

Teacher Training and Development in Ethiopia

Improving Education Quality by Developing
Teacher Skills, Attitudes and Work Conditions

Workneh Abebe and Tassew Woldehanna



Teacher Training and Development in Ethiopia

Improving Education Quality by Developing
Teacher Skills, Attitudes and Work Conditions

Workneh Abebe and Tassew Woldehanna

Teacher Training and Development in Ethiopia: Improving Education Quality by Developing Teacher Skills, Attitudes and Work Conditions

Workneh Abebe and Tassew Woldehanna

First published by Young Lives in October 2013

© Young Lives 2013

ISBN: 978-1-909403-16-1

A catalogue record for this publication is available from the British Library.
All rights reserved. Reproduction, copy, transmission, or translation of any part
of this publication may be made only under the following conditions:

- with the prior permission of the publisher; or
- with a licence from the Copyright Licensing Agency Ltd.,
90 Tottenham Court Road, London W1P 9HE, UK, or from another national
licensing agency; or
- under the terms set out below.

This publication is copyright, but may be reproduced by any method without
fee for teaching or non-profit purposes, but not for resale. Formal permission
is required for all such uses, but normally will be granted immediately. For
copying in any other circumstances, or for re-use in other publications, or for
translation or adaptation, prior written permission must be obtained from the
publisher and a fee may be payable.

Printed on FSC-certified paper from traceable and sustainable sources.

Funded by



Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the
Netherlands

Young Lives, Oxford Department of International Development (ODID), University of Oxford,
Queen Elizabeth House, 3 Mansfield Road, Oxford OX1 3TB, UK

Tel: +44 (0)1865 281751 • E-mail: younglives@younglives.org.uk

Contents

Summary	iii
The Authors	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
1. Introduction, methodology and objectives	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Methodology and data	1
1.3 Research questions	2
2. Teacher training and development programmes: review of literature and policy documents	2
2.1 Review of international education research on teacher quality	2
2.2 Teacher training policy in Ethiopia	4
2.3 Teacher training institutions	7
3. Findings	7
3.1 Teacher-related quality indicators and educational background of teachers	7
3.1.1 Pre-service training	8
3.1.2 In-service teacher training	9
3.1.3 Informal training and on-the-job teaching experience	12
3.1.4 Teacher motivation	13
3.1.5 School management, including instructional supervision	15
3.2 Major challenges for teachers' professional development	16
3.2.1 Teacher attitudes and behaviour	16
3.2.2 Community and parents' perceptions of the teaching profession	18
3.2.3 Teacher assignment/allocation	19
4. Conclusions	20

TEACHER TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN ETHIOPIA: IMPROVING EDUCATION QUALITY BY
DEVELOPING TEACHER SKILLS, ATTITUDES AND WORK CONDITIONS

Summary

Research evidence shows that various kinds of teacher training, capacity building and work experience have positive effects on education quality. Having well-trained and experienced teachers in schools is just as important as good education materials and good relationships between teachers and communities. However, children in rural Ethiopia face shortages of well-trained, experienced and motivated teachers. This paper seeks to understand the characteristics of teachers who teach the children in the Young Lives sample, the views of teachers and headteachers on the links between teacher quality and the quality of the education they deliver, and finally, the challenges that teachers in Ethiopia face in their attempt to provide a good education to the children they work with. The paper uses both quantitative and qualitative evidence from the first round of the Young Lives school survey carried out in 2010.

We begin with the argument that teacher training and development programmes and the presence of experienced teachers in schools should be included among the indicators of quality schooling. Using Young Lives school survey data, the paper empirically examines the degree to which factors such as teachers' own attitudes, school management and community perceptions impact on the quality of education. We find teacher motivation (material, financial, social, etc.) is just as important as teacher training in increasing access to quality education.

However, our findings emphasise the challenges inherent in assigning experienced teachers to remote schools where facilities and infrastructure are very poor. Consequently, the paper concludes that it is very difficult to provide access to quality education without properly managing factors related to teacher training and professional development, such as provision of well-run pre-service and in-service training plus continuous professional development focusing on content knowledge, pedagogy and language skills. Strengthening school-level management and promoting community participation in schools also reduces teachers' dissatisfaction and reduces the likelihood of their leaving the profession. Tackling all of these issues would improve the quality of education for children in rural Ethiopia.

The Authors

Workneh Abebe Yadete is an Education Researcher with Young Lives in Ethiopia and led the data collection for the first round of the Young Lives school survey in 2010 and coordinated the development of questionnaires for the second round in November 2012. He has also worked for five years as Managing Director of SOS Enfants Ethiopie. His research focuses on the educational experiences of pre-primary and primary-school-age children.

Tassew Woldehanna is Associate Professor at the Department of Economics, Addis Ababa University and Principal Investigator of Young Lives, Ethiopia at the Ethiopian Development Research Institute (EDRI).

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge Angela Little and Caine Rolleston for their critical review of this paper. We also thank Laura Camfield and Kate Orkin for their role in coordinating the Young Lives school survey, and Asmelash Haile and Mahderekal Fisseha who assisted in running the school survey. We acknowledge data collectors and translators for their involvement in data collection, transcription/translation and data coding. We thank the students, teachers and headteachers who participate in Young Lives education research.

We wish to thank the external reviewers for their helpful comments and Isabel Tucker for copy-editing the report. However, responsibility for errors is ours.

About Young Lives

Young Lives is an international study of childhood poverty, following the lives of 12,000 children in 4 countries (Ethiopia, India, Peru and Vietnam) over 15 years. www.younglives.org.uk

Young Lives is funded from 2001 to 2017 by UK aid from the Department for International Development (DFID), and co-funded by the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs from 2010 to 2014.

The views expressed are those of the author(s). They are not necessarily those of, or endorsed by, Young Lives, the University of Oxford, DFID or other funders.

1. Introduction, methodology and objectives

1.1 Introduction

Investment in human capital through training and educational programmes is seen as a determinant of the increase in the value of that capital. It is widely recognised that the quantity and quality of human capital accumulation are essential determinants of the productivity of any economy. To maximise the usage of human capital in an increasingly technological work environment, training is believed to be critical (MDHE 2007). But this requires the provision of quality education at all levels of a school system.

Teacher quality and availability are among the determinants of quality education. Though teacher quality is very hard to measure, certain observable teacher characteristics such as qualifications, experience, training, salary, subject specialisation and incentives can be used as proxies for quality (Rockoff 2004).

The issues of education quality in general and teacher training and development programmes in particular have remained a huge challenge for the Ethiopian education system for many years. However, following the introduction of the new Education and Training Policy and Education Sector Strategy in 1994 (TGE 1994), the Ministry of Education has designed and implemented a series of Education Sector Development Programmes (ESDP I, ESDP II, ESDP III and ESDP IV). The issue of quality is emphasised more in ESDP IV (MOE 2010a) which focuses on (1) improving student achievement, (2) designing new programmes to help disadvantaged children, (3) developing the capacity of the system, and (4) improving school management and administration. In 2010, the Government also launched the General Education Quality Improvement Program (GEQIP) with the objective of improving the delivery of quality education in five key areas (World Bank 2008): (1) curriculum, textbooks and assessment, (2) teacher development, (3) school improvement, (4) management and administration, and (5) coordination and monitoring and evaluation.

This paper is organised as follows. Section 1 introduces the paper and deals with the objective, methods and data used in the study. Section 2 reviews background literature and Ethiopian education policy, plans and achievements. The findings are described in Section 3. Section 4 provides concluding remarks.

1.2 Methodology and data

Young Lives, a 15-year international study of childhood poverty, tracks the lives of 12,000 children in Ethiopia, Peru, India (in the State of Andhra Pradesh) and Vietnam, investigating how government policies and other factors affect the lives of these children as they grow up. In Ethiopia the study follows 2,000 children born in 2000–01 (the Younger Cohort) and 1,000 children born in 1994–95 (the Older Cohort). In addition to the main survey, which is being conducted every three to four years from 2002 to 2016, Young Lives has also been carrying out a school survey, which consists of a quantitative survey and in-depth qualitative studies of children's educational access and the quality of the education they receive, based on the views of the children, headteachers and teachers. Its main focuses are to understand children's educational experiences and long-term expectations, as well as to observe the

interplay among government/other organisations, teachers, communities and parents in providing education at school level.

