, 2005). The quality of that instruction depends upon the various roles a teacher can play as an instructor- moderator, challenger, synthesizer, commentator-which each guide a learners’ behavior and thinking. The chosen role should support the learning objectives and instructional activities (Carnegie Mellon University, 2016). Although, there is generally consensus that a teacher-centered role composed of rote learning and passive roles for students is an unwelcomed choice (UNESCO, 2004), there is currently a debate on how to best support the process of knowledge construction in classrooms, mainly between an open-ended versus more structured instruction (Dembélé, 2005; UNESCO, 2004).

Open-ended instruction, derived from a mix of constructivist approaches, promotes “participatory, more interactive, child-centered, discover-oriented and adventurous pedagogy, with cooperative learning and inquire as its central features” for children to construct knowledge through intensive subject area inquiry. This teaching style has been found to be less effective than structured instruction for students from underprivileged and impoverished backgrounds as well as difficult to implement on a large scale. The reason for this is, because open-ended instruction so drastically differs from the traditional notion of schooling that students, parents and teachers may resist it. A greater issue than teacher resistance is teacher’s level of preparedness and the availability of support to carry out this teaching style (Dembélé, 2005).
Structured instruction lies somewhere between “traditional” teaching and open-ended instruction (Dembélé, 2005; UNESCO, 2004). This approach includes “proponents of direct instruction, characterized by structure and some directivity, and having mastery learning as [a] guiding principle” (Dembélé, 2005, p.172). The main features of this approach according to Walberg and Paik (2000) include daily review and homework check, new content presentation, guided student practice, corrective feedback, independent practice via desk work and homework, and lastly, weekly and monthly reviews (as cited in Dembélé, 2005).

Dembélé (2005) proposes a middle ground that is inclusive of both approaches in classroom practice. For it is not an issue of child or teacher centered, but a matter of ‘learning-centeredness’, helping all students attain learning objectives, which may very well require a variety of teaching strategies. Teaching practices in SSA have been found to be undesirable. Dembélé and Miao-II (2003) found practices such as “rigid, chalk-and-talk, teacher centred/dominated, lecture-driven pedagogy or rote learning” (as cited in UNESCO, 2004, p.152) that limits student engagement to memorization and recitation of facts persist in most classrooms (USAID, 2015). Numerous studies have found many attempts by countries to switch away from these approaches to more learner-centered and activity-oriented practices, but with inconclusive results (UNESCO, 2004). Many African countries have also turned to a competency-based approach (CBA), a skills-based approach “focus[ed] on behavioural skills, strong involvement of learners, perception of teachers as mediators of knowledge, “contextualization” of knowledge, and progressive and integrated assessments to facilitate the transfer to other situations” (Cros et al., 2010 as cited in Hopper & Yekhlef, 2012, p.28). A turn to this approach was also met with various difficulties in practical implementation and delivery (Hopper & Yekhlef, 2012).

Teachers do not just teach content, they teach students the content and therefore, should learn about their students— their characteristics, prior knowledge and cultural, generational and disciplinary backgrounds. While adequately measuring each of these attributes in every student is not feasible, teachers should make an effort to acquire knowledge about their students to inform course design, assist in identifying student difficulties and guide instructional adaptations (Carnegie Mellon University, 2016). Additionally, a teacher should also incorporate learning measurements (assessment) into the classroom. They are valuable, according to GPE, because they are needed for learning improvement. They state that
measuring learning is “helping teachers understand what students know and to adapt instruction accordingly” (GPE, 2017b, p.2).

The LOI used in class plays a key role as an enabler or disabler in the teaching-learning process. For effective communication, a language that both the teacher and students understand needs to be used (Dembélé & Ndoye, 2005). UNESCO reported in 1953 that children learn best in their mother tongue. Bilingual education, which mutually supports teaching African languages and the colonial language, has become increasingly promoted since the mid-1970s in many countries post-independence reform agendas. There are several challenges in implementing a bilingual education system though. These include language selection, ensuring the local language is developed enough to convey content ideas and textbook development, and production costs as well as effectively managing a smooth transition from one LOI to the other (Dembélé & Ndoye, 2005).

Ethiopia, which promotes eight years of mother tongue instruction in school, is considered to have one of the best language policies on the continent, according to Heugh et al. (2007) who conducted an extensive analysis in Ethiopia on language education policy and practice. The English language is growing in power and influence though. Trudell (2016) explains that “...the global dominance of English has generated a number of myths about the value of English in local contexts as well as in the national language ecology” (p.110). Heugh et al. (2007) recommends eight years of mother tongue instruction before switching to English for LOI, yet most regions in Ethiopia were found to have adopted English as LOI during upper primary school years. Even political elite were observed sending their children to schools where English or French is the LOI (Ambatchew, 2010 as cited in Trudell, 2016).

Finally, teaching requires flexibility and adaptation. A teacher should be reflective of their practice, seeking feedback from student work, colleagues or class dynamics and participation, and willing to make appropriate changes when needed (Carnegie Mellon University, 2016).

According to Marton & Booth (1997) “...there is no doubt that a variation is to be found among teachers in the quality of their teaching” (p.175). Some teachers lack motivation, while others lack the skills required to be effective (World Bank, 2018b). Teachers and their ability to effectively teach greatly impact student learning and the quality of education (Ackers & Hardman, 2010; World Bank 2018b). According to McKnight et al. (2016)
“investing in teacher quality… starts with defining what makes an effective teaching” (p. 3). Therefore, a deeper look into effective teaching is required to understand and achieve quality education.

2.3 Effective Teaching

There is no universally accepted definition of effective teaching and a definition can be disputed and problematic because what an effective teacher is and does is contested (Al-Thani et al., 2016; Coe, Aloisi, Higgins & Major, 2014; Goe, Bell & Little, 2008; Nordstrum, 2015; Pretorius, 2013; Sanyal, 2013). It is with this view in mind that perceptions and practices of effective teaching- not an evaluation of effective teaching- are explored within the context of Ethiopia.

Lacking a universal definition, several different views on effective teaching exist. A literature review of teacher effectiveness by Stephanus Gert Pretorius (2013) found teaching variables, behaviors, characteristics, dispositions, qualities, attitudes, and strategies as varying approaches to effectiveness. Nordstrum (2015) identifies four general areas of the teaching and learning process- (1) teacher characteristics and classroom-level inputs, (2) teacher professionalism and conducts, (3) student learning outcomes, and (4) teaching practice- as the main indicators of effective teaching. He finds for conceptual and logistical reasons that, “effective teaching tends to be conflated with either effective teachers (i.e., personal characteristics and professional attributes) or with successful teaching (i.e., those whose students are successful on accepted forms of assessment)” (p. 8). The difference is subtle, but important. The first emphasizes specific characteristics teachers should have, which can then be used for recruitment or taught during training programs. The latter, focuses on student learning based on formal assessments. Most measures were found to “enumerate effective teachers (i.e., teacher characteristics) and successful teaching (i.e., student outcomes)” (Nordstrum, 2015, p.9). Although this study is concerned with individual’s and group’s (teachers, principals, teacher educators, policy makers, etc.) views of effective teaching, it is important to review current definitions and these various conceptualizations to understand where the participants are coming from.

As a starting point for quality education and effective teaching, teachers should “meet minimum national qualification and training standards” (GPE, 2017b, p. 7). Such
qualification and training are considered a pre-requisite for effective teaching (Nordstrum, 2015). Education systems typically struggle to recruit strong candidates to join the teaching profession and to provide foundational knowledge in initial teacher training and practical and consistent CPD though (World Bank, 2018b). Although qualifications and experience are important, they do not automatically create an effective teacher (Carron & Chau, 1996; Naylor & Sayed, 2014; Obanya, 2010, 2014; UNESCO, 2000; UNESCO UIS, 2006). For obtaining a paper certificate or certain number of years of pre-service training or teaching experience do not account for the quality of that experience (Obanya, 2010) or the willingness of the teacher to adopt and adapt what they’ve learned into their teaching practice (Dembélé, 2005). Teachers also typically teach the way they were taught, instead of how they were taught to teach, which means even if effective teaching practices were explained, if teacher educators did not themselves effectively instruct then message might have been lost (Obanya, 2010).

Some believe that there are specific characteristics a teacher needs to have to be effective. Anderson (2004) cites 12 teacher characteristics, stable traits relating to and influencing the way teachers teach, within four clusters—professionalism, thinking/reasoning, expectations and leadership—identified by Hay McBer (2000) as well as other researchers. (Anderson, 2004). The dispute with teacher characteristics is that they do not have a direct influence on teacher effectiveness,

Rather, it is moderated or mediated by their effect on the way in which teachers organize their classrooms and operate within them. In Bloom’s (1972) terms, what teachers are influences what teacher do; what teacher do, in turn, influences what, and how much, students learn. (Anderson, 2004, p.22)

So, although a teacher’s characteristics may affect their actions, what a teacher is (their characteristics) are only on part of picture that is effective teaching. Additionally, emphasis on personal characteristics treats teachers “as important but perfectly interchangeable components of an educational system” (Nordstrum, 2015, p. 9).

One of the main perspectives and ways to define and look at effective teaching comes from an outcomes-based perspective. Since a widely acknowledged goal of teaching is to impart knowledge to and learning of students, most research assesses effective teaching against student progress (Coe et al, 2014; Ndoye, 2005). Additionally, numerous studies have found
that “what goes on in the classroom, and the impact of the teacher and teaching... as the crucial variable for improving learning outcomes” (UNESCO, 2004, p.152). Therefore, an outcomes’ view directly links effective teaching with student achievement. Hanushek (2014) found that “by looking at differences in the growth of student achievement across different teachers instead of concentrating on just the background and characteristics of teachers, it was possible to identify the true impact of teachers on students” (p.23). The learning gains some teachers achieve year after year is referred to as ‘value-added analysis,’ which can be used a metric for teacher effectiveness (Hanushek, 2014).

What student progress (outcome) is measured is important though. Typically, outcomes are viewed in terms of students’ performance on standardized tests (Goe, Bell & Little, 2008). This is because academic achievement, e.g. test grades or examination performance, is one of the easiest forms of measurement. Other outcomes could include changes in values, attitudes and behavior or creative and emotional development (UNESCO, 2004) as well as “success in socializing students and promoting their affective and personal development in addition to success in fostering their mastery of formal curricula” (Brophy and Good, 1986, p.328).

An alternative perspective to effective teaching focused on student outcomes is one that incorporates the importance of teacher-student relationships and caring beliefs. Barbara D. McCollum defines effective teachers are those who successfully combine both the technical and expressive side of teaching and “…emphasize relationships in educational contexts, which allow students to have more opportunities to experience improved student learning and overall student success” (McCollum, 2014, p. 30). This notion of caring beliefs was of the minority perspective found in the literature, though the importance of getting to know students and building positive relationships was expressed in others’ views.

Focusing on teacher characteristics or learning outcomes has led to a focus on teachers and outcomes, respectively, rather than teaching (Nordstrum, 2015) and “good teaching requires more than just a teacher” (GPE, 2017b, p.11). Effective teaching requires looking into the “black box” of teaching, at what actually takes place in the classroom, i.e. classroom practices (Nordstrum, 2015), which “has been underemphasized in both policy and research” (USAID, 2015). Additionally, effective teaching also requires support from leadership and a collaborative school environment (McKnight et al., 2016), along with available quality learning materials and sufficient instructional time (GPE, 2017b). Support also includes CPD.
(ADEA, 2016; Carron & Chau, 1996; Dembélé, 2005; World Bank, 2018b) as well as sufficient compensation and benefits for recruiting, retaining and properly motivating qualified teachers to be effective (Mingat, 2005; World Bank, 2018b). Although these resources are not directly impacting student learning, they create the context that is conducive for learning (Mingat, 2005), i.e. that allows teachers to focus on supporting their students (McKnight et al., 2016).

Coe et al. argues that most of the frameworks on the elements of effective teaching used in schools are generally too broad and hence, left open to interpretation. They define effective teaching as “that which leads to improved student achievement using outcomes that matter to their future success” (2014, p. 2). The definition ties to student outcomes, but goes beyond outcomes defined by formal assessments, though ultimately, they do argue effective teaching has to be judged in some way against student progress. They continue to identify six common components as a ‘starter kit’ that should be considered to assess teaching quality. The components are (1) (pedagogical) content knowledge, (2) quality of instruction, (3) classroom climate, (4) classroom management, (5) teacher beliefs, and (6) professional behaviors (ibid, 2-3). Several of these components have also been recognized by other researchers. For example, ‘quality of instruction’ is a synthesis of Doyle’s (1985) (as cited in UNESCO, 2004) elements of ‘student practice time’ and ‘regular assessments’ and of Scheerens (2004) (as cited in UNESCO, 2004) factor of relevance. ‘Classroom climate’ and ‘classroom management’ is what Scheerens (2004) refers to as ‘classroom environment’ and factors of time and structure, respectively (as cited in UNESCO, 2004). Shulman (1987) was the first to articulate pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). He explains it is one thing for a teacher to have content knowledge and another to have pedagogical knowledge. PCK blends “content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction” (Shulman, 1987). It is knowledge of what pedagogy is best to use for specific content and subject matter (Borich, 2017).

The quality of instruction and classroom management has been broken down even further by others into specific practices. For example, regarding teaching aspects, effective questioning has been widely studied. Questions should be asked at the beginning of the lesson for review of the previous class, after every presentation, and for review at the end of class. Substantive feedback should be provided as well as a mixture of product and process questions, though
effective teaching was found in numerous sources to include more process questions (Muijs et al., 2014). How a teacher responds to a student’s answer- either reinforcing (constructive) or non-reinforcing- also affects effective teaching and encouragement of student learning (USAID, 2015).

It is important to state that this study does not aim and also strongly cautions against, “using these results to inform a checklist approach to defining effective teaching” (McKnight et al., 2016, p. 28). The goal is not to arrive at a global standard of ideal attributes or characteristics or a prescribed list of what teachers should and should not do in order to be effective in Ethiopia or anywhere else. This study agrees with Korthagen (2004) that, “perhaps it is even impossible or pedagogically undesirable to formulate a definitive description of ‘the good teacher’” (p. 78) and that “there is no single set of teacher attributes that we can definitively point to and say, if a teacher has Quality X, then she will be an effective teacher” (Stronge & Xu, 2012/2013, p.11). Research also shows that what is effective teaching depends upon the context (Korthagen, 2004; Pretorius, 2013). Therefore, what makes an effective teacher, how to support, build, measure and incentivize it, must come from the educational community in the particular context (Varlas, 2009 in Pretorius, 2013). Thus, this study investigates effective teaching from the perspective of Ethiopian educational stakeholders, more specifically those in Addis Ababa, and recognizes that the findings may not be applicable outside the capital and even more so outside the country.
3 Analytical Framework

This chapter presents the analytical framework that was designed specifically for this study. It aims to be simple and holistic but does not claim nor attempt to include all elements associated with effective teaching. Instead it provides a structure for understanding the many components that lead to effective teaching and can also speak to what has or has not been observed. Theories and concepts found prior to as well as after data collection and analysis are included.

The chapter is organized around the four levels that correspond to effective teaching: (1) inside the classroom, (2) school environment and professional development, (3) education policy and (4) outside influences. The first section presents an overview of the framework and is followed by sections that go in-depth on each of the four levels and then, concludes with a summary.

3.1 The Framework
The analytical framework consists of four levels: inside the classroom, school environment and professional development, education policy and influencers. It was adapted from Naylor & Sayed’s (2014) conceptual framework on ‘Teacher quality and the factors that influence it’ and constructed specifically for this thesis. Teachers have the monopoly of decision-making in the classroom (Stephens, 1991); they are in control of what and how teaching and learning takes place. This control is influenced by the availability and quality of resources at their disposal, the curriculum they are provided, their knowledge and training on pedagogy and how to create an effective climate and lead classroom management. This is why these factors comprise the first level, ‘Inside the Classroom,’ of effective teaching. The second level correspond to the school environment and professional development. Although these factors do not have a direct influence on effective teaching, they play an important role in what a teacher does or does not do in the classroom. These first two levels are found within the national context, which constitute the third level, of education policy, which stipulates the guidelines and standards of teachers, training and schools. This is a part of an even larger context consisting of regional and international influences, i.e. ‘outside influences’ composed of the political, economic, social, and cultural contexts. The first level enables effective teaching, the second level formalizes it and the third and fourth levels legitimate and locate it (Alexander, 2004).

3.2 First Level: Inside the Classroom

This study is concerned with how effective teaching is practiced as well as how it is perceived, and it is here, within the classroom where effective (or ineffective) teaching and learning takes place. The kind of teaching, “that is to say, what is to be taught, to whom, and how” determines the quality of education that learners receive (Alexander, 2004, p.11). This first level, inside the classroom, explores classroom dynamics. There are several factors that can directly impact effective teaching, as has previously been explained in the literature review. Those that were selected as the most critical and incorporated here, include the curriculum, pedagogy, resources (teaching and learning materials), and classroom climate and management.
3.2.1 Curriculum

Central to the teaching and learning process is the curriculum. The curriculum is the official learning structure that defines what pupils should learn. Therefore, it is “in the curriculum that the effective teaching and learning of relevant skills, knowledge and values should take place” (Hoppers & Yekhle, 2012, p.49). This is what Alexander (2009) coins a ‘curriculum transformation.’ The national, state or local curriculum is translated and transposed to the classroom where it transforms into and becomes tasks, activities, interactions and discourse (Alexander, 2009).

The language the curriculum is written and expected to be taught in (the LOI) is also a major factor for effective teaching. Literacy is more easily acquired in one’s mother tongue, which has been found to be successful in the first few years of school before transitioning to a second or foreign language (UNESCO, 2004).

3.2.2 Pedagogy

How a teacher interacts with students in the classroom, i.e. teaches, is governed by the teacher’s pedagogical practices and is vital for quality learning (Hoppers & Yekhle, 2012; UNESCO, 2004). Pedagogy, according to Alexander (2009), “encompasses both the act of teaching and its contingent theories and debates… and there can be no teaching without pedagogy or pedagogy without teaching” (p.927). As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, instructional practices can range from open-ended to structured instruction, student-centered to teacher-centered or lie somewhere in the middle centered on learning. The challenge is to “develop teaching-learning methodologies that facilitate and sustain learns’ acquisition of skills, competencies, attitudes and values in a broader sense,” which may require varied methods and degrees of ‘differentiation’ (different materials and levels of pacing and instruction) (Hoppers & Yekhle, 2012, p. 50).

3.2.3 Teaching and Learning Resources

Learning resources and materials are required for effective teaching (Dembélé, 2005; UNESCO, 2004; UNESCO, 2005; UNESCO, 2014a). They are tools for engagement in the teaching and learning process (Ndoye, 2005). Resources can include traditional teaching and learning materials, such as “textbooks, supplementary reading materials, teacher guides” (Dembélé, 2005, p.201) as well as information and communications technology (ICT) and
innovative resources including, “computer instructional software, audiovisuals, learning centers, and exploratory materials” (Borich, 2017, p.59). According to Borich (2017) “using a variety of instructional materials…will encourage your learners to use their own experiences, past learning, and preferred learning modalities to construct and demonstrate what they have learned” (p.59). This requires the resources to be available though. In addition to resource availability, it is up to the teacher to effectively integrate a variety of instructional materials into their lesson. (Borich, 2017; UNESCO, 2004).

3.2.4 Classroom Climate and Management

The climate of a classroom refers to the overall mood or atmosphere within which teacher-student interactions take place. A teacher creates the climate of their classroom by the level of connection, warmth, support, encouragement and cooperation they have with their students. Creating positive relationships with students and gaining ‘knowledge of learners’ is important for creating a conducive environment for effective teaching and ensuring all learners need are met (Borish, 2017). Social and organization environments are two aspects of classroom climate. The social environment refers to interaction patterns which can range from authoritarian to laissez-faire approaches or shared responsibilities somewhere in the middle. Effective teaching should incorporate a range of classroom climates, alternating between competitive, cooperative and individualistic interactions (Borich, 2017). This environment is what Walberg (1987) (as cited in Anderson, 2004) refers to as an ‘inviting classroom.’ The organization environment refers to the physical and visual arrangements of the classroom, such as its level of attraction, lighting, comfort, and color along with how the desks and chairs are arranged (Borich, 2017). Anderson (2004) concurs that these elements are vital for effective teaching and an inviting, well-functioning classroom.

