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Structural Quality in Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE): A Cross-  
national Comparative Study on Ethiopian and Kenyan Initial Teacher  
Education

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national Comparative Study on Ethiopian and Kenyan Initial Teacher  
Education

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Policy Studies in Fulfillment of the Requirements for Degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy in International and Comparative Education

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Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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## **Declaration**

The researcher hereby declares, that this dissertation, entitled “Structural Quality in Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE): A Cross-national Comparative Study on Ethiopian and Kenyan Initial Teacher Education” is his original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university, and that all sources of materials used in the dissertation have been dully acknowledged.

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## Abstract

*This cross-national study intended to explore the Structural Quality of Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) in Ethiopian and Kenyan initial teacher education. Initial teacher education quality assurance arrangement policies were fundamental issues to be investigated. The study was mainly assisted by neo-institutional theory. The study employed a comparative cross-national case study design while sequential exploratory mixed strategy (QUAL + quant) was a methodological approach. Bereday's comparative analysis model was used as the analytical framework of the study. Given Ethiopia and Kenya are the cases, the respective education ministries and their line agencies were major research sites. Two teacher education institutions were also taken as subsidiary sites. Policy documents and different levels of education officials such as directorate/department heads, deputy directors, coordinators, senior experts, and teacher educators were major sources of data complemented by selected teacher trainees. Twenty-five major and supportive policy documents and 16 key informants were purposively selected for the qualitative part of the study. A total of 131 randomized samples was also drawn for the quantitative inquiry. Document analysis, semi-structured interview guidelines, and questionnaires were data collecting instruments used. The findings of this study have shown significant convergence and divergence. As a result, ECCE in both nations has gained still inadequate concern compared to subsequent education subsectors. Despite policy indications of how ECCE quality and teacher quality are milestones for all levels of education quality, the subsector looks in need of considerable attention. The concept of 'decoupling' from institutional theory was apparent but to a varied extent and characteristics. The Ethiopian ECCE, for instance, has shown significant 'decoupling' between the planned policy reform activities in initial teacher training and the practice. The Kenyan teachers' career arrangement policy was considerably decoupled in ECCE, for example. A clear similar pattern revealed on the least entry academic requirements for initial training that compromised the making of teacher quality. Such similarities have also shown a sort of 'policy isomorphism'. Divergence in governance structure and power has brought significant influence on all stages of quality assurance arrangement policy formation and practice. Privatization of teacher education was one of the major deviations affecting the respective nations differently. The Kenyan private ECCE teacher training institutions have been mushrooming while the current Ethiopian policy is closed for private teacher education. Unemployment was one distinctive characteristic of Kenyan ECCE trained teachers whereas Ethiopian ECCE is suffering from a critical shortage of teachers. There was a plain difference toward the professionalization of teacher educators. In Kenya, professional ECCE teacher educators are ranging from first degree to PhD levels. Conversely, in Ethiopia, there are no ECCE professional teacher educators in any of the training institutions. The findings of this research were also compared to the wider regional and global contexts. Accordingly, for instance, the driving forces of globalization in teacher education reform demonstrated unbalanced trend between the southern and northern practices. Findings have revealed disconnection between Africa's compassion on multiple importance of investment in ECCE and practice. Couples of policy implications were also suggested.*

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## **Acronyms**

AAU:	Addis Ababa University
ABE:	Alternative Basic Education
ADEA:	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AU:	African Union
CBC:	Competency Based Curriculum
CEICT:	Center for Educational Information Communication Technology
CTE:	College of Teacher Education
DICECE:	District Center for Early Childhood Education
ECCE:	Early Childhood Care and Education
ECCD:	Early Childhood Care and Development
ECD:	Early Childhood Development
ECDE:	Early Childhood Development and Education
ECEC:	Early Childhood Education and Care
EFA:	Education for All
EMIS:	Education Management Information System
ESDP:	Education Sector Development Program

ESQAC:	Education Standards and Quality Assurance Council
ESSP:	Education Sector Strategic Plan
ETP:	Education and Training Policy
FDRE:	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
GEQIP:	General Education Quality Improvement Program
IMF:	International Monetary Fund
INEE:	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
KCBC:	Kenyan Competency Based Curriculum
KICD:	Kenyan Institute for Curriculum Development
KIE:	Kenya Institute of Education
KMU:	Kotebe Metropolitan University
KU:	Kenyatta University
MoE:	Ministry of Education
MoEST:	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
MoH:	Ministry of Health
MoW:	Ministry of Women
NACECE:	National Center for Early Childhood Education
NEC:	National Examination Council
NESP:	National Education Strategic Plan



NTDP:	National Teacher Development Program
OAU:	Organization for African Union
OECD:	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
REB:	Regional Bureau of Education
SDG:	Sustainable Development Goals
TMIS:	Teacher Management Information System
TSC:	Teacher Service Commission
TVET:	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNDP:	United Nations Development program
UNESCO:	United Nations Education Science and Culture Organization
WASH:	Water Sanitation and Hygiene
WEO:	Woreda Education Office
WTO:	World Trade Organization

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the basic introductory topics of the study. It starts with the background while the second section discusses the rationale of the study. The third section portrays a statement of the problem. The fourth section discusses the objectives of the study. Section five presents basic research questions derived from the fundamental research question of the study. The focus of the study and limitations of the study are briefly discussed in sections six and seven respectively. Section eight is dedicated to the significance of the study. The last section states how the study is organized into nine chapters.

### **1.1. Background of the Study**

This research journey emerged through my experience as a preschool teacher, my educational expertise, and my deeper interest in education quality and education policies. I realized how teachers impact the quality of preschool education when I was working as an early childhood teacher for 15 years. This living experience always remembers me the cheerful and confident kids envisaging new activity while I enter the class. They often know I have something new for them in my bag. If I enter the class without my bag, they were certain that I have something in my pocket. In those days, I was a new enthusiastic local language ("Amharic") and English teacher for them. I often share this experience with preschool teachers in all the training sessions I have been engaged in. Given my backdrop, in recent years, particularly when I was working for the Ethiopian Ministry of Education, I aspired to know associations between ECCE subsector, teacher education, and policies for the overall quality of education.

Quality from education levels or subsectors viewpoint is often associated with Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE). This is mainly because quality ECCE has a huge positive impact on the quality of subsequent education levels (Naudeau et al., 2011; Bauchmuller, 2013; Roopnarine et al., 2018). From the determinants of quality education perspective, *the quality of an education system will not exceed the quality of its teachers* (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a p.118). Mounting evidence shows the profound importance of quality ECCE (Roopnarine et al., 2018) and quality teachers (Wang et al., 2011; Manning et al., 2017). This study has been triggered by the combined effect of the two education quality aspects: ECCE and teachers. Henceforth, the major powerful structural quality of ECCE (Slot, 2018), initial teacher education, is at the heart of understanding this study.

Quality ECCE in the growing worldwide literature is determined by the two components of quality: structural quality and process quality (Paro, 2012; Otero & Melhuish, 2015; J. Neuman et al., 2015; Vlasov et al., 2019). Quality ECCE needs structural inputs and logical processes that must be reflected in learning outcomes (J. Neuman et al., 2015). Research has shown teacher education as a powerful predictor of process quality and child outcome (Slot, 2018). It is important to note here how teacher quality is influenced by the extent of the quality of teacher policy (UNESCO, 2019) that bases the national context (Janta, 2016). Along with this point, Caena (2014) demonstrates how policies that govern the operation of initial teacher training in ECCE determine the overall quality of teacher education. Research also suggests that quality assurance arrangement policies for initial teacher preparation are crucial to ensure quality teacher education in ECCE (Manning et al., 2017).

The 21<sup>st</sup> century has revealed a worldwide rapid growth of ECCE (Gong & Wang, 2017). Human development policies, as a result, often put early childhoods on top of their priorities and this is well manifested in the growing ECCE policies (Ministry of Education [MoE], Ministry of Women Affairs [MoWA], Ministry of Health [MoH], 2010a; UNESCO, 2016; Republic of Kenya/Ministry of Education, 2017; Roopnarine et al., 2018). Within this universal policy drive, the international perspective demonstrates that the provision of quality ECCE must be every nation's task (Roopnarine et al., 2018). This is strengthened by Education Agenda 2030 in its vision for the universal expansion of equitable and quality ECCE (UNESCO, 2016). On the other hand, there is an increasing worldwide interest in quality teacher education (Caena, 2014; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Notwithstanding its importance for all levels of education (Sanyal, 2013), the prominence of qualified teachers in ECCE seems comparatively paramount (Watts, 2009). In consequence, improving the quality of ECCE teacher education has become one of the emerging global concerns despite regional disparities (Wortham, 2013; Roopnarine et al., 2018).

The special prominence of quality ECCE for low and middle-income countries is evident in research (Denboba et al., 2014). Specifically, quality ECCE for Sub-Saharan African nations has profound importance (Garcia et al., 2008). Investments in quality ECCE are among the best investments that enable these countries to reduce extreme poverty and improve social and economic development (Denboba et al., 2014). Many of the nations in the region are very far to invest in the quality of ECCE, however (Naudeau et al., 2011). A disproportionate number of childhoods from Sub-Saharan African nations

were found to be marginalized from the quality of ECCE and this is again associated with a critical shortage of qualified teachers (Roopnarine et al., 2018).

Policies on high-quality teacher education bear the best learning results and reduce education costs (Sanyal, 2013; UNESCO, 2019). There appears an increasing global interest in teacher policies that promote quality teachers and quality teaching (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Schleicher, 2019). Among other dimensions, teacher education is a key constituent of comprehensive teacher policy (UNESCO, 2019) and initial teacher preparation is a major component of teacher education that governs the entry, stay, and exit of student teachers (Caena, 2014; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Initial training is a vital stage in the journey of teachers' professionalism for it lays the foundation of basic professional knowledge, skills, and competence (European Union, 2015). As a result, the recruitment, selection, preparation, and certification policies of initial teacher education are crucial to produce quality teachers (Caena, 2014; UNESCO, 2019; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). This cross-national comparative study aims to explore the structural quality of Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE in particular focus on the initial teacher education.

## **1.2. Rationale for the Study**

In a broader sense, the rationale for this study is to contribute to our knowledge of the structural quality of ECCE in Ethiopian and Kenyan initial teacher education. The rationale for undertaking this study can be specified at least into four. First, as per existing studies (Paro, 2012; Otero & Melhuish, 2015; L. Slot et al., 2015; J. Neuman et al., 2015; Slot, 2018; Vlasov et al., 2019; Bonetti & Brown, 2018), investigating African

ECCE quality with respect to the two or one of these strands (structural quality and process quality) seems new. African education policymakers do not look familiar with these two dimensions of quality and this is clearly seen in the evolving national ECCE policy documents (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; Neuman & Devercelli, 2012; Ministry of Education [MoE], 2015; Republic of Kenya/Ministry of Education Science and Technology [MoEST] 2013a; Republic of Kenya/Ministry of Education [MoE] 2017). This study can contribute to a proper understanding of the structural quality of ECCE in terms of initial teacher education.

Secondly, the critical meaning and impact of quality education policy does not seem well recognized in most of the global nations (Bray et al., 2014). African nations at face value might look good at policy formulation but they have been subjected to irrelevant policies for many reasons (Neuman & Devercelli, 2012; UNESCO, 2013). According to Takyi-Amoako & Assié-Lumumba (2018), African policymakers seem unable to properly consider their real context as they are a pure product of the West. African nations also face the problem of formulating smartly designed education policies (Neuman & Devercelli, 2012; UNESCO, 2013; Viennet & Pont, 2017). This study mainly tries to explore the respective African nations' experiences and partly investigates the wider global context. Hence, it can contribute on understanding of quality education policy in general and quality teacher policy in particular.

Thirdly, cross-national comparative education research in Africa seems at a very premature stage (Bray et al., 2014). Aside from this, the nexus between nations, education policies, and comparative education research does not look well investigated in the existing global literature (Morgan et al., 2010). At the center of this synergy, the role

of institutional theory also does not seem properly emphasized (Wiseman et al., 2013b). This study might have the potential to contribute important knowledge in this respect.

The fourth contribution of this study might be showing the collective impact of the most two prominent education quality predictors: ECCE and teacher education. As findings of this study revealed, research by far lags behind to show the combining effect of these two mainly in African nations. Further, a heated debate has been taking place worldwide on how to ensure teacher quality from initial teacher preparation programs (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). This study may contribute to the global research on policies and practices of quality initial teacher education from the East African ECCE perspective. Another overarching contribution of this study can be showing ways of developing comprehensive teacher policy beyond the ECCE subsector. Much importantly, this study could potentially contribute to the global literature of the issues understudy.

### **1.3. Statement of the Problem**

A study conducted by Mbugua (2009) highlights a two-pronged increasing global interest in ECCE subsector: prioritizing ECCE as a foundation of life-long learning and quality teacher preparation for childhood education. Nations often demonstrate their strong conviction on the quality of ECCE while they envisage the overall quality of education. In a similar vein, they repeatedly explicate the indispensable role of teachers in education quality. They accordingly pay considerable attention to preschool quality and teacher reforms in their education policies and sector development programs (UNESCO, 2019; MoE, 2015; Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a; Roopnarine et al.,

2018). However, African nations are lagging to recognize the combined effect of ECCE and teachers for a better and sustained quality of education (Awopegba, 2010; J. Neuman et al., 2015; Roopnarine et al., 2018).

As regards the quality of education, two supposedly practices signify the importance of teachers. On one hand, the global policy and practice witness how high-quality teacher education has been significantly improving the quality of education (Sanyal, 2013; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017) regardless of the adequacy of other inputs (Manning et al., 2017). On the other hand, the practice shows that the poor quality of an education system is mostly associated with poor quality of teacher education than other factors (Musset, 2009).

Another practice concerning quality education emphasizes that childhoods in the global community have to enjoy quality ECCE programs irrespective of social, economic, cultural, and political variations (Roopnarine et al., 2018). Such practices conclusively substantiate the importance of high-quality teacher preparation for quality ECCE programs (Bauchmuller, 2013; Manning et al., 2017). Nonetheless, research has shown the prevalence of poor quality of ECCE teachers and scanty teacher education mostly in Sub Saharan Africa (Garcia et al., 2008; J. Neuman et al., 2015; Roopnarine et al., 2018).

International literature has recognized the importance of teacher policy reform that promotes quality teacher education (UNESCO, 2019; Manning et al., 2017; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). The global consensus on the prominence of teacher education for the overall quality of education (Wortham, 2013) and the impact of



effective educational policies (UNESCO, 2013) seem to be prime reasons for this recognition. Consequently, nations within the last two decades have been active in designing teacher policies and programs to ensure access and high quality ECCE irrespective of their socio-economic status (Manning et al., 2017). The policies often focus on the operation of structural features i.e. initial teacher education preparation and quality assurance arrangements (UNESCO, 2019; Manning et al., 2017).

Structural features of quality teacher education in ECCE often mean policies such as teacher policy that govern recruitment, selection, preparation, certification, and other issues of teachers (UNESCO, 2019; Manning et al., 2017). High quality ECCE has recently been interlinked with teacher policy (Manning et al., 2017) and there appears an increasing global interest in policies that promote quality teacher education in ECCE (Roopnarine et al., 2018). In consequence, comprehensive national teacher policy becomes one of the best educational investments that a particular nation can do for its citizens (UNESCO, 2019). There is, however, policy variation on the focus of ECCE; some nations pay attention to the betterment of teacher education while others target to improve another aspect of ECCE (Roopnarine et al., 2018). Global states have also been challenged on a better understanding of teacher policy and implementation (Awopegba et al., 2013; UNESCO, 2013; Roopnarine et al., 2018).

There appears very little information available on the quality of ECCE teacher education in Africa (Nganga, 2009). A study made by Sanyal (2013) illustrates that quality assurance of teacher education in Africa has been overlooked until recently. The study portrays how concerns on quality teacher education emerged in Africa and put an increase in the demand for qualified teachers as one major reason. It also suggests how

the quality of teacher education could be ensured in the continent. This study, nevertheless, is solely concerned with primary and secondary teacher education. On the other hand, identifying the key features of quality ECCE teacher education from the existing limited literature is a challenge. This is because the sources are trying to see several aspects of the subsector (Garcia et al., 2008; Nganga, 2009).

Understandably, African Sub-Saharan nations failed to achieve the first Education for All (EFA) goal that aimed for quality inclusive ECCE for all children (UNESCO, 2016). Apart from other reasons, shortage of trained teachers has contributed a lot for the failure and this has already been acknowledged by the African Union (AU) in its Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006-2015) Action Plan (UNESCO, 2010; J. Newman & et al., 2015; Agbenyega, 2017; UNESCO, 2016). In addition to this, ECCE in this region is running in a complicated mode of a delivery system for the diverse needs of children (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2014; MoE, 2015; Neuman & Devercelli, 2012; Weldemariam, 2013; UNESCO, 2015; Admas, 2016). There is also a disproportionate concern between the '*care*' and the '*education*' aspects of ECCE (Kaga et al., 2010). It is important to note that lack of relevant teacher education often relates to frequently stated problems in ECCE (Garcia et al., 2008; Kaga et al., 2010; Weldemariam, 2013; Zewdie et al., 2016; Manning et al., 2017).

In point of fact, any educational problem essentially is associated with policy issues (UNESCO, 2013). Existing problems might be attributed to the extent of developing appropriate teacher policies and implementation. Abound literature as evidenced by Roopnarine et al., (2018) tell us the critical shortage of qualified preschool teachers in Africa, for example. However, little is known whether this deficiency is

associated with teacher policies or not. According to INEE (2015), African teacher education in ECCE looks sporadic with variable quality but there is small or no evidence of how these problems are affected by teacher policies (UNESCO, 2013).

As part of Sub-Saharan African nations, Ethiopia and Kenya will not be aside from the aforementioned problems. To a varied extent, studies indicate that pre-school teachers in Sub Saharan African nations are untrained or have limited training (Ross & Genevois, 2006; Garcia et al., 2008; Nganga, 2009; Mbugua, 2009; Watts, 2009; UNESCO, 2010; Kaga et al., 2010; MoE, MoW, MoH, 2010a; Weldemariam, 2013; Agbenyega, 2015; J. Neuman et al., 2015; Admas, 2016; Zewdie et al., 2016). For instance, as evidenced by Weldemariam, (2013) and Admas (2016), teaching in Ethiopian ECCE centers seems everybody's job. Findings revealed that both Ethiopian and Kenyan teachers considerably overlook the '*care*' aspect of ECCE in their teaching and remain dependent on the traditional way of teaching (Kaga et al., 2010; MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; Neuman and Devercelli, 2012; Lemma, 2014).

There is little evidence to what extent the abovementioned problems are attributed to teacher policies and practices of the respective nations. Many global nations develop teacher education policies but they do not explore the impact of their policies on teacher quality particularly in initial teacher education (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). As a result, investigating the structural quality of ECCE in terms of initial teacher education for Ethiopia and Kenya who are under the contexts of a huge number of disadvantaged childhoods along with diversified cultures and experiences found to be incalculable (Awopegba et al., 2013).

Studies identified initial teacher education as influential structural characteristics that enhance quality ECCE (Slot, 2018; Bonetti & Brown, 2019; Vlasov et al., 2019). Accordingly, policymakers and ECCE providers have been prompted to increase qualified and licensed teachers (Manning et al., 2017). Understanding the status of initial teacher education quality assurance in African ECCE and its implications to the global context could help policymakers and other stakeholders to engage with the necessary actions. Hence, this cross-national comparative study intends to investigate the quality assurance arrangement policies and practices in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE initial teacher education.

#### **1.4. Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of this cross-national comparative study was to explore how initial teacher education as a structural quality of ECCE is reflected in Ethiopian and Kenyan policy contexts, and associated with the wider contexts. The study has also the following specific objectives.

1. To analyze the quality assurance arrangement policies and practices of initial teacher education in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE.
  - 1.1. To highlight the respective ECCE systems concerning the quality assurance of initial teacher education.
  - 1.2. To uncover the selection, recruitment, preparation, and certification arrangement policies and practices of initial teacher education in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE.
2. To make a comparative analysis on the quality of initial teacher education in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE.

3. To identify the challenges attributed to the policy and practice of initial teacher education quality assurance arrangements in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE.
4. To draw implications of this cross-national study in the wider (regional and global) contexts and vice versa.

### **1.5. Research Questions**

The fundamental research question for this cross-national comparative study might be devised as *How is initial teacher education as a structural quality of ECCE reflected in the Ethiopian and the Kenyan policy contexts and associated to the wider (regional and global) contexts?* This central research question was further broken down into four basic research questions:

1. How are the quality assurance arrangement policies of initial teacher education situated and practiced in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE?

1.1. How do the respective ECCE systems associate with the quality assurance of initial teacher education?

1.2. How are the selection, recruitment, preparation, and certification policies of initial teacher education practiced in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE?

The purpose of this research question was twofold: to explore associations between ECCE systems such as governance structure, program, curriculum, etc., and the quality assurance arrangements, and to demonstrate the practice of the quality assurance arrangement policies. This research question was answered mainly by the findings of the two case studies made in chapter 6 and 7.

2. What major similarities and differences are obtained from the quality assurance arrangement policies of initial teacher education in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE?

This research question aimed to bring attention to the heart of this cross-national comparative study. The comparative analysis based on the findings of the two case studies made in chapter 8 answered this research question.

3. What challenges attribute to the policy and practice of the initial teacher education quality assurance arrangements in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE?

This research question aspired to identify challenges unveiled in policy documents and demonstrated by the research participants as regards the policy and practice of initial teacher education quality assurance arrangements within the respective nations' ECCE. Chapter 6, 7 and 8 have answered this research question.

4. What implications does this cross-national comparative study have to the regional and global contexts and vice versa?

This research question attempted to show how the regional (Sub Saharan Africa) and global contexts were influenced and influenced by the respective national contexts. This research question has been addressed by specific findings of this study, selected theoretical underpinnings of institutional theory and the review of the literature.

### **1.6. The focus of the Study**

This study was delimited to the cross-national comparative analysis of the structural quality of initial teacher education in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE; and hence the other two stages in teacher education, induction and in-service training, were not

included. Aside from the comparative analysis of the respective nations, the study reflected the implication of the findings within the broader context or vice versa. The study mainly focused on the structural quality of ECCE in terms of initial teacher education and its quality assurance arrangement policies. The study is restricted to the three major initial teacher education quality assurance arrangements which are conceptualized in chapters three and four and operationalized in chapter five (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017).

As mentioned above, the study solely focused on the structural quality of teacher education in ECCE; it does not investigate process quality thereby child outcome. The study was mainly concerned with the exploration of the respective national policy contexts and practices. Policy practice in this sense also includes the formation status of policies that are planned to be prepared. The study highlighted curriculum and accreditation of ECCE programs with very specific policy issues to crosscheck quality assurance alignment between teacher education and ECCE program modalities. This study was delimited to particular ECCE personnel literally called *main teachers*; not assistant teachers or caregivers (Ministry of Education [MoE], Ministry of Women Affairs [MoWA], Ministry of Health [MoH], 2010b). Further, this study was delimited to the second age cohort (from age 4 to 6) children.

### **1.7. Limitations of the Study**

My backdrop, as briefly discussed in the first section, enabled me to better understand the Ethiopian context while I am distant from the Kenyan. This gives rise to a sort of limitation in the data gathering process. However, the deployment of multiple data

sources in this study helped to trade-off the gap. This strategy also supported the consequences of limited time to collect the data from Kenya.

Notwithstanding the highlight on the Sub-Saharan African context, this study was limited to the two of the nations from the region. This study was unable to add one or more nations due to critical time and resource constraints.

This study was limited to institutional/neo-institutional theoretical framework and has shown the rationale for the selection. Notwithstanding the notion of "decoupling" from institutional theory to assist the policy-practice issues, contemplation of additional theoretical framework such as *Sense-Making Theory*, may add significance to the policy-practice discussions.

Had this study within the second stage of quality assurance arrangements included the impact of governance and management policies of teacher education providers, it could have been better. Alongside this, the study lacks observation at the sample teacher training institutions that could further enhance the data regarding resources and facilities.

This study has deployed different research participants from different education and training organizations. Missing the respective teacher unions in this study might have an impact as revealed in the literature (Akiba, 2017).

### **1.8. Significance of the Study**

As a continuation of the contributions of this study discussed under *the rationale for this study* in section 1.2, this cross-national comparative study might be significant for Ethiopia's and Kenya's national development visions. This is because ECCE as a whole and its quality of teacher education, in particular, have multiple impacts on developing



nations. This study might help the respective national policymakers who are in charge of ECCE teacher education. In particular, it could help them fill the literature gap manifested with very limited evidence. The study further might be significant for international, regional, and national stakeholders including comparative education researchers so that they could promptly revise their intervention.

### **1.9. Organization of the Study**

This study was organized into nine chapters. Chapter one (this chapter) was an introductory section that portrays the basic framework of the whole dissertation. Chapter two discussed the contexts of Sub-Saharan Africa and the respective nations. The chapter has drawn historical development of ECCE positioning teacher education at the center of gravity. It begins with the introduction of the wider regional context, Sub Saharan Africa, and keeps on discussing the respective national contexts. It also presented a brief account of the demographic and socio-economic contexts of the nation's understudy. The theoretical and conceptual framework was addressed in chapter three. The impact of neo-institutional theory on comparative cross-national studies and the conceptual framework of quality assurance arrangement policies were mainly discussed. Chapter four was dedicated to a review of related literature. Relevant topics that are not discussed in previous chapters were addressed. Major elements of research methods were addressed in chapter five. Chapters six and seven were concerned about data presentation of the Ethiopian and Kenyan case studies respectively. In chapter eight, cross-case analysis or comparative analysis was made and the findings were also analyzed in accordance with the wider contexts. The last chapter has made a summary, conclusions, and implications of the study.

## CHAPTER TWO: THE CONTEXTS UNDERSTUDY

This chapter mainly covers the two contexts of understudy: Ethiopian and Kenyan. This was done right after the discussion of the Sub-Saharan African context. Discussing the regional context is paramount to contemplate the respective nations in their wider milieu. For the purpose of this study, a very brief historical account has been given to Kotebe Metropolitan University of Ethiopia and Kenyatta University of Kenya. This chapter tried to be specific to let enough space for the wider exploration of the two policy contexts in subsequent chapters.

### 2.1. The Sub-Saharan African Context

*We recognize that the future of Africa lies with the well-being of its children and youth. The prospect of socio-economic transformation of the continent rests with investing in the young people of the continent. Today's investment in children is tomorrow's peace, stability, security, democracy, and sustainable development.*

The above extract was taken from OAU's Charter Para. 6 cited in Garcia et al., (2008, p.8). In a nutshell, for this study, two important lessons and expectations can be drawn from the above account. Africa appears to be long recognized how its children can decide its future. Formulating and enacting relevant children policies such as ECCE policies are expected to realize this recognition. Africa's acknowledgment of multiple returns of investment in children can be another lesson learned. Hence, Africa is also expected to invest in the quality of ECCE so that ensures quality across subsequent levels of education.

### 2.1.1. Historical Development of ECCE

Pence & Nsamenang (2008) advised that the historical development of African ECCE has to be explored based on the three heritages: Indigenous ECCE, Islamic-Arabic ECCE, and Western ECCE. The authors have provided a prominent and broader historical explanation of sub-Saharan African indigenous and religion-based ECCE that sounds relevant for many of the nations in the region. Nevertheless, this study and other similar studies (Garcia et al., 2008; Awopegba et al., 2013) have to be critical whether their work shows the full picture of the history of Sub-Saharan African ECCE. The work of Pence & Nsamenang (2008), for example, does not fit with the historical context of Ethiopian ECCE (See section 2.2.2). Yet, discussing the aforementioned African ECCE heritages remains to be much important.

The term 'indigenous education' might be defined as "*the body of context-evolved cultural knowledge, skills, attitudes, practices, and cultural values and aspirations transmitted from one generation to the other*" (Awopegba et al., 2013 p.22). Sub-Saharan Africa has rich indigenous practices of ECCE that are reflected in social responsibilities, poetry, reasoning, riddles, praises, songs, story-telling, proverbs, folktales, games, tongue-twisters, and more (Awopegba et al., 2013). For instance, African children starting from their infancy were taught through lullabies, songs, and games mostly by their mothers and sometimes by their grandparents, aunts, and older siblings (Garcia et al., 2008; MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). African children play a key role in their own development and are responsible for their own 'self-education.' Indigenous pedagogy allows African early childhoods to learn in participatory processes in different settings. They learn in the home, community, religious service, peer culture, and other activity

settings through ‘work-play’ activities, with no or little plain didactic assistance. They have to illustrate competence at major aspects of life, but often without direct instruction (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008).

On the other hand, while they grew older, African children will be provided with direct instructions and will be questioned to assess how much they learned. They learn morals, tradition, and history through stories and legends. They acquire knowledge toward life, beliefs, practices, and taboos using oral literature they have been told by fathers, elders, and neighbors. They also began to take social responsibilities and start to gain skills for generating a livelihood when they reach the age of 7 years (Garcia et al., 2008). However, a major problem regarding Sub-Saharan African indigenous ECCE is a remarkable scarce of published research accounts (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008).

As demonstrated by Garcia et al. (2008), Islamic education or *madrassa*, which is imported from another continent, has a long history in Sub-Saharan African ECCE. It widened to sub-Saharan Africa from North Africa by *Ibaadi* clerics and from the Horn of Africa by the disciples of Mohammed who fled persecution in the early history of Islam (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008 p.27). Nowadays, the *madrassa* is a common traditional education in Sub-Saharan Africa mainly in West and East Africa (Garcia et al., 2008). From the wider region of Sub-Saharan Africa, the Sahel region seems very familiar with Islamic education (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008).

Pence and Nsamenang (2008) argued that Islamic education seems not the concern of national development planners and education policymakers regardless of its existence in Sub-Saharan Africa for more than a century. This might be the reason why

the responsibility for the development and management of *madrassa* preschools goes to the local community in East Africa (Garcia et.al, 2008). However, studies (Garcia et al., 2008; Pence & Nsamenang, 2008; Roopnarine et al., 2018) affirmed that the *madrassa* ECCE program's major stakeholders i.e. the Muslim community, the madrasa resource centers community, and the Aga Khan Foundation have been influencing East African education policies and training.

Understandably, madrasa schools operate to make Muslim children know and practice Islam as a way of life (Garcia et al., 2008). However, there appeared varied application of the *madrassa* system among sub-Saharan African nations. In East Africa, children are enrolled in Koranic schools from the age of 4 years. Variations are observed also within this specific region. In Kenya, Madrasa schools are integrated with secular education (Roopnarine et al., 2018) while in Somalia they are independent systems tended more of religious and cultural institutions (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008).

The study of Pence & Nsamenang (2008) revealed important features of the Euro-centric or Western education system introduced to Africa during the colonial era. For the most part, as per this study, the education system was not welcomed by the Africans rather it was an imposition driven from the colonial interest. The outcome for that reason was little to support the development of education in the continent; i.e. universal basic education was not a priority of the colonial governments for their colonies. On the other hand, the study indicated that the education service had uneven development revealed with mixed outcomes. The education systems including the ECCE subsector were attributed to notable disparities within African nations.

Three types of programs (infant schools, kindergarten, and nursery schools) in Africa emerged as Western-centered ECCE models (Garcia et al., 2008). However, the programs were limited in number; serving non-Africans, a small African elite, and a faith-based population (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008). Among these three ECCE programs, infant schools were easily familiarized with colonial school systems. These schools were a popular British model of ECCE imported to colonies in the 1820s. These schools were functioning for colonies as they were in Britain (Garcia et.al, 2008). ECCE as a subsector was a relatively overlooked system by the colonial governments (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008). Particularly, preschool education had been abandoned when Africans were introduced to vocational education (Garcia et al., 2008).

Among remarkable changes in sub-Saharan African ECCE in the post-independence era, disrespect to indigenous practices of ECCE remained a persistent challenge. A small amount of emerging literature since the 1990s has started to question the relevance of existing ECCE concepts for Africa (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008). African-grown ECCE concepts and practices have been overlooked because of the imposition from the dominant Western conceptual framework. ECCE gradually has gained considerable attention within the last three decades by African policymakers and partners. The new African-centered ECCE model that combines the African culture and relevant Western practices has been advocated by the adherents of African indigenous education (Takyi-Amoako & Assié-Lumumba, 2018).

Pence & Nsamenang (2008) highlighted key events of sub-Saharan African ECCE from 1971 - 2008. These events clearly showed the impact of UN organizations, international non-governmental organizations, donors, regional and international

conferences, and the rising of some publications on the development of sub-Saharan African ECCE. Among other institutions, as said by Takyi-Amoako & Assié-Lumumba, (2018), UNICEF has made a great contribution to the development of African ECCE. Currently, modern or secular ECCE and its teacher education are increasingly integrated with the formal primary education systems of Sub-Saharan Africa (J. Neuman et al., 2015).

### **2.1.2. Evolution of ECCE Policies**

Despite concerns on health-related policies, children were almost marginalized in many African policy documents before the 1990 declaration on EFA (Garcia et al., 2008). Cited in Neuman and Devercelli (2012), a review made by Torkngton (2001) declared that except for Mauritius and Namibia Sub-Saharan African countries had no ECCE subsector policies in 2001. However, Neuman and Devercelli (2012) reported that this was dramatically changed in 2012; 23 countries developed national ECCE policies and 13 drafted while the rest 11 had no ECCE policies. Till 2008, as indicated by Garcia et al. (2008), almost all sub-Saharan African countries have developed and/or in the process of developing ECCE policies. Along this line, the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) has contributed a lot to the development of ECCE policies in Africa (Garcia et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the policy evolution has not properly considered teacher education (Awopegba, 2010; Neuman & Devercelli 2012).

A study made by Neuman and Devercelli (2012) has drawn challenges and opportunities of ECCE policies in Sub-Saharan Africa. This study focused on East African nations including Ethiopia and Kenya. Among others, lack of skills to develop

culturally relevant integrated ECCE policy and funding are major challenges discussed in the study. There might be also a challenge in defining the scope of national policies (Garcia et al., 2008). Along this line, Takyi-Amoako and Assie-Lumumba (2018) argued that African education policymakers tend to be pure products of the colonial education system who failed to consider the local context. Despite progress in ECCE policy development, one major challenge addressed by Neuman and Devercelli, (2012) was lack of implementation.

### **2.1.3. Teacher Education and Quality Assurance**

UNESCO (1992) reports how ECCE provision in Sub-Saharan Africa was constrained by lack of trained teachers among other factors. One of the key considerations in an institutional anchor is the provision of the sufficient number of trained and committed ECCE staff for the subsector (Neuman & Devercelli, 2012); yet, the situation appears to be continued. J. Neuman et al. (2015) puts Sub-Saharan African nations at the top of global regions suffering from the shortage of ECCE teachers. A recent study made by Roopnarine et al., (2018) similarly underlines the prevalence of scarce of ECCE teachers and its adverse impact on the outcomes of Education Agenda 2030. Another study (Garcia et al., 2008), in a similar sense, portrays that Sub-Saharan Africa has agonized with a limited number of ECCE teachers. Further, within this limited number, ECCE teachers' attrition was found to be huge in Sub-Saharan African countries due to poor salary and unfavorable working conditions (Awopegba, 2010; J. Neuman et al., 2015). This seems double jeopardy that worsens the situation in the region. It also shows the absence of strong teacher recruitment and selection policies in the region.



There is increasing recognition of investing in ECCE throughout Africa (Neuman & Devercelli, 2012). Nevertheless, a case study made by (Awopegba, 2010) on selected Sub-Saharan African nations revealed that there is a significant budgetary constraint on the selection, recruitment, and preparation of ECCE teachers. The study also recommended that some parts of available funds should be spent for the betterment of initial ECCE teacher education. The study further argued that adequate fund allocation shall first go to the prospect of rural teacher training where the shortage of qualified teachers is greater. This argument sounds right for Sub-Saharan Africa with a huge portion of the rural population (Garcia et al., 2008) but remains weaker as urban ECCE programs in the region have been crawling with untrained and uneducated teachers (Mbugua, 2009; Admas, 2016; Zewdie et al., 2016).

Quality assurance arrangement of teacher education in Africa seems a recent phenomenon despite the quality of education has been a center of attention for a long time. Quality assurance of teacher education providers in Africa seldom applies for accreditation. Several teacher training institutions including those believed to have best practices in quality assurance usually and solely engage in quality assessment without accreditation. The teacher education programs are mostly distance mode of training that is assumed to be useful to increase access for marginalized children (Sanyal, 2013).

Studies (Sanyal, 2013; J. Neuman et al., 2015) informed that Sub-Saharan Africa is unable to meet the need for qualified teachers. There is a persistent mismatch between projections of trained teachers and the capacity of teacher training providers. Open and distance mode of training, as a result, will emerge and that in turn creates complications

in quality assurance. However, these projections are mostly concerned with primary or secondary education (Sanyal, 2013).

## **2.2. The Ethiopian Context**

### **2.2.1. Demographic and Socio-Economic Context**

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia is a landlocked country located in the Horn of Africa bordered by Eritrea to the north, Djibouti, and Somalia to the east, Sudan and South Sudan to the west, and Kenya to the south (Mamo, 2015). Ethiopia is a big, diverse country with a population of over 95 million, in more than ninety ethnic and linguistic groups (MoE, 2015) being the second most populous country in Africa, after Nigeria, with a 2.6% annual population growth rate (Mamo, 2015). According to the 2019 revision of world population, the total estimated population of Ethiopia in 2018 was 109, 224, 414 (United Nations Department of Economics and Social Affairs Population Division, 2019). The country's total land area is about 1.1 million square km, with a population density of 86 people per square km. Ethiopia has a federal structure with nine regional governments (Afar, Amhara, Benishangul-Gumuz, Gambella, Harari, Oromiya, Somali, Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples' Region and Tigray) and two city administrations (Addis Ababa & Dire Dawa) (MoE, 2015; Mamo, 2015). Very recently, the new regional government, Sidama, has joined the nation.

Ethiopia is driven by its vision to become a middle-income country by 2025 and the economy has experienced the fastest growth over the past decade, averaging around 10% per year over the period 2003/04 to 2012/13 (MoE, 2015). For that reason, Ethiopia has become one of the fastest-growing non-oil economies in Africa (Mamo,

2015). According to the 2015 Human Development Index (HDI), Ethiopia's HDI value for 2014 was 0.44 in the low human development category positioning the country at 174 out of 188 countries and territories (UNDP, 2015). It seems the Ethiopian human development index, as per (UNDP, 2016) & (UNDP, 2018) reports, has not been yet improved.



Figure 2.1: National map of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

### 2.2.2. The ECCE Context

The development of modern education in Ethiopia does not look policy-driven for a couple of decades since its introduction in 1908. Kiros, (1990) has made a review on Ethiopian education policies implementation from 1941-1986. According to this review, education and training were completely jeopardized during the five years of the Italian invasion. The establishment of the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts in 1941 signified a new era of education. Various education policymaking landmarks were made from 1941-1951. The review, however, conclusively reported that education development was not a result of systematic policymaking and planning.

The three consecutive five year Education Sector Development Plans from 1957-1973 marked a significant change in education planning despite little systematic effort to translate plans into action. The "Education Sector Review" as a result of the third Education Sector Plan had shown a comprehensive and critical review of the sector. Nonetheless, the move toward the making and implementation of education policies during Haile Sellassie I regime overlooked the ECCE subsector. The National Ten Year Perspective Plan from 1984/85-1994/95 was another major intended reform in which the education sector occupies the central part of the plan. One of the education sector goals in the perspective plan was the promotion of preschool education. It appears that ECCE was considered a prominent education policy issue in this national development plan than the former policy reforms (Kiros, 1990).

Varied sources have a bit different views on the history of Ethiopian ECCE despite their significant commonalities. As cited in Sileshi (2014), Demeke (2007) stated that early childhood education was introduced in Ethiopia since the advent of Christianity, in the form of priest schools. According to him, Zara Ya'aqob was one of the activists in promoting this traditional church education in the 16th century. On the other hand, the case study conducted by Awopegba (2010) depicted that the concept of ECCE dates back to the 17th century Ethiopian philosophers Zar'aYa'aqob and Wa'ldeHiywat.

Weldemariam (2013) also underpinned that early childhood education was started during the medieval period by the Ethiopian Orthodox Church. As to him, boys around age 4 were required to attend church services, where they would practice rote learning and alphabets to be able to read and recite religious texts so that they could be priests

when they grew up. This view, however, seems a bit far from the reality as the children are not solely confined to be priests. The education system is also not confined only to early childhood education. It goes up to a higher level at which some of the specialties take more than a decade. Apparently, all the church scholars such as deacons, priests, professional chanters, scripture specialists, and other apostolic service providers have to pass through early childhood church education (Chaillot, 2009; Teferra, 2017). Early childhood education in Ethiopian Orthodox Church had been serving as a transition before children enter public government-run schools (Marlow-Ferguson, 2002).

On the other hand, Koranic education has been providing reading and writing of Arabic for Ethiopian Muslim children since the 7th century (Teferra, 2017). This education, sometimes referred *Madrassa* education, has been serving as one of traditional education the fact that it is not as widely spread as church education (Zewdie et al., 2016). This traditional education needs nationwide further exploration as suggested by Teferra (2017).

Modern early childhood education in Ethiopia was introduced under the regime of Menelik II. Many of the research findings agree that modern ECCE started as early as 1900 with the opening of the first kindergarten center in Dire Dawa (Lemma, 2014; Sileshi, 2014; Awopegba, 2010; Weldemariam, 2013; Zewdie et al., 2016). These sources also underlined the crawling and stagnating nature of the sector for about a century without making a meaningful move. It seems access to ECCE opportunities has been grown very steadily.

There were 77 kindergartens from 1908-1974 that were accessible solely for 7573 children from the entire 3.5 million children aged 4-6. This figure showed a relative betterment after the introduction of the 1974 socialist revolution (Weldemariam, 2013; Zewdie et al., 2016). ECCE has emerged due to an increasing involvement of various stakeholders such as government, communities, NGOs, faith-based organizations, and the private sector. As a result, several preschools were opened in the mid-eighties (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a) and; from 1975-1990, the number of preschools went up to 912 while preschool enrolment reached 102, 000 (Weldemariam, 2013; Zewdie et al., 2016).

Access to the Ethiopian ECCE has brought notable change within the last two decades. Nevertheless, this change was entirely restricted to urban areas. Woodhead, (2009) confirmed that the opportunity to attend pre-school was almost restricted to urban children. This study uncovered the prevalence of nearly 58 % of children in urban communities that had attended pre-school at some point since the age of 3 whereas less than 4 % of rural children had attended pre-school.

Very recently, however, ECCE has been expanding in rural areas of the country with all its pitfalls. The Ethiopian ECCE policy environment has emerged right after the introduction of the 2010 National ECCE Policy Framework and the Implementation Guidelines. The expansion of ``O`` classes has a major contribution to the change (MoE, 2015; Mulugeta, 2015). This expansion appeared to be an indication of change within the policy environment. However, this does not mean the expansion has been moving right as there are persistent and emerging complicated problems within the sub-sector (Szente & Tadesse, 2007; MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; Teferra, 2017). It seems that ECCE in

Ethiopia has still benefiting comparatively urban areas, for instance (Weldemariam, 2013; Lemma, 2014; Sileshi, 2014; MoE, 2015; Mulugeta, 2015; Zewdie et al., 2016).

### **2.2.3. Teacher Education in ECCE**

A study by Gemechu et al. (2017) made a brief historical analysis of Ethiopian teacher education. According to this study, traditional education that started in the 4<sup>th</sup> century has served as a source of teachers for the system. High achievers who specialized in a particular church education program will be teachers of their juniors. Despite the introduction of modern education in 1908, there was no formal teacher education program until the opening of a teacher training school for primary teachers in 1944/45. Secondary school teacher training was started in the faculty of Arts of Addis Ababa University College in 1950/51 and later grown to a full-fledged faculty of education in 1962. Some teacher training colleges such as Harar, Debre Berhan, and Jimma were opened from 1960 - 1970s. Nevertheless, as revealed in the study, none of the training institutions were in a position to train teachers for ECCE.

Evidence shows that teaching was a prestigious profession starting from the early stage of modern education until the fall of Emperor Haile Sellassie's regime. It was a highly regarded profession by the society. It seems there were a better recruitment and selection arrangement in that applicants joining teacher training was top scorers and teachers were highly paid compared to others (Gemechu et al., 2017). However, the coming of the Derg regime marked the decline of teaching as a profession. The campaign termed *Idget Be Hibret* intended to mitigate the critical shortage of teachers. Nevertheless, it resulted in the recruitment of untrained teachers called *Degoma*

*Memheran*. This in turn made teaching poorer and disrespected within the society markedly showing the era of deprofessionalization (Semela, 2014). Consequently, the candidates started to join the teacher education program with a poor entry requirement against the former arrangement in Emperor Regime (Semela, 2014; Gemechu et al., 2017). It is better to note that all these were regardless of the unborn teacher education in the ECCE subsector.

Following the downfall of the Derg regime, the 1994 Education and Training Policy (ETP) has shown at least advancement of teacher education policy. The ETP underlined the need for qualified teachers at all levels of education. Subsequently, teacher education has passed through a couple of reforms like TDP I, TESO and PGDT (Shishigu et al., 2017). The reforms could not bring significant change to the quality of teachers, however. Studies revealed that the greatest ever challenge in Ethiopian teacher education was registered during the Post-TESO period (Gemechu et al., 2017; Shishigu et al., 2017). None of these reforms also considered preschool teachers.