This paper uses qualitative data collected through in-depth interviews with 53 classroom teachers (33 rural and 20 urban) and 20 headteachers (10 rural and 10 urban), as well as descriptive statistics from the quantitative survey of 120 schools attended by 1,120 of the Younger Cohort and 770 of the Older Cohort Young Lives children. During the school survey, the Younger Cohort children were 9 or 10 years old while the Older Cohort were 15 or 16 years old. The quantitative school survey covered 543 teachers and 120 headteachers. The in-depth qualitative data help to deepen the understanding of the quantitative responses, and offer new or additional insights which had not been available through quantitative data.

While the school component quantitative survey covers all rural schools and 40 per cent of urban schools attended by Young Lives children in Ethiopia, the qualitative education data were collected from schools in five of the 20 sentinel sites surveyed by Young Lives.

1.3 Research questions

The main objective of the paper is to investigate the indicators related to teacher quality that emerge from our research, with particular focus on training and development, and how they contribute to improvements in the quality of education in schools attended by Young Lives children. We then identify and examine the related challenges. The paper addresses the following three research questions:

- What are the characteristics of teachers who teach Young Lives children in Ethiopian schools?
- What are the views of teachers and headteachers about the links between teacher quality and education quality?
- What challenges do teachers face in an attempt to provide children with quality education?

2. Teacher training and development programmes: review of literature and policy documents

In this section, we review international literature on teacher quality and whether and how it improves the quality of education. We also attempt to review some Ethiopian national policy documents on teacher training and professional development to understand the main policy directions and strategies for improving teacher quality.

2.1 Review of international education research on teacher quality

Currently, education is considered to be one of the most important contributing factors to the economic growth of any nation. Access to quality schooling has central significance for national development. Most parents recognise that quality education can determine the

future life course of their children and is a very important factor in increasing their choices. Many parents invest in their children's education, expecting that quality education will bring significant transformation in their personal and social development (Serbessa 2009).

Researchers assert that the availability of well-trained teachers, through pre-service teacher training, in-service professional development and the informal training obtained through on-the-job experience, is central to improving the quality of education at both primary and secondary levels in many countries (Harris and Sass 2006; Mpokosa and Ndaruhutse 2008). Content-focused teacher professional development is thought to contribute to improvements in the quality of education (Harris and Sass 2006). The presence of trained schoolteachers is also considered to be one of the critical elements in achieving the Millennium Development Goals and Education For All goals (Mpokosa and Ndaruhutse 2008). So, proper schooling cannot be conceived without the presence of qualified teachers.

Ankomah et al. (2005) argue that schools without trained teachers cannot do their job effectively. This is because teachers play a pivotal role in educational provision and thus significantly affect education quality. The number of teachers available, the pupil-teacher ratios, and the personal characteristics of teachers are considered as markers of quality. The personal characteristics include academic qualifications, pedagogical training, content knowledge, ability/aptitude and teaching experience.

Some research (see, for instance, Creemers et al. 1989) shows that effective school organisation and leadership, and teachers' qualifications are valuable sources of success in children's learning. Studies in Asia, Latin America and Africa indicate that improvements in teaching and student outcomes are the function of multiple factors, including various kinds of teacher incentives, school management reforms and teacher personal characteristics. In particular, school-based management reforms that devolve decision-making authority to the schools have had important effects on teacher performance and student learning by making teachers more accountable to their communities. For instance, devolution of decision-making authority to schools in Central America has, in many cases, led to lower teacher absenteeism, more teacher work hours, more homework assignments, and better parent-teacher relationships. In some cases, these reforms can have a greater effect on student outcomes than increased rewards for teachers (Vegas 2007).

Teacher motivation and incentives are also key factors in the success and /or failure of teaching and learning. Mpokosa and Ndaruhutse (2008), who carried out research on teacher training and school management in 13 developing countries, found that the level and structure of teacher incentives greatly contribute to teaching quality and student achievement. According to them, incentive schemes must be tightly connected to the desired teacher behaviours, and should encourage teachers to make the extra effort. Other studies indicate the presence of poor teacher motivation in most of the sub-Saharan African countries. In Lesotho, for example, low salaries; lack of housing near the school; lack of financial benefits and poor condition of school facilities; low professional status; lack of opportunities for professional development; and poor school management and administration are important factors contributing to low teacher motivation (Urwick and Mapuru 2005). Studies in Latin America, Central and South Asia and Africa also show that different incentives such as wages, subsidies and merit-based pay and supplementary allowances, as well as management reforms, can improve teacher effectiveness (Vegas 2007).

Teachers' motivation can be affected by the quality of their professional relationship with their supervisors and with each other. Good management and collaboration among teachers can balance the effect of poor pay on motivation. Teachers' motivation is also influenced by

differences in standards and expectations. Better qualifications may cause teachers to have higher expectations (Urwick and Mapuru 2005) and therefore to be more motivated to produce high-quality teaching.

2.2 Teacher training policy in Ethiopia

Since the early 1990s the Ethiopian Government has had a clear policy on the importance of education for the development of the country and to reduce poverty. The focus of the education system as a whole is to provide equitable access to good-quality education in both rural and urban areas. Since 1994 the Government has committed itself to providing available resources with the goal of seeing all school-age children in school by 2015 (MOE 2005: 6). However, achieving these goals is not a simple task. Despite a huge increase in the number of trained teachers through both pre-service and in-service training programmes, there are still major shortages of trained teachers at all levels of the education system (Abebe 2008: 3).

Well-run teacher training programmes and well-managed schools that provide teachers with good work experience are expected to improve the quality of education. Good-quality teaching is also crucial. However, the Ethiopian Ministry of Education notes the presence of a huge gap in educational attainment and academic achievement among students, which is the result of lack of capacity (MOE and USAID 2008).

As already explained, the Government considers enhanced teacher training and development programmes to be a means of ensuring quality education. The first Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP I) considered the shortage of trained teachers as one of the major obstacles to providing quality education. By the beginning of the 1990s only 40 per cent of the teachers teaching at Grades 9–12 had a first degree, the qualification for teaching at this level (MOE 1998). During this period, general education was divided into three levels: primary (Grades 1–6), junior secondary (Grades 7–8) and secondary (Grades 9–12). Teachers needed to train for one year to get a teacher training certificate, which enabled them to teach at primary level; two years to get a diploma qualifying them to teach junior secondary students; and four years to get a degree, the qualification necessary to teach at secondary school (ibid.). ESDP I was designed to implement the major policy reforms outlined in the 1994 Education and Training Policy, which declared primary education to comprise Grades 1 to 8, divided into two cycles of equal length, and secondary education to comprise Grades 9 to 12 divided into two cycles of equal length (ibid.).

One of the most important issues outlined in the 1994 Education Sector Strategy was the development of a new career structure for teachers based on professional development, performance and experience. This was mainly to motivate teachers. Therefore, improving teacher training was one of the objectives of the ESDP I (MOE 1998). ESDP II (2002) considered teacher training and development programmes as a key element in the provision of equitable access to education. It gave emphasis to the expansion of teacher training colleges to train teachers for primary education through regular, distance and summer education (MOE 2002). ESDP III (MOE 2005) gave further priority to the standardisation of teacher training programmes. It states the mission of the education sector is:

To extend quality and relevant primary education to all school-age children and expand standardised training programs at all levels to bring about rapid and sustainable development with increased involvement of stakeholders (community, private investors, NGOs, etc).

(MOE 2005)

This was seen as a vital step towards improving the quality of education. Practically, this programme was planned to significantly increase the number of skilled teachers at the primary level (MOE 2005).

ESDP IV (2010–15) states that major investments in improving the number and qualifications of teachers would have a positive impact on the quality of schooling. It gives special emphasis to increasing the number of trained teachers (from 37 per cent to 60 per cent). It also focuses on improving student achievement by enhancing the teaching–learning process and by transforming schools into motivating and child-friendly environments (MOE 2010a).