Classroom climate is also affected by classroom management, which is why these elements are grouped together. Walberg (1987) goes beyond the physical classroom arrangements to incorporate task and organization regarding the lesson as apart of classroom climate. These refer to time spent on task with student awareness of goals to pursue and classroom structure for learning and behavior, respectively (as cited in Anderson, 2004). Muijs et al. (2014) found that time on task is also important for avoiding misbehavior. The ability of the teacher to effectively manage the class and control behavior also depends upon the PTR, which
affects the ability to give individual student attention, and changes the ease in delivering instruction (USAID, 2015).

3.3 Second Level: School Environment and Professional Development

Teaching and learning take place within a context, which is most immediately associated with the school within which the classroom is located (Alexander, 2004). The school has requirements and expectations and is “a formal institution, a microculture and conveyor of pedagogical message over and above those of the classroom” (Alexander, 2004, p. 12). How a teacher acts in the classroom and school is dependent upon the professional development, the initial/pre-service training and CPD/in-service training, they receive. These two components- the school environment and professional development- compose the second level of effective teaching and will each be described more at length in the subsequent sections.

3.3.1 School Environment

The overall school environment sets the backdrop within which effective teaching takes place. As described by UNESCO (2004) “teaching and learning in the classroom do not take place in isolation from the functioning of schools as organizations...” (p. 75). The school is at the center of the education system, just as the learner is at the heart of the learning process (UNESCO, 2004). The school environment is comprised of the school infrastructure, culture and climate, overall leadership and management, as well as community involvement, which are all explained below.

School Infrastructure

Effective teaching requires a physical space that is conducive to teaching and learning. A good school infrastructure according to the World Bank (1994) (as cited in UNESCO, 2004) is important for effective teaching. For a safe and healthy learning environment, a school requires proper infrastructure, which should include a secure, accessible school building along with clean water and sanitation facilities (UNESCO, 2004). Carron and Chau (1996) believe these are minimum comforts that a school should offer. They also add a playground to the list and explain that a school’s physical appearance “or its status within the community, is all the more important as it can influence the demand for education for, in the eyes of
parents, the school is first and foremost the place where one acquires what is needed for advancement in life” (p.85).

In formal education, which this study is concerned with, “…most teacher teach in classrooms, [and] the physical aspects of these classrooms and the perceptions of these classrooms by their students can either enhance or constrain their effectiveness” (Anderson, 2014, p.49). There is usually a wide variation in classroom conditions (Carron and Chau, 1996). These conditions (the physical environment) includes aspects independent of the teachers and students, i.e. what exists in an empty classroom- desks, chair, tables, paint, artwork, plants, etc. Such items can be rearranged or enhanced to increase effectiveness and attractiveness of the classroom (Anderson, 2014).

**Culture and Climate**

School climate refers to atmosphere and relationships within the school, which should be orderly and positive, respectively (Scheerens, 2000 as cited in Schubert, 2005). This is because, the school climate affects students’ and teachers’ behaviors and attitudes (Ndoye, 2005). Encouraging student engagement and good conduct and behavior throughout the school is positively link to effectiveness (Scheerens, 2000 as cited in Schubert, 2005).

A positive culture and climate amongst teachers and school administration is also important. Borich (2017) describes the value of a ‘professional learning community’ where “teachers participate jointly in decision making, have a shared sense of purpose, engage in collaboration work and accept join responsibility for the outcomes of their work” (p.95). Maximizing interaction, collaboration and talent of teachers and administration can improve the teaching and learning process (Borich, 2017). Additionally, a supportive and positive school climate affects a teacher’s willingness and ability to implement educational reforms (Terhart, 2013 as cited in UNESCO-IICBA, 2017).

**Leadership and Management**

The leadership and management of a school plays a large role, although usually indirectly, in effective teaching (Carron & Chau, 1996; UNESCO, 2004; UNESCO, 2005; World Bank, 2018b). Ndoye (2005) explains that “the leadership provided by the principal in terms of the organization, functioning and climate of schools has a major impact on attitudes (values, opinions, commitment, involvement), behavior (attendance, punctuality, striving for
excellence, etc.) and relations (trust, dialogue, solidarity, team spirit, etc.)” (p. 26). It impacts community involvement (UNESCO, 2004) and the magnitude of a teaching community within the school where teachers share experiences (Carron & Chau, 1996). Hoppers & Yekhlef (2012) recognize that senior school leaders have a heavy burden in ensuring new curricula implementation despite teachers’ potential lack of enthusiasm and readiness to do so.

Community Involvement

Community involvement in the school is a factor of effective teaching because it aids in accountability and relevance (Naidoo, 2005; Tikly & Barreit, 2013 as cited in Bainton, Barret & Tikly, 2016). Engaging with the community helps a teacher to understand the relevant skills and knowledge that their students will need to be successful and contribute to wider society. It also plays an important role in holding teacher’s accountable to effective teaching and proper financial and resource management (Tikly & Barreit, 2013 as cited in Bainton, Barret & Tikly, 2016). Additionally, “community support for education can play a central role in efforts to raise participation rates and improve school retention and learning outcomes” (Watt, 2001 as cited in Naidoo, 2005, p.246). Community participation is multifaceted and varies widely from construction support to financial assistance to active engagement in school management, planning and learning. A hallmark of community participation is parents-students’ associations and community-based school management committees (Naidoo, 2005).

3.3.2 Professional Development

Teacher’s professional development, their initial teacher training education (pre-service) and CPD (in-service), is a pivotal factor to effective teaching (Dembélé, 2005; Hammond & Ball, 1998; Pretorius, 2012). Teachers are not born and not anyone can teach. Teacher education matters (Hammond & Ball, 1998), because “teachers alone cannot assure good quality teacher education without an effective teacher education institution, which constitutes the teacher education system” (Sanyal, 2013, p.33). The role of initial teacher training and CPD in effective teaching are further explained in the following sections.

It is important to first note that as previously mentioned in the literature review, effective teaching can be conflated with effective teachers (Nordstrum, 2015) and teacher
characteristics (Anderson, 2004). Teacher characteristics are not included in the first level of the framework, because effective teaching is about what teachers do in the classroom, the actions they take, and now solely about who they are (Bloom 1972 as cited in Nordstrum, 2015; Nordstrum, 2015). That doesn’t mean that characteristics, attitudes, values, and knowledge of the teacher are not important. These attributes are included here within professional development, as they are affected by, taught and cultivated in formal education and training (World Bank, 2012).

**Initial Teacher Training (Pre-service)**

Pretorius (2012) found that “if teachers are to be effective their initial training will have to be effective” (p.316). Teachers require knowledge in their subject matter, teaching methods and student learning and development (Hammond & Ball, 1998). This knowledge makes a great deal of difference as “teachers who are fully prepared and certified in both their discipline and in education are more highly rated and are more successful with students than are teachers without preparation, and those with greater training are found to be more effective than those with less” (Hammond & Ball, 1998, p. 3-4). The quality of initial training depends upon the following factors: who is recruited, length of training, curriculum, amount of academic, theoretical and practical knowledge presented as well as the quality of the teacher educators (Dembélé, 2005).

**Continuous Professional Development (In-service)**

In-service training can be considered as more important than initial teacher training as it has a greater direct impact on the quality of a teacher’s classroom practice (Carron & Chau, 1996). A teacher’s effectiveness greatly depends upon how regularly there are opportunities to upgrade their knowledge and skills (ADEA, 2016). For “constructing a practice is not a one-time event… one must periodically reconstruct one’s practice” (Dembélé, 2005). Additionally, without in-service trainings, new policies and curriculum will not reach the classroom. For example, if a new curriculum introduces active learning, teachers must be trained on active learning methods, or else if they lack the knowledge or will to implement the new approach, the traditional rote learning styles will continue (World Bank, 2018b).

Both initial teacher training and teacher upgrading are shaped by education and national teacher policies (Naylor & Sayed, 2014), which leads to the next level of the framework.
3.4 Third Level: Education Policy

Effective teaching along with the school environment and professional development take place within a context and are bound by expectations and requirements. These come from the education policy, the third level of effective teaching, “which prescribes or proscribe, enables or inhibits what is taught and how” (Alexander, 2004, p.11). UNESCO (2015) describes how education policies should be strategic, comprehensive, achievable, sustainable and context-sensitive and recommends an aligned single, holistic teacher policy. They advocate for nine dimensions in a teacher policy, namely teacher recruitment and retention, career structures/paths, teacher standards, teacher education (initial and continuing), teacher employment and working conditions, deployment, teacher reward and remuneration, teacher accountability and school governance (UNESCO, 2015). Education policies also stipulate the education budget and financial commitments (UNESCO-IICBA, 2017), which is extremely important as “quality education requires adequate financing for the acquisition of personnel, infrastructures and other in-puts in sufficient quantity” (Ndoye, 2017, p.68).

Classroom innovation will most likely not have a lot of impact without a well-defined education policy framework and a supportive education system (World Bank, 2018b). It is also advisable to include a wide range of stakeholders in education policy making, especially teachers and those expected to implement them (Bainton, Barret & Tikly, 2016).

3.5 Fourth Level: Outside Influences

The fourth level of the framework accounts for education policy’s larger context that is influenced from the outside by political, social, economic and cultural factors (Alexander, 2004; Naylor & Sayed, 2014). Education policy is situated within a larger national political, economic and social context (Naylor & Sayed, 2014) and influenced by culture, “the web of values, ideas, institutions and processes, which inform, shape and explain a society’s view of education, teaching and learning…” (Alexander, 2004, p.12). These are in turn influenced by regional and international thinking and agendas. International agencies and bilateral donors “…influence teacher quality in a variety of ways: policy dialogue with national governments about education sector priorities; supporting governments to develop national policy frameworks for teacher quality; and financing teacher quality initiatives…” (Naylor & Sayed, 2014, p.21) Education at a policy level also interacts with international development goals, such as the SDGs, and issues regarding migration, which impacts teachers as well as students.
How these influences are adopted— if the principles of effective teaching are applied or the practices are copied—make a difference in their successful enactment (Alexander, 2012).

In conclusion, effective teaching is directly impacted by what takes place in a classroom and more indirectly by a teacher’s professional development and school environment, the national education policy and regional and international influences. The next chapter, contextualizes the study and sets the stage for effective teaching by providing a brief overview of historical developments in education in Ethiopia and a deeper look at the education system.
4 Understanding Ethiopia: Brief History and Overview of Education

Ethiopia is an extremely diverse nation linguistically and ethnically and is considered to have never been colonized (Negash, 2006). Ethiopia is in the Horn of Africa, in the Eastern part of the African continent and has a total land area of around 1.1 million square km. As of 2018, the population stands at 107.53 million making it the 14th most populous country in the world, the second-most populous country in Africa after Nigeria and the most populous landlocked country in Africa (World Population Review, 2018). It is divided into nine regional states (Afar, Amhara, Benishangul-Gumuz, Gambella, Harai, Oromiya, Somali, Southern Nations, Nationalities and People’s Region (SNNPR) and Tigray) (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015).

The country is home to several ethnicities, the largest being the Oromo, accounting for 34.4% of the population, followed by Amhara at 27% of population and thereafter, Somali (6.2%), Tigray (6.1%) and Sidama (4%), among others (World Population Review, 2018). According to the Ethiopian Federal Ministry of Education (MOE) (2015), Ethiopia consists of 90 ethnic and linguistic groups. In addition, all three major Abrahamic religions have close ties with Ethiopia. Of the total population, 34% is Muslim and 63% is Christian, of which 44% belong to the Ethiopian Orthodox Church (World Population Review, 2018).

With a growth rate of 3.02% per year, Ethiopia is one of the fastest growing countries in the world. It is also a very young country, with the median age at 17.8 years old (World Population Review, 2018). The economy is strong, the fastest growing in the region, bettering the regional average of 5.4% a year, at 10.3% from 2005/06 to 2015/16. Nevertheless, Ethiopia is one of the poorest countries in the world with a per capita income of $783 (The World Bank, 2018a). Ethiopia’s Human Development Index value of 0.448 puts the country in the low human development category and rank at 174th out of 188 countries, which is below average for both the countries in the low human development group (0.497) and countries in SSA (0.523) (UNDP, 2016).
The education system has attempted to keep up with growth and achieved increase to access for education throughout the country, but the quality of education has not kept pace (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). The adult literacy rate for ages 15 and older stands at 49.1% and only 15% of the population (percentage aged 25 and older) has at least some secondary education (UNDP, 2016). The Grade 8 completion rate, which stands at only 47%, reveals that too many students are leaving the school system early. In 2015, the primary school repetition rate stood at around 8% and the dropout rate at 22% in Grade 1 and 11% thereafter. An early grade reading assessment was conducted in 2010 in Grades 2 and 3 and revealed that children lacked basic skills acquisition necessary to learn effectively in subsequent years. In 2014, the results of the NLA, conducted every four years in Grades 4, 8, 10 and 12, did not reach the planned targets. Less than 35% achieved a score of 50% or above and less than 4% achieved a score of 75% or above for all Grade levels (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). The current ESDP V identifies that “for every 1,000 children who begin school, around one-half will pass uninterrupted to Grade 5 and only one-fifth to completion of Grade 8” (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015, p.19). School facilities in Ethiopia are also quite poor with roughly 60% of primary schools lacking access to water, only 20% with a clinic and about half with a pedagogical central for teaching aides (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015).

To understand effective teaching in Ethiopia, it is important to understand the context. The next section contains a general introduction to the history of Ethiopia, with a focus on political development and the development of education from the early 20th century with the making of modern Ethiopia up until the present day. This is followed by sections introducing the current education system, ongoing education reforms and status of education in Ethiopia.

4.1 Historical and Political Developments in Ethiopian Education from the 1900s to Present

The general historical and political context with a focus on the education system is divided into two periods according to major events: the beginning of modern Ethiopia from the 1900s to 1991 and the current Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE) from 1991 to the present. The first period is sub-divided into three short periods according to the changes in governance: the making of modern Ethiopia covering roughly the first half of the 1900s up to 1941, the period of Imperialism (1941-74) and the period of Socialism (1944-91).
4.1.1 The Beginning of Modern Ethiopia from 1900s to 1991

Making of Modern Ethiopia

Apart from two short periods of Italian occupation, Ethiopia has never been colonized (Negash, 2006). For this reason, an international language of administration has never been imposed on the country. Ethiopia as a result has been able to take a different route to education and language policy than almost every other African country (Heugh, 2010).

Prior to the 20th century and for roughly the first decade of the 1900s, the minority of educated people were usually religious leaders, as the Ethiopian Orthodox Church opposed secular education. Although the first school was established in Addis Ababa in 1908, state-provided education did not expand until the mid-1950s (Heugh, 2010, p. 382). In this beginning stage of modern education, the curriculum and learning materials along with teachers were imported, mainly from England, and there were not any teacher education programs (Gemechu, Shishigu, Michael, Atnafu & Ayalew, 2017).

In 1916, Haile Selassie (Ras Taferi) rose to power as Crown Prince and Regent when his wife, Zewditu, became Empress. Upon her death in 1930, Haile Selassie was crowned Emperor. His rule was briefly interrupted from 1935 to 1941 by an Italian occupation (Government of Ethiopia, 2018). The Italians attempted to remove English as the LOI and introduce a local language policy. Nevertheless, their brief occupation disrupted the education system as their efforts concentrated on remaining in power (Tekeste 1990 in Heugh, Benson, Bogale, & Yohannes, 2007).

Imperialism, 1941-74

When Emperor Selassie regained power in 1941, English resumed as the LOI for all education levels until 1958/59 when Amharic was proclaimed as the LOI for Grades 1-6 in order to unite the country (Heugh et al., 2007). The imperial system of governance that lasted until 1974 under the Emperor’s rule was considered “the golden age of modern education in Ethiopia” (Negash, 2006, p.12). During this period, the Government believed in education as a means of progress. Education was free, incentivized with clothing, school materials and boarding, and mainly benefitted common and poor students (Negash, 2006). Teachers were also high in demand and so the first teacher training program for primary school teachers was opened in 1944/45. The profession earned a good salary and community respect and attracted
top-scoring students (Gemechu et al., 2017). Due to a lack in local publication, textbooks were all but non-existent, particularly at the primary school level, until 1960 (Heugh et al, 2007). Despite a possibly irrelevant curriculum, graduates were able to find employment with a good salary up until the end of the 1960s. At this point the public sector became saturated and in 1973 unemployment of secondary school graduates rose to 25%. To resolve this issue, in 1971 to 1972, the first Ethiopian education sector review was conducted by a group of international experts. Its outcome was a new education policy that was abolished with the Imperial system in 1974 before it began.

Socialism, 1974-1991
In 1974, a socialist regime, the Derg, came to power and aimed education “for production, for scientific research and for political consciousness” (Gemechu et al., 2017, p. 3). Although the Derg acknowledged support for language and ethnic rights, languages policies in practice remained the same as the previous government (Heugh et al. 2007, Heugh, 2010). The previous Imperial system of education was heavily criticized, and a new curriculum was introduced, but due to inadequate planning and infrastructure it only worsened teaching conditions (Negash, 2006). Teacher quality, during this period, was very low due to a lack of a checking mechanism to assess an applicant’s readiness and ability. An evaluation of the education system was commissioned by the government in 1983, heavily financed by UNICEF, World Bank and the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA), but its completion in 1985 provided little benefit. Sweden was the largest donor to the Ethiopian education system at the time and responsible for partially financing more than 50% of all schools built in the country from 1975 to 1990. Although the education sector expanded, and enrollment grew under the Derg, “as a whole [it] functioned in an environment that was hardly conducive to either teaching or learning” (Negash, 2006, p. 22).

4.1.2 The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia from 1991 to Present
In 1991, the Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE) came to power signifying the end of three decades of civil strife and internal war. The country was “transformed from a single party military based political system into a ‘multi-party’ and multiethnic political system” (Heugh et al, 2007, p.49). This created nine regions and two city-states- Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa- administratively treated as regions (Ministry of Education, 2015).
The Constitution of the FDRE was adopted in 1994 along with a new Education and Training Policy (ETP). The ETP calls for an expansion of education and the provision of basic education for all. Such an education is secular and endows citizens “with humane outlook, countrywide responsibility and democratic values” (FDRE, 1994b, p.6). Education is also viewed as a key to development and thru it “the country will be transformed into a knowledge-based society embracing new technology and using it to solve the problems of today and tomorrow” (FDRE MOE, 2009, p. 4). One of the major features of the new policy was the right to ethnolinguistic self-determination, the right to be taught in your mother tongue. This was a major shift from Amharic and English as the only LOIs to a multilingual education system (Negash, 2006; Heugh, 2010). Five languages (Amharic, Oromifa, Tigrinya, Wolaita, and Sidama) were immediately introduced as LOI in their respective regions (Heugh, 2010). Today more than 30 languages are used in primary schools throughout the country as either the LOI or taught as a subject (Derash, 2013 as cited in Trudell, 2016).

The general objectives of education and training as stipulated in the ETP (1994) are:

- Develop the physical and mental potential and the problem-solving capacity of individuals by expanding education and in particular by providing basic education for all.
- Bring up citizens who can take care of and utilize resources wisely, who are trained in various skills, by raising the private and social benefits of education.
- Bring up citizens who respect human rights, stand for the well-being of people, as well as for equality, justice and peace, endowed with democratic culture and discipline.
- Bring up citizen who differentiate harmful practices from useful ones, who seek and stand for truth, appreciate aesthetics and show positive attitude towards the development and dissemination of science and technology in society.
- Cultivate the cognitive, creative, productive and appreciative potential of citizens by appropriately relating education to environment and societal needs. (p.7-8)

The ETP is translated into five-year action plans called ESDPs. Currently, Ethiopia is on its fifth, which covers 2015/6 to 2019/20. These medium-term strategies are sector-wide approaches that lay the foundation for education planning and intervention nation-wide (FDRE MOE, 2006).