Despite the prevalence of a relatively long history of teacher training, pre-school teacher education is a very recent phenomenon in Ethiopia (Awopegba 2010; Weldemariam, 2013). A decade ago, training of pre-school teachers was carried out as a shared responsibility between the government, non-governmental organizations and the private sector but now the responsibility solely remained with the government training institutions (Awopegba 2010; MoE, MoW, MoH, 2010a; MoE, 2015). Currently, 36 nationwide public training colleges are providing both ECCE and primary teacher education (Shishigu et.al, 2017). Taking the currency of ECCE teacher training into account, the problem of limited qualified ECCE teachers is not a surprise for Ethiopia.



The majority of Ethiopian preschool teachers seem to have either irrelevant or negligible training in ECCE (Weldemariam, 2013). This is also supported by Mulugeta's (2015) and Admas' (2016) studies.

According to a study conducted by Zewdie et al. (2016), 288 (80.7%) preschool teachers from the total 357 sample preschool teachers had trained in ECCE of which 214, 102 and 31 were trained in certificate, diploma and degree respectively. Fifty % of the respondents had also taken their training in private preschool teachers training institutions. Furthermore, this study has shown that the majority of sample preschool teachers were working in private preschool centers. Nevertheless, Admas (2016) critically demonstrated that being a preschool teacher in Ethiopia appears to be anybody's job that is at least graduated from colleges and at most from universities regardless of professional relevance.

#### **2.2.4. ECCE Teacher Education in Kotebe Metropolitan University**

The former Kotebe College of Teacher Education was the initial institution for the birth of Kotebe Metropolitan University (KMU). The college was established in 1959 as a unit within the Faculty of Education of the then Hile Sellassie I University or the current Addis Ababa University (AAU). This college was opened by the bilateral agreement between UNESCO and the ministry of education. The college went through two premises before it came to its present site in 1976. The Ministry of Education was responsible to run the college till 1997 when the Addis Ababa City Government took the responsibility (Kotebe College of Teacher Education, 2007).

The college came into the status of University College in 2014 by the decree of Addis Ababa City Government Regulation number 56/2013. The University College was upgraded to university status on December 15, 2016. Currently, the College of Education and Behavioral Science is one of the nine units in KMU. Department of ECCE Teacher Education under this college is now providing training in diploma through regular, summer, and extension programs (Kotebe Metropolitan University, 2018).

### **2.3. The Kenyan Context**

#### **2.3.1. Demographic and Socio-Economic Context**

The Republic of Kenya lies on the equator with the Indian Ocean to the south-east, Tanzania to the south, Uganda to the west, South Sudan to the north-west, Ethiopia to the north and Somalia to the north-east (Mamo, 2015). The total area of Kenya is 582,650 km<sup>2</sup>. According to the most recent census conducted in 2009, Kenya has 38.6 million people (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2014). This figure was estimated to reach 46.6 million in 2017 (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2019). Kenya has a diverse population comprising 42 ethnic communities that includes three of Africa's major sociolinguistic groups: Bantu (67%), Nilotic (30%), and Cushitic (3%) (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2014). The 2010 constitution of the country introduced two levels of government: national and counties. The counties are constitutionally permitted to manage their affairs and further their development (Mamo, 2015).

Kenya aims to be a newly industrializing, middle-income country providing a high quality of life to all its citizens in a clean and secure environment in 2030 (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2014). Kenya's economic growth has been irregular and fluctuating

between 2007 and 2011. However, it had been grown rapidly from 2003-2007 (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2014). In 2006/2007, for instance, it grew by more than 6.1% from its virtual stagnation (0.6%) in 2002 and this growth was the result of the successful implementation of the Economic Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (Mamo, 2015). Nonetheless, the economic growth that started in 2003 was curtailed due to both internal and external factors, such as the 2007 post-election disruptions, the global financial crisis, and high fuel and food prices, among others (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2014). The economy has registered a comparatively steady growth throughout 2013-2017 (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2019). The 2015 Human Development Index (HDI) puts the country under the occupants of the low human development category with 0.548 HDI value positioning at 145 out of 188 countries and territories (UNDP, 2015). Nevertheless, according to (UNDP, 2016) report, Kenya has joined a medium human development index.



Figure 2.2: National map of the Republic of Kenya

### 2.3.2. The ECCE Context

Prior to its introduction as a byproduct of colonization, ECCE in Kenya has been existed traditionally (Garcia et al., 2008; Githinji & Kanga, 2011). Findings suggest that a well-established preschool education started to expand in the early 1940s for European and Asian urban communities (Githinji & Kanga, 2011; Mungai, 2016). Kenyan preschools emerged at this time because their childrearing practices were borrowed from the British concept of infant schools or nurseries that were already in existence in European and Asian communities living in Nairobi. In 1971, the government established the Preschool Education Project based at the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) with the assistance of the Bernard van Leer Foundation from the Netherlands (Wortham, 2013; Roopnarine et al., 2018).

A study conducted by Githinji & Kanga (2011) demonstrates that the Second World War was an opportunity for the expansion of ECCE in Kenya for Kenyans. According to this study, Kenyans who were involved in the war were privileged to enjoy brand European education including ECCE while they returned to Kenya. The war brought somehow a common sense between the European and Africans. This in turn encouraged Kenyans to increase their demand. The economic boom because of a massive flock of rural people to urban areas for new jobs maximized the expansion of ECCE. Rural ECCE centers emerged in the mid-1950s first as feeding centers and then as custodial care provision centers while parents were engaged in forced communal labor.

Kenya since its independence seems to have the longest and progressive ECCE policy development. The Ministry of Culture and Social Service was assigned in 1966 to lead the education sector. This was the starting point in terms of allocating a government body. Before this, the community particularly with the leadership of the *Harambee*

movement was responsible to operate village-based ECCE centers assigning a woman who is responsible to care for 3-6 aged children. Empowering communities to develop appropriate, affordable, and relevant services with a decentralized system was the unique feature of the pre-schools along with the local *Harambee* movement. However, these pre-schools had no organized curriculum or support materials, and many of the teachers were untrained before the 1970s (Garcia et al., 2008; Roopnarine et al., 2018).

Prior to 1971, as mentioned before, early childhood education (preprimary education for children aged 3–6) was the responsibility of local communities. Gradually, NGOs, churches, and other volunteer organizations had started to open ECCE programs. Later, the Ministry of Education (MoE) took over full responsibility from the Ministry of Culture and Social Services and created preschool section headquarters, and established the inspectorate in 1980. Subsequently, the National Center for Early Childhood Education (NACECE) was established in 1984 for training preschool teachers, developing and disseminating appropriate curricula, and coordinating with external partners and other government agencies (Garcia et al., 2008).

The *Madrassa* Early Childhood Development Program which was initiated from the needs of poor Muslim communities was one of the best indigenous ECCE programs established in Eastern Africa including Kenya. This program was developed using existing structures and resources complemented with child development principles (Garcia et al., 2008). The *madrassa* system has a long-established influence in African ECCE. The Aga Khan foundation has played a vital role in the expansion of *Madrassa* schools in Kenya (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008).

*Duksi* is another ECCE platform established for pastoralist Muslims while mobile preschool centers are also alternatives for marginalized children the fact that government and nongovernment-based kindergartens are widely known programs (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012). Kenya was reported to have the most varied range of school environments. Urban preschools in cities, for instance, were found to be similar in quality to those found in developed countries (Roopnarine et al., 2018).

Cited in Mungai (2016), Eshiwani (1993) reported that by December 1986, Kenya had 12,192 ECCE centers with 657,688 enrolled children. As to this study, the enrolment represented one-fourth of Kenyan children aged 3-6. This figure rose 35% in 1990 and Kenya was the fourth African nation with better access for ECCE next to Mauritius, Namibia, and Ghana (Mungai, 2016). It seems ECCE has been progressively expanding in Kenya, unlike many African nations. Kenya has been considered at the forefront of ECCE development in Africa (Kameran, 2006). Mbugua (2009) alongside this asserted that Kenya has been leading African nations toward access to ECCE. Despite this impressive development, enrolment in ECCE decreased in the mid-2000s because of the free primary education policy in that parents kept their children home until they join primary schooling (Yoshikawa & Kabay, 2015).

### **2.3.3. Teacher Education in ECCE**

Evidence revealed the existence of indigenous or traditional teacher education in Kenya despite poor documentation. Modern teacher education in Kenya was introduced in the mid-nineteenth by European missionaries (Patrick A., 2011). Fast and unplanned expansion of the Christian mission schools and establishment of bush schools

necessitated the need for teacher education (Nyankanga et al., 2013). The special contribution of the *Harambee* movement right after independence was the empowerment of women as preschool teachers (Kamerman, 2006). However, there were only a few training institutions for ECCE teachers; only 400 of 5000 ECCE teachers had received training in 1971, for example (Mbugua, 2009). The opening of Kenyatta College in 1965, Kenya Science Teachers College in 1966 and Kenya Technical Teachers College in 1977 remarkably expanded teacher education in Kenya (Patrick A., 2011).

The 1990s and early 2000s witnessed a step increase in the number of trained teachers. This advancement is attributed to the expansion of District Centers for Early Childhood Care and Education (DICECE) training centers funded by the World Bank ECD project. The training centers rose from 9 in 1985 to 31 by 2003. Private training institutions also rose because of the government's inter-sectoral collaboration. Nearly, half of ECCE teachers in 2002 were untrained despite growth in the demand for preschool education and an increased number of trained teachers. Training institutions such as NACECE, DICECE, Private Training Institutions accredited by the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST) and higher education institutions such as Kenyatta and Moi universities provide diplomas in ECCE. The training takes two years focusing on equipping teacher trainees with the necessary competence that prepares children for primary education (Mbugua, 2009).

Currently, Kenya uses a combination of different training and accreditation authorities. The MoEST is responsible for training, teacher certification and curriculum development while management of ECCE has been devolved to county governments (Republic of Kenya, 2010). The NACECE, within the Kenya Institute of Education, runs

a number of national training centers and disseminates curricula at a country level. To complement national efforts, DICECE provides training for pre-school teachers and other personnel at local levels (J. Newman et al., 2015). As a result, the number of trained ECCE teachers has also continued to increase while the number of untrained teachers too, showed a decline from 2003-2013. However, a report has shown untrained teachers working in ECCE centers (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2014).

Mbugua (2011) argued that Kenya's achievement in ECCE teacher education to date remains the highest in Africa. However, a study conducted by Nyankanga et.al, (2013) shows that teacher education in ECCE has not been taken seriously for a long time. There seems an inconsistent training system among different teacher education providers. The training was often provided by DICECE and Montessori training institutions. Recently, a range of universities i.e. Moi, Kenyatta, Nairobi, Kabianga, Maasai Mara, Pwani, and other private higher education institutions are training ECCE teachers at degree and beyond levels (Nyankanga et.al, 2013).

#### **2.3.4. ECCE Teacher Education in Kenyatta University**

Kenyatta University (KU) has traveled a long journey to come to a university status since 1965 when it was established at a college level providing secondary and teacher education. The college becomes part of the University of Nairobi following the Act of parliament of 1970. Gradually, the name changed to Kenyatta University College. Then the University College came into a university status on August 23, 1985, by the University Act 1985 (Kenyatta University, n.d). Following its university status, KU has established different colleges, faculties, and departments. Department of Early Childhood



Studies under the School of Education currently offers ECCE teacher training in different programs ranging from certificate to PhD. levels (Mbugua, 2009; Patrick A., 2011).

### **CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY**

This chapter discusses the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study within two sections. The first section portrays the theoretical orientation of the study. This section has tried to show the nexus between institutional theory, comparative education research, globalization, and education policies. It also presents prominent concepts of neo-institutional theory considering their assistance to this study. The section finally discusses the methodological views of neo-institutional theory in accordance with its significance to this study. The second section addresses a conceptual definition of quality in ECCE and quality in teacher education. This section also presents the relationship between structural and process quality of ECCE to conceptualize teacher education as one of the components of structural quality and its impact on process quality. The section further discusses how education policies are considered as a structural feature of ECCE quality and provides the conceptual framework of the study.

#### **3.1. Theoretical Orientation of Institutionalism**

This study was framed with institutional theory. What makes the theory interesting for this study is centrally the existing evidence on the nexuses between institutional theory, comparative education research, globalization, and education policy (Zajda, 2005; Baker & Wiseman, 2006; Wiseman et al., 2013b; Wiseman et al., 2013a).

The impact of institutional theory on cross-national comparative research is much significant. Countries have been the dominant unit of analysis and remain very important

in comparative education studies since the beginning of the field (Baker & Wiseman, 2006; Bray et al., 2014). This is because national contexts are predominant factors in cross-national comparative studies framed with institutional theory. The policy dimension is also important since the concept of policy borrowing has become central to the work of cross-national comparative studies (Crossley & Watson, 2003; Zajda, 2005; Baker & Wiseman, 2006; Wiseman et al., 2013b; Wiseman et al., 2013a; Bray et al., 2014).

Nations as institutions are naturally influenced by institutional theory (Baker & Wiseman, 2006). Similarly, education is regarded as an institution predisposed to institutional theory (Berthod, 2016). Education is governed by its national policy and research has demonstrated the effect of globalization on local circumstances and interests (Crossley & Watson 2003; Wiseman et al., 2013a; Bray and et al., 2014). For instance, Baker & Wiseman (2006) suggest that world education standards significantly influence national education policy and practice; and this is a common stance of institutional theory. Comparative education researchers, consequently, have been analyzing the impact of globalization on education bringing institutional theory to the center of globalized studies (Wiseman et al., 2013a). Such a relationship was the basis for the rationale orienting institutional theory in this cross-national comparative study.

However, having a brief account of old institutionalism (old institutional theory) and neo-institutionalism (new institutional theory) is important to properly frame institutional theory for this study. Neo-institutionalism as a concept presupposes the existence of old institutionalism that emphasizes power and politics (Mohammad, 2017). Berthod (2016) in a similar sense illustrates that the new institutional theory distinguishes

itself from the old institutional theory in which authority and politics were more important.

One major distinction between the old and the new institutionalism is their outlook on an organization. Organizations for old institutionalism are organic whole while individuals and their conceptions are more important for neo-institutionalism (Wiseman et al., 2013b). Old institutionalism focuses on formal legal structures as developed over long historical periods. This institutionalism views institutions as objective structures that exist independent of human action. Neo-institutionalism, in contrast, sees man-made rules (i.e. education policies) and procedures as basic building blocks of institutions. In this sense, institutions have independent existence is socially constructed in the minds of individual actors (Meyer & Rowan, 2006). Nevertheless, as discussed in the work of Wiseman et al. (2013a), these two dimensions appeared to be mutually exclusive or mostly overlapping.

Both new and old institutional theories declare that the institutionalization of education is a process within a particular national and global context (Wiseman et al., 2013a). For instance, there appears both nationwide and worldwide variation on the shortage of quality teachers despite an increasing global interest and improvement among nations toward the institutionalization of quality teacher education. Both institutionalism also emphasize the impact of culture on institutionalization (Wiseman et al., 2013a).

The neo-institutional theory or world culture theory has been anthologized in a specific worldwide comparative analysis of education policies and practices (Wiseman et al., 2013a). With this in mind, this study was primarily oriented with neo-institutional

theory and the rationale for this was two-fold. One major reason was the symbiotic time of the renaissance for comparative education research and neo-institutional theory. This revival was not a simple rebirth but has been coexisted and sustained for a couple of decades. According to Baker and Wiseman (2006), comparative education researchers progressively have started to combine institutional theory in their studies since the renaissance of neo-institutional theory during the 1970s.

The second reason was the comprehensive view of neo-institutional theory both at the macro and micro levels of analysis. The theoretical analysis of neo-institutional theory ranges from macro to micro levels (Mohammad, 2017). Neo-institutional theory sometimes referred to as 'World Society' theory or 'World Culture' theory is a macro-approach that broadly explores the relationship between globalization and educational policy. The neo-institutional theory speculates national education policies at the macro level and individual actors at the micro-level (Wiseman et al., 2013b). The macro-micro notion of neo-institutionalism is further illustrated in the following extract.

*There is call for a growing interest in the contributions of neo-institutional theory as a distinct approach to the study of educational phenomena, particularly in the field of comparative education; because it accommodates the multi-directional influence on the macro-level educational phenomenon and both the institutional and individual level. (Mohammad, 2017, p.1)*

As mentioned already, old institutional theory tends to be much political and power-oriented unlike the new institutional theory. This nature of old institutionalism might have an impact on this study in two ways. The global feature of education as an

intertwined entity with a certain political system on one way (Amenta & Ramsey, 2009; Wiseman et al., 2013a) and an increased impact of globalization in African education policies on the other way could influence this cross-national study (Zajda, 2010; Karner, 2018). Such a feature of old institutional theory, in contrast, seems one major reason for its adherents to prefer neo-institutionalism in comparative education research. Nevertheless, this does not mean that neo-institutional theory overlooks the importance of power and conflict in the global education phenomenon (Wiseman et al., 2013a). An interesting point here is that *'it has the advantage of reducing conflicts of interest in the educational contexts and outcomes through emphasizing irrationality at both the macro and micro levels* (Mohammad, 2017, p.9).

Neo-institutionalism has captured education policy analysis researchers for more than three decades (Wiseman et al., 2013b). For instance, specific to this study, a study conducted by Ramberg (2014) clearly has shown the implication of neo-institutional theory in comparative teacher education policy research. Institutional theory can help us better understand quality assurance arrangements like selection, preparation and certification in initial teacher education policies. The theory can assist us in the broader context of teacher policy framed with quality education and its outcomes (Tran, 2016). A study made by Tarrant & Huerta (2015) has also shown the impact of neo-institutional theory on the structural quality of ECCE.

Nevertheless, as Meyer & Rowan (2006) suggested, the application of neo-institutionalism in educational research seems to be scattered and diffused. By the same token, Wiseman et al. (2013b) demonstrate that some of the contemporary comparative education researches orientated with neo-institutionalism have been exposed for

misconceptions in understanding how to use the theory. Hence, discussing the following concepts and issues were believed to be prominent for this study.

### **3.1.1. The Concept of Isomorphism**

Isomorphism as a concept was popularized by DiMaggio and Powell's in 1983 (Sandhu, 2018). From the sociological point of view, it means similarity or homogeneity of organizational structures and policies; such as education structures, policies, curriculum and pedagogy (Wiseman et al., 2013b). The three distinctive types of isomorphism are mentioned hereunder as demonstrated by Sandhu (2018).

1. *Coercive isomorphism* is a result of real or expected sanctions by powerful organizations like state or regulatory bodies. They have the power and authority to force an organization to implement certain rules and requirements; for example, bylaws and regulations.
2. *Normative isomorphism* is driven by the socialization process embedded in the professionalization of organizational members to uphold specific values, routines, and processes; for example, educational background and certifications.
3. *Mimetic isomorphism* comes into play in times of ambiguity or uncertainty in the organization's environment. Here, organizations limit the processes and structures of successful and highly reputed organizations as role models (Sandhu, 2018, p.5).

Wiseman et al. (2013) argue that the above-mentioned taxonomy of isomorphism has not been properly conceptualized in comparative education research despite its significant importance. The implication of isomorphism for this study is also evident in research. Such as the study conducted by Tran (2016) shows that how certification or

licensing policies to improve quality initial teacher training are remarkably similar and how this can be investigated with the theoretical framework of *mimetic isomorphism*. Despite some sort of divergence, nationwide teacher education programs look remarkably similar to one another in many ways, particularly in their program features. The theoretical framework of institutional theory allows understanding the nature of this convergence through *mimetic isomorphism*. This framework can interpret how these similarities across the nationwide teacher education programs are caused by normative and regulative effects (Tran, 2016).

There have been repeated misconceptions among comparative education researchers concerning policy isomorphism. A study made by Wiseman et al. (2013b) articulates the root cause of the misunderstanding based on what Meyer (2010, p.3) suggested that '*the surprising features of the contemporary world are: how much is shared, how much is universalized, and how strong collectivity is perceived, not that there is global unification*'. Isomorphism does not mean homogenization (Wiseman et al., 2013b) although some comparative education researchers promote structural isomorphism revealed with convergence in policies and practices (Burch, 2007). As illustrated by Wiseman et al. (2013a), homogenization is neither possible nor promoted in comparative education research crafted with neo-institutionalism.

Given world culture theory, nations need to be modern states and envisage education as a way out. They could have similar national visions and their education policies significantly become convergent as they share similar development issues. Consequently, global convergence of education policies takes place and gradually educational institutions at all levels look more of the same kind than before (Syharil,

2015). The concept of 'world culture' or neo-institutional theory has a huge impact on policy isomorphism but this does not mean that the influence, to the extent, results with policy homogenization. This concept can lead to a remarkable similarity in policy isomorphism (Wiseman et.al, 2013b). Nevertheless, theoretical discussion of 'world culture' in comparative education research does not mean advocacy of policy homogenization but an attempt to explore to what extent dominated world cultures (Meyer, 2010). The fundamental argument of neo-institutional theory or world culture theory is that '*all cultures are slowly integrating into a single global culture*' (Syharil, 2015, p.4).

It has to be noted that 'world culture' is not a static concept rather a process of becoming more similar and hence isomorphism in this respect is a process, not a state of homogenization. In other words, normative isomorphism is central to the application of neo-institutionalism in comparative international education research (Wiseman et al., 2013b). Education policies may demonstrate many isomorphic tendencies; however, there is little chance for a particular culture to be homogeneous and legitimized throughout the world (Wiseman et al., 2013a). The world culture of the neo-institutional framework envisages global convergence in educational organizations. However, researchers have observed significant worldwide divergence at macro-level educational activities i.e. teaching practices and life inside classrooms (Kim, 2015).

The neo-institutional perspective speculates education as an abstraction of an institution at a macro level. As a result, education policies are independent, rationalized and impersonal prescriptions that govern a particular community's education (Mohammad, 2017). With this notion, independent national education policy has its



peculiar frameworks that can align with Westernized or non-Westernized education policies. It has to be understood here that neo-institutional theory provides a wider opportunity to keep traditional or indigenous elements of particular education policy (Wiseman et al., 2013a). However, Kim (2015) argued that the cross-national convergence of education policy assisted by neo-institutionalists generally reflects Western-centric ideas and culture.

Another prime misconception seems to be related to the impact of globalization in comparative education research. Comparative education research has promoted the idea of global culture and global society (Wiseman et al., 2013b). This concept *is a useful framework for many of the global, institutional and systemic phenomena in which comparative education researchers are interested* (Baker & Wiseman, 2006, p.8). Rappleye (2012) cited in Syahril (2015) declared that neo-institutional theory and systems theory as two main relevant theoretical frameworks to frame the globalization process in education. However, among many globalization theories that justify why educational systems develop, expand and transform worldwide, yet neo-institutional theory has proven to be relevant in crafting empirical study of global educational legitimization, expansion, and change (Wiseman et al., 2013a).

Globalization inherently may influence the education policy and practices of nations. Worldwide dominant education standards and models, in particular, have the power to be transmitted in many or most of the global states. Along with the natural impact of the world's classification system, professionals, and global organizations such as UNESCO, World Bank, and OECD serve as transmitters of these models and

standards. This is a common stance of neo-institutional theory manifested with a good deal of isomorphism (Baker & Wiseman, 2006).

### **3.1.2. Strands of Neo-institutionalization**

Ample evidence suggests that there are multiple approaches to neo-institutional theory. The four strands: political neo-institutionalization, sociological neo-institutionalization, economical neo-institutionalization, and historical neo-institutionalization are common approaches used in comparative education research (Amenta & Ramsey 2009; Wiseman et al., 2013b). It is wise to consider more approaches to neo-institutionalization in comparative education studies than sticking solely to a single approach. This has benefits; i.e. it minimizes misconceptions about the theory (Wiseman et al., 2013a).

Nevertheless, findings indicated that some of the comparative education researchers merely focus on a single strand of neo-institutional theory and tend to be exposed to different misconceptions (Wiseman et al., 2013b). Notwithstanding the association between the already mentioned strands (Amenta & Ramsey, 2009), the first two (political neo-institutionalization and sociological neo-institutionalization) were mainly considered for this study. This was because these approaches were found to be more relevant to craft institutional theoretical issues of the study than the rest of the two.

Amenta & Ramsey (2009, p.3) suggested that *'political institutionalists typically situate their claims at the state or macro-political level and argue that process of formation of states, political systems, and political party systems strongly influence political processes and outcomes.* This typical feature applies in the field of comparative

education studies. Comparative education researchers familiar with political neo-institutionalization suggest that education policies and their outcomes are highly affected by the political nature of nations. Political neo-institutionalism promotes wider patterns of politics and policy influences at the state and sub-state levels (Wiseman et al., 2013b). It also believes that national political institutions mediate the effects of local political actors and globalization (Amenta & Ramsey 2010). Political neo-institutional theory primarily intends to explain differences of specific contexts or cases and it may consider similarities in historical studies (Wiseman et al., 2013b). This strand is not interested in cross-national policy convergence rather it focuses on the long-standing differences (Amenta & Ramsey, 2010).

The impact of sociological institutional theory on comparative education research is well articulated in the work of Baker & Wiseman (2006: xi) that says '*education is a social arena, indeed, research on education has been basic to the development of institutional theory at every level from individual to national society*'. Policy analysis from the sociological neo-institutionalism perspective focuses on the process of legitimatization in policy imitation and diffusion. In other words, the sociological neo-institutional theory focuses on the alignment of institutions and policies. Contrary to political neo-institutionalism, sociological neo-institutionalism focuses on a cross-national analysis of policy isomorphism (Wiseman et al., 2013b). It is important to note that how the combined effect of political neo-institutionalism and sociological neo-institutionalism can assist the analysis of similarities and differences in this study.

The concept of 'world society' and 'world culture' is a typical stance of sociological neo-institutional theory in comparative education research. The 'world

society' conception views the world as a society revealed with variations and uniqueness whereas the 'world culture' perspective looks the world manifested with similar cultures (Wiseman et al., 2013b). A major contribution of the work of Baker & Wiseman (2006, p. xv) is that the '*development of institutional theory is to emphasize modern education as increasingly building a sort of world society, rather than simply a set of national societies*'. This view is prominent to investigate a particular comparative education research within the wider global context.

The major similarity between these two strands of neo-institutional theory is that *something identified at a [broader] level is used to explain processes and outcomes at a more narrow level of analysis* (Amenta & Ramsey, 2010 p.15). As said before, this perspective implies that broader contexts may assist specific contexts.

Another similar feature is that both approaches focus on the relevance of a particular context i.e. educational system. They do not also view organizations as 'organic wholes' but as 'loosely coupled arrays of standardized elements' (Wiseman et al., 2013b). Further, homogeneity in the sense of these neo-institutional approaches does not occur in the system as a whole rather it occurs in the pieces of an educational system (Wiseman et al., 2013a). However, they remain different among the wider determinants used for understanding and explaining a localized or targeted phenomenon (Wiseman et al., 2013b). Such approaches of neo-institutionalism support the analysis of this study.

### **3.1.3. The three pillars of Institutionalism**

Among the three pillars of institutionalism (regulative, normative, and cultural cognitive), this study has greater interest to deal with the regulative aspect of

institutionalization for the study is concerned with quality assurance arrangement policy issues. However, this does not mean the other two pillars are not important. It is imperative, therefore, to provide a brief explanation of these concepts and how they can assist this research.

Institutional theory can assist our understanding of how stakeholders are participating in an education organization that generates policies, regulations and norms (Tran, 2016). The regulative aspect of institutionalization is concerned with rules and regulations of institutions (Soliman, 2011). According to Ramberg, (2014, p.3) *'institutions obey laws and rules usually backed by the machinery of governance for reasons of expedience, preferring not to suffer the penalty of non-compliance.* The implication of this concept in the field of education and specifically to this dissertation can be reflected in regulative elements of ECCE policies for the initial teacher education quality assurance arrangements.

The normative aspect of institutionalism, which is a typical feature of sociological neo-institutionalism, focuses on the shared values and norms of an organization (Soliman, 2011). This aspect guides organizational activities and believes as per established social obligations and professionalization (Ramberg, 2014). Professional values and norms of trainee teachers and teacher educators are important initial teacher education issues for this study.

The cultural-cognitive pillar of institutionalization involves *the socially shared cultural rules and frameworks that guide the understanding of the nature of reality and the frames through which that meaning is developed* (Ramberg, 2014, p.3). This notion

might also be helpful to see how socially shared cultures and beliefs shape the cognition of trainees in initial teacher preparation.

Neo-institutionalism has significantly contributed various assumptions in the field of comparative education. The assumption that takes institutions as macro-level abstractions describes education as an independent institution or entity with considerable regulations, standards, norms, values, and cultures (Mohammad, 2017). To reiterate, the regulative approach of institutionalism '*considers institutions to be a set of rules that constrain and direct the behavior and actions of individuals*' (Soliman, 2011, p.45)' and this was the prime interest of this study.

#### **3.1.4. The Concept of *Decoupling***

*Decoupling* in institutional theory has been attributed to various emerging theoretical assumptions (Boxenbaum & Jonsson, 2017). For this study, the classic concept of decoupling that demonstrates policy-practice disconnection (Haack & Schoeneborn, 2015) is in focus. This common notion underlines how policies are developed symbolically without a substantial implementation (Haack & Schoeneborn, 2015). Hasse & Krucken (2014) suggest that decoupling has to be seen in varied degrees. In their view, decoupling ranges from 0 (complete coupling) to 1 (complete decoupling). The primary intent of this study looks not quantifying rather emphasizing the wider distinction in the range of decoupling.

Neo-institutionalists suggest that the concept of loose coupling is simply an explanation of the reality between envisioned and enacted policies (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014). Institutional theory enables us to understand the disconnection between policy and

practice. Also, it orients us to know how the broad organizational culture in policy formation and implementation process creates practices of stability. Institutional theory can assist us to identify challenges in the process of policy formation and implementation (Tran, 2016). For instance, there might appear disconnection between the teaching and practicum of initial teacher education. Institutional theory articulates this situation from the *decoupling* aspect and hence; the initial teacher preparation policy is decoupled from the practice of teaching (Tran, 2016).

*Decoupling* may result due to different institutional or organizational factors. Boxenbaum & Jonsson (2017) portray a couple of reasons how *decoupling* occurs. According to this study, strong coercive pressure on organizations to implement a new practice may result in *decoupling*. This will happen mainly if organizations distrust the actor that pressurized them. *Decoupling* is often possible also if organizations do not believe in the outcome of the new practice. Contrary to this, sometimes accepted practices might be decoupled unintentionally increasing the likelihood of unnoticed practices. Among the rest factors mentioned in the study of Boxenbaum and Jonsson (2017), the power dynamics within institutions is identified as a prominent variable to mediate the degree of decoupling.

### **3.1.5. Research Methodology in Neo-institutional Theory**

Neo-institutional theory in comparative education research methodology fundamentally emphasizes the nature of research questions to be addressed than focusing on using a particular research method. Comparative education study framed with neo-institutional theory often uses varied methodological approaches to explore the

worldwide education phenomenon. Policy-oriented document analysis at a macro level, for instance, is one of the methodological possibilities (Wiseman et al., 2013b).

As evidenced by Burch (2007), mixed methods are recommended for comparative education researches outlined with institutional theory. But this is not to claim that mixed methods are the best or the mere approaches for comparative education research crafted with institutional theory. There are quantitative and qualitative comparative education studies combined with the theoretical framework of institutional theory (Baker & Wiseman, 2006; Wiseman et al., 2013b).

Comparative education studies oriented by neo-institutional theory do not promote or stand against legitimized expectations, activities or norms. This is well explained in the work of Wiseman et al. (2013b).

*The neo-institutional theory is, indeed, a theory: it is a framework to explain social phenomena that requires evidence to support it (or not). Identifying and examining the norms and values behind phenomena do not constitute advocacy. Comparative education researchers should not be expected to accompany their research with value-laden recommendations or solutions to persistent problems or damning rhetoric against educational policies and practices that some feel are unfair. The goal of the researcher is to use evidence to investigate phenomena. It is the responsibility of the politician and policymaker to make value decisions and change policies and practices using this evidence. (Wiseman et al., 2013b, p.15)*



Methodologically, this framework of institutional theory can guide this study. This is because there seems a significant similarity between this stance and the analytical framework of the study.

## **3.2. Conceptual Framework of the Study**

### **3.2.1. Conceptual Definition of Quality in ECCE**

Hu et al. (2017) suggest that developing a common understanding of the constituents of ECCE quality is paramount while there have been prevailing varied concepts across time and contexts on the definition. In response to these varied definitions, researchers have conceptualized quality in ECCE within two primary components-“structural” and “process” quality. Abound research findings, subsequently, have made a distinction between the structural and process quality of ECCE (Paro, 2012, Otero & Melhuish, 2015; Slot et al., 2015; J. Neuman et al., 2015; Slot, 2018; Vlasov et al., 2019).

According to J. Neuman et al., (2015), the structural quality of ECCE comprises initial teacher education, continuous professional development, ECCE setting characteristics (i.e. physical features of the classroom, teacher-child ratio, group size) and teachers working conditions. Slot et al. (2015), in a similar vein, demonstrates that a structural characteristic of ECEC quality refers to teacher education (pre-service training and in-service training), group size and children-to-teacher ratio.

Process quality of ECCE, as defined by J. Neuman et al. (2015), refers to the child’s day-to-day experiences in ECEC settings and encompasses the social, emotional, physical, and instructional aspects of children’s activities and interactions with teachers, peers, and materials. Process quality characteristics seem to describe how the objectives and content specified for ECCE are realized in practice (Vlasov et.al, 2019) and they are

seen as the proximal determinants of child development (J. Neuman et al., 2015). From these two strands of ECCE quality, it has to be noted that structural quality particularly initial teacher education was the focus of this study.

### **3.2.2. Conceptual Definition of Quality Teacher Education**

Conceptualizing quality in teacher education is important as the major intent of this study was to explore quality initial teacher education in ECCE. From the existing conceptual definitions, the definition made by Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE, 2015) was chosen because of its framework that fits with the objective of this study. INEE (2015, p.60-63) defines quality teacher education in a very comprehensive manner. Underlining that there is no one universally accepted definition of high-quality teacher education and the difficulty of operationalizing quality in education, INEE portrays six ways of defining quality in teacher education.

One way is to develop definitions of quality via existing researches on teacher professional development. This definition entails high-quality teacher education that is aligned with national, regional or school goals, national or international standards, and assessments; and other professional-learning activities. The second way is defining quality teacher education as a deliberately constructed value. Within this approach, effectiveness, efficiency, equity, responsiveness, relevance, reflexivity, and sustainability are dimensions regarded as constructed values to define quality teacher education. Defining quality teacher education based on international standards without context-specific manner is the third approach and it is grounded on the development of teachers' knowledge, skills, attitudes, and dispositions demonstrably shown to improve teaching.

INEE (2015) also defines quality teacher education with context-specific international professional development standards, such as quality teacher education in fragility contexts. Emergency settings can be typical examples of this definition. The fifth approach is a contextual definition of quality teacher education. Within this approach, quality teacher education must be defined not according to universal standards but based on the national contexts. “Quality” is often reflective of particular national policies and assumes different meanings depending on the values and needs of a particular population (INEE, 2015, p.58). J. Newman et al. (2015), in a similar vein, underpin the importance of contextual overview in particular for low- and middle-income countries to understand the achievements and challenges of ECCE teachers.

Finally, INEE (2015) defines quality teacher education as a hybrid construct of the above five definitions. This definition is inclusive that comprises all the rest approaches. Notwithstanding the underpinnings of quality teacher education shall be seen predominantly within the national contexts (Roopnarine et al., 2018), the sixth approach seems paramount to comprehensively conceptualize quality teacher education in ECCE.

This study was mainly grounded by the first and fifth conceptual definitions of quality teacher education. It has to be noted here that both the first and fifth conceptual definitions are concerned mainly with national education policies, standards and systems i.e. quality assurance schemes and partly with international perspectives. These definitions also seem to dominate the other three since quality teacher education no more exists out of the national and international contexts. And again, it has to be noted that the fifth definition has a direct relationship with the structural quality features of ECCE for they define quality in terms of education policies and standards.

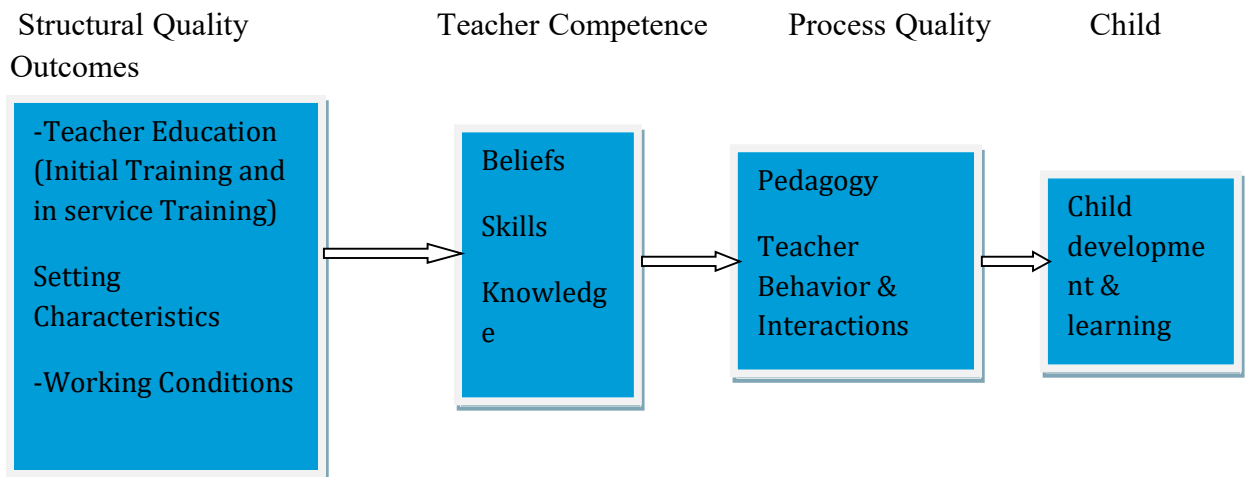
### **3.2.3. Relationships between Structural and Process Quality**

Notwithstanding a specific component of structural quality is the sole concern of this study, discussing the relationship between the two strands of quality ECCE was found important to highlight the impact of initial teacher education on process quality. Abound literature frequently suggests that structural features are considered to be important preconditions for process quality that in turn is strongly related to child development, wellbeing and learning (Otero & Melhuish, 2015; Slot, 2018; Bonetti & Brown, 2019). Structural quality components are regarded as important inputs of process quality and these interrelated factors of quality interact dynamically manifesting at different levels of ECCE (Slot et al., 2015; Vlasov et al., 2019).

The impact of teacher education, as a structural component of quality ECCE, on process quality is well considered in research (Slot, 2018). The study conducted by J. Neuman et.al (2015) highlights the relationship between teacher education and process quality. This study suggests that teacher education (initial training and in-service training), among other structural quality features, affects teacher competence (beliefs, skills, and knowledge) thereby influences process quality (pedagogy, teacher behavior, and interactions) and ultimately impacts child outcomes (development and learning). The study also underlined that improvements in ECCE program quality and child outcomes are often correlated with better educated and trained teachers.

By the same token, Slot (2018) suggests that research within the last two decades has shown a positive association between initial teacher preparation and process quality of ECCE. Other studies conducted on the structural and process characteristics of ECCE

quality also revealed that a higher level of quality teacher education is positively correlated with a higher level of process quality (Laparo, 2012, Otero & Melhuish, 2015; Slot et al., 2015; J. Neuman et al., 2015; Slot, 2018; Vlasov et.al, 2019) however a study made by Schleicher (2019) revealed with unclear and negative associations. Much importantly, teacher education is believed to be the most powerful and influential structural component to achieve a better quality of ECCE (J. Neuman et al., 2015). The following figure shows the relationship between the two strands of quality in ECCE.



Source: Adapted from J. Neuman et.al, (2015 p.17)

Figure 3.1: Model of the relationship between Structural and Process Quality of ECCE

### 3.2.4. Education Policy and Structural Quality

The structural features of ECCE quality can be seen at a macro policy level (Bonetti & Brown, 2019). Quality teacher education as a structural quality of ECCE in this respect appears to mean education policies (Slot, 2018). These education policies are regulable aspects of the structural quality of ECEC that decide who is responsible for ECEC activities, where ECEC activities take place, and what type of a setting is created

for the activities (Slot et al., 2015). Vlasov et al., (2019) in a similar sense illustrates that structural components of ECCE quality are defined in and governed by acts, decrees, and other national policies. The structural quality of ECCE is determined by education policies and regulations (Slot, 2018).

As stated in Slot (2018), ECCE systems, education policies, monitoring, and regulation schemes are basic structural frameworks of quality teacher education. This in turn shows how teacher education as a major component of structural quality is interrelated with the specific policy context of ECCE. Indeed, teacher education policies are structural features of ECCE quality that could regulate both initial and in-service training (J. Neuman et al., 2015; Slot et al., 2015). Findings also revealed that quality assurance policies and systems appeared to be an important feature of structural quality (Slot, 2018).

National education policies have an impact not only on structural features of quality ECCE but also on the other strand of ECCE quality. Cross-national studies that have been conducted in the past two decades show how differences in national education policy contexts impact the respective structural and process qualities of ECCE (Slot, 2018). For instance, global nations have their own different ECCE quality assurance arrangements because of variations revealed within their policy frameworks; and this has significant implications on their structural and process quality characteristics (Slot, 2018).

### **3.2.5. Quality Assurance Arrangement Policies in Initial Teacher Education**

The structural quality of initial teacher education is often conceptualized and explored within quality assurance arrangements. The arrangements constitute recruitment

and selection, preparation and certification policies (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Many nations have been paid considerable attention to quality assurance arrangement policies of initial teacher education particularly within the last two decades; and policymakers, accordingly, put the issue of quality at the center of teacher policies (Furlong et al., 2009). Based on existing literature, this study is conceptually framed with these three major constituents that together form initial teacher education quality assurance arrangements. As can be seen in chapter four, section 4.6 and chapter five, section 5.1.4., these components were further dismantled, reviewed, and operationalized respectively. The following diagram represents the conceptual framework of this study.

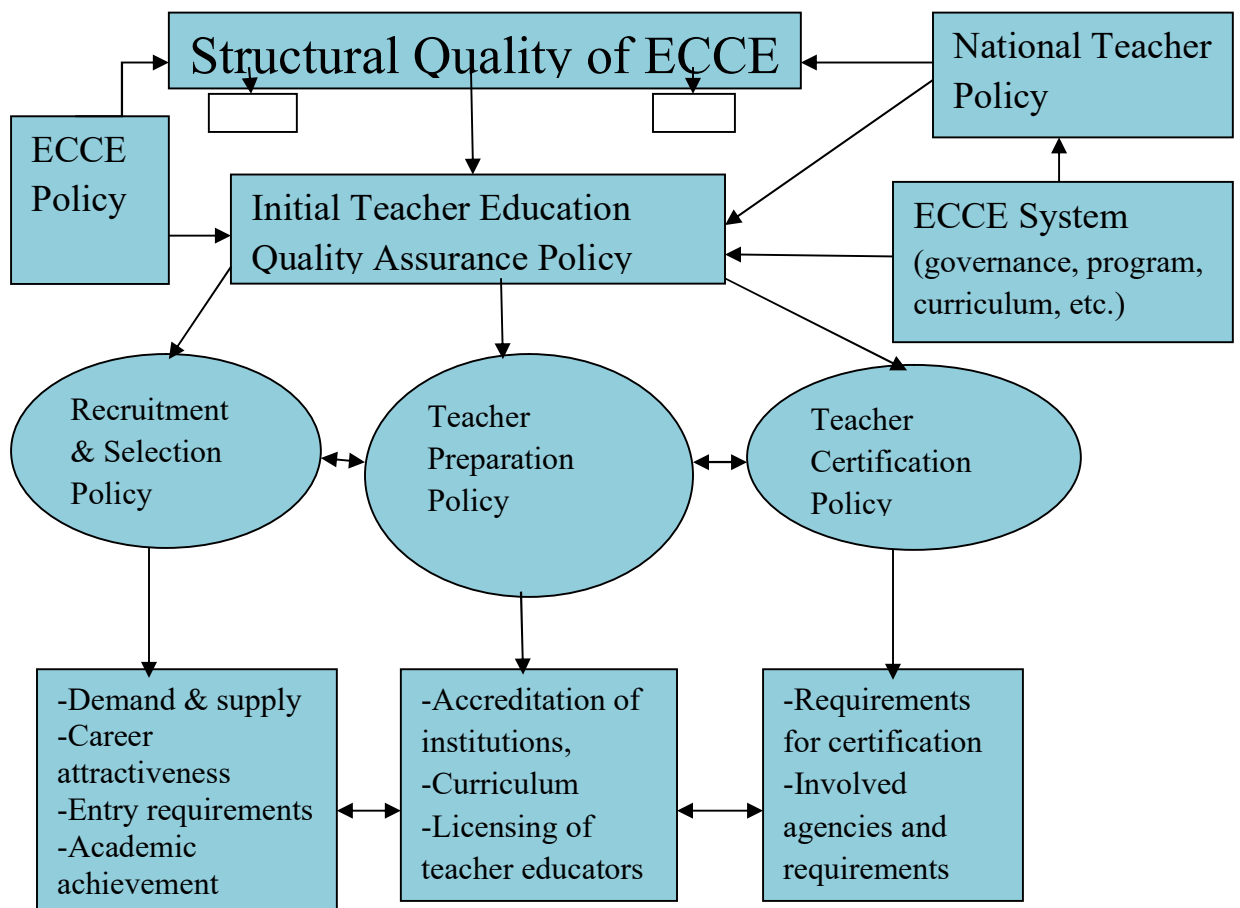


Figure 3.2: Conceptual Framework of the Study: Adapted from (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Akiba, 2017; Slot, 2018; Vlasov et al., 2019; UNESCO, 2019)



As can be seen from the above figure, this study was concerned with a specific component of the structural quality of ECCE. The two empty boxes correspond to other constituents of the structural quality that are beyond the scope of this study. The figure shows that this study focuses on the quality of initial training that is achievable through the quality assurance arrangements. The figure also indicates how the quality assurance of initial teacher education policy emanates from the national teacher policy and the subsector policy. The figure further demonstrates the three stages of quality assurance arrangements which are broken down into specific variables. Finally, this figure considered how ECCE systems such as governance, program, curriculum, etc. are associated with teacher policy in general and initial teacher education in particular.

