ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

An Assessment of the Quality of Education in Some Selected Private Higher Education Institutions in Addis Ababa

By: Tigist Belay

June, 2009
Addis Ababa

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A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Addis Ababa University in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Educational Research and Development in Institute of Educational Research

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am very much grateful and indebted to my advisor, Dr. Wanna Leka, for his unreserved and invaluable guidance, scholarly criticisms and constructive suggestions. His encouragement, patience and sincere concern made it possible for me to complete this study in time.

I am also indebted to convey my sincere thanks to the School of Graduate Studies for its research grant.

I am highly grateful to dear students, instructors and college managers of the six sampled institutions for sparing their precious time in filling out the questionnaires and participating in interview sessions. My heartfelt thanks also go to Ato Melhik Senai, Ato Yohannes Getachew, Ato Sirak Amare, Ato Elias Tadesse, Ato Yosef Eshetu and W/t Tigist Zeleke for their invaluable assistance during data collection.

Last but not least, I am greatly thankful to my family for their encouragement, prayers, patience and understanding from the beginning up to the completion of my graduate study.

Yet above all, I thank my Lord Jesus Christ who gave me strength and made all things possible.

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Acronyms

E.C.:	Ethiopian Calendar
ETP:	Education and Training Policy
FDRE:	Federal Democratic Republic Government of Ethiopia
HE:	Higher Education
HEI:	Higher Education Institutions
HERQA:	Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency
ICT:	Information and Communication Technology
IPO:	Input-Process-Output
MOE:	Ministry of Education
OECD:	Organization for Economic Development
PHEI:	Private Higher Education Institutions
SSR:	Student-Staff Ratio
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

Abstract

The study aimed at assessing the quality of education in private higher learning institutions in the context of Addis Ababa. It has attempted to assess the quality of education with reference to some of the input-process-output factors. The sample population was taken from six private higher learning institutions in Addis Ababa based on their fields of specialization. The institutions consist of two colleges majoring in business, two in ICT field and another two in medicine. The respondents were five administrators, 64 instructors and 277 students from the selected private colleges. The method of the research was descriptive survey. Questionnaires on four-point likert scale and interview checklists were used to gather data. Based on the data analyzed, the study concluded that 'input' factors such as instructors' incompetence and inexperience, inadequate educational facilities and infrastructures have negative impacts on quality of education. From the 'process' factors, the types of teaching methods employed by instructors, the teaching learning process, inadequate leadership capacity and incompetence of college managers and the irrelevance of the curriculum placed negative impacts on quality of education. From 'output' factors, students' insufficient development of necessary skills and knowledge and its subsequent effect on their employability and effectiveness in the world of work were found to place a negative impact on the dimensions of quality of education in the scope of higher education. Based on the conclusions drawn from the analysis, possible recommendations were forwarded.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The significance of higher education becomes paramount as knowledge increasingly plays a key role in fostering economic and social development. According to Bloom, D., Canning, D., and Chan, K. (2005), expanding higher education contributes to promoting faster technological catch-up, improving a country's ability to maximize output and decreasing the knowledge gap and poverty.

Many reports from the World Bank and UNESCO attribute to education an important role in determining economic growth. Studies have shown that there is a positive correlation between an increased access to higher education and economic growth as expressed by an increased per capita income and Human Development Index (UNESCO, 2003; World Bank, 2003). Strengthening this claim, Mankiw (2001) asserted that investment in human capital through education is at least as important as investment in physical capital for a country's long-run economic success. Therefore, an increased investment in higher education is believed to contribute significantly to the economic growth as well as social development of a country.

It is also claimed that investment in human resource development improves technological advancements and increases productivity. Kreuger and Lindahl (2001), in their analysis of the effect of education on productivity, also asserted that higher education intuitively and empirically has an important role to play in terms of the ability of workers and managers to use physical capital effectively and to generate and adopt new ideas and technology.

Therefore, developing higher education in Ethiopia, with a focus on quality, can be an important strategy to ultimately fight poverty, increase productivity and bring about social and economical changes in the country.

In the past, the expansion of higher education in most African countries, including Ethiopia, was possible only through the public universities, which nearly had a monopoly in providing higher education to pupils. Subsequent market-friendly reforms such as the privatization of public sector units, the encouragement of the private sector in the context of the globalization process created a stimulating environment for the emergence of the private higher education sector. The growth of the private sector has, therefore, been unique in most of the developing countries, particularly in Africa, in that most of the regions in this continent had very little or no private HE institutions until very recently (Obasi, 2007).

Ethiopia is one of the poorest nations in the world, with nearly 80 million population and yet growing at 2.63% per year. 80% of the labour force is engaged in agriculture, much of which is of subsistence nature (Wanna, 2007). The Government of Ethiopia has placed particular emphasis on education with the firm belief that the long term development of the country rests upon the provision and expansion of quality education (Ibid).

In Ethiopia, secular higher education was initiated only in 1950s with the founding of the then University College of Addis Ababa (Wagaw cited in Saint, 2004). Even though Ethiopia is said to have possessed a 1,700 year tradition of elite education which was linked to the Ethiopian Orthodox Church, no particular development was seen in terms of modern higher education until this period (Saint, 2004). In the following two decades after 1950, half a

dozen specialized technical colleges were established by the government to address training needs in agriculture, engineering, public health, and teacher education (Ibid).

According to the government's – Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP, 2005/6 – 2009/10), it was estimated that the country has to raise its economic growth rate to 8% annually to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDG). Accordingly, the current government of Ethiopia has come up with various policies among which is the Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1994. In this regard, since the introduction of the ETP, one of the most salient changes that took place was that tertiary level student population grew from 16,000 to 187,561 in 2003/04 (MOE in Wanna, 2007).

"Expanding standardized education and training programs at all levels to bring about rapid and sustainable development with increased involvement of different stakeholders" is one of the missions of the Ethiopian Education Sector (MOE, 2005). With this goal in mind, higher education is undergoing quite a transformation both in public and private domains. Considering those higher education institutions that offer three to six years undergraduate degree programs, two years Master's degree programs, and three years PhD programs, there were 22 such government universities (MOE, 2006), which were only two (Addis Ababa and Haramaya) until a few years ago. In all government universities, all diploma programs have been transferred to degree level in order to facilitate the expansion of degree enrolments. On the other hand, there are 51 Private Higher Education Institutions which have been fully accredited by and reporting regularly to the Ministry of Education (MOE, 2007).

The number of students in both public and private higher learning institutions has increased from 98,404 in 2003/04 to 270,356 in 2007/08 with an annual average enrolment growth rate of over 33% (MOE, 2007), which is regarded by many as one of the highest in the world.

Similarly, the enrolment for undergraduate degree in private higher education institutions increased from 3,741 in 2002/03 to 48,802 in 2007-08, which was a 38.4% increase in five years, accounting for 18.1% of the nation's gross higher education enrolments (MOE, 2007). Considering the fact that this figure was computed by taking the accredited and regularly reporting (to the MOE) institutions only, it could be speculated that the figure could have been much higher if the intake of unaccredited and non-reporting institutions had been considered. Some suggest that the figure may rise up to 30 per cent - a figure which is perhaps by any standard, the biggest for sub-Saharan Africa.

While the above-noted expansion of higher education in Ethiopia may be commendable, many believe that the issue of quality and relevance call for better attention and probing question. Many PHEIs around the world are characterized by "the tendency to serve mass higher education market and tend to be relatively non-selective" (Altbach, 2002). Critics assert that PHEIs are identified with low academic quality and hyper commercialism (Levy, 2002). For instance, Egyptian PHEIs are seen *"as a way to sell degrees to those who can afford them"* (Farag 2000, cited in Wondwosen, 2003, p. 16). Still some others argue that the distinctive feature of mass private sector is the accommodation of a large proportion of students in low-cost, low-quality institutions, created to absorb excess demand, with inadequate resources (*ibid*).

Massification of private higher education in Ethiopia, like its counterparts in many other parts of the world, has already exacerbated the problem of a lack of quality education. Esayas (2001) asserted that the Ethiopian higher education at present time is so beset with myriads of problems that it produces graduates with lack of confidence in their skill and knowledge. Amare and Temechew (2002) added that the profile of graduates from the different educational programs has also been under attack by employers and researchers and hence problem solving graduates were rarely observed in the Ethiopian context. Thus, one can clearly notice that the expansion of higher education, in both public and private institutions, have been tailored at the expense of quality.

In order to ensure a quality and relevant higher education system in the Ethiopian higher learning institutions, HERQA was formally established by the Higher Education Proclamation No. 351/2003 of the government of the Federal Republic of Ethiopia. One of the central roles of HERQA is to encourage and assist the growth of an organizational culture in Ethiopian higher education that values quality and is committed to continuous improvement. This body accredits private institutions, reviews the performance of both public and private higher education institutions and safeguards comparable standards of quality for degree programs in both public and private higher education.

To understand the issue of quality in education, education should be regarded as a system with all its interdependent components of inputs, process, and outputs. The assessment of a higher learning institution's performance consists of, therefore, the assessment of the input, process, and output factors (Bourn, 1992; Dochy & Segers, 1987; Fitz-Gibbon, 1996 as cited in Smeenk and Teelken, 2003). According to these authors, input factors include quality of

students' intake, instructors, institutional buildings, educational facilities and resources, etc Process factors, on the other hand, include the teaching-learning process, teaching methods, curriculum, and the overall interaction of inputs. Outputs include such factors as students' development of the necessary skill, knowledge and attitude, their efficient performance in the educational setting and once they are in the world of work.

From the above statement, it can be assumed that in order to provide the minimum required quality, institutions need to have the correct blend of all these elements (such as buildings, infrastructure, teaching and learning equipment, qualified academic staff, good curriculum, etc) working together in order to ensure employability and skillful performance of graduates.

Hence, the objective of this paper is to assess the quality of education being offered in some selected Private Higher Education Institutions (PHEIs) in Addis Ababa with reference to the above-stated input, process and output factors as well as the standards set by HERQA, and to forward possible measures that might be employed to improve the current quality-related problems.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Higher education in Ethiopia is experiencing problems expressed in the form of shortage of experienced academic staff, low-quality students, weak research output, and declining educational quality, among others. In spite of these problems, however, the higher education system in the country is rapidly expanding both in terms of number as well as student intake.

According to Varghese (2004), academic quality of education could be based on various factors, such as the level of infrastructural facilities, quality of programs offered,

qualification levels of teachers, performance of students in their evaluation while in the university, and their performance once on the labour market.

Hence, quality of education is greatly affected when its system encounters inadequate educational materials and facilities, inefficient management and administration, poorly trained teachers and working conditions, and less relevant curriculum and evaluation. In the words of Mwamwenda (1987:225), "provision of education with inadequate material, financial and human resources and with no adequate and efficient system of management and supporting services result in poor quality of education".

On the basis of the facts stated above, this study aims to assess and examine the quality of education being offered in some selected private higher education institutions located in Addis Ababa.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

In light of the above aims, the general objective of this study is to assess the level of quality education offered in selected private higher education institutions.

The specific objectives of the study are to:

a) Identify challenges that relate to quality education
b) investigate the causes of existing problems that impede quality of education in PHEIs;
c) assess to what extent quality of education is affected by educational inputs, process and outputs; and
d) determine factors that contribute to the improvement of quality education in PHEIs.

1.4 Research Questions

With the above objectives in mind, the study attempts to answer the following basic research questions:

1. From input factors, to what extent do academic qualifications and experiences of teachers affect the quality of education?
2. To what extent do poor teaching-learning facilities and resources affect the level of educational quality offered in PHEIs?
3. From process factors, how do the teaching methods used in the classroom affect the quality of education?
4. To what extent is the curriculum relevant to ensure the quality of education?
5. Do college managers have the necessary capacity to manage the institutions and achieve quality standard?
6. As indicators of output, to what extent are students gaining the necessary knowledge, skill and attitude to ensure employment after graduation?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study is significant in that it:

1. Creates awareness to planners, administrators, and practitioners in PHEIs so that they can assess their strengths and weaknesses in relation to educational quality.
2. Assists institutional administrators in understanding how best to allocate their resources for the improvement of educational quality.

3. Assists curriculum developers to maintain relevance of higher education according to the needs of society as well as the country.
4. Initiates other scholars to undertake a large-scale research works in areas of quality of education and its streams for the betterment of the education system as a whole.

1.6 Delimitation of the Study

The study involved some selected private higher education institutions in Addis Ababa where there is the largest number of PHEIs in the country. Because of their homogeneous characteristics in terms of factors such as quality of student intake, instructors, institution governance and ownership, etc., six PHEIs were believed to suffice for the study of this nature.

Furthermore, in each of the three quality assessment elements of input, process and output are included a number of factors by which quality is assessed. In this regard, the researcher believed that trying to address all the elements involved in the IPO model could make the research very wide and unmanageable. Thus, from *input factors*, competency, experience and qualification of instructors, educational facilities (such as classrooms, libraries, labs, buildings, etc) and instructional materials (such as reference materials, books, laboratory equipments, and computers) have been given major emphasis. The *process factors* that were taken into consideration include the teaching/learning processes, teaching methods used, curriculum's relevance and academic management's competency. As indicator of *output*, students' development of the necessary skill, knowledge and attitude, and employability of students after graduation have been discussed.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The study had the following limitations:

- From the Input-Process-Output Model, in-depth study could not be carried out on the 'Output' element (i.e., sampling and contacting already graduated students and employers to find out the graduates' actual performance in the world of work). Since doing so definitely needs a lot of time and budget, the study was restricted to finding out respondents' belief and opinion on this issue.
- Two private colleges that the researcher contacted in advance changed their decision and were unwilling to participate in the study saying the issue was 'highly sensitive'. Hence the researcher had to look for other private colleges.
- Refusal of the college managers to be recorded during interview session was another challenging factor, which forced the researcher to solely depend on taking notes.

However, the researcher exerted all possible efforts to make the research as effective as possible.

1.8 Operational Definition of Terms

- **Class size**: refers to the number of students assigned in a specific class under the direction of specific teacher.
- **Higher Education**: means tertiary-level education in colleges and universities which involves three to four years of study leading to an undergraduate degree award, two years for a Master's degree, and three to five years for Ph.D level qualification.

- **Massification**: means the development of mass higher education characterized by a shift from access to higher education by small, elite groups to expanded public in order to absorb existing excess demand.
- **Private Higher Education Institutions**: are those institutions which are non-government and offer undergraduate degree programs and above, and whose ownership largely comes from private investors.
- **Quality education**: means an education that enables institutions to produce the required human power in the country which benefits the learner as well as all stakeholders.
- **Quality indicators**: are the benchmarks with which we can systematically assess the quality of education.
- **Stakeholders**: means all those groups who have some kind of interest in the overall education system, its process and outcomes.

CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews secondary data sources from books, journals, annual reports, proceedings, government publications, and annual abstracts and discusses the governing principles of quality in education.

2.1 Higher Education

The term higher education is used to distinguish courses of study, which result in the award of an undergraduate degree or any higher advanced qualification for various kinds of further education (Lawton and Gordon, 1993). On the other hand, tertiary education, which is broader in scope than higher education, includes all education above the level of secondary school given in colleges, universities, graduate schools, professional schools, technical colleges and normal schools (Good, 1997).

Higher education is said to impart the deepest understanding in the minds of students, rather than the relatively superficial grasp that might be acceptable elsewhere in the system. In higher education, nothing can be taken on trust and the students have to think for themselves so as to be able to stand on their own feet, intellectually speaking (Barnett, 1997).

Higher education plays a vital role in the development of society. There is a worldwide recognition that centers of higher learning such as universities and colleges are powerful institutions for raising the technological and economic levels of society. A World Bank report (2002) states that the most successful discharge of any university's role as an agent for change is in the area of science and technology.

In addition, it is now well accepted that higher education institutions have, in different ways, always contributed to the economic development of society, but the technical role of this level of education in terms of preparing high quality human resources for industry has become more heavily emphasized in recent years (McCarthy, 1997).

The private rate of return on higher education in Asian countries was estimated at an average of 18 percent, which in Africa the figure was at 32 percent. For developing countries as a whole the average remained at 22 percent. In contrast, in developed countries, the private rate of return ranges from 40% to 52%. The social rate of return for higher level of education has been estimated at about 13 percent, and investment in college education has been confirmed to pay off handsomely and also to contribute to a country's economic growth (McCarthy, 1997).

Thus it can be inferred that the sole purpose of higher education is to meet the socio-cultural and developmental needs of a country. Higher education provides an opportunity of developing potential in an individual and fulfils the needs for high-level manpower in a society.

2.2 The Importance of Higher Education

Higher education is recognized as a capital investment. Investment in education is considered investment in human capital and it increases labour productivity; furthers technological innovation and produces a rate of return markedly higher than that of physical capital. Today we find the world divided into developed and developing countries. The dividing line between them is the capacity of educational and scientific attainments and its application for economic progress and prosperity (Bloom et al., 2005).

According to the World Bank's publication (2002), the development of higher education is correlated with economic development: enrolment ratios in higher education average 51 percent in the countries which belong to the OECD, compared with 21 percent in middle-income countries and 6 percent in low-income countries. Estimated social rates of return of 10 percent or more in many developing countries also indicate that investment in higher education contributes to increases in labour productivity and to higher long-term economic growth, which are essential for poverty alleviation.

Bloom et al. (2005) claim that higher education has become central to the economic well being of nations and individuals. The qualities of mind that it develops will be the qualities that society increasingly needs to function effectively. Knowledge is advancing so rapidly that a modern economy depends on its ability to generate that knowledge, engage with it and use it effectively. The gap between developed and underdeveloped economies is mainly due to the difference of educational and scientific development. University education thus is the means to attain this development.

Universities are recognized as centers of higher learning and potent agents of development in nation building. They are important in terms of generation of knowledge, dissemination of knowledge, and utilization of knowledge. Agarwal (2006) points out that they are primary contributors to economic growth being a source of new scientific knowledge; its technological applications, and by training scientists and technicians.

It is observed that higher education has become more important, and in particular the quality of education is critical to national development. The problem with developing countries including Ethiopia is that they have given a relatively low priority to higher education. The

present deteriorating standards of higher education in the developing world might be due to past neglect and ill-conceived policies.

The World Bank (2000) states that "without more and better higher education, developing countries will find it increasingly difficult to benefit from the global knowledge-based economy" (p. 83). The report makes a pertinent note that developing countries will either compete in the knowledge economy or "face a future of increasing exclusion".

2.3 Privatization and Private Higher Education Institutions

Two trends that characterize major changes in higher education are privatization and the emergence of the private sector in higher education (Varghese, 2004). Privatization implies applying private sector or market principles in the operation and management of the institutions whose ownership once belonged to the public domain. The private sector, on the other hand, indicates the growth of the non-state sector in higher education (Varghese, 2004). In most cases, private sectors do not receive funding from government, nor do they rely on state funding for growth and expansion.

Traditionally, colleges and universities were regarded as experiences for an elite few. Besides, public universities had a sole monopoly of providing higher education in almost all of African universities until only a few years ago (Maitra, 2007). As the movement away from public financing toward private financing increased along with demand for higher education, higher education increasingly became a normal part of the educational experience of larger and more diverse student population.

The Driving Forces for Private Surge

Studies across regions of the world indicate that there are both internal and external driving forces of the private surge in higher education (see for instance, Altbach 2000; Levy 2002; Mabizela 2007; Teshome, 2007). These studies and many others reveal a wide range of experiences, which revolve around the combination of internal and external driving forces of the private surge in higher education.

The primary factor fueling the private higher education revolution is massification – a worldwide phenomenon that has placed unprecedented demands on academic system and governments worldwide. As the inability of public universities to cope with increasing demands for admission became apparent, higher education went on from being the experience of a small preserve of the elite class to a mass system. As Levy (2007) observes, the most commonly acknowledged major cause of private higher education growth globally is the surge in demand for higher education. The demographics of higher education have changed substantially over time including above age 25 students, women students, working adults, etc. As a result, these groups of students have come to be excellent candidates for enrolments in private higher learning institutions.

Second, the inability of the governments to fund expansion has contributed to the privatization of higher education. Damtew and Altbach (2003) have noted that excess demand has been created as a result of shortage of state funds to meet rising demand for HE in Africa. This, in turn, has led to the establishment of private higher institutions.