It is also important to note that the ETP decentralizes educational management (Ministry of Education, 1994). In accordance with the state structure of the Federal Government (nine regional states and two city-states) each region/city-state has its own bureau of education that
is responsible financially (with support from the Federal Government), administratively, and managerially for their education system. The MOE is responsible for tertiary education though. These states are further divided into zones, woredas, and kebeles (Ethiopian National Agency for UNESCO, 2001). Each region and city-state is given the opportunity to create their own ESDP (Martin, Oksanen & Takala, 2000). Over the years, efforts were taken to further strengthen decentralization to the school level by shifting decision-making from regions and zones to woredas and schools themselves. This was hoped to “improve direct response and service delivery” (Ministry of Education, 2005, p. 23).

Education in Ethiopia has dramatically changed under the FDRE. Education expanded across the country with an increase in gross enrollment ratio for Grades 1-8 from roughly 30% in 1995/96 to almost 70% in 2003/2004 and surpassed 95% in 2007/08 and over 100% in 2013/14 (Federal Ministry of Education, 2017). The government and MOE have successfully mobilized external funds to aid with the expansion and allowed the private sector to enter the education system. Expansion came at the cost of quality though. In 2001/02, pupil-teacher ratios (PTRs) were among the highest in the world at 65:1 in primary school and 52:1 in secondary (Negash, 2006). To improve the quality of education, several education reforms have been carried out.

One notable education reform is the Teacher Education System Overhaul (TESO) of 2003. The TESO was a response to problems identified in “The Quality and Effectiveness of the Teacher Education System in Ethiopia” study conducted by the MOE in 2002. The overhaul signifies a “paradigm shift” in the Ethiopian Education system (MOE, 2003). It thoroughly revised and modernized teacher education by rewriting the pre-service teacher education curricula and introducing CPD (Ministry of Education, 2005). TESO components along with the English Language Improvement Program and the Leadership and Management Program, both of which are also teacher education related activities, began receiving funding from a group of donors in 2003/04 under a Teacher Development Program (TDP) (UNESCO-IICBA, 2005). When this TDP I came to an end after four years a TDP II was developed and subsumed as a component into the General Education Quality Improvement Program (GEQIP). Additional components include Curriculum, Textbooks and Assessment, Management and Administration Program, School Improvement Program, and program coordination. GEQIP, developed within the framework of ESDP III, was launched by the MOE in 2009 as a four-year project and foreseen to have a second four-year phrase. It took a
holistic approach, adapted the school effectiveness model, and aimed “to improve the quality of general education throughout the country” (Ministry of Education, 2008, p.4). GEQIP was supported by a pooled funding arrangement from a group of development partners, including but not limited to DFID, the Netherlands, Italian Development Cooperation, Finland and SIDA (Ministry of Education, 2008). The second phase of the project, GEQIP II, aligned with ESDP IV and added a component on ICT. It commenced in 2016/17 (World Bank, 2013).

Since 1994, the country has held five elections (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). The Ethiopian People’s Revolutionary Democratic Front, composed of four regionally-based parties from the four largest regions (Amhara, Oromia, SNNPR and Tigray) has maintained power in each. Meles Zenawi (from Tigray) served as prime minister until he died in August 2012, at which point he was succeeded by Hailemariam Desalegn (from SNNPR) who continued to pursue similar policies (World Bank, 2013).

In recent years, several protests, against the government for the lack of jobs and political freedom by the Oromo and Amhara ethnic groups (who compose two-thirds of the population), have killed hundreds and imprisoned tens of thousands. Hailemariam Desalegn resigned as prime minister in February 2018 and a six-month state of emergency was imposed, giving increased power to security forces and prohibiting many public gatherings. A new prime minister, Dr. Abiy Ahmed, was appointed by the ruling party in April 2018 and has eased tensions and brought much needed stability to the country. Within his first two months in office, he has listened to grievances throughout the country, released thousands of political prisoners and saw government approve a draft law to end the state of emergency two months early (Schemm, 2018).

4.2 The Education System in Ethiopia

This section dives deeper into the current education system in Ethiopia. It provides an overview of various aspects of the education system that are particularly relevant to this study. The aspects that were reviewed and are reported on include: education structure, curriculum, teachers, school inspection, and lastly, financing education: budget and donors.
**Education Structure**

Education in Ethiopia consists of formal and non-formal education and both public and private education. Formal education includes General Education, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and Higher Education. General Education consists of KG, Primary Education, which includes first cycle (Grades 1 to 4) and second cycle (Grades 5 to 8), General Secondary Education (Grades 9 and 10) and Preparatory Secondary Education (Grades 11 and 12) (Ministry of Education, 1994). Non-formal education includes: Alternative Basic Education (ABE), adult literacy programs, and Basic Skills Training (Ethiopian National Qualifications Framework Taskforce, 2008).

A primary school leaving certification exam is administered in Grade 8 and the General Secondary Education Certificate Examination is given in 10. Passing the examination, for both Grades 8 and 10, is required to move on to the next grade level (FDRE MOE, 2010). Different tracks are assigned to students after the completion of Grade 10- either going into TVET or on to Grade 11 and 12 (preparatory school) and then to university (see Figure 4.2) (Ethiopian National Qualifications Framework Taskforce, 2008).
Figure 2: The Ethiopian education and training system at a glance

Source: Federal Ministry of Education (2015, p.13)
Curriculum

The ETP formally initiated the use of mother tongue languages as LOI in primary schools throughout the country. It also stipulated Amharic to be taught as a language of countrywide communication, the federal working language, and English, as the LOI for secondary and higher education, to be taught as a subject starting in first grade (Ministry of Education, 1994). The English language, the medium of international communication, is considered necessary for a modern technology industry and to stay informed about scientific advancements (FDRE MOE, 2009). Amharic will begin as a subject in either grade 3 or grade 5 depending on the regional government (Heugh et al., 2007).

General education schools, both public and private, are required to deliver the national curriculum (Ethiopian National Qualifications Framework Taskforce, 2008). Since the ETP, the curriculum was revised once, between 2003 and 2005 (FDRE MOE, 2010). The curriculum is again currently undergoing a revision and modernization according to ESDP V (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015).

In 2010, the MOE developed a ‘Curriculum Framework for Ethiopia Education’ covering KG to Grade 12 to strengthen the ETP’s principles and ideas. It states that all future curriculum material will take a competency-based approach with active learning methods. Key principles guiding the framework include respect for cultural heritage and diversity, equal opportunity, learning skills, new technology, active participation and relevance. The curriculum is also guided by key competencies, which all students should master. These are life skills, base-line skills, higher-order skills, participation and contribution, independence, adapting to change, and time management (FDRE MOE, 2010).

The following subjects are offered in Grade 5 and 6:

- Amharic
- Civics and Ethical Education
- English
- Integrated Science
- Mother Tongue
- Mathematics
- Physical Education
- Visual Arts and Music

In Grades 7 and 8, Integrated Science is broken down into three subjects- Biology, Chemistry and Physics-and Social Studies is also added as a course.
Conventional examinations are introduced in the secondary cycle of primary education, where they are given at the end of each term. Regular checks for students’ progress should also be carried out in every subject by teachers through continuous-oral, written or practical-assessment. Promotion to next grade level depends upon both conventional examinations and continuous assessment (FDRE MOE, 2010).

**Teachers**

The number of teachers in Ethiopia increased by more than 30% from 2010 to 2015 (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). There are currently just over half a million KG, primary and secondary school teachers in Ethiopia, of which 79% account for primary schools, overseeing nearly 20 million students. There is also a higher amount of male primary teaching staff, about 60%, than female, 40% (Federal Ministry of Education, 2017).

The following sub-sections will cover: (1) teacher recruitment, initial (pre-service) training and Licensing and in-service teacher training.

**Teacher Recruitment, Initial (Pre-Service) Training & Licensing**

Currently, primary school teachers are recruited upon graduating Grade 10 and trained in a three-year program (10+3) for a diploma in teaching. Training focuses on a Linear Model for teaching Grades 5-8 (Gemechu et al., 2017; Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). The curriculum and syllabus of the program is provided by the MOE to TEIs and graduates from private institutions, who are growing in number, are certified by the regions (UNESCO-IICBA, 2005).

At the time of the ETP, almost all second-cycle primary school teachers had only one-year of teacher training upon graduating from Grade 12 (12+1). To raise their qualification to a diploma holder (10+3), upgrading was provided through summer training courses, distance education and evening programs, though it would take a few years before they would reach the desired qualification level (Ministry of Education, 2002). There was a shortage of qualified second-cycle primary school teachers though, and so first-cycle primary school teachers, who had only one-year of training after graduating Grade 10 (10+1) were also recruited to teach in these upper levels (Ministry of Education, 2005). According to ESDP V, as of 2013/14 “70% of primary-level teachers held the required qualification (55% in first cycle, 92% in second cycle)” (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015, p. 20).
The MOE established the Teachers and School Leaders’ Licensing and Re-licensing Directorate (LRD) in 2011 to oversee the new licensing and re-licensing system, and to establish a TEI accreditation system (World Bank, 2013). It was aimed to license all teachers by 2015. This was not achieved according to ESDP V due to setting the target “before the work volume was clearly identified, or a regulatory body established” (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015, p. 20).

**In-service Teacher Training**

In-service training in Ethiopia is provided for all teachers through a CPD program. CPD is viewed as “a school level, peer-led professional excellence strategy, consisting of reflective activity designed to improve an individual’s values, knowledge and skills” and is provided at three levels (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015, p. 58). In the first level, inspectors, supervisors and master trainers, considered ‘external expertise’ provides training and development. The second level targets school networks and clusters and consists of face-to-face cluster meeting, workshops and interaction between teachers (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). School clusters are groups of around five schools within one woreda (Federal Ministry of Education, 2017). The third level is CPD directly within a school, i.e. school-based trainings. These trainings consist of teacher-made groups to provide direct classroom observation and peer feedback to one another. All teachers are required to participate in some type of internally organized professional development for a minimum of four full days a year (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015).

**School Inspection**

The General Education Inspection Directorate was established by the MOE to develop a consistent inspection of all schools throughout the country. It established a Framework in 2013, which outlines the five focus areas for inspection in relation to inputs (1 & 2), processes (3 & 4) and outputs (5). They include (1) school facility, buildings, human and financial resources and (2) the learning environment, (3) learning and teaching, (4) school engagement with parents and the community, and (5) student outcomes and ethics. From these five areas, 26 standards are derived, which are to be inspected every three years. After inspection, schools are then classified into four grades. To be at standard, a school must have a Grade 3, scoring at least 70%, or higher. If a school is classified as Grade 1 or Grade 2, i.e. is below the standard, then it will be inspected again one year later (MOE, 2013). At that
time, if the required improvements have not been made, then according to the Framework the “relevant bodies will be held to account” (MOE, 2013, p.18). School standards are below the expected levels, as can be seen in figure 4.3, which shows the 2014/15 first school self-assessments from eight regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Well above the standards (Level 4)</th>
<th>Meet the standards (Level 3)</th>
<th>Require improvement (Level 2)</th>
<th>Well below the standard (Level 1)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>855 (3%)</td>
<td>5,197 (18%)</td>
<td>15,043 (53%)</td>
<td>7,117 (26%)</td>
<td>28,212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>59 (3%)</td>
<td>466 (27%)</td>
<td>1,054 (60%)</td>
<td>184 (10%)</td>
<td>1,763</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.3 School Performance Levels in 2014
Source: Federal Ministry of Education (2015, p.21)

**Financing Education: Budget & Donors**

Government financial assistance prioritizes up to Grade 10 with additional support given to women’s participation, those “deprived of educational opportunities,” and outstanding students (in the form of scholarships) according to the ETP (Ministry of Education, 1994, p. 31-2). Due to rises in access to education, public spending on education between 2003 and 2012 increased by 70% in real terms. From 1996-2004, education composed about 20% of the Ethiopian government’s total spending. As of 2012/13, government public expenditure on education and training was at 23.3% and it aims to reach 25% by 2019/20. Salaries account for more than 90% of recurrent expenditure in primary education (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). According to the World Bank (2013) Ethiopia has one of the highest public spending on education among developing countries. Nevertheless, ESDP V states that

Despite special attention to education at all levels of government, the sector is likely to face financial constraints in the coming period due to the visibly rising households demand for education and increasing unit cost of service provision including teaching materials and supplies and need to keep teachers in the education system with good incentives in the face of widening economic opportunities elsewhere. (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015, p. 128)

Therefore, Ethiopia welcomes domestic and international partners and donors because it recognizes that its financial, human and materials resources alone will not be sufficient to realize universal primary education (FDRE MOE, 2005). Such partnership and influence has
always been the case in Ethiopia. From the beginning, the MOE asked for donor support in the preparation of the ESDP. According to Martin et al. (2000) “the donor community [all funding agencies] [which grew to 15 in total] provided advice, support and comment by making available technical specialists, but did not impose their views on what should be the contents of the programme” (p.45). It was difficult to have a policy dialogue with each donor, though the World Bank succeeded, which caused some tension amongst the others. Donors each have various procedural and documentation requirements and perceived the MOE to lack “adequate financial management procedures” which caused some issues and delays in the provision of funds (Martin et al., 2000, p.9).

Today, many partners and donors are still involved in the Ethiopia’s education system. For example, the current ESDP received support from national and international non-governmental organizations and development partners among others, specifically UNESCO and the International Institute of Educational Planning (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015). For example, GEQIP I and II, as previously expressed, were supported by various development partners (Ministry of Education, 2008; World Bank, 2013). Other partners, not previously mentioned, with initiatives in Ethiopia include, but are not limited to USAID, RTI, Save the Children, SIL, and Florida State University (Trudell, 2016). ESDP V explains that “core donor financing… to education is high and consistent, at around $400 million per year (roughly 8 billion birr in 2015/16 constant prices) …[which] is equivalent to 50%-65% of the annual funding gaps presented in this plan” (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015, p. 134).

In Ethiopia, it is a tradition for communities to provide support to education. They may assist in school management and decision making or towards classroom construction through in-kind support. Most of the schools and additional classrooms constructed between 2010 and 2015 were found to because of communities, supported by their woreda and REB (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015).
5 Research Design & Methodology

This chapter begins by presenting the overall philosophical assumptions of the study before diving deeper into the specific research design, data collection methods and analysis that was conducted. Issues of reliability and validity as well as ethical considerations are also discussed.

5.1 Philosophical Assumptions and Research Paradigm

This study takes a qualitative research approach holding a view according to the constructivist/interpretivist paradigm, more specifically with an interpretivist epistemology and a constructivist ontology.

The interpretivist epistemology views social sciences as fundamentally different from natural sciences and therefore it requires the application of different research procedures (Bryman, 2012). The constructivist ontology “asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors. It implies that social phenomena and categories are not only produced through social interaction but that they are in a constant state of revision” (Bryman, 2012, p.33). This takes on a relativist view in which there are multiple realities and interpretations for a single phenomenon and therefore, there is no objective truth (Al Riyami, 2015). The aim is to attain an insider’s view and to capture the different perspectives of the phenomenon from different angles (Al Riyami, 2015).

In trying to grasp social action’s subjective meaning, the researcher aims to understand how individuals interpret the world around them. This requires the researcher to suspend their personal views and interpretations to try to view the phenomenon through the eyes of the subject. Therefore, there is a double interpretation in that the researcher interprets others’ interpretations (Bryman, 2012).

5.2 Research Strategy and Design

This study employs a qualitative research strategy with a case study design in one region of Ethiopia (Addis Ababa) using a phenomenological lens. Qualitative research takes on “an inductive approach to the relationship between theory and research” (Bryman, 2012, p.36).
This requires having an open mind when approaching data collection and analysis in order to let data emerge and not be constrained by a pre-existing theory.

The diversity of the capital city, Addis Ababa, a city-state and “region” for education purposes is reflected in the four examined schools, which included both government and private as well as low and high-resourced schools. Using a phenomenographic lens orients the study to a second-order perspective, where the interest at hand is not effective teaching in and of itself, but the various ways that people interpret and understand it (Marton, 1981; Larsson & Holmström, 2007). Ference Marton (1986), the “father” of phenomenography, explains phenomenography as “a research method for mapping the qualitatively different ways in which people experience, conceptualize, perceive, and understand various aspects of, and phenomena in, the world around them” (p. 31). By focusing the case study on the conceptions of effective teaching that various stakeholders hold the main question regarding the extent of a common understanding can be answered.

5.3 Research Sites

As a case study, the research was conducted solely in Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia, which is administratively treated as a region with its own bureau of education (Ethiopian National Agency for UNESCO, 2001, p.4). To obtain a variety of viewpoints both private and government as well as low-resourced and high-resourced schools were purposively selected via criterion sampling. These criteria were chosen in order to discern how they impact effect teaching.

There are ten sub-cities (zones) of Addis Ababa. Schools were selected based on criteria from the 2016 Addis Ababa school water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) final survey prepared by the Addis Ababa REB and nongovernmental organization, Splash, using a mobile application to collect data from all primary schools in the region. The survey reported on the availability of six resources: drinking water, latrines, hand washing station (category one) and the number of libraries, science laboratories and ICT laboratories owned versus shared with an adjacent secondary school (category two). Roughly 35% of schools had one or more factors out of six missing. To ensure the schools were at opposite ends of the resource spectrum, a school was considered high-resourced if it reported having all resources with at least one ‘owned’ resource from category two and a school was considered low-resourced if
it missed at least one resource from category one and one resource from category two. From the resulting list, the final schools for the case study were then purposively selected based on their sub-city, personal network and ease in accessibility. Four sub-cities, two classified by Addis Ababa REB experts as high-resourced and two classified as low-resourced with the respective resource level school, were selected.

It is important to note that the six survey resources are not the only items that can be identified to categorize a school’s resource level. The survey provided the grounds for comparing every school in the region without having to personally visit them all. Upon an initial visit to the four selected schools, personal observations were also used to confirm the school’s identity as low or high-resourced.

5.4 Sample

Sampling refers to “the selection of units (which may be people, organizations, documents, departments, and so on) with direct reference to the research questions being asked” (Bryman, 2012, p.416). It is about how the units were selected. For this study, the sample units consist of various documents on education and people in Addis Ababa further explained below.

Policy documents, strategies and reforms were purposively selected based on their importance to and concentration on the Ethiopian education sector and relevance to aspects of educational quality and effective teaching. These official papers were all published after 1994 by the FDRE, MOE or Addis Ababa REB. A total of 15 documents were selected for analysis (see the full list in Annex 3). Other MOE and Government of Ethiopia documents, such as the federal constitution (1994a) and previous ESDPs from 2002, 2005, 2010 among others, were also consulted along with development partners and global and regional education agendas for views on effective teaching and contextualization.

This study purposefully chose a small range of voices that offer various viewpoints as to what effective teaching is all about. Policy makers were purposively selected via expert sampling based on their interest in participating and work closely aligned to teachers and effective teaching. In total, there are nine government education policymakers and officers, of which

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1 The specific sub-cities are unable to be named due to anonymity
four are from the national (MOE) level, two from the regional (Addis Ababa REB) level and three from the local (sub-city and woreda) level. Only one woreda and one sub-city were purposively selected. The woreda falls within that sub-city and is where one of the schools of the study is found.

Within each school, a sample of four teachers and one administrator, a principal or vice principal, were purposively selected. One of the schools, school no. 2, only had three teachers due to a last-minute dropout. The study was open to upper level primary school (5th to 8th grade) teachers. Information about the study and the participation requirements was directly communicated by the researcher to all teachers during a monthly staff meeting in school no. 1 and thru the administrators in schools no 2-4 who circulated a sign-up sheet in Amharic. The sign-up sheet included age, gender, number of years teaching, type of qualification (Certificate, Diploma, Degree, Masters), where the qualification was received, grade level and subject currently taught. From the sign-up sheet two teachers from 5th and 6th grade and two from 7th and 8th grade were then selected based on the greatest variation in criteria for representativeness. A principal or vice principal was selected based on their interest in participating, availability and work in relation to 5th to 8th grade teachers. In total, there are 15 upper level primary school teachers and four school administrators from two private and two government primary schools.