This cross-national comparative study has employed two frameworks: Conceptual Framework and Analytical Framework. The purpose of this conceptual framework was to illustrate variables associated to the quality assurance arrangement policies of initial teacher education within the structural quality of ECCE. To reiterate, this study is cross-national comparative research aiming to make a comparative analysis. The analytical framework indicated in chapter five section 5.3 demonstrates the comparative analysis of the Ethiopian and Kenyan cases. It also indicates implications of the comparative analysis to the wider (regional and global) contexts. Thus, it is better to note that the analytical framework has devised the cross-national comparative aspect of this study.

Another important consideration here is that the structural quality of ECCE is regulable policy that is the focus of the conceptual framework and the analytical framework of this study. It is imperative here to note that policies are also at the heart of the theoretical framework of this study. From the notion of the meaning of an

"institution", institutional theory considers policies as institutions. Concepts like "Isomorphism" and "Decoupling" are common theoretical notions of the institutional theory which are originally associated with policies. In a similar vein, policies were the essential part of the review literature of this study while they are typical manifestation of the structural quality of ECCE. Hence, policies were the bridge that connected the conceptual, theoretical, and analytical frameworks of this cross-national comparative study.

## CHAPTER FOUR: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### Introduction

This literature was written through rigorous steps and procedures. The first step went into identification of topics and the formation of an outline. ECCE, teacher education, and quality assurance were key areas of discussion throughout the topics. The impact of globalization on these major topics was also reviewed. Much of the issues discussed in previous chapters were not included. The structural quality of ECCE, for instance, was not part of this literature as it was discussed in chapter three. Policies were the central element of this review while they are typical manifestations of structural quality.

Online library database (mainly the digital library of Gothenburg University), Google search web pages and organizations i.e. education ministries of the respective nations were sources of the literature. Empirical studies mainly articles published in international journals, books, policy documents of international organizations, and few hard copies of published documents were used. It is imperative to note that some of the literature reviewed in this chapter was also sources of data for comparative analysis undertaken in chapter eight.

The rationale for using documents from the UN and transnational organizations was manifold. UNESCO, World Bank and OECD have been providing reports on global teacher status, teacher policy developments, and standards (Paine et al., 2017). UNESCO, for example, is the sole mandated UN agency to assist education systems and policies

(UNESCO, 2013). Publications from such organizations are often prepared by a group of experts and/or researchers in rigorous scientific work; they are not just simply documents or reports. Global nations often use these influential reports to make teacher reforms (Akiba, 2017). Some of the documents produced by these multilateral organizations are also results of commissioned researches. Nowadays, aside from their statistical information, it is not a surprise to use the concepts, descriptions, and frameworks of these publications in empirical studies (Akiba, 2017; Paine et al., 2017). For the most part, such publications are relevant for this kind of education policy-oriented cross-national comparative studies. It remains important to note that some of these policy documents were used for document analysis.

Varied search techniques were used. Having a list of main and sub-topics, theme, journal, and author-based searches were deployed. More than half of the search was made on the digital database library of Gothenburg University, Sweden. The searches were also made using *Zotero* software and Google search. More relevant literature was selected after the identification and scanning process. The search, however, has continued throughout this research due to emerging issues and to deploy recent sources.

#### **4.1. Conceptual Definition of ECCE**

It is better first to justify why this study used the term *ECCE* among other commonly used terms. In a study on international perspectives of early childhood education, Roopnarine et al. (2018) argued that terms such as ECCE, ECEC, ECDE, ECCD, ECD, and others may bring critical differences in the setting and approach of early childhood care and education. Conversely, Vargas-Baron (2005) illustrated that

nations are using these terms to refer to the multi-sectoral approach of early childhood systems that can be interchangeably used. The study also has shown that ECD and ECCE are the most frequently used terms. Based on this global practice and UNESCO's decision (Vargas-Baron, 2005), this study preferred to use the term *ECCE*.

There is no, nor should anyone expect there to be, one universally agreed definition of ECCE (Hayes, 2007). Peterson et al. (2010) define early childhood care and education or pre-primary education as an organized program offering educational services and/or care to children during early childhood from birth until entry into primary school. ECCE is considered to be the most important developmental phase throughout a human life span (Moss, 2011). By the same token, Sayre et al. (2015) conceptualized ECCE as the support for children's survival, growth, development and learning from conception to the time of entry into primary school. Marope & Kaga (2015) also viewed ECCE as the initial stage of organized instruction designed primarily to introduce very young children to a school-kind environment. In the absence of a globally agreed definition, it seems worldwide literature and national policy documents significantly have shown similar views on how ECCE is prominent for physical, cognitive, linguistic and socio-emotional development (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; Republic of Kenya/Ministry of Education, 2017; Sayre et al., 2015; Roopnarine et al., 2018)

It is imperative to consider the two elements ("Care" and "Education") in the course of defining ECCE. ECCE comprises "Care" (that consists of health, nutrition and hygiene in a safe and nurturing environment) and "Education" (which includes stimulation, socialization, guidance, participation and learning, and developmental activities) (Awopegba et al., 2013). Complete development of a child within ECCE could

not be attainable without equal attention of “Care” and “Education” (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; UNESCO, 2010; Kaga et al., 2010; Awopegba et al., 2013). The following explanation elaborates more.

*“Care” generally includes attention to protection, health, hygiene, and nutrition provided within a nurturing and safe environment. Early childhood care may include cognitive stimulation and social development. “Education” in early childhood is much broader than schooling, capturing socialization, learning, and guidance through a wide range of developmental activities, and opportunities. Early childhood education is possible only in the presence of a safe environment, good health, nutrition and hygiene, and warm relationships. Thus, in practice, early childhood “care” and “education” cannot be separated. Therefore, high quality ECCE provision necessarily addresses both dimensions and fosters children’s holistic development – the ultimate purpose of ECCE. (UNESCO, 2013, p.41-42)*

#### **4.2. Historical Development of ECCE Policies**

UNESCO (2005) reports how unofficial policies for early childhood services have existed for a couple of centuries. This document revealed the historical development of ECCE policies that started since the Italian Renaissance and the rise of a merchant class. The document further demonstrates that ECCE policy elements began to be developed in the late nineteenth century and expanded rapidly during the 20th century with the rise of industrialization and the progressive entry of women into the labor force.

Understandably, this advancement needs teacher training as one of emerged ECCE policy elements.

In her study on "A Global History of ECCE", Kamerman (2006) emphasized the development of ECCE policies between the 1960s and 1990s. According to this study, the explosion of social protection policies in Europe and the Anglo-American countries and the independence of African countries were overarching events for ECCE development in the 1960s. The most notable ECCE policy development was shown in the 1960s due to the end of colonialism, the establishment of independent states in Africa, the dramatic increase in female labor force participation rates, the extensive developments in child and family policies in Europe and the U.S., the debate between care vs. development as the critical issue in the ECEC field (Kamerman, 2006, p.5).

From the viewpoint of an integrated approach to ECCE, the global history of ECCE development can be seen in two phenomena (UNESCO, 2002). The first relates to the corresponding development of various types of institutions that provide care and education services for young children. Family day-care centers, infant schools, kindergartens, among others, were service providers that called for an integration of child *care and education*. The other, less evidently, associates with the political, cultural and economic events in particular periods. These periods were highly influenced by the adoption of more or less integrated approaches of "Care" and "Education"; and the events include the Cold War, the Cultural Revolution of the 1960s and '70s, and globalization (UNESCO, 2002). It seems that gradually the issue of integrated approach has been transformed into policy and systemic integration based on the multi-sectored nature of ECCE (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010; Kaga et al., 2010; Neuman & Devercelli 2012).

The global history of ECCE studied by Kamerman (2006) signifies regional and national divergence but strong global similarity mainly on a dominant ECCE paradigm. The convergence mainly dictates the long history of ECCE programs and policy borrowing. ECCE policy borrowing can be traced from the formation of infant schools in the early 1800s to the coming of "Head Start" initiatives in the 1960s (Garcia et al., 2008). Consequently, several educational models have been created for ECCE of which some models have been in existence for close to a century, while others have emerged in recent decades. Similar models of Kindergarten and nurseries such as Frobel, Montessori, Head Start, High/Scope, Montessori, Reggio Emilia, and Waldorf are commonly referred by professionals (Farenga & Ness, 2005; Kamerman, 2006).

The emergence of the three types of ECCE programs (infant schools, kindergarten and nursery school) had also brought convergence in teacher education systems (Garcia et al., 2008) the fact that all the programs were functioning based on European pedagogies (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008). These models were first established in the 19th century in much of Europe, North America and several developing countries like India and China (UNESCO, 2002). Notwithstanding the great contribution of the models, the current dynamics tended to focus solely on the scientific child development notions than sticking to one or more of the abovementioned models. Finding a single model of ECCE in a particular nation has become difficult. Diversified national contexts and needs also contributed a lot for the shift (Haslip & Gullo, 2018).

As noted earlier, the historical development of ECCE in Europe and US has shown tremendous convergence. Drawing some generalization on African ECCE development is also possible due to the shared history of colonization. The study of



Kammerman (2006), however, has shown a strong divergence on the history of ECCE development in the Asia Pacific region than the other regions. For this reason, finding a regional historical development of ECCE for this region seems to be difficult.

Ignited attention on ECCE starting from the Jometien Declaration of 1990 followed by intensification of international conventions, joint movement of international organizations, global summits, etc. demonstrated development of ECCE in the 1990s (UNESCO, 2005). The majority of early childhood experts and practitioners have recognized the importance of a rich and nurturing environment for young children's development and learning, and as a result, the pioneering work of Montessori, Dewey and Froebel is still alive around the world (Mahmud, 2014). Nevertheless, ECCE is a vibrant worldwide subsector that needs relevant policy and a deeper commitment in assuring access and quality preschool education. Many countries, very recently, are evaluating their efforts based on the 2030 Education Agenda. While some nations have made considerable investments irrespective of their income, the rapid expansion of private ECCE is dominating the poor public ECCE in most of the global states (Haslip and Gullo, 2017).

### **4.3. Theoretical Assumptions of ECCE**

The purpose of this particular review was not to draw attention to the theoretical framework of this study; rather, to provide theoretical assumptions of ECCE. Theoretical assumptions of ECCE are important in ECCE policy development. In particular, ECCE policy formation is highly aligned with the assumptions of developmental theories. These theoretical underpinnings, for instance, are key policy levers to develop ECCE and its

teacher education curricula. Thus, this review will enable the study to see the extent of alignment between the respective ECCE policy frameworks and the theoretical assumptions. However, irrespective of the aim of this review, it is imperative to note the interconnectedness between institutional theory and developmental theories. For instance, developmental theories look education policies as one of the important settings that could influence ECCE while they are regarded as institutions in institutional theory (Awopegba et al., 2013; Lemma, 2014; Conkbayir & Pascal, 2015; Berthod, 2016).

ECCE by its nature has manifold assumptions. It also holds varieties of conceptions on development, care and education, and hence it does not call a single theory; rather it is confined with more than a theory (Lemma, 2014). ECCE teacher education also needs its own theoretical framework consistent with this assumptions and conceptions (Townsend & Bates, 2007; Conkbayir & Pascal, 2015).

Early theorists such as John Lucke, Jean -Jacques Rousseau, Friedrich Frobel, John Dewey, Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky are popular advocates of ECCE (Farenga & Ness, 2005). Arnold Gesell, B.F Skinner and Albert Bandura have also important theoretical contributions to ECCE (Cutter-Mackenzie et al. 2014; Conkbayir & Pascal, 2015). In addition to these, ecological systems theorists have a prominent impact to explore the cultural appropriateness of ECCE (Awopegba et al., 2013). Notwithstanding the prominence of others, particular attention is often paid to Piaget's and Vygotsky's constructivist theory and philosophical ideas for they serve as a special guideline on childhood development and education.

Grounding theoretical assumptions of ECCE with developmental theories seem not a surprise but relevant and longstanding in the arena of research. This has been manifested mainly in the field of developmental psychology as Lemma (2014, p.29) suggests that *'developmental psychology has been the major discipline that marked not only advances in human knowledge about child development but also a dominant discourse in understanding the interplay between the child's multi-layered milieu and the importance of quality care and education'*.

Research has shown that Vygotsky's and Piaget's developmental theories are popular theories to adequately conceptualize the four interrelated domains of child development (physical, cognitive, linguistic, and socio-emotional development) in ECCE (Lourenco, 2012; Barroulillet, 2015; Thompson, 2018). It seems that this has happened because of their complementary effect and commonalities. Thompson (2018) supports this notion underlining that there will be endless scope to help children develop critical thinking skills and cognitive awareness for a well-rounded way of learning while both Vygotsky's and Piaget's developmental theories are used in conjunction with one another. Lemma (2014) also indicated the shared notion of the theories in terms of social interaction regardless of their distinctive characteristics.

Early childhood development can be seen as the result of the interactions between the children and their social environment. The social interactions include those with parents and teachers, playmates and classmates, and other family members (Winsler, 2003; Barroulillet, 2015; Thompson, 2018). Bodrova & Leong (2001) also demonstrate that children involve relationships with significant objects, such as books or toys, and culturally specific practices that they engage in the classroom, at home, and on the

playground. As revealed in this study, it seems that much of these interactions took place in ECCE settings and children are active participants in these interactions, constructing knowledge, skills, and attitudes and not just mirroring the world around them. This is a typical stance of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development, the place where development takes place, the place where culture and cognition create each other and the place where teacher-child interaction with systematic assistance (Scaffolding) takes place; has profound importance in ECCE (Winsler, 2003). Vygotsky's theory is relevant in ECCE programs both in terms of practice and research. In particular, it is profoundly important to accommodate all domains of child development (Lemma, 2014).

The significant effect of Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory in ECCE as developmental theory is well demonstrated in research (Awopegba et al., 2013; Lemma, 2014). This theory helps to examine the many levels of the effects of the interrelatedness between the physical, social, and cultural elements in the environment and what they bring to bear on a developing child (Awopegba et.al, 2013). Lemma (2014), in a similar manner, summarizes this notion as follows.

*This theoretical framework conceives the necessity of bridging the child's transition between home environment, early childhood care and education centers and schools. The porous nature of the territory between these Microsystems enables an easy flow of information and resources to enhance the child's development. The preschool child as center of gravity is influenced by the combined set of interrelations between settings in the systems such as the family, ECCE centers, community, ECCE policies, and child rearing practices*

*at large. For the child's cognitive, social, and emotional developments, the activities of the different structures in the ecosystem need to be tuned and interact in coordination to the best interest of the preschool child. (Lemma, 2014, p.32)*

#### **4.4. Benefits of ECCE**

Research has justified the prominence of ECCE in varied dimensions and approaches. Evidence on brain development emphasizes that the first six years of life are profoundly important for this is the fastest period of human growth and development, and the foundations of all learning are laid during these years (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; Alderman, 2011; Yoshikawa & Kabay, 2015; Roopnarine et al., 2018). Research also demonstrates that useful early childhood experiences can contribute to reduce poverty, improve social mobility from one generation to the next and lay the building blocks for lifelong learning (Alderman, 2011). Inversely, neuroscience conclusively suggests the critical impact of early childhoods' negative experiences on their brain architecture (Alderman, 2011; Awopegba et al., 2013; Mahmud, 2014).

Studies reveal strong evidence on the long-term and the short-term positive effects of ECCE (Roopnarine et al., 2018). Measures of long-term outcomes as indicated in the work of Bauchmuller (2013) include high-school enrolment, crime rates, health, early pregnancies, job aspirations, labor-market success, career outcomes, and life expectancy. In the short term, investment in ECCE translates into considerable cost savings and efficiency gains in the health and education sectors. This is because children who benefit from ECCE services are more likely to be healthy, ready to learn upon

entering primary school, stay longer, and perform well throughout their schooling (Naudeau et al., 2011; Roopnarine et al., 2018).

There appear overlapping arguments on the benefits of ECCE. While a growing body of literature shows the economic argument on the benefits of investing in ECCE, some of these kinds of literature provide unequivocal evidence that public investment in ECCE can produce economic returns equal to roughly 10 times its costs. The return can be seen essentially in decreased costs of public education due to reductions in grade repetition and the need for special education. It can also be seen in decreased costs over health care costs borne by the government, reduced crime and improved criminal justice systems, lower social and economic inequalities, and increased tax revenues (Marope & Kaga, 2015).

Denboba et al., (2014) from the economic return of ECCE point of view argue that the returns of many interventions for young children have repeatedly been shown to be larger than those taking place later in a child's life whereas failure to invest early can lead to irreversible damage for children. By the same token, Naudeau et al. (2011) suggest that failure to invest in ECCE remains costly and difficult to compensate for later in life since early childhood is a particularly sensitive period for brain formation; and hence developmental delays before age 6 are difficult to compensate for later in life. It seems that, as argued by Lemma (2014), the economic argument fundamentally bases the cost-benefit analysis of early intervention versus late intervention.

The survival and health argument, on the other hand, appears to have a synergetic and cumulative effect to ensure healthy child growth and development from the earliest

ages. Synergy among early childhood stimulation, nutrition, and health/hygiene is crucial in promoting optimal child health and development. In contrast, poor health, insufficient nutrition and stimulation in early childhood often lead to long-term health and development issues that are costly for societies (Naudeau et al., 2011).

From the school readiness and achievement argument perspective, ECCE can help ease the often traumatic transition from the informal, family- and culture-oriented environment of the home to the formal school-like structure. It can boost the education and livelihood experiences of the poorest and most vulnerable children in life. It can provide a place for the early informal assessment, intervention, and remediation of disabilities, developmental delays, and other special, unique aspects of a child's character (Shaeffer, 2015).

ECCE is a prominent stage that prepares children for schooling and has a greater impact on their further education (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010; Shaeffer, 2015). Naudeau et al. (2011) in studying the rationale for investing in ECCE argued that well-targeted ECCE intervention is a cost-effective strategy to promote school readiness, school achievement, and school completion. Conversely, the study demonstrated that poor children who do not benefit from quality ECCE are often not prepared to learn and face significant inefficiencies once they enter primary school.

Findings also revealed that ECCE could potentially reduce repetition and dropout rates. It improves completion rates and achievement especially for girls and marginalized groups (UNICEF, 2008; Denboba et al., 2014). As indicated by J. Newman et al. (2015), more than 250 million primary school-age children around the world were not able to

read, write or count well enough to meet minimum learning standards, including those who have spent at least four years in school. It appears that this happened mainly due to lack of access and poor quality of ECCE.

The social equity argument views the benefits of ECCE from the human rights perspective (Lemma, 2014; Marope & Kaga, 2015). The existing international and national legal frameworks on education right often start from early childhoods and include ECCE as an independent level of education. It seems that this is not only a matter of recognizing the human rights issue but also a consideration of its importance to forge and maintain an egalitarian society. This argument considers ECCE as a powerful equalizer that promotes equitable opportunities among childhoods (Naudeau et al., 2011; Alderman, 2011).

Among varied arguments on the benefits of ECCE, the early childhood development argument was found to be comprehensive. ECCE is important for the four interrelated domains of child development: physical development, cognitive development, linguistic development, and socio-emotional development (Sayre et al., 2015). Progress in one of these domains often acts as a catalyst for progress in one of the other domains or delays in one of these domains can trigger delays in other domains as well. For instance, malnutrition in the early years not only leads to poor physical growth but also is highly predictive of delayed cognitive development and low academic achievement throughout the school years. In turn, lack of adult attention and stimulation in the early years not only leads to poor socio-emotional and cognitive development but also is linked to poor health and physical growth (Naudeau et al., 2011).



Further, research has shown the importance of ECCE from the perspective of sustainable development. The study conducted by Roopnarine et al. (2018) suggests ECCE as the best mechanism in achieving multispectral needs of early childhoods that has a profound impact to meet sustainable development goals (SDGs). In a similar sense, Bauchmuller (2013) underlines the benefits of ECCE for sustainable socio-economic returns. Taking all these gains of ECCE into consideration, however, developing nations particularly sub-Saharan Africa have been benefiting little (Roopnarine et al., 2018).

#### **4.5. The Need for Adequate Investment on ECCE**

While there are varied approaches and overlapping arguments toward the prominence of ECCE, growing literature strongly suggests the need for adequate public investment of global nations regardless of their national development status (Naudeau et al., 2011; Denboba et al., 2014; Sayre et al., 2015). Evidence has shown the importance of investment in ECCE for low-income and poor countries. Investment in ECCE is an immediate opportunity to transform developing and low-income Sub-Saharan African countries. It is a powerful indicator for the development and poverty reduction of these nations. Indeed, adequate investment in ECCE for low-income countries has multiple benefits (Garcia et al., 2008; Alderman, 2011; Bauchmuller, 2013; Denboba et al., 2014; Marope & Kaga, 2015; Sayre et al., 2015).

Increasing preschool enrollment to 50 % for children in low and middle-income countries could result in lifetime earnings of US\$15–\$34 billion (Engle et al., 2011). By contrast, failing to ensure adequate investment in ECCE services could have significant irreversible damages for children (Sayre et al., 2015). However, the rate of return on

investments to ECCE interventions depends on many factors, including the focus, duration of exposure, and quality of programs being implemented (Engle et al., 2011).

A study conducted by Bauchmuller (2013) demonstrates that public investments in ECCE have increased significantly in recent decades, in both developed and developing countries whereas some countries already reach high-quality provisions. Denboba et al., (2014), conversely, argue that most countries today fall far short of commonly accepted targets for investments in ECCE. This finding also corroborates with Sayre et al. (2015). Consequently, many young children in low- and middle-income households continue to experience high morbidity (Naudeau et al., 2011). These children are also less likely to have access to quality childcare and preschools (Sayre et al., 2015). Alongside this, as cited in Roopnarine et al., (2018), Putcha & Van der Gaad (2015) estimate that more than 200 million children in the developing world under the age of 5 are suffering the consequences of inadequate opportunities for ECCE.

Denboba et al. (2014) tried to bring three reasons behind the fall of countries to make adequate investment in ECCE. One factor is that countries usually operate ECCE under strict budgetary constraints whereas the second factor is related to the highly complex and multi-sectoral nature of ECCE. The third reason is that some countries still lack awareness of the benefits of ECCE and how they can design successful ECCE policies and scalable programs. There appears strong evidence on the prevalence of the third reason as studies (Neuman & Devercelli 2012; Sayre et al., 2015; Roopnarine, et al., 2018) strengthened the challenge.

It appears unsurprising to see emerging evidence on the need for quality ECCE overall the world. The international perspective demonstrates that the provision of quality ECCE must be every nation's task (Roopnarine et al., 2018). In line with this global stance, the recent global education framework mentioned in Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), Education 2030, includes a target focused on expanding equitable and quality ECCE provision, including one year of free and compulsory pre-primary education (UNESCO, 2016). The special prominence of quality ECCE for low and middle-income countries is also evident in research. In particular, quality ECCE for Sub-Saharan African nations has profound importance (Denboba et al., 2014). Nevertheless, many Sub-Saharan African nations were among the least achievers in the second EFA Goal that calls for the provision of inclusive quality ECCE (UNESCO, 2016). It is evident that Sub-Saharan African nations possibly will register the same result in the SDG goal 4 unless sufficient investment is made in the ECCE subsector.

As indicated in Huston (2008), education policies in ECCE could affect quality in two ways: provision of finance and setting of standards. Governments could improve the quality of ECCE within adequate investment and their standards could also impact the structural quality of ECCE such as initial teacher quality assurance arrangements (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Manning et al., 2017).

Insufficient resource allocation to improve the quality of education often leads to poor quality of teaching and learning (UNESCO, 2013). Similarly, as already noted, poor investment for ECCE leads to poor quality of the subsector. However, it is much important to note that poor investment is primarily attributed to poor quality of policy. This is because effective ECCE policies could affect quality with the provision of

adequate finance aside from the setting of regulations or standards (Huston, 2008). Policymakers can use these principal levers (finance and quality standards) to influence the quality of ECCE. For instance, sufficient investment in ECCE initial teacher preparation is important, despite little research to guide policymakers about how best to direct that investment to assure the quality of new teachers (Manning et al., 2017; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017).

Nevertheless, it appears much important to consider UNESCO's policy suggestion how effective financing mechanism is critical for teacher education. According to UNESCO (2019), the finance for teacher policy shall be examined from an early stage in its development to the final implementation stage. The document identified major cost areas that include teachers' salary, initial teacher training, continuous professional development, resource and facilities of teacher training institutions, the cost for offering decent living and working conditions for teachers, other attractive incentives, and research. Hence, one can understand how adequate investment for ECCE teacher education is critical from the evidence so far reviewed.

#### **4.6. Conceptualizing Education Policies**

Defining the term policy seems so difficult for it involves a very complex process such as a great deal of settlement and other activities (Bray et al., 2014). The concept of *policy* in education tended to be equated with *planning* before the mid-1970s. Education policies were conceptualized as 'educational planning' or 'educational reform' (Zajda, 2005). The word policy can be used in different contexts. It can be used as, for example,

an expression of general purpose, government decision, theory or model, program, official legal text or document, etc. (Bray et al., 2014).

The term policy is a complex concept derived from political science. Different people perceive the word policy differently (Bray et al., 2014). There was an epistemological dichotomy between policy and policy implementation that called the explanation of educational researchers on the distinction (Zajda, 2005). Taylor et al. (1997) cited in Bray et al. (2014) categorized policies into distributive or redistributive, symbolic or material, rational or incremental, substantial or procedural, regulatory or deregulatory, and top-down or bottom-up (Bray et al., 2014).

UNESCO (2013) Education Policy Analysis Framework suggests that in the process of education policy development, various documents i.e. policies, strategies, and plans are produced. The relationship among these documents is well illustrated in the framework. The framework also articulates a clear distinction of these documents in the following manner.

*A national education policy establishes the main goals and priorities pursued by the government in matters of education – at the sector and sub-sector levels – with regard to specific aspects such as access, quality and teachers, or to a given issue or need. A strategy specifies how the policy goals are to be achieved. A plan defines the targets, activities to be implemented and the timeline, responsibilities and resources needed to realize the policy and strategy. (UNESCO, 2013, p.6)*

Education policy is often described as sector-wide or specific to a particular subsector i.e. early childhood care and education policy. Understanding the distinction

among policy, strategy, and plan is important the fact that all are documents produced in the process of education policy development. Education policy sets out major goals and priorities along with the national constitution and vision. Education policy briefly states specific educational aspects like education structure, curriculum, teacher education, education management, etc. Education strategy stipulates ways to attain the education policy goals whereas the education plan describes targets, activities, timeline, responsibilities, and resources in a particular national education sector development program (UNESCO, 2013).

#### **4.7. Teacher Education Policies**

As stated by Akiba (2017), teacher education policy reform toward teacher quality has globally emerged in the 1990s and intensified in the mid-2000s. Research recurrently identified teacher quality as an influential factor for the student outcome and there is a strong conviction that 80% of learning is influenced by the quality of teaching (Musset, 2009; Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2015). Policymakers have paid considerable attention to teacher quality and many governments have taken this as bedrock for comprehensive national development (Furlong, et.al, 2009). Consequently, global states have started articulating their national initial teacher education policies that could significantly improve the quality of teachers (Alcorn, 2013). Initial teacher education policies are important because research has demonstrated that the best effective way to increase the quality of education is improving teacher education policies (Musset, 2009; Akiba, 2017; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017).

Initial teacher training in ECCE can simply be defined as any type of teacher education or training provided to a person before he/she works as a preschool teacher (Gong & Wang, 2017). It is the first and the most vital stage in the journey of teacher education (Caena, 2014) that provides pre-service training for new entrants (Awopegba et al. 2013). This step is governed by sets of selection, preparation and certification policies (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017).

Initial teacher education policies mostly are not standalone rules and frameworks but are seen as a part and parcel of teacher education policies that also comprise the in-service training. Teacher education policy, in turn, can be seen as a subset of the broader national teacher policy in some countries (UNESCO, 2019). On the other hand, initial teacher education policy can be illustrated in an overall national education and training policies, strategies or sector development programs (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012; UNESCO, 2019; MoE, 2015).

The making and practice of comprehensive initial teacher education policies in the global context tend to be more familiarized in developed nations than their counter nations (Manning et al., 2017). In particular, OECD countries and other Western nations have shown an evolving interest in revising their teacher policies mainly their initial training (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Global competitiveness on international tests continued to be one of the major mainsprings of the need for high-quality teachers. This in turn led the nations headed for effective teacher education policy (L. S. Hilton, 2016). Initial teacher education quality assurance has the greatest portion of the policy initiative (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Nonetheless, this enterprise does not clearly show the extent of its comprehensiveness to include ECCE teacher quality.

Many African nations lack a strong policy to ensure teacher quality. The teacher policies often do not go beyond understanding the impact of teacher quality and fail to achieve the outcomes (J. Neuman et al., 2015). African education policy as a whole including initial teacher education policies are criticized for relevance. They are believed to be highly influenced by international organizations and Westernized ideologies (Takyi-Amoako & Assié-Lumumba, 2018). They mostly fail to fit the real national context and need. Adequate investment is another major problem to improve the quality of teachers in Africa and this situation worsens in ECCE teacher education (Denboba et al., 2014; Sayre et al., 2015).

Caena (2014) suggests that implementing initial teacher education is not an easy task and policymakers are facing varied complexities. One of the emergent problems is the national teacher policy formulated by limited stakeholders or experts. Alison & Aikin, (2013) asserted that initial teacher education policy formation has to be a collaborative effort encompassing teachers, teacher educators, professionals, teacher unions, and sector organizations like the ministry of education. Similarly, the European Union (2015) suggests that initial teacher preparation needs a robust but flexible policy and it should be developed based on the collective work of stakeholders. Among these stakeholders, teachers are major policy drivers and they are policymakers and implementers, as well. However, their participation in policymaking process differs across nations. It is often decided in accordance with the political system and the political power of teacher associations and unions (Akiba, 2017).



#### 4.8. Initial Teacher Quality Assurance Arrangements

Global nations have been paid due to concern for quality assurance arrangement policies of initial teacher education within the last two decades (Furlong, et al., 2009) as quality assurance policies are crucial for the program quality of initial teacher education (Caena, 2014; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). A comprehensive teacher policy that gives a pivotal place for initial teacher education is required to ensure quality (Caena, 2014). Initial teacher quality assurance arrangement policies currently are at the center of global concerns for the last two decades (Akiba, 2017). As cited in Ingvarson et al. (2013, p.152), *Teachers Matter* (OECD, 2005) is one of the most thorough examinations of policies related to teacher quality, particularly policies related to quality assurance.

Teachers have been acknowledged as the most influential variable for student achievement (Musset, 2009). As said by Cochran-Smith (2012, p.10), *'increasingly, improving teacher quality is assumed to be a central strategy for improving a nation's ability to compete in the global knowledge economy, ensure the quality of its workforce, and meet rising social expectations related to diversity and equality'*. This notion was corroborated by Akiba (2017) as he argued that working on teacher quality is the single most prominent policy lever to educate future citizens for the knowledge economy. There appeared, however, heated debate whether quality initial teacher preparation arrangement policies ensure quality education or not. Cochran-Smith, (2012) argues that almost worldwide, the issue of quality teacher education appears to be politicized and accordingly, teacher preparation has become a political initiative influenced by globalization based on neo-liberalism. According to this study, initial teacher education

seems not a forthright matter of policy formation and implementation but political enterprise.

As shown earlier, the above argument could not surpass the worldwide need for teacher quality and its benefit. Musset (2009), for instance, debated that any national education reform that fails to take into account quality teacher education is condemned as inefficient. Initial teacher quality assurance arrangement policies nowadays are major concerns of global nations in their education reforms. Recruitment and selection, preparation and certification have been reform focus toward quality initial teacher education. However, the practice of teacher reform differs based on the national reform focus. Some may focus on recruitment and selection and others may focus on teacher preparation or certification (Akiba, 2017; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Manning et al., 2017).

Many researchers, despite slight differences, conceptualize quality assurance arrangement policies in initial teacher education as the sequential major activities from entry to exit of trainees (Cochran-Smith, 2012; Caena, 2014; Akiba, 2017; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Akiba & LeTendre, 2017). Cited in Ingvarson & Rowley (2017, p.2), Wang et al. (2003) conceptualized quality assurance arrangement policies in initial teacher preparation *as a sequence of “filters” along a pipeline from entry to certification*. This study identified eight consecutive filters of teacher education quality assurance arrangements including selection, curriculum, and entry-level certification policies. Caena et.al (2014), on the other hand, emphasized selection, preparation, and guidance arrangements throughout initial teacher education. Cochran-Smith, (2012) articulates

recruitment, preparation, and retention as top and universal quality assurance policy issues among global nations.

As evidenced by Ingvarson & Rowley (2017), nations with strong quality assurance policies for new teachers have high professional quality and high performing students. Nevertheless, this evidence may not cover the wider context as there are lesser comparative studies on teacher education policy issues compared to the rich trans-national data on the teaching environment (Akiba, 2017). Based on the literature discussed in this subsection, quality assurance policies for initial teacher education cover three major stages. These stages and sets of quality assurance policies are not only applicable to initial teacher training but also any professional training. Nevertheless, these policy levers seem feebler in teaching than in other professions (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017).

#### **4.8.1. Teacher Recruitment and Selection Policies**

The first stage in quality assurance arrangements includes recruitment and selection policies. Such policies have special importance to assure the quality of entrants to teacher education. Policies under this stage comprise attractive career choices for high achievers, balanced teacher supply-demand schemes, high admission criteria, and high selection standards based on academic achievement (Caena, 2014; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017).

Research has shown that the recruitment policies of some nations helped to balance the demand-supply chain of high-quality graduate teachers. Nation-states like Canada, Chinese Taipei, Finland, and Singapore are distinguished countries with

successful recruitment policies. These nations comparatively have attractive salaries, working environments, and career arrangements for their talented secondary school entrants to initial teacher training (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). In contrast, teachers in countries that have incompetent salaries compared to other professions are not choosing teaching as a career (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012; MoE, 2015).

The selection policy of any initial teacher training program influences the quality and the decision to be a teacher. In countries where teachers enjoy the professional status and societal respect, a large number of students aspire to become teachers, and the government can continue to hire the best and brightest to fill the teaching positions (Akiba, 2017 p.7). World Bank (2010), in contrast, argues that those admission policies shall not focus only on attracting talented individuals but also a diverse pool of applicants to prevent the shortage of teachers. Nonetheless, as stated in UNESCO's (2019) teacher policy framework, one key means of ensuring teacher quality is setting attractive teacher recruitment strategies and high minimum entry requirements so that guarantee sufficient, able and motivated candidates for initial training. This finding appears to be consistent with global literature. The recruitment and selection policy of initial teacher education has become a universal concern to attract motivated and able candidates to initial teacher training (Akiba, 2017; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Manning, 2017).

#### **4.8.2. Teacher Preparation Policies**

This is the second stage of quality assurance arrangements that ensure the preparation of teachers. It mostly encompasses accreditation policies to ensure the quality of teacher education providers in which training curriculum and certification of teacher

educators are emphasized (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). European Union, (2015) suggests that initial teacher education has two major goals: improving the quality of teacher preparation and attracting more high quality entrants to the profession. Initial teacher education prepares teachers with an intensive experience that enables them to be both learners and teachers simultaneously (Caena, 2014). Initial teacher education that offers successful completion of rigorous training, including the practicum, leads to a better qualification (UNESCO, 2019). A review made by Manning et al. (2017) based on published research studies since the 1980s significantly shows that initial training with in-depth preparation and higher teacher qualifications are significantly associated with a higher quality of ECCE.

As mentioned earlier, teacher preparation policies mostly encompass accreditation policies to ensure the quality of teacher education providers, training curriculum, and certification policies for teacher educators (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). However, this stage needs to have interested candidates from the first stage of quality assurance arrangements. This is because any initial teacher education has two major goals: attracting more high quality entrants to the profession and improving the quality of teacher preparation (European Union, 2015). It seems that nations are striving to meet these goals; consequently, teacher preparation policies for initial teacher training are often influenced by development initiatives and the international competing pressures (Caena, 2014).

The curriculum is a key policy lever that profoundly influences initial teacher preparation (Schleicher, 2019). Curriculum as part of structural quality impacts process quality thereby child outcome as evidenced by Ishimine (2010). As suggested by Caena

(2014), alignment between school and teacher education curricula is prominent but not enough; it requires a continuum approach to address to fit with different needs and purposes of learning. For instance, a training curriculum in ECCE often relies on psychological and educational theories that inform pedagogical practice, i.e. how to teach, rather than what to teach (Schleicher, 2019).

UNESCO (2019) suggests that the curricula of teacher training programs should be context-specific, aligned with national education policies, combine theory and practice, and lead trainees to become ‘reflective practitioners’. Teacher preparation policies determine the pedagogical approaches. Relevant policies often prefer the constructivist curricular approach as it advocates the prominence of attending to children’s overall development (Schleicher, 2019)

Quality assurance policies and accreditation agencies are crucial entities to certify teacher training providers (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Measures of qualities for accreditation of teacher training institutions mainly include training curriculum, manpower and, other resources and facilities for a particular training program (Sanyal, 2013). The global practice shows that nations have a varied focus on this stage of quality assurance arrangement. Nations such as Australia, England, and the United States have rigorous accreditation arrangement policies on training providers (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Accreditation agencies make quality assurance based on prescribed standards (Caena, 2014). The agencies are mostly independent entities despite low experience in Sub-Saharan African countries (Sanyal, 2013).

A study made by Tunca et al. (2015) demonstrates the absence of extensive evidence on associations between teacher educators' qualities and teacher education and draws multiple qualities of teacher educators from the viewpoint of their teacher trainees. Teacher educators are responsible to prepare and they are capable to make initial teacher trainees adapt, augment and extend a written ECCE curriculum (Bauml, 2016). Teacher educators have to be aware of national education and training policies so that they consider key ideas in the planning of their courses or professional development (Whyte et al., 2018). Caena (2014) suggested that teacher educators have to join the initial teacher training through strong entry requirements that dictate their professional knowledge, skill, and attitude, and have to be supported with professional development.

#### **4.8.3. Teacher Certification Policies**

The third stage, teacher certification, in initial teacher education is one of the major elements of quality assurance arrangements (Syahril, 2015). This stage consists of *'policies and agencies governing full entry to the profession, variously referred to as "certification," "licensing," or "registration" in different countries'* (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017, p.1).

In a nutshell, teacher certification refers to a process in which teachers are assessed to determine whether or not they are ready and capable to teach (Syahril, 2015). Heine (2006) explains that certification can be used as an indicator of teacher quality because it is designed to ensure the public that all students are taught by competent people. In other words, teacher certification serves as one of the quality assurance mechanisms for an educational/school system that quality learning takes place in every

classroom. Similarly, as cited in Syahril (2015, p.9), Darling-Hammond, Wise, and Klein (1999) claim that teacher certification is often used as a tool for teacher licensing.

Empirical studies (Adams & Tulasiewicz, 1995; Akiba & Shimizu, 2012; Blomeke, 2006; Chudgar, 2013; Cochran-Smith, Piazza, & Power, 2013; Kobakhidze, 2013; Sacilotto-Vasylenko, 2013; Shinn, 2012) cited in Akiba (2017, p.2), have documented that many countries around the globe have increasingly implemented teacher education and certification policy reforms in an assumption that holding teachers and teacher education institutions accountable will improve teacher quality. Teacher certification has become a major global policy trend in education reforms. This trend has led policymakers to view teacher certification as one of the prime policy levers to ensure the quality of initial teacher education (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Teacher certification as a scheme for quality assurance also serves for teacher educators (Syahril, 2015).

There found the global practice of alternative certification in initial teacher preparation to mitigate the problem of teacher shortage. The concept of alternative teacher preparation and certification has been rapidly grown since the 1980s (Tran, 2016). This approach is supported by governments and policymakers as it provides loosen regulation in the selection, preparation and certification of initial teacher education (World Bank, 2010). Among others, one major benefit of this approach is creating an opportunity to promote alternative initial teacher education programs for varied types and needs of children (Tran, 2016).



#### **4.9. High-quality ECEC Provision and Teacher Policy**

The relationship between high-quality ECCE and teacher policy is evident in research. Global states have already recognized high-quality ECCE at the center of education policy reform (Manning et al., 2017). Countries regardless of socio-economic status have been actively designing policies and programs for the betterment of quality in ECEC (Musset, 2009). Much of these policy reforms focus on the operation of structural features of ECCE mainly on the quality of teacher education (Manning et al., 2017). In line with this, it appears that initial teacher education is one of these structural components of ECCE quality manifested with the distal and regulable policies (Schleicher, 2019). Initial training in ECCE is one of the structural indicators and the most consistent predictor of child outcome at which the greatest attention is paid (Huston, 2008; Manning et al, 2017). The vast majority of studies on ECCE quality merely focus on this structural indicator and this is criticized as other components have been overlooked (Schleicher, 2019). The critic, however, does not look to change the impact of teachers for a high quality of ECCE provision.

A study made by Ishimine et al. (2010) illustrates how high-quality ECCE can be determined by higher quality inputs and outcomes for children. The study also asserted that education policies have to emphasize this and have to be quality directed. An interesting discovery of this study is the need for a quality policy for quality ECCE. A high-quality ECCE based on relevant teacher policy is emphasized in international literature as discussed earlier. Nevertheless, the association between a high quality of ECCE and teacher policies seems not equally recognized among global nations. Nations

mostly developed ones, have been allocating adequate investment and have been formulating and implementing effective policies to ensure quality in ECCE (Manning et al., 2017). In other words, developing nations lack proper consideration of policies for quality ECCE.

National education policies shall consider both the *care* and *education* aspects of ECCE. Education policies that lack this quality are said to be irrelevant. The quality of ECCE remains unattainable without a well-integrated policy that accommodates both the *care* and *education* (Huston, 2008). However, as stated by Barnett & Masse (2006), some countries including the USA give little or no attention to the *care* aspect of early childhood in their policies and regulations. It is possible to infer from this empirical evidence the prominence of twofold quality aspects (*care* and *education*) in teacher education policies.

#### **4.10. The Impact of Globalization on Education Policies**

##### **4.10.1. Brief description of Globalization**

The term ‘globalization’, as evidenced by Bulow & Giu (2019, p.176), was first used by Theodore Levitt in 1985, which referred to politics-economy, especially free-market politics and financial transactions. Globalization by its nature is eclectic and ambiguous to define (Al’Abri, 2011) although many scholars and researchers have given enormous definitions (Karner, 2018). Held et al. (1999:2) cited in Zajda (2005) suggested that globalization can be thought of as ‘*the widening, deepening and speeding up of worldwide interconnectedness in all aspects of contemporary social life*’. Similarly, Al’

Abri (2011) viewed globalization as a fast and open movement of people, goods, services, information and knowledge across global nations.

Globalization has been defined within varied perspectives that one brings to it (Paine et al., 2016). Putting a clear definition of globalization from an education policy point of view might be difficult but it can be simply seen from the lending and borrowing process (Zajda, 2005; Bray et al., 2014). Terms such as ‘policy diffusion’, ‘policy borrowing’, ‘policy transfer’, and ‘policy traveling ’or ‘policy convergence’ are expressions that scholars often refer to the globalization of education policy (Verger & Altinyelken, 2018).

#### **4.10.2. Global trends in Education Policies**

Quality in education policies was the result of one of the major paradigms shifts between the 1970s and 2000 as an egalitarian-inspired imperative that calls for equitable quality education (Zajda, 2005). Zajda (2010) argues that globalization is less often discussed in the context of education but in terms of economy, politics, and culture. In contrast, Al’ Abri (2011) declared that much has been written on the association between globalization and education. In both cases, what more viable is how education policies have been affected by globalization not the extent of the discussion or the volume of literature. Yet, it has to be noted that education is consistently tied with the economic, political, and cultural settings of nations; and hence any global change in such contexts affects education policies (Zajda, 2010).

Globalization has been mentioned both in its positive and negative effects in different contexts (Bulow and Giu, 2019). Scholars and theorists, however, do not doubt

the significant economic, political and socio-cultural impact of globalization on a particular society (Ali, 2005). For that reason, globalization substantially affects the education policies of nation-states (Al' Abri, 2011). Researchers have been invested their energy in examining the effect of globalization on the likeness and the variance of education policies and the interaction of the global and the local (Paine et al., 2016).

Despite researchers' efforts, the impact of globalization in national education systems often is not easy to observe, distinguish and track empirically. The work of Verger & Altinyelken (2018) justified that this is because of the multiple impacts of globalization and its very different dimensions on education policy. The authors showed that:

*It is also true that in an increasingly globalized policy field, it is not easy to distinguish whether educational reforms are exogenously or endogenously originated, or whether reforms are the result of international policy 'transfer' dynamics or the outcome of internal pressures and innovations. (Verger & Altinyelken, 2018, P. 26)*

The formation and practice of education policy is the entire responsibility of nations (Al' Abri, 2011). Education, on the other hand, is globally considered as an international good and instrument for achieving a competitive global economy through a high level of human capital. As a result, there continued competition among nations to meet global standards (Okoli, 2012). The assumption here is that education policy, in reality, cannot be merely national responsibility. Hence, national education policies have been internationalized because of global economic dominance over national politics. In

other words, education policies have been formulated and practiced within the global context in a variant manner (Al' Abri, 2011).