The third internal driving force is related to the continuous falling standards in public universities. Maitra (2007) notes that public higher education institutions in many developing countries have been subjected to greater criticism than in the past on issues varying from low productivity and high cost to the quality of education, leadership and the inadequacy of technology use. This incident has been regarded as an invitation to a private sector that rightly or wrongly sees higher education as the next health care industry.

The external driving forces are rooted in the prevailing neo-liberal economic policies and globalization. The context of globalization has put pressure on national higher education systems to provide competent human resources to live up to the challenges of knowledge based economies. Simultaneously, it puts pressure on governments to allow free trade on goods and services which include higher education services. Globalization, therefore, has broadened the scope of HE with regard to curriculum as well as its structural organization in the privatization process of the sector (Obasi, 2007).

The other external driving force that is spurring the spread of privatisation in higher education is the rise of an information-based economy (Altbach and Levy, 2005). In this age of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) revolution, the sources of wealth come from knowledge and communication rather than merely natural resources and physical labour. The New Economy puts a premium on intellectual capital and the people who produce it. Thus, due to these driving forces, the demand for higher education increases dramatically, which in turn creates a favourable condition for private HE institutions to expand.

2.4 Brief Historical Overview of Private Higher Education in Ethiopia

2.4.1 Emergence and Proliferation of PHEIs in Ethiopia

The increasing social demand for higher education and the demand for a different type of education led to initiating policy measures encouraging the private sector in many countries, which used to have a virtual monopoly of public higher education institutions (James, 1991).

As is the case in most African countries, the 1990s saw the emergence of private sector institutions in Ethiopia. Materu (2007) points out that the de-regulation policies under the structural adjustment programs of the government, the fiscal incapacity of the state to expand higher education through public universities, and the inability of public universities to respond immediately to household demand for certain market-friendly courses led to a movement towards increasing social demand for private higher education.

The first government higher education institution in Ethiopia, the University College of Addis Ababa, was established in 1950. In spite of the country's need to expand the higher education sector, little progress was made in the subsequent 50 years. Until 1995, for example, there were only two public universities and sixteen affiliated and independent junior colleges in the country. Recently, following the government's decentralization effort to expand the higher education system in regional states, more universities were added increasing the total number of universities to twenty-two..

According to Teshome (2007), private or non-governmental higher education institutions in Ethiopia emerged largely from language schools and computer training centers. The first private and non-governmental higher education institutions: Alfa Distance Education

College, Ethiopian Adventist College and Harar Sewotch-le-Sewotch Technical College started diploma level training in 1996. Since then, and especially since 1998, there has been an increase in the number of private institutions providing for tertiary level education.

Table 1: Growth Rates of PHEIs in Ethiopia

Establishment Year*	Number of institutions established	%
1988	1	1.37
1989	1	1.37
1990	1	1.37
1991	8	10.96
1992	7	9.59
1993	7	9.59
1994	19	26.03
1995	29	39.72
Total	***73***	***100.00***
Growth Rate (%)	*5.2*	

* Year in Ethiopian Calendar

Source: Ethiopian Investment Office cited in Wondossen, 2003

As shown in Table 1, the year 1991EC has shown a dramatic upsurge in the number of institutions, which began operations. A similar increase has also been noted again in 1994 and 1995 EC.

This upsurge has also been confirmed in the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP III) report of the Ministry of Education which states that "following the government's plan to encourage private investors in tertiary education, currently there are 73 diploma and 34 degree offering private institutions, which are pre-accredited and accredited by the Ministry of Education" (MOE, 2005).

2.4.2 Patterns of Course Offerings in Private HE Institutions

The public universities are large institutions offering courses in a variety of subject areas. While the academic programs of study and courses offered in public universities in general are decided by the academic interest and advances in frontiers of knowledge (Varghese, 2006), the purpose of establishment and orientation of the operation of private universities is different from that of public universities.

Many writers (see Varghese 2006; Levy 2008c, Altbach 2002; Mabizela 2007) agree that a majority of private HE institutions tend to be narrower in scope and offer courses in subject areas that require limited investment in infrastructure. Varghese (2006) for instance asserts that the courses in humanities, socials sciences and business-related fields demand fewer facilities than science, engineering and medical areas.

The courses offered in private universities in most African countries reflect either a commercial consideration or a religious orientation. The for-profit institutions cater to the private business enterprises and offer courses that are market-friendly. Courses in business administration, computer sciences, accounting, marketing, economics, communication, etc., are very common in for-profit private universities (Levy, 2008b). One can easily note here that the same situation more or less applies in Ethiopian private higher education institutions as most of these institutions in Ethiopia concentrate in such fields as business and computer sciences because of their lower investment expenses as well as market-driven orientation.

In concurrence with this notion, Wondwossen (2003) analyzed that in terms of the types of training Ethiopian private HE institutions offer, they mainly focus in medicine (22.54%), business and law (19.72%), and information technology (12.68%) courses and programs

which are inexpensive to offer and which have a higher market demand. In this connection, Levy (2008b), asserts that the concentration is greatest in what students demand. Students usually have job-related demands and want to pass through fields and processes that can move them quickly toward employment. The job-related demand for higher education goes to the extent that a great deal of students enrol in institutions that have not yet secured official recognition and accreditation in the hope that those institutions might secure accreditation in the course of time and that even barriers to state employment may not deter them from private or international employment after graduating.

2.4.3 Enrolment and Equity Issues

A few decades ago, private higher education was absent or marginal in most countries. Today it captures a major and an increasing portion of enrollments in Eastern and Central Europe, the Middle East and both North and Sub-Saharan Africa, East and South Asia, and Latin America (Levy, 2002). Increase in demand for higher education has resulted in the movement from an 'elite' higher education system to a 'mass' system. Since the start of the private higher education providers, increased access to higher education has been observed in most parts of the world. For instance, Schwartzman (2003) notes that private higher education started to expand in Brazil very rapidly in the late sixties. In 2002, it absorbed 70.5% of the students enrolled in private colleges and universities. In the case of Ethiopia, the MOE (2007) reports that since the time Ethiopian private HE institutions came into existence, enrolment rate for undergraduate degrees in private higher institutions has grown from 12,149 in 2003/04 to 48,802 in 2007/08.

As for equity and gender issues, Levy (2008c) notes that an inhibiting factor in enrolment of women is that families tend to value male over female education so that funds are more readily available to males, at both the secondary and higher levels. This results in the fact that female enrolments, though increasing in time, remain notably low. In case of Ethiopia, the number of female students attending private higher education for an undergraduate degree award has increased from 2,744 in 2003/04 to 12,508 in 2006/07. Even though female students remain relatively a small percentage of the total enrolment, the figure shows encouraging and commendable increase (MOE, 2006).

2.4.4 Financing of Private HE Institutions

Public universities receive a major share of funding from the government. However, unlike their counterparts, private institutions seldom obtain financial aid from public authorities. One of the sources of finance in private HE institutions is corporations or groups of financiers or industrialists which provide for major and well-endowed private universities. Turkey's Bilkent University is a major example as is the Aga Khan University in Pakistan, now over twenty years old, is a large and much-cited example (Levy, 2008b). Success in such endeavors may stimulate alumni and other philanthropic contributions. Contributions from churches have been common for "their own" institutions that have some kind of affiliations (ibid). Fast-growing financial sources include contracts and entrepreneurial units that generate funds through consultancies and services.

However, most private higher education institutions depend on tuition fees. According to Varghese (2004), in many African countries, many operate like an enterprise generating profit. Tuition fees form the financial backbone of these private institutions. The various

expenses that these PHEIs have in the form of paying salaries, building rentals, operating expenses, maintenance and repairs, laboratory expenses, research expenses, medical expenses, etc mainly come from student tuition fees. They must meet their expenditure with what they collect from their students and the rate of tuition levied. Hence, student fees, in most cases, are their main source of income.

For this and other similar reasons, private institutions tend to attract a larger number of students in order to maximize profitability. As discussed elsewhere, this is achieved through offering courses that are popular on the employment market.

The Ethiopian PHEIs scenario can as well be best defined by an exclusive reliance on student tuition fees. This trend may continue for years to come as currently there doesn't exist a policy program to institute a mechanism whereby government assistance can be infused. To a large extent the private sector has not also yet acquired the strength and the culture to provide contributions and donations to PHEIs. Any danger with regard to finance will have thus to be met by the PHEIs themselves.

2.5 Definition of the Concept of Quality

In higher education, the concept of quality has remained an elusive and slippery concept for the simple reason that there can be several ways of pursuing and measuring quality, depending on the set objectives and criteria of higher learning institutions. Even though everyone is in favour of providing quality education, the arguments start because there is a lack of agreement as to what it exactly means. It is, therefore, necessary to have a clear understanding of the various meanings of quality otherwise there is a danger that it becomes a mere catchphrase, a word with high moral tone but little practical value.

Linguistically, quality has at least three different meanings. Firstly, quality can mean a degree of excellence. Second, quality could be a characteristic or attribute. Thirdly, it could mean better than something else (Venkataiah, 2004).

Quality in everyday conversation is mainly used as an absolute. People use it to describe expensive restaurants and luxury cars. As an absolute, quality is similar in nature to goodness, beauty, and truth; an ideal with which there can be no compromise (Maitre, 2007). In the absolute definition, quality refers to the highest possible standard which cannot be surpassed.

Quality can also be employed as a relative concept. The relative definition views quality not as an attribute of a product or service, but as something which is ascribed to it (*ibid*). Quality can be judged to exist when a good or service meets the specification that has been laid down for it. Quality products or services, in this relative or ascribed definition need not be expensive and exclusive as long as they can meet simple but crucially important standards. They must do what they claim to do, and what their customers expect of them. In other words, they must be 'fit for their purpose' as the Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency /HERQA/ defines quality

The relative definition of quality has two aspects to it. The first is measuring up to specification and meeting those pre-defined specifications in a consistent fashion, which is often summed up as '*fitness for purpose or use*'. The second aspect is meeting customer requirements.

For this purpose, the term quality in higher education has often been understood to mean *fitness for purpose,* i.e. that an institution must have in place adequate mechanisms to assure itself and others that it is able to achieve its stated aims and objectives, and that these will be achieved consistently. In other words, the definition of quality depends on the status and purpose of the institution. While elaborating the *fitness for purpose* definition of quality, Parri (2006) stated that quality is the degree to which the institution is successful in achieving its objectives to the satisfaction of itself, the students and society.

However other approaches to the concept of quality in higher education have included:

- *quality as perfection or consistency*, which focuses on processes and sets specifications that aim to meet with flawless perfection. However, this approach can better be applicable to administrative tasks such as maintaining student records, staff files, etc than to students, as there can never be a flawless graduate.
- *quality as thresholds*, which assumes that there are institutions that provide bench-marking criteria and specific standards against which other institutions are measured. The weakness of this approach is that specific thresholds are difficult to apply under such rapidly changing circumstances.
- *quality as value for money*, which is attractive to governments and other funding agencies, and may be measured in terms of indicators such as failure or drop-out / completion rates, teacher to students ratios etc; and,
- *quality as transformation* is a classic notion of quality that sees it in terms of change from one state to another. In educational terms, transformation refers to the enhancement and

empowerment of students or the development of new knowledge (Harvey and Green 1993; UNESCO 2003).

On the other hand, Srikanthan and Dalrymple (2003) cited in Lagrosen, Seyyed-Hashemi and Leitner (2004) present the four main stakeholders and their views of quality in higher education:

1. *Providers* (funding bodies and community at large). Quality is interpreted as "value for money", as funding authorities are looking for a good return on investments.
2. *Users of products* (e.g. current and prospective students). The interpretation here is one of excellence, as the students want to ensure a relative advantage in career prospects.
3. *Users of outputs* (e.g. the employers). The interpretation of quality is "fitness for purpose", as employers look for competencies matching the functions.
4. *The employees of the sector* (academics and administrators). Quality is interpreted as perfection (or consistency), where the behavioral norms are met and the core ethos is upheld in order that job satisfaction can be achieved.

The advantage and significance of the *fitness for purpose* concept of quality is that it takes account of the diversity of higher education missions and provision; and the importance of the educational process.

Adopting the fitness for purpose definition of quality, HERQA (2005) further asserts that quality is a synonym for fitness for use and effectiveness and is determined by assessing to what extent intended outcomes are actually achieved. In order to quantify such a definition of quality, HERQA carries out institutional quality audits on all HEIs in Ethiopia. An

institutional quality audit is an in-depth analysis and assessment of the quality and relevance of programs and of the teaching and learning environment (HERQA, 2006). HERQA's institutional quality audit covers the following ten focus areas which are used to determine the difference between achieved outcomes and intended outcomes.

1. Vision, Mission and Educational Goals
2. Governance and Management System
3. Infrastructure and Learning Resources
4. Academic and Support Staff
5. Student Admission and Support Services
6. Program Relevance and Curriculum
7. Teaching, Learning and Assessment
8. Student Progression and Graduate Outcomes
9. Research and Outreach Activities
10. Internal Quality Assurance

2.6 Accreditation Tasks in Ethiopian PHEIs –The Role of HERQA

Accreditation is defined as the process of external quality review used in higher education to scrutinize colleges, universities, and higher education programs for quality assurance and quality improvement as well as success results in an accredited institution and/or program (HERQA, 2005).

In Ethiopian Higher Education system, institutions have the responsibility of maintaining the quality of their institutions and programs. However, following the vast expansion and explosion of the private higher education institutions, major challenges in terms of policy and

strategic provisions, governance and leadership, access and equity, quality and relevance, institutional efficiency, research and community service, resource generation and mobilization came to the surface. To address these challenges the Higher Education Proclamation of 2003 provided the establishment of an autonomous legal body, HERQA (Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency) to enhance the quality of higher education provisions. The Government of Ethiopia has decided that all public and private institutions for HEI shall seek accreditation (Proclamation No. 351/2003).

2.6.1 HERQA's Role in Promoting Quality

Higher Education Proclamation 351 (Ethiopian Federal Ministry of Education, 2003) made provision for the creation of the Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA) and this was established in 2003 (Higher Education Proclamation no.351/2003) with the aim of safeguarding and enhancing the quality and relevance of higher education in the country. Its mission includes: ensuring that accredited HEIs are of an appropriate standard; establishing that the programs of study offered by these HEIs are of an appropriate quality and relevance to the world of work and the development needs of the country; and supporting the country's higher education sector in enhancing the quality and relevance of its education provision (Tesfaye & Kassahun, 2009).

Currently HERQA has a Director, 9 senior experts, 3 experts, and 15 administrative and support workers. The experts have been grouped in three major sections, namely: a Quality Assurance and Enhancement Team, an Accreditation team, and Administrative Department. Additionally, two small teams work on human resource development and policy and strategy

of the Agency. All the experts are accountable to the Director General of the Agency while having horizontal relationship among them at the same time (Ibid).

2.6.2 Accreditation tasks in HEIs in Ethiopia

Pre-accreditation, accreditation and re-accreditation of private higher education institutions is coordinated and conducted by the accreditation team of the Agency which is composed of 5 senior experts and 2 experts (Tesfaye and Kassahun, 2009).

Pre-Accreditation: a permit for the institutions to start offering certain degree programs on the basis of minimum requirements such as buildings, adequate facilities, sufficient faculty, convenient locations, finance, research climate, program duration and credit hours, staffing, admission of students, etc (HERQA, 2007). In Ethiopia, any person who desires to establish, upgrade or modify a private institution shall not render HE without first securing a pre-accreditation or accreditation from the MOE (Girma, 2005).

Pre-accreditation permit is to be given only to degree programs after the degree programs have been assessed by the Agency's staff against the formal minimum requirements set by HERQA and upon the requests obtained by higher learning institutions for offering degree programs (HERQA, 2007).

Accreditation: It constitutes a gradual shift in attention from the quality of the *input* to programs to also encompass the quality of the *educational process* and the *graduate output* (Abebe, 2007).

Accreditation in Ethiopia is a very recent phenomenon that appeared when the private colleges started mushrooming. It is when the Higher Education Proclamation (Federal

Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2003) was issued that clear directives were set on the procedures and requirements for accreditation. In Ethiopia, it is HERQA that visits the university/college and presents recommendations to the Ministry on whether the institution fulfills the requirements and deserves accreditation. As an autonomous body, it is the Agency that is gives or denies the accreditation, as the Ministry will only act up on the recommendations presented by the same. The accreditation certificate is given by the Ministry and shall serve only for three years.

The precondition for applying for accreditation is that the quality assurance system of the institute is in order as per the guidelines set by the Agency. To establish this, a quality audit is carried out. Depending on the level of the institute, accreditation gives the right to develop new courses. If an institute does not have this right, the courses themselves must be accredited (Zenawi, 2004).

Re-accreditation: this will be a quality level confirming that the program offered is in line with its objectives, is consistently meeting its goals in an effective way, and its programs are widely accepted after being measured against academic standards (HERQA, 2005).

The main purposes of re-accreditation tasks is to undertake a comprehensive evaluation of the programs on offer at fully-accredited higher learning institutions with the aim of establishing the extent, scope and quality of provision (Zenawi, 2004). Re-accreditation of programs take place every three years. After a formal request has been received by an institution which desires to be re-accredited, the Agency will move on to assessing the institution's performance against set standards and the MOE will finally certify the HERQA's recommendation for re-accreditation.

2.7 Quality Control, Quality Assurance, and Quality Audit in HE

2.7.1 Quality Control

Quality Control is historically the oldest concept. It involves the detection and elimination of components or final products which are not up to standard. It is an after-the-event process concerned with detecting and rejecting defective items (Venkataiah, 2004). Quality control is usually carried out by quality professionals known as quality controllers or inspectors. Inspection and testing are the most common methods of quality control, and are widely used in education to determine whether standards are being met.

2.7.2 Quality Assurance

Quality assurance is different from quality control in that it is before-and-during-the-event process (Venkataiah, 2004). Its concern is to prevent faults occurring in the first place. Quality is designed into the process to attempt to ensure that the product is produced to a predetermined specification.

Quality assurance is a holistic approach providing a philosophical framework for the development of HEIs. According to the definition of the Finnish Higher Education Evaluation Council, it refers to the procedures, processes or systems used by the HEI to safeguard and improve the quality of its education and other activities (Finnish Higher Education Evaluation Council, 2008).

For Materu (2007), Quality assurance is a planned and systematic review process of an institution or program to determine whether or not acceptable standards of education, scholarship, and infrastructure are being met, maintained and enhanced.

According to Wahlen (1998) quality assurance in higher education is the activity that aims at maintaining and raising quality, e.g. research, analysis, assessing acceptability, recruitment, appointment procedures and different mechanisms and systems. The aim of the quality assurance in higher education is to guarantee the improvement of standards and quality in higher education in order to make higher education meet the needs of students, employers and financiers (Lomas, 2002).

Quality assurance could be divided into internal and external quality assurance according to the customers of education and their opportunities.

External quality assurance. External quality assurance monitoring is a broad concept that includes several quality related assessments provided by different bodies or individuals outside the higher education institutions. The aim is to achieve accountability. The government institutions usually decide upon the systems of external quality assurance of higher education institutions. (Lomas, 2002). External quality assurance is necessary in order to prove to the public that the goals set by the institution will be achieved. Higher education institutions bear responsibility to assure their supporters, state and society in general that they are committed to the fulfillment of their mission, use the resources honestly and responsibility and that they meet the legal expectations (Kettunen, 2008).

Internal or institutional quality assurance. Internal or institutional quality assurance aims at institutional development and assessment of internal accountability. Institutional quality assurance incorporates every institutional activity that focuses on quality insurance and development in all the fields of activity of the institution. Internal quality assurance concentrates mainly on academic issues and lies in collecting evidence and information about

mission fulfillment, efficiency of activity and ways of insuring quality within the institution (El-Khawas, 2001).

2.7.3 Quality Audit

Quality audit of higher education investigates whether the process of activity is efficient (whether the goals are achievable). In other words, quality audit means checking whether relevant systems and structures within organization support the goal of instruction. (Kettunen, 2008).

In the words of Materu (2007), 'quality audit is a process of review of an institution or program to determine if its curriculum, staff, and infrastructure meet its stated aims and objectives'. An audit focuses on accountability of institutions and programs and usually involves a self-study, peer review and a site visit. Such an evaluation can be self-managed or conducted by external body. Hence, from the above definitions, it can be deduced that quality audit is an evaluation of an institution or its programs in relation to its own mission, goals, and stated standards. The assessors are looking primarily at the success of the institution in achieving its own goals.