To gain further insight into the perceptions and practices of effective teaching in Ethiopia, one representative from the ETA and one from a TEI were purposively selected and included in the study.

5.5 Data Collection Methods

Marton (1986) explains that “it takes some discovery to find out the qualitatively different ways in which people experience or conceptualize specific phenomena” (p.42). Therefore, this study employed several different research methods, including document analysis, semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and classroom observations, which are discussed more at length below. Additionally, informal conversations and meetings and my direct impressions also provided supplementary information. These various methods were conducted to improve triangulation and add to the confidence in findings (Bryman, 2012).
5.5.1 Document Analysis

A document analysis was conducted to answer the first question regarding how effective teaching is conceptualized and designed by policy makers. By reviewing various policy documents the official views and ideas behind effective teaching emerged. Including international and regional education agendas and development partners documents regarding involvement in Ethiopia or official stances on quality education and effective teaching aided in understanding how the Ethiopian policy might have been shaped and influenced. It also added value to the background discussion on effective teaching. Various documents were reviewed prior to the start of fieldwork to grasp the current landscape of education, inform questions for interviews and lay a foundation for what to look for in schools and classrooms by outlining what should be put into practice. A few documents emerged from conversations with policy makers that were later reviewed. All documents were re-examined again after the fieldwork to look for themes and concepts that had emerged from data collection. Only the documents found to contain direct or in-direct references to effective teaching were purposefully selected for analysis.

5.5.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with each participant in the study, which comes to 30 in total. Time constraints prevented me from reaching out to more schools and interviewees. The semi-structured approach was used for its flexibility in outline and questioning in order to understand “what the interviewee views as important in explaining and understanding events, patterns, and forms of behavior” (Bryman, 2012, p.471). This method contributes to answering all of the research questions by investigating how the study participants frame and perceive effective teaching, and in their response impediments may emerge.

An interview guide consisting of open-ended questions regarding the interviewees’ work and view on effective teaching and education in Ethiopia was used to lead the discussion (see Appendices 4-6). Each participant had the option to conduct the interview in Amharic using an interpreter. The same interpreter was used for all of the semi-structured interviews. The interpreter had a good command of English and previous experience in education in Ethiopia as a pre-primary private school teacher. The majority of interviews at the federal and regional level were conducted in English, while Amharic was mainly used at the local levels, particularly with the primary school teachers.
Each participant received information on the study and the requirements for participation and gave their consent in either verbal or written form before the start of the interview. Twenty-eight out of the 30 participants consented to audio recording the interview. In the two instances when consent was not granted to audio record, notes were instead taken.

5.5.3 Classroom Observations

Data was also collected from 32 classroom observations, which “provide rich feedback on practice” and firsthand insight in the teaching-learning process, to answer questions 1b regarding effective teaching practices and 1c potentially observing constraints in practice (MET Project, 2013, p. 20). This method is highly valuable as “direct measures of teacher quality which are based on classroom observation are usually the most authentic, reliable and robust” (Naylor & Sayed, 2014, p.23). Additionally, since “there is often a big difference between what teachers say they do and what they actually do” (Charron & Chau, 1996, p.182), observations allow for assessment of such differences.

Each teacher that was interviewed was observed in a minimum of two classes post-interview. When more information was needed to better understand a teacher’s teaching style and practice a third observation was conducted. Both the researcher and main translator conducted classroom observations in order to triangulate data and lessen bias from only one set of eyes and together decided if an additional observation was needed. Bryman (2012) notes that it is easy for an observer “to become flustered or confused if faced with too many options” (p.275) and since, various things happen simultaneously in a classroom, a semi-structured observation guide was used (see Appendix 8). The guide is based off the concepts in the analytical framework and literature review but was left open enough to capture unique findings. In addition, commentary on equivalent aspects allows for comparison between classes and teachers. After each observation, the researcher and translator compared and conferred over the collected data to attain agreement on the lesson’s main aspects.

5.5.4 Focus Groups

Focus group discussions were conducted by school with the all interviewed teachers, resulting in four focus groups in total. They were useful in triangulating data and gaining elaborate insights on controversial, difficult or untouched issues that were raised in individual interviews. The discussions also allowed for argumentation on the issues raised and
consensus and shifts in perspectives due to the group setting, where new ideas can emerge or be affirmed or contested.

The focus groups were conducted in Amharic after individual interviews and as much as possible after classroom observations using a guide with broad questions and prompts (see Appendix 7). A facilitator with professional experience in conducting focus group discussions led two of the four discussions, during which the main translator, who conducted the semi-structured interviews, was present to translate the exchange to the researcher. Due to time constraints and availability the facilitator was unable to lead the other two discussions, so the main translator facilitated and utilized brief amounts of time during the discussion to explain the essence of a particular exchange to the researcher. In both situations the facilitators was able to be prompted to ask follow-up questions on details or related issues, or to move on to another topic. Written or oral consent for participation in the focus group discussion that was audio recorded was received by each participant before the start of the session.

5.6 Methods of Data Analysis

Yates, Partridge & Bruce (2012) states that “there is no single process or technique prescribed for the analysis of phenomenographic data and an array of approaches are reported in the literature” (p.103); a point also made in Larsson & Holmström (2007). Therefore, the approach to data analysis is thoroughly described here.

The qualitative document analysis was first carried out inductively to allow for categories and notions of quality education and effective teaching to emerge out of the data (Bryman, 2012). The documents were reviewed again deductively in light of the analytical framework and findings that emerged from analysis of the interviews and group discussions.

The semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were recorded (with the subject’s consent) and then transcribed word for word. The interviews that took place in Amharic were translated into English by one of three translators, including the main translator used during the interviews and two additional who had a strong command of English and previous translation experience. Since it is unfeasible to “hold all possible aspects of 20 or more interview, transcripts in one’s mind in an open way at one time” an iterative analysis was
conducted by viewing data in groups relating to the research questions, i.e. by private and government school teachers both separately and together, school administrators and policy makers (Åkerlind, 2005, p. 328). This aligns with the phenomenological approach, which emphasizes the collective over individual experience (Åkerlind, 2005). Attention was paid to the ‘how’ and ‘what’ aspects and comparisons were made within and between the groups (Bowden and Walsh, 1994 in Åkerlind, 2005; Larsson & Holmström, 2007).

The outcomes of phenomenological research are ‘categories of description’ (ways of experiencing a phenomenon) and the ‘outcome space’ (the structural relationship, usually hierarchical and inclusive, relating to the different meanings) (Åkerlind, 2005; Yates et al., 2012; Marton 1986). This is where a departure is made from the phenomenological tradition as the aim of the study is not categories of description hierarchically related in an outcome space, but to search for the similarities in various ways different stakeholders in Ethiopia may perceive effective teaching to assess the extent of a shared understanding.

Another divergence from the phenomenological approach was made to answer question 1b and 1c regarding practice and constraints. For these questions, individual experience was examined between a teacher’s interview and classroom observation to gauge if they practice what they preach.

5.7 Reliability and Validity

As a qualitative study, the criteria for evaluation or judgement are different from that of reliability and validity used for quantitative studies. The criteria for a qualitative study are trustworthiness, which is composed of four criteria- credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability- and authenticity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 and Guba & Lincoln, 1994 as cited in Bryman, 2012).

Credibility refers to the level of trustworthiness and integrity of the research findings (Bryman, 2012). Several research methods were employed in order to triangulate findings. Additionally, classroom observations were conducted by two people and discussed together afterward to come to a consensus on what had been observed. Interviews were also informally reflected on with the main translator afterward to gage for understanding and identify unique findings.
Transferability concerns the generalizability of the research findings. As a case study intensively examining the unique context of Addis Ababa, the findings cannot and are not aimed to generalize (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, thick descriptions were produced in order to provide “a database for making judgements about the possible transferability of findings to other milieux” (Bryman, 2012, p. 392).

Dependability pertains to the degree of consistency in research procedure and ability to replicate the process (Bryman, 2012). Thorough records of site and participant selection, fieldwork notes, and interview schedule, recordings and translations were kept, and the processes of data collection and analysis have been thoroughly presented. Additionally, journaling, which consisted of events, field notes, challenges and surprises, was conducted throughout the fieldwork process and encapsulated in a report reviewed by my supervisor after fieldwork was complete (Le, 2017).

Confirmability seeks to check a researcher’s personal values and their influence on the research conduct or findings (Bryman, 2012). Although, according to Bryman (2012) “complete objectivity is impossible,” viewing the phenomenon from the perspective of the participants and suspending personal views was strongly sought to align with a phenomenological approach (p.392). Fieldwork and data collection were approached with an open mind so as to better understand the context and view from the participant’s shoes. I personally believe in the power and benefits of education and have my own opinions regarding best effective teaching practices. When asked for my opinion or suggestions by respondents, I simply encouraged their positive actions and refrained from conveying personal feelings and preliminary findings.

Authenticity, that which is fair, ontological, educative, catalytic, and tactical, are concerned with the wider political impact of the study (Bryman, 2012). Although participants were purposively selected, criteria as explained earlier (gender, age, years’ experience, etc.), were used to gain as diverse a group as possible. Different contexts were sought–government and private as well as low resourced and high resourced schools–along with various education stakeholders in order to represent a variety of viewpoints. I believe that I was well-received and appreciated as a foreign student researcher both by the schools and the stakeholders. Informants appeared to be keen to share their opinions and valued having their insight heard.
My presence drew awareness to the issues being investigated and provided the opportunity for teachers to learn from their peer’s perspective in focus group discussions.

5.8 Ethical Considerations

Social research, particularly qualitative, involves interaction with participants and therefore, requires ethical considerations regarding potential harm to participants, informed consent, privacy and deception (Diener and Crandall, 1978 in Bryman, 2012). As the fieldwork required qualitative research on human subjects, the rights and dignity of the subjects were respected and exposed only to minimal risk, if at all. The research project was notified in accordance with the University of Oslo’s Ethical Guidelines, managed by Norsk Senter for Forskningsdata (Norwegian Center for Research Data) and approved prior to conducting the research involving human subjects. Permission to conduct research in Ethiopia was also obtained from the Ethiopian MOE and Addis Ababa REB, as well as from Sub-City Education Offices when requested, prior to the start of fieldwork.

Participation in the study was completely voluntary. Written information regarding the requirements of participation in the study was available in English and Amharic (see Appendices 1-2), provided to potential participants and also discussed with them in person. The option to withdraw, ability to skip questions, and anonymity and confidentiality procedures were also explained before written or oral consent was obtained from the informant. Almost every interview was conducted with an interpreter who also explained in Amharic to those who were not as comfortable with English. Consent forms also explicitly asked for permission to audio record the interviews and participants were notified of the audio recording being turned on and off. Participant names were not recorded, and personal information was collected (see Appendix 9) and stored separately. In addition to conveying and discussing the purpose of the study with the participant prior to consent, every informant’s last interview question again asked if they had any further questions.
6 Results

This chapter presents data collected from November 2017 to February 2018 during fieldwork in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The first section presents a descriptive account of education in Addis Ababa. This contextualizes the findings presented in the subsequent sections and sets the tone for analyzing them in the following chapter. The second section analyzes purposively selected official government documents as well as semi-structured interviews with national policy makers (NPMs) and regional and local education officers (REOs and LEOs, respectively) (9 informants) to gauge how the documents were designed and to understand policy makers at various levels of government’s conceptualization of effective teaching (answering research question 1a). This is followed by a section that presents and analyzes the data collected from primary school teachers (15 informants) and administrators (4 informants) via semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions (only held with the teachers), and classroom observations (of the same teachers) (to answer research questions 1b). Finally, the fourth and final section presents the findings to research question 1c on constraints in effective teaching (presented in Chapter 5).

Codes are used in the data presentation to refer to various informants. As explained earlier, NPM refers to National Policy Maker, REO and LEO to Regional Education Officer and Local Education Officer (includes those at the Sub-city and Woreda level) respectively. R-ETA means a representative at the Ethiopian Teacher’s Association and R-TEI from the teacher education institution. Data collected from these last two informants is spread throughout the chapter to verify other’s comments when referring to their organization/institution. See appendix 11 or the whole list of codes and how to understand them and appendix 12 for statistics of the informants.

6.1 Education in Addis Ababa

Addis Ababa is divided into 10 sub-cities (zones), each with its own education office. Together the sub-cities directly supervise 116 woreda education offices and all Secondary Schools, both General and Preparatory. The woreda offices in turn directly supervise the activities of Kindergartens, Primary Schools and ABE Centers (Addis Ababa City Government Education Bureau, 2015).
There are six REB supervisors (overseeing government and private KG, primary and secondary schools plus Kotebe College of Teacher Education (CTE), about 46 sub-city supervisors (who are met with once a month) and about 184 woreda supervisors (met once every two months) (REO-2). According to REO-2, in one month a REB supervisor can visit roughly 10-12 schools, usually those reported to have a problem, which tends to be government schools more than private, 3-4 teachers, and 5 woredas.

School Types and Facilities
According to the City Government of the Addis Ababa Education Bureau (CGAAEB, 2017), for the 2015/2016 school year, Addis Ababa has a total of 810² primary schools, of which 27% are government and 73% are private and other (church, mission, mosque, international, etc.), which shows a positive progressive trend over the previous five years with only 730 primary schools in 2010/2011. Addis Ababa is the exception with the highest proportion of non-government schools throughout the country (which has a 93% majority of government primary schools) (Federal Ministry of Education, 2017). There is a PTR of 25 in government schools and 20 in non-government schools (City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 2017). The national PTR is 46 (Federal Ministry of Education, 2017).

Regarding school facilities, for 2015/2016, 90.6% have library services, 82.1% have laboratory access, 82.5% have a pedagogical center that helps prepare teaching aids, 69.6% have ICT, 83.3% have staff lounges and 85.1% have first aid services. A WASH survey of the 220 government primary schools in Addis Ababa shows that while 96.4% of schools have a water supply, only 31% have child friendly water taps. Additionally, 62% have separate latrine blocks for boys and girls and only 5% (12 schools) have hand washing facilities, of which only one has soap available. Government schools also offer school clubs covering various topics. Gender, civic and ethical education, and sport clubs are most popular (City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 2017).

A total of 744 primary schools, government and non-government, were independently externally evaluated between the 2013/2014 to 2015/2016 school years. In total, 78.9% of primary schools are under standard, with a breakdown of 14.7% at Level 1 and 64.2% at Level 2. This leaves only 21.1% of schools above standard, all of which are at Level 3,

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² There is a discrepancy in the statistics, for the same school year the Federal Ministry of Education (2017) reports that there are 804 primary schools in Addis Ababa
denoting no school is ranked at Level 4 (City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 2017).

**Student Achievement**

There are 509,900³ students enrolled in primary education, of which roughly 49% belong to grades 5 to 8. The drop-out rate for first and second cycle of primary school stands around 1.5% in 2015/2016, with females at greater risk in first cycle and males at greater risk in second cycle. The repetition rate stands at 2.1%, and the average completion rate to Grade 5 is 75.5% and to Grade 8 is 88%. Of those who completed Grade 8 and sat for the 2015/2016 Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination only 70.70% passed and were promoted to Grade 9. When comparing the number of students who passed from government versus private schools, private schools had a much better passing rate at 93.3% as opposed to 78.3% of government school students (City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 2017).

**Teachers**

For the 2015/16 school year, Addis Ababa had 21,885 primary school teachers of which roughly 52% are male and 48% are female. It is also a nearly even split between those who teach Grades 1-4 (48%) and those who teach Grades 5-8 (52%) as well as between those who teach in government (53%) and non-government (47%) primary schools (City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 2017).

Slightly over half of Addis Ababa’s primary school teachers hold a Diploma, while almost one in 20 are under-qualified with a certificate and two-fifths hold a degree. Less than 1% have a Masters. It is worth mentioning that a majority of non-government school teachers have a degree or higher, and a much greater share of teachers at these higher qualification levels in comparison to government school teachers (City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 2017). The attrition rate (yearly number of teachers that have left the education system) is much higher in Addis Ababa than in other regions standing at 10.6%. The most common responses to why teachers were leaving school was “other” (57%) and leaving the teaching profession completely (34%) (Federal Ministry of Education, 2017).

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³ The Federal Ministry of Education (2017) reports 519,870 primary school students for the same school year
Addis Ababa has one CTE, Kotebe Metropolitan College (KMC), recently upgraded from a CTE to a metropolitan university, now Kotebe Metropolitan University, according to R-TEI. The three major programs include regular, extension and summer in-service courses with a total of 10,213 enrolled students. Most of the academic staff have a master’s or doctoral degree, but roughly 14% have a bachelor’s degree or diploma (City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 2017). Addis Ababa University is also located in Addis Ababa.

The components of the new teacher licensing examination include a written exam, which is required to pass before moving onto the second part, the portfolio assessment (see table 6.2). According to NPM-4, the written exam has been administered to 200,000 teachers throughout the country and less than 5% passed. Of the 5,167 exams administered between 2012/13 and 2015/16 in Addis Ababa, 887 (~17%) passed and moved on to the portfolio assessment in December 2017 (REO-1). REO-1 believes that the test “shows which teacher is effective and which are not.” Since, teachers are given three chances in total for the exam, that would mean that roughly 83% of teachers in Addis Ababa are ineffective and still teaching, unless they have left the profession.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Licensing Exam Section</th>
<th>Details of Exam</th>
<th>Passing Mark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Written (80%)</td>
<td>75% Content Questions</td>
<td>62.5% (50/80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25% Pedagogy Questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Portfolio (20%)</td>
<td>50% (10/20)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.2: Teacher Licensing Examination Components
Source: REO-1

The poor results were attributed to teacher’s professional development and lack of motivation as well as the test itself, which has not yet been standardized despite being administered. Lack of motivation was found to stem from the fact that currently there is no demarcation
between licensed and non-licensed teachers (NPR-4) and because teachers believe their academic qualification (diploma, degree, etc.) is sufficient (REO-1).

According to NPM-2, there are nine levels of the teacher career structure. Every three years there is a chance for promotion based on efficiency. The career structure corresponds to the teachers’ pay scale. In addition to salary, upgrading is available to government school teachers. Chances and even scholarships are given for teachers to upgrade themselves from a diploma to a degree and from a first degree to a second degree (NPM-1; NPM-2). Free transportation (REO-2) and a housing lottery have also recently begun (only for government school teachers) in Addis Ababa. Thus far, 5,000 teachers have been provided condominium housing (NPM-2). Furthermore, government school teachers receive two body soaps, two clothing soaps and two toilet paper rolls each month (T-GLR-1; T-GLR-2; T-GLR-3) along with 850-birr house allowance and cloth to make their uniform (R-ETA; T-GLR-1).

**Financing**

Education is financed by the “public budget allocation, schools’ internal income, voluntary contribution of community, private sectors support, development partners aid, NGOs and Charity organizations assistance” according to the City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau (2017, p.85). Although the amount of funds given by the City Government of Addis Ababa towards education has increased over the past four years, the overall share of the total budget has decreased and currently stands at 5.5%. The community contribution is lower from that of the previous year, but still more than double the amount from two years prior. International donors involved in AAEB’s sector development include UNICEF and those involved with GEQIP (integrated assistance from DFID, GEP, IDA/WB, Finland, USAID, and Italy among others) (City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 2017).

**Sub-city A, Woreda 1**

This study sought to gain perspectives from policy makers at all levels of the education system in Ethiopia. To gain insight into the local level, one sub-city representative and two woreda representatives, within that sub-city, where one of the schools in this study is found were selected and are presented here together as the LEOs. The alignment of the sub-city,

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4 In order to keep the anonymity of the sub-city and woreda, a description of the woreda is presented without details of the sub-city in order not to lead to identification
woreda, and school was purposefully selected to examine the connection between a school and the federal level and to understand how policies and ideas flow from the top-down and the bottom-up.