In this era of the knowledge-based global economy, the dynamic culture of education policy enables nations to contribute toward the shaping and changing of existing policies instead of blindly following what is perceived to be legitimate (Akiba, 2017). Wahlstrom et al. (2018) illustrate that the interaction between global and national education policies seems to be complicated and different perspectives have emerged. He identified two major perspectives: research that takes globalization for pointing out convergence in education policies and research that considers globalization as a forming force but examines educational policies based on local contexts. Suarez-Orozco & Qin-Hilliard (2004) suggest that scholars and policymakers need to identify both the challenges and opportunities of globalization in the making of education policies.

#### **4.10.3. The Contribution of Comparative Education**

Comparative education research, among other academic fields of study, is more related to globalization than other fields; it is principally concerned with cross-national analysis (Zajda, 2005). Comparative education research from the globalization perspective requires at least two units as a prerequisite such as comparing two countries or comparison between national context and international policy organization (Wahlstrom et al., 2018). The broad implication of cross-national studies is vital in comparative education policy analysis research (Kim, 2015). Cross-national policy analysis crafted in the context of globalization, however, seems comparatively uncommon (Paine et al., 2017).

Comparative education researchers often discuss policy borrowing in two directions: normative and analytical directions. Researchers of the normative approach often actively promote policy borrowing while the other groups are concerned for the when, why and how of the policy borrowing. The normative comparative approach of policy borrowing helps to identify lessons or 'best practices to be transferred. In contrast, the analytical approach analyses why and when policy borrowing is made and examines its impact on existing policies. Nonetheless, these two approaches are not mutually exclusive (Steiner-Khamsi, 2016).

Cross-national policy borrowing in comparative education studies does not mean transplantation of policies from one country to another. Rather, it involves the process of observation, analysis and interpretation (Steiner-Khamsi, 2016). Policy borrowing in the eyes of comparative education researchers seems extraordinarily complex in the process of its three stages: (I) identification of best practices (II) contextualization and (III) assimilation. Policy borrowing has to be fundamentally deliberate and purposive (Zajda, 2005). It is a deep-rooted research area in comparative education studies (Steiner-Khamsi, 2016).

According to Wahlstrom et al. (2018), there are three broad theoretical traditions in comparative education studies. The first is the borrowing and lending approach. This strand directs its main interest in cross-national attraction and how policies are borrowed and re-contextualized to fit the national interest. The second is the world culture approach that starts from a macro-level and focuses on convergences and adoptions of national policies to adjust to global culture. The third is the functional-cum-configurational model

that acknowledges problems as ‘problems’ because of their positions in certain interrelated systems and not because of the phenomenon itself.

Reception and translation are crucial stages in comparative education research that focus on policy borrowing analysis (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014). Policy borrowing and lending literature (Phillips & Ochs, 2004; Steiner-Khamsi, 2004a, 2010; Steiner-Khamsi & Waldow, 2012) cited in Akiba (2017) informs that global states have their purpose for the adoption of “best practices”. This cross-national experience or lesson learning is one of the major prominent characteristics of comparative education research (Steiner-Khamsi, 2016). Comparative research has demonstrated that borrowed policy ideas possibly can be modified, indigenized or resisted while they started to be implemented (Verger & Altinyelken, 2018). Comparative education research has also shown growing attention in local multidimensional responses to worldwide policy pressure (Wahlstrom et al., 2018).

#### **4.10.4. Globalization and Education Quality**

The association between quality education and a lower rate of problems or challenges is evident in research. Nations with better investment in quality education are likely to have lesser challenges (Al’ Abri, 2011). Quality education has been viewed as a tool for comprehensive national development and effective education policies have to be formulated in an indigenous process and anchored in a particular societal need (UNESCO, 2013). Nevertheless, globalization of education policies coerces the process of the purpose of indigenous policy formation. Education policies in developing countries as a result remain to serve international change than national development (Zajda, 2010).

Further, the great role of education has been hampered by globalization centrally attributed to economic development and the role of education for social development remains disregarded (Al' Abri, 2011).

There appear two contradicting views on the influence of globalization on education quality. On one hand, globalization is regarded as a driving force toward universal quality education. Previous education goals particularly EFA Goals and the current Education Agenda 2030 have been widely taken as worldwide quality levers (UNESCO, 2016; Roopnarine et al., 2018). The global competitiveness and standard-based quality education policy reform looks to be another major global factor that could enhance the education quality of a nation (Kim, 2015).

On the other hand, globalization is believed to hurt the quality of education. It looks to pay little attention to quality but focuses on the intensification of education. The main intent of EFA Goals was to secure worldwide access and quality at all levels of education (Karner, 2018). However, the outcome specially in developing nations was solely attributed to the expansion of educational opportunities. For instance, EFA Goal two that aimed at quality inclusive education for all childhoods improved Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE access from 2000-2015 instead of quality enhancement (UNESCO, 2016).

Another common adverse effect of globalization is the commercialization of education. Many private educational institutions in developing nations are business-oriented and influenced by foreign education systems i.e. imported curriculum (Bulow & Giu, 2019). This is prevalent starting from preschool education to higher education. African preschool, including Ethiopia and Kenya, appears to be the most victims of the



global education trade (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012). The cyber-world has also contributed to a cultural invasion on the teaching and learning process that in turn affects education quality (Bulow & Giu, 2019).

#### **4.10.5. Globalization and Teacher Education**

Teacher quality in educational reforms has become a worldwide pressing issue since the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century and this, in turn, signified the global convergence of education policies (Syahril, 2015). Teaching and teacher education in global contexts are not viewed solely in national or local circumstances. The discussion on teacher quality among scholars and policymakers turns out to be an increasingly global phenomenon (Paine et al., 2016). This is one major manifestation of how globalization influences teacher education worldwide (Akiba, 2017).

Quality teacher education has become the center of political debate in the last two decades (Lewis & Young, 2013). The last two decades also revealed global reform on the quality of initial teacher education through selection, preparation and certification of teachers. This unprecedented universal convergence can be another typical indication of globalization on quality teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2012).

Globalization in teacher education is currently revealed due to varied global forces. It has been noted that international connectedness increased opportunities to exchange and standardize teacher education policies. The universal movement of ideas on teaching and teacher education has a great impact on the global teacher quality reform. International networks and actors such as the *International Summit of Teaching Profession* are playing a vital role to globalize teacher quality (Paine et al., 2017).

The raising of comparative education research is believed to be one of the prime enablers for the process of globalized teacher education policies (Paine et al., 2017). Comparative education research has contributed to the increasing empirical studies on the quality of teacher education policies (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). This methodological advancement helped to better understand the features and effectiveness of teacher education through transnational comparisons (Akiba, 2017). Teacher education has gained a global focus in the last decade being a policy issue and a subject of comparative research (Paine et al., 2017). However, as argued by Akiba (2017), the global teacher education reform appears to be centrally driven from the problem-solution discourse of teacher quality rather than evidence on teacher and teaching characteristics and effectiveness.

Multilateral organizations such as UNESCO, World Bank, OECD, etc. have contributed a lot toward the reporting of teacher education global status, teacher policy development and standardization (Paine et al., 2017). By the same token, Akiba (2017, p.5) demonstrated that *'intergovernmental organizations such as OECD, UNESCO, and World Bank have produced influential reports on the conditions of teachers and needs for reforming the teaching workforce that are often cited by national governments'*.

Teacher education cannot escape from the competitive nature of globalization and global nations need to be those whose teacher education is admired and benchmarked. Teacher education reforms are now under the increasing influence to produce 'the best quality of teachers because of the global competitiveness (L. S. Hilton, 2016). The expansion of international assessment and ranking are increasingly prompting teacher education reforms (Akiba, 2017). Quality assurance in teacher education is influenced by

the pressure of universal competition, teacher education institutional autonomy, and state control (Caena, 2014).

Learner center pedagogy is one of the most pressing global issues in initial teacher preparation policy reform (Paine et al., 2017). This is another clear impact of globalization on teacher education (Verger & Altinyelken, 2018). Child center pedagogies, nowadays, are considered as one of the education policy reforms being discussed and implemented worldwide and acquired the status of global education policies (Paine et al., 2017; Verger & Altinyelken, 2018). Nevertheless, Paine et al. (2017) suggest that research must be alert to contradicting views on the globalization process of teacher education. For instance, while learner center pedagogy is at the center of worldwide focus, there emerged a growing interest in local and indigenous pedagogies.

Despite varied patterns in global nations, the impact of immigration both from the student and the teacher viewpoint has gained attention as a worldwide driving force for policy and practice of teacher education. It seems that immigration has pushed host nations to think about their teacher education policy reforms. Studies have shown that immigration is a current pressing issue in both developed and developing nations that necessitates policy reforms in varied sectors (Paine et al., 2017).

The above driving forces have brought a sort of similar pattern in global teacher reform regardless of regional differences. Despite all the convergences, there appeared contradictory voices in particular on ideas of what encompasses the goals of and best practices of teacher education for a particular nation (Paine et al., 2017). In his work *'Understanding Cross-National Differences in Globalized Teacher Reforms'*, Akiba

(2017) has shown how institutional theory can assist the understanding of cross-national divergence in an emerging globalized reform on teacher education. This universal divergence is much important for policy formation and practice of teacher education.

Globalization has both positive and negative impacts on teacher education (Canli & Demirtas, 2017). Many governments have voluntarily and involuntarily imported teacher reform ideas without fully understanding the national context surrounding the teaching profession (Akiba, 2017, p.9). Nation-states have no similar challenges and finding a single policy applies to all countries is difficult (Musset, 2009). Bringing relevance to policymakers' attention, policy borrowing is crucial to improve the quality of teachers (Alcorn, 2013). However, teacher education policymakers should have a repertoire of better national practices in accordance with identified priorities (Musset, 2009). They have to investigate the political and economic dimensions of policy borrowing (Syahril, 2015). Understanding the global context and its impact on national teacher education policy and practice is prominent in the growing comparative education studies that emphasize teacher quality (Akiba, 2017).

While globalization permits for easier exchange of ideas, materials, etc..., there seems yet no well-established scheme for genuine dialogue (Paine et al., 2017). Teacher educators and researchers of teacher education have to be part of the global conversation (Paine et al., 2017, p. 12) and improving global awareness of initial teacher trainees is also important (Canli & Demirtas, 2018).

#### **4.10.6. The Impact of Globalization in African Education**

The impact of globalization on education policies of developing countries including Africa in the existing literature seems more of one-directional showing the disadvantage whilst some mediate both the negative and the positive influences. It also appears that some are advocating the benefits of globalization on education policy formation and practice of underdeveloped nations (Zajda 2005; Ali, 2005; Zajda, J. & Rust V. 2009; Zajda, 2010; Okoli, 2012).

According to Ali (2005), the positive and negative outcomes of globalization, particularly in developing nations, is widely contested in literature. Much of the literature, however, underlines the benefits and disadvantages of worldwide education policies on developing nations (Okoli, 2012; Geo-JaJa & Majhanovich, 2016). Okoli (2012, p.7) recommends the rethinking of globalization since he thinks '*globalization as a phenomenon promotes education and economic growth but its pulls and pressures have created injustice, inequality and inequities that reduce human dignity to the barest minimum*'. Contrary to this, Karner (2018) argues for the special prominence of globalization for developing nations.

Based on existing literature, it appears better to see the impact of globalization on African education policies in the neoliberal economic principles and its consequences. The neoliberal economic concept is cemented in human capital theory that forges education and training to change the lifetime earnings of individuals (Zajda, 2009). Education is viewed not for knowledge in the process of economic globalization rather it is seen as a crucial element for the market economy through a competitive workforce. Accordingly, education policies of developing nations will be pressurized to focus on the preparation of human capital thereby neglect the rest power of education and this is well

manifested in Africa (Ali, 2005). Africa, mainly Sub-Saharan nations are losing their traditional education and indigenous knowledge because of globalization and its major actors, multilateral organizations. The education policies of Sub-Saharan African nations significantly missed the aim of education (Karner, 2018; Taki-Amoko & Assie-Lumumba, 2018).

This view limits the function of education to economic development and significantly overlooks the social function of education. Accordingly, African nations might be challenged to legitimize their education policies (Zajda, 2009). Ali (2005) illustrates how the economic policies of developing nations including Ethiopia are going to be shaped as per the conditionality of IMF and the World Bank. He also asserted that any globalization process can at least affect public services such as the cut down of education services because of debt conditionality. As to him, education policies in Africa appear to be responsive more to the process of globalization than national needs. The impact of these multilateral organizations toward the globalization of the education policies of low-income and developing nations is great. The 1980-1990 Washington Consensus and the 1990-2005 Post-Washington Consensus were two sets of policy prescriptions that show the influence of these supranational organizations (Al' Abri, 2011).

African nations within the process of globalization often stand in a deprived position as they are less equipped and informed. In contrast, developed nations often advocate globalization so that they impose their desired objectives on underdeveloped ones and this process is mainly led by supranational organizations i.e. World Bank, IMF, WTO and OECD (Ali, 2005; Zajda, 2010; Karner, 2018). There appears a worldwide

trend to globalize these supranational organizations to make developing nations formulate their education policies in favor of global citizenship. Consequently, the national education policies will be distracted from their most immediate needs and the curriculum development process loses national sovereignty (Ali, 2005).

For some reason, globalization can be viewed as an extended universalization process of colonialism. As discussed earlier, education policy development understandably is a national responsibility that bases on nationwide needs and priorities. However, this task has been no more the concern of African nations because it has been increasingly determined or at least highly influenced by donor agencies like the World Bank. Such impacts of globalization in African modern education seem not a new phenomenon (Zajda, 2009; Zajda, 2010). Bringing the European experience to respond to the influence of globalization into consideration, Ali (2005) suggests that developing nations could overcome the impact of globalization and have an opportunity to form their education policies without any external influence.

A study made by Karner (2018) asserts that globalization does not bring economic benefit for global nations as expected from its definition and this is seen in African Sub-Saharan countries. The study also illustrates the region is deprived of social benefits and the performance of EFA can be a witness. Nevertheless, the positive effects of globalization specifically in knowledge and information flow are underlined in the study despite comparatively high negative effects. The study further argued that Sub-Saharan African nations could benefit much from globalization if the process goes as naturally as defined. For instance, the shortage of qualified teachers is a major obstacle for Sub-Saharan Africa to ensure quality education. The region needs a profound effort to

improve the quality of education in the post-2015 global education agenda (Karner, 2018). The 2030 Education Agenda, among its other benefits, is believed to have a positive effect on Sub-Saharan African teacher education (Roopnarine et al., 2018).



## **CHAPTER FIVE: METHODS OF THE STUDY**

This chapter begins with the research paradigm. The second section presents the research design and the methodological approach. The third section discusses the analytical framework of the study while the fourth section portrays operationalization. Sampling procedures and techniques are presented in section five. Section six is about data collecting instruments. Section seven and section eight present data collection methods, and data presentation and analysis methods, respectively. These sections discuss all three phases of data collection and analysis procedures. Research validity and reliability are discussed in section nine and the issue of ethical considerations is presented in the last section.

### **5.1. The Research Paradigm**

Despite their hidden existence in research, philosophical world views or paradigms need to be identified as they have been influencing the practice (Creswell, 2014). Identifying a research paradigm helps to determine the research methods or approaches. This study was guided by a pragmatic world view. Pragmatism from the research point of view provides an opportunity to employ multiple approaches, divergent worldviews, different assumptions as well as different methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2009).

### **5.2. The Research Design**

This study used a comparative case study design that is widely used in cross-national studies (Bryman, 2012; Bray et al., 2014) while sequential exploratory mixed

strategy (QUAL + quant) was a methodological framework of the study (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2012). In other words, this study employed a comparative case study design combined with one of the mixed method strategies or techniques. For this study is cross-national comparative research, comparative case study design serves as a prime analytical framework whereas sequential exploratory mixed strategy assists data collection, presentation and analysis procedures. A popular application of a sequential exploratory mixed strategy is to explore a phenomenon (Creswell, 2012). Accordingly, the rationale using a sequential exploratory mixed strategy was to explore a phenomenon of the structural quality of teacher education in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE.

Once this study is framed with pragmatic worldviews, mixed-method was the methodological approach of the study. This is because pragmatic perspectives influence the notion of a mixed approach and vice versa (Creswell, 2012). Pragmatism is not committed to a single philosophy and reality; rather it is attributable to pluralistic views. This is also true for mixed research methods since they do not stick with either of the two (quantitative or qualitative) approaches (Creswell, 2014). Pragmatists do not look the world as an absolute unity; and by the same token, mixed methods researchers come across multiple ways of collecting and analyzing data instead of denoting quantitative or qualitative approaches. Also, pragmatist researchers are concerned about the "what" and "how" of research based on its planned outcomes where they want to go with it. In a similar vein, mixed methods researchers need to establish a purpose for their "mixing" (Creswell, 2009). For the most part, both pragmatic researchers and mixed methods researchers emphasize the use of all approaches available to understand the research problem (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014).

Pragmatism does not stick to a particular ontological and epistemological assumption. As mentioned already, this is because it does not involve any one system of philosophy and reality. It opens the door to multiple worldviews (Creswell, 2009). As a worldview, it arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions. Pragmatic researchers focus on the research problem and employ all possible approaches to understand the problem (Creswell, 2014). In a similar vein, comparative education researchers who framed their studies in neo-institutional theory emphasize the nature of research questions than paying attention to a particular research method (Wiseman et al., 2013b). Henceforth, my position in this cross-national comparative study remains liberal using the pluralistic approach to draw knowledge about the problem.

Researchers must have a purpose for selecting mixed methods. On the one hand, they conduct a mixed-method study when they have both quantitative and qualitative data to have a better understanding of their research problem. On the other hand, they conduct mixed methods when one type of research (qualitative or quantitative) is not enough to address the research problem or answer the research questions. Furthermore, they use mixed methods when they want to provide an alternative perspective in a study (Creswell, 2012; Bryman, 2012). The purpose of selecting a mixed approach for this study lied on the above second reason. Hence, the intention behind the selection of mixed strategy was to enhance triangulation and complement (Creswell, 2009).

### **5.3. Analytical Framework of the Study**

This study was governed by Bray's and Thomas's framework of comparative education analysis. The framework or the model comprises three dimensions of

comparison: (1) geographic or locational level (2) non-locational demographic groups and (3) educational aspects to be studied. The first dimension encompasses seven geographic or locational levels: continents, countries, states or provinces, districts, schools, classrooms, and individuals. This dimension dictates that comparative research ranges from a comparison of two continents at the top level to a comparison of two individuals at the bottom level. The second dimension entails different non-locational demographic groups. In basic terms, for instance, two population groups can be the units of comparison. The third dimension contains educational aspects to be studied i.e. curriculum, teacher education, educational finance, etc. (Bray et al., 2014, p.9).

As a result, Ethiopia and Kenya were taken as geographic/locational units of comparison in this cross-national comparative study. Selected Ethiopian and Kenyan research participants were non-locational demographic groups while the quality of initial teacher education in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE remains the educational aspect under comparison.

Bray et al. (2014) illustrate that education systems and sub-systems are mostly common interests of cross-national comparative researches. In this study, initial teacher education in ECCE is a sub-system under study that is part of the national teacher education system in the respective countries. A particular teacher education system is governed by a teacher policy and hence teacher education policies specifically to that of initial teacher selection, recruitment, preparation, and certification were major interests of this study. Further, as stated in the conceptual framework of this study, quality assurance arrangement policies of initial teacher education are concepts to be analytically analyzed.

The following analytical framework of comparative analysis was adapted from Bereday's Comparative Study Model as cited in Bray et al. (2014, p.99).

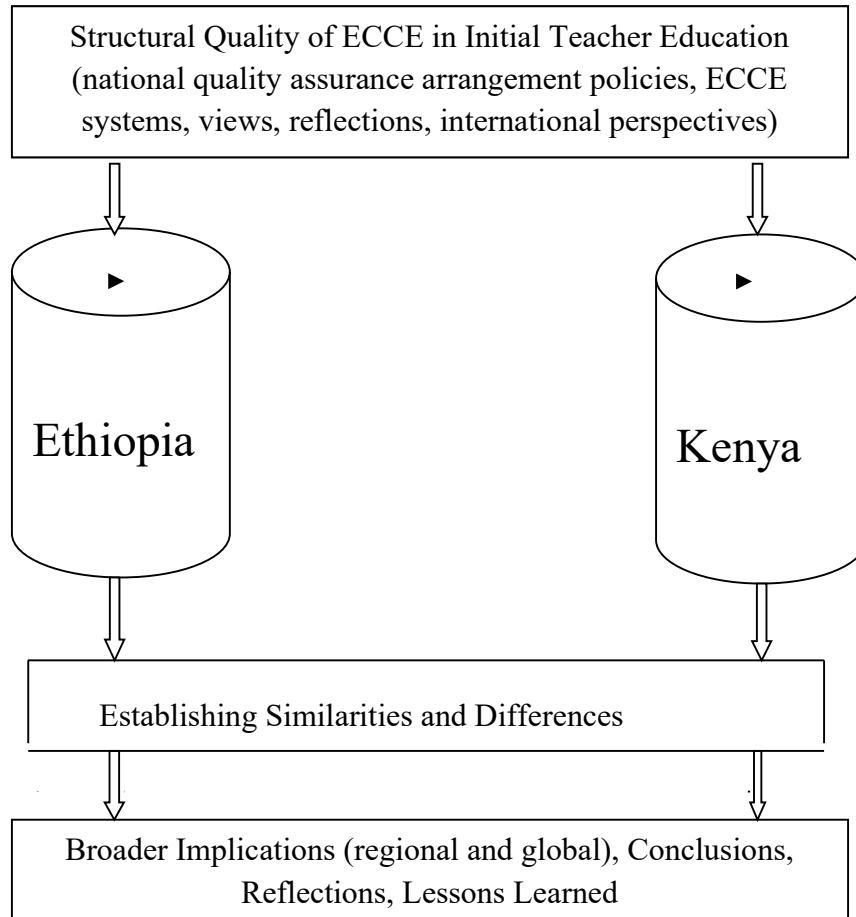


Figure 5.1: Analytical Framework of the Study

#### 5.4. Operationalisation

The main objective of this cross-national comparative study was to discover the quality of initial teacher education in Ethiopian and Kenyan policy contexts. Quality assurance arrangement policies and practices are vital to demonstrate the quality of national initial teacher education. Putting ECCE teacher policy at the heart of this study, initial teacher education quality assurance arrangement policies were elaborated and

operationalized into three: (1) recruitment and selection, (2) teacher preparation and (3) certification. Constituent parts of quality assurance policy were also elaborated in their respective categories. This operationalization was made based on the conceptual framework of the study discussed in chapter 3. Themes discussed in subsequent chapters were drawn from the research questions, the conceptual and the theoretical frameworks, the literature review, the analytical framework, and this operationalization.

#### **5.4.1. Teacher Recruitment and Selection Policies**

Recruitment and selection of entrants is a fundamental aspect of the initial teacher education quality assurance policy (UNESCO, 2019; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Among recruitment strategies, equilibrium of demand and supply of teachers and professional and career attractiveness is important for this study (World Bank, 2010; UNESCO, 2019). In a similar sense, minimum entry prerequisites and the academic achievement of entrants are also prominent for this study (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017).

Any teacher policy that considers a symmetrical relationship between the demand and the supply side of teacher recruitment could predict the quality of entrants to the profession (UNESCO, 2019; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Research evidenced that nations with tough teacher recruitment policies maintained the match between the supply and demand of new teachers (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). The attractiveness and career of the profession could invite confident and hopeful applicants into the profession (World Bank, 2010). Declaring procedures of licensing ahead of initial training ensures possession of knowledge, skill and attitude of the entrants who wish to join the profession (UNESCO, 2019). Attractive working condition for novice teachers such as attractive

salary has a significant effect on the quality of initial teacher preparation (World Bank, 2010).

Policies that set high entry requirements could invite able and motivated candidates (UNESCO, 2019). As stated by Ingvarson & Rowley, (2017, p.177), '*setting high prerequisite standards for admission to teacher education programs and selecting only applicants who have high levels of academic achievement*' is paramount. By the same token, UNESCO (2019) attested that minimum entry standards have to be high enough so that attracting entrants with a sufficient level of education, knowledge and potential to be efficient teachers. Teacher recruitment and selection policy indicators are operationalized in Table 5.1 hereunder.

Table 5.1: Operationalisation of Teacher Recruitment and Selection Policies

Type of specific policy	Indicators
Recruitment & Selection	Relevant recruitment and selection policies and practices
	Planned recruitment strategy with a balanced demand-supply chain
	Inclusive recruitment plan for public and private sectors
	Attractive professional and career arrangements
	A clear declaration of certification procedures
	Entry of confident, motivated and hopeful applicants
	Adequate academic requirements
	Other minimum entry requirements

Source: Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Akiba, 2017; UNESCO, 2019

#### 5.4.2. Teacher Preparation Policies

This is a broad subject to discuss but for this study purpose policies on (1) accreditation of teacher training institutions (2) training curriculum and (3) licensing of teacher educators are considered. Exploring the whole process of teacher training accreditation was not the concern of this study. Accreditation of training institutions, in this respect, focuses on general policies that govern how ECCE teacher education institutions are accredited.

Among other teacher preparation issues, the initial teacher training curriculum is a central issue for this study. This is because curriculum serves as a key policy lever that influences the pedagogy of teacher education (Schleicher, 2019). However, this study has no intention to investigate the scientific nature of the training curricula. This section is more concerned with the policies of the initial teacher education curriculum than the specific features of the curriculum. Curricular alignment, alignment between school curriculum and initial teacher training curriculum or alignment between existing national ECCE programs and teacher education curriculum was also a major concern of this study. UNESCO (2019) supports such concern and states:

*The content and curricula of teacher training programs will necessarily be specific to the local context and should be aligned with national education policies and specific classroom issues, such as language policies. However, a converging body of evidence demonstrates that the most effective approaches to teacher education combine theory and practice, with trainees actively participating in their training. (UNESCO, 2019, p.48)*



As evidenced by Tunca et.al (2015) the impact of qualified teacher educators on the quality of teacher education has not been discussed extensively in the literature. Teacher educators have not only an influence on initial teacher education but also have complex and significant professional power to produce quality teachers (Hobbs & Stovall, 2015). Research demonstrated that licensing of teacher educators is a crucial aspect of quality assurance arrangements in teacher education policies (Wang et al., 2011; European Union, 2015). Table 5.2 illustrates the operationalisation of initial teacher preparation policy indicators.

Table 5.2: Operationalisation of Initial Teacher Preparation Policy

Specific policy	Indicators
Teacher Preparation	Relevant policies and practices
	Responsible agency for accreditation of training providers
	Clear accreditation procedures for training institutions
	Adequate human and nonhuman resources, and facilities
	Independent and autonomous accreditation agency
	Training curriculum that promotes relevant pedagogy
	Training curriculum that translates theory into practice
	Clear curricular alignment between preschool and teacher education
	Responsible and relevant agency to certify teacher educators
	Clear professional and career development for teacher educators

Source: Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Schleicher, 2019; UNESCO, 2019; European Union, 2015

### 5.4.3. Initial Teacher Certification Policies

The third stage of quality assurance arrangement in initial teacher training is variously termed as "licensing", "certification" or "registration" (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). For instance, "teacher licensing" is commonly used in Ethiopian policies while "teacher registration" is known in Kenyan policies (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013; MoE, 2015). This study preferred to use the third terminology, "teacher certification", that is increasingly recognized in current global literature (Akiba, 2017; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). It is also important to note here that this study focuses only on the initial certification of teachers.

Syahril (2015) demonstrates that teacher certification is one of the main global teacher reform trends taking licensing of teachers as a prominent measure of quality. Teacher certification has been used as an instrument to decide whether novice teachers are properly prepared for the profession or not (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Table 5.3 shows the operationalization of major initial teacher certification policy indicators.

Table 5.3: Operationalisation of Initial Teacher Certification Policies

<b>Type of specific policy</b>	<b>Indicators</b>
Initial teacher certification	Relevant policy and practice  Responsible agency with clear certification requirements

Source: Ingvarson and Rowley, 2017; Akiba, 2017; UNESCO, 2017

## **5.5. Sampling Procedures and Techniques**

It appears worth mentioning the rationale for choosing these two East African nations before embarking on the selection of research sites and participants. Justification for the comparison of Ethiopia and Kenya emanates from the following magnitudes. At the outset, Ethiopia and Kenya are Sub-Saharan African countries that were occupants of low human development index till 2015 though Kenya joined a medium human development index in 2016 (UNDP, 2016). These East African developing nations are countries in transition with their respective national development visions at which Ethiopia envisages to reach middle-income countries in 2025 while Kenya planned in 2030. They also have national development plans that put education quality at the center of transformation (MoE, 2015; Republic of Kenya/ MoEST, 2013). Besides, Ethiopia and Kenya are neighboring nations that are seen as two influential nations in the Horn of Africa. The nations are further considered as nations in transition having some communality in their socio-cultural settings and regional geopolitics (Kullmann, 2013).

ECCE in Kenyan education has been viewed as a crucial program that lays a foundation for a child's holistic and integrated education to meet the cognitive, social, moral, spiritual, emotional, physical, and developmental needs (Githinji & Kanga, 2011; Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017). In a similar vein, ECCE in Ethiopian education has been recognized as an important stage of overall human development that prepares children for schooling (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; MoE, 2015). For the most part, findings confirmed comparable problems attributed to Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE and its teacher education (Nganga, 2009; Kaga et al., 2010; Weldemariam, 2013; Agbenyega,

2017; J. Newman et.al, 2015, Admas, 2016). Their differences, too, have gained attention and comparative researchers have shown interest in it (Kullmann, 2013; Mamo, 2015). Research revealed Kenya's experience as a vanguard for African modern ECCE development, for instance (Mbugua, 2009). These similarities and differences, among others, are believed to make the nation comparable entities to the rest of East African countries. The selection of the respective nations was on the basis of purposive sampling technique due to such convergent and divergent features of comparability. It is imperative to mention that the rationale for selecting only two nations was due to study time and budget constraints.

#### **5.5.1. Selection of the Research Sites**

The selection of the research sites has passed important interconnected stages. The study sites of the respective nations were identified in accordance with the research questions. Then, major and subordinate research sites have been purposefully selected. Accordingly, the respective education ministries were found to be major convenient sites of the research. Within these two convenient sites, relevant directorates/departments particularly those in charge of ECCE, and its curriculum, teacher education, and quality assurance were purposefully taken. These research sites were presumed to be major sources of the qualitative interview data. To some extent, they also served as a source of documents. One challenge in the selection process of the departments/directorates was heterogeneity between the respective organizational structures toward the governance of the ECCE subsector. In the case of Ethiopia, finding an independent relevant ECCE office was a challenge while the reverse was true for the Kenyan case. Relevant and multiple offices were selected to overcome the challenge, however.

There was a growing need to complement and triangulate the national qualitative data within a region or country-specific information. This need has emerged mainly from the policy interconnectedness between macro and micro-level institutions. For instance, the Kenyan ECCE policy cannot be merely seen at the national level for the counties that have legally decentralized power in the subsector. As a result, two purposively selected ECCE teachers' training institutions (Kotebe Metropolitan University of Ethiopia and Kenyatta University of Kenya) and two city governments (Addis Ababa City Government and Nairobi County Government) offices were purposively identified as auxiliary research sites.

The teacher education institutions were intentionally selected in that they are believed to be nationally well-known and benchmarked teacher training institutions in their respective nations (Mbugua, 2009; MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; Patrick A., 2011; MoE, 2015). The intention for the selection of these two training institutions was to complement and triangulate the two broad national contexts with exemplar findings. The two city governments were also purposively chosen as they are capitals of the respective nations having a relatively better experience for the rest of respective regions and counties.

### **5.5.2. Selection of the Documents**

The first attempt toward the selection of policy documents was identifying types of national policy documents. This was followed by a painstaking search for the documents using official websites of the respective education ministries. The search was also supported by title-based Google searches. Many of the intended Ethiopian education

policy documents were not available online, however. A formal request was made to the Ethiopian ministry of education and the documents were taken in the form of hard and soft copies. After a long searching process, 25 documents were purposively selected. Among these documents, some were major documents while the rest were supportive documents (See Table 5.4 in sub-section 5.6.1). It is better to note that all these documents are part of the reference list.

### **5.5.3. Selection of the Interviewees**

Key informants were identified from the already selected offices of the respective education ministries and teacher training institutions (See annex 2). Different levels of education officials such as directorate or department heads, deputy directors, coordinators, senior experts, and teacher educators were found to be convenient for the interview. Accordingly, 16 informants (8 from each of the respective nations) were purposively selected. These research participants were regarded as key informants who were expected to provide tick qualitative data.

### **5.5.4. Selection of the Quantitative Research Participants**

The Selection of participants for the quantitative inquiry has involved purposive and simple random sampling. Graduating regular ECCE teacher students were purposively taken from Kotebe Metropolitan University (KMU) of Ethiopia and Kenyatta University (KU) of Kenya. The graduating batch of the teacher students was purposively selected for they are believed to be stayed much time than their juniors and have a better experience. The sampling frame was obtained from the lists of 2019 graduating classes. Accordingly, 164 (119 from KMU and 45 from KU) teacher students were found as a

total population of the quantitative inquiry. Each of the sample group was determined by Kothari's (2004) formula:

$$n = \frac{z^2 p \cdot q \cdot N}{e^2 (N-1) + z^2 \cdot p \cdot q}$$

Where N = a target population,

n = sample size,

p = sample proportion, which is 0.5, and q = 1 - p = which also equals to 0.5,

e = the maximum acceptance error margin, in this case 0.05 level of significance (95%),

z = standard variant at a given confidence level, in this case 99%, which is 1.96.

Thus, the sample size of both groups was calculated as under:

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5) (0.5) (119)}{(0.05)^2 (119-1) + (1.96)^2 (0.5) (0.5)}$$

$$= \frac{3.8416 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \times 119}{0.0025 \times 118 + 3.8416 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}$$

$$n = \frac{114.2876}{1.2554}$$

$$= 91$$

$$n = 91 \text{ (sample size of KMU)}$$

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5) (0.5) (45)}{(0.05)^2 (45-1) + (1.96)^2 (0.5) (0.5)}$$

$$= \frac{3.8416 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \times 45}{0.0025 \times 44 + 3.8416 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}$$

$$n = \frac{43.218}{1.0704}$$

$$= 40$$

$$n = 40 \text{ (sample size of KU)}$$

Hence, the sample size of the total participants was decided to be 131 and this sample was chosen using a lottery system. The sample size was proportional (91 for KMU and 40 for KU) so as to maintain fair distribution of the research participants.

Stratification of gender was used to provide equal chance. This sampling was also crosschecked against Morgan and Kritiki's (1970) table of recommended sample size (See annex 4).

## **5.6. Data Collecting Instruments**

Putting a pragmatic worldview and sequential exploratory mixed strategy at the heart of this cross-national comparative study, multiple sources of data were employed to ensure a maximum of triangulation and complement. Qualitative document analysis, face-to-face and telephone semi-structured interviews, and self-completion questionnaires were tools used for this study.

### **5.6.1. Qualitative Document Analysis**

Qualitative document analysis was used to review the necessary documents. National development plans, education, and training policies, strategies, sector development plans, reports, and legal frameworks were analyzed. The document analysis aimed to uncover how ECCE policy contexts are situated to ensure the quality of initial teacher education in the respective nations. Table 5.4 shows a list of the documents analyzed; note that the documents with the asterisk (\*) are major documents while others are supportive documents.



Table 5.4: List of Ethiopian and Kenyan Documents

No.	Ethiopian Documents	Kenyan Documents
1	*Ethiopian 1994 Education and Training Policy	*Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research
2	The 1995 Ethiopian Constitution	*The 2006 ECD Policy
3	*The 2007 Ethiopian Teacher Development Blueprint	The 2007 Kenyan Vision 2030
4	The 2008 General Education Quality Improvement Package	The 2010 Kenyan Constitution
5	*The 2009 ECCE Syllabus	*The 2012 Kenyan Education and Training Policy Framework
6	*The 2010 National ECCE policy	*The 2013 Education Sector Strategic Plan (2013-2018) Vol. 1
7	*The 2010 Strategic Guideline for ECCE	*The 2013 Education Sector Strategic Plan (2013-2018) Vol. 2
8	*The 2010 National Curriculum Framework	*Teacher Service Commission Strategic Plan (2015- 2019)
9	*The Fifth Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP V 2015-2020)	*Teachers Service Commission Act No.20 (2012, 2015)
10	The Second Growth and Transformation Plan	*The 2017 National ECCE policy
11	*The 2016 Teachers' and School Leaders' Licensing and Renewal Directive	*The 2017 Basic Education Curriculum Framework
12	The 2017 National standard for ECCE Program	The 2017 Facilitator's Training Manual for Early Years Education Curriculum
13		*The 2018 County Early Childhood Education Bill

Source: Researcher's own Construction

While the absence of comprehensive teacher policies in the respective nations limited somehow the exploration of the quality assurance arrangements, heterogeneity among the documents enabled to complement and triangulation the necessary data.

### 5.6.2. Semi-Structured Interview Guide

A semi-structured interview guide was prepared in line with identified research issues (See annex 1). Different relevant education officials from different directorates and departments were interviewed based on the interview guideline. These officials were mentioned in their pseudo names with their respective offices (See annex 2). The interview with these multiple informants helped this study to obtain tick data and to triangulate the credibility of specific information. Table 5.5 illustrates a list of different education offices in the respective nations from which the interviewees participated.

Table 5.5: Sample Ethiopian and Kenyan Education/Training Institutes

<b>Ethiopian Institutes</b>	<b>Kenyan Institutes</b>
Teachers and Education Leaders Directorate	Teacher Education Directorate
Teachers and Education Leaders Licensing and Renewal Directorate	Quality Assurance & Standards Directorate
Curriculum Development & Implementation Directorate	Kenyan Institute for Curriculum Development
General Education Quality Assurance and Inspection Directorate	Nairobi County Early Childhood Development & Education Department
Addis Ababa City Government General Education Quality & Relevance Assurance Agency	Department of Early Childhood Studies in Kenyatta University, Nairobi
Department of ECCE in Kotebe Metropolitan University, Addis Ababa	Directorate for Early Childhood Development and Education

Source: Researcher's own Construction

### **5.6.3. Self-Completion Questionnaire**

As mentioned before, a self-completion questionnaire was employed to complement and crosscheck the qualitative data. The overarching prominence of this tool was to complement mainly the preparation of the teacher trainees. As already discussed, one of the three major stages in initial teacher training quality assurance arrangements was teacher preparation. A gap with data on teacher preparation was sought during the first qualitative phase of data collecting and analysis procedures. Mainly the five scale questions were designed based on this finding.

### **5.7. Data Collection Methods**

Bryman (2012) suggests that two things must be decided before a particular strategy of mixed method has been selected for a particular research. First, the priority to what extent a qualitative or a quantitative method is the principal data-gathering tool must be decided. Next, the sequence of which method precedes which also has to be decided; whether the qualitative method precedes the quantitative or the vice versa; or is the data collection associated with each method concurrently has to be known.

This study used a sequential exploratory data collection method. A sequential exploratory mixed strategy involves the procedure of gathering qualitative data first to explore a phenomenon and then collecting quantitative data to complement and explain relationships found in the qualitative data. Required data for this study were collected from January - August 2019 as per the sequential exploratory mixed strategy. The data collection procedures took two phases as per sequential exploratory techniques (Creswell, 2012; Bryman, 2012).

### **5.7.1. First Phase (Qualitative Data Collection)**

The methodological weight of the research under a sequential exploratory approach predominantly goes to qualitative (QUAL) while the quantitative (quant) portion complements the qualitative method. The qualitative method will dominate the research as a whole and the source of data in particular. Accordingly, primary data were required from different documents and interviews.

#### **5.7.1.1. Document Selection Procedures**

A list of prominent documents in line with the research objectives and basic questions was first prepared. Official documents of the respective nations predominantly education policies; education strategies and education sector development plans were collected. Guidelines, manuals, and legal frameworks were also gathered. The credibility and authenticity of the documents were employed. Accordingly, different forms of policy documents ranging from their first draft to the last version were found on official websites and the latest was selected. Updated and official documents were considered to keep the validity of the documents. Published e-documents and hard copy documents, when available, were prioritized than website-based documents. Some of the documents were officially taken from the sector institutions while the majority of the documents were obtained from the internet and official websites. The documents were selected purposively per the research objectives and basic questions. They largely focus on the policy of the three principal issues: ECCE, Teacher Education and Quality Assurance. These documents were entirely taken as a dominant source of data.

As it can be referred from the list of documents in section 5.6.1, some of the documents were general education and training policies, ECCE subsector policies, and education sector development policy documents. This was done for two reasons; to see the general context of the ECCE system and its teacher education on one hand and to gather the necessary specific information from broader policy frameworks on the other hand. However, there appeared an information gap and unbalanced documentation between the respective national education policies. To fill such a gap, some empirical studies and few education policy documents from international organizations were purposively used. These empirical studies and policy documents also helped to see the wider regional and global perspective of ECCE and its teacher education.

#### **5.7.1.2. Interview Data Collection**

The interview guide's first draft was developed based on the issues related to the general concerns of ECCE and its initial teacher education quality assurance arrangements. There was some specific variation within the interview guide as different ECCE officials had to be interviewed. The draft interview guide had to await the document analysis to further strengthen the issues to be interviewed. However, the impact of findings from the qualitative document analysis was beyond the expectation and hence the draft interview guide was restructured and refined. Then, the informants were interviewed right after the necessary procedures were followed. For instance, permission was obtained using official support letters, and interviews were primarily scheduled as per the informants' convenience. It was made mainly face to face and partly through the telephone.

Except for one interviewee, all agreed to be recorded. Few informants were approached for a second time through telephone to obtain additional data. Interviews from the Ethiopian side were first transcribed and then translated from Amharic into English. There was no translation from the Kenyan side as interviews were done in English. Agreeable

### **5.7.2. Second Phase (Quantitative Data Collection)**

The quantitative inquiry in this study had a complementary and triangulation role as mentioned previously. To make this happen, findings from the qualitative data analysis were crucial. This is because, as demonstrated by Bryman (2012) and Creswell (2012), the quantitative instrument or survey has to be prepared based on issues explored through qualitative data analysis and gaps identified.

Issues to be covered by the quantitative inquiry were identified. Those issues to be triangulated were also identified and the instrument was developed. Consequently, the questionnaire intended to investigate specific issues. The self-completion questionnaire was administered right after the necessary procedures were made.

### **5.8. Data Presentation and Analysis Methods**

This study used a sequential exploratory data presentation and analysis strategy while the overall comparison was done using a comparative cross-national case study method. The data analysis procedures took three phases as per sequential exploratory techniques combined with comparative analysis (Creswell, 2012; Bryman, 2012).

### **5.8.1. First Phase (Qualitative Data Presentation and Analysis)**

In a sequential exploratory data analysis strategy, the dominance of the qualitative method is well manifested within the data collection tools and priority of data collection, and analysis procedures (Creswell, 2012).

#### **5.8.1.1. Document Analysis procedures**

Sector-wide and subsector (ECCE) policies mainly related to initial teachers' training, strategies, education sector development plans, curricular and quality assurance frameworks were major documents analyzed. Other supportive documents, as seen from the list, were also reviewed and analyzed. The analysis of sector-wide and sub-sector education policy documents was to uncover the overall national contexts of the respective nations. The purpose of analyzing strategic documents was to see how the policy goals are going to be achieved and the extent of the alignment with education and training sector policies. The intention behind analyzing the respective national education sector development plans was to explore the extent of translating policy issues into sector development programs and their implementation status.

Each document was first skimmed to make a superficial examination and then read for a thorough examination. Issues related to quality assurance arrangements of initial teacher education in ECCE were identified and themes were also organized and operationalized. Both description and analytical critics were used in the course of the document analysis. In other words, findings from the respective national documents were

presented and analyzed. For the most part, a comparative qualitative document analysis technique was employed to explore the two national policy contexts.

Needless to say, documents are valuable sources of data for qualitative inquiry but the difficulty was to sufficiently obtain them as Creswell (2012) suggested. This problem was prevalent and remedial action was taken to balance the volume of the documents within the respective countries. Accordingly, selected empirical studies and international organizational documents were analyzed to fill the gap although policy documents were entirely taken as a major source of data.

#### **5.8.1.2. Interview Data Analysis**

The purpose of the interview was to have tick data on the views and reflections of the informants. A semi-structured interview was made with education officials such as directors of directorates, deputy directors, department heads/coordinators, senior experts/officers, and teacher educators. Finally, themes and issues were identified; and qualitative data analysis was done.

#### **5.8.2. Second Phase (Quantitative Data Analysis)**

Right after the qualitative data analysis, as per the sequential exploratory technique, the quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS. Percentages and mean scores as descriptive statistics were used while an independent sample T-test was also employed from inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics were used in each of the case studies to complement and triangulate the findings from the qualitative data presentation. The purpose of using an independent T-test was to strengthen the comparison or the cross-



case analysis of the study. A five scale items with a good deal of Cronbach's Alpha (See Table 5.6 in section 5.9) and few dichotomous and open-ended items were analyzed.

### **5.8.3. Third Phase (Cross-Case Analysis/Comparative Analysis)**

In the first and second phases of data analysis, themes were presented within a particular case (country) and reports for the respective nations were prepared using both qualitative data and quantitative data. Then, a cross-case comparative analysis was made based on these themes operationalized in section 5.4. The overall comparative analysis was done using a cross-national comparative case study method. Finally, findings from the cross-case comparative analysis were analyzed within the broader context.

Associations between the respective national policies and the wider regional and global perspectives were analyzed using selected theoretical concepts, literature, and international policy frameworks. It is profoundly important here to note that the sum of the levels of analysis of this research gave the whole picture of the structural quality of ECCE in terms of initial teacher education quality within the respective nations under comparison.