To achieve this objective, teachers are expected to implement active learning and student-centred approaches in classrooms (MOE 2010a: 24). Zehie (2009), who carried out research on the attitude of Ethiopian teachers towards their profession, states that good-quality education requires qualified teachers and active learning methods. He reiterates that access to quality education is one of the basic rights of human beings, and is a key to the future mental and physical health and socio-economic situation of the children. He adds that when teaching methodology takes a student-centred approach, students can play a greater role in their own learning and knowledge construction. Ethiopia has been bringing in more active and student-centred learning since the introduction of the new education policy in 1994 (Zwiers 2007). The adoption of active learning and student-centred methods were also discussed in ESDP II (MOE 2002) and ESDP III (MOE 2005) as a means of giving more responsibility for learning and knowledge construction to students (Zwiers 2007) and promoting more independent learning (Zehie 2009: 89).

In 2003/4 Ethiopia introduced the Teacher Education System Overhaul (TESO) with a new curriculum promoting active learning and student-centred approaches. This curriculum was instituted in most of the teacher training institutions in the country (Amare 2006: 107). The aim was to replace the traditional teacher-centred approach with active learning, in which students can interact with teachers and other students (Serbessa 2009; UNICEF 2010).

However, researchers have identified major challenges to the implementation of student-centred teaching in Ethiopian schools. First, the curriculum was imposed from the top down. It did not consider comments from teachers, who are responsible for implementing the curriculum (Amare 2006). Secondly, the curriculum was developed based on western cultures and research, and was donor-driven. It did not consider traditional Ethiopian Church and Koran education, community and home-based informal education (including domestic and agricultural skills) and the values of the Ethiopian people (Zwiers 2007). Third, the deep-rooted Ethiopian tradition of using the lecture method, as well as a lack of institutional support and a lack of content knowledge on the part of many teachers have constrained teachers from applying this type of teaching (Serbessa 2009; UNICEF 2010).

Teacher-related indicators that are assumed to improve the quality of education include a relatively low pupil–teacher ratio, appropriate teaching methods, commitment from teachers, good qualifications and suitable teaching experience. The pupil–teacher ratio, in particular, is considered as one of the common indicators of education quality. In Ethiopia, it is also considered to be a critical indicator of quality throughout the country (MOE 2010b). Table 1 shows the targets set in ESDP III for pupil–teacher ratios and the percentages of qualified teachers in second-cycle primary schools and secondary schools, and indicates whether they were met in succeeding years. As the table shows, the pupil–teacher ratio at the primary level was 62:1 in 2005/6. The target set for 2009/10 during the period of ESDP III was 50:1. Correspondingly the ratios at secondary level were 57:1 in 2005/6 and 40:1 in 2009/10.

Table 1. *Targets for pupil–teacher ratios and percentage of qualified teachers in ESDP III (2005/6) by education level and actual levels in 2009/10 and 2010/11*

Indicator	Actual 2005/06	Target 2009/10	Actual 2009/10	Actual 2010/11
Primary pupil–teacher ratio	62	50	51	51
Secondary pupil–teacher ratio	57	40	36	31
% of qualified teachers (G5–8)	59.4	95	77.8	83.3
% of qualified teachers (G9–12)	49.6	88	77.4	86.7

Source: MOE 2006, MOE (2010b)

Although the Government targets for pupil–teacher ratios have been met, many children in Ethiopia are taught in very large classes. There are also still shortages of qualified teachers at all levels. In ESDP III, the qualifications required for first-cycle primary teachers were a minimum of Grade 10 general education plus a teacher training institute (TTI) certificate, while teachers in second-cycle primary schools were required to have a minimum of Grade 10 education plus a teacher training college (TTC) diploma, and secondary school teachers required a degree (BEd, BA, or BSc, all of which including some education courses).

Table 2. *Targets set in 2004/5 for qualified teachers in 2008/9, by education level, and actual levels (%)*

Level	Actual 2004/5	Target 2008/9	Actual 2008/9
Primary (G1–4)	97.1	99.8	90.0
Primary (G5–8)	55.0	87.0	71.6
Secondary (G9–12)	41.0	71.0	75.2

Source: MOE (2010b)

The targets for the proportion of qualified primary teachers in 2008/9 were 99.8 per cent for the first cycle of primary education and 87 per cent for the second cycle. Table 2 indicates the gaps between these targets and the status achieved by 2008/9. It shows that at the first and second cycles of primary education, the targets were not achieved. At secondary level, however, the target was surpassed.

Table 3 shows the annual changes in the proportion of qualified teachers at first- and second-cycle primary schools between 2005/6 and 2009/10. It indicates a sharp decline in the proportion of qualified teachers at the first cycle primary level in 2009/10. This decline is explained by a change in policy in 2010, whereby first-cycle primary teachers were required to have a diploma rather than a certificate.

Table 3. *Percentage of qualified primary school teachers 2005/6–2009/10 by gender*

Level	% of qualified teachers: TTI certificate and above				
	2005/6	2006/7	2007/8	2008/9	2009/10
First cycle (G1–4)	97.6	96.3	97.3	89.4	15.5
Male	97.2	96.4	97.0	90.8	14.6
Female	98.2	96.3	97.5	92.3	16.6
Second cycle (G5–8)	59.4	53.4	66.3	71.6	77.8
Male	58.6	52.2	64.1	69.6	82.4
Female	62.6	56.8	72.5	76.8	76.8

Source: MOE (2010b)

2.3 Teacher training institutions

Government documents indicate that by the year 2000/1, 96.6 per cent of teachers in the first cycle of primary education had TTI certificates. The remaining teachers only had secondary school certificates. Teachers who had graduated from the teacher training institutes were considered to be qualified to teach at this level. But only 23.8 per cent of teachers teaching in second-cycle primary education held diplomas that qualified them to teach at that level.

When ESDP II was designed in 2002, one of its focuses was to establish a school cluster approach, with the objective of enhancing teacher quality through continuous professional development (CPD) and training that focused on continuous assessment of teachers, student-centred teaching approaches and better classroom management skills (MOE 2002). The cluster approach was strengthened under ESDP III (MOE 2005).

Under ESDP II, the colleges of teachers' education (CTEs) were part of the higher education sub-sector. During ESDP III, the system was changed to a '10 + 3' diploma programme (Grade 10 plus a three-year diploma). The TTI certificate was no longer recognised under ESDP III. This meant that teachers who had TTI certificates were required to upgrade their qualifications through summer and distance-learning programmes, although they were still permitted to teach in first-cycle primary schools while they were doing this. This, plus the pre-service training for new teachers and in-service training for those who already had TTI certificates from summer and distance-learning programmes, contributed to an expansion of CTEs in the regions. By the end of ESDP III, 29 CTEs were giving three-year diploma training courses through regular, evening, summer and distance-learning programmes throughout the country (MOE 2005). Different departments have been operating under both linear and cluster modalities. The linear modality was to train teachers who are expected to teach in the second cycle of primary school, and includes Amharic, English, a local language, history, geography, civics, chemistry, biology, physics, mathematics, educational planning and management, adult and non-formal education, music, art, health, and physical education. The cluster modality was to train teachers who are expected to teach in first cycle of primary school. The subjects include: language, social science, natural science, mathematics and art and design (MOE 2010a).

3. Findings

In this section, the paper attempts to analyse the links between teacher quality and education quality. Specific discussion is made of teacher characteristics such as qualifications, training, experience and motivation. The paper also examines the extent to which factors such as teachers' own attitudes, school management and community perceptions impact on the quality of education.

3.1 Teacher-related quality indicators and educational background of teachers

During the Young Lives school survey, teachers and headteachers were asked about the qualifications they had completed, the kinds of training they had taken, their salary and other incentives, and the relationship between teachers and parents. In response, they mentioned teacher training, work experience, motivation and commitment as key to the provision of

quality teaching. Teacher training is central to the improvement of teaching and learning. It falls into three categories: pre-service training, in-service training (or CPD) and informal on-the-job training or work experience. Teacher motivation and teachers' own attitudes towards their profession can also be considered as important elements when we talk of teacher quality and better-quality education.