The LEOs described Woreda 1 as including a slum area with a presence of HIV and student families coming from a very low economic status. Its government schools provide school feeding, but there still may be days when most children have not eaten at all that day, which affects the teaching-learning process. Government schools also have large numbers of students, which results in PTRs as high as 75. This is much higher than the Ethiopian standard (45). The private schools in Woreda 1 are better in providing inputs, such as teaching aids and toys, and facilities, like laboratories, than the government schools.

A woreda office consists of a woreda head, in charge of the office, a TDP coordinator, focused on teachers and CPD, who oversees cluster supervisors (CSs), who interact directly with schools, and a teaching and learning process coordinator, focused on student achievement and textbook distribution, along with other administrative workers, secretaries and those overseeing night classes and data/information collection. The head of the office meets with the sub-city every two weeks, while the TDP coordinator and teaching and learning process coordinator each meet monthly with their respective departments at the sub-city. CSs attend a meeting at the sub-city every two or three months and meet weekly with the TDP coordinator at the woreda to discuss activities and present weekly reports (LEO-3).

The standard states that there is to be one supervisor for 200 teachers. This applies for sub-city supervisors overseeing secondary school teachers as well as woreda supervisors overseeing primary school teachers (REO-2). REO-2 does not believe this is an appropriate standard, a sentiment shared by LEO-3. The standards also say that one teacher should be observed three times throughout the school year. This translates to 600 classroom visits per school year (REO-2).

The CSs oversee anywhere from around 100 to 150 teachers. This makes the requirement of observing each teacher three times throughout the year in the classroom very difficult to complete in addition to other responsibilities. None of the supervisors were able to meet this requirement this past year. CSs are also in charge of providing trainings for teachers. LEO-3 described one CS and that they provide roughly six trainings in a month to department head
teachers separated by department (English, math, language, physics, social science and aesthetics) and held for all the department heads in the cluster. The CS provides one training in a semester for all the teachers in a school (LEO-3).

6.2 Policy Makers’ Conceptualization and Design

This section presents the analysis of official government documents (see Appendix 3) accompanied by relating comments from policy makers. The first section provides an overview of the content analysis findings, followed by section two, which presents NPMs, REOs and LEOs conceptualization of effective teaching. Together these two sections present the results to research question 1a.

6.2.1 Policy Design

Ethiopia recognized complex problems relating to quality, as well as relevance, accessibility and equity, from the very beginning in 1994 in the ETP. Low quality education was indicated by “inadequate facilities, insufficient training of teachers, overcrowded classes, shortage of books and other teaching materials” (FDRE, 1994b, p.3). Educational materials, technology and facilitates along with decentralized management and appropriate financing were considered necessary for quality education. Reference is also made in the ETP to environment and societal needs of education, skilled manpower, and rights of mother tongue LOI (FDRE, 1996b).

Each of ESDPs, which builds off the ETP, refers to either strategies or programs to improve the quality of education. One of priority programs of the current ESDP is dedicated to general education quality improvement and has the goal “…to motivate children to complete primary and secondary school and provide them with the knowledge, skills and values to become productive and responsible citizens,” touching upon academic achievement as well as ethical cultivation (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015, p.35). The components that contribute to improving education quality (see Appendix 10) build off those established in GEQIP I and II. The quality program is comprehensive, referring to minimum learning resources and the required school environment, aspects of professional development (pre- and in-service training), which should cover student-centered approaches and active teaching methods, and teacher licensing (Federal Ministry of Education, 2015).
Active learning (doing, observing and dialogue) and a competency-based approach to education and teaching were adopted in the 2010 Curriculum Framework. The Framework adopts these approaches and encourages a variety of presentation modes and activities, because “the way in which information is presented can influence the effectiveness of a given lesson for all students in the class” (FDRE MOE, 2010, p.5). It cautions away from traditional teaching methods of memorization and rote-learning since they do not always result in understanding. Instead, it states that teachers must not talk for the entire lesson, because “good teaching results in students being interested and actively engaged” (FDRE MOE, 2010, p.65). It explains the structure of a lesson and how it should be divided into four parts:

1. a two to three-minute introduction where learning outcomes are stated,
2. a short five to six-minute starter activity that actively involves all students,
3. a 25-minute main activity consisting of individual work, group work or teacher explanation and questioning, and
4. a roughly seven-minute plenary activity to check for student understanding (FDRE MOE, 2010).

Additionally, the document contains a list of active teaching and learning strategies proven to work well in other countries. It explicitly states that it is non-comprehensive and non-compulsory. It also, explains that while some strategies may be associated with a particular subject, several apply across the curriculum (FDRE MOE, 2010).

Active teaching and learning methods were carried into the 2013 National Framework for School Inspection. Standard 13 states the role of both teachers and school leadership in providing teaching methods that are appropriate and modern and increase all students’ participation. It specifically indicates the use of “various active learning methods” and the combination of “pair work, group work and individual work.” Other standards touch upon well-planned teaching supported by appropriate teaching-learning materials, teacher’s adequate subject knowledge, participation in CPD, team work and collaborative decision-making amongst teachers, staff and students, teacher’s feedback on curriculum, a conducive school learning environment, and standard school infrastructure (MOE, 2013).

Many of these standards were also built off the CPD Framework (2009), which defines good teaching as “professional knowledge and understanding, teaching skills, values and attitudes, and the ability to create a good environment for learning” which creates effective student learning (p.17). It too states the need for a variety of active teaching methods and student
participation as well as relevance to everyday life and love for the teaching profession (FDRE MOE, 2009). The LRD’s ‘Content and Pedagogic Standards for Teachers (Licensing and Relicensing) for Grade 1-8’ from the 2006 Ethiopian calendar year (corresponding to 2013/14) breaks down professional knowledge and understanding more specifically and explains that

Effective teachers integrate the following: (1) ethical concern for children and society; (2) extensive subject matter competence; (3) thoughtfully selected pedagogical practices; and (4) a depth of knowledge about their students, including knowledge of child and adolescent development and learning; an understanding of their individual strengths, interests, and needs. (LRD, 2013/14, p.3)

The AAEB (2015) developed its own ESDP V, which may not explicitly state ‘effective teaching,’ but touches on in reference to quality education provision. It solidifies political commitment and will to achieve the MDGs and EFA goals and the implementation of GEQIP. Improving quality was identified as one of the main challenges facing education in the city and named one of the five priority programs for ESDP V. It states that the provision of quality education may refer to inputs (curriculum and materials), processes (teaching-learning process), and/or external factors (community and leadership and management) and that “the optimal interaction of these variables in a place called classroom to bring quality outcomes: as defined by acceptable standards of achievement scores, individual and social responsibility” (p. 49). The program has seven components (see Appendix 10) that align to those in the federal ESDP V (and build off GEQIP), but also adds a component on strengthening mathematics and science education (CGAAEB, 2015).

The major document in which ‘effective teaching’ is explicitly found and defined is the National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST). The NPST consists of seven “interconnected, interdependent and overlapping” standards that “outline what teachers should know and be able to do” (p.3). Effective teaching, listed in Standard 3 ‘plans for and implement effective teaching and learning,’ is composed of seven ‘descriptors’ (see Appendix 10 for full list of standards and descriptors). According to the NPST, “an effective teacher is able to integrate and apply knowledge, practice and professional engagement as outlined in the descriptors to create teaching environments in which learning is valued” (MOE, 2012, p.4). Developed over the past six years, the NPST was designed by university experts and is supposedly being used when curriculum is developed, i.e. TEIs know about the standards according to NPM-2 and NPM-4. NPM-4 explains that a copy can be found in each
school library, but nevertheless the standards are not well read and internalized, especially by
teacher educators and goes on to explain:

"Yes, we [MOE] enforce them [TEIs] to support us as well as to tell for their trainers
[about the NPST]. Unless we work together, [if] they don’t or they ignore this
competency, they may, we may make a fallacy. They train them, we exam[ine] this
here, no relation between them- that is not good. [NPM-4]."

When inquired to the R-TEI, the conversation went as follows:

Researcher: Are these standards [NPST] taught to students [teachers in training]?
R-TEI: No, not yet.
Researcher: Why not?
R-TEI: I don’t know… even they are not familiar with teacher educators… most of
the teachers do not know them…

Yet, the NPST forms the basis of the new teacher licensing exam according to NPM-4.
Several policy makers were interested in learning from other countries experiences and asked
me at the end of the interview for my own. Their conceptualization of effective teaching is
presented more thoroughly in the following section.

A final point to note regarding the design of these stated policies, standards and frameworks,
NPM-3 explained that different stakeholders participate in their development, but that
teachers participate more indirectly through the ETA. R-ETA confirmed that they are always
invited “when the government is making policy issues in education,” that the association’s
participation is mandatory.

6.2.2 Policy Makers’ Conceptualization

Effective teaching is viewed in the eyes of policy makers when there is student learning and
achievement both in academics (knowledge and skills) and behavior (ethics). Policy makers
views at all levels closely aligned and all referenced effective teaching to active learning and
student-centered teaching methods, i.e. participatory approaches. Teachers also need to be
ethical and knowledgeable, as NPM-2 describes:

"As they are expected to produce ethical citizens, teachers should be ethical, one. And
also, they have to be knowledgeable. They should know their knowledge, their subject
matter. Besides that, the teachers should be equipped with the methodology, the
approach, more of at least, the active learning."
For this to happen teachers need to be trained, particularly in teaching methodologies. NPM-2 specifically outlined that subject matter knowledge, pedagogy and cross-cutting courses as well as practicum should be covered in initial teacher training. The practicum component was also mentioned by NPM-4 who suggested strengthening and elongating the program. Teaching and learning materials were also viewed by some as an essential input for effective teaching, particularly textbooks. The school’s environment as well as the classroom was referred to by NPM-2 as needing to be conducive for effective teaching.

Other factors policy makers associated with effective teaching includes: teaching as a profession of choice, strong teacher selection criteria and training, decentralization, capacity of MOE, REB, TEIs and cluster supervisors, and teacher’s status, which will be discussed more at length in section 6.4 on constraints.

Finally, varying opinions were found regarding the quality of the country’s policies and frameworks.

*The policy is good… teachers should change [their] attitude[s] toward [the] teaching system.* [REO-1]

*...Some says they don’t’ accept some policy point. Some people say it doesn’t, they don’t accept they say and some says it’s good, but if the policy is good or bad, we implement it here [at the regional level].* [REO-2]

*It is not a matter of changing some people or changing some structure. It is a fundamental reform process…it requires a fundamental shift in way of understanding what it takes to achieve these ambitious goals.* [NPM-3]

All NPMs expressed that there are current revisions of policies, standards and frameworks taking place.

### 6.3 School Level Perceptions and Practices

This section presents the perceptions of four school administrators and 15 teachers from two private primary schools and two government schools, of which one is high-resourced, and one is low-resourced, regarding effective teaching. School administrators’ perceptions are presented first, followed by teachers grouped by school, which includes teacher’s views from individual semi-structured interviews as well as their focus group discussions in order to enhance later comparison between schools. In both sections, a brief description of the
informants’ background is given for contextualization before the perceptions are presented. Next, the variations found between types of schools, as relates to private vs. government and high-resourced vs. low-resourced, as described by any source, are then presented, followed by teachers’ effective teaching practices identified through classroom observations.

Codes are again used to refer to various informants in the data presentation. PHR (private high-resourced), PLR (private low-resourced), GHR (government high-resourced), GLR (government low-resourced) are used as codes to represent the schools, while a T- in front represents teacher followed by the number of the informant in that category, and A- in front stands for administrator. FG- is used in front of the T- to represent a teacher’s comment during a focus group discussion, as opposed to their individual interview. The number a teacher is given in their individual interview does not necessarily correlate to their number in the focus group discussion. For the complete list of codes, see appendix 11 and appendix 12 for statistics of the informants.

### 6.3.1 School Level Perceptions

**School Administrator’s Perception**

All, but A-PLR, hired directly upon graduating with a Diploma by the school owner due to impressive college grades, have at least seven years of teaching experience. Two (A-PLR and A-GHR) are currently studying for degrees in leadership and management, while the other two have degrees in specific primary school subject areas. According to the administrators in government schools, there is not a training course designed for school directors and eight years of teaching experience qualifies for vice principal. A-GHR noted the challenge of daily teacher disagreement and wishes to resign and go back to teaching, whereas A-PHR also noted teacher fighting, but hopes to move into another profession. The other two plan to continue in administration; A-PLR even dreams of owning their own private school.

All, expect A-GLR, described effective teaching as the use of student-centered teaching methods and supplying active learning where the teachers are facilitators. A-PHR further explained the need to attend to all students whereas A-PLR described the aim as upgrading student’s results both academically and behaviorally and A-GHR viewed the concept as a continuous process. A-GLR described a teacher’s content and methodology knowledge as well as “when we create a good environment” components of effective teaching. A-PLR
stated that the environment requires coordination, cooperation and participation from multiple stakeholders to maintain quality.

Teaching and learning materials were considered requirements by the government school administrators, though A-GHR notes that it is not only about fulfilling materials, but how the teacher uses them in the classroom. Specific classroom practices relating to effective teaching were also mentioned, such as a good arrangement of the lesson plan (A-PHR), time management (A-PHR; A-GLR), and student relationships (A-GLR).

**Government Low-Resourced Teachers**

None of the GLR teachers came to the teaching profession by choice, but because they felt they had no other option. Nevertheless, they enjoy the profession and all, but one plans to continue teaching for at least the next five years.

Effective teaching was collectively viewed by GLR teachers as bringing a positive change to students in their academic results and behavior. Teachers each used various effective teaching methods and activities, including individual and group activities, listening exercises, presentations, competitions, silent reading, etc. T-GLR-4 discussed a method focused on memorization that they do not believe to be effective but explained that it is what the students prefer. Only two teachers specifically mentioned the student-centered teaching approach and one of them does not agree with the practice:

> From the perspective of the parents [and policy] 80% is the student’s participation that should be before the teacher teaches, but because they [students] don’t understand, if the teacher teaches 80% it will be good. (T-GLR-3)

In addition, a proper school environment and materials are important factors for effective teaching. For, “if students get sick and absent [due to lack of water or too much dust in the school compound] there is no effective teaching” (T-GLR-1). Increases in effectiveness were viewed to occur naturally with time as well as from upgrading and commitment Regarding effective teaching policies and the NPST, the teachers were either completely unfamiliar or aware of it, but unable to identify any elements or specific aspects.
**Government High-Resourced Teachers**

Only two out of the four teachers choose the teaching profession. Both plan to continue and one hopes to go to the secondary school level. The other two hope to pursue degrees in their field of study and move on to other professions. One stated that they would stay in the teaching profession if the salary was higher.

Each GHR teacher described effective teaching as it relates to student understanding. This requires teachers to know their students and how best they learn, i.e. by listening, observing, asking questions, etc. and make the learning relevant to their daily lives. According to T-GHR-1 “if you are interested personally in your students, you are an effective teacher.” Effective teaching uses a variety of methods, including demonstration, role play, group activity, and debate, with student participation, practice and discussion as key components. Although these descriptions relate to student-centered teaching approaches, that phrase was only used by one teacher. T-GHR-4 does relate effective teaching with student achievement along with T-GHR-1 who specifies achievement in academics and behavior. T-GHR-1 also holds a unique view in valuing student evaluation for effective teaching because it identifies students’ understanding and the areas that need to be focused on.

When asked about a policy, standard or framework on effective teaching, two teachers said they didn’t know and two said there is but couldn’t identify it. T-GHR-1 further elaborated that

"They [Principals, Education Bureau, MOE] simply tell you to be an effective teacher, but they don't give you practical help. They don't practically tell you how to be an effective teacher." (T-GHR-1)

None of the teachers were familiar with the NPST.

**Private High-Resourced Teachers**

Two of the three teachers choose the teaching profession by choice. They both plan to move on from teaching (to another career field or higher studies) in five-year’s time though. The third teacher, coming from a bachelor’s degree program with no prior teaching experience or teaching courses, only became a teacher for the year in hopes of getting a scholarship for a master’s program. All three state that they love teaching.
PHR teachers also viewed effective teaching as related to academics and behavior, but more specifically about acquiring knowledge required for the specific student level and building and shaping character. They each spoke about the importance of getting to know the students, to understand their behavior and recognize when they’re out of character or off-track, and to make learning relevant, to get students interested and ensure comprehension. For comprehension, teachers explained they had to speak in both English and Amharic that otherwise students would get confused. They view teachers as role models, but education, particularly behavior change, was recognized as also the responsibility of parents and society.

The student-centered method of teaching was recognized, but “hard to say it’s being implemented as it should be” (T-PHR-2) and not considered always appropriate for a lesson depending on its subject and content:

*We don’t say that one methodology is greater than the other.* (T-PHR-2)

*I don’t believe in that method [student-centered] based on the subject I teach, because when I teach physics it’s me who has to do a lot of the exercises and the explain since they are new to the subject. So I use teacher-centered method.* (FG-T-PHR-3)

Additionally, the teachers appreciate feedback that they receive from administration (they are observed teaching in their classrooms each month) and believe it contributes to their effectiveness.

None of the PHR teachers were familiar with or had heard about the NPST nor could any name any education policy, standard or framework, but felt they ‘should’ and ‘must’ know about it.

**Private Low-Resourced Teachers**

Three of the PLR teachers have university degrees, of which two took pedagogy courses prior to teaching and one never has. Although three of the teachers stated they choose to go into the profession, none plan to stay for more than five years and all have ambitions in other career fields. Relationships amongst teachers are positive, which they attribute to the small staff size and their similarity in age. They also reported having a good relationship with students and even reward those who behave well from their own pocket with books, pens,
The responsibility of shaping students into good characters and citizens and helping students acquire knowledge and skills were responses to teacher responsibilities, not in direct reference to effective teaching. Effective teaching was viewed by as a teaching method that should result in good grades. To T-PLR-1 it is a collective responsibility, where teachers, students and parents work together and hold each other accountable. Such ‘quality assurance’ (T-PLR-1) was also important to T-PLR-2 for ensuring proper implementation of effective teaching policies and methods. Two teachers specifically mentioned the student-centered approach for effective teaching and the importance of student discussion, while the other two referred to various methods such as group discussion, notes, classwork, surprise quiz, demonstrative, etc. During the focus group discussion when asked by a colleague what advise should be given to new teachers, the student-centered approach was not always recommended:

...It depends on which method you find useful, it’s a personal choice if lecturing is more effective for you can advise him to use it. (FG-T-PLR-3)

Teaching and learning materials and the school infrastructure and overall environment were also discussed as important factors for effective teaching. The PTR (the largest in the school is 26) is considered conducive for effective teaching.

All teachers are unaware of specific national education policies, including the NPST, though one said they had heard of it, but doesn’t know more.

**Variations between types of schools**

When examining the differences in effective teaching between government and private schools, overall, private schools are perceived to have a higher quality of education. Some attributed this to additional courses offered and outside curriculums. For example, the PHR school breaks English into reading, writing, grammar and spoken, and teaches two Math classes, one in English and one in Amharic. PHR teachers ‘pity’ government school kids for not having the same opportunity. This is an illegal practice though, using anything other than the Ethiopian national curriculum. T-PHR-2 states that “the government knows that [private
schools add curriculum] but acts as if they don’t know.” This was confirmed by REO-2 who has personally brought the issue before the Minister level and explains “there is no response there.”

*Researcher:* …Do you know of schools right now that use another curriculum?
*REO-2:* Yeah, I know. I know the schools.
*Researcher:* … Have you ever reported a school that’s using the incorrect curriculum and you’ve been told directly or indirectly to ignore it?
*REO-2:* Yeah, yeah. Some leaders tell me, ignore it.

The turning a blind eye could be explained by children of high ranking officials or diplomats who attend these schools and are in favor of the additional classes and curriculum according to REO-2 and T-PLR-1.