### **5.9. Validity and Reliability**

Cohen et al. (2005) advised educational researchers to establish their discussion of validity along with the research paradigm; but not in a conventional approach. As already stated, this study is framed by a pragmatic paradigm from which a mixed approach was drawn. Schoonenboom & Johnson, (2017, p.1) strongly suggested that '*mixed study researchers must understand and carefully consider each of the dimensions of mixed methods design, and always keep an eye on the issue of validity.* Nevertheless, there is an increasingly heated debate on the quantitative-qualitative distinction in using concepts of

validity and reliability. One typical debate emanates from the nature of validity and reliability that bound together in a complex way. The terms sometimes overlap each other while other times stand as mutually exclusive entities (Creswell, 2012; Bryman, 2012).

In a similar vein, Given & Saumure (2008) reported that qualitative researchers have been redefining quantitative researchers' notions of reliability and validity. The study also uncovered the quantitative-qualitative dilemma of causal-effect relationship and has shown the significant importance of re-conceptualizing reliability and validity in qualitative research. According to this study, knowledge of cause-and-effect relationships is prominent to decide in a variety of policy and professional contexts. The study further has shown the implication of ignoring the concept of cause-and-effect relationship in that *'it would be difficult, if not impossible, to create public policies if we totally rejected cause-and-effect thinking'* (Given & Saumure, 2008, p. 747)".

Cited in Mamo (2015), Judd et.al (1991, p.29) defined validity as the degree to which the allotted instruments convincingly measure, explore, or describe the phenomenon in hand. In one or other dimension, research has shown the prominence of validity and reliability in both qualitative and quantitative inquiries (Cohen et al. 2005; Creswell, 2012; Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014). All these notions are important for this study and as a result, some concepts of validity and reliability were considered.

### **5.9.1. Triangulation**

Triangulation in research means the use of multiple data collection methods (Cohen et al., 2005; Creswell, 2012). Creswell (2014) suggests that using multiple approaches is prominent for researchers to increase their skill and to assess the accuracy

of findings thereby convince readers. This methodological triangulation is a powerful way of showing concurrent validity (Cohen et al., 2005). Using exploratory mixed design and multiple sources of data in this study was primarily to gain better triangulation and complement in that way to maintain reliability and validity. One major manifestation was collecting similar interview data from different education officials and different educational institutes. Gathering data on a particular theme or issue using two qualitative data collection methods (document analysis and interview) was another indication of triangulation. Further, this study has deployed the triangulation of particular data using qualitative and quantitative data collection methods.

### **5.9.2. Internal Validity**

Internal validity can be defined as the extent of the accuracy of research findings to describe a phenomenon that is applicable for both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Cohen et al., 2005). As demonstrated by Creswell (2014), this notion seems more relevant to a qualitative study. On the other hand, internal validity for Bryman (2012, p.47) is *'a question of whether a conclusion that incorporates a causality relationship between two or more variables holds water'*. This notion also highly associates with a quantitative inquiry. Taking the work of Cohen et al. (2005) into account, this study considered internal validity. Aside from the power of a mixed approach to describe a particular situation, a sequential exploratory strategy is popular to explore a phenomenon (Creswell, 2012). Hence, this strategy could enhance the internal validity of this research.

The issues of *authenticity* and *credibility* are very important especially to keep the internal validity of qualitative data (Cohen et al., 2005; Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014). Documents that appear on the internet sometimes referred to as *virtual documents* are huge sources of qualitative data (Bryman, 2012). Nevertheless, they have to be authentic and credible. It has to be noted that much of the documents for this study were obtained from the internet. Anyone who has no authority may set up fake websites and provide documents. To keep the authenticity of the documents, official websites such as websites of the respective education ministries were identified and used.

Documents might be distorted and remain incredible (Bryman, 2012). Some of the documents appeared in different versions and the latest versions were taken to increase their credibility. For instance, the new 2017 Kenyan Early Childhood Development and Education Policy was found in two forms and the final version was taken. Further, the authenticity and credibility of the documents were also checked on the spot asking the respective education ministries and published documents were used when available.

### **5.9.3. External validity**

Cohen et al. (2005) argue that external validity is not only confined to a quantitative inquiry but also works for a qualitative inquiry. The study stipulates the notion of generalizability for naturalistic study as comparability and transferability. The study further elaborates that it is possible to assess the comparability of research participants and research settings; and the transferability of data into different settings and cultures. These ideas were found to be relevant for this study and care was taken

against some of the threats for external validity in the qualitative inquiry. One of these threats was the setting effect where findings are only and largely functioning to a particular context. Such a threat was tackled by the use of varied settings in this study.

For a quantitative inquiry, '*external validity refers to the degree to which the results can be generalized to the wider population, cases or situations*' (Cohen et al., 2005, p.109). This study has employed scientifically acceptable and generalizable sample sizes for the respective wider populations. It seems the scientific principle that says '*the smaller the population, the larger the sample size shall be*' (Cohen et al., 2005, p.94) was applied in this study. Randomization was also applicable to this study. In so doing, the external validity of the quantitative inquiry of this study has been enhanced.

#### **5.9.4. Ecological Validity**

This kind of validity sometimes referred to as its related type of validity, cultural validity, is important in cross-national comparative education studies particularly to articulate policies in their natural features (Cohen et al., 2005). This study has tried to consider the ecological validity of the respective national policies and hence, the policies were presented and analyzed keeping their originalities.

#### **5.9.5. Internal Reliability**

The self-completion items, as already stated, were developed following emerged themes from the qualitative analysis. Cronbach's Alpha is a commonly used test of internal reliability or internal consistency of items (Creswell, 2012) and alpha 0.80 is a rule of thumb to denote an acceptable level of internal reliability (Bryman, 2012, p.170). This test was used to measure the internal reliability of items within five scale points and

an acceptable level of reliability (.82) was found. The internal reliability of items within the scale was found to be consistent. Consequently, this result has shown that the participants' scores for the scale items were reliable and accurate. Table 5.6 demonstrates the internal reliability of the scale items.

Table 5.6: Internal Reliability of Scale Items

Item Category	No. of Items (N)	Cronbach's Alpha
Scale: Preparation of the trainees		
Sub Scale 1: Curriculum and Pedagogy	4	.81
Sub Scale 2: Teacher Educators' profession	3	.80
Sub Scale 3: Trainees' Professional Competence	3	.76
Scale: Trainees Satisfaction on Some of the Services		
Sub Scale 1: Facilities and Resources	4	.92
Sub Scale 2: Departmental & Administrative Services	2	.84
Total		.82

Source: Researcher's own construction using SPSS Version 20

### **5.9.6. Construct Validity**

Subjectivity and bias were as much as controlled and redirected to overcome individuals' interests. Sources of bias that are often related to the interviewer characteristics, interviewee characteristics, and the nature of some questions were entirely considered. From the interviewer's side, much care was taken to avoid unnecessary basic or probing leading questions. By doing so, overestimation and underestimation of issues were significantly minimized.

### **5.10. Ethical Considerations**

As suggested by Creswell (2012), this study tried to consider ethical issues in all steps of the research process. Supporting letters that explicate the purpose of the study was issued from the Center for Comparative Education and Policy Studies for different institutions to ensure the legitimacy of the research and to obtain permission for the required data collection. The aim of the study was also introduced verbally to the interviewees and in writing for the respondents. A modest and respectful approach was employed and neither of the participants was refused to be interviewed and fill the questionnaire.

Necessary care was taken so as not to expose the bureaucratic power of the informants. Accordingly, in most cases, only the respective institutions or departments were exposed and the informants were first referred in general terms such as "expert", "official" or "higher official". Some officials, however, remain exposed because of their



irreplaceable position. As a result, later, all the informants were given pseudo names so as not to expose them (See Annex 2).

Proper respect was given for the informants such as manifested with a maximum of patience while few informants rescheduled their interview more than twice. Taking into account English as a discriminatory language for Ethiopian informants and respondents, the interview was made in Amharic and the questionnaire was also translated into Amharic. A telephone interview was proposed for two informants while observing their tight working schedule. They agreed upon the proposal and the interview was made accordingly. Only one informant refused to be recorded. Along this line, interview records attentively listened to avoid misunderstandings. This was done twice and important points were jotted down during the second listening session. Then, actual transcription was made in Amharic and finally translated into English. For the most part, ethical issues that surface in both the qualitative inquiry and quantitative inquiry were considered to collect data from the respective nations.

## **CHAPTER SIX: THE ETHIOPIAN CASE STUDY**

This chapter presents the Ethiopian case study as per the findings from the document analysis, interview, and questionnaire respectively. Almost all major thematic areas were consistently discussed across the subsections. The chapter was concerned with descriptive data presentation as interpretation was left for cross-case analysis in chapter eight. The chapter also made a summary of the findings in line with the themes. The summary compared the findings from the respective data gathering instruments against the themes.

### **6.1. Findings from the Document Analysis**

#### **6.1.1. An Overview on the ECCE System**

This subsection highlights ECCE policy developments and aims, and specific components of the ECCE system such as governance structure, ECCE programs, care and education, quality ECCE and quality teacher education.

##### **6.1.1.1. ECCE Policy Development and Aims**

The 1994 Education and Training Policy (ETP) is a working national policy framework of education and training in Ethiopia. The ETP considered ECCE as part of the structure of the education and training system that focuses on the all-rounded development of the child in preparation for formal schooling (Ministry of education [MoE], 1994). Nevertheless, this was insufficient and it seems the ETP visualized insignificant concern on ECCE. The ETP generally recognizes the importance of early

life experience and it served as a solid umbrella and legitimization for ECCE. It did not pay attention to ECCE as it did for other levels of education (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). ECCE as a subsector was not only less regarded in the 1994 ETP but also in Education Sector Development Programs (ESDPs). In particular, ECCE in ESDP I and II was extensively overlooked as a subsector of the education and training system (Teferra, 2017).

The formation of the National Policy Framework and the Strategic Operational Plan and Guidelines of ECCE in 2010 appears to be a breakthrough as there was no prior subsector policy. The policy was formulated with a collaborative effort right after the situational analysis was made on the subsector. One of the emergent needs found from the situation analysis was the need for improved quality of ECCE (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010b). This policy aligns with the National Education and Training Policy, the National Health Policy, National Nutrition Strategy, and the National Policy and Legal Framework on Child Rights. The policy also provides a frame of reference for other key sectors to ensure quality services for children. In particular, the responsibilities of the health sector through the Ministry of Health are demonstrated in both the 2010 ECCE policy framework and the 2010 strategic operational plan and guidelines (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; 2010b). The prime objective of the policy framework was *'to address the longstanding need of its citizens with regard to early childhood care and education* (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a, p.6).

#### **6.1.1.2. Governance Structure**

The 1994 ETP generally indicates education to be managed in a decentralized structure (MoE, 1994). However, it is better to note that this principle was not a reflection of the constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia [FDRE] (FDRE, 1995). This was because the constitution was developed a year after the development of ETP during the then transitional government. In a broadest sense of governance, Ethiopian ECCE has to be coordinated by the Ministry of Education whereas other concerned ministries (Ministry of Health and Ministry of Women's Affairs) shall subsequently take on the roles and responsibilities as outlined in the policy framework (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). Accordingly, MoE is responsible for the second age cohort (from age 4 to 6) children.

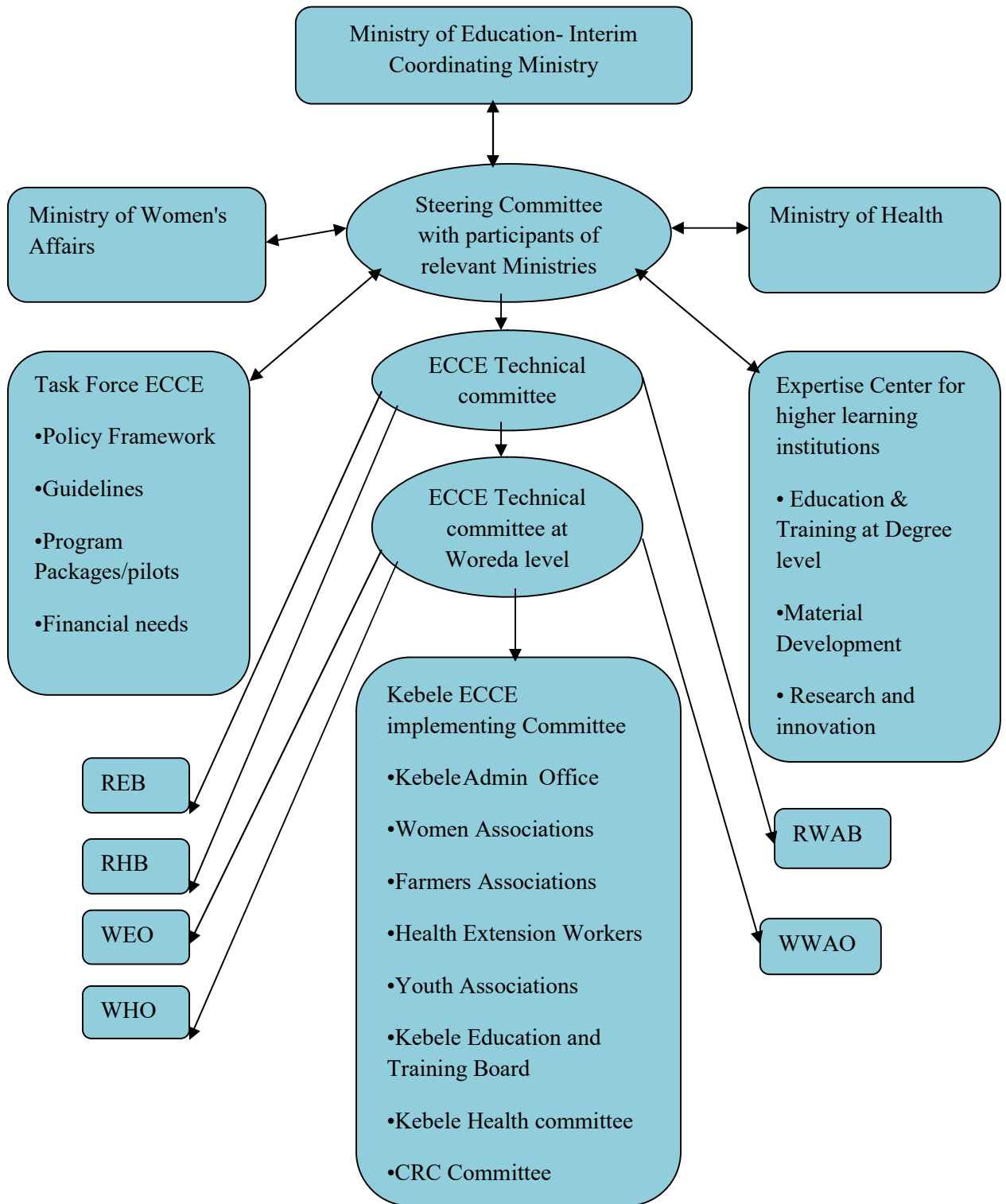


Figure 6.1: Coordinating Structure of Ethiopian ECCE: (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a p.31)

Figure 6.1 shows the coordination structure for the implementation of ECCE ranging from the ministerial to the smallest administrative unit (*Kebele*). At the top level, the ministry of education is assigned as an interim coordinating entity. The national steering committee comprising its members from the respective ministries seems at the center of the coordination structure and the steering committee appears to be cascaded alongside subsequent education administration units.

The 2010 ECCE policy documents (the Policy Framework and the Implementation Guideline) tried to show national and regional responsibilities. At a federal level, the MoE is responsible to provide policy guidelines, certifying ECCE teachers and trainers, developing play and teaching materials, and maintain standards and quality assurance. Nevertheless, the responsibility of the Regional Education Bureau (REB) does not look clear enough while Woreda Education Office (WEO) is responsible for the provision of furniture and indoor and outdoor play-equipment (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; 2010b).

### **6.1.1.3. ECCE Programs**

The review on the fifth Education Sector Development Program (ESDP V) and 2010 ECCE Policy Framework showed that there are four kinds of Ethiopian ECCE programs: government-based and private-owned preschools or kindergarten, “O” class, child to child and accelerated school readiness. Kindergarten is a formal program while the rest three are non-formal modalities designed to reach the urban disadvantaged, the rural, and the pastoral community (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010b; MoE, 2015). It is better

to note that "O" class and accelerated school readiness programs were not mentioned in the 2010 ECCE policy framework as ESDP V declared all modalities are the result of the policy framework (MoE, 2015).

According to the 2010 ECCE policy framework, preschool or kindergarten is a formal ECCE program in which childhoods are prepared for formal schooling through the acquisition of basic skills (pre-reading, pre-writing, counting, and arithmetic) life skills and child development. "O" class is a dominant nationwide program that is believed to be demographically inclusive and relevant. In a Child-to-Child modality, older children or facilitators in the community involved in structured play-oriented activities with their younger siblings and neighboring children. These facilitators are grade 5 or 6 students trained and guided by their teachers (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010b).

The fifth Education Sector Development Program (ESDP V 2015/16 - 2019/20) stated that ECCE program modalities will include the three-year kindergarten program (KG1, KG2, and KG3) for children of ages 4–6; O-Class for children of age 6 who are approaching school entry age; and an interim accelerated child readiness program for children with no prior exposure to early learning, shortly before they enter Grade 1 (MoE, 2015). ESDP V also indicated other non-institutional context-specific options such as Child-to-Child and adapted accelerated child readiness programs that will be favored for children of ages 4–6, during their first steps toward education.

However, the document analysis confirmed variation on the age level and classification of ECCE between the Ethiopian 2009 syllabus, the 2010 National Curriculum Framework for General Education (KG - 12) and the 2010 ECCE National

Policy Framework. The syllabus sets the age from 3-6 within three categories: 3-4 (Nursery), 4-5 (Lower Kindergarten) and 5-6 (Upper Kindergarten) years of children. On the other hand, the National ECCE Policy Framework and the National Curricular Framework declare that children aged 4-6 within two categories (4-5 and 5-6 years) are eligible for preprimary education. The three levels of kindergarten still seem existing reality despite inconsistencies within these policy frameworks (MoE, 2009; MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; MoE, 2010).

#### **6.1.1.4. Care and Education**

The 2010 National ECCE Policy Framework underlines that failing to provide early childhoods with better nutrition, health, care, and education deprives them of their right to develop as productive citizens; enjoy a better quality of life, and eventually contribute to society's growth. The policy asserted that full immunization programs, growth monitoring, and preventive health care interventions are included in the preschool programs (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a).

It seems, however, the policy lacks clarity on teachers' responsibility. The policy affirms that teachers are the first responsible person for the preschool or kindergarten program but it does not state how they are intervening. Rather, the intervention of health extension workers from the national health sector seems very clear on the policy document. Accordingly, health extension workers are responsible for awareness-raising and health training of children. The 2010 ECCE Policy Framework has shown national health packages run by the ministry of health. Among others, this package includes child development, child health and nutrition, and the major causes of child and maternal



mortality at a household level. Yet the policy document did not provide a clear connection between the package and ECCE for children aged 4-6 (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a).

The 2010 ECCE Policy framework illustrated how Ethiopian teachers are far from the socio-emotional care and development of children and suggested for improvement. As to the policy document, teachers are mainly engaged in developing reading, writing, and arithmetic skills. It appears that play-based early stimulation is not part of their teaching. It seems also that the responsibility solely remained within parents and the community. The policy document further demonstrates:

*In Ethiopia, everyone plays with the infants and small children in the house. Mothers in rural areas carry their babies with them everywhere they go. Young children in the rural areas are quickly given minor responsibilities, such as looking after a calf, cutting grass for the cow or getting embers from a neighbor. They learn riddles, and adults are very patient with young children. Early childhood education teachers are mainly engaged in developing reading, writing and arithmetic skills; early stimulation in a playful way is very often not part of their teaching. (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a, p. 14)*

The policy also refers to the Ethiopian cultural context of child-rearing in some traditional societies. Proper care and education of children is a concern of the family and the community in some traditional societies. Protecting children from danger and correcting children's misbehavior is considered the responsibility of the community

member in such societies. However, the policy document uncovered that this practice has started to dwindle nowadays, especially with people migrating to towns.

ESDP V planned for the establishment of child health and nutrition programs (predominantly feeding in food-insecure contexts and deworming) in collaboration with the Ministry of Health and Ministry of Women and Children Affairs. It also planned the provision of basic Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene (WASH) facilities in ECCE settings. Regardless of the practice, it looks very important to plan such activity on the national education sector development program and this shows that how the sector paid due attention to the care part of ECCE (MoE, 2015).

#### **6.1.1.5. Quality ECCE and Quality Teacher Education**

The 2010 ECCE Policy Framework underlines the need for quality ECCE and suggested child-centered approaches that could promote the child's holistic development through culturally relevant and developmentally appropriate indoor and outdoor activities. The guiding principles and strategic objectives of the policy also highlighted the importance of quality ECCE. It seems that, however, the guiding principles have not clear implication on the need for quality teacher education. The policy also emphasized mother tongue education consistent with the 1994 ETP to improve the quality and relevance of ECCE which has clear implications on ECCE teacher education (MoE, 1994; MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). In addition to this, the 2010 Strategic Operational Plan states the quality of ECCE services for all and particularly for marginalized and disadvantaged children (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010b).

Understandably, ECCE had no place in the quality of Ethiopian general education; and of course, entirely ECCE was not part of the General Education Quality Improvement Program (GEQIP) (MoE, 2008). ESDP V revealed that the goal for GEQIP is to improve the quality of general education to motivate children to complete primary and secondary school and provide them with the knowledge, skills, and values to become productive and responsible citizens (MoE, 2015). It is better to note here how ECCE as a subsector was marginalized from the quality improvement program. Contrary to this, ESDP V emphasizes that ECCE has become one of the priorities for general education that is inconsistent with GEQIP.

Quality assurance of ECCE programs is important to assess alignment between ECCE teacher education and ECCE programs. The absence of quality assurance was one of the major problems that affect quality ECCE service as seen in the 2010 Ethiopian National ECCE Strategic Operational Plan and Guidelines, however (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010b). ESDP V planned percentage of pre-primary schools met and well above the standards will reach 60%. However, the document did not show how this plan works for all ECCE modalities. Along this side, the 2017 National Standard for ECCE Program has a significant correlation with initial teacher training. Any ECCE program, as stated in the document, has to fulfill the required quantity and quality of trained teachers (MoE, 2017). Yet, as we can see later in other sections, there is a considerable gap between ECCE programs and the need for trained teachers.

### **6.1.2. ECCE Curriculum**

This section does not involve comprehensive content analysis based on all elements of a curriculum. It mainly focuses on some curriculum policy issues such as vision, aims, and values.

According to the 2010 Ethiopian National Curriculum Framework (K-12), the goal of preprimary education is to help children develop their emotional, cognitive, physical, and social domains, thus encouraging their ability and enthusiasm to continue to learn in both informal and formal environments and develop their social and educational skills. The curriculum framework has also a vision to see high-quality education designed and implemented at all levels of formal education (MoE, 2010).

The Ethiopian ECCE syllabus was prepared in 2009 right after the preparation of the unpublished national curriculum framework. The syllabus identified five areas of development and learning. It considered physical, personal, emotional, communication and language as the development aspects while mathematics and environmental study are parts of the learning. Similarly, the national curriculum framework consists of five learning areas namely: *relating with others, taking care of myself, my environment, developing literacy, and numeracy* of which many of the learning areas are also indicated within the syllabus. Understandably, however, the syllabus is not considered an effective and comprehensive document within the Ethiopian education system. The 2010 ECCE policy framework states that the syllabus has not been implemented (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a) while ESDP V planned to change it (MoE, 2015).

### **6.1.3. ECCE Teacher Education**

This sub-section discusses an overview of the initial training, recruitment, and selection policy, the training curriculum, accreditation of teacher education institutions, licensing of teacher educators, and certification of trainee teachers.

### **6.1.3.1. Overview of the Initial Training**

The 1994 ETP generally underlined the prominence of qualified teachers at all levels of education. Based on this policy stance, the 2007 Ethiopian Teachers Development Blueprint has shown a strong relationship between school improvement and teacher development programs. The document indicated how all strategic issues of school improvement are directly or indirectly related to teacher education. Hence, the blueprint intended to be aligned with the school improvement program signifying the synergetic impact of the two on quality of education irrespective of its inclusiveness for the ECCE subsector (Ministry of Education [MoE], 2007).

According to the 2010 National ECCE Policy Framework, training of ECCE teachers is the responsibility of the ministry of education. The training has been given in public teachers training colleges across the country that is managed by their respective regional or city administrative education bureaus (MoE, 2015). It is imperative to note that currently there is no single private teacher training institution nationwide.

The 2010 National ECCE Strategic Operational Plan and Guidelines indicated that initial training will be establishing in the Health Colleges and Teacher Training Colleges. The document further stated that this will be done by establishing ECCE units in the Health Colleges and College of Teacher Education (CTEs). However, other documents, mainly ESDP V, are unable to ensure the establishment of ECCE units in health colleges.

One of the major challenges seen from the document analysis was the lack of proper training of ECCE that affected the provision of quality ECCE service. This finding was corroborated with empirical studies that demonstrated ECCE teacher education has not gained proper attention and the sub-sector is still suffering from a severe shortage of trained teachers (Zewdie et al., 2016, Admas, 2016).

Teachers' negative attitude toward the profession was regarded as another principal challenge at all levels of education. As per the evaluation of the ESDP V, the fourth ESDP tried to enhance the capacity of teachers through initial and in-service training programs despite insignificant improvement. Consequently, ESDP V planned a policy reform to that transform teaching into a profession of choice. This was intended to be done with a strategy that focuses on the needs of teachers so that to re-establish the prestige of the teaching profession. Establishing quality assurance of initial teacher education was one of the key strategic focuses of the sector development plan (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; MoE, 2015).

#### **6.1.3.2. Teacher Recruitment and Selection Policy**

Finding the demand-supply strategy for ECCE teachers' recruitment from the document review appears to be much difficult. Collaborative recruitment strategy among employers, training institutions, and Teachers Association was suggested in the 1994 ETP. This might have any implication on a planned teacher recruitment strategy. However, the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint as a policy document did not show any demand-supply issues of ECCE teachers. This gap in Ethiopian teacher education is attributable also to the subsequent levels of general education (MoE, 2007). ESDP V

simply has planned to train ECCE more than 100, 000 teachers throughout its implementation time (2015/16 - 2019/20) regardless of demand-supply projection. The document also planned generally to strengthen the existing teacher professional development policy to improve teachers' distribution, equity, and balance of skills in all regions (MoE, 2015).

The 1994 ETP promised to ascertain the entry of able, diligent, interested and, physically and mentally fit teacher trainees to the profession. Pertaining to academic entry requirements, the 2007 blueprint for teacher education states that the applicants with high scores in English, Mathematics, and Natural Science and with better communication skills are privileged. According to this blueprint, applicants in terms of their character should have an interest in the teaching profession, and respect for teachers and society. They should have an interest to provide voluntary services and to support people with disabilities. They have to be free from addiction and crime. The applicants also have to get a witness for their good personal qualities from the community and their high schools. On top of these requirements, applicants will be provided a written entrance exam and interview to ensure their fitness against the selection criteria (MoE, 2007).

Interested applicants to a one-year ECCE teacher training (10 + 1) will be selected before they leave grade ten as the 2007 blueprint revealed (MoE, 2007). It is possible to infer from ESDP V and the 2010 National ECCE Policy Framework that high school (grade 10) completion is a major entry requirement. Nevertheless, both the national ECCE policy and ESDP V contrary to the teacher education blueprint were not concerned with high scores in English, Mathematics, and Natural Science (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; MoE, 2015).



Developing teachers' professional career arrangements was one of the strategic issues in the 1994 ETP. The 2007 Teacher Education Development Blueprint, based on the ETP, has tried to portray policy directions to build merit-based attractive career arrangements. The arrangement intended to make teaching a respectful profession so that producing able teachers. Career development was designed in moral, material, and financial privileges. Among others, commendable teachers will be provided first educational opportunities; housing and land for housing, bank loan, and medals (MoE, 2007). The Ethiopian ECCE is characterized by low teachers' salary causing high staff turnover, however (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a).

#### **6.1.3.3. Preparation of Teachers**

Teacher training at all levels of education according to the 1994 ETP was expected to produce teachers with sufficient knowledge, skills, professional ethics and relevant pedagogy (MoE, 1994). The 2010 National Strategic Operational Plan and Guidelines for ECCE intended that teachers should hold a ten months teacher training course certificate from the training colleges (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010b). As revealed in ESDP V, teachers trained for ECCE will complete either a one-year certificate or a multi-year diploma. The document showed that the new multi-year diploma for pre-primary teachers will continue to be strengthened and will expand from the current seven to reach all CTEs (MoE, 2015). Policies on the training curriculum, accreditation of training providers, and certification of teacher educators are discussed under this section.

*i) The Training Curriculum*

As a general guiding framework, the 2007 Teacher Education Development Blueprint set curricular directions. The document along with the common standards or competencies (knowledge, skill and attitude) set four major categories of training courses: Academic Courses, Professional Courses, Common Courses, and Practicum Courses. These groups of courses hold a share of 50%, 25%, 14% and 16% respectively. Practicum courses were expected to reflect the theoretical concepts of the other three course categories into practice. Aligning the initial teacher training and the three major professional competencies with the national education policy was one of the key concerns of this document. In so doing, the blueprint intends to make trainees understand the education and training policy (MoE, 2007). Nonetheless, confusion was observed within the document as regards the inclusiveness of ECCE teacher training. On one hand, the blueprint introduces solely two levels of training systems: a diploma level of training for primary education and a degree level of training for secondary education. On the other hand, the document tends to include ECCE in the teacher training system and sets professional standards.

Both the 2010 policy framework and the implementation guidelines of ECCE envisaged some activities related to the training curriculum. The development of teachers' support materials was one of the activities planned in the implementation guideline. Validated and approved ECCE teacher training curriculum, teachers' curriculum handbook and ECCE materials development guide were some of the deliverables of this specific plan. The policy guideline also asserted that there has to be consistency between

all teaching-learning activities and the ECCE curriculum. The guideline further indicated that the ECCE curriculum must be available for teachers in all ECCE centers. This document indirectly has shown the need for school and teacher education curricular alignment. The policy framework affirmed that there will be an integrated parental education curriculum in both teacher education colleges and health training institutions (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; 2010b).

ESDP V ensured the finalization of the ECCE teacher training curriculum linking directly to the students' curriculum. According to this document, standards for learning materials in "O" Classes and a specific curriculum are under development, along with the preparation of a one-year certificate training curriculum. All colleges of teacher education will be provided with a sufficient number of school- level teaching and learning materials so that teacher trainees access them. Digital learning materials will be produced and disseminated to all regions by the curriculum development institute the fact that the institution is elusive so far starting the implementation period of ESDP V (2015-2020) (MoE, 2015).

The policy documents have shown pedagogical concerns toward ECCE teacher training. The 2007 blueprint, paying attention to mother tongue education, emphasized child-friendly approaches. The training according to this document endows knowledge and skills on how to identify various child needs and proper child care. It also intends to make the trainees acquire local and global knowledge on child care (MoE, 2007). However, the ECCE policy documents and ESDP V declared the prevalence of huge pedagogical gaps within the teachers and teacher educators (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; 2010b; MoE, 2015).

*ii) Accreditation of Teacher Education Institutions*

The 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint has indicated that any teacher training provider has to be accredited by the ministry of education or other relevant authority the fact that other documents stated that the ministry of education is responsible to accreditate teacher training institutions. As to this blueprint, accreditation will be given mainly for the initial training program (MoE, 2007). Other policy documents such as ECCE policies and ESDP V, however, revealed that there has been a weak quality assurance system. Accordingly, improving accreditation and certification of teacher training in ECCE was one of the planned activities of the 2010 National ECCE Strategic Operational Plan and Guidelines. The document anticipates the formation of an accreditation unit at the ministry of education and an increased number of accredited and certified ECCE training colleges as an outcome. Provision of supportive systems, guidelines, and interventions that ensures the quality and standardization of all ECCE services and provisions were related to planned activities (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a & 2010b; MoE, 2015).

ESDP V (2015/16 - 2019/20) planned to evaluate the existing policy and to improve the quality assurance of teacher education institutions. Establishing a center of excellence in teacher education colleges and three universities was also a major activity indicated on the document. ESDP V says that regular quality inspection services will be provided in the College of Teacher Educations (CTEs). The document further planned the percentage of accredited CTEs to reach 100% (all the 36 CTEs at the beginning year of the plan) (MoE, 2015).

The 2007 teacher education blueprint has set some physical facilities including a library and a pedagogical center as a standard for accreditation. One of the standards for the physical facilities of ECCE teacher training was the availability of adequate land to establish a model kindergarten or ECCE center. According to this policy document, ECCE teacher training institutions shall have model preschools for practical training (MoE, 2007). In a similar sense, the document analysis on ESDP V has shown that all CTEs will be provided with an adequate number of school-level teaching and learning resources to ensure that teacher trainees are, as much as possible, exposed to the materials that they will use in the classroom. The sector development program in line with this planned to establish a Center for Educational Information Communication Technology (CEICT) under the responsibility of the Curriculum Development Institute's responsibility to produce digital learning materials (MoE, 2015).

### *iii) Licensing of Teacher Educators*

The document analysis revealed little information as regards the licensing of teacher educators. The 2007 national teacher training blueprint did not show equal concern on ECCE teacher educators as it did for subsequent levels of teacher educators. The sole information the document provided was that teacher educators have to be at least first degree holders per their subject matter to be taught (MoE, 2007).

The 2010 National Policy Framework for ECCE illustrated generally that the ministry of education is responsible to certify teacher educators (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). The 2016 Implementation Guideline for Teachers and Education Leaders Licensing and Renewal defines the term *teacher* ranging from ECCE teacher to teacher

educators of training institutions (Ministry of education [MoE], 2016). Hence, all the standards and procedures of this implementation guideline also work for teacher educators. It can be simply drawn from this policy document that teacher educators are included in the licensing system. ESDP V on the other hand affirmed the lack of professional teacher educators (MoE, 2015).

#### **6.1.3.4. Certification of Trainee Teachers**

Notwithstanding the unclear and generalized policy direction of the 1994 ETP (MoE, 1994) on teacher certification, the 2007 teacher education blueprint can be seen initial policy lever for the current national teacher certification system. According to this document, the licensing policy intends to standardize the teaching profession thereby ensure the quality of novice and experienced teachers. Novice teachers who completed pre-service teacher education and obtained a diploma from the training institution shall take an examination for certification and obtain at least 50% to be illegible for teaching. This policy asserted that training institutions are also responsible for teachers licensing (MoE, 2007). Contrary to this, the 2016 Teachers' and Education Leaders' Licensing and Renewal Implementation Guideline introduced that the licensing system will be implemented by the ministry of education in collaboration with regional education bureaus. The document also affirmed that novice teachers have to take a written exam and shall score 70% and above to be licensed (MoE, 2016).

The 2010 National ECCE Policy Framework mentioned lack of a standardized method or national guideline for evaluation of teacher competence upon completion of the teacher training. The Policy demonstrates that the ministry of education is responsible

to certify initial teacher trainees (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). As to the 2010 ECCE National Strategic Operational Plan and Guideline, teachers shall have certain qualities at which knowledge and skills on holistic child development is one of the standards (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010b). Nevertheless, ESDP V right after five years of the enactment of the national ECCE policy stated that there is no standardized method or national guideline to evaluate teachers' competence upon their completion of training. The policy document, on the other hand, identified the practice of region-specific teacher certification approaches and its negative impact on the consistency of knowledge and skills among new teachers (MoE, 2015).

The licensing system prior to ESDP V provides assessments of the competency of primary and secondary school teachers through both written tests and on-the-job assessments. This was intended to be changed during ESDP V (2015/16 - 2019/20) and ECCE teachers were included in the licensing system. The licensing system is expected to ensure the quality of novice teachers' knowledge and skills acquired during the initial training and how these are applied in the teaching-learning process (MoE, 20015).

#### **6.1.4. Challenges**

The policy documents have stated challenges that could impact the quality assurance of the initial teacher training. Table 6.1 summarizes the challenges mentioned in ESDP V and ECCE Policy into three categories.

Table 6.1: Challenges as stated in ESDP V and ECCE Policy

No.	Recruitment related	Preparation related	Certification related
1	Low salary	Lack of proper training	Absence of certification
2	High staff turnover	Lack of standard curriculum	
3		Absence of quality assurance	
4		Insufficient pedagogical skills among teacher educators	
5		Inconsistent knowledge among teacher educators	

Source: MoE, MoWA, MoH, (2010a) and MoE (2015)

Taking ECCE issues as a secondary task was another challenge mentioned in the 2010 ECCE Policy. According to ESDP V, traditional approaches due to inadequate skill was not only associated with teachers but with teacher educators as well. One pressing challenge mentioned in ESDP V was the problematic nature of the "O" class modality that directly affects the quality of ECCE and its initial teacher training.

## 6.2. Findings from the Interview

### 6.2.1. Reflections on Quality Issues

The interview with the research participants has come out with convergent views on the impact of quality ECCE and quality teacher education. Their reflections realized that the quality of ECCE and its teacher education is not a matter of choice but a



necessity. "Mekides" views the prominence of quality ECCE for any nation regardless of the status of its development. Her conviction is that quality ECCE and quality teacher education are essentially important. In line with this, one major concern she raised was the public/private dilemma on quality ECCE. She asserted that the government has to prioritize quality ECCE and quality teacher education in both public and private institutions. She strongly criticized the exclusive application of quality standards on private ECCE centers at which she thought against the policy and stated; *'our policy and practice on quality ECCE is not as it is written on the document. Despite a policy for all programs, the practice has been practically overlooked quality assurance of government ECCE centers'*. She further noted that how this has an impact on the quality assurance of teacher education because at least the ECCE curriculum and the teacher training curriculum are expected to be aligned.

Investing in ECCE was found to be a prime concern of the interviewees. The research participants illustrated the need for national investment in ECCE and its impact. The informants demonstrated the impact of ECCE quality across education levels and asserted how investment in ECCE could save the education crisis. "Belaynesh", for instance, described an education system that overlooks ECCE and focuses on the rest of education levels as tantamount to *'a house cemented on sand that could easily be demolished while the windstorm comes'*. Along this side, some of the participants raised practical local evidence. The following account illustrates this.

*Our government shall adequately invest in ECCE. Change will not come unless the government invests in ECCE. We paid for our ignorance. Eighty-five % of our people had no access to ECCE and children were entering without access to*

*ECCE and preparation for schooling. Consequently, these children were found unable to read while they completed grade four. Missing 5 million children because of the absence of ECCE opportunities is an enormous lost. On the other hand, the four years of investment for these children could have been more than enough to enroll them in ECCE. ("Meseret", January 10, 2019)*

"Getachew" declared the huge importance of quality teacher education for quality ECCE. He suggested that the government shall prioritize investment in quality teacher education among other things that could potentially enhance the quality of ECCE. To his conviction, the teaching profession starting from ECCE shall come to the level of a choice and the government has to work on the quality of teacher education if the change is really in need. The informant questions; *'Who else is going to respect a profession disrespected by the government?'*

A bit differently, "Tesfaye" conceptualizes ECCE as the bedrock for human development and compares the current and the decade before concerns of the government on ECCE undertakings. He believes that there is a relative change within the last decade however the subsector is still suffering from insufficient investment. He noted the current trials to consider ECCE in the quality improvement program. He was also confident with the appropriateness of the policy context denoting the 2010 national policy framework and the implementation guideline for ECCE.

Signifying ECCE as a relatively overlooked subsector, "Megerssa" introduced the national standard in line with the quality of teachers. In a similar sense, "Mekides" showed the implication of the program quality standards with teacher education. She

said; *'one of the standards for accreditation of ECCE centers is related to professionals. It says any ECCE center has to have trained teachers and school administrators'*.

Three major activities have to be made to ensure the quality of ECCE centers as the interview with "Mekides" reveals. The first activity is inspection at which ECCE centers are inspected while the other activity is the accreditation of the centers as per the national standard. Doing research-based assessment is the third and final activity in the course of quality assurance. Nonetheless, as mentioned by the official, this activity is not yet practical on ECCE.

The interview showed variation in quality assurance practice within the existing ECCE programs. According to "Mekides", both public (government) and private ECCE centers have been inspected. However, the informant realized that "O" classes have not been inspected and government ECCE centers are inspected solely for inspection purposes, not for accreditation. She also uncovered that those kindergartens under the ownership of the community pass through accreditation but they are below the standard and they will not be closed because of the government's concern on access.

### **6.2.2. Reflections on ECCE Curricular Issues**

According to the research participants, the existing 2009 ECCE syllabus is a contested and irrelevant curricular framework that needs at least improvement and at most change. The 2009 syllabus was found to be of poor quality for "Mekides". She argued that there is a clear mismatch between the existing ECCE programs and the curriculum. The 2009 syllabus is inappropriate for her and she wishes to have a

standardized comprehensive curriculum that encompasses all kinds of ECCE modalities. Other research participants stated the following along this point.

*As I mentioned before, the government had almost no concern on ECCE. But when the pressure comes, it was decided to have an ECCE curriculum. The syllabus was prepared in this sense; it was not as such prepared by ECCE professionals but committed experts. I know it had to be improved or changed. You can imagine what will happen when this syllabus goes to regions. It remains distorted for different reasons. (Getachew, January 15, 2019)*

As said by some of the participants, a new curriculum has been prepared for the “O” class in collaboration with other stakeholders. It was prepared in the form of booklets on the principles of play-based ECCE. It has been translated into 42 local languages and piloted at sample ECCE centers. It was also planned to be implemented in the 2018/19 academic year. Nevertheless, the interview with two of the research participants revealed that the existing curriculum (the 2009 syllabus) will not be revised in the near future and comprehensive ECCE curriculum development will be seen within the national general education curriculum reform. Regarding this, "Tesfaye" reiterated that they developed the new curriculum to transform “O” classes into formal ECCE programs called kindergartens. As to him, children aged 4 to 5 are also enrolled in the “O” class and this indicates the community’s interest and the predisposition of “O” classes to evolve into kindergartens that accommodate children aged 4 - 6. However, he declared that “O” class children should be of the same age.

The interview also showed how private ECCE centers are following a fragmented foreign-based curriculum and its adverse consequence hampered the national elementary school curriculum. As said by "Getachew", children who learned with private ECCE centers often are confused when they join grade one and start learning with the government curriculum. Among other problems, for instance, he mentioned that it is down warding for them while they come into alphabet learning that they did it before three years; and they consequently will be bored and hate schooling. In a similar vein, "Tesfaye" complained about the imported curricula of private kindergartens. He also mentioned that they have prepared so far curriculum frameworks for the three modalities (kindergarten, "O" class and accelerated school readiness) despite their limitations. He further noted that the recent "O" class curricular materials were prepared based on the best practices of the materials for the accelerated school readiness programs.

Alongside this, the interview with participants from Kotebe Metropolitan University ascertained awareness gaps in national policy frameworks including the 2009 Syllabus for ECCE. The interviewees were honest to declare that they are lagging to know existing ECCE policy frameworks and all ECCE program modalities.

### **6.2.3. Reflections on Quality Assurance Arrangements**

#### **6.2.3.1. Teacher Recruitment and Selection**

The interview made with "Ali", "Hagos" "Meseret" and "Mekides" demonstrated major intertwined characteristics of the entrants that have implications for recruitment and selection policy. To begin with the availability of the recruitment and selection policy, none of the research participants have awareness whether there is a policy or not.

However, they uncovered that the entry point for the selection of ECCE trainees is the least of all the cut points required for professional training. According to the interviewees, this was a big national problem that made teaching a low-status profession.

As mentioned by some of the research participants, a major problem pertaining to the entrants was that the entrants are failures to join a preparatory school for higher education. The other problem is they had their prior interest to join Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges of which they failed. It can be imagined what kind of entrants they would be while they come to join ECCE teacher training. It has to be noted here that they failed twice. In this respect, "Meseret" said; *'these trainees are graduates of high school (grade 10) who failed to enter preparatory school for higher education. They often come to be a teacher without their interest after their search and failure on TVET opportunities'*. In a similar vein, "Ali" reported that these entrants joined the training with the least results. He affirmed; *'they are failures from joining to TVET colleges. They also failed to be trained for elementary teacher training. They only join this training to get the diploma'*.

The interview has shown that the entrants, consequently, will be uninterested and demotivated trainees. They appeared also to be the least performers and gradually develop a bad attitude toward the profession as findings with "Ali" and "Hagos" revealed.

### **6.2.3.2. The Training Curriculum**

The interview with the research participants clearly has shown a lack of proper national ECCE teacher education curriculum for initial training despite existing rough course descriptions. Again, this course description sent from the ministry of education to

Kotebe Metropolitan University (KMU) ECCE teachers training department was found to be adapted. "Ali" in this respect affirmed that there is no relevant ECCE teacher training curriculum. He said; *the teacher training 'curriculum' needs to be critically improved; the ministry of education just sent us rough course descriptions and we tried to modify and shape it.*

On the other hand, "Meseret" reported that teacher education curriculum harmonization is planned for "O" class in line with the play-based approach the fact that it is still lagging. She also mentioned that they finished the training framework for "O" class teachers in order to develop the curriculum. Nothing was said on such initiatives from KMU research participants, however. Participants from KMU alongside this were not in a position to know ECCE policies including the "O" class modality.

Finding a responsible department for the preparation of teacher training curriculum appeared to be a bit difficult. The policy documents, as mentioned earlier, demonstrated that the ministry of education is responsible for teacher training including curriculum development. An informant from the curriculum preparation and implementation directorate also mentioned the directorate has carried out lots of activities however teacher education curriculum preparation is not its responsibility. Further, the directorate for teachers and education leaders' development seems responsible but no clear say in this regard.