3.1.1 Pre-service training

Table 4 indicates the highest education and training levels achieved by the teachers in our sample. The data indicate that the percentage of teachers with a TTI certificate after completing Grade 12 takes the largest share of the first-cycle primary teachers, followed by the percentage of teachers who have a diploma in teaching (two years after completing Grade 12). The number of teachers with a diploma in teaching (three years after competing Grade 10) also took up a considerable share of the teachers (11.6 per cent). Similarly, 9.2 per cent of the teachers were found to have a bachelor's degree in education, which qualifies them to teach in secondary school. The two extreme cases of teachers' educational level were those who did not have any form of education after secondary school, some of whom did not even attend secondary school (1.1 per cent) and those who had a postgraduate teaching certificate (0.7 per cent). These teachers also teach in the first-cycle primary level.

Table 4. *Highest level of education and training completed by teachers in 2010*

Type of certificate awarded/Grade completed	%
Grade 8–Grade 11	1.1
Certificate (1 year after completing Grade 10) but not in teaching	3.5
Certificate (1 year after completing Grade 12) but not in teaching	4.1
TTI certificate (1 year after completing Grade 10, qualified to teach in first cycle of primary education)	8.8
TTI certificate (two years after completing Grade 10, qualified to teach in first cycle of primary education)	3.9
TTI certificate (1 year after completing Grade 12, qualified to teach in first cycle of primary education)	20.3
Diploma (three years after completing Grade 10) but not in teaching	3.9
Diploma (two years after completing Grade 12) but not in teaching	2.9
Diploma in teaching (three years after completing Grade 10, qualified to teach in second cycle of primary school)	11.6
Diploma in teaching (two years after completing Grade 12)	19.2
Advanced diploma (three years after completing Grade 12)	0.7
BA/BSc (three or four years after completing Grade 12) but not in teaching	2.8
BEd (three years after completing Grade 12, qualified to teach in secondary school)	9.2
BA/BSc (three or four years after completing Grade 12) and postgraduate teaching certificate (two years training)	0.7
Other (specified)	7.4
Total	100

N=543

Qualitative analysis highlights that a well-run and expanded pre-service college/university teacher training system makes a big contribution to the improvement of education quality. As teachers reported, many of the teachers in the first cycle of primary education (Grades 1–4) have graduated from CTEs. Teachers reported that the expansion of government CTEs greatly contributed to the improved training of skilled teachers for this level of education. As one teacher from a school in Addis Ababa pointed out, some years ago the CTEs provided

training only in three subjects: mathematics, basic science, and civics and ethical education; trainees did not take courses in English language or teaching methods. Recently, new courses in English language, natural science and social science have been included. Though this helps new graduates to improve their English-language skills, those teachers who were already working in schools continued to struggle to teach English.

To teach in upper primary (Grades 5–8) and secondary (Grade 9–12) education, teachers are expected to have a diploma and a first degree respectively. As discussed in ESDP IV (MOE 2010a), the Ethiopian Government has worked hard to provide schools with trained teachers for these levels. The expansion of universities in recent years has played a significant role in this.

One of the major challenges for teachers at both primary and secondary level is a lack of pedagogical knowledge, particularly about applying student-centred methods of teaching. One headteacher in a rural school in Amhara region said that most of the teachers in his school were not skilled enough at making teaching more active and child-oriented. As a result, he was planning to organise training on student-centred teaching as part of the school's CPD. A headteacher from a school in Addis Ababa also reported that his school gave significant attention to CPD and induction programmes to implement active learning in classroom. He said:

Improving the quality of teachers is very important to implement active learning in classrooms. Many of the teachers in this school had already been involved in teacher development programmes. As part of continuous professional assessment, they were involved in learning and evaluation programmes. In addition, teachers have taken short training courses organised by the local government administration in collaboration with NGOs. These short courses were focused on pedagogy and teaching methods.

In general, the teachers and headteachers believed that various kinds of training had greatly contributed to improving teacher quality. As one headteacher from a school in Hawassa reported, 'training improves the quality of teachers' work'.

3.1.2 *In-service teacher training*

In-service teacher training is another key to improving teacher quality. In most cases, it seeks to enhance teachers' skills and attitudes through various teacher development programmes delivered as summer programmes, distance learning, etc. Table 5 indicates that around 74 per cent of the teachers in the schools in our sample have participated in school-based CPD. However, the numbers are not as high for participation in training courses organised by regional education bureaus or the Ministry of Education although the majority of the teachers (60.7 per cent) have had the chance to participate in this training.

Table 5. *Teachers' participation in in-service training in 2010*

Type of training	%
School-based CPD	74.3
Training organised by Regional Education Bureau or Ministry of Education in the last five years outside school compound	60.9

N=548

Table 6 presents the main types of CPD undertaken by teachers in our sample. As the table indicates, the first training course taken by 40.2 per cent of teachers was on new teaching

methods, while the next most popular course, taken by 23.6 per cent of teachers, was on subject-specific teaching methods. A total of 17.6 per cent of the teachers took the implementation of GEQIP as their first training course. Of the teachers who took a second training course, 20.9 per cent undertook training in new teaching methods. The proportion of teachers who took subject-specific teaching methods as their second training course was 20.2 per cent, the same as the share of teachers who chose to take a training course on GEQIP. Of the teachers who took a third training course, 22.6 per cent chose training on subject-specific teaching methods and GEQIP while 17.7 per cent of the teachers took courses in civil behaviour/ political orientation.

Table 6. *Types of training undertaken by teachers (%)*

Type of training	Course 1	Course 2	Course 3
Health of students, adolescence, HIV/AIDS	9.6	10.4	1.6
New teaching methods (e.g. active learning, using teaching-learning materials)	40.2	20.9	14.5
Subject-specific teaching methods (English, mathematics, other)	23.6	20.2	22.6
Working with students with special needs (students with disabilities)	2.3	7.4	9.7
Implementation of GEQIP	17.6	20.2	22.6
Civil behaviour/political orientation	5.0	11.7	17.7
Other (please specify)	1.7	9.2	11.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of observations	334	193	76

Table 7 shows teachers' perceived improvement in their teaching as a result of various training courses. The question presented to the teacher was 'Did the training enable you to improve your teaching?' The table indicates that among the teachers who had taken their first training course, 94.5 per cent thought that the training had helped them to improve their teaching skills. The proportion was slightly higher for the teachers who had taken their second training course, at 98.4 per cent, while all the teachers who had taken their third training course thought that the training had enabled them to improve their teaching skills. Since a second (or third) course builds on the first (or second) courses, the courses taken by teachers have cumulative effects on their teaching skills.

Table 7. *Teachers' perceived improvement in their teaching as result of training courses*

Training course	Teachers perceiving an improvement in their teaching as a result of training course (%)
Course 1	94.5
Course 2	98.4
Course 3	100

Qualitative interviews with teachers and headteachers show that teachers are very interested in upgrading their skills and qualifications, mainly through summer programmes, distance learning and scholarship opportunities. The teachers also reported that there were teachers

who attended diploma/degree courses in private colleges though in different fields of study than in teaching. In-service teacher training programmes included workshops, conferences and short courses, for example, in English, and there were training courses organised by the schools focusing on teaching methods, particularly for newly recruited teachers. According to a headteacher from one school in Addis Ababa, experienced teachers provided training on teaching methods to newly recruited teachers. This headteacher told us:

New teachers improve their teaching skills by learning from experienced ones. For example, in this school, experienced teachers gave training to 17 new teachers. They gave the training by organising the trainees into a group of five members. The training is based on teaching methods and the process of teaching. It is also part of experience sharing between the experienced and newly recruited ones. There are also training [courses] organised by non-governmental organisations (NGOs). This also helps teachers to improve their teaching skills.

One of the teachers also reported how in-service training had helped him and his colleagues to improve their teaching skills.