Institutional quality assurance in HERQA's context is an in-depth analysis and assessment of the quality and relevance of programs and of the teaching and learning environment. Equally importantly, an institutional quality audit will assess the appropriateness and effectiveness of a HEI's approach to quality care, its systems of accountability and its internal quality assurance mechanisms (HERQA, 2007).

Institutional Quality Audit and Enhancement is primarily undertaken by the Quality Audit and Enhancement Team (QAET). It is specifically set up with the aim of ensuring the higher education and training offered at any institution is up to standard, relevant and of acceptable quality (Tesfaye and Kassahun, 2009). The aim is to evaluate institutions at least once every five years with a view to establishing whether such institutions are up to standard and competent with a view to submitting its findings to the Ministry of Education. It is therefore primarily engaged in conducting external institutional quality audits in both private and public higher education institutions (Ibid).

2.7 The IPO Model of Quality in Education

There are different conceptions or models of education quality implicitly or explicitly held by concerned constituencies in practice or by scholars in research (Cheng and Tam, 1997). Based on the models of organizational effectiveness and school effectiveness, about seven models of education quality have been identified. These are known as: Goal and Specification Model, Resource-input Model, Process Model, Satisfaction Model, Legitimacy Model, Absence of Problems Model, and Organizational Learning Model.

However, a number of authors have identified and most frequently used the Input-Process-Output model of quality assurance, in which education is used as a productive system, where inputs are transferred into outputs (see for instance, Bourn 1992; Sheerens and Bosker 1997; Fitz-Gibbon 1996). The assessment of a higher learning institution's performance consists, therefore, of the compilation of the assessment of the input, process and output. The three elements of quality assessment are discussed briefly as follows:

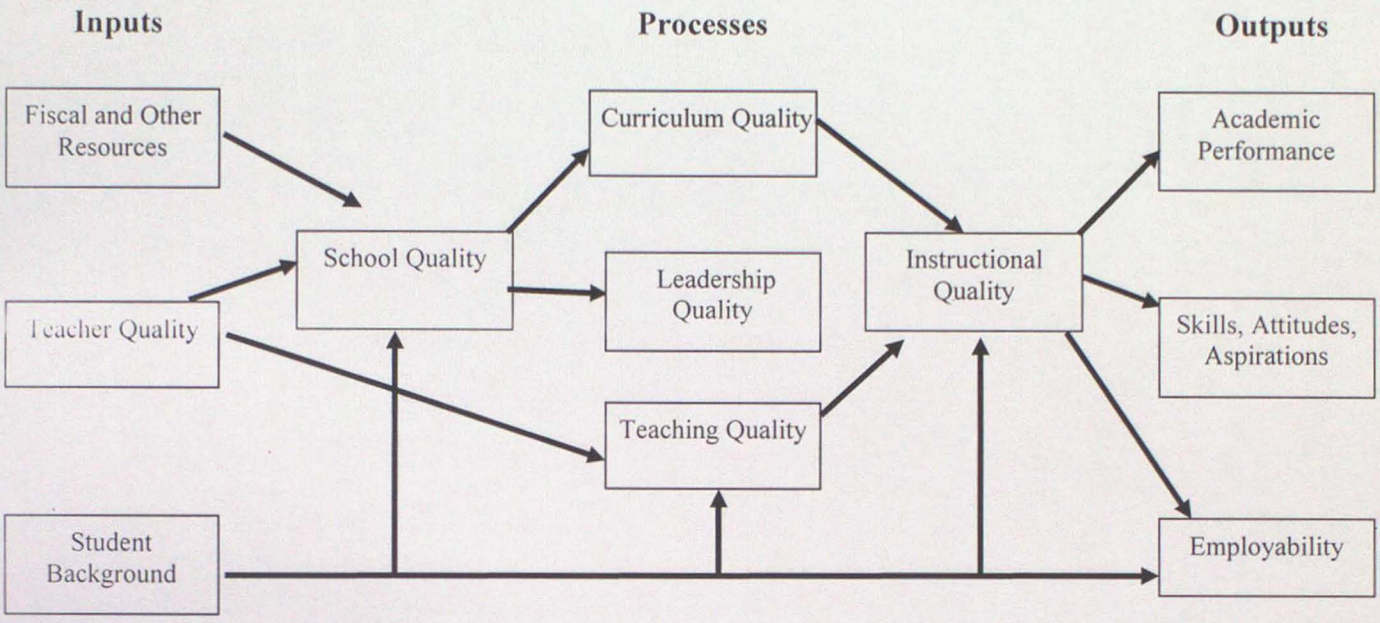
The **input** of higher education consists of, among others, the following resources: buildings, facilities and provisions, learning materials, students, teachers, financial capital, internal and external information services, academic staff, and student intake (Barnett, 1992; Carter et al., 1992; Newcomer, 1997; Pollitt & Harrison, 1992; cited in Smeenk and Teelken, 2003). These resources represent the input-elements which can be used to assess one aspect of educational quality.

Process reflects the nature of the intra-institutional interaction of students, faculty, and all other inputs; to reach educational goals and objectives (Assefa, 2002). According to various authors, different elements can be distinguished such as: educational methods, the teaching/learning process, choice of curriculum (structure and content), the learning environment, academic management, and staff development (Scheerens and Bosker, 1997 cited in Smeenk and Teelken, 2003; Stoll, 2005).

Output of higher education helps to measure the extent to which inputs and processes contribute to achieving the goals of higher education because the impact of education manifests itself in the status of graduates (Newcomer, 1997). It consists of such elements as graduate profile, academic performance of students by developing the necessary skill, knowledge and attitude, cost-effectiveness, employability of graduates, financially rewarding jobs, and National Development (Stoll, 2005; Chua, 2004).

On the basis of the above empirical investigations, the following figure (1) is adopted for better illustration.

Figure 1: The IPO Model for Measuring Educational Quality



Source: Measuring Quality: Choosing Indicators, 1997

2.8 Quality of Education in PHEIs with Reference to the IPO Model

As indicated in the previous sections, quality embraces all the main functions and activities of higher education: students' background, qualification of academic staff, relevance of academic programs, infrastructure and resources, the teaching-learning process, the academic environment, employability of graduates, etc. Quality can be implemented through comparisons between observed and intended outcomes, and constant analysis of the sources of dysfunction.

In relation to quality of students' intake, however, one of the consequences of the trend towards massification everywhere has been to shift the focus of quality concern from entry standards to outcomes of the teaching and learning process (UNESCO 2004; Varghese,

2006). Hence, throughout this document, a greater emphasis will be given to other input and process factors than quality of students at the entry stage.

2.8.1 Some 'Input' Factors Affecting the Quality of Education

2.8.1.1 Quality of Teaching Staff

Academic staff has often been described as one of the most important resources of higher education institutions for educational programs (Ayalew, 1995). The relative strength and adequacy of academic staff in higher learning institutions is measured, among others, by staff qualification and the existence of full time academic staff (Aspin, 1994).

The quality of an educational program depends strongly on the quality of the staff who provide teaching and student support. The essence of teachers' quality is an area that must be seen as a sequential process (Astin, 1994). This process includes recruiting competent and effective teachers, providing them with preliminary courses, retaining them in the profession and making the best use of them by continuous education and training.

The profession of teaching requires expert knowledge, specialized skills and a feeling of responsibility. Instructors should be qualified and fit for the profession. Therefore, according to Smith et al. (1961) cited in Ayalew (1995), two governing principles in relation to teachers' qualification are: a) they should be assigned to a position only when he/she is qualified for all duties assigned; b) they should be assigned to a subject field if they have broad and concentrated preparation.

In terms of having relevant experience, Astin (1994) asserts that efficient classroom and instruction management can be attained through experience. In this regard, Richey (1992)

asserts that instructor's efficiency in carrying out formal classroom instruction, guiding classroom group members, handling paper works, evaluating students' progress, etc., are to be determined by the amount of experience he/she has. From this, it can be inferred that experienced instructors may be more efficient in carrying out tasks assigned to them when compared to their inexperienced counterparts.

However, qualification and experience alone may not necessarily bring the desired quality in education. Institutional leaders should find out what factors motivate instructors to use their knowledge and skills fully and bring about desired educational quality. Many researchers (Rosenstone, 2004; Robert, 1997; Trow, 1994) have pointed out that instructors who have autonomy in carrying out their task, who feel adequately rewarded, who participate in decision making, who have an opportunity for further studies and who have job security are more motivated and more apt to be committed and satisfied with their work. On the other hand, unmotivated instructors tend to engage in other economic activities to supplement their income. As a result, absenteeism and increased number of part-time teachers will be evident.

In relation to this, instructors should as well be competent. Competence is the ability to apply to practical situations, the essential principles and techniques of a particular subject matter. MOE (2003) has identified five sets of competencies that teachers of all levels must exhibit: a) competent in producing responsible citizens; b) competent in the subjects and contents of teaching; c) competent in the classroom; d) competent in areas relating to the institution and the education system; and e) competent in the values, attitudes, ethics and professionalism.

The adequacy and strength of an institutional quality in higher education is measured by academic and/or professional qualification of the teaching staff. This assertion is supported

by Ashcroft (2005) who indicated that the adequacy and strength of academic staff is usually expressed in the form of a desirable proportion of staff possessing Master's and PhD qualifications. Furthermore, the quality of instructors may be expressed in the length of their training for specific job.

In line with this, HERQA (2008) has identified a number of major areas of focus for measuring the qualification of instructors in the context of higher education which include:

- The suitability of the teaching staff in terms of the mix of qualifications and experience. In this regard, HERQA stipulates that the academic profile of teaching staff should be comprised of 30% of Ph.D holders, 50% Master's, and 20%Bachelor Degree holders.
- The provision of pedagogical and other training organized to support staff development. With regards to pedagogic trainings, HERQA requires that at least 25% of the academic staff will have received necessary trainings.

Therefore, institutions should ensure that their staff recruitment and appointment procedures include a means of making certain that all new staff have the necessary level of competence (HERQA, 2006).

2.8.1.2 Class Size

Class size is very important in organizing the teaching-learning process as well as assessing the quality of education. A class-size is a crucial variable and the educational output can be improved as class-size is reduced (Trow, 1994). Many writers point out that students' performance and score improve in small classes and small classes seem to be most beneficial to those coming from disadvantaged backgrounds (Finn & Achilles, 1999; Krueger &

Whitmore 2000; Slavin 1990 cited in Dillon, 2002). Still other findings suggest that students' and professors' motivation and attitude tends to be more negatively affected by larger classes (Nuttall, 1997; Spahn, 1999).

Even though it is difficult to set a standard for optimum class-size which is acceptable for all institutions, classrooms should be convenient enough for students to learn comfortably. Besides, for students to get quality education, low student-teacher ratio is preferable as it would ensure higher degree of contact with their instructors, though it may require hiring more staff (Dillon, 2002). In general, effective teaching-learning process takes place in a relatively small class size than in large ones.

2.8.1.3 The Student/Academic Staff Ratio

One of the indicators quality education is the availability of adequate number of qualified academic staff to support programs and an appropriate staff-student ratio for each program (HERQA, 2006). In this regard, the criteria set by HERQA (2008) requires that for medicine/engineering, language and computer science fields the SSR should be 1:20, while for law and business-related fields it should be 1:40.

A high student/instructor ratio means an instructor has to guide more students, and this evidently affects the teaching-learning process as the very essence of learning occurs where there is a close contact between the instructor and the student (Astin, 1991).

On the other hand, it has been confirmed by many authors (see for instance, Adkins and Budd, 2006; Mabizela, 2007; Obasi, 2007) that if there is higher SSR, there will be a lesser likelihood of instructors being involved in research activities as there is a greater the number

of hours instructors are required to spend in classroom activities and guidance of more students. In order to gauge the effectiveness of higher education institutions, one should look at the productivity of faculty members in terms of research produced. Besides, the hallmark of a higher education institution is its ability to carry out research for the advancement of knowledge, science and technology that contribute to new developments and better ways of responding to needs.

2.8.1.4 Fulltime/Part-time Academic Staff Ratio

Compared to public universities, many of the private institutions of higher education are new and operate with a limited number of staff members. According to Varghese (2004), one of the unique features of the PHEIs is that they have very few regular staff, with a general trend of a large number of part-time teachers and a limited number of full-time teachers.

According to the study conducted by the World Bank (2003), roughly 60 percent of teachers at public and 86 percent of teachers at private universities work part time, and many of them hold more than one job (World Bank, 2002). While mobility brings some benefits, part-time employment often goes against attempts to establish a critical mass of professional instructors and researchers and efforts to create attractive learning environments in which teachers and students have time to interact.

The standard set by HERQA requires that the terms of teaching staff employment should comprise 70% of permanent staff while the remaining 30% can be short contract (HERQA, 2008). A high part-time instructor ratio may indicate a large burden placed on fulltime academic staff and a high level of dependence on part-time lecturers.

In general, any practical measures that maybe taken to improve quality and competence of teaching staff in institution of higher education need to ensure primarily the availability and adequacy of the aforementioned variables in higher learning institutions.

2.8.1.5 Quality of Infrastructure and Educational Facilities

In developing countries like Ethiopia, quality problem is associated with inadequate teaching learning materials, poorly trained teachers, unprofessional educational managers, irrelevance of curriculum, etc (Materu, 2007).

Most PHEIs around the world seem to face similar problems in relation to infrastructures. One of these problems is related to the inability of acquisition of appropriate buildings that are in line with the demands of their customers. For instance, private HE institutions in Bangladesh are allowed to work on rented buildings only in the first five years of their establishment and they are required to acquire needed land for university development within that time limit (Hopper, 1998).

Most of the Ethiopian PHEIs function in rented buildings with only few exceptions, which work on their own buildings. According to Wondwossen (2003), many spend a huge amount of money for this purpose. In the case of Russian private universities, for instance, Kodin (1996) reports that "none of the private Russian Universities now have good buildings of their own – not to mention whole campuses" (p. 124). Besides, most of the buildings rented by PHEIs in most of African countries have not been constructed for educational purposes and thus lack the needed size and comfort (Levy, 2008a).

When it comes to libraries, though there can be no serious academic process and research works without a library, many PHEIs have problems in this regard. Kodin (1996) further points out that "the private universities in Russia have neither enough books nor buildings to keep them in .... Students are being told that they are responsible for finding the books they need for their classes" (p. 126). The World Bank (1998) claims that the safest investment in educational quality is to make sure that there are enough books and supplies. Furthermore, the report adds that textbooks are the single most important instructional materials because they deliver the curriculum.

However, libraries should not be a collection of unrelated and outdated volumes; rather they should be centers where academic excellence can be attained through relevant reference materials for teaching-learning processes as well as research undertakings. In this regard, Hopper (1998) points out that along with provision of textbooks, due consideration should be given to the quality of the textbooks in terms of relevance and usefulness to develop higher knowledge and better problem solving capacity. Without some revitalizing inputs, particularly textbooks and instructional materials, almost no learning can be expected to occur (World Bank, 1998).

2.8.1.6 Information and Communication Technology

The world is currently in the age of ICT with its internet and other adjoining capabilities. However, according to Olusola (2007), many private higher education institutions in Africa are currently not meeting up with this global drive. Levy (2007) also assets that PHEIs in many developing countries lack the necessary infrastructures and pre-requisites to sustain the ICT system, and access to the internet is still a mirage to some academics. Many of these

institutions, which should be at the forefront of the information and technology revolution to ensure the continent's full participation in the global development are themselves ill-equipped to play that leadership role (ibid). Yet global trends show that ICT offers the potential for strengthening methods of teaching, expanding research, library access and improving university management (Olusola, 2007).

2.8.2. Some 'Process' Factors Affecting the Quality of Education

2.8.2.1 Teaching Methods in Higher Education

There are probably times when academic staffs in higher education simply follow the teaching methods that they had experienced as students. However, such a practice is drawing to close for such reasons as an increased focus on, and publicity about, teaching quality and developments in technologies for communicating and disseminating information.

Varghese (2004) asserts that in many African countries, much of the educational methodologies are based on the model of rote memorization and do not encourage critical thinking, problem-solving and creativity; all essential skills for promoting entrepreneurship (Varghese, 2004). These constraints have prevented institutions of higher education from being able to link their graduates with the needs of the country.

Before deciding on any one teaching method, instructors should be clear with the learning aims and intended outcomes. This is because different teaching methods are appropriate to different learning aims. To mention few of the teaching methods, for instance:

a) Problem based learning: is an instructional method, characterized by the use of patient problems as a context for students to learn problem solving skills and acquire knowledge about the basics of clinical science (Lejeune, 2001).

b) Group discussion: refers to working together to accomplish shared goals. Within cooperative activities individuals seek outcomes that are beneficial to themselves and beneficial to all other group members. It is the instructional use of small group so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning. According to Robert (1997), the most important element in structuring group learning is: positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction, individual group accountability, and teaching students the required interpersonal skills

c) Role playing: refers to a deliberate acting of a social role in a classroom. During role playing a small number of students present the content while others in the class observe. Students have the opportunity to experience and analyze the specific situation being studied. It allows students to act out selected texts. Generally role playing enables learners to draw their own conclusions and formulate their own idea.

In relation to these, Bourne (1997) has identified different teaching methods for different learning aims as shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Teaching Methods for Different Learning Aims

	LEARNING AIMS					
	Disseminate up-to-date knowledge	**Develop Capacity to use ideas and information**	**Develop student's ability to test ideas**	**Develop idea generation capacity**	**Facilitate students' Personal Development**	**Develop managing capacity of own learning**
TEN COMMON TEACHING METHODS	1) Lectures	1) Case studies	1) Seminars and tutorials	1) Research projects	1) Feedback	1) Learning contracts
	2) Up-to-date textbooks	2) Practicals	2) Supervision	2) Workshops on techniques of problem solving	2) Experiential learning	2) Projects
	3) Reading	3) Work experience	3) Presentations	3) Group working	3) Learning contracts	3) Action learning
	4) Handouts	4) Projects	4) Essays	4) Action learning	4) Action learning	4) Workshops
	5) 'Guest' lectures	5) Demonstrations	5) Feedback on written work	5) Lateral thinking	5) Learning logs	5) Mentors
	6) Use of exercises that initiate up-to-date knowledge	6) Group working	6) Literature reviewing	6) Brainstorming	6) Role play	6) Reflective logs and diaries
	7) Develop skills in using library and other learning resources.	7) Simulations (eg computer based)	7) Exam papers	7) Mind-mapping	7) Structured experiences in groups	7) Independent study
	8) Directed private study	8) Workshops	8) Open learning	8) Creative visualization	8) Reflective documents	8) Work placement
	9) Open learning materials	9) Discussion and debate	9) Peer assessment	9) Coaching	9) Self-assessment	9) Portfolio development
	10. Use of the Internet	10) Essay writing	10) Self-assessment	10) Problem solving	10. Profiling	10) Dissertations

Source: Teaching Methods for Learning Outcomes by Tom Bourner (1997)

It can be deduced from Table 2 that different teaching methods are appropriate to different learning aims. There is some overlap, of course, where one method serves the purposes of more than one aim.

2.8.2.2 Quality of Curriculum

Education takes place in a socio-cultural setting. This implies that educational goals should be rooted in a social, cultural, political, and economic context of a country (Newcomer, 1997). The quality of curriculum calls for special care in the definition of the objectives of the training provided in relation to the requirements of the world of work and the needs of

society in order to make students more active and develop an enterprising spirit (Astin, 1991). In addition, a good curriculum requires an expansion of, and greater flexibility in, training facilities so as to make full use of the possibilities afforded by ICT and to take the characteristics of the education context into account.

In many African countries, the distribution of graduates is inconsistent with expected labor market needs. To a large extent, many African higher learning institutions have failed to remain relevant in a rapidly changing world as a disproportionate number of students graduate in the humanities rather than in the fields of science and engineering (Varghese, 2004).

In the assessment of quality of teaching and learning, a common emphasis should be given to the need for periodic evaluation of the curriculum in relation to the intended outcomes of the teaching and learning process. Curriculum must draw its inspiration from its environment and should emphasize subjects of long-term relevance to the nation and be relevant to the world of work (Newcomer, 1997). Thus, to make the curriculum relevant to society at large, a continuous curriculum reform should take place in the education system. This is because knowledge changes with history and the application of new scientific innovations (Levy, 2008c).