According to "Getachew" and "Tesfaye", the directorate for curriculum preparation and implementation did two things; one is to make the formal training continued within the 10+3 curriculum; the other is to train selected teachers on the new

booklets for the “O” class modality. What this directorate together with other relevant directorates did was to train students who completed grade ten within a short period of training. They also know that this will not be enough and accordingly the directorate prepared in-depth activities that the teacher will do for two months. The directorate also trained key trainers for all regions but uncertain to what extent the training will be cascaded. Nevertheless, the research participants were honest to tell that the attempt to train in a diploma (10+3) was abortive against the fifth education sector development program.

Personally, "Getachew" does not recommend the three years diploma training program for ECCE initial teacher education. He believes that one-year training is enough which is against other informants who appreciated the start toward the upgrading of ECCE teacher training from certificate to diploma level. "Getachew", in contrast, was confident that a grade ten graduate is capable enough to care for and teach childhoods in one-year of training. He stated; *'a grade ten graduate knows the basics of literacy, numeracy and science. What he only needs is to be trained with the methodology and child development; and one year is enough for all this'*.

A major point of consensus on which the research participants agreed upon was the absence of alignment between the ECCE curriculum and the teacher training curriculum. Assessing such an alignment might be trivial without clear comprehensive curricula. Nevertheless, at least the 2009 ECCE Syllabus and the teacher training course description are existent. Accordingly, "Meseret" emphasized that she could not see alignment between the child curriculum and the teacher education curriculum while "Getachew" firmly asserted the absence of alignment. Along with this point, "Ali" has no



idea whether the teacher education curriculum is aligned with the child curriculum. What he only mentioned was the 'curriculum' they are using came from the ministry of education and they modified it as they believe it was not well prepared.

Some of the informants underscored that thinking alignment between the teacher training and the national ECCE programs is much deceptive. According to them, this is because there are very few teachers teaching in “O” classes who are trained with the new curriculum. If not, as they mentioned, the majority of teachers in “O” classes are grade ten graduates employed by the community and some primary school teachers who have no orientation on ECCE.

#### **6.2.3.3. Accreditation of ECCE Teachers Training Institutions**

According to "Belaynesh", the number of College of Teacher Education (CTE) has reached thirty-six and all these colleges have thirty-six different approaches of training. As to the informant, the directorate for teachers and education leaders licensing and renewal has given an authority to accredit the colleges. It developed standards and inspected some of these colleges. There was a significant difference within the colleges; they are different in resource, facilities, and teachers' approach. However, the directorate solely made quality audit and so far no college is accredited or reaccredited.

In line with this, "Belaynesh" also commented on the setup of ECCE training colleges and suggested that the ECCE setting shall be in a separate compound and well equipped. As she stated, the teachers are training like primary teachers are trained. The official suggested that they have to be trained like children such as they have to play with outdoor playground slides. Likewise, "Ali" uncovered that initial ECCE trainees at KMU

have been training in old high school classrooms with their old blackboards and poor resources and facilities.

One major finding obtained from the interview was confusion due to complicated responsibilities. One of the informants mentioned the following.

*The current Kotebe Metropolitan University (KMU) and the then Kotebe Teachers Training College was accountable for the city government education bureau, but now for the municipality. The General Education Relevance and Quality Assurance Agency of the Addis Ababa City Government is concerned with general education quality assurance and KMU is also responsible for general education teachers training. Accordingly, the Agency has to take the responsibility of accreditation of the training institutions. We assigned an expert for the training college but we are not inspecting it because we do not have inspection tool; and the tool has to come from the ministry of education.*  
("Mekides", July 4, 2019)

"Belaynesh" argued that the responsibility shall not be given for teachers and education leaders licensing and renewal directorate. The informant also justified why the directorate solely made a quality audit and no single college is accredited or reaccredited so far. Her narration is presented hereunder.

*The entire responsibility of this directorate is licensing teachers, principals and supervisors. It requested the ministry whether quality assurance of teacher training colleges is its mandate or not. On the other hand, the directorate for general education inspection has the mandate to inspect the colleges but not to*

*prepare standards. The ministry decided to study this issue in consultation with foreign expats but not yet finished. Accordingly, the ministry gave the responsibility for teachers and education leaders licensing and renewal directorate until the study is finished. Because of this confusion, the directorate is unable to start accreditation of the colleges. ("Belaynesh", January 8, 2019)*

The absence of private ECCE teacher training institutions and the ignorance to train teachers for private ECCE centers was another overarching point raised by the informants. For instance, "Mekides" criticized KMU for its sole responsibility of teacher training for Addis Ababa government ECCE centers. It seems, nonetheless, KMU is not in a position even to meet the need of the municipality. "Ali" similarly reported that KMU is training teachers exclusively for government ECCE centers and its failure to meet the demand. "Mekides" also showed the paradox between this ignorance and the mere implementation of quality assurance standards on private ECCE centers. Her concern was well supported by one of the informants saying; *'we have to meet also the need of the private sector; we have to train teachers for the private ECCE centers. Otherwise, we cannot supervise them based on the standard that requires trained teachers'*. ("Getachew", January, 15, 2019)

Concern has also emerged among the informants as regards to the commitment of regional education bureaus to execute the quality assurance activities for the betterment of the respective teacher training institutions. "Meseret" has raised her worry and said; *'regional education bureaus are main stakes for quality assurance of training institutions in which teacher training colleges are governed; we are not implementers to ensure quality teacher education, but I remain doubtful on their commitment'*. However, the

informant and some others considered Kotebe Teacher Training College, now KMU, as a model teacher training college for its long and better experience contrary to a few of the research participants. "Hagos", in this respect, declares that KMU has to be at least in a better position with minimum resource and training facilities to be benchmarked.

#### **6.2.3.4. Licensing of Teacher Educators**

The interview with "Meseret" affirmed that there is no assessment and licensing for teacher educators. On the other hand, "Getachew" declared that there are no trained teacher educators in ECCE and quality assurance remains worthless in the absence of such professionals. This was also strengthened by the informants from KMU. "Hagos" was skeptical to view KMU as the best of teacher training college because of the absence of trained teacher educators in ECCE. His premise emerged from the nature of ECCE and pedagogy. The following account was taken from his narration.

*To some degree, yes, Kotebe Teachers Training College under KMU is better from other nationwide colleges. But none of the teacher educators are ECCE professionals. A teacher educator shall have sufficient awareness on the features of ECCE so as to impart proper training for the trainees. A teacher educator has to know all aspects of 'care' and 'education' in ECCE. In addition to this, none of the teacher educators are certified. ("Hagos", April, 8, 2019).*

#### **6.2.3.5. Certification of ECCE Trainees**

The interview revealed that the directorate for teachers and education leaders licensing and renewal is responsible for teachers' certification right after completion of initial training. Nonetheless, this directorate is not yet assessing and licensing ECCE

teachers. "Belaynesh" gave two challenges for this to happen. One reason was the absence of a clear and relevant teacher training curriculum whereas the prevalence of varied ECCE modalities (kindergarten, "O" class, child to child and accelerated school readiness) is another challenge. The informant politely illustrated her dismay with the ministry. She said; *'the ministry often responds to us in a way that we have to be patient awaiting corrective measures to be taken in the future. We believe assessing and licensing ECCE teachers could potentially enhance quality but we do not know when we will start'*.

In line with this, "Mekides" was asked whether they are involved with teacher quality assurance or not and mentioned that they are not mandated for the quality assurance of teachers. But they inspect ECCE centers in relation to qualified teachers and other personnel as per the standard and make an assessment based on the findings of the inspection. According to her, the Addis Ababa City Government Agency for General Education Quality Assurance and Relevance so far merely identified problems related to the ECCE teacher training during the inspection of ECCE centers and provided its feedback to the education bureau.

#### **6.2.4. Challenges**

As per the Ethiopian interviewees, four major challenges attributable to the quality of initial teacher education were identified. They are presented hereunder.

##### **6.2.4.1. Still a Neglected Subsector**

The interview has shown that this challenge seems the biggest from which the rest might have been emanated. "Getachew" tried to substantiate the long-standing negligence

toward ECCE. As to him, he has been in the education sector for the last three decades. He participated in the preparation of the 1994 Education and Training Policy (ETP) and recalled the policy debate on ECCE. For him, the political decision that leaves ECCE predominantly for the private sector has brought persistent neglect. He picked three major points at which he believes the government had overlooked in its decision. On one hand, the government rejected the great majority of childhoods who reside in rural areas. On the other hand, he underlined that the private sector is unlikely to serve the rural community of the country for it is entirely profit maker. Another strong critic "Getachew" raised on the then decision was the resolution concerning the privatization of teacher education. He said; *'the government could at least take the teacher training part. In those days, all the training institutions were under the private sector; we had to pay for all these and subsequently; we paid'*.

"Haile" relates the negligence with deprivation of policy for the subsector. Those years prior to 2010 for him were said to be the "Dark Age" of ECCE. He thinks that time was a notable season to see how ECCE was marginalized from the national policy, strategic and sector development programs. By the same token, "Meseret" affirmed that ECCE was a neglected subsector since the task was completely given to the private sector. She recognized the development of the 2010 ECCE Policy Framework and appreciated the effort made in particular on establishing different ECCE programs the fact that she does not think *child-to-child* modality is a workable and relevant platform. However, she said; *'Still, we are lagging as we started very late. We need also a clear policy framework on ECCE teacher education. I think the new ECCE policy missed this opportunity'*.

Regarding the power of privatization on teacher education, the negligence seems to be evolved opposite direction through time with what "Getachew" mentioned. The report from "Mekides" can be taken as one of such manifestations. She demonstrated that the private ECCE sector is discriminated from the teacher education system. According to her, 75% of pre-school education ownership in the capital goes to the private sector and more than 80% of the teachers in private ECCE centers are not trained, however. A similar concern has been raised by other participants of the study. It was argued that ECCE yet did not receive proper attention and some of the research participants seem optimistic on the upcoming policy reform to see improvements in the quality of ECCE and its teacher education.

#### **6.2.4.2. Poor Teacher Education Policy**

Some of the informants speculated the challenge at a policy level. They believe that there is no proper national teacher education policy at the moment. They declared that there is no relevant teacher education policy producing good training institutions, qualified teacher educators, and teacher trainees. The following account shows how the challenge has policy-related features.

*I do not think we have a proper teacher training system. We cannot say we have "X" college or university that provides good teacher training. One reason is that we do not have trained teacher educators. A mechanic in chief goes to a garage and teaches a novice mechanic how to operate an engine to make his trainee a mechanic. So does a teacher educator get into ECCE centers with his/her trainees and teaches them to make a teacher. Nevertheless, in our case, a*

*teacher educator may know ECCE centers once in his/her childhoods. A person who doesn't know a place may teach the other person how to leave and behave in that particular place. But this does not work in professional training. I do not think we are in a position to train teachers with a clear teacher education policy.*

("Getachew", January 15, 2019)

In line with this point, the above informant uncovered that the teacher training institutions have no their own ECCE centers for practice. He said; *'the global experience shows that it is common to have schools within teacher education institutions to make the learning teaching practical'*. As to his experience, once he and his colleagues were visiting some Asian countries including Korea, Japan, and Cambodia for experience sharing. He observed there was a school in certain teacher training colleges. He often remembers a Japanese professor and teacher educator teaching primary school children behaving like the children in front of his trainees. Right after his visit, the informant shared better experiences and advised all teacher education institutions and some universities to have such schools. However, none of the teacher training institutions make it practical and only one university opened school. Unfortunately, the university made that school for the children of its staff.

Another policy challenge commonly raised by the interviewees was the lack of a proper curricular framework for both the child and teacher education curriculum. The informants were certain that the curriculum frameworks have serious problems. "Getachew" commented that both the ECCE program curriculum (the 2009 syllabus) and the training curriculum missed major learning outcomes such as diversity, innovativeness, inclusiveness, and national pride. Similarly, "Mekides" strongly criticized



the appropriateness of the 2009 syllabus for ECCE. "Meseret" also indicated that the training system focuses on knowledge and concept. She added that there are no specialized national training colleges. The informant further suggested a policy that suits child needs, environment, interaction, and development. She strongly believes that all the challenges have been emanated from the existing training policy. In particular, she underlined that lack of proper standards contributed much to the challenge.

#### **6.2.4.3. Disintegration between National and Sub-national Authorities**

Many of the participants addressed power disintegration between the federal education ministry and regional education bureaus. However, their reflection appears to be outward-looking. They are uncertain about regional education bureaus' commitment. They informed that the federal ministry of education has no mandate or role to execute i.e. to implement the curriculum. "Getachew," said; *'I doubt the performance of regions. The federal ministry of education seems to have no power to monitor and evaluate the education sector. There is a persistent challenge between the regional education bureau reports and reality'*.

#### **6.2.4.4. Lack of Synergy among Institutions**

The interview showed that there is no collaboration among the directorates that are relevant in one or another way for ECCE teacher education. The synergy in the eyes of some participants was very much fragmented. "Getachew" uncovered that the directorates are not working in collaboration and they often sit together when an unexpected incident happens and while an order comes from higher officials. In the same way, "Belaynesh" acknowledged the prevalence of poor coordination among the

directorates while "Meseret" expressed her unhappiness with the situation. As one of the way outs, the suggestion made by one participant is presented as follows.

*If you go to India, you will find assessment, curriculum and teacher education in one department. Previously, ours was almost like this but the then minister disintegrated the structure. I strongly believe that was the right one. I want to know the result of our national examinations agency so that I can analyze the pattern of the results that could imply to our curriculum. Fortunately, now, there is a strong need to restore the previous structure. (Getachew, January 15, 2018)*

The sample teacher trainees from KMU on their part demonstrated challenges during their initial training. Much of the challenges consistently associate with their teacher educators. Misconduct, misunderstanding and disrespect were some of the challenges against the professional ethics of the teacher educators. Nearly half of the research participants (47.5%) declared the prevalence of poor assessment practices and nontransparent grading. These respondents also have shown that many of their teachers were not in a position to follow relevant teaching approaches. Lack of resources and facilities, lack of proper and timely information from the administration and disrespect from the university community were other challenges mentioned.

### 6.3. Findings from the Quantitative Data

#### 6.3.1. Introduction to the National ECCE Policy, Program and Curriculum

Table 6.2: *Participants' response on Introduction to ECCE Policy, Program and Curriculum*

No.	Variable		Yes	No	Total
1	Introduction to ECCE policy	Count	18	73	91
		%	19.78	80.12	100
2	Introduction to ECCE programs	Count	11	80	91
		%	12.08	87.91	100
3	Introduction to ECCE curriculum	Count	16	75	91
		%	17.58	82.41	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

This table illustrates participants' responses to the introduction to the national ECCE policy, program, and curriculum. The result from this table shows the great majority (73=80%) of the trainees have not been introduced to the national ECCE policies (Refer Annex 5 for Numerical Phrases for some Percentage Values). It can be drawn from this finding that the national ECCE policy might have not been aligned with the initial teacher preparation. In line with the respondents who declared to know the policy (18=20%), the response to the open-ended item confirmed that only 5(6%) of them mentioned the name of the national ECCE policy. This might enhance the disconnection between macro-level policy and teacher education institutions.

Nearly, 90% of those surveyed had no awareness of the national ECCE programs. The rest (11=12.5%) were able to specify only a single program called "Kindergarten" despite their positive response. No respondent has mentioned either of the national ECCE programs such as kindergarten, 'O' class, child to child and accelerated school readiness. In particular, the respondents were expected to be familiar with the 'O' class program for it exists in public primary schools of the Addis Ababa City Government. More than plentiful respondents (75=82.5%) also declared that they were not introduced to the 2009 national ECCE curriculum or syllabus.

### 6.3.2. Selection Policy of the Entrants

Table 6.3: *Participants' response to other Entry Requirements*

No.	Variable		Yes	No	Total
1	Other entry requirements	Count	78	13	91
		%	85.71	14.28	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Participants' open-ended response to item 11 has illustrated that a 2.0 score of high school leaving national exam as a selection criterion to enter the initial teacher training. As shown in Table 6.3, the great majority, 78(86%), have declared that there were other entry requirements. Entrance exam with an average pass mark (above 50%), interview and an assessment of physical appearance were other entry requirements specified by the participants.

### 6.3.3. Curriculum and Pedagogical Issues

Table 6.4: *Participants' ratings on Curricular and Pedagogical issues*

Variable		Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Poor	Total
Training curriculum	Count	0	7	52	30	2	91
	%	0	7.69	57.14	32.96	2.19	100
Teaching methodology	Count	0	0	41	36	14	91
	%	0	0	45.05	39.56	15.38	100
Assessment technique	Count	0	0	20	46	25	91
	%	0	0	21.97	50.54	27.47	100
Practicum or practical courses	Count	0	2	62	20	7	91
	%	0	2.19	68.13	21.97	7.69	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 6.4 presents participants' ratings on curricular and pedagogical issues. A majority, 52(57.5%), viewed the initial training curriculum as of a moderate quality whereas a minority, 30(32.5%), rated it as of a low quality. The training curriculum was only of high quality for the small minority 7(7.5%). From this finding, at least, it can be said that the large majority had no great interest in the training curriculum. The Mean score (2.70), which can be interpreted as moderate, consolidated this descriptive result (See Annex 3 that indicates the mean score interpretation for five points scale).

Teacher educators' teaching methodology appeared to be of poor 14(15%) and low 36(40%) quality for the small majority 50(55%) while it was moderate for the

significant minority 41(45%). The mean score for this particular item was found to be low (2.30). The descriptive analysis shows that the teaching approach was not attractive for the research participants. Hence, as per this result, the teacher educators might have a pedagogical gap to prepare the initial teacher trainees.

As can be seen from the table, nearly the large majority (77.5%), considered the assessment technique of their teachers; of a poor (27.5%) and a low (50%) quality respectively. A bit differently, just over a small minority (22.5%) were moderately satisfied with their teachers' assessment techniques. This finding shows that the participants had greater dissatisfaction with the assessment technique than the teaching methodology of their teachers. The descriptive statistics (Mean score= 1.95) has also strengthened this result.

Table 6.4 has shown that less than a tiny minority (2.5%) had high satisfaction with the practical courses. It also demonstrated that the majority of those surveyed (67.5%) were moderately satisfied with the practicum whereas the rest minority (30%) had poor (7.5%) and low (22.5%) satisfaction correspondingly. Albeit to the growing dissatisfaction of the research participants on pedagogical issues, a relatively improved satisfaction appeared with the practicum or practical courses. The mean score for the participants' ratings on the practical courses also demonstrated moderate satisfaction (2.65).

### 6.3.4. Professional Issues

Table 6.5: *Participants' ratings on Professional issues of Teacher Educators*

Variable		Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Poor	Total
Subject matter knowledge	Count	0	2	36	48	5	91
	%	0	2.19	39.56	52.74	5.49	100
Professional skill	Count	0	0	34	46	11	91
	%	0	0	37.36	50.54	12.08	100
Professional ethics	Count	0	0	7	34	50	91
	%	0	0	7.69	37.36	54.94	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 6.5 shows the research participants' ratings on professional issues of teacher educators. The tiny minority (5%) and the small majority (52.5%) rated the subject matter knowledge of their teacher educators poor and low respectively. A significant minority (40%) also affirmed that their teachers have moderate subject matter knowledge. It can be deduced from these results that the participants do not believe their teachers have acquired the necessary knowledge on ECCE initial teacher training. In a similar sense, one can draw from these findings that teacher educators tend to have insufficient subject matter knowledge. The low descriptive statistics (Mean score= 2.40) can be another evidence enhancing the results.

The teacher educators' professional skill appears to be almost statistically similar to that of their subject matter knowledge. The participants' ratings, (12.5%), (50%) and

(37.5%) asserted that the teacher educators have respectively poor, low and moderate professional skills. These ratings may show how teacher educators are challenged to be professionally skillful. This was evident with the descriptive analysis (Mean score= 2.25).

As indicated in table 6.5, the small majority (55%) and nearly the significant minority (37.5%) rated the professional ethics of their teachers as poor and low respectively. Only (7.5%) of the participants, the tiny minority, rated that their teachers have moderate professional skills. The professional ethics of the teacher educators, as rated by the participants, was found to be the poorest of all professional competencies. The mean score for this item was also of a low extent (1.53). Possibly, it can be inferred from this finding that the teacher educators may lack a positive attitude toward their students.

Table 6.6: *Participants rating on their Professional Competence*

Variable		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Interest on the profession	Count	0	20	18	39	14	91
	%	0	21.97	19.78	42.85	15.38	100
Necessary knowledge on ECCE	Count	7	10	30	29	15	91
	%	7.69	10.98	32.96	31.86	16.48	100
Necessary skill on ECCE	Count	9	5	34	43	0	91
	%	9.89	5.49	37.36	47.25	0	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019



Table 6.6 presents participants' ratings on their professional competence. The minority (22.5%) agreed that they have an interest in their profession. Nearly other minority (20%) remained neutral while the majority (57.5%) rated that they have no interest in their profession to a varied extent. The descriptive statistics (Mean score=2.50) shows that the participants' interest in their profession was low. For this reason, the majority of the participants might have joined the training to comply with their need for employment.

The majority of the participants (57.5%) did not think that they have acquired the necessary knowledge while 32.5% of the participants were neutral. The rest of the participants (19%) have agreed that they have acquired the necessary knowledge to a varied extent. The Mean score (2.53) also has shown a low extent of the participants' satisfaction.

As illustrated in the table, a small portion of the participants (15%) found to have the necessary skill on ECCE. However, a substantial minority (47.5) did not believe that they have the necessary professional skill. This finding appears to be somehow different from that of the participants' response on their necessary knowledge acquisition. The former result (90%) approximately doubles this figure although the greatest number of a neutral minority group (37.5%) was observed with the latter category. The descriptive statistics (Mean score=2.38) for this item also revealed a relative betterment.

### 6.3.5. Service Satisfaction

Table 6.7: *Participants' satisfaction with some Facilities and Resources*

Variable		Highly Satisfied	Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Unsatisfied	Highly Unsatisfied	Total
Library	Count	0	9	46	33	2	90
	%	0	9.89	50.54	36.26	2.19	100
In-door materials	Count	0	0	4	32	55	91
	%	0	0	4.39	35.16	60.43	100
Out-door materials	Count	0	0	2	39	50	91
	%	0	0	2.19	42.85	54.94	100
Workshop	Count	0	0	2	48	41	91
	%	0	0	2.19	52.74	45.01	100

Source: Survey data, 2019

Table 6.7 demonstrates participants' satisfaction with some facilities and resources. It is apparent from this table that the small minority (9=10.3%) were satisfied with the library service while just over half of the participants (46=51.3%) were moderately satisfied. The minority (35=38.5%) were also unsatisfied while (2.6%) and (35.9%) rated highly unsatisfactory and unsatisfactory respectively. These findings and the mean score result (2.69) revealed that more than half of the research participants were moderately satisfied with the library service.

As can be seen from the table, all the participants (95%) were unsatisfied with the in-door teaching-learning materials of which some (60%) had the highest dissatisfaction. Only a tiny minority (5%) were moderately satisfied with the materials. A low extent mean score (1.45) was found from the descriptive statistics. Taking all these findings into account, it seems the university has little or no in-door teaching-learning facilities. It also appears that the initial training was not supported by the notion of active learning.

The participants' dissatisfaction with the outdoor teaching-learning facilities was found to be similar to that of the in-door materials. Except for 1(2.5%) participant, the rest (97.5) were dissatisfied with the out-door materials of which (55%) had greatly dissatisfied. The mean score was also regarded as a low extent despite a slight difference. It does not look that the university has an out-door playing field and materials with which the trainees could practice.

If not a slight difference in the extent of their dissatisfaction, a similar portion of the participants have shown their displeasure on workshop facilities. This was evident with the descriptive statistics (Mean score=1.57). What is interesting from Table 6.6 is that Kotebe Metropolitan University (KMU) has little or no in-door, out-door and workshop facilities while it has a relatively moderately satisfying library.

Table 6.8: *Participants' satisfaction with Departmental and Administrative Services*

Variable		Highly Satisfied	Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Unsatisfied	Highly Unsatisfied	Total
Departmental services	Count	0	0	14	54	23	91
	%	0	0	15.38	59.34	25.27	100
Administrative	Count	0	0	11	50	30	91

services	%	0	0	12.08	54.94	32.96	100
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Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 6.8 illustrates participants' satisfaction with departmental and administrative services. As seen from the table, there was no significant difference in the participants' satisfaction rate with departmental and administrative services. The tiny minority (15% and 12.5%), the majority (60% and 55%) and the significant minority (25% and 32.5%) have rated moderate, unsatisfactory and highly unsatisfactory correspondingly. The mean score for departmental service satisfaction was 1.90 whereas it was 1.80 for administrative service satisfaction. It appears that the participants were significantly unhappy with departmental and administrative services.

#### 6.5.6. Certification

Table 6.9: *Participants' response on certification/licensing/registration*

No.	Variable		Yes	No	Total
1	Certification/Licensing/Registration	Count	0	90	90
		%	0	100	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 6.9 shows whether the participants are going to be certified right after their training or not. As shown from the table, all the participants did not know that they will be certified after their graduation. It appears clear based on this finding that yet there may not be certification of ECCE novice teachers in Ethiopian teacher education.

#### **6.4. Summary**

The findings of this case study revealed that ECCE in the 1994 Education and Training Policy (ETP) lacks sufficient place. ECCE was also marginalized in ESDP I and II. The informants consistently declared how the subsector was excluded from education policies and strategies. The coming of the 2010 ECCE Policy Framework and its Implementation Guidelines marked the new era of ECCE. The research participants have also declared the impact of this policy evolution on the overall improvement of the subsector including the teacher education. The policy was prepared in a multi-sectoral approach and aligned with other national policies intending to ensure the long-standing need of the society. Hence, as revealed in this case study, Ethiopia has a young subsector policy.

The 1994 ETP announced the decentralized management of education and training the fact that this was done before the 1995 Constitution. The governance structure of ECCE was unclear before the coming of the 2010 subsector policy. The policy intended to establish a multi-sectored and decentralized management structure ranging from the ministerial level to the lowest administration unit called *Kebele*. However, ECCE within the governance structure has no organizational structure such as a unit or a department. On top of that, policymakers and implementers at the national level were not happy with decentralized power execution.

The document analysis of this case study affirmed four ECCE program modalities: kindergarten, "O" class, child to child and accelerated school readiness in

Ethiopia despite the impracticability of the child to child modality in recent times. "O" class modality conversely has been expanding across the nation. Evidence from this case study revealed growing complications and uncertainty on the practical application of the program modalities. On the other hand, concerns emerged among the research participants regarding the lack of relevant teacher education in accordance with the program modalities. The second age cohort (4 - 6+ ages), as revealed in the 2010 ECCE Policy Framework, was eligible to join ECCE the fact that there is variation in the policy documents.

Significant equal recognition of the two ECCE elements (*care* and *education*) was seen within the policy documents and research participants. Among other policy documents, the care aspect of ECCE is well illustrated in the 2010 subsector policy. Nevertheless, teachers' responsibility was unclear as regards child care. The connection between the national health packages and children in the second cohort was also vague.

One major difficulty indicated both in the policy documents and by the research participants alongside the *care* aspect of ECCE and teachers was the longstanding traditional pedagogy. According to the 2010 ECCE Policy Framework, teachers overlook the socio-emotional learning and development of children which is a typical feature of *care* in ECCE. These teachers often tend to focus on reading, writing and arithmetic. It seems that *care* is left for the parents and the community however the practice has been declined mainly in urban areas. The problem could also associate with initial teacher training. Failure to properly conceptualize the term *care* among the quantitative research participants may corroborate this.

The document analysis of this study shows the national interest toward a better quality ECCE through culturally relevant and developmentally appropriate approaches. In a similar vein, ECCE quality was not a simple matter but a necessity for the research participants. The quality teacher was also recognized within the policy documents despite some irregularities while the research participants noted the profound importance of quality teacher education for ECCE. However, quality ECCE was not part of the 2008 notable national project funded by the World Bank called the General Education Quality Improvement Program (GEQIP). This has to be possibly criticized because ECCE is part of Ethiopian general education. A recent initiative to include ECCE in this project, as indicated by one of the informants, strengthens the critics.

A very convergent finding was apparent between the document analysis and the interviewees concerning the ECCE curriculum. There was a mixed inconclusive view on the legitimacy of the 2009 ECCE Syllabus. Sometimes it exists as an existing curriculum within the policy documents while on the other hand it is consistently disregarded for its irrelevance and impracticability that was supported by the views of the interviewees. Consequently, the policy documents and the interviewees have been expecting curriculum reform. It was also mentioned similarly how the private ECCE sector has been suffering from the imported, divergent and fragmented curriculum. The case study has shown how these complications have a significant implication on the quality of ECCE initial teacher education.

A different and complicated explanation was evident in the policy documents as regards the quality assurance of ECCE programs. There was no quality assurance system as shown in the 2010 ECCE Policy Framework. Accordingly, ESDP V planned to reach

60% of ECCE programs. Nonetheless, this was unclear whether it comprises all the program modalities of ECCE. In reality, as seen from the document analysis, however, this seems planned for the single modality, kindergarten. In light of this plain, to the extent, quality assurance has been solely applied to private kindergartens as noted in this case study.

The 2017 National Standard for quality assurance of ECCE programs revealed its clear association with initial teacher training. The standard requires qualified ECCE teachers as one of the prerequisites for accreditation of ECCE programs. On the other hand, quality assurance is solely applicable in private kindergartens as discussed already. This situation was strongly criticized by some of the interviewees. To their dismay, the exclusive application of the quality assurance on the private ECCE is against the policy. They also criticize the paradox between this practice and the sole purpose of the initial training to fulfill the need for public ECCE.

The strong relationship between the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint and school improvement shows a considerable association between ECCE program quality and the teacher education quality. However, this relationship was not translated within the private sector. Currently, there are no private training providers; all are public or government-based institutions that are responsible to meet the demand of government-based ECCE programs. On the other hand, the document analysis of this case study lacks evidence on teacher demand-supply strategy. There was a plan to train 100, 000 without a clear national teacher need. This plan again was abortive as revealed from the interview of this case study. ESDP V planned to improve the distribution of teachers across the nation but it does not prove this was based on the national teacher demand-supply plan.



The 2007 National Teacher Development Blueprint sets rigorous attitudinal and moral entry requirements. Applicants with high scores in English, Mathematics, and Science subjects are privileged to join the training. On the other hand, the document states that grade ten completion is enough to join the training. This criterion was supported by the 2010 ECCE Policy Framework. The Blueprint has tried to set strong requirements to that ensure the quality of teachers entering the profession. Nevertheless, the interviewees reported that the entrants are demotivated as they are desperate because of their failure mainly to enter preparatory school for higher education and partly to join training in TVET institutions. The informants also underlined that the entrants are joining the training with the least academic result. This was statistically significant with what the sample respondents from Kotebe Metropolitan University (KMU) have specified. Much importantly, the majority of the respondents have no interest in the profession.

There appeared moral, material, and financial merit-based career arrangements in the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint. However, the blueprint lacks real inclusiveness to include ECCE teachers. The document analysis explored conflicting ideas in this regard. The findings of this case study ascertained that the career arrangement has not been applicable even in any of the teacher education levels. This might be the reason why the interviewees remain strangers for such a career arrangement.

The curricular policy directions set within the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint revealed four major categories of training courses (Academic Courses, Professional Courses, Common Courses and Practicum Courses) as per the three domains of standards (knowledge, skill and attitude). Three years later, the 2010 ECCE Policy Framework and its Implementation Guideline have shown significant interest in training

curriculum reform despite any practical change. ESDP V subsequently after five years has come up with the same reform. Nevertheless, much of these planned activities mainly preparation of curriculum policy and guidelines remained unpractical. The interviewees in line with this discovered lack of meaningful and relevant training curriculum. They also uncovered the absence of relevant organizational structure for the training curriculum preparation and how it impacts teacher education. Some of the interviewees were also confident to ascertain the absence of curricular alignment between the ECCE programs and the teacher training.

One farsightedness observed from the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint was the introduction of national education and training policies for teacher trainees as part of their preparation. Evidence from the sample teacher trainees from KMU has shown a failure to this policy intention, however. As a result, the great majority of the quantitative research participants were not introduced to the ECCE policy, ECCE program modalities and ECCE curriculum. In line with this, participants (teacher educators) from KMU were not in a position to be familiar with the subsector policies and program modalities.

The 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint indicated that initial teacher training providers will be accredited. The 2010 Policy Framework and its Implementation Guideline, however, after three years declared that there is no quality assurance mechanism to accreditate teacher training institutions and put policy directions to establish a quality assurance system for training institutions. By the same token, ESDP V after five years declared the absence of a quality assurance system and planned a strategy to certify all the 36 teacher training institutions. The interview revealed no single accredited teacher training institution, however. Along this side, much importantly, the

interview has shown a lack of a regulatory body to accreditate ECCE teacher training providers.

An interesting requirement for accreditation mentioned in the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint was physical facilities including land to establish a model kindergarten or ECCE center. However, the interview has shown a critical shortage of resources and facilities. Similarly, the great majority of the quantitative research participants from KMU were not satisfied with the resource and facilities. This gap was consistently seen both at national and institutional levels. Further, the document analysis strengthened this finding. An overarching point raised by some of the informants in conformity with the blueprint was the need for a separate setting for ECCE training.

The policy documents generally mentioned that MoE is responsible to certify teacher educators. Nevertheless, the informants both at national and institutional (KMU) levels revealed a lack of professional ECCE teacher educators that hindered the quality of teacher training. In line with this, the absence of teacher educators training institutions was a major concern of some informants.

Based on the document analysis of this study and notwithstanding the implication of the 1994 ETP, the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint can be seen as the first clear policy lever for teacher certification. The policies analyzed for this case study seem to consider the quality assurance of teachers through certification but they do not have consistency across the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint, 2010 ECCE policy and its Implementation Guideline and ESDP V. It seems the policies do not know each other.

Further, few of the documents, in particular, the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint lack a clear relationship with the ECCE subsector.

The interview ascertained that there is no certified ECCE teacher at the national level. Aside from the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint, the 2010 ECCE Policy Framework planned to certify ECCE teachers but it decoupled or failed. Then ESDP V after five years planned to certify and failed. It is imperative to note that the national teacher certification practice is comparatively better within the subsequent levels of education: elementary and secondary education.

This case study has shown major challenges attributed to the quality assurance of initial teacher training in ECCE. Among the challenges revealed in this case study, poor salary and high teacher turn over, negligence in the subsector and teacher educator-related problems were consistent challenges mentioned in the documents, by the interviewees and the respondents respectively. Challenges regarding training curriculum, quality assurance, resources, and facilities were also common problems identified throughout this case study.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN: THE KENYAN CASE STUDY**

This chapter discusses the Kenyan case study as per the findings from the document analysis, interview and questionnaire respectively. The chapter followed the same approach as it was done for the Ethiopian case study in chapter six.

### **7.1. Findings from Document Analysis**

#### **7.1.1. An Overview on the ECCE System**

This subsection highlights ECCE policy developments and aims, and specific components of the ECCE system such as governance structure, ECCE programs, care and education, quality ECCE and quality teacher education.

##### **7.1.1.1. ECCE Policy Development and Aims**

The education and training policies in Kenya seem to have an evolving development right after independence. The Sessional Paper no. 1 of 2005 on a Policy Framework for Education, Training, and Research can be taken as a reform driver of the education sector including ECCE (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005). The Sessional paper intended to develop a comprehensive National ECCE Framework and guidelines for all programs including integrating alternative programs, basic ECCE requirements, a national curriculum, teacher training, and certification. As a result, Kenya formulated the Early Childhood Development (ECD) policy in 2006 and later revised it in 2008 (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2006; 2013a). Currently, the 2012 Education Policy and Training Framework serves as a national policy document. This policy framework

illustrates the educational structure of ECCE with their respective levels and time duration, ECCE programs, curriculum, teacher education, quality assurance and other related issues (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012).

The new 2017 National ECDE Policy tried to identify and fill the gaps within the previous policy. The drawback of the former policy seems more a lack of practice than relevance. Among others, the lack of disseminating the policy at all levels and the implementation gap were major weaknesses of the former policy (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017). The National Education Sector Plan Volume 1 (NESP vol. 1) that was implemented from 2013 to 2018 has given due attention to ECCE and its teacher education (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a). Accordingly, the new 2017 National ECDE policy is the result of this education sector strategic plan as one of the policy documents to be produced within the intended time (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a).

The Kenyan Vision 2030 has paid considerable attention to the education sector principally on curriculum framework, teacher education, and quality assurance at all levels including ECCE (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2007). There appears a clear indication of alignment between the Kenyan education sector and the national development vision (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012). Similarly, the 2017 National ECDE Policy aimed to align the provision of pre-primary education to the demands of the Constitution of Kenya (2010), the aspirations of the Kenya Vision 2030, the provisions of the Basic Education Act, 2013, Sessional Paper No. 14 of 2012 on Reforming Education, Training and Research Sector in Kenya and the requirements of the Sustainable Development Goal Number 4, Target 2. For the most part, the policy intended to be aligned with the global consensus on the need for investing in ECCE (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017).

### **7.1.1.2. Governance and Structure**

According to the 2017 National ECDE Policy, county governments in collaboration with the national government shall establish strong accountability and governance structure of management to support the implementation of the ECCE program (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017). Kenyan ECCE governance structure is framed by a legal framework. The fourth schedule of the 2010 Kenyan constitution made ECCE a devolved function of county governments (Republic of Kenya, 2010). Counties are mandated for planning and developing preprimary education whereas policy, standard and curriculum development is the responsibility of the national government. The Kenyan constitution obliges the state to take measures and ensure that young children access to culturally relevant and developmentally appropriate education (Republic of Kenya, 2010; Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017).

The directorate for ECCE is mandated to provide technical support and policy directions to the national and county governments. The directorate also works with other directorates dealing with preprimary education and teacher education. At the county government level, adapting the national preprimary guidelines, strengthening institutional-based quality assurance and enforcing registration of teacher training institutions are some of the responsibilities (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017).

The Kenyan ECCE has two centers established under the national and district levels namely the National Center for Early Childhood Education (NACECE) and District Centers for Early Childhood Education (DICECE). The new national ECCE policy indicated that the purpose of establishing these centers was to develop and localize

ECCE curriculum, train teachers, mobilize the local communities as well as to offer necessary supervision (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017).

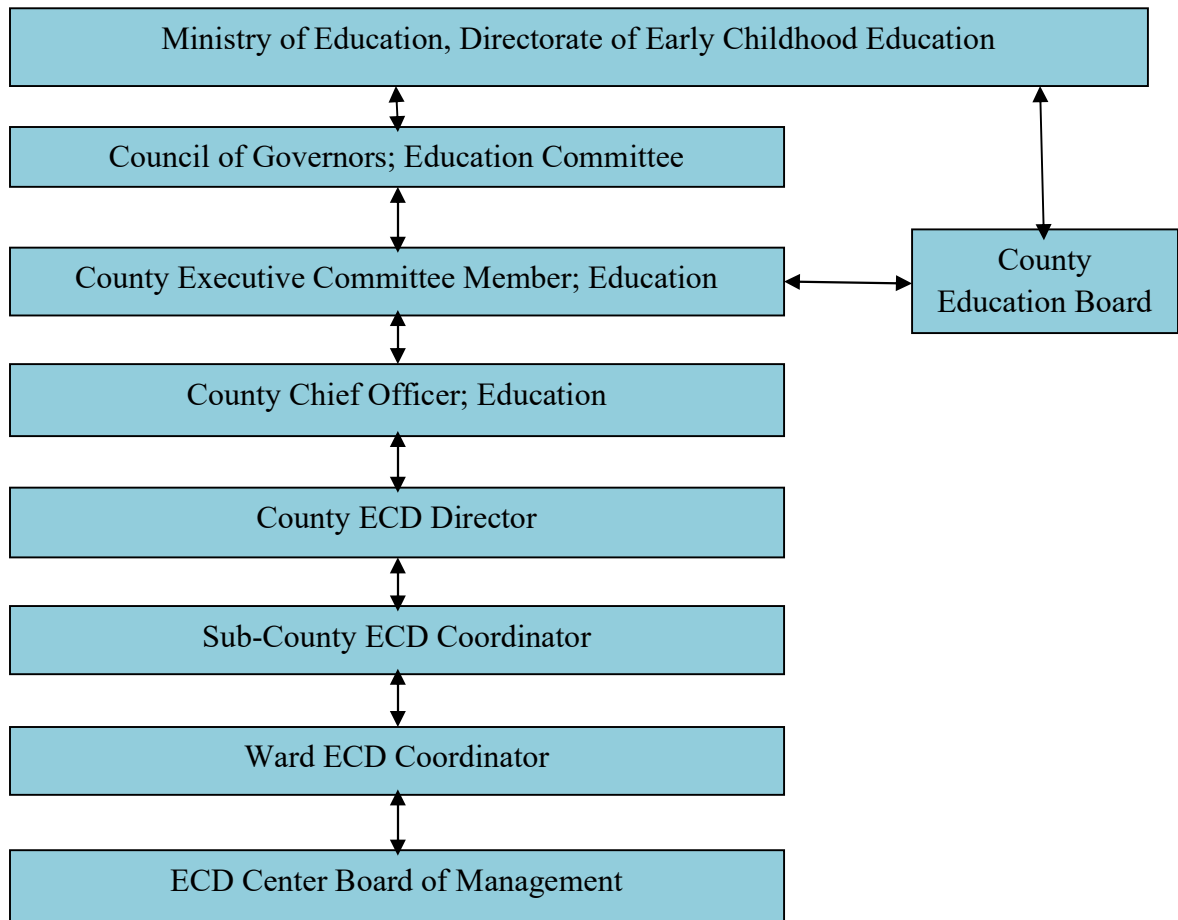


Figure 7.1: Kenyan ECCE Preprimary Coordination Framework: (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017, p.35)

### 7.1.1.3. ECCE Programs

Government-based and private-owned kindergartens, *Duksi*, *Madrassa* centers and mobile preprimary centers are existing Kenyan ECCE programs (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005; 2012; Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017). The last three are ECCE programs in Kenya established to enhance access to equitable and inclusive preprimary



education for marginalized groups (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017). Integrating the *Madrassa* and *Duksi* into the formal education system predominantly in Muslim areas to improve access and retention was one of the reforms in the ECCE subsector (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012).

In earlier times, even after ECCE was transferred from the Ministry of Culture and Social Services to the Ministry of Education under the presidential Circular Number One of 1980, ECCE was not compulsory because attending preschool was not a prerequisite to join grade one. Hence, children were not required to be admitted to any of the ECCE programs (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005).

Lack of clear entry ages was one of the challenges mentioned in the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training, and Research. The government accordingly had decided to focus on the second age cohort (4-5) and gradually integrate into the basic education system (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005). Inconsistently, the 2006 national ECD policy demonstrates that ECCE has been provided to children between the ages of 3.0 - 5.11 years (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2006). The former age category seems relevant as the 2012 Kenyan Education Policy framework indicated that children aged 4-5 are eligible for pre-primary education. However, the policy of integrating ECCE into the basic education system was not properly implemented (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012; 2013a).

One of the informal ECCE programs, *Duksi*, was defined within the primary school framework in the 2013 Kenyan Basic Education Act No. 14 which was revised in 2017. This was a bit confusing as it was against other documents and empirical studies as

discussed earlier. However, the County Early Childhood Bill 2018 indicated that it was a mistake and made an amendment. Accordingly, the document defines *Duksi* as ECCE program that has the meaning assigned to it under the law relating to early childhood education (Republic of Kenya, 2018). The other informal modality, *Madrassa*, is a long stayed ECCE program for Muslim children (Republic of Kenya/ MoEST, 2006; 2013a).

#### **7.1.1.4. Care and Education**

ECCE in the 2017 new Kenyan ECDE Policy framework refers to the elements of *care, early stimulation and early learning experience*. The policy demonstrates that the impact of quality ECCE is not only on the immediate health of a child but also later on in adulthood. This new policy emphasizes the care aspect of ECCE i.e. health, nutrition and sanitation. The policy further states:

*Early Childhood Development Education programs provide opportunities for the provision of specific health and nutrition interventions such as vaccinations, de-worming, and vitamin supplementation, referrals for treatment, screening and better health seeking behaviors among others. Furthermore, availability of clean water, promotion of hand washing and proper sanitation at the preprimary schools positively impact on the health of a child deterring waterborne diseases and infections. (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017, p.6)*

In view of the above point, the policy stated that teachers often conduct basic health checks and keep records such as growth monitoring, immunization, children with allergies and other illnesses. This has a clear implication on Kenyan teacher education in

that teachers have to be at least oriented or at most trained on the above mentioned activities. Other policy documents i.e. (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005; 2006; 2012) have shown equal importance of *education* and *care* in ECCE.

#### **7.1.1.5. Quality ECCE and Quality Teacher Education**

The 2017 new Kenyan ECDE Policy underlines the provision of quality and relevant ECCE as a major challenge. Among others, inappropriate curriculum delivery methods, teachers' low motivation, and high attrition are major challenges of the subsector while other challenges are attributed to the legal and policy framework, stakeholders' coordination, resources, governance, health, and nutrition, etc. The policy also noted that the engagement of untrained teachers was one of the challenges that hindered quality ECCE along with human resource problems. The policy visualizes children who participate in quality and relevant preprimary programs are better prepared for primary education. It further stipulates how quality ECCE is interrelated with the quality of teacher education (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017).

The importance of quality and relevance in ECCE seems to be well considered in the new Kenyan ECCE policy document. This is seen coherently within the policy goal, statement, and strategies. For instance, the mission statement is aligned with quality and relevant ECCE saying: '*to provide, promote and coordinate the delivery of quality and relevant preprimary education services for lifelong learning and sustainable development*' (Republic of Kenya, 2017 p. 14). In a similar vein, the policy goal statement of this document attested to the importance of quality and relevant ECCE toward developmentally appropriate competencies of children. It says: '*to ensure that*

*children aged 4 and 5 access quality and relevant preprimary education services that equip them with developmentally appropriate competencies to realize their full potential'* (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017 p.22).