I have only seven months of teaching experience. I was involved in two training courses organised by the woreda education office. One was on the school improvement programme. The other was on pedagogy. The trainers gave us some methodological courses. It also included experience sharing with each other. Those teachers who have long years of teaching experience share their way of teaching. I have learned a lot from them. There were teachers who had never been introduced to teaching pedagogy. They were very happy to have participated in such training, which they agreed to apply in their teaching.

When asked how the school improved the quality of its teachers, a teacher from one urban school in Oromia region reported that his school provided training on government education policies such as GEQIP, ESDP IV, etc., and on how to ensure good-quality education. He added that the school management had organised meetings every 15 days for teachers to share their experiences.

However, there are teachers who struggle to upgrade their skills and teaching qualifications for various reasons. First, the selection criteria for training courses are perceived by teachers as too unclear to give equal opportunities to all the teachers. Experience is one of the criteria. As one teacher reported, he had been asking the school administration to give him the opportunity to upgrade his qualification from a diploma to a degree for the last four years but the school refused his request, explaining that he had to serve in the school for at least four full years.

I want to improve my educational level but I am afraid I have not had the opportunity in the past four years. I believe that improving my qualification would help me to improve my performance. However, unless I provide teaching service for four years, I cannot upgrade my qualification.

(Teacher from a rural school)

Therefore, the Government prioritises training more experienced teachers. This would appear to be a correct strategy but as one teacher pointed out, it is also harmful for a large number of teachers who have been recruited in recent years. As a result a considerable number of teachers have been forced to upgrade their professional skills through costly private colleges. Fifteen teachers involved in the qualitative interviews (over a quarter of the

sub-sample) had made their own efforts to improve their knowledge and skills in private colleges. Learning in private colleges was expensive for the majority of the teachers, whose salaries are too low to cover their needs. When asked what personal efforts she has made to improve her qualifications, a female teacher from a rural school in Oromia said:

I graduated with a certificate from a government teacher training institute some years ago. Then I continued my diploma in a private college. It cost me 10,000 birr to complete the two-year programme. Now, I am attending a degree programme in the private college. I have managed to improve my qualifications by my own efforts while I have been earning 500 birr per month. The Government has not helped me to upgrade myself. I will continue to improve my educational qualification.

Second, there are teachers who do not want to stay in the teaching profession. They are waiting for an opportunity to change their profession. Thus, they do not want to upgrade their skills and qualifications in teaching. As a first-cycle primary teacher from a school in rural Tigray explained, many newly qualified teachers are sent to remote rural areas where there are no facilities and no infrastructure. It takes a long time to get transferred to a better school. This is a particular challenge for female teachers. As a result teachers decide to change their profession. One said, 'I do not want to upgrade my qualifications in education as I want to change my profession.' Another teacher from a school in Addis Ababa reported dissatisfaction arising from a low salary as a reason not to upgrade his skills and qualifications.

3.1.3 Informal training and on-the-job teaching experience

Teaching experience can increase teachers' effectiveness. The school survey indicated that the average number of years the teachers in our sample had worked at their present school was 4.85. In addition, the average number of years teachers had worked in other schools before transferring to their current schools was 6.59 years.

Table 8. *Teacher experience*

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
At the end of this school year (2002 E.C.), ^a for how many years will you have been a teacher in this school?	0	35	4.85
For how many years were you a teacher at previous school(s) before you came to this school?	0	37	6.59

N=548

a EC = Ethiopian calendar. The corresponding year in the Gregorian calendar was 2010.

The qualitative data revealed that experienced teachers played important roles in delivering quality teaching. As one teacher reported, teaching is itself a learning experience. Though the rapid expansion of primary schools in the rural areas demanded a large number of newly qualified teachers, many of the long-serving teachers are still working in the system, mainly in the second-cycle primary schools. Headteachers were asked how students could derive more benefit from the more experienced teachers. They responded that since experienced teachers had already developed good teaching skills and knowledge, these would have a positive influence on students' achievement.

Our qualitative data also indicate that many primary school teachers have not taught the subjects in which they specialised and had experience. Sometimes, they were forced to teach subjects with which they were not familiar. One teacher from a rural school in Tigray

reported that he had 29 years of experience and had specialised in teaching social studies at primary level. However, over the past four years he had taught mathematics. He was assigned to teach mathematics because of the shortage of mathematics teachers in his school. However, he believed that he could not be effective in teaching mathematics, and that this could adversely affect students' performance.

3.1.4 *Teacher motivation*

One of the key indicators of teacher quality that has emerged from this research is the importance of teacher motivation in improving education quality. As one headteacher asserted, motivation not only helps teachers to stay in the profession, it also encourages them to continually improve their qualifications, teaching skills and knowledge.

Interviews with teachers have revealed the importance of financial incentives, material benefits and non-financial rewards as important motivators. Teachers thought that lack of motivation and interest in teaching were partly a result of low salaries, especially given their level of responsibility. Most teachers work extra hours without compensation. Through continual evaluation by the students and parents, teachers are rewarded with certificates, notebooks and other things. However, certificates of recognition are awarded on the basis of student evaluations, which are open to bias. One teacher from a rural school in Amhara explains how these non-financial rewards work in his school.

Firstly, teachers are evaluated monthly, quarterly and annually, taking into account the amount of responsibility given to them. Then, teachers who have scored good performance would be introduced to the community, students and other teachers in a meeting. Once comments are obtained from these stakeholders, they would be awarded certificates and notebooks. There are no financial incentives at the school level. Financial incentives are given at the woreda level after teachers from all government schools located in the woreda have been nominated.

Teachers also said that money and material benefits could not be the sole motivators for a teacher. Since a teacher is the main agent to develop the minds of students, teachers should be interested in teaching for its own sake and should be enthusiastic, even passionate, about their profession. Some teachers added that motivation could be the result of different kinds of rewards: material and financial rewards and recognition from the community, as well as personal interest in teaching. One teacher from Hawassa City Administration said that a well-motivated teacher prepares him/herself well for lessons. This has a direct positive impact on students' enthusiasm and performance.

In rural schools, motivation is also associated with the possibility of securing a transfer from the poorly resourced schools to those with better facilities and infrastructure. It is also connected with promotion to the level of unit leader or headteacher, though many teachers did not want promotion to the level of headteacher since this post requires political affiliation with the governing party. Some teachers also complained that sometimes promotion was based on either personal connections or the number of years of experience, and that the qualifications, efficiency and effectiveness of the teacher were not taken into consideration. One teacher said:

Someone can be given a better position simply because of friendship or long years of teaching experience while there are teachers who have shown a high level of efficiency and performance in teaching and extra-curricular activities.

Though they are not common, scholarship opportunities are considered by teachers to be an important instrument to encourage teachers to perform well.

The qualitative data indicate that school-based and locally administered reward systems, as well as community recognition, play a part in motivating teachers to make an effort to perform better and develop professionally. One teacher from a rural school in Amhara explains how his personal efforts have contributed to his effectiveness in teaching so as to get good rewards from the school, communities and the *woreda* education office.

My personal efforts to improve my qualifications and education performance have helped me to win different kinds of rewards. I was awarded with certificates of recognition from this school a year ago. I expect similar awards this year as well. Moreover, I have received a letter of appreciation from the *woreda* education office. While I was in my former school, the school and the local administration and community had awarded me with a certificate of recognition. I have also obtained the chance to continue my degree education, which I expect to complete next summer.

The school survey also confirms that although teacher motivation is an important element of teacher effectiveness, only 13.3 per cent of the teachers reported that they had received awards for good performance from their school in the previous year. Most teachers (70.6 per cent) reported having received a pension; 15 per cent had received a housing allowance and few (just 1.8 per cent) a transport allowance (Table 9).

Table 9. *Percentage of teachers who have received rewards and incentives*

Material incentives	%	Number of observations
Rewards for good performance last year in cash or in kind from the school	13.30	541
Pension from the school or the <i>kebele</i> in this school year (2002 E.C.)	70.60	537
Transport allowance from the school or the <i>kebele</i> in this school year (2002 E.C.)	1.80	541
Housing allowance from the school or the <i>kebele</i> in this school year (2002 E.C.)	15	541

Teachers also considered financial incentives for extra-curricular activities as an important motivator and a significant factor in encouraging them to teach well. Table 10 indicates that the percentage of those teachers who run clubs at the school but do not earn any income other than the salary they get from teaching is 61.21 per cent, while the percentage of teachers who run clubs at school and earn income other than their salary from teaching was found to be 6.25 per cent. These results indicate that teachers are either willing or forced to run clubs without any payment.