Generally, a curriculum to be relevant, it should emphasize on problem solving, stress on skills development and knowledge acquisition, provide means for individual differences, focus on results, set standards and targets for students' learning, be responsive to emerging issues, relate things to the real life of the learner, provide a means for future life and

employment and should provide means for the development of society in general (Shaw, 2005).

2.8.2.3 Quality of Management and Governance

Management refers to the process of coordinating and integrating work activities so that they are completed efficiently and effectively with and through people (Rosenstone, 2004).

Management of school (educational organization) means setting realistic goals and drawing up plans to achieve them in educational setting. Those plans involve distinct phase, setting objectives, allocating resources, delivering results, evaluating the impact, and resetting objectives in the light of evaluation (Hawkins, 1993). Institutional leadership is one of the most influential, most important and most powerful of all positions. Thus, university leadership has to define and articulate the mission of the institution, develop meaningful goals, and then recruit the talented, build the consensus, create the climate and provide the resources to achieve them (Rosenstone, 2004). However, Olusola (2007) notes that one of the greatest challenges private higher learning institutions face is lack of leadership competencies because institutional leaders are appointed on the basis of seniority or length of service without appropriate trainings and qualifications that are required for higher education settings.

According to Holm-Nielsen and Thorn (2002), important differences exist between public and private universities with regard to internal management. Most private institutions have a centralized, profit-oriented management structure similar to that of a private enterprise. There are generally few mechanisms for internal consultation, and faculties often have limited influence on overall planning and management. While such arrangements are efficient and

simplify processes of change, they do little to nurture a feeling of ownership among scholars, and they tend to reduce the flow of information and ideas from below. Hence, managers in higher education must be responsive, competent, and able to evaluate regularly the effectiveness of procedures and administrative rules as well as involve faculties and student bodies on overall planning and decision making.

On the other hand, Barnett (1997) points out that commitment for excellence is the most appropriate goal that leaders of higher education should set for a technologically progressive society. He further asserts that it is to the general benefit of society that HEIs should continually strive for excellence because 'when institutions become places of excellence, they bring about excellent students'. In general, since quality is an expensive endeavor, all managers and administrators involved in managing higher education institutions should be committed for excellence and quality improvement.

2.8.3. Some 'Output' Factors Affecting the Quality of Education

2.8.3.1 Assessment of Students' Acquired Skills and Knowledge

One of the main elements against which progress and performance of higher education can be measured is students' acquired transferable skills and knowledge and their preparation and training which are relevant to the world of work. When students have mere mastery of theoretical parts of their study, their ability of applying such knowledge will be at stake. Teshome's (2003) connotation is in line with this claim in that:

> *"the performance of university graduates in the work place, as well as their adaptability and leadership abilities, is not as much as expected and should be. Most graduates are good in the theoretical knowledge but poor in skills and in the application of the knowledge they gained from the universities in to the real world of work".* (p., 8)

According to Maitra (2006), the university curriculum should be seen in terms of not only cognitive mastery of disciplines or the traditional skills and competencies of analysis and independent thinking, but also in terms of equipping graduates with 'transferable skills to be able to cope with the challenges of the increasing knowledge intensity of society'. Besides, Programs should have inbuilt utilitarian function which involve practical work in real settings to facilitate relevance to the world of work and usefulness to the particular sectors.

2.8.3.2 Employability of Graduates

Expansion of higher education and the design of the curriculum should be in line with a country's demand to utilize fresh graduates. When there exists a mismatch between demand in the labor market and number of graduates, it contributes to increased unemployment rate (World Bank, 2002). According to a study conducted by the EIU (2001) cited in (Holm-Nielsen and Thorn, 2002) depicts that in Argentina, for instance, the proportion of highly educated people among the pool of unemployed workers rose from 29 percent in 1990 to 38 percent in 1999. In spite of such clear evidence of labor market imbalance, however, some fields turn out large numbers of graduates despite the lack of demand in the economy.

One of the means by which HEIs can assess and improve their performance is by organizing market feedback systems, such as tracer studies and regular consultations with employers and recent graduates (Holm-Nielsen and Thorn, 2002). The ILO Thesaurus 2005 defines a tracer study as an impact assessment tool where the "impact on target groups is traced back to specific elements of a project or program so that effective and ineffective program components may be identified". Schomburg (2003) cited in Millington (2005) notes that graduate surveys provide quantitative structural data on employment and career, the character

of work and related competencies, and information on the professional orientation and experiences of their graduates. These authors commonly agree that these mechanisms are indispensable for adjusting curricula and programs to meet the needs of stakeholders and society.

Hence, undertaking tracer surveys and maintaining regular contact with employers and graduates can greatly contribute in minimizing the number of educated-unemployed citizens in a country as well as in designing a curriculum that is more relevant to the needs of its citizens.

2.9 Review of Related Studies

Bekalu and Maru (2004) in their comparative analysis of "The quality of education in private and public higher education institutions" had the objectives of comparing the level of quality education offered in private and public institutions. The results of the study showed that there are significant variations between private and government colleges in terms of the available number of facilities, academic staff qualifications and credit loads of academic staff, and college governance. In addition, the study revealed that credit load of instructors working at private colleges was found to be significantly higher than that of government colleges to the extent that could deter them from engagement in some research, extra-curricular and material production activities.

Assefa (2002) in his "Quality: A Higher Education Perspective" study had the purpose of discussing performance measures of higher learning institutions. In his concluding remarks, he suggested that in order to assess the quality of a higher learning institution, institutions must adopt performance measures such as student performance after graduation, direct

assessment of graduating students' abilities, inventories of instructional and organizational goal practices, etc. Besides, higher education institutions should develop and use quality indicators that show the role it plays in society and students' lives.

Saint (2004) conducted a study under the topic "Higher Education in Ethiopia: The Vision and Its Challenges." His study found out that the current government of Ethiopia has indeed undertaken a number of expansion and reforms (e.g., autonomy, revenue diversification, system support agencies). However, these reforms face measurable challenges as government's mind-set has been slow to materialize these reforms. He stated that the Ministry of Education has provided little in the way of guidance, regulations or procedures about how institutional autonomy will be operationalised in practice. On the other hand, even though the ambitious enrolment expansion goals of Ethiopia's higher education reform program seem likely to be achieved, achieving the reform's quality objectives remains problematic. Some of the reasons are a substantial shortfall in the numbers of academic staff available to support this expansion and the inadequacy of infrastructures to meet the demands of students enrolling in higher learning institutions.

Damtew (2005) in his study under the topic "Private Higher Education in Ethiopia: The Current Landscape" provided some unique scenarios of private higher education institutions such as offering full or partial scholarship to selected students. According to the researcher's findings, some of the notable challenges confronting the enterprise include that private higher learning institutions go through stringent regulations, some of which cannot be met at least in the short run (such as the ratio of senior personnel). In concluding remarks, the researcher

suggested that there is a need for a more positive and constructive engagement between the private providers and the various regulatory bodies.

The findings cited above might have contributed a lot to the researches on the education system at different levels. They are, however, very limited to generalize on the quality of education in private higher education institutions. Some gave a general descriptive study of the higher education systems in Ethiopia, with a complete emphasis on public institutions (Saint, 2004). Others considered only limited factors of input in higher education in order to compare the quality of education in public and private higher learning institutions (Bekalu and Maru, 2004), and still others have limited the factors for consideration – on the effect of government regulation (Damtew, 2005).

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Design of the Study

As the design and methodology of any research should be based on the purpose of the study (Quirk, 1989), the main purpose of this study was to assess the quality of education in private higher education institutions in Addis Ababa. Thus a descriptive survey method was used which was believed to be most appropriate for addressing the intended purpose of the study.

3.2 Variables in the Study

The Independent variables of the study were qualification of academic staff, instructional facilities (such as computers, libraries, resource centers, etc), the curriculum, the overall teaching-learning process, educational infrastructures (such as campus buildings, classrooms, chairs, etc), learning environment, and institutional governance.

The Dependent variable was the quality of education, because its magnitude and strength was influenced by the above-mentioned independent variables.

3.3 Study Area and Sources of Data

This study was conducted in Addis Ababa city. It was restricted to private colleges, which were fully accredited by the Ministry of Education to offer undergraduate degree programs. Assumption was made that private colleges in the country have homogeneity in terms of similarity in curriculum in their respective fields of specialization, quality of students' intake, quality of instructors, administration, school environment, etc. Thus, six private colleges were assumed to be sufficient for a study of this nature. From the sampled PHEIs, two

colleges were taken from the Business field of specialization, two colleges from ICT field and two others from medicine streams. In order to collect the data required for the study, students, instructors and college managers were used as sources of data. In addition, relevant documents were also consulted and used.

3.4 Sampling Techniques

The participants of this study were college managers, instructors and students. From the existing 51 fully accredited non-government institutions, six private colleges have been selected using simple random sampling technique by taking into account their fields of specialization. Stratified random sampling technique was employed to determine the proportion of participants to be selected from each college and year level of study. The total number of students was taken from the strata of 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year level of study, both sexes and their respective fields of specialization.

To observe ethical rules of research as well as maintain confidentiality, pseudo names have been given to the sampled private colleges.

Table 3: Summary of Sample Students in PHEIs

PHEIs	No. of Male Students	No. of Female Students	Field of Specialization
Town College	421	284	Business
Crown College	270	188	Business
UPS College	105	66	ICT
Tech College	168	108	ICT
Meds College	33	23	Medicine & Pharmacy
Nurse College	90	184	Medicine & Pharmacy
TOTAL	**1087**	**853**	
GRAND TOTAL	**1,940 * 15% = 291**		

On the other hand, questionnaires were distributed to 90 instructors (i.e., 15 instructors from each college) and 5 deans were interviewed on the basis of simple random and purposive sampling techniques respectively.

3.5 Data Collecting Instruments and Procedures

The main data gathering instruments for this study were questionnaires and semi-structured interview guides which were employed to obtain relevant information.

3.5.1 Questionnaires

As the major data collecting instrument, questionnaire was employed with the intension of securing pertinent information for the study. The questionnaire had both closed-ended and open-ended parts, which was developed by the researcher based on the basic research questions as well as the concepts obtained from review of related literatures. The closed-ended questions consisted of questions which offered respondents a set of answers to choose from the one which best reflected their attitudes and views. Questionnaires were primarily prepared on five-point likert scale; however, . On the other hand, open-ended questions were also offered to respondents so that they can forward their views and beliefs of major causes for the decline of quality of education in their respective colleges and also to forward possible suggestions which they thought should be done.

3.5.2 Semi-Structured Interview Guides

Semi-structured interview guides were used as the second major data collecting instrument for the study. The reason for conducting semi-structured interviews was because they are more appropriate to exploit rather in-depth information from respondents which is useful for triangulation. Interview guides have been used to answer the same research questions

mentioned under statement of the problem as well as to guide the interview session. Hence, semi-structured interviews were conducted with five college managers.

3.6 Pilot Study

After the questionnaire has been primarily prepared in English, the questionnaire to be administered to students was then translated into Amharic to avoid any possible language barriers and also to increase reliability, clarity and rate of questionnaire returns. The Amharic version questionnaire was translated back to English version again to see the agreement of the translation. The researcher and one MA student from Public Administration Department were involved in the translation. To ensure content validity of the instrument, lecturers and experts in related areas were consulted. Based on their suggestions, some questions were changed and some new questions were added.

Afterwards, pilot testing was conducted on a total of 70 participants drawn from students and instructors of St. Mary's University College. There were a total of 50 students and 20 instructors.

Students were told how to give response to the questionnaire and vague questions were made clearer and some suggestions forwarded by participants were also considered as deemed appropriate. Students were made to respond to the questionnaires within a day while instructors' questionnaires were collected after 5 days. The numbers of male and female student participants were nearly proportionate.

Finally, the responses of the participants were scored and tabulated to compute Cronbach-Alpha in order to evaluate their reliability. The two measures were found to be reliable with

Alpha 0.86 and Alpha 0.88 for students and instructors respectively, which is high enough for a study of this nature.

3.7 Method of Data Analysis

In order to analyze the collected data, descriptive survey analysis method was employed. To analyze the quantitative data and examine the attitude of instructors and students, each individual's score was summed in four-point likert scale. Afterwards, the proportions were discussed by using percentage, mean score, and rank orders. In addition to this, two-way t-test was also conducted in order to determine the significance of differences among responses of instructors and students.

CHAPTER 4. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

In this chapter analysis and interpretation of data collected from the research participants through questionnaires and semi-structured interview guides are discussed. A total of 381 questionnaires were prepared and distributed to 291 students and 90 instructors. Out of the 291 questionnaires that were distributed to students, 277 (95.2%) questionnaires were filled in properly and returned. On the other hand, 64 (71.1%) copies of questionnaires were returned by instructors.

4.1 General Background of Respondents

In order to give an overview of the general background of all the respondents involved in the study, factors such as age, sex, educational background, years of experience, job status, students' year level of study, etc. have been discussed in Table 4 and Table 5 below.

Table 4: General Characteristics of Instructors

ITEM	INSTRUCTORS	%
I. GENDER		
Male	55	85.9%
Female	9	14.1%
Total	**64**	**100%**
II. AGE		
26 - 31	15	23.4
32 - 37	29	45.3
38 - 44	12	18.8
> 45	8	12.5
Total	**64**	**100%**
III. TEACHING EXPERIENCE		
1 - 5	46	71.9
6 - 10	13	20.3
11 - 16	4	6.3
> 15	1	1.6
Total	**64**	**100%**
IV. EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND		
BA/B.Sc	40	62.5
MA/MSc	23	35.9
Ph.D	1	1.6
Total	**64**	**100%**
V. ACADEMIC RANK		
Graduate Assistant	29	45.3
Assistant Lecturer	11	17.2
Lecturer	23	35.9
Assistant Professor	1	1.6
Total	**64**	**100%**
VI. JOB STATUS		
Permanent	23	35.9
Part-time	41	64.1
Total	**64**	**100%**
VII. COLLEGE		
College 1	11	17.2
College 2	12	18.8
College 3	12	18.8
College 4	10	15.6
College 5	10	15.6
College 6	9	14.1
Total	**64**	**100%**
VIII. DEPARTMENT		
Business	26	40.6
ICT	21	32.8
Medicine	17	26.6
Total	**64**	**100%**

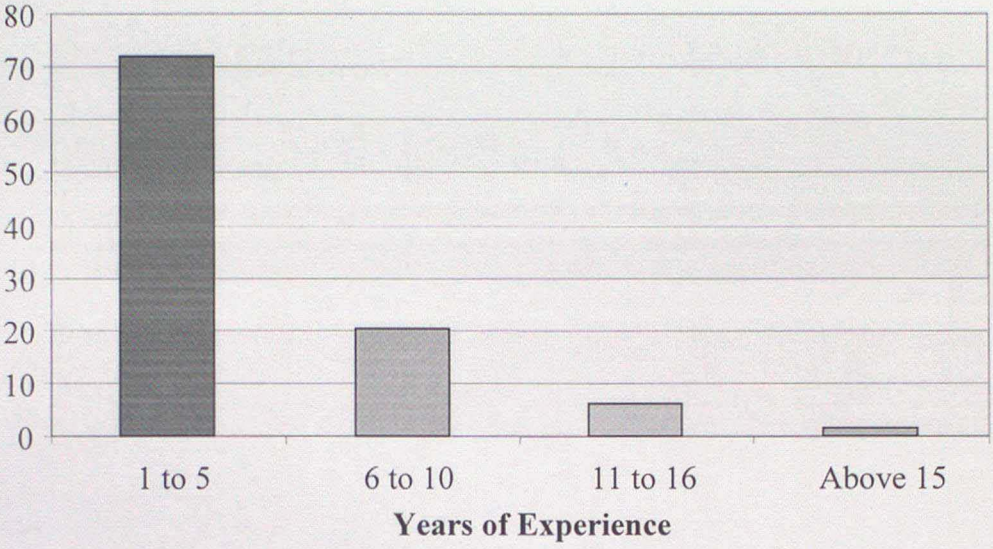
As shown in Table 4, Item I above, out of the 64 instructors, 55 (85.9%) of them were males while 9 (14.1%) were females. In spite of the researcher's effort to maintain gender parity, it was impossible to do so. The number of female instructors in all private higher education institutions is quite low. This was also the case with the private colleges that were included in this study. According to the MOE statistics, for the period between 2007/2008, the number of female faculty in PHEIs constitute about 14% (MOE, 2007). This calls for a serious proactive planning and interventions.

Concerning instructors' age group, Item II of Table 4 shows that 45.3% of the respondents were between 32 to 37 years followed by 23.4% of instructors, whose age group was between 26 to 31. This figure depicts that the vast majority of instructors in private higher education institutions that were included in this study are below the age of 40. This may have its own bearing on the quality of education, as in most cases, young professionals may also be young in terms of experience and competency. This view is supported by Teshome (2007) who asserts that poor calibre of instructors may arise out of the juniority and irresponsible seniority of the faculty.

In terms of service year, Item III shows that the overwhelming majority of instructors (71.9%) have less than 5 years of teaching experience followed by 20.3% (13) of instructors who have above 6 years of teaching experience. This can be another factor which may have a direct bearing on the quality of education. Many institutions in Ethiopia, including private providers, are staffed largely with junior faculty with little experience and preparation. According to Teshome (2007), recent graduates of several programs are assigned to teach classes immediately upon graduation.

For better illustration, the responses are summarized in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: Teaching Experience of Instructors



As has been indicated elsewhere, HERQA's standard for degree courses stipulates that there should be an academic staff composition of 30% Ph.D, 50% Master's and 20% Bachelor Degree (HERQA, 2008). However, as shown in Item IV, while a larger number of instructors (62.5%) have a bachelor's degree level qualification, only about 35.9% and 1.6% have a Master's-level and Doctoral-level qualification respectively.

Having a larger number of instructors teaching undergraduate degree programs with their first degree can be another factor contributing to the decline in the quality of education. In this regard, an interview with top college managers revealed that they have two major challenges in relation to increasing the proportion of faculty with Masters and Ph.D. They have difficulties in finding candidates with graduate level trainings as well as in retaining candidates who have the desired qualifications. This is because on one hand, there is an acute lack of Master-level and especially Ph.D.-level graduates at the national level, and on the

other hand even those who have the desired qualification are not usually willing to be hired in private institutions because they perceive that teaching in private institutions is less reputable and honourable as compared to teaching in government institutions. Besides most of the candidates believe that further studies abroad and future research opportunities can only be secured as long as they work in public universities.

Another worth noting factor in relation to the above explanation (Item V) is the fact that the majority of the teaching staff in private universities are graduate assistants (45.3%), lecturers (35.9%) and assistant lecturers (17.2%), with a negligible number of senior lecturers, associate professors and full professors. One of the reasons why private institutions have few senior academics is because of inadequate remuneration and relatively unsatisfactory working conditions, which results in their inability to attract senior academicians and well-acclaimed professors to work with them on a full-time basis (Altbach, 2004). In this regard, instructors were asked to rate the adequacy of remuneration in their respective colleges. Accordingly, 52 (81.3%) of instructors said that salaries were very low, followed by the remaining 12 (18.7%) instructors who rated adequacy of salaries as low. This in turn may explain why there is very little research and consultancy taking place in these institutions.

The standard set by HERQA requires that HEIs should have 70% permanent staff and 30% short contract (HERQA, 2008). However, Item VI shows that only 35.9% of instructors are permanent employees, while the rest 64.1% were part-timers. Even though there can be some exceptions, it is a common feature in PHEIs to rely on a large number of part-time teachers and a limited number of full-time teachers (Varghese, 2004). This may lead to a lot of moonlighting at the expense of their major responsibility.