ECCE curriculum that could provide relevant competencies and developmentally appropriate content, standards for ECCE centers, integration of pre-service teacher training in existing primary teachers training colleges, capacity building for ECCE personnel, ECCE quality assurance and alignment of communication formats (sign language, Braille, etc.) along with ECCE teacher education are some of the 2017 ECDE policy key strategic issues in focus. The policy further refers to the national constitution how it is attributed to ensure quality and relevant ECCE (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017).

As shown in the 2006 Early Childhood Policy (ECD), there was no centrally organized institution to register ECCE centers before the ministry of education took the responsibility. Many of the ECCE centers were under public primary schools the fact that this situation has continued. The centers had no their own management structure. Registration of ECCE centers was also excluded from the Education Management Information System (EMIS) (Republic of Kenya, 2006). MoE maintains standards and quality assurance, supervises ECCE programs and registers ECCE centers (2006)

As already mentioned, the Kenyan Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards is responsible for the ECCE program quality assurance at the national level. This directorate in collaboration with county education offices conducts inspection and assessment in ECCE programs, develops standard tools for the rating of the performance of the programs, develops minimum standards for registration and operations of

education institutions, ensures standards and maintains quality in the institutions (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a).

County governments are responsible to establish and register ECCE centers subject to the 2010 Constitution and the 2018 County Early Childhood Bill. All kinds of ECCE centers including mobile schools have to fulfill the requirements for registration as prescribed in the County Early Childhood Bill 2018. Private ECCE centers have to provide the service not lower standards that of public ECCE centers. County governments are also responsible for the accreditation of ECCE centers offering foreign curriculum (Republic of Kenya, 2018).

### **7.1.2. ECCE Curriculum**

This section does not involve comprehensive content analysis based on all elements of a curriculum framework. It mainly focuses on some issues i.e. vision, aims, values, and principles.

Previously, there was an activity-based syllabus and handbook (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a) and now Kenya has developed the 2017 new Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC) for basic education including ECCE. The rationale for developing the CBC was an intensive process of stakeholders' involvement, assessments, and studies along with the new national basic education curriculum framework. The curriculum framework was the result of the above-mentioned evaluation and hence it is developed to fill the gaps identified. Inflexible education pathways, examination-oriented curriculum and insufficient teacher training were some of the reasons that called for the new curriculum development. This new curriculum framework is prepared to promptly align

ECCE within the national and international legal, protocol, and development frameworks such as the 2010 constitution, vision 2030, the East African Curriculum Harmonization Structures and Framework, and Sessional paper no 2 of 2015 on reforming education and training (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a).

As articulated in the Kenyan CBC, prominent theoretical frameworks and local contexts were considered so that achieving culturally and developmentally relevant ECCE becomes a reality. Instructional design theory, visible learning theory and constructivism theories were some of the theoretical underpinnings of the curriculum framework development. Much importantly for this study, the curricular framework introduced the **Capacity Building Framework** which serves as a framework for the ECCE initial teacher education and professional development (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a).

The new Kenyan curriculum framework in general for basic education and specifically for ECCE bases the necessary competencies. Within this approach, the curriculum was said to be “The Kenyan Competency-Based Education Curriculum (KCBC)”. Accordingly, seven core competencies were introduced within this framework. These are (i) communication and collaboration (ii) self-efficacy (iii) critical thinking and problem solving (iv) creativity and imagination (v) citizenship (vi) digital literacy and (vii) learning to learn (Republic of Kenya, 2017b p.21). The curriculum framework also focuses on five key learning areas: mathematical, language, environmental, psychomotor and creative, and religious activities (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a).

According to the CBC, the essence of language activities was to develop oral, reading readiness and writing readiness competencies to lay the foundation for language acquisition. The intention behind these activities was also to enable learners to express themselves fluently and to assist them to improve their listening ability, concentration and understanding memory. In addition to this, language activities were believed to be a crucial component of socialization (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a).

Mathematical activities were developed to prepare children for logical thinking and problem-solving competencies. Based on Piaget's and Bruner's theories of learning, the KCBC underlines that preprimary mathematics curricula should comprise learning basic mathematical concepts through the manipulation of concrete objects and not abstract knowledge (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a).

Environmental activities were believed to enable children to develop a positive relationship, appreciate their surrounding environment and cultural heritage, develop observation and discovery skills and acquire life skills required to ensure safety in their environment. The purpose of these activities was also to develop social, experimentation and discovery, personal hygiene, and safety skills among children (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a).

Psychomotor and creative activities at the preprimary level also enable learners to develop both fine and gross motor skills which are necessary for the control and coordination of different parts of the body. In addition to these, the KCBC included the need for children's participation in activities that integrate religion and moral values. The

framework underpins the importance of such values for early childhoods (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a).

In line with the role of teachers, the KCBC aims at the role of teachers to be coaching, facilitating, mentoring, and being role models for their learners. These assumptions were also articulated by visible learners and constructivist theories. The KCBC assigned a separate specific section for assessment and also included assessment as sub-sections for each education level including ECCE. The assessment is redefined as a competency-based assessment and this is defined as *a collection of evidence demonstrating how a learner can perform or behave according to specific standards'* (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a, p.114).

It has to be noted that the preparation and implementation of the KCBC was one of the activities planned in the National Education Sector Plan (NESP 2013-2018 Volume 1). Revision and operationalization of school and teacher training curricula were one of the performance indicators of this specific sector plan (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a). This might be a clear indication of the education sector development plan that aligned with the policy and strategic frameworks.

### **7.1.3. ECCE Teacher Education**

This sub-section discusses an overview of the initial training, recruitment and selection policy, the training curriculum, accreditation of teacher education institutions, licensing of teacher educators and certification of trainee teachers.



### **7.1.3.1. Overview of the Initial Training**

Education and training in Kenya was governed by the Education Act (1968) and other related Acts of Parliament, including the TSC Act and NEC Act. The Teacher Service Commission (TSC) was established through an Act of Parliament in 1968 and mandated to register, recruit, transfer, promote and discipline teachers. TSC has been serving as a semi-autonomous institution under the ministry of education before it became an independent entity based on the 2010 constitution. Different Acts since 1968 were not harmonized and were no longer adequately respond to the emerging needs and trends in the sector. For instance, Kenyan ECCE was suffering from a lack of trained teachers as demonstrated in the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training, and Research. Only 44 % of ECCE teachers were trained in 2005 (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005; Republic of Kenya/TCS, 2015)

According to NESP Vol. 1, ECCE teacher training was not integrated into existing teacher training colleges. Improved quality of initial teacher training in both public and private training institutions and integrating ECCE with the training colleges were some of the strategic operational components in the NESP Vol. 1. The reform specifically focuses on the standardization of initial ECCE teacher education that could be later reflected in measuring trained teachers (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a).

The 2017 National ECDE policy has also shown its due concern on the professional competence of ECCE teachers. As to the document, teachers have to be well trained in initial teacher training programs in particular on physical, cognitive, language

and socio-emotional developmental needs of children. The policy reported the positive correlation between the gradual increase of trained teachers grown between 2013 and 2016 and the current ECCE net enrollment rate reached 74.9. The policy further indicated its alignment with teachers on its scope of application in that it will be applied with all ECCE teachers among other stakeholders (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017).

The National Education Sector Plan Volume 2 (NESP Vol. 2) envisages a unified and integrated national teacher development policy for basic education (Preprimary, Primary and Secondary Education). One of the overarching plans indicated in this document was teacher reform as a principal policy lever for quality education at all levels of basic education (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013b). However, findings from the document analysis of this case study could not show the reality of this reform so far.

#### **7.1.3.2. Teacher Recruitment and Selection Policy**

Unplanned teacher recruitment for public schools has affected the deployment of teachers and hence distorted their distribution particularly before the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research came into effect. As a result, there was an unbalanced distribution of teachers as most teachers prefer to work in urban, semi-urban, and high potential areas for better amenities. The then teacher recruitment policy intended to redress the uneven distribution and hence TSC was engaged in a balancing exercise by reshuffling teachers from overstaffed areas to understaffed areas. Consequently, difficult and remote areas continue to face a shortage of teachers. This situation again called for alternative modes of recruitment supported by a clear policy (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005).

The Strategic Plan on Teachers Service Commission (2015 - 2019) planned to improve the demand and supply of teachers so that establish an effective Teacher Management Information System (TMIS). Nonetheless, this strategic plan has nothing to do with ECCE teachers; such as teacher shortage projections are solely attributed to primary and post-primary teachers (Republic of Kenya/TSC, 2015). This might be because county governments are responsible to recruit and train teachers for public ECCE centers (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2018). On the other hand, the 2017 new ECCE Policy revealed low teachers' motivation and high attrition. It is apparent that teachers' de-motivation and high attritions are signs of inappropriate selection and recruitment policy (Republic of Kenya, 2017a).

The Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research demonstrated that teachers' salary has been low and irregular for a long period because of poor career attractiveness. Accordingly, the Sessional paper intended to develop the career structure of ECCE teachers (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005). However, the document analysis of this case study could not show attractive career arrangement policies for ECCE teachers. It can be drawn that inconsistent salary scales thereby unstable teacher retention might be apparent because of inconsistent recruitment by county governments.

The document analysis of this case study revealed that ECDE teacher training was offered through different programs and initiatives for certificate and diploma courses in public and private institutions. The documents also showed that teacher trainees shall have "C" to join ECCE training in a Diploma program. NESP Vol. 1 illustrated

requirements to be *Madrassa* or *Duksi* teachers despite the training are undertaken in the in-service program. It says:

*In the Madrassa system, there are equivalencies but instructions are given in Arabic. For the Duksi, teachers are mainly Madrassa graduates. The requirement for one to be a Duksi teacher is the completion and memorization of the 114 Chapters of the Quran. However, there are those teachers who hold the Kenyan Certificate of Primary Education. (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a, p.89)*

### **7.1.3.3. Teacher Preparation**

#### *i) The Training Curriculum*

The Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training, and Research reported that there was no particular ECCE teacher training as teachers were training to teach both in preprimary and lower primary. The Sessional paper accordingly envisaged revising the training curriculum. The Sessional Paper also indicated how theoretically teachers are trained with a curriculum that caters to comprehensive child development and falls apart the practice due to the pressure toward preparing children for schooling (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005)

The Kenyan Institute for Curriculum Development (KICD) is mandated to develop curriculum and curricular support materials for all levels of education and training except university education. Accordingly, the ECCE teacher training curriculum, teachers' handbook, and other support materials are currently in use (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a). KICD is not only responsible for teacher education curriculum

development but also for the preparation of teachers to implement the school curriculum. It seems KICD has the greatest role in building the bridge between the learning and teaching process in general or alignment between the school and teacher education curriculum in particular. With this in mind, it recently developed a capacity-building framework for teachers along with the new competency-based curriculum framework. Aside from these activities, KICD is working with other relevant institutions on professional development programs for teachers, teacher educators, and quality assurance standard officers (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a).

The 2017 Kenyan Facilitators Training Manual for Early Years Education Curriculum is one of the instruments produced in accordance with the 2012 education and training policy framework and education sector strategic plan (2013-2018). This training manual aims to fulfill the intended capacity of the new competency-based curriculum through professional development. The training aims to equip teachers with the necessary skills and to facilitate the inclusive engagement of all learners. The manual also serves for education officers, other curriculum implementers, and supervisors. The manual comprises plenty of samples of technicalities aligned with the new preprimary competency-based curriculum. This manual is also supposed to serve as an important reference for the facilitators the fact that they will also have to use the new basic education curriculum framework to effectively train the teachers. Nevertheless, the document analysis of this training manual showed an exclusive application of this document to in-service teacher trainees. The document nor did show the inclusion of teacher educators within the training (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017b).

## ii) *Accreditation of Teacher Education Institutions*

According to NESP Volume 1, accreditation of teacher education institutions is the responsibility of the quality assurance and standards directorate. The purpose of accreditation of teacher education institutions, as stated in this document, is to ensure continuous quality improvement and to oversee, promote and maintain standards in education processes particularly curriculum implementation and delivery (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a). Some of the major challenges identified in the 2012 education policy framework were problems related to teacher educators, trainees, curriculum, and administration. There were also no proper procedures and schemes to administer ECCE teacher education at the national level (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012). Inadequate strategy for teacher education was also one of the gaps identified in NESP Volume 1 (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a).

The document analysis of this study revealed that the existing Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards is responsible to conduct standards and assessments in education and training institutions. The directorate develops standard tools for the rating of performance and minimum standards for registration and operations. It ensures standards and maintains quality in institutions of basic education and training institutions using policies and guidelines set for quality assurance (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012; 2013a).

The Directorate for Quality Assurance and Standards has been to be replaced by Education Standards and Quality Assurance Council (ESQAC) to address issues and

constraints identified (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a). As to the 2012 Education and Training Policy Framework, there was a weak quality assurance system (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012) while the new 2017 Kenyan ECDE Policy proposed a financing mechanism to improve quality assurance and assessment of ECCE and its teacher education (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017).

iii) *Licensing of Teacher Educators*

The ministry of education is responsible to certify ECCE teacher educators as stated in the 2006 Early Childhood Development (ECD) policy. Other documents similarly ascertained that a teacher educator is defined as a teacher to be certified by the Teacher Commission Service (TCS).

The majority of teacher educators in Kenyan ECCE teacher education institutions had no training qualification and there is no clear career and professional route to become ECCE, teacher educator, as revealed in NESP Vol. 1. Teacher educators also were not getting continuous professional development. As a result, preschool teachers were not properly recognized by the TCS as they were not supposed to fit the requirement (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a). The problem seems to be improved and the number of trained ECCE teachers increased as shown in the 2017 National ECDE Policy Framework, however (Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017). Notwithstanding the Kenyan ECCE teacher education was challenged with untrained and uncertified teacher educators, the Kenyan Teacher Service Commission is mandated for quality assurance and certification of teacher educators (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a).

#### **7.1.3.4. Certification of Trainee Teachers**

The concern on standardization of ECCE initial training and teacher certification policies has been grown since the coming of the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research into effect (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005). The 2006 Early Childhood Development (ECD) policy generally states that the ministry of education is responsible to prepare and certify ECCE teachers. The 2012 Education and Training Policy framework specifically stated that ECCE and primary certificate awards were examined by the Kenya National Examinations Council (NEC) as degrees were awarded by the respective higher education institutions (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2012).

Much clearly, ECCE teacher trainees shall train with the national teacher training curriculum prepared by the KICD. NEC is responsible to evaluate and certify ECCE teachers. The quality of Kenyan ECCE teachers is mainly and finally assured by the Kenyan Teachers Service Commission (TSC). TCS registers or certifies teachers who are trained with the KICD curriculum and examined by NEC. According to the strategic plan (2015-2019) of the Kenyan TSC, activities are planned to improve the process of teachers' quality assurance and certification (Republic of Kenya/TSC, 2015; Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017; the Republic of Kenya, 2018).

It seems better to consider how inconsistent explanation between the Teachers Service Commission Act No.20 (2012, 2015) and the 2017 National ECDE Policy possibly leads to confusion regarding the responsible authority to certify or register



ECCE teachers. The former explicates that TCS is responsible for ECCE teacher certification consistent with the findings of this study while the latter tended to give the responsibility to county governments and key stakeholders. The former also clearly stated that county governments are responsible to facilitate the process of teacher registration.

### 7.1.5. Challenges

The document analysis of this case study has shown different challenges attributed to the quality assurance of the initial teacher training. Some of the challenges have already been discussed in different sections of this chapter. The 2012 Education and Training Policy Framework presents detailed challenges associated with the quality of initial teacher education in ECCE. Table 7.1 recapitulates the challenges within three categories.

Table 7.1: Challenges of the Kenyan ECCE Initial Teacher Training

No.	Recruitment related	Teacher preparation related	Certification related
1	Poor remuneration	Untrained teacher educators	Lack of recognition by TSC
2	High attrition	Lack of curriculum revision	
3	Low morale	Uncertified teacher educators	
4		Weak institutional-based quality assurance system	

Source: Republic of Kenya/MoEST, (2012)

The 2012 Education and Training Policy Framework also stated improper procedures to administer ECCE teacher education across the nation. Inappropriate teaching methods, low teacher motivation, and lack of integrating ECCE teacher training into primary teacher training are some of the common challenges revealed from the document analysis. A high pupil-teacher ratio which has an association with teacher training was also another challenge stated. It seems imperative from the document analysis of this case study, however, that both the 2017 National ECDE Policy and the 2017 CBC are expected to ease the challenges.

## **7.2. Findings from Interview**

### **7.2.1. Reflections on Quality Issues**

Some of the research participants were optimists to anticipate quality outcomes of ECCE due to the recent national policy reform. They took the preparation of the 2017 National ECDE Policy and the 2017 Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC) as an essential policy lever to improve the quality of ECCE and its teacher education. An informant in line with this envisages the impact of the policy reform beyond the subsector. She said; *'prioritizing ECCE policy reform safeguards the overall quality of education. I have great expectation from the policy reform'* ("Martha", April 2, 2019). Similarly, "Stephen" indicated that all the policy statements and strategies of the 2017 National ECDE Policy were designed to put quality at the center of gravity that could influence the quality of further education. Another informant conceptualizes quality ECCE as a very demanding subsector for the country. She was also comfortable with the current education policy reform. She says:

*I think we are at a good move toward ECCE policy development. We do have the 2017 national ECCE policy, the 2018 implementation guideline for ECCE and the New School Readiness Assessment Tool to be launched soon. At the moment, we are giving an orientation on the guideline. The one in 2006 was only ECD but the new one (2017) is ECDE. Now we are focusing to make ECCE a multi-sectoral program within and outside the education sector.*

("Beatrice", April 1, 2019)

"Beatrice" in addition reported that quality in ECCE has not got proper attention before the first policy was developed in 2006. According to her, teacher education and quality assurance were considered within the former policy despite the shortcomings. Nevertheless, "Judy" argued that the 2006 ECD is incomparable to the 2017 ECDE Policy in terms of its comprehensiveness to consider the overall betterment of the subsector including quality assurance of teacher education. "Elizabeth" in a similar vein shares the idea of "Judy" but reflected a different view regarding the practice of the 2017 policy. She acknowledges the relevance of the policy for a better quality of ECCE but for her, it is just in a paper not in practice. However, the interview with "Kimani" and "Isaac", above all, declared their gap to be familiar with the national ECCE policies.

The interview with the two of the research participants disclosed different needs of ECCE quality across the nation. County Education Bureaus, as mentioned by "Stephen", have full authority on ECCE for the subsector has become a devolved function for counties based on the 2010 national constitution. He underlined counties' right to adapt ECCE policies and strategies in accordance with their local contexts. Hence, as he ascertained, there is a significant variation of needs among counties. One of

the research participants in conformity with the idea of "Stephen" illustrated divergence of the needs as follows.

*Quality ECCE for Nairobi County and for other counties could not be the same. We are diversified people with different educational needs. Feeding might be crucial for some of the ECCE settings of our people. Settlement is a very important issue for our pastoral and semi-arid children. Urban based ECCE may need quality teachers and other quality services. How can we have alike expectations of quality? (Martha, April 2, 2019)*

"Stephen" has demonstrated other differences among counties that have a direct impact on quality matters. For him, counties are different in using teaching-learning materials; it depends on their income and needs. There is also a variation in co-curricular activities. Although all ECCE centers are found in primary schools, county governments have the responsibility of buying land, building, and equipping ECCE centers. They have also the responsibility of hiring ECCE teachers. However, he stated that counties shall follow the national curriculum developed by KICD.

"Mathew" on his part tried to address how the constitution changed ECCE services and provisions impacting quality issues in the following account.

*There was a central body in the ministry that oversees the implementation of ECCE services. But the coming of the 2010 national constitution changed this and ECCE services devolved into the 47 counties. The management and the services have already gone to the counties but the only responsibility of the national government is curriculum development. Counties customize and localize the*

*curriculum based on their contexts i.e. needs of children since Kenya is a diversified nation. They also have different resource capacities. This in turn brought variation in ECCE quality.* (Mathew, April 2, 2019)

As regards, ECCE program quality assurance, it is not done with a single hand as the interview with "Martha" revealed. The directorate for quality assurance and standards in collaboration with KICD, Directorate of ECDE, Directorate of Teacher Education, and others ensures the program quality of ECCE. The directorate together with representatives of the aforementioned departments assesses whether the standards are met or not. It also comes to ECCE centers along with the community health officers to inspect whether the necessary facilities are allocated or not. Besides, the directorate calls county relevant officials to assess how they carried out their responsibilities. Aside from this, it approaches NGOs, Banks, and other stakeholders to enhance the quality assurance procedures and outcomes.

As stated by "Beatrice", the Directorate for Quality Assurance and Standards shares the standards to ECCE centers and provides orientation. The standards include teachers, curriculum, resources and facilities, and learning activities. There are specific standards and expectations for different ECCE programs. There is no the same standard for mobile ECCE centers and private kindergartens, for example. The directorate requires ECCE centers to report from the health sector based on the standards. Any ECCE center has to meet the minimum standard and be registered. In a similar vein, "Mathew" indicated that officers from county to ward levels go to ECCE centers to check whether teachers are performing according to the national curriculum. They are also working with the health sector, parents, and other stakeholders as quality assurance is a collective task.

An important point raised by "Stephen" was variation in the accreditation of different ECCE centers. There is licensing of ECCE centers but the purpose is not for quality assurance rather for the revenue collection procedures. Those ECCE centers under public elementary schools, private ECCE centers and a group of ECCE centers called *pseudo-public ECCE centers* mostly faith-based centers established before 2010 have not to be accredited but have to renew their registration. In contrast, ECCE centers opened in accordance with the national curriculum do not need accreditation. Instead, they will be registered; but those ECCE centers established by foreign curriculum have to be accredited.

Taking such complications into account, "Stephen" was asked how they could know whether these ECCE centers are meeting the standard or not. As to him, the county ECCE department, officers at the sub-county level and officers from subsections and the ward (the lowest unit of the devolution) level are responsible entities to check whether the ECCE centers are performing as per the minimum standard. Together with the program officer and other officers at the sub-county level, quality assurance officers at the county level are supposed to do fieldwork at ECCE centers and make supervision and inspection. If there found ECCE center performing below standard, they will take the necessary measures including closure. It seems such information needs further clarity.

### **7.2.2. Reflection on ECCE Curricular Issues**

The emergence of ECCE curriculum, indigenous curricular integration, and development of the new Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC) were major views

reflected. The interview revealed that KICD is mandated to develop curriculum and curricular support materials for all levels except university education.

"Mathew" gave a brief explanation of how the curricular development for ECCE has been evolved. He reported that KICD was following the eclectic approach to prepare the ECCE curriculum based on various theories like Piaget, Maria Montessori, Frobel, and John Dewey. Then the institute benchmarked countries and came up with the establishment of the National Center for Early Childhood Development Education (NACECE) and District Center for Early Childhood Development Education (DICECE). It has been developing ECCE curriculum since 1984 right after NACECE was established. The first curriculum was developed in 1985 and still, it has been reviewed until the development of CBC. Apart from the syllabus and curriculum, the institute has been developing support materials i.e. handbooks, prototype materials, manipulative materials, audiovisuals, and guides.

"Stephen" and "Mathew" have explained how indigenous ECCE is integrated with the curriculum. As to the informants, there is an Integrated Islamic Program for *Madrassa*-based ECCE, and the children under this program are not only learning Islamic education but also the national curriculum. In some of the counties, the majority are Muslims in which *Madrassa* ECCE centers are situated. There is also a nonreligious ECCE program called *Duksi* mostly in the North-Eastern dry part of the country. According to "Stephen", *Duksi* means a big tree that has also a big shade and children sit under this tree to learn. It is not a widely spread program; it is exclusively functioning and will not be in need while replaced by classes or ECCE centers.

According to the above-mentioned informants, the former ECCE curriculum had 11 learning areas and now the CBE reduced the learning areas to 7. The major focus of CBC is child-centered pedagogy at which the teacher has to prepare and manage the setting (learning through play) where the learners explore, learn and manipulate by themselves. These research participants were concerned with the full deployment of the new CBC in all existing ECCE programs. "Beatrice" has also underlined that the new CBC has to be implemented in all kinds of ECCE programs as there is emerging refusal within private ECCE centers. She further noted how such resistance could affect the intended teacher training reform.

### **7.2.3. Quality Assurance Arrangement**

#### **7.2.3.1. Teacher Recruitment and Selection**

The research participants have witnessed the absence of relevant recruitment and selection policy for initial ECCE teacher trainees. The interview with "Martha" indicated minimum selection criteria, options for entry, and duration for the initial training. As to her, an interested applicant to join directly to diploma initial ECCE training program shall have "C" in the national high school-leaving examination. If it is "D+", the applicant can join certificate training. Sometimes Primary One (P1) teachers with a certificate can apply for diploma training. A teacher trainee who has trained for a certificate for two years can further extend to a diploma for another two years. The informant underscored that no other entry requirement than high school-leaving examination grade.

"Judy" demonstrated the divergence between her expectation and the reality on the ground as regards the entry of trainees to ECCE teacher education. She believes that



ECCE teachers should have more prominence than other levels of teachers as it lays the foundation of education and development in a child's life. As a result, she expects entrants with higher academic qualifications. However, she sadly witnessed that most of ECCE trainees join the training when they fail to qualify for their career choices. On the other hand, as revealed by "Elizabeth", there is a persistent lack of prestige for ECCE teachers due to low employment and unattractive remuneration.

"Stephen" reflected a different view in line with the application of recruitment policy. He argued that the national teacher recruitment policy does not guarantee counties since recruitment is highly dependent on the need and abilities of the county governments. Along with this view, he suggested a recruitment and selection policy reform benefiting qualified ECCE teachers across the nation. Slightly and similarly, "Judy" suggested proper recognition of ECCE teachers and employment by TSC.

#### **7.2.3.2. Teacher Education Curriculum**

Earlier, some accounts informed that KICD is responsible for the preparation of the national curriculum except for university education. It also develops induction courses for teacher training in certificate and diploma. Apart from the syllabus and curriculum, the institute develops support materials; it also provides orientation for teachers and mentors. On the other hand, as informed by "Kimani", Kenyatta University (KU) provides initial ECCE teachers training at different levels ranging from certificate to PhD and it assesses them both in formal and informal ways. A question has emerged at this point whether initial training curriculum preparation at degree level and beyond is the responsibility of higher education institutions or not. "Isaac" and "Kimani" were not in a

position to give a clear answer but mentioned that KU is now revising the training curriculum to make alignment with the new CBC. They also indicated that they do have regular consultations with the ministry of education on curricular matters. Nevertheless, the interview with "Elizabeth" revealed that the CBC has been harmonized in middle-level teacher training colleges despite the absence of initiative taken by KU. She also declared that the training curriculum used in KU is too theoretical and hence middle-level training colleges are by far in a better position than KU.

The interview with some of the research participants affirmed that Kenya is in the transition period of the teacher training curriculum. KICD in collaboration with other departments has been developing a new teacher training curriculum. "Mathew" seems confident to see the new Competency-Based Teacher Training curriculum by the end of June 2019. According to him, the new CBC was prepared in an integrated manner with the prospective teacher education curriculum. The institute is working to make alignment between the competency-based curriculum and teacher education curriculum. The competency-based teacher training curriculum is expected to be implemented fully in 2019 September. "Mathew," said; *'so far we made the outline and identified the units that will align with CBC and have already started preparation'*.

However, some other informants have reflected contradicting views concerning the CBC and alignment issues. "Stephen" firmly reported that currently teachers have been introduced with CBC through the in-service program but initial trainees have no any introduction so far. "Isaac", on the other hand, mentioned the introduction of CBC into teacher training institutions and reported that some training institutions have started to train teachers in line with CBC. Conversely, "Kimani" explicated that the training

institutions including KU were training teachers based on the former curriculum. He also noted that currently the colleges have been introduced with the new CBC and the new training curricular framework is underway which is to be finalized soon. In a similar sense, "Martha" stated that currently they have using a national teacher training curriculum and the new teacher training curriculum will be applicable to all teacher trainees regardless of their assignment in different ECCE centers.

Assessment and pedagogy were related issues that emerged from the interview. Along with this point, "Kimani" said; *'We often engage with continuous and summative assessment. In particular, we usually give reading assignments and they review, analyze and share with their classmates both online and face to face'*. "Isaac" also illustrated how the trainees in KU are engaged with practicum courses starting from the first semester. According to him, attachment and practicum are mandatory in the training system. Trainees have to prepare and organize their teaching materials and they have to write a report. Trainees have also to bring and show comments provided by the respective ECCE centers. "Isaac" further indicated that KU has an intensive procedure to assess the practice of teacher trainees.

Notwithstanding that the experience of KU is limited to its training institution, however, "Mathew" has commented on the approach of trained ECCE teachers across the nation. He is often upset with the long-standing traditional formal schooling-based teaching methodology by many of ECCE teachers. He seems bored with this practice and took himself as an education activist raising the issue at different educational gatherings. Subsequently, as he mentioned, he often tries to influence relevant stakeholders to safeguard children from the practice. He whispered; *Let children be*

*children, not small adults.* This might be due to the nature of the old curriculum what "Kimani" tried to address. As to him, the main difference between the old curriculum and the CBC is that the former focuses on the examination and high scores while the latter focuses on learning objectives. He said; *'what was considered as an achievement in the old curriculum is scoring high results or grades. Even parents and other stakeholders are very much interested in higher grades. But a big grade cannot be applied in life.*

Findings from the interview declared that both public and private training institutions have to pursue the national teacher training curriculum prepared by KICD. According to "Mathew", all teachers training colleges have to follow the KICD curriculum otherwise their teacher trainees will not be allowed to take certification exams by the National Examination Council (NEC). Giving example from the existing teacher education curriculum booklets, he underscored that the teacher education curriculum has been developed in line with the learners' curriculum and these two are inseparable entities. Henceforth, as he stated, teacher training providers have to be ready to execute the upcoming Competency-Based Teacher Training Curriculum.

The interview with "Kimani" and "Isaac" has shown different views on the issue of curricular alignment. Curriculum alignment between informal ECCE programs (*Madrassa, Duksi* and mobile centers) and the national teacher training curriculum is done through in-service training. Teachers train through the in-service program from different programs including *Duksi* teachers; and mostly within postgraduate programs. The informants also demonstrated initial trainees train basically with the KICD curriculum and somehow with global perspectives. "Kimani" stated; *'trainees have to be*

*trained with context-based and world-class Competency-Based Curriculum!* "Stephen" also indicated that teachers have to train in Islamic religious education and all colleges have such a course. Nevertheless, no research participant has mentioned institutionalized and planned curricular alignment between ECCE and initial teacher training curricula.

### **7.2.3.3. Accreditation of ECCE Teachers Training Institutions**

As mentioned before, the directorate for quality assurance and standards is responsible to develop quality education standards for all basic education institutions starting from pre-primary to colleges; except universities. "Beatrice" in a similar manner mentioned that this directorate is working on the quality of overall development of early childhood. The directorate often involves in curriculum need assessment, preparation, and review activities. The following extract elaborates more.

*Whenever there is a meeting in KICD regarding ECCE issues, officials and experts participate representing the directorate for quality assurance. The directorate has subject matter specialists and quality assurance officers who work with KICD. Officials from the directorate participate in support materials preparation in KICD. They lead some of the panels held in KICD. ("Beatrice" April 1, 2019)*

The interview with "Beatrice" revealed that quality assurance of teachers training colleges is first made by the respective officials in county governments. Based on their report, the directorate of quality assurance and standard will send a team for inspection before the verification and endorsement of the accreditation. The directorate assesses all aspects of the training including the practice (practicum). Quality assurance experts often

do a quality standard assessment of the training colleges then they do classroom observation or assessment on teaching practice in ECCE centers to see how the trainees are performing. They also inspect the qualification of the teacher educators, resources, and facilities of the college. They generally check how well the quality is offered. Along with this point, "Stephen" affirmed that teacher training institutions are regulated at the national government level.

According to "Martha", one of the major responsibilities of the directorate for quality assurance and standards with respect to ECCE teachers' training colleges is a registration of training colleges. A quality assurance team goes to the colleges and assesses the physical facilities and staff. If the college meets the standard, the team recommends it to be registered. The team also makes quality standard assessments and evaluates the college how it offers quality teaching for the trainees; how the final teaching practice or practicum is going. As a result, the team ensures whether the trainees can provide quality teaching for their learners.

On their part, "Kimani" and "Isaac" explained how quality is assured in KU. The higher education commission has its own standards to accredit universities and there is a quality assurance section within the ministry for training colleges. The university as a stakeholder collaborates with these institutions, for instance, the university provides its programs; the ministry evaluates and gives feedback for the university. The university also collaborates with the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) as the commission has a minimum requirement to register teachers. The university evaluates its program and trains considering the requirement of TSC. The informants further showed that KICD does not prepare a curriculum for universities.

"Isaac" informed that there are quality assurance standards particularly on resources, facilities, and the teaching profession. As to him, quality assurance is done by Kenyatta University Quality Assurance Department and the higher education commission. The whole university will be assured and colleges within this framework will be assured every semester.

#### **7.2.3.4. Licensing of Teacher Educators**

According to "Beatrice", all teachers at all levels of education including teacher educators have to be registered by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC). "Elizabeth" demonstrated that she was solely registered when she was joining high school teaching before her career in KU. Similarly, the interview with other research participants has shown a very weak registration record of teacher educators. It seems that this was the reason to have an inappropriate response from "Isaac" and "Kimani". They told that simply teacher educators can apply online for registration. Nonetheless, such a response has nothing to do with licensing of teacher educators as mentioned by "Beatrice".

#### **7.2.4. Certification of ECCE Trainees**

The interview regarding the certification of teacher trainees has shown the combined effect of different institutions. "Beatrice" gave a brief demonstration of how licensing or registration took place starting from the entry to the training. The First Ministry of Education (MoE) prepares requirements and lets the selection criteria for the public. Next, applicants will be registered as per their preference; certificate or diploma. Right after their completion of the training, the teacher trainees have to take an examination from the National Examination Council (NEC) to be certified. Then they

will come to MoE with their certificate for registration and approval. If their certificate is not from the National Examination Council (NEC), MoE will not approve. Finally, as "Beatrice" mentioned, they will be registered by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) and recruited by county governments. Once teachers have got the Teachers Service Commission's (TSC`s) registration number, they can teach any county of the nation. The informant added; *'Quality assurance of teachers is made in accordance with the standard. We often sent the final copy of the assessment report for TSC, KICD, NEC, and others to have feedback'*.

"Martha" on her part reflected similarly. She described that a graduate teacher shall first train with the KICD curriculum and takes an exam from NEC. NEC examines those teachers who are trained with a certificate or diploma program with the KICD curriculum. NEC does not allow the trainees to sit for the exam unless they are trained with the national KICD curriculum. TSC also does not register teachers except they are certified by NEC. Trainee teachers shall be registered by TSC so that they will be considered as a teacher and eligible for employment. "Martha" summarized the quality assurance system with a sentence like this; *'we have standardized national curriculum, standardized exam and standardized certification to assure the quality of teachers'*.

"Stephen" reiterated the above-mentioned views and raised a different issue regarding registration and recruitment of ECCE teachers. According to him, TSC is both a constitutional and professional body that registers trained and qualified teachers. Teachers have no right to be employed unless they are registered by TSC. However, TSC does not recruit ECCE teachers like it is doing for other levels of teachers. ECCE teachers are recruited by county governments right after their registration by TSC.



The interview with "Beatrice" asserted the collaborative and synergetic role of the quality assurance and standards directorate. This directorate is working in collaboration with other relevant departments i.e. National Examinations Council (NEC). Together with the council, it prepares test items, monitors and administers exams. The directorate also evaluates the exam results and sets the cut marks in collaboration with the council. After the award and result release, there is an item analysis program and within this program, the directorate evaluates whether the items were clear and appropriate; and gives feedback for the council. In addition to this, the directorate works with the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) to discuss criteria and standards for registration that are applied across the nation.

#### **7.2.5. Challenges**

Major challenges revealed from the Kenyan interviewees can be generally portrayed as government, trainee and employer-related. For better understanding, more specific challenges are presented hereunder.

##### **7.2.5.1. Inadequate Concern**

Many of the informants believe that the government has not yet paid proper attention to the ECCE subsector and its teacher education. According to them, the government lacks practical concern about the fact that it moved forward with the policy reform. Major manifestations explained by the informants were insufficient funding, lack of resources and facilities, and teachers' unemployment. In particular, school feeding and shortage of water were serious challenges mentioned by the informants. The informants

also think that government has no adequate awareness of the prominence of ECCE and its teacher education for national development.

#### **7.2.5.2. Divergent Contexts and Practices**

Varied contexts and practices among the county governments was another challenge uncovered. "Stephen" reflected on variations in teachers' recruitment among counties. Some teachers compare better salaries of teachers in other counties. Consequently, these teachers complain and leave their job thereby creating a high turnover. Despite the prominence of the school feeding program, there is no uniform feeding mechanism and programs as counties depend on their resource mobilization skills. Learning materials and resources are not also consistently available among counties.

#### **7.2.5.3. Inflated Training Institutions**

Mushrooming of private teachers training colleges was a serious challenge mentioned by some of the informants. The following account declares the challenge.

*There are over 600 hundred teacher training colleges. While you wake up from your sleep in the morning, you will find a new one opened. One has to come to MoE to take the checklist for the requirement before he opens the college. But there is persistent illegal interest and ignorance. When we discover they are opened; we recommend closure. Even if they went right track and later if they perform below the standard, we recommend closure. Now there is no more registration to avoid such a problem. ("Beatrice", Beatrice 1, 2019)*

Similarly, "Martha" has informed that there are mushrooming teacher training colleges that use untrained teacher educators. She said; *"they are often opened without our knowledge. Sometimes we found them at the end of the training when their candidates come for registration to MoE. Such colleges which provide diploma or certificate are illegal and derecognized"*. The informant also indicated that how the quality assurance system excludes graduates from such training colleges.

#### **7.2.5.4. Teacher Educators' Attitude toward the CBC**

According to "Beatrice", many teacher educators have a bad attitude toward the new Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC). They need the old and traditional way of teaching the fact that they are professionals. Along this line, the informant stated that she is giving an induction for teacher educators to fill their gaps. However, as she stated, some of the teacher educators do not recognize officials from the ministry of education as trainers and sometimes they remain astonished while they observe against their expectations. She said; *I go with my training materials to give them an induction and they say 'She came from the office but she has teaching aids'*. She also mentioned that ECCE policy is challenged by the stakeholders including teacher educators as they did not properly take it as a multi-sectoral area of intervention.

#### **7.2.5.5. Other Challenges**

As indicated by "Kimani", the trainees have a negative attitude toward teaching in ECCE subsector. One reason is the low level of salary. This challenge was also attributable to employers. A number of ECCE providing institutions are far to employ qualified ECCE teachers; rather, they go for cheaper ones and consequently they

marginalize trained teachers and hold the untrained workforce. ECCE teacher trainees are getting into the training colleges with the lowest high school-leaving examination grades and this has a huge negative impact on the teacher trainees.

"Isaac" reported that employment for Kenyan ECCE teachers is challenging for they are not absorbed or employed by the national government as other levels of teachers. For him, even the county government has no proper and organized way of employment, no particular scale of salary that is not based on the qualification. Counties have no adequate focus on ECCE the fact that it is constitutionally devolved. There are many training colleges and the market seems saturated; as a result, trainees are challenged with unemployment and this, in turn, hampers ECCE teacher education.

In view of "Elizabeth", the lack of teaching-learning resources and facilities is one of the serious challenges in KU. She believes this limitation has led to theory-centric training thereby influenced the teaching methodology and assessment of teacher educators into the traditional approach. "Kimani" partly shares the idea of "Elizabeth" while "Judy" demonstrated the long-standing lack of resources and facilities both at public ECCE program and teacher training program levels.

Apart from the aforesaid challenges, the interview with "Mathew" has shown a lack of proper monitoring and evaluation of teacher training colleges. In particular, the challenge worsens at private teacher training providers. The informant also believes that the absence of proper teachers' motivational schemes, career structure, and employment made ECCE teacher education the least professional choice.

The quantitative research participants from Kenyatta University (KU) have specified major challenges in their initial training. Table 7.1 summarizes the challenges into two categories.

Table 7.2: Challenges as described by sample KU teacher trainees

No.	Selection and Recruitment Policy related	Teacher Preparation related
1	Very low academic requirements	Frequent change of training curriculum
2	Societal disrespect to the profession	Some uncommitted teacher educators
3	Unemployment	Lack of adequate training facilities
4	Poor and inconsistent salary scale	Inadequate funding for the training
5	TSC's recruitment policy	Lack of more opportunities for practice

Source: 2019 Survey

### 7.3. Findings from the Quantitative Data

#### 7.3.1. Introduction to the National ECCE Policy, Program and Curriculum

Table 7.3: *Participants' response on introduction to ECCE policy, program and curriculum*

No.	Variable		Yes	No	Total
1	Introduction to ECCE policy	Count	4	36	40
		%	10	90	100
2	Introduction to ECCE programs	Count	5	40	40
		%	12.	100	100
3	Introduction to ECCE curriculum	Count	12	28	40
		%	30	70	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.3 describes participants' responses to the introduction to ECCE policy, program, and curriculum. This simple descriptive statistical analysis revealed that the great majority of the participants (90%) were not introduced to the ECCE policy. They were also totally (100%) unfamiliar with the existing national ECCE programs. However, 30% of them appeared to have awareness of the new ECCE curriculum.

It seems that at least the old 2006 National ECCE Policy or at most the new 2017 National ECDE Policy was not part of the training. As shown from the open-ended response, all those participants who declared to be introduced to the national curriculum specified the 2017 new Competency-Based Curriculum. This might be an indication at

least the university is trying to make its curriculum aligned with the national curriculum. Nevertheless, the majority (70%) were not aware of this. Thus, the CBC does not seem institutionally introduced or aligned within the initial teacher training of Kenyatta University (KU).

### 7.3.2. Selection Policy of the Entrants

Table 7.4: *Participants' response to other Entry Requirements*

No.	Variable		Yes	No	Total
1	Other entry requirements	Count	14	26	40
		%	35	65	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.4 demonstrates participants' responses to other entry requirements before they join the training. The minority (35%) replied that they have been asked other entry requirements than their high school leaving a national examination score. National certificates for primary and secondary education were the requirements mentioned by this group of participants. Conversely, the rest of the participants (65%) declared there were no other selection criteria. This seems statistically surprising divergence and needs further investigation on the basis of the teacher selection policy.

### 7.3.3. Curriculum and Pedagogical Issues

Table 7.5: *Participants' rating on the quality of Curricular and Pedagogical Issues*

Variable		Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Poor	Total
Training curriculum	Count	4	15	13	6	2	40
	%	10	37.5	32.5	15	5	100
Teaching methodology	Count	2	17	19	1	1	40
	%	5	42.5	47.5	2.5	2.5	100
Assessment technique	Count	4	10	21	5	0	40
	%	10	25	52.5	12.5	0	100
Practicum or practical courses		4	8	25	3	0	40
		10	20	62.5	7.5	0	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.5 shows participants' ratings on curricular and pedagogical issues. It is apparent from this table that nearly half of the participants have shown better satisfaction with the training curriculum. On the contrary, 2(5%) and 6(15%) of the participants have decided poor and low respectively while the minority (32.5%) were moderately satisfied. The combining effect of this minority and a substantial minority (47.5%) may statistically ensure acceptable satisfaction within the majority of the participants. The descriptive analysis (Mean score=3.33) corroborates this result.

The ratings on teacher educators' teaching methodology have shown different results to that of the ratings on the quality of training curriculum. Only 2(5%) of the



participants have decided poor and low respectively. Among the remaining participants (95%), almost half of the participants 19(47.5%) were satisfied with their teachers' approach. The same portion of participants (47.5%) was also moderately satisfied. The mean score for this item was (3.45) which can be regarded as a high extent.

The participants' rating on their teacher educators' assessment technique has shown a slight difference compared to the teaching approach. The small minority (5%) were unhappy with their teachers' assessment techniques. More than 50% of the participants were moderately satisfied with the assessment technique. The participants' aggregate rating of high and very high scales was also 35%. It looks that the participants were more satisfied with their teachers' teaching methodology than the assessment technique. The calculated moderate mean score (3.33) was found to support this result.

As shown from the table, the tiny minority (7.5%) were not satisfied with the practicum and practical courses whereas a greater portion of the participants (62.5%) were moderately satisfied. The rest (20%) and (10%) rated high and very high respectively. The descriptive statistics (Mean score=3.32) revealed moderate satisfaction. It appears that more than 90% of the participants were satisfied moderately and beyond.

### 7.3.4. Professional Issues

Table 7.6: *Participants' satisfaction with their teachers' competence*

Variable		Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Poor	Total
Subject matter knowledge	Count	0	13	24	2	1	40
	%	0	32.5	60	5	2.5	100
Professional skill	Count	0	13	24	3	0	40
	%	0	32.5	60	7.5	0	100
Professional ethics	Count	0	5	21	14	0	40
	%	0	12.5	52.5	35	0	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.6 presents participants' ratings on the professional competence of their teachers. The subject matter knowledge of the Kenyan teacher educators in the eyes of the majority of participants (60%) seems of moderate quality. On the other hand, 32.5% of the participants considered that their teachers have a high level of knowledge. As can be seen from the table, the rest were a tiny minority (7.5%) who were not satisfied with the subject matter knowledge of their teachers. It can be drawn from the mean score (3.23) that the participants are moderately satisfied in their teachers' subject matter knowledge.