Table 10. *Extra-curricular activities and teachers' incomes (%)*

	Do you earn any income other than the salary you get from teaching?		Total
	No	Yes	
Do you run any clubs at the school (e.g. HIV/AIDS, girls' and women's rights, environment, sports?)	No	28.68	32.54
	Yes	61.21	67.46
Total	89.89	10.11	
Number of observations	489	55	

In addition to material and financial incentives, the location of their schools and the facilities in the workplace play significant roles in either motivating teachers to make extra effort or taking away their motivation. Both our qualitative and our quantitative analysis indicate that many teachers are unhappy with their deployment to places where they do not want to live and work. This may also be because there are no rewards or compensation for being in a challenging environment where there is poor infrastructure and limited resources. It seems that many teachers want to change their profession for the above reasons.

As Table 11 shows, almost half (46 per cent) of the teachers in our sample reported being afraid that they might be transferred to an area in which they did not want to live. Although almost three-quarters (72.9 per cent) felt 'acknowledged' for the work they did, around 40 per cent of them said that they would like to change career. Unsurprisingly the vast majority (86.1 per cent) of the teachers believed that their salary was inadequate.

Table 11. *Teachers' views of their work location, their career and their salary (%)*

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I am afraid that I might be transferred to an area where I do not want to live	23.7	22.3	14.2	23.6	16.1
I am limited in what I can achieve as a teacher because students' home circumstances are the main influence on their results	25.4	31.9	12	21.2	9.6
I receive acknowledgement for my work as a teacher	37.2	35.7	11.4	8.5	7.2
I want to change my career (i.e. do something other than teaching)	21.8	17.3	11.7	24.4	24.9
My salary as a teacher is not adequate	70.9	15.2	2.1	5	6.8

N=548

3.1.5 School management, including instructional supervision

Teachers and headteachers asserted that a good school administrator could mobilise school resources, including teachers, properly to improve education quality.

I believe that teaching is a good profession as it contributes to the human development of a nation. School management/supervision also greatly contributes to effective teaching and learning. But at the same time, it is a challenging task. You have to manage the behaviour of many teachers and students. Of course, you may not please them even if you work hard to bring changes.

(Headteacher in a rural school in Amhara)

The teachers thought that the headteachers managed the day-to-day activities of the schools poorly. Headteachers did not give attention to supervising how the teaching-learning process was carried out in the classroom. Rather they were preoccupied with more general activities in schools such as logistic and financial management and maintaining smooth relations with the *woreda* education bureaus. Some school directors are also given other local government assignments, which reduces their time for school management.

When we talk of improvements in student performance, it is important to look at how the schools manage the actual classroom activities such as whether the teaching–learning process is student-centred, the relationship between the teachers and students, and so on. Our data indicate that in remote rural schools, headteachers have not dealt with repeated teacher absence, have not supervised whether teachers finish courses during the year and have not prevented teachers from administering physical punishment. One of the main problems is the headteachers’ lack of capacity to manage the schools. In many aspects headteachers lead the school without having the knowledge and skills of education management and planning. Occasionally, promotion to the position of headteacher may even be politically motivated rather than on meritocratic. For example, one headteacher recalled that he was promoted to the position of headteacher without having managerial skills. As a result, he had faced huge challenges in leading the school. He said that he could not continue in his role unless he upgraded his qualifications in educational planning and management.

3.2 Major challenges for teachers’ professional development

3.2.1 Teacher attitudes and behaviour

The school survey invited teachers to offer their perceptions of the teaching profession. The majority of teachers expressed positive views of teaching.

When I was a student, my high school teacher once said ‘other people produce material products but teachers sow knowledge in the human brain’. So a teacher is the one to produce professors and doctors. A teacher always has a fresh knowledge. So, I want to stay in teaching and learning throughout my life. I will continue to learn and improve my ability.

(A headteacher from a rural school in Oromia)

Table 12 presents the teachers’ perceptions of their profession, showing their views on working hours, career development, promotion prospects and intrinsic rewards. It indicates that 72.2 per cent of the teachers believe that teaching offers reasonable hours despite extra-curricular activities, while 17.2 per cent of the teachers disagree with this. Similarly, 94.6 per cent of the teachers believe that teaching provides them with opportunities for professional and career development. Moreover, 95.5 per cent of the teachers think that the profession provides them with opportunities to assist in shaping the future of young people. Also 82 per cent of them believe that teaching provides them with the possibility for promotion.

Table 12. *Teachers’ perceptions of the teaching profession*

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Teaching offers reasonable working hours despite extra-curricular activities	29.8	42.4	10.6	12.2	5
Teaching provides me with opportunities for professional and career development	66.2	28.4	1.8	2.5	1.1
Teaching provides opportunities to assist in shaping the future of young people	72.6	22.9	3.2	0.4	0.9
Teaching provides possibilities for promotion	49.2	32.8	9.1	6	2.9

Neutral= neither agree nor disagree; N=548

Table 13 explores the relationship between the teacher's fear of transfer to an area in which they do not wish to live and the desire to change their career. Eight per cent of the teachers strongly agreed with both the thought that they might be transferred to an area where they did not want to live and the idea of changing their career. By contrast, 6.32 per cent of the teachers shared the fear but said they did not want to change their career.

Table 13. *The relationship between school transfer and career preference of teachers (%)*

I am afraid that I might be transferred to an area where I do not want to live	I want to change my career (i.e. do something other than teaching)					Total
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
Strongly agree	7.92	3.10	1.71	4.71	6.32	23.77
Agree	4.18	5.67	2.25	5.89	4.28	22.27
Neutral	2.68	2.78	2.68	2.57	3.43	14.13
Disagree	3.32	3.53	3.64	8.35	4.82	23.66
Strongly disagree	3.75	1.93	1.28	3.00	6.21	16.17
Total	21.84	17.02	11.56	24.52	25.05	100.00

N=542. Neutral= neither agree nor disagree.

Table 14 explores the relationship between teachers' views of their salary and their desire to change career. Close to 18 per cent of the teachers strongly agree that their salary as a teacher is not adequate and want to change their career. However, the same number disagree with the idea of changing their career even though they have indicated that their salary as a teacher is not adequate.

Table 14. *Adequacy of teachers' salary and their choice of career (%)*

My salary as a teacher is not adequate	I want to change my career (i.e. do something other than teaching)					Total
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
Strongly agree	17.67	12.53	8.46	14.45	17.67	70.77
Agree	1.61	2.78	0.96	6.75	3.10	15.20
Neutral	0.32	0.75	0.11	0.54	0.43	2.14
Disagree	0.43	0.64	0.96	1.28	1.71	5.03
Strongly disagree	1.61	0.75	0.96	1.39	2.14	6.85
Total	21.63	17.45	11.46	24.41	25.05	100.00

N=934. Neutral= neither agree nor disagree.

Many of the teachers and headteachers interviewed believed that teachers needed to love their job. And in principle, most agreed that the teaching profession was not inferior to any other field of endeavour, and also recognised that teaching was the basis of all disciplines. But in practice, many teachers wanted to move away from teaching, saying that their perception of the profession had changed over time. The main reasons given for their dissatisfaction was their perception that the government, and society at large, did not value the contribution that teachers, and education, made to the country's development. One teacher said parents looked down on teachers and refused to take their advice on the importance of sending children to school:

Parents do not give recognition to the teaching profession. They look down on teachers. They do not accept our advice when we try to make them aware of the importance of sending their children to school. The community as a whole has little respect for the teaching profession. It is also the least well-paid profession. As a result, I am not happy to continue in teaching.

(Teacher from a rural school in Tigray)

Another teacher from a rural school in Tigray confirmed how communities' and parents' attitudes towards teachers had made him dislike his profession.