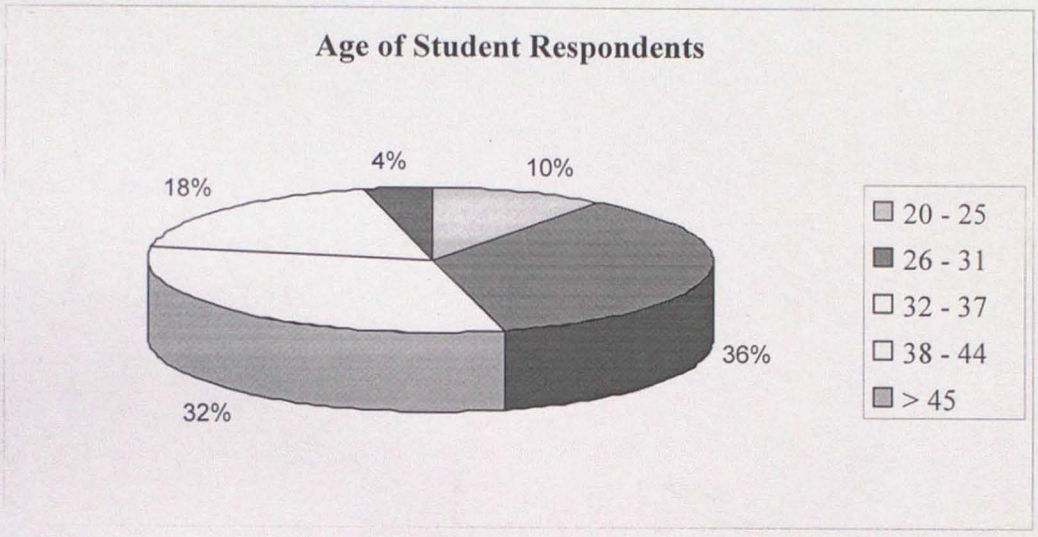
Table 5: General Characteristics of Students

ITEM	STUDENTS	%
I. GENDER		
Male	142	51.3%
Female	135	48.7%
Total	**277**	**100.0%**
II. AGE		
20 - 25	28	10.1%
26 - 31	99	35.7%
32 - 37	88	31.8%
38 - 44	51	18.4%
> 45	11	4.0%
Total	**277**	**100.0%**
III. COLLEGE		
College 1	43	15.5%
College 2	44	15.9%
College 3	71	25.6%
College 4	34	12.3%
College 5	37	13.4%
College 6	48	17.3%
Total	**277**	**100.0%**
IV. DEPARTMENT		
Business	115	41.5%
ICT	77	27.8%
Medicine	85	30.7%
Total	**277**	**100.0%**
V. YEAR LEVEL		
2nd year	71	25.6%
3rd year	172	62.1%
4th year	34	12.3%
Total	**277**	**100.0%**

Table 5 shows the general characteristics of sampled students. Accordingly, Item I depicts that 142 (51.3%) male and 135 (48.7%) female students were included in the study. This figure depicts that both sexes have been sufficiently represented in the study. As is the case in many African countries, females remain a relatively small percentage in higher education institutions. This being the case, however, females constitute about 30% of the total enrolment figure in private higher education institutions (MOE, 2007).

Item II of Table 5 shows that 99 (35.7%) students were between the age of 26 to 31, followed by the age group of 32 to 37, which constituted 88 students (31.8%). All in all, majority of the students, (90%) were aged 26 and above.

Figure 3: Age of Student Respondents



Hence, from these figures, it is possible to conclude that student respondents were mature enough to reflect their views critically on the quality of education.

Finally, Items III, IV and V show that there were even distributions of students as categorized by colleges, departments and year level of study.

4.2 Analysis of Input-Process-Output Factors

4.2.1 Input Factors Affecting Quality of Education

To compare instructors' and students' attitude and perception of quality of education, first related literatures have been reviewed and then some major factors which affect the quality of education have been discussed as follows.

Table 6: Adequacy of Academic Staff Size

		Instructors		Students	
		No.	%	No.	%
How do you rate the adequacy of the academic staff size?	Very Low	13	20.3	47	17
	Low	35	54.7	177	63.9
	High	10	15.6	40	14.4
	Very High	6	9.4	13	4.7
	Total	**64**	**100**	**277**	**100**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**.481**			

Table 6 discusses the responses obtained from respondents with regards to their perception of the adequacy of number of instructors in their respective colleges. As can be seen from Table 6, the majority of respondents, i.e., 35 (54.7%) instructors and 177 (63.9%) students, answered that the adequacy of number of instructors as low. This figure is followed by 20.3% of instructors and 17% of students, who answered that the staff size was very low.

Following the description of the group statistics, t-test was carried out to check whether there is a significant difference between instructors and students in their perception of academic staff size. When the critical value at 0.05 is less than the calculated value, the result of t indicates that there is statistically significant difference among responses. Accordingly, the critical value of t for 339 degree of freedom assuming a test at alpha level 0.05 is .481 ($p > 0.05$). Hence, there is no statistically significant difference between students' and instructors' responses on the adequacy of faculty size. This implies that instructors and students perceive academic staff size to be inadequate.

HERQA's guideline for internal quality audit generally suggests that every institution should have 'adequate number of staff to support each program' (HERQA, 2006). In this regard, many students pointed out in the open-ended questions that because of inadequate number of instructors that the college had, fresh instructors were made to give advanced courses.

Besides, they pointed out that at times, they had to be taught by the same instructor for consecutive semesters, which may result in lack of interest and apathy both from students' and instructors' side.

On the other hand, answering to the open ended question, many instructors pointed out that due to the inadequate number of instructors in their respective departments, they were made to have the maximum workload, which makes it difficult for them to be engaged in any productive research activity as most of their time is devoted to classroom teachings and paper works. Corroborating this fact, Olusola (2007) asserts that 'instructors at PHEIs teach 16 to 20 hours a week which give rise to the absence of research or professional development opportunities'.

Another input factor which may have an impact on quality of education is instructors' competency. Table 7 below shows instructors' and students' views on the issue. In mean computation, higher mean values indicate general agreement with the items while lower mean values represent general disagreement with the propositions. Numerically, parallel to the frequency and percentage values, the observed mean values were analyzed and interpreted as follows:

Table 7: T-test for Mean Differences between Instructors' and Students' Response on Competency of Instructors

Issue	Groups	No.	Mean	SD	t
How do you rate the competency of instructors?	Instructors	64	2.84	.930	t= 8.385 p= .000*
	Students	277	1.83	.858	

* Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$

As indicated in Table 7, the mean scores of instructors (2.84) shows that instructors tend to view themselves as competent, while students (with mean score of 1.83) perceive their instructors as incompetent. In this regard, a statistically significant difference of .000 at 0.05 level was observed in the t-test between the responses of the two groups.

Asked how they ensure academic staff's competency, college managers replied in the interview that they put the maximum effort in hiring instructors whose undergraduate degree CGPA is 3.00 point and above. However, majority of students, in their answer to the open-ended questions, asserted that most of the instructors are not very competent in explaining academic issues, are not skilled in maintaining their students' attention, and do not employ different teaching methods.

From this, it can be inferred that instructors who have a good academic rank in their studies may not necessarily be equipped with the required skills of teaching unless they upgrade themselves with the necessary pedagogical trainings. What is important in improving the quality of education is not only having enough number of teachers with good academic ranks, but enough number of good quality teachers who are highly knowledgeable about the pedagogy of teaching and learning.

Table 8: Instructors' Response on Teaching Experience and Pedagogical Trainings

Issues	Choices	No.	%
1. How experienced are instructors in your department?	Highly inexperienced	18	28.1
	Inexperienced	29	45.3
	Experienced	11	17.2
	Highly experienced	6	9.4
2. Have you ever taken pedagogical trainings?	Yes	9	14.1
	No	55	85.9
3. What is the extent of impact of pedagogical trainings on the quality of education?	High	42	65.6
	Medium	14	21.9
	Low	8	12.5

As indicated in Table 8 above, 29 (45.3%) instructors responded that teachers in their respective departments are mostly inexperienced. This figure was followed by 28.1% of instructors who said that instructors were highly inexperienced. It is to be remembered that the analysis of Item III of Table 4 had revealed that close to 72% of instructors have below 5 years of teaching experience. According to Olusola (2007), instructors at private universities mainly constitute younger faculty members with bachelor's degrees and limited teaching experience. From this it can be deduced that private higher institution teachers do lack the necessary teaching experience, which is vital for effective teaching-learning and for maintaining the quality of education.

Focus on teaching, training, and overall professional development of teachers is one of the special attention and action priorities of the Education and Training Policy of the Government of Ethiopia (FDRE, 1994). In line with this, HERQA requires that at least 25% of instructors for any institution must have taken pedagogical trainings. In Item 2 of Table 8, instructors were asked whether they have taken part in pedagogical trainings or not. The vast majority (85.9%) replied that they haven't taken any pedagogical training. However, in the following item (3), majority of instructors (65.6%) agreed that pedagogical trainings have a high impact on the quality of education. Pedagogical trainings help instructors to address students' varying needs in a more scientific manner (Astin, 1994). From this, it can be inferred that most of the instructors may not have the necessary skill and knowledge to address students' needs and meet learners' expectations.

As a matter of fact, even though instructors have completed their bachelor's or master's degree with good academic rank, it was noted elsewhere that most of their students view

them as being incompetent (Table 5). In line with this, Shann (1992) states that new staff members should be given opportunities to get acquainted with methodological concepts of teaching and they should take a special program of preparation for teaching in higher education; educators who have completed their BA, MA or Ph.D should not be assumed to teach that discipline to others.

During the interview session, college managers were asked what types of trainings have so far been organized by the college for instructors so as to increase their teaching competency level. Two of the college managers responded that most of the instructors come for short contract or on a part-time basis. Hence, the college finds it difficult to arrange for pedagogical trainings for instructors which fit instructors' 'busy' schedule. On the other hand, one of the administrators indicated that budget and the college management's lack of awareness on the needs of instructors have been the main factors that prohibited them from carrying out pedagogical trainings to instructors. Hence, the results have an implication that even though pedagogical trainings are perceived by both instructors and college administrators as important for effective teaching-learning process, little is being done to objectively address the issue.

Another input factor that may place an impact on the quality of education is educational facilities. In the course of assessing the perception of respondents on the availability of educational facilities, seven closed-ended items were employed and all items were followed by four alternatives: Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), Agree (A) and Strongly Agree (SA). Instructors' and students' response on the availability and adequacy of educational facilities in their respective institutions are summarized in Table 9 below.

Table 9: Availability of Educational Facilities

Item	Items	Respondents	SD		D		A		SA		Total		Mean	SD	t-test	Sig.* (2-tailed)
			No.	%	No.	%	No.	No.	%	%	No.	%				
I	There are sufficient classrooms	Instructors	7	10.9	8	12.5	35	54.7	14	21.9	64	100	2.88	.882	.468	.640
		Students	26	9.4	52	18.8	113	40.8	86	31	277	100	2.94	.934		
II	There are sufficient number of chairs	Instructors	4	6.3	5	7.8	36	56.3	19	29.7	64	100	3.09	.791	1.438	.151
		Students	25	9	45	16.2	134	48.4	73	26.4	277	100	2.92	.885		
III	There is enough library space	Instructors	19	29.7	32	50	11	17.2	2	3.1	64	100	1.94	.774	.614	.540
		Students	96	34.7	133	48	36	13	12	4.3	277	100	1.87	.797		
IV	The library has all the necessary resources	Instructors	21	32.8	30	46.9	8	12.5	5	7.8	64	100	1.95	.881	.421	.674
		Students	94	33.9	113	40.8	44	15.9	26	9.5	277	100	2.01	.936		
V	Students have sufficient access to the Internet	Instructors	29	45.3	26	40.6	5	7.8	4	6.3	64	100	1.75	.854	.851	.396
		Students	135	48.1	113	40.8	18	6.5	11	4	277	100	1.66	.772		
VI	There are sufficient number of computers	Instructors	18	28.1	34	53.1	8	12.5	4	6.3	64	100	1.97	.816	.234	.815
		Students	82	29.6	134	48.4	41	14.8	20	7.2	277	100	2.00	.858		
VII	There is sufficient laboratory equipment	Instructors	21	35.9	29	53.4	4	7.1	2	3.6	56	87.5	1.80	.819	.125	.900
		Students	67	34.9	100	52.1	19	10.4	6	2.6	192	69.3	1.82	.760		

* Non-significant: $p > 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

As indicated in item I and II of Table 9 above, majority of instructors and students responded that there are sufficient classrooms (54.7% and 40.8% respectively) as well as sufficient number of chairs (56.3% and 48.4 respectively). In this regard, the t-test value of .468 showed no significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between the two groups' responses.

Libraries are considered the brains of the higher education institutions. However, with reference to Item III, majority of instructors and students (50% of instructors and 48% of students) showed disagreement to the fact that there is enough library space, while 29.7% of instructors and 34.7% of students strongly disagreed with the fact. In the same way, 46.9% of instructors and 40.8% of students responded in disagreement that the necessary library resources were available adequately, while 32.8% of instructors and 33.9% of students strongly disagreed with same. No statistically significant difference was observed for the t value of .614 and .421 for Item III and IV, respectively ($p>0.05$).

HERQA's standard stipulates that there should be at least one server-based network with internet connection. However, Item V shows that 45.3% of instructors and 48.1% of students strongly disagreed that there is sufficient internet access. The t-test statistic revealed that the difference between means is not statistically significant ($p>0.05$), and the perception of students and instructors did not differ significantly regarding the availability of internet access according to the needs. In addition, answering to the open-ended questions, student respondents indicated that instructors give them project works, which require them to refer to many books from the library; however, since the availability of necessary reference materials is so minimal and internet access is limited, student respondents reported that were facing problems. Similarly, most of the 4th year students said that it is very difficult for them to find

books for their Senior Essays, which they undertake as partial fulfilment of their bachelor's degree, because of the unavailability of adequate and up-to-date books in the library and their very limited access to the Internet. On the contrary, during the interview session, top managers asserted that they encourage the librarians as well as instructors (in some instances) to buy books and stack the library at least once a year. Besides, they claimed that they are planning to implement a broadband internet which will effectively serve both instructors and students.

Asked to indicate the sufficient availability of computers (Item VI), 53.1% and 48.4% of instructors and students, respectively, said that the number of computers were insufficient. No statistically significant difference has been observed between the mean scores of instructors and students ($p>0.05$). However, HERQA's standard requires that there should be 1 computer per 2 students for Computer Science, IT and related fields (HERQA, 2008). This implies that the number of computers is insufficient as compared to the number of students.

In addition, with regards to laboratory equipments (Item VII), 53.4% of instructors and 52.1% of students said that the colleges' laboratory equipments are insufficient, followed by 35.9% of instructors and 34.9% of students who responded in strong disagreement to the same fact. The difference between the means of these two groups was not statistically significant ($p>0.05$).

In the open-ended questions, a number of medical and IT students and instructors indicated that laboratory equipments and computers were both out-dated and insufficient. One of the instructors responded by saying that at times he was obliged to teach courses which essentially need practical exercises, by using overhead projectors because most of the

computers in the computer lab were malfunctioning, out-dated (versions of Pentium 2 and 3) and the number of those computers that were in good condition were so much below the number of students.

On the other hand, laboratory classes should allow students to gain subject-specific practical experience and enhance their knowledge and understanding of the subject area. Unfortunately, a number of medical students, for instance, said that they lack interest to attend lab sessions because even though they go to the class, they will only watch their instructors handle those equipments. This is because equipments are incomparably low in number and students will not be given chance to have hands-on experience for themselves.

On a side note, it was noted that about 8 instructors and 85 students did not respond to this question (Item VII). It is assumed that those instructors and students who did not respond were from Business Faculty, for whom laboratory equipments do not have much applicability and relevance.

Another very important factor of input is the building. To open a university, one needs buildings to house the academic process. Respondents were asked if their respective institution operates in its own building or not. Almost all of the respondents said that it operates in rented buildings. Similarly, interviews with college managers also revealed that buying lands and constructing university buildings are very costly unless subsidized by the government or able citizens; hence the only alternative is to rent space in someone else's building. As Ishengoma (2007) observes, the successful operation of private universities is constrained by the fact that the majority of these institutions still operate from rented

premises, unable to undertake large-scale construction of new educational facilities because of their limited financial resources.

Subsequently, instructors and students were asked to rank expected problems associated with this fact. Out of a total of 341 respondents (both instructors and students), 272 of them responded as follows:

Table 10: Observed Problems in Relation to Institutional Buildings

Observed Problems	No.	%
Offices may lack the required space and facility	198	72.8
Classrooms may lack the required size and comfort	114	41.9
Buildings are built in noisy surroundings	92	33.8
A huge amount of money may be shifted to rental fees	81	29.8
All are possible answers	69	25.4

In this regard, respondents were given an open-ended question to indicate additional possible problems that may come along as a result of the institutions' reliance on rented buildings. For instance, a number of students indicated that extension classes are mostly carried out in public elementary schools, whose classroom settings, chairs and other facilities do not match with the fees they are paying to the institution. In contrast, other respondents (the remaining 69 respondents) said that even though the colleges operate in rented buildings located at the heart of the city, they are getting advantage because they find it easy and accessible for transportation purposes. So they said that they are okay with the college's location choices.

Having a rented building--or parts of it--one can never be sure when the lease will expire or when and to what extent the rental fees will increase. Second, the rented building does not belong to the lessee to renovate, expand, or configure at will. Corroborating this notion, the

college managers revealed that the problem of equipment and facilities is, in fact, directly linked to the issue of buildings. One respondent said: "even with adequate resources to buy everything we need, it is difficult to install equipment and means of communication because of such factors as the landlord of the building may not allow it or the building might be inappropriate to support the equipment". Besides, it was found out that the colleges are spending millions of birr per year only in paying rental fees (one institution's manager said they spend around 6 million a year), which could have well been used in other areas to maintain the quality of education. The management officials further claimed that the government is not giving them support in terms of offering free lands, just like what it is doing for public institutions.

In this connection, asked to what extent will lack of funds have a negative impact on the quality of education, 49 (76.6%) instructors and 197 (71.1%) of students said that the impact will be very high. Empirical studies also corroborate this finding in that government's financing policies determine how efficiently private higher education institutions mobilize and use the available resources, the quality and effectiveness of their teaching and research programs, and their ability to increase training and research in productive sectors (Olusola, 2007; Materu, 2007).

Class size is one of the primary variables college faculty must contend with when developing effective teaching strategies. According to HERQA's standard, staff-student ratio should be 1:40 for lecture courses (such as business and law), and 1:20 for medicine, language and computer science courses.

Respondents were asked to give their average estimation of class sizes in which they teach and learn. Their responses are summarized in Table 11 below:

Table 11: Class Size Cross tabulation

Issue	Respondents	20 - 30	31 - 40	41 – 50	Above 50	Total
Current Class Size	Instructors	2 (3.1%)	6 (9.4%)	13 (20.3%)	43 (67.2%)	64 (100.0%)
	Students	16 (5.8%)	31 (11.2%)	65 (23.5%)	165 (59.6%)	277 (100.0%)
Desired Class Size	Instructors	51 (79.7%)	13 (20.3%)	-	-	64 (100.0%)
	Students	203 (73.3%)	74 (26.7)	-	-	277 (100.0%)

As shown in the Table 11, 43 (67.2%) number of instructors and 165 (59.6%) number of students reported that the class size to be above 50 followed by 20.3% of instructors and 23.5% of students who answered the average class size is between 41–50. Subsequently, instructors' and students' response on the observed problems due to large class sizes have been summarized in Table 12 as follows:

Table 12: Observed Problems in Relation to Class Sizes Over 40

Statements:	Respondents	
	Instructors	Students
a. Teachers will be unable to give attention to each student	21 (37.5%)	77 (33.5%)
b. Students will lack interest	14 (25%)	52 (22.6)
c. Teachers' teaching interest will decrease	11 (19.6%)	40 (17.4)
d. Teachers will be unable to correct class works and test papers on time	10 (17.9%)	38 (16.5%)
e. Teachers will be unable to maintain classroom discipline	- -	23 (10.0%)

Besides, a number of students indicated that they will not be able to have adequate access to computers if there is large class size. The above findings coincide with Ocho's conclusion

that "some of the effect of over enrolment by tertiary institution include, the reduction of effectiveness of teaching, increase in problems of class control, continuous assessment, difficulty in marking of written work and conduct of examinations" (Ocho, 2006).

Similarly, Dillon (2002) concludes that students' and instructors' motivation and attitude tends to be more negatively affected by larger classes. He further adds that though they may have learned the material, students may not feel as satisfied with the classroom experience as they would have in smaller classes, suggesting that some learning opportunities may have been lost. In this regard, management officials were asked what action they take when class sizes are larger than the standard set by the Ministry of Education. Most of them implied that they divide classes into two when they are found to be larger than 50. As can be noted, the responses found from instructors and students sharply contrast with that of top managers'.