Government schools are viewed as political entities that “discourage our [teachers’] initiation towards effective teaching” (T-PHR-1). According to two PHR teachers, with 10 years combined previous experience teaching in government primary schools outside of Addis Ababa, teachers are expected to become members of the government and if they don’t, they may face discrimination. The government school teachers did not make any reference to political participation. Government schools were also considered to be more concerned with quantity, how many students pass an exam, then quality, i.e. the kind of education students receive (T-PHR-1). More so,

the difference is in the quality of delivering or executing the policy. In government school[s], we [teachers] just pretend to care, but here [in private schools] we do our jobs full heartedly. If we try to pretend here, then we'd get fired. (T-PHR-2)

The private schools are stricter in management. Their teachers know what is expected of them are held accountable. Government school teachers were found to be less satisfied with their salary than private school teachers. Many said they will leave to another profession if given the chance because of it. Some of the private teachers receive additional income from after-hours tutoring that the schools provide at an extra cost to students. Due to these extra costs and school fees, poor students are not usually found attending private schools, unless they are high academic achievers. A-PHR explained that “the whole private school[s] is not to come the students of the poor families, because the monthly fee it is high.” Private school fees vary by school. For example, the PHR school’s student fees are almost double that of the PLR school.
The resources and school infrastructure were also noticeably different between the schools. The government schools had significantly larger compounds and classrooms than the private schools. When asked if there was effective teaching in their school one teacher responded that it was difficult to say, because of the lack of resources:

Totally, I can’t say there is effective teaching in the school, because there is a lack of infrastructure, materials, facilities, and good things. Even we don’t have sometimes we lack a duster and we are searching for a duster for one class to the other class, we miss some minutes, because the school doesn’t provide enough dusters to the teachers. (T-GLR-4)

For this teacher, effective teaching was constrained by the poorly resourced school, which negatively impacted class time. Other teachers from the school also commented on the poor facilities:

Even there is no water, how can you call it facility? (T-GLR-3)

The school is not that much comfortable for teaching and learning. The materials are not enough. For example, the tables are old and there is no material, including marker. The environment is dusty. There is not room [for students] to eat their lunch. There is no water. It only comes once in a while... [so students] eat without washing their hands. (T-GLR-2)

The teachers of the other low-resourced school (the PLR) also discussed the impact of resources on teaching during their focus group. The conversation went as follows:

Researcher: Are there any practices you want to try in the classroom?
FG-T-PLR-1: There are activities which should happen in the class, but we don’t have materials.
FG-T-PLR-3: Even if you want to do it, you won’t because of lack of materials.

The PLR teachers described their school in many similar ways to the GLR school— as dusty, lacking water and materials, such as laboratory chemicals and instruments. Minimum resources for teachers are provided though, as described:

A teacher must be equipped with chalk, duster, uniform and pen, and the school provides us with that, one red pen and blue pen every month. We don’t have resource problems. (T-PLR-1)

As the GLR teachers previously described, these materials are not a luxury they are provided, highlighting the differences even amongst low-resourced schools.
6.3.2 Observed Effective Teaching Practices

Effective teaching practices were identified through classroom observations conducted throughout the four schools by the research and the main translator. Observations from all schools are presented together as they correspond to the framework’s ‘inside the classroom’ level factors in order to generally understand teachers’ classroom practices, though distinctions are made between the schools when relevant.

Classroom Climate & Management

PTRs along with classroom behavior management varied by school and by teacher. The PTRs can be viewed in table 6.3 below. Collectively, behavior management was noticed to be poorer among GLR and PHR teachers. In these schools, punishments were observed in the form of kneeling—requiring a student to kneel on the ground for a length time—and physical hitting, along with verbal insults, such as “Why don’t you have any friends?” (T-PHR-2) remarked to a student sitting alone during group work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>GLR</th>
<th>GHR</th>
<th>PLR</th>
<th>PHR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PTR</td>
<td>31-59</td>
<td>23-40</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>29-36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.3: Pupil-Teacher Ratios (PTRs) observed during classroom observations by school

A few GLR and PHR teachers even appeared to deliberately ignore misbehaving students by not asking for their attention and concentrating on other students in the class. This stands in contrast to GHR teachers who were observed attempting to engage misbehaving students in class by purposefully calling on them to answer questions. The amount and kinds of questions asked to students also varied. The teachers who asked very few questions did not appear to be concerned about student participation in class.

Regarding the social and organizational environment, government classrooms were more conducive for teacher to student interaction and student to student discussion, because of large classroom sizes, which allowed for easier movement throughout the room, and desks arranged in groups, respectively. Whereas, private school teachers were constrained by small classrooms spaces with rows of desks and narrow aisles, which limited teachers to the front of the classroom. Broken or unused desks and chalkboards were observed stacked in corners of GHR classrooms. It was unclear (and not asked) why they had not been removed from the classroom. PLR classrooms were colorfully painted, but dimly lit and some classrooms did
not have a door. Trash, dirt and even food were observed on GLR rooms’ floors, whereas some PHR classrooms had trashcans and cleaners were observed cleaning the rooms after school.

Lastly, levels of student engagement and time on task were as also mixed. Students in both private schools were observed unengaged in a task upon finishing individual classwork as they waited for instruction from their teacher who was checking individual student’s notebooks. This stands in contrast to a government school teacher (T-GHR-4) who provided an additional assignment upon noticing students were finished.

**Pedagogy**
Collectively, GHR teachers were observed as the strongest in pedagogical practice with a good variety of activities from structured instruction in note taking and lecturing and student-centered approaches, including group work, and whole class discussions. One teacher had even hoped for a debate between two classes, but due to poor planning with the other teacher it did not take place (T-GHR-1). T-GHR-3’s pedagogical practice stood out as students were asked which method they preferred for note taking, copying from the board or from dictation. In all other classes where notetaking was present this option was not provided.

Teacher-centered approaches, including lengthy lectures were observed by teachers (T-GHR-3; T-GLR-3; T-PLR-2, T-PLR-4). This stands in contrast to T-PLR-2 who described using student-centered approaches during the interview and to the variety of methods said to be used by T-GHR-3, whose second observed classes was much more participatory. This approach is not as much as surprise for T-GLR-3 who expressed preference for teacher-centered methods during the interview and T-PLR-4 who described using one teaching method per class.

**Curriculum**
In none of the observed classes, were all students found to have a textbook. Typically, not more than half of the students had them, but they shared together as needed. Teachers did not always check for an even distribution of textbooks amongst groups though, which resulted for example, in a group of seven students with only one or two textbooks during an activity.

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5 This doesn’t necessarily mean that each student doesn’t own one, just that they didn’t bring it to class
Teachers in all four schools were observed speaking Amharic in classes where English is the LOI to give instructions or explain a topic. It was not found to be more prevalent in one school than another.

**Resources**

During a lesson at the PLR school, a class was interrupted by a student looking for an eraser. T-PLR-2 was observed explaining that the lesson should be conducted in the school’s laboratory, but due to a lack of materials would instead be discussed in the classroom.

No teachers were observed using materials other than the curriculum, teacher’s guide, and chalkboard, chalk and duster or white board and marker. Although, T-GHR-3 was observed collecting small plants in plastic bottles from students for a future class project.

### 6.4 Constraints

The section presents the findings related to research question 1c regarding constraints in effective teaching. Constraints were collected from all informants and are grouped together by impediment as it relates to a level of the analytical framework. This is done to shed light on the issues and not to point blame at which subjects found obstacles and which did not. Constraints identified outside of a specifically named framework component are presented in the level at which it is found.

#### 6.4.1 Inside the Classroom

As resources were already previously presented in ‘variations in types of schools’ (section 6.3.1) and in ‘observed effective teaching practices’ (section 6.3.2), they will not be repeated here.

**High Pupil Teacher Ratios**

One constraint identified as negatively impacting classroom management is the PTR.

Teachers explained:

> We don’t get to limit the number of student in a class, but in methodology training, I have learned that [the] amount of student[s] must be 20-30 in a class maximum, but here you’ll come across a class with 40+ students... and that’s difficult to manage. (FG-T-PHR-1)
There are about 32 to 40 students in a classroom and as far as I’m concerned this number is very high to effectively manage...if very few students are able to learn in the classroom it will be very easy to acknowledge each and every student in a well organized manner and the effective teaching process will be achieved. (T-PHR-3)

Even the LEOs recognized that the PTR should be reduced. LEO-3 also believes that a high PTR causes teachers to turn to teacher-centered teaching methods:

Most of the teacher’s problems is active learning method of teaching. This is the problem of applying the active learning method is number of students in the classroom...it is not comfortable for group discussion. (LEO-3)

Lack of Understanding and Value towards Student-Centered Approaches

Although teachers from all four schools either identified policies’ support for or the benefits of student-centered teaching methods, teachers were found as LEO-3 described to turn to teacher-centered approaches because of high PTRs, but also because a lack in understanding the approach:

The other problem is teachers does not understand the student-centered methods of teaching, the value of teaching student-centered method of teaching. The understanding gap of advantages of this is the major problem. (LEO-3)

Even NPM-1 cited research findings from six years ago that pointed to challenges in teacher’s knowledge of teaching methodologies.

Curriculum

Both the curriculum and LOI were identified as constraints in effective teaching. For example, the government’s civics’ curriculum was said to cover the same chapters and ideas from Grades 5 through 12, which “…is really discouraging, because it doesn’t introduce them [students] to anything new” (T-PHR-1). PHR teachers discussed during the focus group how the government curriculum lacks relevance and that teachers should be included in its design. T-GLR-1 also pointed out a constraint in the curriculum length, explaining it is unable to be completed in a year without extra classes, usually because the school year does not start on time.
Language of Instruction

Regarding language, all teachers found the use of English as the LOI a constraint to effective teaching. Translation back to Amharic is required for student comprehension and was observed by almost all teachers:

I don’t personally believe that there is an effective teaching these days, because the education is not given with our mother tongue. There is a huge language gap. (FG-T-GLR-2)

My students don’t understand me the same when I teach in English and Amharic. When I only teach in English they get confused. (FG-T-PHR-3)

The fact that the subjects are given in Amharic up until 7\textsuperscript{th} grade and then turned to English afterwards creates some kind of confusion for the students. Sometimes they will listen to you lecturing the whole time yet without really understanding you. (FG-T-GLR-1)

FG-T-GLR-2 explained that there is even a term, “Amazinga” for blending the two languages. It is when a teacher explains in Amharic what was just taught in English.

Additional Responsibilities: Paperwork

Government school teachers described required weekly paperwork for school administration as a major constraint in effective teaching. Sentiments included:

Instead of working on themselves and being an effective teacher... they [teachers] spend time writing a report. (T-GHR-1)

When we [teachers] teach the students, we should think how to work on the students, not the reports. (T-GHR-4)

They also described that they write fake reports:

The sub-city will ask does the laboratory work? If there is no material the laboratory doesn't work, but we will say yes not to be questioned...So we will just write as we want and give them as if we have worked it. (T-GLR-3)

Apparently, school administration is aware of the false reports. According to the teachers, administration does not care about the legitimacy so long as they have it.
6.4.2 Professional Development and School Environment

Negative Administrator–Teacher Relationships
GLR teachers do not feel supported by their administration to be effective. T-GLR-2 explained that they do not receive any information or trainings on how to be effective; it is up to them to exchange ideas within their respective subject department. The teachers expressed that they feel on their own and that any idea they present would more than likely be dismissed.

During the focus group discussion with GHR teachers, tension with administrators was revealed. They said they had experienced verbal abuse, but also recognized that administrators do not have a background in management, so of course they cannot do their job properly. Administration was viewed as having a ‘superiority complex’ and observed leaving work early (before 5pm). (T-GLR-3).

Poor Initial Teacher Training
Many constraints were identified with initial teacher training. TEIs were identified as lacking capacity, while teacher educators were described as having low competency levels and, in some cases, improper training and qualifications. Methodology courses were especially thought to be lacking by NPMs:

The training must be reflective, student-centered, [and] constructive... but the practice is... the traditional one, the lecture... dominated. (NPM-3)

A-GHR notes that because of the greater familiarity with the teacher-centered approach it is most difficult for teachers to switch to and practice student-centered approaches in the classroom. The training was also described as more generic than subject-specific, which makes it less effective in changing classroom practice, according to NPM-3, who suggested an emphasis on PCK.

Poor Continuous Professional Development
According to NPM-3, current CPD programs are unsuccessful. LEO-1 described that a training needs assessment mechanism exists, but that trainings are not always prepared to react to the emerging needs. Collectively, the government school teachers stressed the need to provide more CPD trainings:
"the sub-city provides... courses and trainings [only] sometimes and the school sends the competent teachers for it. (T-GLR-4)

So, the trainings are not reaching everyone. Additionally, the PLR teachers feel they are also entitled to CPD trainings, which will aid in their effectiveness.

6.4.3 Education Policy and Outside Influences

Low Policy Maker Capacity & Knowledge

The lack of policy maker’s capacity at all levels of government was identified as a constraint to effective teaching and more so, to the education system as a whole. It was found to prevent inadequate support to teachers:

These [cluster] supervisors are only going to these schools just to record this data about students and some routine activities. (NPM-3)

NPM-3 explains that they could be resourceful, facilitating teacher’s professional development, with developed capacity. The issue of capacity extends to the MOE:

...you may see a number of ambitious targets and many interesting strategies and so on, but due to the problem of implementation capacity you don’t find most of these strategic activities being successful[ly] implemented, so the government has to recognize that... but the majority of the people in the Ministry as well as in the regions do not sense it and that may be very much related to their level of expertise and understanding... (NPM-3)

It is not only an issue of capacity, but also of knowledge. Two LEOs incorrectly named or described a national education policy. Additionally, poor accountability in textbook distribution was identified by T-PLR-1 who stated that the school received less than half of the government textbooks they paid for. The follow up of effective teaching methods was also stressed, because “there are schools which apply the active learning method just when they think people from the Ministry of Education are coming to observe" (T-PLR-2).

Unqualified Teachers Teaching

Both private schools were found to employ teachers with degrees who had never taken any prior teaching courses. In addition, regardless of certification, it turns out that “even the teacher teaching English might not be an English teacher. He might teach just because he’s appointed. There are teachers with social studies backgrounds teaching Amharic and English
subject[s]” (T-GLR-2). So, the lack of policy regulation and alignment between qualification and teaching post is also a constraint to effective teaching.

**Outside Influence in Policy Documents and Standards**

Policy makers also stated that a few policy documents have been generated from other nation’s experiences. Indeed, the NPST explicitly states the incorporation of standards from Australia, Ohio and New Jersey. This was found to be a problem because it “may not reflect our [Ethiopian] way of defining effective teaching or how teachers define effective teaching at the school level” (NPM-3).

**Low Status of the Teaching Profession**

The poor perception of the teaching profession in the eyes of society as stated by informants in all categories is considered a large constraint to effective teaching. Teachers stated that they did not feel respected even by the government. NPM-4 indeed suggested that government officials show respect to the profession to help increase status. The low status of the profession, teachers explained, contributes to low morale and commitment and affects the ability to recruit and retain strong candidates. Teaching is viewed as a last resort when no other opportunity is found. One teacher even stated that they "don't like [teaching], but it's a job… it's a difficult profession and I am bad at communicating with students" (T-PLR-3). Even policy makers recognize this-- that “most of the teachers are not willing to be teachers” (NPM-2). Recruiting students who have failed Grade 10 into the profession was though to make matters worse.

The low teaching salary is also a factor for teacher commitment and strong recruitment. Almost all informants believed if salary was raised respect for the profession and better recruits would follow. Two of the NPMs questioned the government’s capacity to raise the salary for nearly half a million teachers throughout the country. One teacher felt strongly that it’s realistic and simple to raise the salary, explaining that

*If you [government] are not willing to set a budget for that amount, then you are saying no to the benefits you could have reaped in the future. It only means they don’t want to create a generation, if they are not willing to pay what it takes.* (T-PHR-3)

Even the MOE salary was viewed as a constraint and recommended to be raised to attract more competent staff. Although efforts have been made to increase the status of teachers by
providing free housing to government school teachers in Addis Ababa, for example, they have not yet reached all teachers. Some view this as unfair and discouraging, instead of encouraging. The PLR teachers also felt they should be entitled to the same benefits as government teachers.

Low Education Financing

One LEO believes that the federal government education budget is limited, noting that resource allocation does not even reach all schools. The GEQIP (2008) explains the financing constraint is because of the rapid expansion of education. There is not a lot of budget left after the allocation to teacher salaries has been made and

this has the effect of constraining the availability and predictability of resources for other inputs critical to support effective teaching and learning (e.g. training, textbooks and other materials, assessment, monitoring and evaluation systems, etc.) … (MOE, 2008, p.2)

As previously mentioned, it is unclear if Ethiopia can afford to raise teacher’s salary.

6.5 Summary

This section will provide a summary of results found throughout the chapter. It will begin to make comparisons between the informants, while a discussion on the established variations will continue in the next chapter.

The current federal and AAEB ESDP specify knowledge and academic achievement along with values and social responsibility as the outcomes of quality education. This viewpoint was widely held by all informants and seen as the result of effective teaching. Concepts of active learning and student-centered teaching approaches were identified in the 2009 CPD Framework, 2010 Curriculum Framework and 2013 National Framework for School Inspection. Policy makers, school administrators and most teachers agreed that these methods are the best approaches for effective teaching. Not all teachers held this view though. A few believed these methods were not appropriate for their subject and one teacher expressed that it is a personal choice of which teaching method to use. A handful of teachers were observed practicing teacher-centered methods, which the 2010 Curriculum Framework, in particular, cautions against. This result was due in part to poor initial teacher training according to some policy makers, who expressed the need for an improvement of TEI programs.
The 2009 CPD Framework states that teachers should have a love for their profession. Policy makers agree stating that it needs to be a profession of choice. Yet, most of the teachers did not go by choice into the teaching profession, but instead felt they were left with no other options. Several mentioned that if they get the opportunity they will leave to another profession. This was mainly due to low teacher salary, which policy makers recognize. Almost all informants equated a raise in teacher’s salary with an increase in value and positive perception of the profession. This would then lead, they believed, to more qualified recruits (needed for effective teaching), who are currently among the low performers, i.e. students who fail the Grade 10 exam and are unable to move on to Grade 11.

Some of the major constraints to effective teaching were the language of instruction, i.e. comprehension of English, high PTRs and for government teachers the extra burden of paperwork. Poor school infrastructure and resources were found to limit effective teaching practices. Notably, a lack of basic infrastructure, such as a clean and regular water supply were identified in both low-resourced schools, which clearly violates the 2013 National Framework for School Inspection. Another area where policy diverged from practice is in professional development, i.e. the 2009 CPD Framework, as teachers spoke very little, if at all, of receiving in-service trainings. A concept that did align was that of the importance of getting to know students for effective teaching. This was expressed by teachers in both high-resourced schools and is a notion found in the Content and Pedagogic Standards for Teachers (2013/14).

These findings will be discussed and more thoroughly analyzed in the next chapter, particularly as they relate to the literature review, analytical framework and research questions.
7 Discussion

The chapter discusses the results presented in the previous chapter. The sections correspond to the three sub-research questions. Therefore, the first section discusses policy makers conceptualization and design of effective teaching policies (research question 1a). Next, section two presents the discussion concerning primary school teachers’ and administrators’ perceptions and practices of effective teaching (research question 1b). Finally, section three, analyzes the constraints found in effective teaching.

7.1 Research Question 1a

The first part of the research question asks: How is effective teaching conceptualized and designed by policy makers at the federal, regional, and local levels? It is an attempt to understand the national education policy (3rd framework level), and how it might be influenced from the outside (4th level) as well as how it sets up effective teachings practices within professional development (pre- and in-service), the school context and in the classroom (2nd and 1st levels, respectively). The answer can be derived by reviewing the results from of the document analysis and interviews with 4 NPMs, 2 REOs and 3 LEOs (section 6.2). Interviews from other informants may also add insight.

Policy makers and education policies in Ethiopia conceptualize effective teaching as an outcome of academic achievement and behavioral norms. This aligns to Sedel’s (2005) description of potential quality outcomes. Education policies appear to take a ‘learning-centeredness’ approach (Dembélé, 2005) as getting to know students for improved and individualized student learning are highly valued. As is a combination of open-ended and structured instruction, as outlined in the 2010 Curriculum Framework which lists various active teaching and learning strategies for teachers and also outlines the proper structure of a lesson (FDRE MOE, 2010).