I am very much proud of being a teacher but in this community, but the value of teachers is very low. Teachers are considered as beggars rather than a source of knowledge for their children because they beg parents, by going from house to house, to register their school-age children. Parents' awareness about the benefit of education is very low. Most of the community members accept the teachers with a bad face [i.e. they did not like being advised to enrol their children in school]. Parents' negative attitudes, coupled with low salaries and [a heavy] workload, make most of us dislike the profession.

Teachers also complained that their salary was still low compared with the responsibilities they were given. Schools do not consider the non-teaching diplomas/degrees of teachers when calculating their salary, and as a result a significant number of teachers do not want to stay in the teaching profession. In most schools (both rural and urban), teachers work extra hours. They coordinate student clubs; attend meetings on administrative issues; participate in parent-teacher associations (PTAs); campaign in the community to get children enrolled; provide tutorial classes, and so on. However, they are not given financial compensation for these extra activities.

3.2.2 *Community and parents' perceptions of the teaching profession*

The quantitative component of the school survey indicates that many of the teachers in our sample perceive that parents of students are supportive of their children's education.

Table 15 shows that nearly half the teachers (44.7 per cent) thought that the parents of the students they taught were supportive of their children's education while 38 per cent of them disagreed, which is a considerable amount.

Table 15. *Teachers' perceptions of parents' support*

	The parents of the students I teach are supportive of their children's education
Strongly agree	8.7
Agree	36
Neither agree nor disagree	17.3
Disagree	26.1
Strongly disagree	11.9
Number of observations	548

However, according to the qualitative survey, the interviews with teachers indicated that many parents and communities still did not give full recognition to teachers (see section 3.2.1. above). Though the Government's current policy gives special attention to the involvement of parents in schooling, parents' participation in school activities is still insignificant. Teachers and headteachers reiterated that particularly in the rural areas, people do not have positive attitudes towards teaching profession. One teacher reported what he feels as follows:

We go from home to home to register children who are not attending school [that year]. We also go around the villages to find students who dropped out in the middle of the year. We have to force the children to come to school. But in most cases, they do not come to school. We force farmers to send their children to school while they are more interested in using their children for family work. As a result we always get into conflict with parents. They do not give us recognition for our profession and efforts. That is why I feel unhappy with my job as a teacher now. I am teaching because I have no choice.

In newly opened schools, as one teacher reported, 'parents are not happy when teachers go to villages to campaign for the community to enrol their children. Some close their doors; others show very young children, hiding the school-age ones.'

3.2.3 Teacher assignment/allocation

As can be observed from Table 18, 37.2 per cent of the teachers in our sample were assigned to the schools they were currently working in without being given any opportunity to choose, while 62.8 per cent of the teachers asked to work in their schools.

Table 18. *Assignment of teachers to schools (%)*

	%
I requested to be assigned to this school	62.8
I was assigned to come to this school; I did not choose to come here	37.2

N=535

Teachers and headteachers involved in qualitative interviews reported that in rural areas, new and less experienced teachers are assigned to under-resourced schools without any extra pay or compensation, but these teachers were not happy to live in a poorly resourced environment where there are few facilities. The more experienced teachers are promoted to schools with better facilities and infrastructure. Thus, the newly established and poorly resourced remote rural schools are staffed by the newly qualified teachers. In most cases, there are no houses for them; they either have to live in the home of one of the villagers or travel long distances from the nearest town where they can rent a house. Lack of healthcare facilities and other infrastructure contributes to the increasing stress of these teachers, which may finally force them to leave the job. In these kinds of environment, it is difficult to provide quality education.

Moreover, though government policy on the expansion of pre-service training has greatly contributed to the deployment of large numbers of teachers at all levels; the number of qualified teachers has not satisfied the needs of the fast expansion of primary schools. This has been led to high student–teacher ratios, especially in rural areas. As already explained, in most rural schools one teacher teaches all subjects for Grades 1–4 ('self-contained' teaching) because of teacher shortages. The problem is not limited to large class sizes. In some cases, there are difficulties finding teachers for some of the subjects, mainly in second-

cycle primary schools and secondary schools. As already discussed, it has taken schools in our sample months to replace teachers when the existing ones have left or been transferred. One headteacher of a rural second-cycle primary school explained the problem in his school as follows:

In case of our school, we have a shortage of teachers. Especially, the school had no physics teachers. Even when teachers are assigned, they are transferred to another school without a replacement. So it is hard for students in Grades 7 and 8 to attend their class attentively. Teachers are replaced [only] after some months. I think it is distracting for the children when teachers are changing frequently.

There is a problem of getting replacements when the teacher is absent through illness or on maternity leave. This is a widespread problem in many rural schools, mainly self-contained ones. In second-cycle primary schools and secondary schools, teachers are trained in main and subsidiary subjects. So, they can minimise the problems arising from absence by substituting for each other. As one headteacher reported, a mathematics teacher took physics as a subsidiary subject. When the main physics teacher is absent, the mathematics teacher covers the physics class.

4. Conclusions

International research on education shows that better-qualified teachers and headteachers improve the quality of education. The creation of new universities and colleges of teacher education in recent years has led to a sharp rise in the number of qualified teachers, mainly for the second-cycle primary and secondary education levels. Despite the good progress observed in the number of qualified teachers, the shortage has remained a major challenge at all levels. The low percentage of qualified teachers (i.e. teachers with diplomas, as required following reforms in 2010) in the first cycle of primary education and the existence of some unqualified teachers in the second cycle of primary education implies that improvements are still needed.

Therefore, it is important to expand and strengthen the training of additional teachers through both pre-service and in-service teacher training programmes. It is also vital to strengthen the provision of training through evening, summer and distance-learning programmes. The opening of additional new universities/colleges and expansion of the existing ones will be a sound strategy to reduce the shortages.

One of the major challenges related to teacher training and professional development is that the training (both pre-service and in-service) has not given due emphasis to content knowledge and modern pedagogical styles. This makes the education system suffer from teacher-centred teaching. Teacher training institutions should equip prospective teachers with the pedagogical skills that enable them to provide active learning and child-centred approaches in schools. CPD should also focus on how to help teachers make classes more active and participatory.

The teaching–learning process would be more effective if teachers were committed, dedicated and motivated. This depends partly on the availability of incentives and good teacher management schemes. As reported by teachers, teacher motivation mechanisms are not well thought out in either rural or urban schools. Many teachers are not happy with the letter of recognition awarded to some teachers based on student evaluation as this

cannot be free from bias. A more transparent and fairer career structure might help to motivate teachers; currently the criteria for promotion and transfer are not clear for many of them. Financial and material incentives for good performance seem to be adequate in both primary and secondary schools but both rural and urban teachers believe that their salary and benefits are low in relation to the scale of their duties and responsibilities. Parents' and communities' awareness of the importance of quality education for the future life of their children is still found to be at a very low level. This is a particular problem in the rural areas. Parents and community members do not appreciate the importance of community support for teachers' work. Plus rural teachers teach in schools with shortages of facilities and poor infrastructure. In general, these factors combine to discourage teachers, and contribute to disillusionment with their profession and their choosing to leave.

Therefore, if we are to retain quality teachers and have an education system fit to contribute to Ethiopia's development, more effective and diverse teacher incentives need to be designed to increase the professional morale of teachers and headteachers. For example, there should be clear criteria for teachers' promotion, transfer and training opportunities. Also, teachers should not be overburdened with non-teaching activities, and if it becomes necessary for them to participate in some extra-curricular activities, they should be compensated. Plus teachers need to get a salary commensurate with the responsibilities expected of them.

Practically, it is important to increase and improve housing for teachers in remote rural areas. It is also important to give priority to the remote rural schools in order not to disadvantage them.

However, material and financial benefits cannot be the sole motivators for teachers. Teachers need to love their profession and career. They need to work hard to improve their performance through additional training and upgrading of their qualifications. Their attitude towards their profession partly determines the quality of their teaching.