On the other hand, respondents were asked to indicate their desired class size. Thus 79.7% of instructors and 73.3% of students were in favor of a class size between 20 to 30 students. Consistent to this notion, McKeachie (1990) cited in Dillon (2002) claims that while small class sizes may not be significant in courses best suited for lecture style learning, courses geared toward promoting critical thinking, skills development, and advanced problem solving are best suited for smaller classroom environment.

To sum up, smaller classroom environments, especially for practical courses, may enhance students' learning experience because they will enable instructors to impart knowledge and communicate with students effectively as well as address students' needs in a better way.

4.2.2 Process Factors Affecting Quality of Education

Coming to the 'process' elements, one of the factors that may place an impact on the quality of education is teaching methods. Teaching methods are the means by which students and instructors effectively communicate (Bourner, 1997). Thus, with the intention of investigating the frequency of teaching methods usually employed in classrooms, the following responses were obtained from research participants:

Table 13: Frequency of Utilization of Teaching Methods

Teaching Methods	Respondents	Most of the time	Sometimes	Not at all used
Lecture	Instructors	49 (76.6%)	15 (23.4%)	- -
	Students	227 (81.9%)	50 (18.1%)	- -
Demonstration	Instructors	19 (29.7%)	36 (56.3%)	9 (14%)
	Students	71 (25.6%)	127 (45.9%)	79 (28.5%)
Group Discussion	Instructors	4 (6.3%)	52 (81.3%)	8 (12.5%)
	Students	4 (1.4%)	212 (76.5%)	61 (22%)
Role Play	Instructors	- -	9 (14.1%)	55 (85.9.9%)
	Students	- -	51 (18.4%)	226 (81.6%)
Projects	Instructors	7 (10.9%)	46 (71.9%)	11 (17.2
	Students	26 (7.6%)	260 (76.2%)	55 (16.1%)

Table 13 depicts the extent of application of different teaching methods as reported by research participants. The teaching method, which was reported to be employed "most of the time" was the lecture method (76.6% of instructors and 81.9% of students), followed by the

Demonstration method, for which 29.7% of instructors and 25.6% of students reported to be used most of the time.

Group Discussions were labeled to be employed "some times" by 81.3% of instructors and 76.5% of students. Projects were reported to be used "sometimes" by 71.9% of instructors and 76.2% of students. Demonstrations were also reported to be used "sometimes" by 56.3% and 45.9% of instructors and students respectively. The exception was Role Play which was reported by the great majority of respondents (71.9 % of instructors and 76.2% of students) as being "not used at all".

This finding is consistent with Obasi's generalization that much of the educational methodologies in Africa are based on the model of lecturing and rote memorization and do not encourage critical thinking, problem-solving and creativity – All essential skills for promoting entrepreneurship (Obasi, 2007). To sum up, if lecture methods are mostly used for all types of studies, it might prove to be irrelevant for 'practical' courses, as students are expected to formulate new ideas and acquire better problem solving skills, which they will need to apply in the world of work. Hence, further intervention and training is needed to change instructors' traditional mode of teaching.

It has been argued by many writers that many of the factors contributing to high quality education are related to particular teaching and learning styles (Hill et al., 2003). Thus, as the other element of assessing the 'process' factor, students' learning experience in contrast to instructors' general performance are discussed in this section. Thus, responses of instructors and students are summarized in Table 14 below.

Table 14: Respondents' Rating of Instructors' Performance

Item	Issues	Respondents	SD	D	A	SA	Mean	SD	t-test	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	Instructors' Class Attendance	Instructors	-	10	24	30	3.31	.732	1.166	.245
			-	15.6%	37.5%	46.9%				
		Students	2	57	105	113	3.19	.781		
			.7%	20.6%	37.9%	40.8%				
2	Instructors' syllabus Coverage	Instructors	-	8	21	35	3.42	.708	1.214	.033
			-	12.5%	32.8%	54.7%				
		Students	-	42	133	102	3.22	.689		
			-	15.2%	48.0%	36.8%				
3	Teaching with high sense of responsibility	Instructors	16	35	9	4	2.02	.807	.512	.609
			25%	54.7%	14.1%	6.3%				
		Students	74	154	35	14	1.96	.772		
			26.7%	55.6%	12.6%	5.1%				
4	Adequate preparation for classes	Instructors	4	7	33	20	2.53	.776	3.612	.000*
			6.3%	10.9	51.6%	31.3%				
		Students	71	140	36	30	2.09	.902		
			25.6%	50.5%	13.0%	10.8%				
5	Allotting sufficient time for consultation	Instructors	19	40	4	1	1.80	.622	.380	.704
			29.7%	62.5%	6.3%	1.6%				
		Students	110	135	21	11	1.76	.759		
			39.7%	48.7%	7.6%	4.0%				
6	Making effort to understand students' difficulty in study	Instructors	23	30	7	4	1.88	.780	1.006	.315
			35.9%	46.9%	10.9%	6.3%				
		Students	77	136	55	9	1.99	.845		
			27.8%	49.1%	19.9%	3.2%				
7	Timely feedback on tests, assignments, etc	Instructors	7	33	22	2	1.45	.754	1.059	.291
			10.9%	51.6%	34.4%	3.1%				
		Students	39	123	101	14	1.35	.658		
			14.1%	44.4%	36.5%	5.1%				
8	Type of feedback	Instructors	11	9	31	13	2.25	.943	.353	.725
			17.2%	14.1%	48.4%	20.3%				
		Students	34	43	146	54	2.21	.895		
			12.3%	15.5%	52.7%	19.5%				
9	Instructors' relationship with students	Instructors	2	12	34	16	2.00	.756	6.883	.000*
			3.1%	18.8%	53.1%	25%				
		Students	60	201	10	6	1.35	.658		
			21.7%	72.6%	3.6%	2.2%				

One of the many purposes of higher education is to deliver information and ideas at a level beyond that which is possible at school, and to ensure intellectual assent as well as the ability to use it in a range of applications (Bourner, 1997). For this to happen, instructors should be present in the classrooms to provide guidance and direction, as far as traditional teaching-learning is concerned. With this in mind, respondents were asked to state their observation on

instructors' regular attendance in classrooms and syllabus coverage. According to Table 14, Item 1, which depicts respondents' rating of the class attendance of instructors, the vast majority of instructors (84.4%) and students (78.7%) agreed on the statement that says instructors attend at least 80% of the hours assigned for the course. In this regard, the mean scores of the two groups respondents showed no statistically significant difference ($p>0.05$). Thus, it could be safe to conclude that instructors attend at least 80% of the period assigned for the course.

Similarly, a computation has been made on whether instructors cover at least 80% of the contents defined in the syllabus. Table 14, Item 2 shows that 54.7% of instructors and 36.8% of students strongly agreed on the statement of instructors' syllabus coverage, followed by 32.8% of instructors and 48% of students who similarly showed their agreement. These ratings depict that all respondents perceived that instructors indeed cover majority of the portion defined in the syllabus.

As has been said earlier, teachers are essential players in promoting quality education. Well trained, highly motivated, dedicated with high sense of responsibility and professionally competent teachers are very important. In this regard, in Item 3, respondents were asked if they believe that majority of instructors teach with high sense of responsibility. Close to 80% of instructors responded that they do not believe so. In the same way, 55.6% and 26.7% of students indicated that they strongly disagree and disagree, respectively, with that statement. What's more, a number of instructors implied in the open-ended question that most of their colleagues are rushing between teaching jobs or between class and another profession. Hence, they have little commitment to the college or to the students. Asked what may be the

main reason for instructors' lack of commitment and responsibility, a number of instructors indicated that the salaries they are being paid do not match with the amount of the job or the cost of living. Thus, this might be one of the factors that discourage instructors to be committed to one single employer and seek after additional part-time jobs. This claim coincides with Agarwal's (2006) report that most bright people are reluctant to join the academic profession and those who join, do it as a last resort. He further added that they get disillusioned soon after they join when they find that they have no incentive to perform. Another note-worthy finding by Altbach (2009) says that:

> *"it is no longer possible to lure the best minds to academe. A significant part of the problem is financial. Academic salaries are way far from being enough and have not kept up with remuneration for highly trained professionals everywhere".* (p., 2)

From these, it could be safe to deduce that low remunerations are one of the driving forces that make instructors less responsible and less committed to their jobs and/or to any one employing institution.

In Item 4, respondents were asked to show the degree of agreement and disagreement in rating instructors' adequate preparation for classes. The mean scores of instructors (2.53) and that of students (2.09) showed that there is statistically significant difference between the responses of instructors and students (Sig. .000, $p < 0.05$). The research findings of Hill et al. (2003) indicate that:

> *"students appreciate lecturers who knew their subject, were well prepared and were able to present well organized sequence of content during the course, who had knowledge of new developments and research in the area, had the ability to transmit enthusiasm for the subject and were interesting to listen to" (p. 16).*

Hence, the difference in opinion may have come from the fact that students' expectation of instruction and delivery in the classroom exceeds what most instructors are prepared for. This implies that instructors should be prepared for something more than solely presenting what is written in the handouts and should make an attempt to cater to individual needs.

In subsequent Items 5 and 6, respondents were asked to rate if instructors allot sufficient time for consultation and also if they make real effort to understand the difficulties their students may be having in their studies. Accordingly, Table 14, Item 5 shows that majority of instructors (62.5%) as well as students (48.7%) said that majority of instructors do not allot sufficient time for consultation. Besides, 46.9% of instructors and 49.1% of students rated that majority of instructors do not make real efforts to understand students' difficulties in study. The obtained t-test values, for both of the questions reveal that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups' responses ($p>0.05$). Instructors further added that office space unavailability is one of the major problems which prohibit them from allotting time for students. On the other hand, many students indicated in the open-ended questions that since instructors usually share one office, students will not feel comfortable to approach their instructors. The researcher is an eye-witness about this claim that in all colleges visited, it was observed that instructors belonging to one department are given only one, relatively small-sized office space. This might be one of the factors which discourage instructors not to stay around in the office or in the college premises for longer hours. In this regard, Altbach (2009) asserts that "if teachers of higher education cannot devote their full attention not only to teaching and research but also to maintaining an academic culture, working with students outside of the classroom, and participating in the governance of their universities, academic quality will decline".

Another factor that has been identified as affecting quality in the teaching-learning process is the timeliness and the type of feedback given to students (Table 14, Item 7 and 8). According to Hague (1991), the key role and the most important element of tests and assignments lie in the interaction with instructors and the timeliness and clear feedback given to students.

In this regard, most of the respondents (51.6% of instructors and 44.5% of students) indicated that timely feedback is not given most of the time. Besides, in the following Item 8, 48.4% of instructors and 52.7% of students indicated that feedbacks are usually given in the form of numbers. Hill, Lomas and MacGregor (2003) argued that students' learning outcome increases when feedbacks are given written and oral forms, are constructive and positive as well as consistent and clear information which is reviewed and developed in a timely manner. Thus, in order to improve students' learning outcomes as well as enhance the quality of education, students should be given chances to learn from their mistakes.

Respondents were also asked to indicate if instructors have good relationship with students (Table 14, Item 9). 32 (50%) instructors responded that they have good relationship with students followed by 18 (28.1%) instructors who strongly agreed with the statement. In contrast, 156 (56.3%) of students followed by 58 (20.9%) responded in disagreement saying that they do not have favourable relationship with their instructors. In this regard, the obtained t value was found to be significant at .000 and $p<0.05$; hence, statistically significant difference was observed between the two groups' responses. This difference maybe attributed to the fact that students' view of 'good relationship' might be different from that of instructors'. According to Hill et al. (2003), "the absence of argument between teachers and students does not prove good working relationship", (p. 16). These writers

further point out that students appreciate lecturers who are easy to be with, who help them learn, who are good communicators and interactive with students, and supportive who do not make students feel stupid. Hence, the findings imply that in order to change students' negative perception about their relationship with their instructors and ensure quality education, instructors should strive to attain characteristics that would foster favourable classroom environment that is beneficial both of themselves and their students.

The deficiency in managerial and analytical capacities of managers is one of the major problems that higher education is suffering from. The following Table 15 gives a summary of private college's management competency as viewed by instructors and students.

Table 15: College Management's Competency

Item	Issues	Groups	SD	D	A	SA	Mean	SD	Sig.* (2-tailed)
1	Management's competency to administer the College	Instructors	10 (15.6%)	44 (68.8%)	5 (7.8%)	5 (7.8%)	2.08	.741	.384
		Students	62 (22.4%)	170 (61.4)	31 (11.2%)	14 (5.1%)	1.99	.735	
2	Management's involvement in students' academic affairs	Instructors	15 (23.4%)	42 (65.6%)	3 (4.7%)	4 (6.3%)	1.94	.732	.486
		Students	62 (22.4%)	193 (69.7%)	16 (5.8%)	6 (2.2%)	1.88	.595	
3	The management gives timely response to students' query	Instructors	12 (18.8%)	40 (62.5%)	9 (14.1%)	3 (4.7%)	2.05	.722	.858
		Students	54 (19.5%)	176 (63.5%)	32 (11.6%)	15 (5.4%)	2.03	.727	
4	Instructors and student body representatives are involved in the mgt's decision making	Instructors	7 (10.9%)	44 (68.8%)	11 (17.2%)	2 (3.1%)	1.91	.684	.400
		Students	28 (10.1%)	192 (69.3%)	49 (17.7%)	8 (2.9%)	1.98	.640	
5	The management evaluates the college's performance regularly	Instructors	9 (14.1%)	43 (67.2%)	10 (15.6%)	2 (3.1%)	2.08	.650	.579
		Students	29 (10.5%)	193 (69.7%)	46 (16.6%)	9 (3.2%)	2.13	.621	
6	High commitment for academic excellence	Instructors	12 (18.8%)	39 (60.9%)	8 (12.5%)	5 (7.8%)	2.09	.791	.505
		Students	81 (29.2%)	133 (48%)	41 (14.8%)	22 (7.9%)	2.01	.872	

* Non-significant: p>0.05 level

As Table 15, Item 1 depicts, respondents were asked to give their opinion on the overall competency of the management to administer the college. While majority of instructors (15.6% showed strong disagreement and 68.8% showed disagreement) and students (22.4% strongly disagreed while 61.4% disagreed) viewed the college's administration competency unfavourably, only a negligible percentage of respondents answered in favour of the management's administration. In this regard, the obtained t-value confirms that there is no statistically significant difference between the responses of instructors and students ($p>0.05$ level). Answering to open-ended question, many students said that there is always an extended delay before a new semester begins until the management arranges part-time instructors. For this reason, instructors always rush to finish the syllabus before the end of the semester. This finding coincides with Girmay's (2001) conclusion that leadership ineffectiveness, lack of commitment, and managerial incompetence are the main challenges for quality management.

In the subsequent items of 2 and 3, respondents were asked to show their opinion about the management's 'closeness' to students and instructors in academic affairs. In both cases, the overwhelming majority of both instructors and students responded in negation. Answering to the open ended questions, most students quite frequently said that the management is more concerned about making money than addressing our needs and queries. In addition, most instructors implied that the management is very business-minded that no matter what the problem observed, it will be addressed only as long as it doesn't involve considerable cost. One instructor wrote that "the management is penny wise but pound foolish, as the British say", in that they are very concerned about their profit margins, while ignoring their students' and instructors' queries.

On the other hand, it was found out from the interview session that most of the college managers and administrators did not have any teaching background or working experience with higher learning institutions. From these, it may be safe to deduce that since PHEIs are for profit institutions; this may mean that the owners are businessmen who invest their money for profit. This assertion closely matches Altbach's conclusion where that many private institutions are increasingly joining the system; however, these providers of private higher education look into the institutions as business centers instead of considering the institution as centers of academic excellence (Altbach, 1998). This implication may have a direct bearing on the quality of education.

On the other hand, in Item 4, respondents were asked to give their opinions if collective leadership exists in those institutions. Consequently, 79.3% of instructors and 81.3% of students responded that the management doesn't involve them in crucial academic decision making. In this regard, while instructors termed the style of leadership as 'centrally-controlled' many students said that the management do not usually call its students for meetings and open discussions. On the other hand, during one of the interview sessions, one of the deans revealed that, he as the student dean, rigorously meets with student body representatives and uses their feedback as the main source of information to check and echo students' voices to the Academic Council.

Afterwards, Item 5 shows respondents' opinion about the management's engagement in periodic performance reviews. Thus 43 (67.2%) instructors and 193 (69.7%) students replied that the management does not periodically evaluate its performance. Even though instructors and students responded in disagreement, all of the management officials disclosed that the

college's management is indeed engaged in periodic performance review. However, it was found out from the interview that the management does not fully communicate the outcomes to its students and instructors. Thus this maybe the cause for the opinion differences between the college managers' responses and that of respondents. As Trow (1994) asserts, for institutions of higher education to be successful, there is a real need to develop more transparent, effective and efficient institutional management practices which involves stakeholders in the continuous effort for improvement.

Respondents were also asked to show their degree of agreement on the management's commitment for academic excellence. 60.9% of instructors and 48% of students responded in disagreement followed by 18.8% of instructors and 29.2% of students who responded in strong disagreement with the statement. Furthermore, many student respondents indicated that the institution is money-oriented with little concern to the quality of education. Hence, institutional leaders should strive for academic excellence and be committed to quality education.

4.2.3 Output Factors Affecting Quality of Education

One of the most crucial indicators of effective output of educational system in ensuring students' development of necessary skills and knowledge as well as graduates' employability is the relevance of curricula (Chua, 2004). In this regard, both instructors' and students' opinion on the relevance of the curricula has been summarized in Table 16 below.

Table 16: Respondents' View on Relevance of the Curriculum and Graduates' Employability

Statements: The Curriculum is	Respondents	SD	D	A	SA	Mean	SD	Sig.* (2-tailed)
1. Helping students develop the necessary skills to work as a team member	Instructors	4 (6.3%)	7 (10.9%)	28 (43.8%)	25 (39.1%)	3.16	.859	.058
	Students	30 (10.8%)	43 (15.5%)	125 (45.1%)	79 (28.5%)	2.91	.932	
2. Helping students in improving their skills of written and oral communication	Instructors	4 (6.3%)	9 (14.1%)	35 (54.7%)	16 (25%)	2.98	.807	.874
	Students	20 (7.2%)	24 (8.7%)	178 (64.3%)	55 (19.9%)	2.97	.758	
3. Developing students' ability to effectively use Information Technology in the future	Instructors	15 (23.4%)	39 (60.9%)	6 (9.4%)	4 (6.3%)	1.98	.766	.106
	Students	95 (34.3%)	150 (54.2%)	20 (7.2%)	12 (4.3%)	1.82	.746	
4. Developing students' skills for research and inquiry	Instructors	13 (20.3%)	38 (59.4%)	10 (15.6%)	3 (4.7%)	2.05	.744	.068
	Students	109 (39.4%)	125 (45.1%)	23 (8.3%)	20 (7.2%)	1.83	.860	
5. Developing students' skills to tackle unfamiliar problems that they might face in the world of work	Instructors	39 (60.9%)	13 (20.3%)	8 (12.5%)	4 (6.3%)	2.05	.765	.548
	Students	151 (54.5%)	77 (27.8%)	27 (9.7%)	22 (7.9%)	1.98	.834	
6. Quality in content that students can get and keep a good job after graduation	Instructors	13 (20.3%)	38 (59.4%)	9 (14.1%)	4 (6.3%)	2.06	.774	.207
	Students	111 (40.1%)	100 (36.1%)	47 (17%)	19 (6.9%)	1.91	.916	
7. Related to the practical world of work	Instructors	15 (23.4%)	39 (60.9%)	6 (9.4%)	4 (6.3%)	1.98	.766	.607
	Students	58 (20.9%)	170 (61.4%)	29 (10.5%)	20 (7.2%)	2.04	.777	
8. Giving students all the necessary knowledge and skills that future employers might require	Instructors	19 (29.7%)	32 (50%)	9 (14.1%)	4 (6.3%)	1.97	.835	.206
	Students	72 (26%)	125 (45.1%)	53 (19.1%)	27 (9.7%)	2.13	.910	
9. Relevant to the country's economic and developmental needs	Instructors	20 (31.3%)	34 (53.1%)	8 (12.5%)	2 (3.1%)	1.88	.745	.087
	Students	60 (21.7%)	156 (56.3%)	46 (16.6%)	15 (5.4%)	2.06	.773	

* Non-significant: p>0.05 level

Curriculum must provide students with the knowledge and skills needed for the present and future. Table 16 indicates the degree of the curriculum's relevance as viewed by instructors and students. Accordingly, asked to show their degree of agreement and disagreement towards the curriculum's relevance in raising students' skills to work as team members, 39.1% of instructors and 28.5% of students said that they strongly agree with the statement. It was indicated elsewhere in the literature review that group discussion is one of the means through which students develop the skill of working as a team member. In this connection, it is to be noted that this study found out that highest frequency of teaching method was given to lecture method followed by group discussion method. Hence, it could be safe to deduce that the delivery of the curriculum somewhat fosters the application of group discussions through which students learn to work along with other group members. Teamwork skills, according to Yohannes (2006) refers to "the students' ability to work in groups as a participant who contributes effectively to the group's task and motivate others – all essential skills to enhance students' employability"

One of the many means by which relevance of the curriculum is to be measured is by the extent to which students are gaining transferable skills. According to Yohannes (2006), among others, such skills include: *communication skills* (speaking, report writing and presenting) and *information technology skills* (Computer literacy, including the ability to use word-processing, spreadsheet, database system, the Internet etc). These are key skills that are recognized to be transferable and applicable to employment and other contexts beyond the confines of a particular academic subject.