In moving from federal to local policy makers (LEOs), knowledge of education policies and standards trickled. If those at the local level as misinformed or simply uninformed, then they are unable to correct and support teachers in their practice. This stops successfully policy enactment in its tracks.
In regards to design, effective teaching policies and strategies were found to incorporate outside influence, namely adoption from other countries. National consultants and university experts were invited to participate in developing policies along with several development partners and donors. Policy makers eagerly inquired about personal home-country experience after the interview hoping to gain insight into best practices. While the ETA is also invited to participate in policy design and does represent all teachers, teachers themselves are usually not directly consulted. Bainton, Bareet & Tikly (2016) advise the consultation of teachers as Obanya (2010) explained because they are the ones to apply, interpret and enact them. Policy makers interest in outside influences may stem from a desire to align to global trends and evidenced-based policies, but without proper contextualization, i.e. if they are more copied than adapted, they may lack success (Alexander, 2012).

Policies as well as policy makers were reflexive and able to comment upon constraints in effective teaching and needed changes. Unfortunately, responses reflected more ‘trying’ or ‘hoping’ than ‘action.’ Then, where there is action, it seems a bit slow. For example, the new teacher licensing test was administering examinations in 2012/13 (REO-1) but still hasn’t been standardized nor administered to all teachers nor presented a demarcation between licensed and non-licensed teachers (NPR-4), in which case there is little reason to take the test (especially if it doesn’t mean anything). Additionally, NPM-1 described research findings regarding issues around teacher training on methodology from six years ago and yet, curriculum is only now being revised. Granted, there may have been initiatives over the years to combat this issue, but none were mentioned. Both examples point to poor planning and an inability to respond to known challenges, which continues to highlights a lack in capacity at the MOE.

While it is important to reflect on progress and understand the challenges that lie ahead in order to combat them, there is worry when the same challenges appear year after year and decade after decade. For instance, although there have been great strides in education in Ethiopia over the past two decades, “inadequate facilities, insufficient training of teachers, overcrowded classes, shortage of books and other teaching materials” were identified as constraints in effective teaching today; this quote, mentioned earlier is from the 1994 ETP (FDRE, 1994b, p.3). This indicates that policies, however well crafted, are not effective in practice. UNESCO (2014b) states that “Education reforms can only be effective if countries have the capacities to make them operational, with not just trained staff, but with effective
organizational processes, function institutions and the existence of tools and resources to plan, implement and manage effective and custom-built education policies and plans” (p. 2). As has already been expressed, capacity and planning resources are in need of improvement, for one NPM stated that “I would say that our teachers are, are helpless” (NPM-3, bold added for emphasis). If policy makers themselves do not believe they can make a difference or improve effective teaching and the quality of education, then it begs the question of who can or should be expected to.

7.2 Research Question 1b

The second part of the research questions asks: *How do primary school teachers and administrators perceive and practice effective teaching in Ethiopia?* It aims to understand school (2nd) and classroom (1st) levels of the framework by investigating what policies and influences make it (or don’t make it) into the classroom. This can be answered by reviewing the results of the 4 semi-structured interviews with school administrators and the 15 semi-structured interviews with teachers along with their focus group discussions and classroom observations, which came to 32 in total.

School administrators and teachers viewed the goals and outcomes of effective teaching as Ethiopian education policies described, in light of student success in academics as well as in behavior (ethics). They were all also able to identify either Ethiopian policies’ explicit preference for or the overall benefits of active learning and student-centered teaching approaches for student learning and achievement. The teachers described a variety of teaching methods they employed from group discussion to individual class work to presentations, lectures, and debates. They emphasized the important role in actively engaging all students in the teaching and learning process. Nevertheless, a few teachers described their favor towards teacher-centered approaches either due to personal preference, easier classroom instruction for high PTR or because they believed it was the best method to use to teach their subject.

A few teachers were observed physically punishing students in the class through the practice of kneeling for a certain length of time, physically hitting or verbal insults. Borich (2017) explains that corporal punishment “generally has not proven effective in deterring misbehavior” (p. 116). It also contributes to a negative classroom environment.
Teachers expressed their lack of support in and motivation for effective teaching, mainly due to their salary and the overall poor perception the teaching profession has. The lack of trainings available to teachers or information circulated regarding effective teaching points to a lack of knowledge or will from school administrators and local education officers to drive “an agenda to change or enhance teaching practices across the school” (ACER, 2016). It also reveals that CPD and cluster supervision is not properly performed or ensured. Teachers lack of commitment to teaching was expressed in the 2002 ‘Quality and Effectiveness of Teacher Education in Ethiopia’ according to the TESO Handbook (2003), revealing the persistence of the same constraint in effective teaching and inability of policies, however well-crafted, to address it for the past 15 years.

7.3 Research Question 1c

The third part of the research questions asks: What are the main constraints in practicing effective teaching in Ethiopia? It aims to understand constraints found at any level of the framework from the classroom to outside influences as identified by informants and observed in classroom observations.

Teaching and learning materials were either described or observed to be a constraint in effective teaching in all schools. Whether it was a missing eraser, lack of laboratory supplies, textbooks or visual aids, or broken or nonexistent computers, teachers were limited in how they could present information. Poor school facilities were also viewed as a constraint. As observed during classroom observations, the organizational environment was found to be limited in all classroom either due to size of the space, desk arrangement, decorations (or lack therefore), dim lighting or lack of cleanliness. The GLR school, which has a very dusty compound and lack of air ventilation causing strong afternoon heat in the classrooms, is not conducive to teaching and learning according to the teachers. PLR teachers stated that small classroom sizes negatively impact quality learning, which the PHR school was also observed to have. Due to the size constraints, both private schools’ classrooms consisted of desks in rows and not groups. These conditions and the inability to arrange an attractive classroom were presented in the framework as a potential constraint to effective teaching by Anderson (2014) and Carron and Chau (1996).
The low-resourced schools, which reported an inadequate supply of clean drinking water directly violate what the 2013 National School Inspection Framework. At a very minimum, schools should have access to clean, drinking water for both students and staff.

One of the major constraints in effective teaching was the high PTR. They cause problems in classroom management and make it difficult to provide individual student attention. This was observed in PHR and GLR teachers’ classrooms who had some of the highest PTRs and poorest classroom behavior management in the study.

Teaching in English was a major constraint to effective teaching and student learning. Almost all of the teachers stated that they had to explain parts of the lesson in Amharic in classes that are supposed to be taught in English, because otherwise students would lack comprehension. Dembély & Ndoye (2005) warned of ensuring an effective LOI and UNESCO (1953) has long stressed the importance of teaching in mother tongue. It is somewhat ironic that teachers expressed LOI as a constrain when Heugh et al. (2007) has described Ethiopia as holding one of the best language policies on the continent. Heugh et al. (2007) recommend eight full years of mother tongue instruction, which Addis Ababa does not follow as they switch to English at LOI in Grade 7. Trudell (2016) warned of the sway towards English as a LOI, but as can be seen English introduced in Grade 7 in Addis Ababa only hurts effective teaching and the overall quality of education.
8 Conclusion, Implications and Recommendations

This final concluding chapter begins with section one, a summary of the study and final remarks regarding the overall research question, the extent of a shared understanding of effective teaching. Section two presents the limitations of the study. The last section, section three, provides the way forward with future research possibilities and implications for policy for Ethiopian policy makers, education stakeholders and future researchers to consider.

8.1 Summary and Discussion: Extent of a Shared Understanding

This study aims to answer the main research question: To what extent is there a shared understanding of effective teaching among different educational stakeholders in Ethiopia? Dembélé (2005) stated that “having a shared vision of the teaching-learning process should be a concern… whereby learning is viewed as resulting from the coordinated implementation of input supply, curriculum reform, teacher development, leadership training and training of inspectors and pedagogical advisors” (p.216) One of the NPMs further emphasizes that “for effective teaching to be realized in the school… there must be a shared understanding by the school community- the principal, the teachers, even with the students and that make[s] it very difficult to have one, on consensus in terms of definition… it requires a lot of efforts to have a common understanding… and to do the actual teaching practices” (NPM-3).

There appears to be a common understanding amongst policy, policy makers at all levels, and school administrators and teachers regarding the goal and outcomes of effective teaching as student success in both academics and behavior. The divergence in understanding comes in how to achieve such outcomes.

Teachers were found to still use teacher-centered methods of instruction during class. A few even expressed their approval of them, clearly showing a lack of understanding in how such approaches can inhibit effective teaching. The constraints in using these approaches is found not only in literature (Dembélé and Miaro-II, 2003 as cited as UNESCO, 2004; USAID, 2015), but also in Ethiopian education policies and standards (2009 CPD Framework, 2010
Curriculum Framework, 2013 National Framework for School Inspection). This highlights that however well-written or holistic Ethiopian education policies, complete with specific classroom practices for outcome attainment, maybe there are not internalized or even known by the actors who are supposed to be enacting them. While NPMs and REOs were familiar with the NPST and LEOs less so, expect for one private and one government school teacher and both government school administrators who claimed to have heard of it but knew nothing more, none of the school level informants were familiar with the NPST when asked. None of the school level informants referred to the 2009 CPD Framework, 2010 Curriculum Framework, or 2013 National Framework for School Inspection either.

This highlights a gap in teacher training if education policies and standards stipulate the practices a teacher should follow, without training the teachers on those practices. It’s ironic, because the MOE who sets these teacher standards is also the one writing the TEI curriculum. From the offset, the MOE is setting up teachers for failure. Additionally, if LEOs are also unfamiliar with the policies and standards, then they cannot be incorporated into CPD and aid in correcting any missing information from initial training. Unless, the standards and frameworks are enforced by training teachers about them, they will never be anything more than writing on paper. If teachers are not supported or encouraged to do better on the teacher licensing test (based off the standards) and the low results persist, there will be a significant lack of teachers throughout the country if the policy follows through in removing teachers unable to pass the test three times from teaching.

8.2 Limitations of the Study

The study examined teachers across four different grade levels covering several subject areas. It is possible that certain practices may be more effective for one subject than another.

Not speaking the local language, which also happened to be the LOI for some classes and using a translator has its limitations. It restricted understanding and full comprehension of interviews, focus group discussion and classroom lessons. Nuances were unable to be detected and not all ideas or opinions were translated properly in real time. This meant certain findings could not be probed further since they were not found until after reading the transcript translated into English.
8.3 The Way Forward

8.3.1 Research Implications

This study investigated the perceptions and practices of effective teaching from policy to practice. Now that various views have been presented and constraints identified, additional investigation into the policy process, specifically regarding policy dissemination, enactment and regulation may help pinpoint where and why perceptions of policies are misconstrued or not informed or held accountable. Additionally, it may be useful to investigate views on effective teaching in other parts of the country, where various ethnicities and languages as well as rural lifestyles impact education policy differently. Other stakeholders such as parents, community members and students could also be included. As well, examining a specific grade level or subject could also provide further insights.

Further research into TEI programs and the shorter programs teachers with Degrees described taking will lead to a deeper understanding of what teachers are actually taught regarding effective teaching during initial training, i.e. if education policies and the NPST actually make it into the classroom and why teachers in their own classroom can or cannot recall certain teaching practices that they have supposedly learned. Moreover, a deeper investigation of school leadership and management and of private schools extra classes (credit hour) and curricula may have implications for improving resource management and student success, respectively.

8.3.2 Policy Implications

Through the perceptions and constraints, several solutions and suggestions have been proposed. There are as follows:

- Regarding the adoption of policies and standards from outside of Ethiopia, effort should be made to contextualize the practice and to pilot test or monitor them to ensure their effective application and success on the ground.
- Instead of concentrating on what works globally, derive policies and standards from further research conducted within Ethiopia and what is already proven to work well.
- Ensure that all education stakeholders including teachers, students and parents are well represented and able to have a voice in policy making; they may provide valuable information regarding relevance and best practices.
- Consider revising the current primary school and initial teacher training curricula to ensure relevance and effective teaching practices, including student-centered and active learning approaches.

- If the use of additional curricula outside of the federal government’s in private schools is to continue being banned, then it should be properly enforced. If, however, with further investigation, the additional classes (credit hours) and curricula are found to be contributing factors to private school student’s success, then aspects with an evidence based should be integrated into revised national curricula.

- Increase the capacity of cluster supervisors in order for them to be able to provide proper support and guidance to teachers.

- Increase and improve the communication between the MOE and TEIs in order to ensure policies and standards are taught to teachers.

- Ensure that the 2013 National School Inspection Framework standards for schools, especially the most minimum, such as clean drinking water is accessible in every school.

This study shows that there is a gap between policy, perception and practice when it comes to effective teaching. Further investigation is required to identify exactly where and why divergence exists.
References


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Appendices

Appendix 1: Interview Consent Form for All Informants Except Teachers

Request for Participation in Research Project
"What is Effective Teaching? Perceptions and Practices of Ethiopian Teachers"

Background and Purpose
My name is Beth Roseman and I am an Erasmus Mundus master’s student in a Master of Education Policies for Global Development degree developed by a consortium of universities including the Autonomous University of Barcelona, the University of Oslo, and the University of Malta. You are invited to take part in this research project, which I am conducting as part of the requirements of my degree.

The project aims to understand what Ethiopian teachers conceptualize as effective teaching & how they practice it in the classroom. It also explores to what extent teacher’s perspectives of effective teaching varies from policy makers and hopes to reveal constraints in practicing effective teaching. This research will contribute to a common understanding of effective teaching in Ethiopia, so that policies & communities can create & sustain the required environment for quality education to flourish.

What does participation in the project imply?
Participation in the project requires an estimated 60-minute un-paid interview and potentially a follow up interview at a later date for clarification questions. Questions will concern your knowledge and opinion of effective teaching. The interview will be taped by a voice recorder and notes will be taken. In case you do not want to have the interview taped you are still able to participate.

What will happen to the information about you?
All personal data will be treated confidentially. Personal information about you and all the other informants will be stored separately from notes and recordings/transcription of the interview. No one except for myself, the interpreter and the student’s supervisor will have access to personal data and will ever know who you are. It will not be possible to recognize you from what you have said in the final thesis.

The project is scheduled for completion by 01 September 2018. At that point, all personal data and recordings will be anonymized.

Voluntary participation
It is voluntary to participate in the project, and you can at any time choose to withdraw your consent without stating any reason. If you decide to withdraw, all your personal data will be made anonymous.

The study has been notified to the Data Protection Official for Research, NSD - Norwegian Centre for Research Data and is with support of the Solidarity Fund of the Autonomous University of Barcelona.
If you have any questions about the research project or require further information you may contact the following:

Student Researcher: Beth Roseman
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Supervisor: Dr. Wim Hoppers
Telephone number: +31655901400
Email: wimhoppers@yahoo.com

Consent for participation in the study
I _________________________________________, have received information about the "What is Effective Teaching? Perceptions and Practices of Ethiopian Teachers" project conducted by Beth Roseman and am willing to participate. My signature below indicates my consent.

☐ I consent to audio recording the interview
☐ I do not consent to audio recording the interview

(Participant Signature) (Date)
አምስት ዲኝነቱ ውለት ከሚስጥር ከማይታወቅ ከሰጡት ማስከረም ይጠቀመፈ የሚያመለክት የግሌ መረጃዎች ይያዛለ፣ የእርስዎ ይና የላልች ላይ የግሌ መረጃ ከሁለም የቃሇመጠይቁ የማስታወሻዎች ይስሇ ይወቅ ይህ ተሇይቶ ይህ ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፣ ትወቅ ይሇብቻ ይያዛሌ፡፡ ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቀ ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርቴ ይይንም የሰጡት ማስታወቅ ይበመኩ የማንም ይCollapse ከእኔ የአስተርጓሚዉ ቅትላች ያተማሪዎች ጋሊፋ ይበስተቀር የማንኛዉም የሰዉ የእርሶን የግሊዊ የሚነት የማስጥ ይችለም፡፡ ከመጨረሻ ዯፖርተ
Appendix 2: Interview Consent Forms for Teachers

Request for Participation in Research Project
"What is Effective Teaching? Perceptions and Practices of Ethiopian Teachers"

Background and Purpose
My name is Beth Roseman and I am an Erasmus Mundus master’s student in a Master of Education Policies for Global Development degree developed by a consortium of universities including the University of Oslo, the Autonomous University of Barcelona, and the University of Malta. You are invited to take part in this research project, which I am conducting as part of the requirements of my degree.

The project aims to understand what Ethiopian teachers conceptualize as effective teaching & how they practice it in the classroom. It also explores to what extent teacher’s perspectives of effective teaching varies from policy makers and hopes to reveal constraints in practicing effective teaching. This research will contribute to a common understanding of effective teaching in Ethiopia, so that policies & communities can create & sustain the required environment for quality education to flourish.

What does participation in the project imply?

1. Participation in the project requires an estimated 60-minute un-paid interview and potentially a follow up interview at a later date for clarification questions. Questions will concern your knowledge and opinion of effective teaching. The interview will be taped by a voice recorder and notes will be taken. In case you do not want to have the interview taped you are still able to participate.

2. Consent for the researcher and her translator to conduct a minimum of two classroom observations. We will agree in advance what classes will be observed. The researcher will not actively participate in the class, but sit, ideally towards the back of the classroom, or wherever is convenient. The lesson will not be recorded; notes will be taken.

3. Participation in a focus group discussion. This is an un-paid conversation with 3-5 other teachers from your school that is anticipated to last for one to one and half hours. The group discussion will start with me making sure that the participants are comfortable. I will answer questions about the research that participants might have. Then I will ask questions about the education system in this community. We will talk about effective teaching and quality teaching practices. Questions will also concern views on policies regarding effective teaching and their implementation. You will not be asked to share personal stories or anything that you are not comfortable sharing. You do not have to answer any question if you feel they are too personal or if talking about them makes you uncomfortable. The entire discussion will be tape-recorded, but no one will be identified by name on the tape.

What will happen to the information about you?
All personal data will be treated confidentially. Personal information about you and all the other informants will be stored separately from notes and recordings/transcription of the interviews. No one except for the student herself, the interpreter and the student’s supervisor will have access to personal data and will ever know who you are. It will not be possible to recognize you from what you have said in the final thesis.

The project is scheduled for completion by 01 September 2018. At that point, all personal data and recordings will be anonymized.
Voluntary participation
It is voluntary to participate in the project, and you can at any time choose to withdraw your consent without stating any reason. If you decide to withdraw, all your personal data will be made anonymous.

The study has been notified to the Data Protection Official for Research, NSD - Norwegian Centre for Research Data and is with support of the Solidarity Fund of the Autonomous University of Barcelona.

If you have any questions about the research project or require further information you may contact the following:

Student Researcher: Beth Roseman                     Supervisor: Dr. Wim Hoppers
Telephone number: 0988141128                      Telephone number: +31655901400
Email: BethRoseman22@gmail.com                     Email: wimhoppers@yahoo.com

Consent for participation in the study

I _________________________________________, have received information about the
"What is Effective Teaching? Perceptions and Practices of Ethiopian Teachers" project
conducted by Beth Roseman and am willing to participate. My signature below indicates my
consent.