Part of the teachers' attitude towards their profession is influenced by society's attitude towards them and the value of education. In this way, parents and other community members can play pivotal roles in school improvement and in motivating teachers to provide quality teaching to students. Parents also play a big role in achieving overall access to education, resolving equity issues and reducing drop-out. But this can be achieved only if parents and community representatives are more aware of the importance of education and the part teachers play in providing it. Therefore, greater efforts should be made to increase the participation of parents and community members in school activities, so creating a sense of ownership on the part of communities and establishing good partnership between teachers and communities. Through this process, community participation in schools could improve teachers' attitude towards their profession.

Good school management also helps to enhance teachers' motivation so the importance of qualified and experienced headteachers in improving teacher quality should not be overlooked. Headteachers should get proper training on how to manage, monitor and supervise the day-to-day activities of teachers in schools and classrooms, and should not be overburdened with non-school activities.

Improvements in education quality are not all down to the teachers and communities however. Greater investment by the Government and other stakeholders is needed to help improve the attitude of teachers towards their profession, to retain quality teachers, and to equip Ethiopia's children for the challenges of the 21st century.

References

- Abebe, Tatek (2008) 'Ethiopian Childhoods: A Case Study of the Lives of Orphans and Working Children', PhD Dissertation, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Trondheim.
- Addis Ababa Bureau of Education (2008) *A Revised Education Standard for Pre-schools and Primary Education*, Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa Bureau of Education.
- Amare, Solomon (2006) 'TESO Seen as a Strait-Jacket of Trendy Methodologies: Teachers' Perspectives', in Elizabeth Ayalew, *Proceedings of the Conference on Teacher Education for Sustainable Development in Ethiopia, 5–6 May 2006*, Addis Ababa: College of Education, Addis Ababa University.
- Ankomah, Yaw. A., Janet A. Koomson and Rosemary S. Bosu with George K.T. Oduro (2005) *A Review on the Concept of Quality in Education: Perspectives From Ghana*, EdQual Working Paper 1, Bristol: EdQual.
- Creemers, B., T. Peters and D. Reynolds (eds) (1989) *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, Amsterdam: Swets and Zeitlinger.
- Haladyna, T., J. Shaughnessy and J.M. Shaughnessy (1983) 'A Causal Analysis of Attitudes Towards Mathematics', *Journal for Research in Education* 14.1: 19–29.
- Harris, Douglas N. and Tim R. Sass (2006) *Teacher Training, Teacher Quality and Student Achievement*, Working Paper 3, Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data for Education Research, Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin.
- MDHE (2007) 'Mathematics in Missouri Report', *Missouri Department of Higher Education website*, <http://www.dhe.mo.gov/data/mathmissourireport.php> (accessed 15 January 2012).
- MOE (2010a) *Education Sector Development Program IV (ESDP IV)*, Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- MOE (2010b) *Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2008/09*, Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- MOE (2006) *Education Sector Development Program (ESDP) III*, Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- MOE (2005) 'Education Sector Development Program (ESDP-III), Final Draft,' Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- MOE (2002) *Education Sector Development Program II (ESDP II)*, Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- MOE (1998) *Education Sector Development Program I (ESDP I): Action Plan*, Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- MOE and USAID (2008) *Review of the Ethiopian Education and Training Policy and its Implementation*, Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education.
- Mpokosa, Chikondi and Susy Ndaruhutse (2008) *Managing Teachers: The Centrality of Teacher Management to Quality Education. Lessons from Developing Countries*, London and Reading: CfBT and VSO.

- Rivkin, S.G., E.A. Hanushek and J.F. Kain (2000) 'Teachers, Schools, and Academic Achievement', *Econometrica* 73.2: 417–58.
- Rockoff, J.E. (2004) 'The Impact of Individual Teachers on Student Achievement: Evidence from Panel Data', *American Economic Review Papers and Proceedings* 94.2: 247–52.
- Serbessa, Derebessa Dufera (2009) 'Quality of Teaching and Learning in Ethiopian Primary Schools: Tension Between Traditional and Innovative Teaching–Learning Approaches', <http://home.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/cice/e-forum/paper68.pdf> (accessed 11 September 2012).
- Transitional Government of Ethiopia (1994) 'Education and Training Policy', Addis Ababa: TGE.
- UNICEF (2010) *Child-Friendly Schools: Ethiopia Case Study*, Addis Ababa: UNCEF.
- Urwick, J. and P. Mapuru (2005) *Teacher Motivation and Incentives in Lesotho*, Maseru: Lesotho College of Education.
- Vegas, E. (2007) 'Teacher Labor Markets in Developing Countries', *The Future of Children* 17.1 'Excellence in the Classroom': 219–32.
- World Bank (2008) *General Education Quality Improvement Program (GEQIP): Human Development III*, Report No. 45140-ET, Country Department Eastern Africa 3, http://info.moe.gov.et/ggdocs/GEQIP_PAD.pdf (accessed 24 October 2012).
- Zehie, Jana (2009) 'The Educational Research in Teachers' and Future Teachers' Attitudes' in the *Proceedings of the First International Conference on Education Research for Development* Vol. II, Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University.
- Zwiers, Jeff (2007) 'Professional Development for Active Learning in Sub-Saharan Africa Reflectively Practicing a Community-Centered Approach', *Journal of Education for International Development* 3:1. 1–15.

Teacher Training and Development in Ethiopia: Improving Education Quality by Developing Teacher Skills, Attitudes and Work Conditions

Research evidence shows that various kinds of teacher training, capacity building and work experience have positive effects on education quality. Having well-trained and experienced teachers in schools is just as important as good education materials and good relationships between teachers and communities. However, children in rural Ethiopia face shortages of well-trained, experienced and motivated teachers. This paper seeks to understand the characteristics of teachers who teach the children in the Young Lives sample, the views of teachers and headteachers on the links between teacher quality and the quality of the education they deliver, and finally, the challenges that teachers in Ethiopia face in their attempt to provide a good education to the children they work with. The paper uses both quantitative and qualitative evidence from the first round of the Young Lives school survey carried out in 2010.

We begin with the argument that teacher training and development programmes and the presence of experienced teachers in schools should be included among the indicators of quality schooling. Using Young Lives school survey data, the paper empirically examines the degree to which factors such as teachers' own attitudes, school management and community perceptions impact on the quality of education. We find teacher motivation (material, financial, social, etc.) is just as important as teacher training in increasing access to quality education.

However, our findings emphasise the challenges inherent in assigning experienced teachers to remote schools where facilities and infrastructure are very poor. Consequently, the paper concludes that it is very difficult to provide access to quality education without properly managing factors related to teacher training and professional development, such as provision of well-run pre-service and in-service training plus continuous professional development focusing on content knowledge, pedagogy and language skills. Strengthening school-level management and promoting community participation in schools also reduces teachers' dissatisfaction and reduces the likelihood of their leaving the profession. Tackling all of these issues would improve the quality of education for children in rural Ethiopia.



About Young Lives

Young Lives is an international study of childhood poverty, involving 12,000 children in 4 countries over 15 years. It is led by a team in the Department of International Development at the University of Oxford in association with research and policy partners in the 4 study countries: Ethiopia, India, Peru and Vietnam.

Through researching different aspects of children's lives, we seek to improve policies and programmes for children.

Young Lives Partners

Young Lives is coordinated by a small team based at the University of Oxford, led by Professor Jo Boyden.

- *Ethiopian Development Research Institute, Ethiopia*
- *Pankhurst Development Research and Consulting plc*
- *Save the Children (Ethiopia programme)*
- *Centre for Economic and Social Sciences, Andhra Pradesh, India*
- *Save the Children India*
- *Sri Padmavathi Mahila Visvavidyalayam (Women's University), Andhra Pradesh, India*
- *Grupo de Análisis para el Desarrollo (GRADE), Peru*
- *Instituto de Investigación Nutricional, Peru*
- *Centre for Analysis and Forecasting, Vietnamese Academy of Social Sciences, Vietnam*
- *General Statistics Office, Vietnam*
- *University of Oxford, UK*

Contact:

Young Lives
Oxford Department of
International Development,
University of Oxford,
3 Mansfield Road,
Oxford OX1 3TB, UK
Tel: +44 (0)1865 281751
Email: younglives@younglives.org.uk
Website: www.younglives.org.uk