In relation to this, respondents (in item 2, Table 16) showed their agreement that the degree programs are developing their oral communication and writing skills. This maybe attributed to the project works and group discussion methods that instructors sometimes use. However, in the subsequent statement (Item 3, Table 16) respondents were asked to show their degree of agreement if the degree courses are enabling students to effectively develop information technology skills. While 60.9% of instructors and 54.2% of students disagreed, 23.4% of instructors and 34.3% of students strongly disagreed with the statement. To mention but few, one of the student respondents specializing in computer sciences responded to the open ended question by saying that "many of us in graduating class don't even know how to assemble parts of a computer, not to mention how to engage in computer hardware and software maintenance". Again, many students implied that computers were both insufficient in number and outmoded.

Research enables individuals to be open to new ideas and to become more flexible in their thinking. Besides, research is believed to narrow the gap between theory and practice (Pine, 1981) cited in Bekalu (2005). With this in mind, in Item 4 of Table 16, respondents were asked to show their attitude on the curriculum's relevance in raising students' research skill. From the response of instructors while 59.4% disagreed and 20.3% strongly disagreed, 45.1% of students disagreed and 39.4% strongly disagreed.

The Ethiopian Education and Training Policy suggests that one of the aims of education is to strengthen the individual's and society's problem-solving capacity, ability and culture starting from basic education and at all levels (FDRE, 1994 E.C.). With this in mind, respondents were asked if they agree with the statement that says the curriculum is helping

students to develop skills which will help them tackle unfamiliar problems in the world of work. Majority of respondents (60.9% of instructors and 54.5% of students) disagreed with the statement.

In relation to this, to find out their belief on the curriculum's relevance in helping students gain all the necessary skills that future employers may want from them, respondents were asked to show their degree of agreement or disagreement. Thus the vast majority of respondents (79.7% and 71.1% of instructors and students respectively) said that they don't believe in such a statement. Besides, in the open ended part of the questionnaire, students said that most of the courses are a direct copy of the western world, which do not have any relevance and applicability to local employers or to the country's needs. Similarly, instructors implied that the benchmarking for degree courses are usually done by directly copying from other public universities as well as by referring to other private college's practices, without the involvement of employers.

During the interview session, similar responses were gathered that so far it was not possible to involve other stakeholders in the development of the curriculum. Here, one of the deans, during the interview session, said that he himself believes that there are some 'junk' courses being given to undergraduate degree-level students. Thus, he is afraid that when students graduate, they may not be fully in line with employers' requirements. The Ethiopian Education and Training Policy, as its major strategy, stipulates that the education system should "create a mechanism by which teachers, professionals from major organizations of development, and beneficiaries participate in the preparation, implementation and evaluation of the curriculum" (FDRE, 1994 E.C). Hence, institutional leaders should see to it that

stakeholders are involved in curriculum development as well as periodic revision. Damtew (2005) strongly asserts that quality of education gets well away and is managed to remain compatible when "... a host of stakeholders are involved". Potential employers should be involved in the design as well as revision process of curriculum to enhance the quality of education.

Graduate surveys are popular for analysis of the relationship between higher education and work (Schomburg, 2003 cited in Millington, 2005). Institutions should use tracer studies "for knowing the destiny of their graduates and the relationship between their study and their professional reward." (Ibid, p. 2). With this in mind, top management officials were asked if the institution conducts tracer studies to see how many of their graduates have been employed and also to find out how they are doing in the world of work. It was found out that none of the sample colleges have ever undertaken tracer studies until now. In relation to this, Levy (2002) asserts that despite the benefits of collecting labour market responses, few institutions in developing countries collect information on career paths of higher education graduates, making it difficult to uncover potential discrepancies between supply and demand of highly skilled labour. Unfortunately, this remains to be one of the issues that institutional leaders in PHEIs must contemplate with to ensure the quality of education.

CHAPTER 5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This part summarizes the major findings which would answer the basic research questions raised in chapter one of the thesis, gives conclusion and forwards possible recommendation based on the findings of the study.

5.1 Summary

The Ethiopian higher education system has seen rapid expansion in the private as well as public sector in the past decade. However, many critics assert that the quality of education has not kept up well with the rate of expansion. Accordingly, the study aimed to assess the quality of education in private higher education institutions in Addis Ababa.

The objectives of the study were: a) to assess to what extent quality of education is affected by educational inputs, process and outputs; b) to investigate existing problems that impede quality of education in PHEIs; c) to determine factors that contribute to the improvement of quality education in PHEIs; d) to suggest measures to be taken for improvement of quality of higher education in light of the findings.

In order to meet the above-stated objectives, the following basic research questions were framed, which this study attempted to answer:

a. From input factors, to what extent do academic qualifications and experiences of teachers affect the quality of education?
b. To what degree do poor teaching-learning facilities and resources affect the level of educational quality offered in PHEIs?

c. From process factors, how do the teaching methods used in the classroom affect the quality of education?
d. To what extent are the curricula programs relevant to ensure the quality of education?
e. Do college managers have the necessary capacity to manage the institutions and achieve quality standard?
f. As indicators of output, to what extent are students gaining the necessary knowledge, skill and attitude to ensure employment after graduation?

The population of the study was degree awarding private higher learning institutions in Addis Ababa. The sample was six private colleges: two from business field of specialization, two from the ICT field and the remaining two colleges from medicine and pharmacy fields. 277 students, 64 instructors and five administrators were selected for the study. Questionnaires (Amharic and English) on four-point likert scale were developed and used to collect quantitative and qualitative data from students and instructors. On the other hand, interview checklists were prepared for college administrators. Afterwards, quantitative data were tabulated and analyzed using percentage, mean scores and two-way t tests.

On the basis of this study, it was found out that majority of the instructors at the sampled PHEIs were fresh graduates and had less than five years teaching experience. Besides, most of the instructors did not sufficiently take pedagogical trainings. This was found to have a direct bearing on the quality of education. In relation to competencies of instructors, while most of the sampled instructors perceived themselves as competent, students perceived their instructors to be highly incompetent. It was implied that good academic records may not

ensure competency by themselves unless backed by the necessary pedagogical trainings and skills.

The teaching-learning facilities that this study took into consideration were institutional buildings, adequacy of classrooms and chairs, library space and sufficient and up-to-date books and references, laboratory equipments, computers, and access to the internet. Accordingly, it was found out that the sampled private higher learning institutions operate in rented buildings. Problems that come along due to their operation in rented buildings were found out and analyzed. Availability of classrooms and chairs were found to be in good condition. However, the library space in sampled PHEIs was rated to be smaller than the number of students and the libraries were found to be inadequately equipped with the necessary resources. Laboratory equipments and computers were also found to be out-dated and insufficient by instructors as well as students specializing in medicine and computer science fields.

For assessing some of the 'process' factors that affect the quality of education, the overall teaching-learning process in the classroom, the college management's competency and the relevance of the curriculum have been given due emphasis. Analyzing the teaching-learning process, it was found out that instructors were able to attend classes for majority of the time during the semester and also cover most of the portions defined in the syllabus. However, it was observed that instructors lacked the necessary commitment and sense of responsibility while attending classes. It was learnt that instructors did not get enough remuneration, which contributed to their lack of motivation. On the other hand, it was found out that instructors were using similar teaching methods regardless of students' fields of specialization. When it

comes to the college management's competency, most of the respondents implied that the management was not competent enough in promoting quality education. Such factors were identified to negatively affect the quality of education. Stakeholders should be involved in the design and review of the curriculum in order to ensure its relevance as it places a direct impact on graduates' employability. However, most of the respondents regarded the curriculum as being not up to the desired level in equipping students with the necessary skill and knowledge which are required in the world of work.

As an indicator of 'output', it was discovered that institutional administrators of the sampled PHEIs have never undertaken graduate tracer studies so as to find out the movement and performance of their students in the world of work as well as the their contributions to societal developments

5.2 Conclusion

The quality of education is intrinsically integrated with the availability of competent and qualified teaching staff in adequate number. This study showed that sampled PHEIs faced with the problem of incompetent academic staff as a result of lack of pedagogical trainings.

The physical facilities are essential requirements to achieve high educational standards. This study showed that sampled institutions had sufficient classroom spaces and chairs, whereas offices, computer labs and laboratories were ill-equipped.

Libraries are rightly considered as the greatest asset for any educational institution to provide the students and staff a desired environment for research and development. This study

concluded that number of books, updated books, internet facilities and sufficient sitting capacity of the library was not adequately provided in sampled institutions.

In order to ensure quality of education, institutions should have adequate number of permanent teaching staff in all fields. This study showed that most of the sampled private higher education institutions have a large number of part-time teaching staff.

Teachers are not only responsible for the cognitive and mental growth of the students but also for overall personality development of students. All this is possible as long as teachers allocate sufficient consultation and advisement time. However, this study found out that instructors do not allocate sufficient contact hours with their students for such purposes.

Instructors are the central and unique element of the overall educational set up. Good teachers and their teaching methods provide greater learning opportunities to students. All this is possible through proper pedagogical trainings. This study showed that most of the instructors have not taken pedagogical trainings. Thus this affects their mode of delivery of the instruction.

A well-motivated and skilful teacher can change the fate of students and the nation. One of the mechanisms by which institutions can motivate their employees is through increased salaries and other incentives. It was found out that instructors' remuneration was not up to the desired level and this was found to be one of the factors which discourage instructors to be committed to their jobs and to the employing institution.

Students are the end products of an educational enterprise. The whole education system should basically focus to make these end products more valuable and problem-solvers by

giving students the best learning experience by applying appropriate methods of teaching. This study found out that instructional methods were not equipping students with the necessary skills up to the desired level.

Efficient institutional administration is another area that cannot be ignored if quality education is to be maintained. Like other functional areas of an organization, administration plays a key role in achieving desired goals. This study concludes that college management was not competent enough in promptly addressing queries of instructors and students, in involving these groups in essential decision makings and in showing commitment to academic excellence and quality.

Relevance of curriculum is the backbone to ensure students' future employability as well as a country's societal benefits as long as graduates are equipped with the necessary skill, knowledge and attitude. The study found out that respondents do not believe that most of the degree courses are equipping them with the necessary skill and knowledge which ensures future employment.

Graduate tracer studies are essential tools by which a higher learning institution can find out where its graduates are and how they have benefited from their studies. However, this study found out that graduate tracer studies have never been undertaken by sampled colleges to find out the efficiency of their outputs in the world of work.

5.3 Recommendations

In light of the findings of the study, the following recommendations are forwarded:

- Teachers are essential players in promoting quality education. Well trained and professionally competent teachers are very important to reach educational objectives. Therefore it is strongly recommended that PHEIs should give in-service pedagogical trainings to their academic staffs, which would equip them with the necessary methods of teaching.
- Teaching should be made an attractive profession financially. To make instructors motivated for research works and more committed to their academic duties, their pay structures should be revised and upgraded to meet the needs of their daily life.
- Lecturing method does not always prove to be effective for all types of desired learning outcomes. Therefore, teaching methods should be improved in such a way that students are encouraged in questioning, creative thinking and problem-solving.
- Libraries should be stacked with up-to-date and enough number of books. Besides, laboratory equipments and computer labs should be kept up standard. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that institutions should allocate adequate funds to upgrade such facilities.
- Institutions should be able to have school buildings of their own to accommodate more students as well as install new technologies in the classrooms and offices, which they cannot do on rented buildings. For this to happen, the government should allow private higher education institutions to have free lands so that funds maybe shifted to building up the required infrastructures and facilities.

- On HERQA's side, necessary trainings should be arranged for college managers and administrators so that they improve their competencies in managing educational institutions more effectively and efficiently.
- Surprise visits should be regularly carried out by HERQA to ensure that private higher learning institutions always work in line with the standards.
- An irrelevant curriculum contributes to the widening gap between education institutions and world of work, and finally contributes to increasing unemployment rate. Hence, it is recommended that the curriculum should be revised with the involvement of key stakeholders and appropriate reforms should be encouraged in such a way that it addresses the need of students, employers and society
- Private Higher Education Institutions should strengthen partnerships with community, private and public education and business sectors as well as foreign educational institutions so that they can get better access to useful information, experience sharing, and educational resources sharing.
- Quality education at higher level must not be seen in isolation. Hence, a broad-based comprehensive drive has to be taken to enhance quality in the primary and secondary education, as backward linkages of higher education.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire to be filled by Instructors

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE FILLED IN BY INSTRUCTORS OF PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN ADDIS ABABA

GENERAL REMARK:

These days, most people claim that the quality of education in higher learning institutions is continuously deteriorating. Thus, the main objective of this study is to assess the current status of the quality of education in Private Higher Education Institutions of Addis Ababa.

For this reason, the researcher kindly requests you to devote 20 minutes of your valuable time and cooperate in giving your honest response to the questions provided in the following pages.

Your answers will be confidential; hence you DO NOT need to write your name.

Thank you very much in advance for your cooperation.

I. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Name of the College/University _____

2. Name of the department: _____

3. Gender: a) Male ☐ b) Female ☐

4. Age: 20-25 ☐ 26-31 ☐ 32- 37 ☐ 38- 44 ☐ Above 45 ☐

5. Academic rank: a) Graduate Assistant ☐ b) Assistant Lecturer ☐ c) Lecturer ☐
   d) Assistant Professor ☐ e) Associate Professor ☐ f) Professor ☐
   f) Other (Please specify) _____

6. Qualification: a) PhD ☐ b) MA/MSc ☐ c) BA/BSc ☐
   d) Other (Please specify) _____

7. Additional Qualification (if any): _____

8. Years of Teaching Experience:
   Below 1 year ☐ 1-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐ 11- 19 years ☐ Above 20 years ☐

9. Job Status: Permanent _____ Part-time _____
   Other (Please specify)_____

INSTRUCTION:

Please read the following items and give your answers by either putting a tick mark (√) in the box in front of a word or a phrase or write in full as appropriate.

II. QUESTION ITEMS

10. How do you rate the adequacy of academic staff size in your department?
    ☐ Very high ☐ High ☐ Low ☐ Very Low

11. How do you rate the competency of most of the instructors in your department?
    ☐ Very competent ☐ Competent ☐ Somewhat Competent ☐ Not competent at all

12. On average, how experienced are the instructors in your department?
    ☐ Very experienced ☐ Experienced ☐ Somewhat experienced ☐ Not experienced at all

13. How would you rate the adequacy of educational facilities? Please use the following rating scale to base your evaluation.

4 = Strongly Agree 3 = Agree 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

		Choices			
S.No.	**QUESTIONS**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
13.1	There are very sufficient classrooms in the College				
13.2	There are no sufficient chairs for students in the College				
13.3	The College doesn't have enough library space				
13.4	The library is equipped with the necessary resources such as books and reference materials				
13.5	There is sufficient laboratory equipment in the College				
13.6	There is insufficient number of Computers for students				
13.7	Students have sufficient access to the Internet				

14. What are the college's challenges in relation to inadequate educational facilities as far as your knowledge is concerned?

_____

_____

_____

15. Does the institution operate in its own buildings?

☐ Yes ☐ No

16. If you answered "No" to question number 14, what are some of the expected problems?

a. Classrooms may lack the required size and comfort
b. Offices may lack the required space and facility
c. A huge amount of money may be shifted to paying rental fees
d. The buildings may have been built in noisy surroundings which do not facilitate a peaceful teaching-learning process
e. All of the above are possible answers
f. Other (Please specify) _____

_____

_____

17. If the management does not have enough funds to run the college, how much do you think is its negative impact?

☐ Very high ☐ High ☐ Low ☐ Very low

18. How do you rate the adequacy of compensation in terms of salaries for teaching staff in your college?

☐ Very high ☐ High ☐ Low ☐ Very low

19. If you answered low or very low to question number 18, would you please state its related negative impact on your performance?

_____

_____

_____

20. What is the average class size in your lecture class?

a. 20 – 30 b. 31 – 40 c. 41 – 50 d. Above 50

21. If your answer to question number 20 is "41 – 50" or "Above 50", what are some of the expected problems in the teaching-learning process? **(You can encircle on more than one answer as applicable)**

f. Teachers will be unable to maintain classroom discipline

g. Teachers will be unable to give attention to each student

h. Teachers will be unable to correct class works and test papers on time

i. Students will lack interest

j. Teachers' teaching interest will decrease

k. Other (Please specify) _____

_____

_____

22. In your opinion, how many students should be assigned in a classroom so as to maintain the quality of education?

a. Below 20 b. 20 – 30 c. 31 – 40 d. 41 – 50

23. How would you evaluate your colleagues' activities in relation to your performances? *To answer, please tick mark (√) beside each statement that most accurately reflects the extent to which you AGREE or DISAGREE with the statement.* The Choices represent:

4 = Strongly Agree 3 = Somewhat Agree 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

S.No.	STATEMENTS	CHOICES			
		4	3	2	1
23.1	Majority of instructors cover over 80% of the contents defined in the syllabus for each of their courses				
23.2	Majority of instructors attend 80% of the period assigned for the course				
23.3	Majority of instructors do not use different teaching methods to meet students' needs				
23.4	Majority of instructors do not allot sufficient time for student consultations and advisement				
23.5	Majority of instructors do not prepare adequately for their classes				
23.6	Majority of the courses have sufficient textbooks, teaching materials and/or handouts				
23.7	Majority of instructors make a real effort to understand difficulties students may be having with their study				
23.8	Majority of instructors teach with a high sense of responsibility				
23.9	Majority of instructors do not have sufficient teaching experience				
23.10	Majority of instructors provide timely feedback on assignments, tests, and student projects				
23.11	Majority of instructors usually provide feedback on students' work only in the form of numbers and grades				
23.12	Majority of instructors need in-service pedagogical trainings				

24. Please rate the frequency of methods of teaching you usually use in your classrooms in the table below with a tick mark (√)

Teaching Method	Frequency		
	Most of the time	Sometimes	Not at all used
Demonstration			
Lecture			
Group discussion			
Role play			
Project/Term papers			

25. How far do you agree with the following statements that indicate the competency of the managers of the institution (university/college presidents, deans, vice deans, etc.) in managing the college? The Choices represent:

4 = Strongly Agree 3 = Somewhat Agree 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly Disagree

S.No.	STATEMENTS	CHOICES			
		4	3	2	1
25.1	The college management has the necessary competency to administer the College				
25.2	The college management is directly involved in students' academic affairs so as to raise their performance				
25.3	The management of the institution gives timely response to students' query				
25.4	The management allows instructors to participate in the academic decision making				
25.5	The management of the institution involves student body representatives in the management of the institution				
25.6	The management evaluates the college's performance regularly				
25.7	The institution's leadership shows high commitment for academic excellence				

26. If you believe that the college management is mostly incompetent, what other problems can you mention in relation to its incompetence?