☐ I consent to audio recording the interview
☐ I do not consent to audio recording the interview

(Participant Signature)                                   (Date)
አንዴ ይህ መሆን የምግባባት ያሆናል ጥላቸው ጋር ይህ ከመስጠት የህን የታቀዯዉን ይሆናል። ይህ ለቃሇሌ ከማይፈፀም በትምህርት የስሇመሳተፍ ተሇይቶ ይችሌም። ከማንኛዉም ያላልች ግን የሆነ የሚያመሊክት ያለች በሚስጥር የእርስዎን የስሙ የማንም ያስተቀር የማህበረሰቡ ተካል የማይፈፀም በትምህርት የስሇትምህርት ከሇማጣራት የዉጤታማ ይጠይቃሌ። ይህ ለሆነ ከማይፈፀም በትምህርት የስሇትምህርት ከሇማጣራት የዉጤታማ ይጠይቃሌ።

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Appendix 3: List of Documents for Analysis

List of documents reviewed:

- Official documents issued by the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE) or the Ethiopian Ministry of Education (MOE) (after 1994):
  - FDRE (1994b). Education and Training Policy
  - MOE (2002). The Education and Training Policy and Its Implementation
  - MOE (2002). Education Sector Development Program II
  - MOE (2005). Education Sector Development Program III
  - MOE (2010). Education Sector Development Program IV
  - MOE (2013) National General Education Inspection Framework
  - MOE (2015). Education Sector Development Program V
  - MOE (DATE). National Professional Standards for Teachers
  - LRD. (2006 E.C.). Content and Pedagogic Standards for Teachers (Licensing and Relicensing) for Grade 1-8

- Addis Ababa Education Bureau (2015). Education Sector Development Program V.
Appendix 4: Interview Guide for National Policy Makers (NPM), Regional and Local Education Officers (REOs and LEOs)

Introduction
- Researcher (and translator, if required) thank interviewee for their participation and assure them how valuable their honest opinion and information are to the research
- Ensure consent form is signed before the session begins
- Introduce researcher (and translator, if required)
- Reminders:
  - Participation is voluntary, and one can choose at any time to withdraw consent without stating any reason
  - You can refuse to answer
  - The information is confidential
  - Personal information of informants and the tape recording will be stored securely and separately
  - It is possible to contact the research any time after the research (contact details are on the information form)
- Briefly explain the study, its purpose and objectives
- Anticipated length of interview is 30 minutes to 1 hour
- Collect personal information and after with interviewee consent switch the voice recorder on

Questions
A. Background Information
- Please tell me a little bit about yourself and your work.
- What are your responsibilities?
- Tell me about education in [Ethiopia/Addis Ababa/ this sub-city/woreda].

(To NPMs & REOs)
- To what extent is the Regional Bureau of Education able to make decisions that are different from the Federal Education policy and decisions?
- How are teacher education institutions (TEIs) governed?
  - What is their relationship with the government?
  - What level of education is required for upper level primary school teachers?
  - What is the selection criteria and requirements of the (pre-service) program?
  - (Ask after B questions) Are policies taught/incorporated into the TEI programs? Which ones and why?
  - (Ask after C questions) What are prospective teachers (teachers in training) taught about effective teaching in TEIs?

(To LEOs)
- What is your relationship with the (regional education bureau, sub-city/woreda, other sub-cities/woredas)?
- To what extent are you able to make decisions which are different from other [sub-cities/woredas]?
- What is your relationship directly with primary schools?
B. Concept of effective teaching and how it relates to Ethiopia

- What is your understanding of ‘effective teaching’?
- Is there a policy on effective teaching, on how teachers can and should teach effectively? If so, what is it called? Please describe it to me.
- Whose voices were involved in (the development of) the policy?
- Are you familiar with the National Professional Standards for Teachers?
  - Do you know if colleagues or teachers in your [region/sub-city/woreda] are familiar with them?
  - [If unfamiliar] What guidelines or standards for effective teaching do teachers follow?

C. Implementation

- How is this policy implemented?
- What are the challenges, if any exist, in implementation? And why?
- What changes, if any, should there be to the policy?

D. Changes & Suggestions

- How can Ethiopia produce and retain more effective teachers?
- What changes, if any need to take place for this to happen?
- How do you support teachers to be effective?
- What resources are available to help teachers teach effectively? (e.g. in-service trainings, workshops, new teaching aids, extra materials, incentives)

E. Conclusion

- Is there anything else you would like me to know? Do you have any questions for me?

Conclusion

- Thank interviewee for sharing his or her opinion
- Reminder that the information will be handled confidentially and that they will not be recognizable in the thesis
- The final thesis can be sent to you if interested
Appendix 5: Interview Guide for Additional Informants
Representing a Teacher Education Institution (TEI) and the Ethiopian Teacher’s Association (ETA)

Introduction
- Researcher (and translator, if required) thank interviewee for their participation and assure them how valuable their honest opinion and information are to the research
- Ensure consent form is signed before the session begins
- Introduce researcher (and translator, if required)
- Reminders:
  - Participation is voluntary, and one can choose at any time to withdraw consent without stating any reason
  - You can refuse to answer
  - The information is confidential
  - Personal information of informants and the tape recording will be stored securely and separately
  - It is possible to contact the research any time after the research (contact details are on the information form)
- Briefly explain the study, its purpose and objectives
- Anticipated length of interview is 30 minutes to 1 hour
- Collect personal information and after with interviewee consent switch the voice recorder on

Questions
A. Background Information
- Please tell me a little bit about yourself and your work.
- What are your responsibilities?

(For TEI)
- How is the TEI governed?
- What is the TEI’s relationship with the government?
- What level of education is required for primary school teachers to teach grades 5-8?
- What is the language of instruction of pre-service (initial) teacher training?
- Do you train teachers for both government and private schools?
  - [If not] How are private school teachers trained?

(For ETA)
- Describe how ETA works, how it’s run and if teachers are required to join.
- Do teachers themselves feel adequately represented?
- There is a new teacher licensing system in Ethiopia, what is teachers and your opinion of it?

B. Concept of effective teaching and how it relates to Ethiopia
- What is your understanding of ‘effective teaching’?
- Is there a policy on effective teaching, on how teachers can and should teach effectively? If so, what is it called? Please describe it to me.
- Whose voices were involved in the development of the policy?
• Are you familiar with the National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST)?
  o Do you know if colleagues or teachers are familiar with them?
  o [If unfamiliar] What guidelines or standards for effective teaching do teachers follow?

(For ETA)
• Does the ETA have an official opinion/statement or document on what they think is effective teaching?

C. Implementation
• What are the challenges in implementation? And why?
• What changes, if any, should there be to the (policy/standard/guideline)?

(For TEI)
• Are the standards (NPST) taught to students?
• How are teachers here taught to be effective?

D. Changes & Suggestions
• How can Ethiopia produce and retain more effective teachers?
• What changes, if any need to take place for this to happen?
• How do you support teachers to be effective?
• What resources are available to help teachers be more effective? (e.g. in-service trainings, workshops, new teaching aids, extra materials, incentives)

E. Conclusion
• Is there anything else you would like me to know? Do you have any questions for me?

Conclusion
• Thank interviewee for sharing his or her opinion
• Reminder that the information will be handled confidentially and that they will not be recognizable in the thesis
• The final thesis can be sent to you if interested
Appendix 6: Interview Guide for School Administrators and Teachers

Introduction
- Researcher (and translator, if required) thank interviewee for their participation and assure them how valuable their honest opinion and information are to the research
- Ensure consent form is signed before the session begins
- Introduce researcher (and translator, if required)
- Reminders:
  - Participation is voluntary, and one can choose at any time to withdraw consent without stating any reason
  - You can refuse to answer
  - The information is confidential
  - Personal information of informants and the tape recording will be stored securely and separately
  - It is possible to contact the research any time after the research (contact details are on the information form)
- Briefly explain the study, its purpose and objectives
- Anticipated length of interview is 30 minutes to 1 hour
- Collect personal information and after with interviewee consent switch the voice recorder on

A. Background Information
- Please tell me a little bit about yourself and your work.
  - [If in a private school] Why did you choose to work in a private school?
  - [If private and previously worked in government] What are some of the greatest differences you’ve seen between government and private schools?
- What are your responsibilities as an (administrator/teacher)?
- Why did you become an (administrator/teacher)?
- Do you like being an (administrator/teaching)? Why or why not?
- What are your professional goals?
  - Do you still hope to be an (administrator/teacher) in 5 years? 10 years?
- Tell me about your school (resources and infrastructure, student background, etc.)
- How do approach student behavior and discipline? (For Teachers)
  - If there is a student misbehaving in class, how do you handle it?
  - Do you reward well behaving students? (If yes) How?
- How do you engage with your student’s parents? How often?
- How (do you evaluate teachers/are you evaluated as a teacher)?
- How often (do you observe teachers teaching/are you observed teaching) in the classroom?
  - What do (you/they) observe (look for)?
  - Do (teachers/you) receive feedback afterwards? (For Teachers)
    - Who observes you?
    - Is the feedback helpful?
- What benefits do you receive as an (administrator/teacher)? (Besides salary?)
(For School Administrators)
- What responsibilities do teachers have in your school?
- Is there a school mission or vision statement? If so, what is it?

(For Teachers)
- Do you have responsibilities outside the classroom? If so, what are they?
- What are your strengths as a teacher?
- What are the areas you need to improve in as a teacher?
- What is your greatest achievement as a teacher?
- How do you evaluate students?
- How do you think your students perceive (like) you? Why?
- Have you taken the new licensing exam?
  - What is your opinion of the test?

B. Concept of effective teaching and how it relates to Ethiopia
- What is your understanding of ‘effective teaching’?
- Is there a policy, standard or framework on effective teaching, on how teachers can and should teach effectively? If so, what is it called? Please describe it to me.
- Whose voices were involved in (the development of) the policy?
- Are you familiar with the National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST)?
  - Do you know if other teachers in your school are familiar with the NPST?
  - [If unfamiliar] What guideline/standard (for effective teaching) do teachers follow?

C. Implementation (Effective Teaching in the School)
- How is this (policy/standard/guidelines) implemented?
- What are the challenges in implementation? Why?
- What changes, if any, should there be to the (policy/standard/guideline)?
- Is there effective teaching in your school? Why or why not?
- What effective teaching practices and methods do (teachers/you use) (or should use) in the classroom?
- How are (teachers/you) supported to be effective?
- What resources are available to help (teachers/you) become more effective?

(For Teachers)
- Is your teaching effective? Why?
- Did you take teaching courses, on how to teach, at university/college?
  - Did your college/university teach you how to effectively teach?
  - Who taught you (specific course or professor)?
  - What did you learn?
- How has your effectiveness changed over the course of your career?
  - What factors have helped you change and improve your classroom practice?

D. Changes & Suggestions
- How can Ethiopia produce and retain more effective teachers?
  - What changes, if any need to take place for this to happen?
- Are you involved in decisions and policies about effective teaching or other education issues? If so, how?
  - How do other school staff and teachers contribute?
• If you could make recommendations to the school administration, woreda, sub-city, Regional Bureau of Education or Ministry of Education about effective teaching, what would you suggest?

E. Conclusion
• Is there anything else you’d like me to know? Do you have any questions for me?

Conclusion
• Thank interviewee for sharing his or her opinion
• Reminder that the information will be handled confidentially and that they will not be recognizable in the thesis
• The final thesis can be sent to you if interested
Appendix 7: Focus Group Discussion Guide

Introduction:
- Researcher and translator thank people for attending and assure them how valuable their honest opinions and information are to the research
- Introduce researcher and translator. Briefly re-explain the study, its purpose and objectives
  - The purpose of this focus group is to gather information that will help us understand effective teaching in Ethiopia. The focus group will last for roughly 1 to 1.5 hours. Drinks and snacks are available. Please help yourself anytime
- Ensure consent is received before the session begins

Reminders:
- Participation is voluntary, and one can choose at any time to withdraw consent without stating any reason
- The information is confidential. Names and personal information of informants and the tapes will be stored securely and separately
- You can refuse to answer
- It is possible to contact the research any time after the research
- Briefly explain what a focus group is and how it will be conducted
  - Value and function of focus group discussions
  - Not interested in consensus but hearing everyone’s opinions
  - Do not wait for the translation to the researcher but carry on the discussion
- Laying Ground Rules
  - Each of your perspectives is important and we need to make sure that everyone gets a chance to express their opinions. So, it is important that only one person speaks at a time. If several people want to speak, please raise your hands and the researcher or translator will decide who will speak first. If you have not had an opportunity to provide your perspective, I may call on you.
  - There are no “wrong” answers to any of these questions. We are interested in hearing your perspectives as teachers.
  - Please do not have quiet discussions with each other during the session
  - Please switch off or silence your mobile phones
  - Please respect confidentiality to people outside the focus group. This is a safe space and our conversation should not leave the room
  - We will tape this focus group and transcribe the tape. When needed, fictional names will be used instead of your real names.
- After the group accepts, switch the voice recorder on

Please briefly present yourself (without saying your name): grade level and subject(s) taught

Questions:

Private and Government Schools
- To begin, please discuss why you chose to work at a (private/government) school.
- Why did you not want to work at a (private/government) school?
- What are the differences between private and government schools?

Effective Teaching: Perception & Factors
How would you define or describe ‘effective teaching’?

I. Practices and Methods
- Which practices and methods of effective teaching work best in your classroom? Which do not work well?
- What effective teaching methods and practices would you suggest other Ethiopian teachers use in their classroom?
- Are there effective teaching practices and methods that you would like to try in your classroom or have access to? What would those methods allow your students to do or do better?
- Sometimes student-centered and teacher-centered approaches are used to describe effective teaching. Please discuss how you think they play a role (if they do) in effective teaching.

II. Resources
- How do resources (and school infrastructure/facilities) impact effective teaching?
- Please describe the resources that are available to help you effectively teach.

III. Support
- How does support impact effective teaching? [Support from other teachers, administration, government, college/university, and others]
- Please describe the type of support that best helps you learn about and improve on effective teaching.
- How could the school, government, college/university or others meet your support needs?

III. Relationship with Administration and Other Teachers
- How does a teacher’s relationship with their school administration impact effective teaching? What about a teacher’s relationship with other teachers?
- How are relations with the school administration here?
- Do you feel supported by the school administration? Respected? How do you think other teachers in the school feel?
- How are relations among teachers here?
- Do you feel supported by other teachers? Respected? How do you think other teachers in the school feel?

IV. Curriculum
- How does the classroom curriculum impact effective teaching?
- How do you feel about the Ethiopian government primary school curriculum?
- How do you feel about your school’s specially designed curriculum?
- What suggestions or changes would you recommend making to (either) curriculum?

V. Class Size
- How does class size impact effective teaching?
- Do you think the class sizes in your school are conducive for effective teaching?

Are there other major factors that impact effective teaching? Is yes, what are they and how do they impact effective teaching?
Effective Teaching Policies, Standards, and Frameworks
Please discuss any Ethiopian effective teaching policy, standard, or framework that you know of.

- Do any exist? If so, who wrote them (what level of government)? What do they say?
- Do you think teachers are familiar with these policies, standards, or frameworks? If you think they are not familiar with them, why do you think they do not know about them?
- Should there be a policy, standard, or framework on effective teaching (that teachers know about and follow)?

Ethiopia Retaining and Producing More Effective Teachers
Please discuss how Ethiopia can attract more people to the teaching profession and produce and retain effective teachers.

I. Salary
- Salary has been brought forward as a factor to effective teaching. How can Ethiopia make the salary more attractive?
- Is it realistic that Ethiopia, with roughly half a million teachers, increases the salary?
- When was the last time the salary for teachers was increased?
- Are there other benefits the government could provide teachers to make the profession more attractive?

II. Respect
- Respect towards the teaching profession in Ethiopia has been said that it is low. What can be done to increase the respect of the teaching profession? What can be done other besides increasing salary?

Finally, please discuss teacher’s involvement in policy and decision-making. Are teachers currently involved? If so, how? If not, should they be? How should they be involved?

Concluding Questions
- What recommendations would you make to the school, woreda, sub-city, regional education bureau or Ministry of Education regarding effective teaching?
- Is there anything else you would like to share with us?

Conclusion:
- Thank everyone for coming and sharing their thoughts and ideas. It has been a pleasure and is truly appreciated.
- The final thesis will be sent to your school director and can be made available directly to you if you provide your email address.
Appendix 8: Classroom Observation Guide

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-Observation</th>
<th>Physical Environment</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lesson Plan:</td>
<td>PTR:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Desks:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seats:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arrangement:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Features (decorations/illumination/sound):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching &amp; Learning Materials/Resources:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Started on Time:</th>
<th>Time Spent on</th>
<th>Lecturing:</th>
<th>Individual Work:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ended on Time:</td>
<td>Copying Notes:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Group Work:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Questions #Asked by Students:  
Amount + Types of Questions (product, process, difficulty level):

Variety of Students Called On:

Student Engagement in Answering:

Length of Pause After Question:

Response to student’s answer (affirmation, correction, or redirection):

Teaching (Lesson Structure & Organization)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Review</th>
<th>Teaching (Lesson Structure &amp; Organization)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Material</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice/Activity</td>
<td>New Material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Practice/Activity (Individual, Small Groups or Whole Class)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies, Methods (Direct Instruction vs. Student-centered) &amp; Resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion (Assessment? HW?)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Classroom Management

Student Behavior and Discipline (preventative vs. reactive):

Pacing Smoothness & Momentum:

Classroom Climate (teacher enthusiasm and support, positive expectations)  
Inviting (mutual respect, positive relationships):

Task-oriented (definite goals to pursue, held accountable & time spent work towards them)

Well-organized (objectives, goals, expectations, structure)

Student Observations:
Appendix 9: Sign-In Form for Informants

This form will be used to collect personal information from interviewees for Beth Roseman’s master thesis fieldwork.

Before we begin the interview and start the tape recording, I would like to ask you some personal questions about your background. It is not mandatory to give information that you do not want to share. All information will be handled confidentially. It will not be possible to recognize you in the final thesis.

Gender: ________ Age: ________

[For teachers add:]

Subject: __________________________ Grade(s): ________ Workload: _________________

Years’ experience: ______________________

Educational level: ______________________

College/University: ______________________

Employment background:

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
Appendix 10: Figures of Quality and Effective Teaching in Ethiopian Policy Documents

Figure 1: ESDP V

Structure of components that contribute to improving the quality of general education
Source: Federal Ministry of Education (2015, p.56)

City Government of Addis Ababa ESDP V
Priority Program/PP2: Improving Quality in General Education

Component 1: School Improvement Program (SIP)
Component 2: Teachers Development Program/TDP/Implementation
Component 3: Curriculum Teaching and Learning Materials
Component 4: Strengthening of Mathematics, and Science Education/SMASE/
Component 5: Leaders and Management Program/LAMP/
Component 6: Information Communication Technology/ICT
Component 7: Quality Assurance

(CGAAEB, 2015, p.49)
**Figure 2: The National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOMAINS OF TEACHING</th>
<th>STANDARDS</th>
<th>Elements &amp; Performance criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Professional Knowledge | 1. Know students and how they learn  
2. Know the content and how to teach it | Refer to the standards at each career stage |
| 2. Professional Practice | 3. Plans for and implement effective teaching and learning  
4. Create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments  
5. Assess, provide feedback and report on student learning | |
7. Engage professionally with colleagues, parents/care givers and the community | |

The correlation between domain and standards  
Source: (Ministry of Education, 2012, p.8)

**Standard 3.** ‘Plans for and implement effective teaching and learning’ is composed of the following ‘descriptors’:

3.1 Establish challenging learning goals  
3.2 Plans, structure and sequence learning programs  
3.3 Uses teaching strategies  
3.4 Select, prepare and uses resources  
3.5 Uses effective classroom communication  
3.6 Evaluate and improve teaching and learning programs  
3.7 Engage parents/care givers in the educative process (Ministry of Education, 2012 p.43-53)
Annex 11: Abbreviation Key for Recognizing Informants

For interviews, the first one to three letters represent the category of the informant. This may be followed by a dash (-) and three letters representing the location and then another dash with a number indicating the number of the interview with that kind of informant at that location. No number is included if there was only one interview conducted with that kind of informant at that location. For example, NPM-3 designates the third national policy maker and A-PLR the administrator from the private low-resourced school.

Focus group discussion follow the same formula, but the code will start with an FG for focus group. For example, FG-T-GHR-3 represents teacher number 3 from the government high-resourced school during the focus group discussion.

Informants:
NPM= National Policy Maker
REO= Regional Education Officer
LEO= Local Education Officer (inclusive of the sub-city and woreda level)
ETA= Ethiopian Teacher’s Association representative
TEI= Teacher Education Institution representative
T= Teacher
A= Administrator (principal or vice-principal)

Location:
GLR= Government low-resourced school
GHR= Government high-resourced school
PLR= Private low-resourced school
PHR= Private high-resourced school

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6 The abbreviation key has been adapted from Küspert-Rakotondrainy’s (2013) key for recognizing informants
### Appendix 12: Statistics of informants

<table>
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<tr>
<th>No.</th>
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<th>Category</th>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Gender</th>
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