_____

_____

_____

_____

27. How far do you agree with the relevance of the curriculum being offered in the institution?

The choices represent:

4 = Strongly Agree **3 = Somewhat Agree** **2 = Disagree** **1 = Strongly Disagree**

S.No.	STATEMENTS	CHOICES			
		4	3	2	1
27.1	The degree programs are helping students develop the necessary skills to work as a team member				
27.2	The degree courses are not developing students' skills to tackle unfamiliar problems that they might face in the world of work				
27.3	The degree programs are helping students in improving their skills of written and oral communication				
27.4	The degree courses are not developing students' skills for research and inquiry				
27.5	The degree programs are not developing students' ability to effectively use Information Technology in the future				
27.6	Because of the quality education the institution offers, students can get and keep a good job after graduation				
27.7	The courses are not related to the practical world of work				
27.8	The courses are relevant to the country's economic and developmental needs				
27.9	Students are getting all the necessary knowledge and skills that future employers might require				

NB. As much as possible, please DO NOT leave the open-ended questions here below unanswered.

28. Please list some of the major problems faced by the College in which you teach.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

29. Please give suggestions for the improvement of the quality of education in the college.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you so much for your cooperation!

Appendix 2: Questionnaire to be filled by Students

በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

የድህረ ምረቃ ፕሮግራም

የትምህርት ጥናትና ምርምር ተቋም

አዲስ አበባ ውስጥ በሚገኙ የግል ኮሌጆችና ዩኒቨርሲቲዎች ውስጥ በመማር ላይ ባሉ ተማሪዎች እንዲሞላ የተዘጋጀ መጠይቅ

አጠቃላይ መግለጫ

በአሁኑ ወቅት ብዙ ሰዎች በከፍተኛ ትምህርት ተቋማት እየተሰጠ ያለው የትምህርት ጥራት በከፍተኛ ሁኔታ እያሽቆለቆለ እንደሆነ ይናገራሉ። በመሆኑም የዚህ መጠይቅ ዋና አላማ በግል ኮሌጆችና ዩኒቨርሲቲዎች ውስጥ እየተሰጠ ባለው የትምህርት ጥራት ላይ ምርምር ማድረግ ነው።

በመሆኑም እርስዎ በምርምሩ ላይ እንዲሳተፉ በመመረጥዎ ከውድ ጊዜዎት ላይ 15 ደቂቃዎን በመሰዋት በሚቀጥሉት ገጾች ላይ የሚገኙትን መጠይቆች በኃላፊነት መንፈስ እንዲሞሉ በትህትና እንጠይቃለን።

የሚሰጡት መልሶች በጥንቃቄና በምስጢር ይያዛሉ፤ ስለዚህም **ስምዎትን መጻፍ አያስፈልግዎትም**።

ስለመልካም ትብብርዎ በቅድሚያ ከልብ እናመሰግናለን።

I. አጠቃላይ የግል ሁኔታ መግለጫ

1. የሚማሩበት ኮሌጅ/ዩኒቨርስቲ ስም _____

2. አሁን በኮሌጁ ውስጥ ያለዎት የትምህርት ደረጃ

   ☐ 1ኛ ዓመት ተማሪ ☐ 2ኛ ዓመት ተማሪ

   ☐ 3ኛ ዓመት ተማሪ ☐ 4ኛ ዓመት ተማሪ

3. ፆታ ☐ ወንድ ☐ ሴት

4. እድሜ ☐ ከ20-25 ☐ ከ26-31 ☐ ከ32-37

   ☐ ከ38-44 ☐ ከ45 በላይ

መመሪያ፡- ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩትን ጥያቄዎች በማንበብ በመልሶቹ ፊት ለፊት ባለው ሳጥን ውስጥ የ(√) ምልክት በማድረግ ወይም እንደአስፈላጊነቱ ያለዎትን ሀሳብ በመግለፅ ይመልሱ፡፡

II. ጥያቄዎች

5. በዲፓርትመንትዎ ውስጥ ያለውን የመምህራን ቁጥር መጠን እንዴት ያዩታል?

   ☐ በጣም ብዙ ☐ ብዙ ☐ ትንሽ ☐ በጣም ትንሽ

6. በዲፓርትመንትዎ ያሉት መምህራን የማስተማር ብቃት ምን ያህል ነው ብለው ያምናሉ?

   ☐ በጣም ከፍተኛ ☐ ከፍተኛ ☐ ዝቅተኛ ☐ በጣም ዝቅተኛ

7. በኮሌጁ ውስጥ የሚገኙትን ለመማር ማስተማር ሂደት አስፈላጊ የሆኑትን አቅርቦቶች መጠን ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩትን መመዘኛዎች በማንበብና የ(√) ምልክት በማድረግ ይገምግሙ፡፡ በሰንጠረዡ ውስጥ የተመለከቱት ምርጫዎች የሚወክሉት፡-

4 = በጣም አስማማለሁ 3 = በመጠኑ አስማማለሁ 2 = አልስማማም 1 = ጭራሽ አልስማማም

		አማራጮች			
ተ.ቁ.	ጥያቄዎች	4	3	2	1
7.1	በኮሌጁ ውስጥ የሚገኙት የመማሪያ ክፍሎች ቁጥር በጣም በቂ ነው				
7.2	በኮሌጁ ውስጥ በቂ የሆኑ የተማሪ መቀመጫ ወንበሮች የሉም				
7.3	የኮሌጁ ላይብረሪ በቂ የሆነ የቦታ ስፋት የለውም				
7.4	በላይብረሪው ውስጥ በቂ የሆኑ መጽሃፍት እና ሌሎች የመማሪያ ጽሁፎች በብዛት አሉ				
7.5	በኮሌጁ ውስጥ በቂ የሆኑ የላብራቶሪ መማሪያዎች የሉም				
7.6	በኮሌጁ ውስጥ የመማሪያ ኮምፒውተሮች ብዛት አናሳ ነው				
7.7	በኮሌጁ ውስጥ ከተማሪዎች ቁጥር ጋር የሚመጣጠን የኢንተርኔት አቅርቦት አለ				

8. አስፈላጊ የሆኑ የትምህርት አቅርቦቶች ባለመሟላታቸው ምክንያት ተያይዘው የሚመጡ ችግሮች ከሉ ቢጠቅሱ _____

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9. ኮሌጁ በራሱ ህንፃ ውስጥ ነው ወይስ በተከራየው ህንፃ ውስጥ የሚሰራው?

☐ በራሱ ህንፃ ውስጥ ☐ በተከራየው ህንፃ ውስጥ

10. «በተከራየው ህንፃ ውስጥ» ብለው ከመለሱ ይህን ተከትለው ሊታዩ የሚችሉ ችግሮች ምን ምን ናቸው? በመልስዎ ፊት ለፊት በማክበብ መልስዎን ይስጡ።

ሀ. የመማሪያ ክፍሎቹ የሚፈለገውን ያህል የቦታ ስፋትና ምቹነት እንዳይኖራቸው ያደርጋል

ለ. ቢሮዎች የሚፈለገውን ያህል የቦታ ስፋትና አስፈላጊ አቅርቦቶች እንዳይኖራቸው ያደርጋል

ሐ. ህንፃዎቹ የተሰሩት ረብሻና ግርግር በሚበዛበት ቦታ ከመሆኑ የተነሳ የመማር ማስተማሩን ሂደት ሊረብሸው ይችላል

መ. ሁሉም መልስ ሊሆኑ ይችላሉ

ሰ. ሌላ ተጨማሪ መልሰ ካልዎት ቢጠቅሱ _____

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11. የሚማሩበት ኮሌጅ በጥሩ ሁኔታ ለማስተዳደር በቂ ገንዘብ ባይኖረው በትምህርት ጥራት ላይ የሚያስከትለው አሉታዊ ተፅዕኖ ምን ያህል ነው ብለው ያምናሉ?

☐ በጣም ከፍተኛ ☐ ከፍተኛ ☐ ዝቅተኛ ☐ በጣም ዝቅተኛ

12. በሚማሩበት ክፍል ውስጥ በአማካይ ምን ያህል ተማሪዎች አሉ?

☐ ከ20-30 ☐ ከ31-40 ☐ ከ41-50 ☐ ከ50 በላይ

13. ለ12ኛው ጥያቄ «ከ41-50» ወይም «ከ50 በላይ» ብለው ከመለሱ ይህን ተከትለው በመማር ማስተማር ሂደቱ ላይ ሊታዩ የሚችሉ ችግሮች ምን እንደሆኑ ከዚህ በታች በተዘረዘሩት አማራጮች ላይ በማክበብ መልስ ይስጡ። ከአንድ በላይ መልስ እንደአግባብነቱ ሊያክቡ ይችላሉ።

ሀ. አስተማሪዎች በክፍል ውስጥ ስነ-ስርዐትን በአግባቡ ማስከበር ይሳናቸዋል

ለ. አስተማሪዎች ለእያንዳንዱ ተማሪ አስፈላጊውን ትኩረት መስጠት ይሳናቸዋል

ሐ. አስተማሪዎች የተማሪዎችን የፈተናና የፕሮጀክት ስራዎች በወቅቱ ማረም ያስቸግራቸዋል

መ. ተማሪዎች ለትምህርቱ ፍላጎት ሊያጡ ይችላሉ

ሰ. አስተማሪዎች የማስተማር ፍላጎታቸው ሊቀንስ ይችላል

ረ. ሌላ ተጨማሪ መልሰ ካልዎት ቢጠቅሱ _____

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14. በእርስዎ አስተያየት የትምህርት ጥራትን ለመጠበቅ ምን ያህል ተማሪዎች በአንድ መማሪያ ክፍል ውስጥ መኖር አለባቸው?

☐ ከ20 በታች ☐ ከ20-30 ☐ ከ31-40 ☐ ከ41-50

15. በዲፓርትመንትዎ ውስጥ በመማር ማስተማሩ ሂደት ላይ ያልዎትን ልምድ ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩትን አረፍተ ነገሮች በማንበብና የ(√) ምልክት በማድረግ ይገምግሙ። በሰንጠረዡ ውስጥ የተመለከቱት ምርጫዎች የሚወክሉት፡-

4 = በጣም እስማማለሁ 3 = በመጠኑ እስማማለሁ 2 = አልስማማም 1 = ጭራሽ አልስማማም

ተ.ቁ.	ጥያቄዎች	አማራጮች			
		4	3	2	1
15.1	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን ከኮርስ አውትላይኑ ቢያንስ 80% የሚሆነውን ይሸፍናሉ				
1.2	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን ለሴሚስተር ከተመደበላቸው የትምህርት ክፍለ ጊዜ ቢያንስ 80% ያህሉን ይገኛሉ				
15.3	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን የተማሪዎችን ፍላጎት ለማሟላት ምንም አይነት የተለያዩ የማስተማር ዘዴዎችን አይጠቀሙም				
15.4	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን ተማሪዎችን ለማማከርና ለመርዳት በቂ ጊዜ አይመድቡም				
15.5	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን ለሚያስተምሩበት ክፍለ ጊዜ በቂ ዝግጅት አድርገው አይቀርቡም				
15.6	አብዛኞቹ የምወስዳቸው ኮርሶች በቂ የሆነ መጽሃፍት የማስተማሪያ ቁሶችና ሃንድአውቶች አሏቸው				
15.7	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን ተማሪዎቻቸው ከትምህርታቸው ጋር በተያያዘ ምን አይነት ችግር እንዳለባቸው ለመረዳት በቂ ጥረት ያደርጋሉ				
15.8	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን በሃላፊነት መንፈስ ነው የሚያስተምሩት				
15.9	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን በቂ የማስተማር ልምድ የላቸውም				
15.10	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን የተማሪዎችን የቴስትና የፕሮጀክት ውጤቶች በጊዜው አርመው ያሳያሉ				
15.11	አብዛኛውን ጊዜ ለተማሪዎች ስራ ውጤት የሚሰጠው በቁጥር እና በግሬድ መልክ ብቻ ነው				
15.12	አብዛኞቹ መምህራን ተጨማሪ ስልጠና ያስፈልጋቸዋል				

16. መምህራን በመማሪያ ክፍሎች ውስጥ በአብዛኛው የሚጠቀሙበትን የማስተማር ዘዴ ድግግሞሽ መጠን ከዚህ በታች በሰንጠረዡ ውስጥ በተመለከተው መሠረት የ(√) ምልክት በማድረግ ይገምግሙ።

የማስተማሪያ ዘዴ	የድግግሞሽ መጠን		
	አብዛኛውን ጊዜ	አንዳንድ ጊዜ	ጭራሽ አይጠቀሙበትም
ሰርቶ ማሳያ (Demonstration)			
ሌክቸር (Lecture)			
የቡድን ውይይት (Group discussion)			
ተማሪ እንደ አስተማሪ ሆኖ ሌክቸር እንዲሰጥ ማድረግ (Role Play)			
የትምህርት ጉብኝት ማድረግ (Field trips)			
ፕሮጀክት ስራዎች			

17. እርስዎ በሚማሩበት ዲፓርትመንት ውስጥ የሚሰጡትን የዲግሪ ኮርሶች ተገቢነት ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩትን አረፍተ ነገሮች በማንበብና መልስዎን የሚወክለው ሰንጠረዥ ውስጥ የ(√) ምልክት በማድረግ ይገምግሙ። በሰንጠረዡ ውስጥ የተመለከቱት ምርጫዎች የሚወክሉት፡-

4 = በጣም እስማማለሁ 3 = በመጠኑ እስማማለሁ 2 = አልስማማም 1 = ጭራሽ አልስማማም

ተ.ቁ.	ጥያቄዎች	አማራጮች			
		4	3	2	1
17.1	የዲግሪ ኮርሶቹ ተማሪዎች በቡድን ውስጥ በደንብ ተቀናጅቶ የመስራትን ክህሎት እንዲያዳብሩ እየረዷቸው ነው				
17.2	ኮርሶቹ ተማሪዎች ወደፊት በስራ አለም ውስጥ ሊገጥሟቸው የሚችሉ ያልተለመዱ ችግሮችን የመፍታት አቅምን እንዲያዳብሩ እየረዷቸው አይደሉም				
17.3	የዲግሪ ኮርሶቹ ተማሪዎች የጽሁፍና የንግግር ክህሎቶችን እንዲያዳብሩ እየረዷቸው ነው				
17.4	የዲግሪ ኮርሶቹ የተማሪዎችን የምርምር አቅም የሚያሳድጉ አይደሉም				
17.5	የዲግሪ ኮርሶቹ ተማሪዎች ወደፊት ኢንፎርሜሽን ቴክኖሎጂን በደንብ መጠቀም እንዲችሉ እያስተማሯቸው አይደሉም				
17.6	በኮሌጁ ውስጥ ከሚሰጠው የትምህርት ጥራት የተነሳ ተማሪዎች ወደፊት ጥሩ ስራን የማግኘት እድላቸው ሰፊ ነው				
17.7	የሚሰጡት ኮርሶች ከተግባራዊው የስራ አለም ጋር በአብዛኛው ሊገናኙ አይችሉም				
17.8	አብዛኞቹ ኮርሶች የሃገሪቱን የኢኮኖሚና የልማት ዕድገት ፍላጎት ያገናዘቡ ናቸው				
17.9	ተማሪዎቹ የወደፊት ቀጣሪዎቻቸው ከእነርሱ ለማግኘት የሚጠብቁባቸውን በቂ እውቀትና ክህሎት በትምህርቱ አማካኝነት እያዳበሩ ነው				

18. በኮሌጁ ውስጥ ያሉት አስተዳዳሪዎች (የኮሌጁ ፕሬዚደንቶች፣ ምክትል ፕሬዚደንቶች፣ የዲፓርትመንት ማኔጀሮች ወዘተ) ኮሌጁን የመምራት አቅማቸው ምን ያህል መሆኑን በመገምገምና መልስዎን የሚወክለው ሰንጠረዥ ውስጥ የ(√) ምልክት በማድረግ ይመልሱ። በሰንጠረዡ ውስጥ የተመለከቱት ምርጫዎች የሚወክሉት፡-

4 = በጣም እስማማለሁ 3 = በመጠኑ እስማማለሁ 2 = አልስማማም 1 = ጭራሽ አልስማማም

ተ.ቁ.	ጥያቄዎች	አማራጮች			
		4	3	2	1
18.1	የኮሌጁ ማኔጅመንት በቂ የሆነ የመምራት አቅም አለው				
18.2	የተማሪዎቹን የትምህርት ውጤት ለማሻሻል የኮሌጁ ማኔጅመንት በተማሪዎች ጉዳይ ላይ ትኩረት በመስጠት በቀጥታ ይሳተፋል				
18.3	የኮሌጁ ማኔጅመንት ተማሪዎች ለሚያቀርቡት ጥያቄ ወቅታዊ ምላሽ ይሰጣል				
18.4	የኮሌጁ ማኔጅመንት መምህራን ትምህርት ነክ በሆኑ ጉዳዮች ላይ ውሳኔን በመስጠት እንዲሳተፉ ያደርጋል				
18.5	የኮሌጁ ማኔጅመንት የተማሪ ተወካዮችን አስፈላጊ በሆኑ ትምህርት ነክ ጉዳዮች ላይ ያሳትፋል				
18.6	ማኔጅመንቱ የኮሌጁን የስራ ሂደት በየጊዜው ይገመግማል				
18.7	የትምህርት ጥራትን ለማስጠበቅ የኮሌጁ አመራር ከፍተኛ ተነሳሽነትና መስጠትን ያሳያል				

19. የኮሌጁ ማኔጅመንት በአብዛኛው ጥሩ የማስተዳደርና የመምራት አቅም ያንሰዋል ብለው ካመኑ ከዚህ ጋር ተያይዘው የሚመጡ ችግሮች ከሉ ቢጠቅሱ _____

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መመሪያ፡- ከዚህ በታች የተቀመጡትን የእርስዎን አስተያየት የሚፈልጉትን ሁለት ጥያቄዎች በተቻለ መጠን ሳይመልሱ አይተዋቸው::

20. በሚማሩበት ኮሌጅ ውስጥ ለትምህርት ጥራት መውረድ ዋና ዋና ምክንያቶች ናቸው የሚሏቸውን ችግሮች እባክዎን ይዘርዝሩ

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21. የትምህርት ጥራትን ለማሻሻል ይረዳሉ የሚሏቸውን ዋና ዋና የመፍትሔ ሃሳቦች እባክዎን ይዘርዝሩ::

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ስለ መልካም ትብብርዎ ከልብ እናመሰግናለን!!

Appendix 3: Interview Guide for College Managers

1. How experienced and qualified are most of the instructors in your college?
2. How does the college ensure the competency of its new academic staff to enhance the quality of education?
3. Does the college organize pedagogical trainings for its academic staff? If yes, how often and in what topics? If not, what are the difficulties that hinder the institution from doing so?
4. In your opinion, to what extent are the necessary educational facilities such as classrooms, chairs, library space, reference materials, laboratory equipment, computers, and the Internet access present in the college in sufficient quantity?
5. What does the college do to make sure that such facilities are sufficiently available in the college all the time?
6. Does the college operate in its own buildings or in rented ones?
7. What problems are you facing due to this condition? And how do you think this issue should be addressed?
8. With the level of the facilities available to it, how far, do you believe, is the institution maintaining the quality of education?
9. What is the average class size in the college for degree students? Do you think that this size is adequate to maintain the quality of education?
10. What does the college do if class sizes are found to be larger than the standards set by the HERQA?
11. Do most of the management officials in your college have previous teaching experience or have they ever worked in higher education academics?
12. Does the management make any effort to evaluate the teaching/ learning process and the teacher-student interaction in the classroom setting?
13. Does the management have any mechanism by which it involves stakeholders (such as instructors, students etc) in the academic decision making?
14. What are some of the activities that the management does in order to show its commitment for academic excellence and educational quality?
15. After the benchmarks have been received by the MOE, how did the college design the curriculum?
16. Do you believe that the curriculum is relevant in equipping students with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitude for future employment?
17. How does the management ensure the relevance of the curriculum? Has the college ever undertaken curriculum review with the involvement of stakeholders?
18. In your opinion, do you believe that the curriculum is relevant for the students, local employers and the society at large?
19. Has the institution ever undertaken a graduate tracer study to check graduated students' employment status and employers' opinion and satisfaction? If yes, what do the results show?
20. What are some of the institution's major internal and external challenges?
21. What do you suggest for improvement of the quality of education?