As seen from descriptive statistics (Mean score=3.25), it is also apparent that the participants had almost similar satisfaction levels in their teachers' professional skills to that of their teachers' subject matter knowledge. However, the mean score (2.78) has shown a difference in the professional ethics of the teacher educators. The participants

seem more satisfied with their teachers' subject matter knowledge and skill than their teachers' professional ethics. Nevertheless, as per the mean score results, one can generally infer from the above table that the participants' were moderately satisfied with the professional competence of their teachers.

Table 7.7: *Participants' rating on their professional competence*

Variable		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Interest on the profession	Count	2	9	10	12	7	40
	%	5	22.5	25	30	17.5	100
Necessary knowledge on ECCE	Count	5	11	14	9	1	40
	%	12.5	27.5	35	22.5	2.5	100
Necessary skill on ECCE	Count	5	13	13	9	0	40
	%	12.5	32.5	32.5	22.5	0	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.7 shows participants' ratings toward their professional competence. Nearly, half of the participants (47.5%) did not believe that they have an interest in their profession. In contrast, 27.5% of the participants believe that they have an interest in their profession whereas the rest 25% were neutral to decide. The mean score (2.68) also revealed that the participants tended to be moderately interested in their profession. The

mean scores calculated for the participants' necessary knowledge acquisition (3.25) and skill development (3.23) revealed a significant difference to that of their interest in the teaching profession.

### 7.3.5. Service Satisfaction

Table 7.8: *Participants' satisfaction with some Facilities and Resources*

Variable		Highly Satisfied	Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Unsatisfied	Highly Unsatisfied	Total
Library	Count	11	20	9	0	0	39
	%	27.5	50	22.5	0	0	100
In-door materials	Count	1	19	19	1	0	40
	%	2.5	47.5	47.5	2.5	0	100
Out-door materials	Count	0	17	21	0	2	40
	%	0	42.5	52.5	0	5	100
Workshop	Count	0	14	18	7	1	40
	%	0	35	45	17.5	2.5	100

Source: Survey data, 2019

Table 7.8 illustrates the participants' satisfaction with some of the facilities and resources. As illustrated in the table, 50% and 27.5% of the participants were satisfied and highly satisfied with the library service respectively while the remaining 22.5% were moderately satisfied. The descriptive statistics (Mean score=4.05) have also shown a high

extent mean score. Hence, the satisfaction level of the participants on the library service was found to be high.

Regarding the in-door materials, one participant was unsatisfied. Nearly half of the research participants (47.5%) were moderately satisfied. Another similar portion of participants (47.5%) were satisfied while only one participant (2.5%) was highly satisfied. The mean score (3.50) shows that there was a high extent of satisfaction among the participants.

As seen from the mean score (3.33), there was a slight difference in participants' satisfaction with respect to the out-door materials. It can be said that the research participants were moderately satisfied with the out-door materials within the university compound. The participants' satisfaction with the workshop facilities has indicated a noticeable difference than the former two facilities. The mean score (3.13), in this respect, has shown the least of their satisfaction, and yet the result can be considered as a moderate extent.

Table 7.9: *Participants' satisfaction with Departmental and Administrative Services*

Variable		Highly Satisfied	Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Unsatisfied	Highly Unsatisfied	Total
Departmental services	Count	0	15	21	4	0	40
	%	0	37.5	52.5	10	0	100
Administrative services	Count	1	9	24	5	1	40
	%	2.5	22.5	60	12.5	2.5	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.9 demonstrates participants' satisfaction with departmental and administrative services. The minority (37.5%) seem satisfied with the departmental services. Around half of the participants (52.5%) were moderately satisfied with the service they obtained from their department. In contrast, the remaining 10% were unsatisfied with the service. The descriptive statistics (Mean score=3.28) similarly have shown some level of satisfaction within the participants. However, the satisfaction level of the participants with the administrative service has slightly differed. This was supported by descriptive statistics (Mean score=3.10). It seems that the participants were more satisfied with the departmental service than the administrative service.

### 7.3.6. Certification

Table 7.10: *Participants' response on certification/licensing/registration*

No.	Variable		Yes	No	Total
1	Certification/Licensing/Registration	Count	28	12	40
		%	70	30	100

Source: Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.10 presents participants' responses on certification, licensing or registration. The majority (70%) of the participants know that they are going to be examined and registered upon their training completion. As per the data obtained from an open-ended response, they also specified the respective authorities that examine and register them. Conversely, the rest (30%) do not know the existence of the licensing system.

#### **7.4. Summary**

Kenyan education and training policy has started to evolve right after independence. The policy evolution has significantly manifested in the ECCE subsector as findings of this case study revealed. Notwithstanding prior policy initiatives, the 2005 Sessional Paper No. 1 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training, and Research was a remarkable policy lever. The 2006 National ECD Policy can be taken as a fruitful realization of the Sessional paper. The findings of this case study demonstrated how ECCE was less considered before the coming of the 2006 National ECD Policy.

The 2012 National Education and Training Policy Framework was another policy evolution where ECCE as a subsector was better recognized. Subsequently, the National Education Sector Plan (NESP) from 2013 - 2018 has clearly shown a growing reform need in ECCE. As a result of this sector development plan, the 2017 new National ECDE Policy has been formulated. This policy, as stated in the document, identified gaps within the 2006 policy and was prepared comprehensively. One of the informants tried to show the distinction between the two policies underlining that the former was merely confined to ECD while the later grown into ECDE. Many of the interviewees in this case study are hoping this new policy to forge and maintain the comprehensive improvement of ECCE. However, the quantitative approach of this case study statistically depicted that the great majority of the sample participants have no awareness of the old and new policies.

Earlier, ECCE had no clear organized government structure. It was then governed centrally by the ministry of education till the coming of the 2010 Constitution. The 2010

constitution made ECCE a devolved function. This legal framework has precisely put the shared responsibilities of the national government and the county governments. Except for policy formation, curriculum preparation, and teacher training, ECCE has become the full responsibility of counties. The Directorate for ECCE at the national level coordinates ECCE at the top while other great portions of administrative units govern the subsector bridging between the ministry of education and ECCE centers at a grass-root level.

Government and private preschools or kindergartens, mobile ECCE centers, *Madrassa* and *Duksi* are Kenyan ECCE program modalities in which children aged 4-5 are engaged. There appeared a lack of clear entry ages despite much of the policy documents ascertained that children aged 4-5 are illegible for the second cohort of ECCE. A formal program is undertaken within preschool or kindergarten or sometimes called ECCE centers. The rest modalities are informal programs serving the rural and arid parts of the nation. *Madrassa*, among these informal modalities, is a longstanding program for the Muslim community of the nation. In past times, children were not required attendance in ECCE to join grade one as preschool was not compulsory for primary education. Currently, a childhood attends before schooling and there is a national assessment tool that assesses the competence of the child to enter grade one. The quantitative research of this study, in line with this, shows that all the participants were unfamiliar particularly with all non-formal program modalities.

The document analysis of this case study revealed proper recognition of the two elements (*care* and *education*) in ECCE. The ministry of education has been engaged with the *care* aspect of ECCE in collaboration with the health sector. However, the findings of this case study have shown the disconnection between the theory and the



practice of these two components. ECCE teachers accordingly have been criticized for their inappropriate approach despite their training.

The interview of this case study affirmed that the first ECCE curriculum was prepared in 1985 right after the establishment of the National Center for Early Childhood Education (NACECE) and the District Center for Early Childhood Education (DICECE). The curriculum has been reviewed till the development of the 2017 new Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC).

The CBC was one of the education and training reform policies envisaged in the NESP Vol. 1. The development of the CBC has passed rigorous steps and called intensive stakeholders' participation. An interesting initiative taken in the development of the CBC was considerable attention to align ECCE curriculum with the teacher training curriculum. However, some of the interviewees of this case study have the greatest concern toward the implementation of the CBC because of emerging resistance. The introduction of the CBC for the stakeholders seems to face difficulties. The majority of the quantitative research participants from Kenyatta University (KU) were not introduced to the CBC. This gap and resistance with some teacher educators as revealed from the interview were taken as emerging challenges.

The earliest and indigenous ECCE program modality, *Madrassa*, has been integrated into the national curriculum. It has also been aligned with the teacher training and teacher training institutions are providing Islamic education as one of the courses. It is hoped that this practice will be strengthened if the CBC is going to be properly

implemented. It has to be noted that religion is one of the core competencies of the new curriculum.

The prominence of quality ECCE and quality teacher education was well noted among the interviewees. The policy documents as well have shown growing reform interest both to ECCE quality and teacher quality. There appeared a greater hope with the new 2017 National ECDE Policy among the informants to see a better quality of the subsector. Some of these informants were doubtful within the devolved function of ECCE, however. They took the existing inconsistent practice and capacity of the county governments as a major barrier to have a nationwide quality improvement in ECCE.

The Teacher Service Commission (TCS) has a key role in teacher registration, recruitment, transfer, promotion, and discipline since its establishment in 1968. There have been different policies and actions to improve teacher quality and their working conditions. Nonetheless, the effort did not bring significant and expected change. The total trained ECCE teachers in 2005 were only 44%, for instance. On the other hand, ECCE teacher training was not properly integrated into the national teacher education system.

The document analysis of this case study revealed unplanned teacher recruitment that affected teacher distribution and quality education as well. This problem has called for a policy reform despite its insignificant change in the ECCE subsector. Some of the interviewees have reflected similar ideas. Given the document analysis of this case study, ECCE teacher demand-supply has not been part of the policy reforms made so far.

As regards the entry requirement, there found a similarity between the findings of the interview and the document analysis. Accordingly, "C" was enough to join the training in diploma program among other criteria required. The interview also has shown other options to train in a diploma program. The entry requirements for Madrassa and Duksi programs were not part of the initial training selection policy as teachers for such modalities are training through the in-service training.

Finding precise attractive career arrangements for ECCE teachers appears to be problematic from the findings of this case study. Policies at the national level have shown teacher career arrangements and benefits packages. Nevertheless, the policies tend to privilege teachers beyond the ECCE subsector. This is mainly because recruitment of ECCE teachers is the responsibility of the counties and they have inconsistent capacities and practices as already discussed. Rather, low and irregular salaries, low teachers' motivation and high attrition were evident within the policy documents.

The document analysis of this study shows the absence of an organized independent ECCE teacher training curriculum in past times. This was because teachers were training to teach both in preprimary centers and primary schools. Evidence also revealed that KICD has a responsibility to prepare the national teacher training curriculum except for higher education. Currently, there is a curriculum supported by teachers' handbooks and other materials for ECCE teacher training in certificate and diploma programs. Nearly half of (47.5%) and a great portion (62.5%) of the quantitative research participants were statistically satisfied with the existing training curriculum and the practicum courses correspondingly.

The 2017 CBC and the 2017 Facilitators Training Manual have shown clear implications on the ongoing competency-based teacher training curriculum preparation. These policy documents aside from this revealed curricular alignment as already discussed. However, the question of whether CBC has been introduced in initial training or not seems to have inconclusive evidence. Divergent responses were reflected among the interviewees while the majority of the quantitative research participants statistically ascertained a lack of introduction to the CBC. In a move toward the introduction of the CBC, the 2017 Facilitators Training Manual was prepared to be implemented in the in-service program. However, this document has failed to include teacher educators.

Teachers' approach in line with the training curriculum was one of the issues that emerged among the interviewees of this case study. The existing training curriculum seems more to focus on the content. Scoring high results were also considered as an achievement. Inversely, the new CBC and its concomitant training curriculum were found to focus on child development and competencies. One of the interviewees in relation to this strongly criticized prevailing irrelevant pedagogy among ECCE teachers. Almost half of (47.5%) and (35%) of the quantitative research participants from KU have shown statistically their satisfaction in their teachers' methodology and assessment technique respectively.

The policy documents reportedly revealed the prevalence of weak quality assurance systems for accreditation of teacher training providers. Some documents also demonstrated reform initiatives to improve the quality of the training institutions. However, other documents inversely reported challenges attributed to curricular frameworks, teacher educators, facilities, resources, and administrations which are

aspects of quality inspection areas. The Directorate for Quality Assurance and Standards in collaboration with county offices makes the quality assurance of training institutions before the final endorsement of accreditation.

From the policy viewpoint, any teacher educator shall be registered or licensed by TCS. This was also corroborated with the findings of the interview. Nevertheless, there appeared a minimal registration record as revealed in the interview. Findings of this case study apart from certification have shown the existence of untrained teacher educators in the ECCE subsector despite much improvement. The absence of a clear professional route to be a teacher educator was also another problem as revealed in the document analysis.

The Kenyan teacher certification policy reform has been evolving since the establishment of TSC in 1968. The reform on ECCE teacher certification particularly has been considered after the 2005 Sessional Paper no. 1 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training, and Research. The policy documents also have shown the current need for the policy reform of ECCE teacher certification.

Both the policy documents and participants of this case study consistently declared that TSC is responsible for ECCE teacher registration the fact that some of the quantitative research participants were unhappy regarding the recruitment. The interviewee in this case study precisely illustrated the synergy between KICD, NEC, and TSC putting the Directorate for quality assurance and standards at the center of coordination.

Unemployment of ECCE teachers, poor remuneration, poor academic entry requirement, entrants with low morale and motivation, lack of proper recognition by TSC, and lack of resources and facilities were challenges consistently demonstrated in this case study. Many of the informants believe that ECCE as a subsector is less regarded by the government and some demonstrated lack of practice despite adequate policy framework. Similarly, divergent contexts and practices on teachers' recruitment and inflation of private teacher training providers were among the major challenges this case study revealed. This case study reported contradicting views on teacher training curriculum. The document analysis asserted that lack of training curriculum revision was a challenge. In contrast, some of the respondents from KU mentioned continuous training curriculum change as a challenge.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT: CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS (COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS)**

This chapter is dedicated to showing the heart of the whole study. The chapter compares and contrasts the two case studies and establishes similarities and differences. Findings of the two national cases under each thematic issue were discussed using cross-case analysis. The discussion was corroborated by empirical findings. Some of the findings were analyzed as per their theoretical implications. Challenges demonstrated in the document analysis, the interview, and the survey were investigated and partly strengthened with literature. Major findings of the case studies were also compared with the wider (regional and global contexts) to see implications. This chapter answers the research questions of this study in a pragmatic manner.

### **8.1. An Overview on the ECCE Systems**

#### **8.1.1. Policy Evolution**

The findings of this research revealed that the respective nations substantially differed in their ECCE policy development journey. ECCE as a subsector and its teacher education have an insufficient position in the Ethiopian 1994 Education and Training Policy (ETP). ECCE was not a policy, a strategic or sector development issue for more than a decade since the implementation of the ETP. There was no considerable national policy initiative until the formation of the 2010 National Policy Framework for ECCE and the 2010 Strategic Operational Plan and Guidelines of ECCE. This study has shown that the domino effect of the ETP and other successive policy initiatives on ECCE teacher education was increasingly apparent.

As already discussed, the Ethiopian education reform in the 1940s was not a reflection of the policymaking and implementation process. The policy landmarks in the 1950s also fall apart from significant implementation. Progressive education policy reform was shown from the three successive education sector plans undertaken from 1957-1973. Specifically, the 1972 "Education Sector Review" was a remarkable review in the national education and training system. However, ECCE as a subsector was not part of all these policy initiatives. A relatively better concern for ECCE was seen within the Ten Year Perspective Plan between 1984/85-1994/95 (See chapter two, section 2.2.2).

Unlike the Ethiopian, ECCE and its teacher education were long considered in Kenyan education policy reforms since independence. The education policy evolution seems dynamic starting from 1965. It went through redefining the education policy at all levels and came up with "Harambee" schools. All functions of ECCE were under the ministry of education as of 1980. The establishment of the two ECCE centers (NACECE and DICECE) at national and district levels was the result of the policy reform.

The first Education Sector Support Program (ESSP) paid considerable attention to ECCE and this was against the three Education Sector Development Plans during Haile Sellassie I regime and, ESDP I and II of the current Ethiopian government. The Sessional Paper No. 1, 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research also asserted how ECCE has got considerable attention. The 2006 ECD and the 2017 national ECDE policies have also shown fundamental policy evolution. Indeed, research has proven Kenya's longest tradition of ECEC policy development among the African nations (UNESCO, 2002; Kamerman, 2006; Mbugua, 2009; Mungai, 2016).



One interesting similarity found within the respective countries' ECCE policy development was the role of international organizations. It was a twofold impact; provision of technical and financial support. UNICEF, among others, was found to be the leading agency as children are its prime concern (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017; Takyi-Amoako & Assie-Lumumba, 2018). The intervention aside from the national ECCE policy formulation demonstrates multilateral organizations as one of the global driving forces in national policy reform. It also dictates the influence of neoliberal education as a stance of neo-institutional theory (Wiseman et al., 2013a; Akiba, 2017; Paine et al., 2017).

There appeared a policy convergence between Ethiopian and Kenyan education sector policy evolutions. The Kenyan Education Sector Strategic Plans (ESSPs) and the National Education Strategic Plan (NESP), and the Ethiopian Education Sector Development Plans/Programs (ESDPs) can be a clear manifestation of the convergence despite differences toward the concern paid for ECCE and its teacher education. Another identical feature of the policies was their alignment with other national policies while it is important (Garcia et al., 2008). However, the Kenyan ECCE policy goes beyond alignment; it is interlinked with the 2010 constitution. It also considered the 2030 national vision, SDG, and African Agenda 2063. Table 8.1 illustrates Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE policies' alignment with their respective national, transnational, and legal policy frameworks.

Table 8.1: Alignment of ECCE policies with other national, legal and transnational policies

No.	Ethiopian ECCE Policy aligned with:	Kenyan ECCE Policy aligned with:
1	The 1994 Education and Training Policy	The Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005
2	The National Health Policy	The 2012 Education and Training Policy
3	The National Nutrition Strategy	The 2010 National Constitution
4	National Policy and Legal Framework on Child Rights	The National Vision 2030
5		The 2010 National Children's Policy
6		Regional and International Protocols

Source: MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010b; Republic of Kenya, 2017a

There are two approaches in the development of ECCE policies: a multi-sectored policy that makes different sectors responsible for the execution and a stand-alone ECCE policy (Neuman & Devercelli 2012; UNESCO, 2019). Based on these approaches, the current Ethiopian ECCE policy is multi-sectored as the Kenyan looks more of a stand-alone policy despite the need for collaboration with other sectors. In both cases, however, initial teacher training is the responsibility of the education sector.

### 8.1.2. Governance Structure

The findings of this research have shown a clear governance structure in Kenyan ECCE. The coordination between the national education sector, counties, sub-counties,

wards, and ECCE centers seems synergized coherently (See chapter seven, section 7.1.1.2). The two institutions, NACECE and DICECE, have been playing a key role in ECCE coordination. The 2010 Constitution has also made ECCE a devolved function. Participants of this research uncovered disadvantages of this legal devolvement in the initial teacher training quality assurance, however. In a similar vein, the 2017 new ECDE Policy worth noted the gap due to the devolving function between NACECE and DICECE and intended to address the challenge. Such findings seem to have contradicting effects against the prominence of legalizing education policies (Neuman & Devercelli, 2012) and institutionalized synergy between national and sub-national entities (Wiseman et al., 2013b).

As seen from figure 6 in chapter six, the coordination structure of Ethiopian ECCE does not show any responsible department, desk office or unit at MoE, REB and WEO levels. On the other hand, the policy framework states that the engine for the implementation of ECCE is the task force and strong ECCE unit (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). Yet, there is no ECCE unit at federal and subsequent levels of educational administration. Finding ECCE specialists from the experts in different core educational departments both at the ministry and regional education bureau levels is too much difficult. There are some experts for whom ECCE is secondary responsibility. The only expert working for ECCE was found in the curriculum preparation and implementation directorate at the ministry level. Several offices do exist but take the role of coordinating ECCE as their secondary duties. In fact, the subsequent subsectors, primary and secondary education, have also no independent offices within the general education system. Yet, insufficient concern for ECCE within the system matters as findings of this

research revealed. The international practice, including the Kenyan experience, shows that ECCE needs its own policy that in turn dictates the need for a clear and semi-autonomous governance structure. The findings of this study asserted that the Ethiopian ECCE governance structure has affected the overall quality of ECCE including its initial teacher training.

### **8.1.3. ECCE Programs**

One of the similar patterns observed from the respective ECCE policies and systems was the prevalence of defined formal and non-formal ECCE program modalities. The policy frameworks of the respective nations articulated the nature of the programs mainly their purposes. Yet two of the Ethiopian modalities, *child to child* and *accelerated school readiness* programs, lack clarity. In particular, the *child-to-child* program appeared to be much difficult for monitoring and evaluation. It seems nonprofessional activity and an illusory platform. Further, it has a very complicated implication on the quality and relevance of ECCE teacher education.

The 2010 Ethiopian ECCE Policy Framework establishes alternatives where there are no preschools or ECCE centers. According to the policy document, any suitable available community building can be used, including community centers, churches or mosques, Alternative Basic Education (ABE) centers and primary school compounds. Nevertheless, the policy does not look clear enough how churches or mosques are functioning since education in Ethiopian policy is secular.

The Ethiopian education and training policy is not integrated with indigenous preschools i.e. church schools and *madrassa*. This remains different from the Kenyan

policy and practice. The Integrated Islamic Education in *madrasa* program witnessed the place of indigenous education in Kenya. Two major implications of this practice can be the impact of the program in ECCE and its teacher training; and how the theoretical underpinning of neo-institutionalism provides room for local contexts (Wiseman et.al, 2013b; Zajda, 2009).

#### **8.1.4. ECCE Curriculum**

A significant difference was evident within the respective nations' ECCE curriculum. According to the document analysis of this study, the existing Ethiopian ECCE curriculum framework was found to be insufficient, fragmented, inconsistent, and inappropriate. The 2010 Ethiopian National Curriculum for General Education (KG-Grade 12), for instance, envisages seeing high-quality education designed and implemented at all levels of formal education. This vision shows its clear mismatch with the current nationally dominating non-formal ECCE program. Conversely, the Kenyan ECCE has already joined the new era of curriculum reform and implementation.

Notwithstanding the new Ethiopian "O" class curriculum is functioning to develop children's pre-literacy and pre-numeracy skills (Teferra, 2017); a heated debate emerged on the relevance of the 2009 Syllabus for ECCE and the 2010 Ethiopian National Curriculum for General Education (KG-Grade 12). The findings of this study have witnessed that neither of these curricular policy documents seems to fit the existing ECCE program modalities. The 2010 Strategic Operational Plan and Implementation Guidelines of ECCE have planned to have a comprehensive curriculum to meet all the needs of different age groups and all teachers have to use this curriculum as a guide. Yet,

there is no comprehensive national curricular framework. It also appears clear that this plan has intended to replace the 2009 Syllabus.

The 2009 Syllabus for ECCE and the national curricular framework may serve solely one of the Ethiopian ECCE program modalities, *kindergarten*. Unfortunately, however, the syllabus has not been in use as the findings of this study declared. The syllabus seems to be an illegitimate curricular framework since its formulation and appears to be almost nonexistent. Policy legitimization in neo-institutional theory mostly associates with the explanation of global expansion and legitimization of education policies among nations (Wiseman et al., 2013b). It appears that neo-institutionalism needs to further consider the process of intra-national policy legitimization and resistance. This illegitimate curricular framework may rather dictate the notion of "decoupling" due to internal institutional resistance among the actors.

Core competencies, key learning areas, and activities are illustrated and the role of ECCE teachers is articulated in the 2017 Kenyan Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC). The CBC bases relevant theories intending to ensure culturally and developmentally appropriate ECCE. The theories were also found to be common frameworks of teacher education. In contrast, the Ethiopian ECCE curriculum framework has no theoretical foundation. The CBC has introduced Capacity-Building Framework for teacher training. This was another different feature of the CBC that manifests a very important alignment strategy between the school curriculum and teacher education curriculum. A key difference revealed between the Ethiopian and the Kenyan ECCE curriculum framework was discovered on religious and moral competence. In the Kenyan curriculum

framework, religious and moral values are part and parcel of the education and training system as the Ethiopian is completely secular.

#### **8.1.5. Care and Education**

There found a very growing policy concern on the *care* aspects of ECCE in both nations. As per the documents, this concern seems intertwined with that of global principles. The policy documents revealed mounting evidence on the prominence of overall child development and learning. Nevertheless, ensuring the *care* aspect of ECCE in practice seems difficult for the respective nations. In particular, it appears a challenge for Ethiopian ECCE since the responsibility goes predominantly to the health sector. Poor coordination mechanisms with other sectors also worsened the problem.

While the *care* aspect of ECCE has got sufficient place in the policy documents of the respective nations as already said, the practice appeared to be negligible. As per the findings from the document analysis and empirical studies, expecting proper early childhood care in both nations might be elusive for many reasons. Prior concern on access for pre-primary education, inadequate political commitment, insufficient investment, heterogeneous early childhood population, and lack of trained teachers are potential reasons among others. There is also a missing link between the *care* aspect of ECCE and teacher education. As a result, teachers' engagement in the *care* aspect of ECCE was problematic associating with the initial training of the nations. There is significant evidence from the findings of this study and empirical researches on how teachers in both nations are more inclined to the *education* aspect of ECCE: reading, writing, and arithmetic. The quantitative research participants of this study were unable to

properly define the *care* aspect of ECCE. This might signify the knowledge gaps within the teacher trainees. Hence, the respective national teacher training may need to consider this gap.

## **8.2. Quality Assurance Arrangement Policies**

### **8.2.1. Introduction**

In both nations, the ministry of education is responsible for the provision of teacher education. The Ethiopian ECCE was different from Kenyan ECCE in privatizing teacher education. The current Ethiopian regulation does not allow privatization of teacher education and hence the training institutions are government-based. In Kenya, however, the majority of teacher training institutions are private. A difference is also seen in the training level of teacher education. Notwithstanding the provision of informal short-term pre-service training and efforts to train ECCE professionals at undergraduate and graduate levels, the current teacher training in Ethiopia is mainly offered at the diploma level. Conversely, the Kenyan initial ECCE teacher education ranges from certificate to Ph.D. levels.

Quality assurance arrangement policies for initial teacher education are said to be effective if they are considerably capable to attract, well prepare and certify trainee teachers (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). It appears that the respective nations have no single comprehensive teacher policy under which teacher education is comprised as a major component. Neither do they have an independent initial training policy that encompasses the three components of quality assurance arrangements. Much of ECCE teacher education policy issues were disseminated in different policy documents the fact



that there are few general teacher development policies and regulations (MoE, 2007; the Republic of Kenya, 2015).

Ethiopian and Kenyan policy documents have shown gaps within their national ECCE teacher training and planned counter-reforms for improvement. Much of the anticipated reforms were planned in their respective education sector development programs. Along this line, the Ethiopian fifth Education Sector Development Program (ESDP V 2015/16-2019/20) set a very ambitious plan regarding teacher quality at all levels of education. The following extract says '*During ESDP V, a strategy to transform teaching into a profession of choice will be implemented*' better demonstrates the plan' (MoE, 2015 p.56). The Kenyan National Education Sector Plan (NESP 2013-2018) on its part sets *the teacher as a prime target as one of the most likely returns in a quality lift from investment in the sector*' (Republic of Kenya/ MoEST, 2013, p. xxix).

### **8.2.2. Teacher Recruitment and Selection Policy**

Successful recruitment policy keeps the balance between the demand and supply of teachers (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). A recruitment strategy according to UNESCO (2019) must be evidence-informed based on current and projected qualitative and quantitative needs. This was one of the major missing links of the respective initial teacher education recruitment policies. The Ethiopian ESDP V planned to train ECCE teachers despite the absence of evidence of whether this is a simple plan or real demand. The plan by itself was contested by the policy implementers and the sector is behind its target. Given this plan, there appeared a huge asymmetrical relation between the demand and supply of the teachers as stated in the following account.

*We planned to train 100, 000 teachers both in certificate and diploma in our ESDP V (2015/16-2019/20). Nationally we cannot afford to train sufficient teachers in a diploma at the moment. We need to have at least one ECCE teacher at all 36, 000 ECCE centers. If we make it two, we have to train 72,000 teachers. This is impossible and we should have to wait 3 years. We are thinking to train more with a one year certificate and later to upgrade into a diploma through in-service training. Regional bureaus are working on that. But we do have a critical problem with regard to qualified teacher educators and we have to work on that.*

(Getachew, January 15, 2019)

It seems possible to understand from the above description that the plan was impractical from the beginning. This, in turn, demonstrated the absence of a demand-supply strategy that is clearly seen within the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint. Other policy documents in a similar manner were unable to indicate the demand-supply of ECCE teachers however ESDP V generally envisaged equitable distribution of teachers across the nation. It appears worth mentioning the above abortive national plan was entirely for public or government ECCE centers. Negligence in the private sector can be one indication of failure to have clear demand and supply chain of teachers, but collapsing to meet this limited plan may worsen the problem.

The document analysis of this study in a similar vein has shown the longstanding challenge of unplanned teacher recruitment and poor demand-supply strategy in Kenya that affected the distribution across the nation. Policies have been evolving to redress the problem despite this and emerged challenges have continued.

NESP Vol. 2 (2013-2018) did not plan any demand-supply chain of ECCE teachers. The Strategic Plan of Teachers Service Commission (2015-2019), in contrast, has planned to improve the demand-supply of teachers at all levels of basic education. This was intended to be attained through a strong Teacher Management Information System (TMIS). This strategic plan might have identified the problem in this regard and envisaged for betterment. However, no one is certain whether this plan included the ECCE subsector. The prime reason for such uncertainty was the recruitment policy of the Teacher Service Commission (TSC) that excludes ECCE teachers, unlike primary and secondary teachers. Secondly, this study significantly asserted unsystematic and inconsistent teacher recruitment among county governments. ECCE as a subsector is currently victimized due to this policy gap as evidence from this study revealed (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013b; Republic of Kenya/ TSC, 2015).

From the theoretical point of neo-institutionalism, on one hand, there appears a policy disconnection between the national and sub-national levels. On the other side, the ECCE teacher recruitment policy is not consistently and practically institutionalized at the county level. Thus, the devolved function of ECCE based on the 2010 Constitution may need further improvements or practical policy consideration.

A clear convergent pattern between the respective national teacher recruitment policies was the marginalization of the private ECCE sector. The strategic plan (NESP Vol. 1) showed that the Kenyan teacher recruitment policy is demand-driven restricted to the needs of public or government education institutions. The 2007 Ethiopian Teacher Development Blueprint by the same token is solely concerned for the government ECCE sector (MoE, 2007). In line with this issue, some of the Ethiopian research participants

have argued that the government has to consider the training of teachers for the private ECCE sector. The research participants have criticized the irony between this gap and ECCE program accreditation that requires professional teachers. The mere translation of national teacher recruitment policies into government-based institutions seems illogical and non-evident. UNESCO (2019) rather strongly suggests the need for a comprehensive and inclusive teacher recruitment strategy.

One key finding attributed to the Kenyan teacher demand-supply policy was the persistent rate of unemployment. This study discovered unemployment as a prime challenge of the Kenyan ECCE. Many of the research participants were very much concerned with the growing number of unemployment. Almost all the quantitative research participants demonstrated unemployment as a principal national problem. For this reason, notwithstanding inconsistent ECCE teacher recruitment among counties, one can draw the absence of a relevant teacher recruitment policy that tries to balance the demand and supply of national ECCE teacher needs.

The Ethiopian has shown different characteristics against the Kenyan unemployment case, however. The current Ethiopian ECCE subsector is critically suffering from the shortage of teachers as findings of this research revealed. Teaching, consequently, has become anybody's job in Ethiopian ECCE (Admas, 2016). However, this does not mean the Kenyan ECCE is fully operating with trained teachers. There are untrained 'teachers' for some reasons as discussed earlier in chapter seven. The cause for the unemployment, therefore, could not be associated with saturation of trained teachers; but with the devolved, unplanned, and inconsistent recruitment system.

Table 8.2: Selection Criteria for Ethiopian Entrants to ECCE Teacher Training

<b>No.</b>	<b>Academic requirements</b>	<b>Personal and moral requirements</b>
1	Completion of high school (Grade 10)	Aged from 17 to 35
2	Applicants with better scores in English, Mathematics and Natural Science are more privileged	Interest in the teaching profession
3	Applicants with better communication skills are prioritized	Respect for teachers and society
4	Entrance exam	Interest to provide voluntary services and to support people with disabilities
5		Free from addiction and crime
6		Witness for their good personal qualities from the community and their high schools

Source: MoE, 2007

The initial aim of the selection criteria of the 2007 Ethiopian Teacher Development Blueprint was to reform the entry requirements and establish an efficient system that could attract interested applicants. As to this policy document, interested trainees will be selected before their completion of a one-year certificate teacher training. The entry requirements demonstrated in Table 8.2 tended to be prominent for quality assurance of initial teacher education (UNESCO, 2019; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017).

Nonetheless, the objective and the requirements could trigger critics in opposition to the existing reality.

One prime contradiction was between the intention of the selection policy to attract interested applicants and the longstanding truth that reveals the entrance of demotivated and desperate applicants to the profession. Ethiopian interviewees of this research uncovered that applicants entering initial teacher training in ECCE are disinterested who failed to join the preparatory school for university education and desperate who are unable to compete for TVET training opportunities. One of the research participants illustrated hereunder the adverse consequence of demotivated entrants to the training.

*The national outcome of ECCE teacher education is producing quality teachers. But the reality in our case is absolutely far from this. How can we change dispassionate entrants? Once they entered being desperate trainees who failed to join other fields of study, they are not expected to be trained properly. These trainees are not committed for their training. The great majority have been trained to graduate with average result of "C" or scores between 2 and 2.5. (Ali, April 8, 2019)*

This study ascertained that the Kenyan applicants for ECCE teacher training are similarly demotivated entrants and have low morale. There exists also societal disrespect for the Kenyan teachers as is evident in the Ethiopian case.

Another policy paradox in the Ethiopian case emerges from the academic selection criteria. Better achieving students in the national high school leaving examination understandably are illegible for preparatory education (Grade 11 and 12). If

this policy is a trajectory to higher education, how come high scorers in English, Maths and Natural Science are expected to choose a one-year certificate training in teaching? Considering the place of the teaching profession within the Ethiopian society is paramount here. Teachers enjoy the profession and the society respects them in countries where teaching is a choice of professions (Akiba, 2017). However, Ethiopia seems one of the leading nations in which the teaching profession is suffering from societal disrespect. The findings of this research largely have shown how the profession is disrespected and how this in turn affected quality education. It is better to note how the concept of cultural cognition in neo-institutional theory (Ramberg, 2014) is reflected here. The cultural cognition of Ethiopian society affected the quality of initial teacher trainees.

On the other hand, expecting interested selectees before their high school (grade 10) completion seems controversial for two reasons. Being interested in a one year certificate teacher training is unlikely before a student knows his/her result to join preparatory school thereby university education. This selection policy rather may attract a student who considered herself/himself academically weak to join the preparatory school. Again, this will contradict the policy that prioritizes high achievers.

Personal and moral entry requirements as can be seen from Table 8.2 found to be prominent and rigorous. Applicants have to provide credentials that ensure the requirements. The quantitative research participants, however, did not show the existence of these entry requirements. Considering the findings of this research, many of the aforementioned academic and personal selection criteria appear to be inapplicable. The selection criterion for initial teacher education in this respect was not going in accordance with the policy. This implies that the selection process is decoupled from the policy

(Tran, 2016). What is more, the blueprint generally lacks publicity, clarity, and practice within the ECCE subsector.

Other policy documents similar to the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint informed that high school (grade 10) completion is enough to join initial ECCE teacher training (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; MoE, 2015). Yet the selection requirement remains the least national academic score. One major convergence regarding the selection policy between the nations was the least academic results in high school-leaving exam. It is imperative to underline here the respective entry criteria is against global policy documents (UNESCO, 2019; European Union, 2015) and empirical evidence (Caena, 2014; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017) that promotes higher academic achievement.

In Kenya, findings of this research revealed that "C" in the national high school leaving exam is an entry requirement for diploma level training. As mentioned earlier, the Kenyan initial ECCE training level exceeds the certificate and goes up to PhD level. Neither of the documents reviewed has shown any entry requirements for the training beyond the diploma level. It is better to note that the selection criteria for diploma trainees are quite enough to maintain comparability with the Ethiopian entrants. On top of that, it is also important to understand that the higher-level trainings are supposed to meet the demand for ECCE teacher educators.

A recruitment policy with attractive career choices can ensure high-achieving entrants and quality teacher trainees. Such a policy sets attractive salaries, a favorable working environment, and modest career structures (World Bank, 2010; UNESCO, 2019; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). While evaluating the Ethiopian situation with this notion,



the findings of this research revealed unappealing arrangements. Poor salary scale subjected to a high staff turnover was a prime manifestation of Ethiopian career unattractiveness. However, ESDP V (2015/16-2019/20) says, '*From the time of applying to join CTEs, individuals will have access to motivating career development opportunities*' (MoE, 2015 p.57). This initiative was significantly contradicting with the findings of this study.

In a similar sense, the Kenyan career attractiveness was found to be poor because of inconsistent salary scales among counties. High staff turnover was also the result of this unattractive career. According to some of the informants, the teacher trainees have developed a negative attitude toward their profession because of unemployment and low level of salary. The interview has shown that the absence of proper teachers' motivational scheme, career structure and employment made ECCE teacher education the least professional choice.

Table 8.3: Motivational Schemes/Career Benefits for Ethiopian Teachers

No.	Career Benefits	Moral Benefits	Financial and Material Benefits
1	Accelerated career development	Medals and other rewards	Top up for extra commitment
2	Education opportunities	Free educational trips	Bank loan and housing opportunities
3		Commemorative	Pension with a full salary

## Schools

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Source: MoE, 2007

The 2007 Ethiopian Teacher Development Blueprint tried to set merit-based attractive motivational schemes. According to Table 8.3, deserving teachers to an extent will be honored to see a school named by their own personal names. Nevertheless, raising three overarching issues here is prominent. First, the policy tends to exclude ECCE teachers systematically. This was clearly seen within the prescribed activities to be illegible for the motivational schemes. They were solely for primary and secondary teachers (MoE, 2007). Next, as revealed from the research participants, the career arrangements were not applicable even at all levels of teacher training. Thirdly, irrespective of implementing this motivational scheme, the rationale to make teaching as a choice of professions in the Fifth Education Sector Development Program (MoE, 2015) at the expense of this policy arrangement (MoE, 2007) is not clear. From a policy standpoint, the question *'what unique feature has ESDP V (2015/16 - 2019/20) to make teaching the most attractive profession other than the 2007 blue print?'* needs a clear answer.

According to ESDP V, pre-service training candidate selection processes for College of Teacher Education (CTE) will be improved and minimum entry requirements will be established. An important point this plan conveyed here is lack of a proper selection policy. This deficiency triggered the sector development plan to make teaching a choice of profession. However, it has to be noted that the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint demonstrated the requirement of high academic achievers, skilled, ethical, and

interested applicants to the initial teacher training. The blueprint further was much concerned to identify barriers that could hamper the quality of entrants and to develop against strategy (MoE, 2007). Hence, it looks ESDP V overlooked the strength of the blueprint and missed to focus on the implementation strategies of this document.

The 2015 Kenyan Teachers Service Commission Code of Regulations for Teachers set rigorous recruitment procedures. This policy guideline demonstrates how it recruits registered or certified teachers. Accordingly, it advertises available vacancies based on the demand and supply of teachers. Any registered teacher can apply for employment in accordance with the necessary requirements such as a medical examination report. The commission upon completion of procedures offers employment letters for eligible teachers. It recruits teachers on a permanent, pensionable or contractual basis in line with the guideline. The commission, nonetheless, solely recruits primary and secondary teachers. This implies that recruiting ECCE teachers is the responsibility of counties as findings of this research including the 2018 County Early Childhood Bill witnessed. However, as discussed earlier, this recruitment policy is contested by the research participants for compelling reasons.

The 2015 Kenyan Teachers Service Commission Code of Regulations for Teachers demonstrates detailed issues as regards teacher career attractiveness. The promotion of teachers was one of the components of career arrangements under this policy. The promotion criteria and the procedures base schemes of service for teachers that are subjected to availability of vacancies and budgetary provisions. Table 8.4 summarizes the general guidelines of the promotion.

Table 8.4: General Guidelines and Promotion Policy for Kenyan Teachers

No.	General Requirements	Common Promotion	Competitive Promotion
1	Merit and Ability	Requirements:	Requirements:
2	Seniority and Experience	-Teaching Service	-Professional
3	Existence of Vacancy	-Validity of the	Interview
4	Academic & Professional Qualifications	teaching certificate	-Successful completion of
5	Any other criteria set by TSC	- Performance	Teacher Professional Development Program

Source: Republic of Kenya, 2015

As can be seen from Table 8.4, the policy document described two kinds of promotions: common promotion and competitive promotion. The table illustrates the requirements for both types of promotions. It can be said that the promotion guideline hardly attracts new entrants. Along this line, teachers' salary schemes and annual increments are described in the document. All annual increments are subjected to the promotion. It appears that there is no clear indication that shows the attractiveness of the teacher's salary.

Table 8.5: Major Types of Allowances and Requirements

No.	Allowance Type	Requirements
1	House allowance	-Employment (full house allowance during interdiction)
2.	Commuter allowance	-Employment
3	Hardship allowance	-Assignment in a school situated in a known hardship area
4	Special duty allowance	-Performing admin tasks, assignment in arid & semiarid places
5	Special school allowance	-Special education skills and assignment in special school

Source: Republic of Kenya, 2015

As shown in Table 8.5, varied types of teachers' allowances are described in the document. Some of these arrangements have conditional requirements while others do not. House allowance in the policy document was one of equalizing benefits offered for all employed teachers. Regardless of the practice, this sounds to be one major difference from the Ethiopian career arrangements. Housing opportunity in Ethiopian policy was merit-based motivational scheme with all its policy segregation to the ECCE subsector. Other benefits like medical benefits were also found to be divergent arrangements from the Ethiopian. The policy document tended to be exclusive to primary and secondary teachers. However, this document and the 2018 County Early Childhood Bill have shown counties' mandate to recruit ECCE teachers as per the requirements.

A very ambitious plan to transform the teaching profession was seen in Ethiopian ESDP V (2015/16-2019/20). The document says,

*During ESDP V, a strategy to 'transform teaching into a profession of choice' will be implemented. This strategy will focus on the needs of teachers, with the ambition to re-establish the prestige of the teaching profession such that it attracts the most able and ensures that all teachers are valued and value their profession. (MoE, 2015, p.65)*

Nevertheless, one can question how this could happen in the absence of relevant recruitment and selection policy. As per the findings of this research, there is no strategic initiative to transform the current Ethiopian teacher education. It appears noteworthy to show how "decoupling" emerged between the sector development plan to make teaching a profession of choice and the failure.

In sum, finding a clear and strong recruitment and selection policy for ECCE initial teacher training entrants seems difficult in the respective nations. The absence of a comprehensive teacher policy or lack of organized national teacher education policy might have contributed to this gap. Much importantly, given existing policies with all drawbacks, lack of practice appears to be a major problem. Based on this research finding, the respective nations tend to have disrespected, dispassionate, desperate, and nomad initial teacher trainees because of a lack of proper recruitment and selection policies and practices.

### **8.2.3. Teacher Preparation**

#### **8.2.3.1. The Training Curriculum**

##### *i) Responsible Authorities*

Despite the similarity in presence of responsible authorities for teacher training curriculum preparation at the policy level, there found variations in having clear, relevant, independent, and comprehensive institutions. The Ethiopian teacher training curriculum preparation is characterized with a lack of clear authority, for instance. The Directorate for Teachers and Education Leaders Development under the ministry of education seems controversially responsible as findings of this research have shown. This directorate is responsible for the general education curriculum starting from ECCE. Concomitantly, as evidenced by this study, this directorate was expected to prepare a teacher training curriculum for general education. KICD under the Kenyan ministry of education, conversely, is responsible for both the school and the teacher training curriculum.

A clear distinction was apparent in regard to the structure of the respective curriculum authorities. The Kenyan stood at the institute level while the Ethiopian counter authority is structured at the directorate level despite the plan to grow as the same as the Kenyan level. The following extract was taken from an Ethiopian informant to show how the absence of powerful institutions hampers quality education and curricular alignment.

*Logically speaking, our directorate had to be responsible for teacher training curriculum. I could not see convincing reason why this happened. If we are mandated to prepare curriculum for general education (Preprimary to Grade 12), the same applies for the teacher training. Preparing the school and the training curricula by different authorities has resultant effect for the poor curricular alignment that in turn affects quality. The former Institute for Curriculum Development and Research, to my view, should not have banned. That sounds for me political decision rather than scientific. Now we are on the way to bring back it. (Getachew, January 15, 2019)*

The above account possibly could dictate the implication of institutional theory from the political neo-institutionalization view point. It could also call the nature of old institutionalism where power and politics are significantly important. Education policies are highly affected by the political system of a nation (Amenta & Ramsey 2009; Wiseman et.al, 2013b). Another theoretical indication might be the application of mimetic isomorphism in a time of uncertainty (Sandhu, 2018). The Ethiopian curriculum authority seems mimetically uncertain with the current system and hence intended change. However, the change does not look because of any other external modeled system; rather, it seems restoration of a system due to ambiguity or uncertainty. Thus, we may need extra clarification of 'mimetic isomorphism' in institutional theory.

#### *ii) Policy Reform*

It remains very important to understand the 2017 Competency Based Curriculum (CBC) reform in Kenya to better understand its teacher training curriculum reform.



National development vision, legal frameworks, and other documents informed the reform. The following extract presumably shows the effort.

*This has been informed various policy documents such as Kenya Vision 2030, Constitution of Kenya 2010, the Task Force report on the Re-alignment of the Education Sector, the Sessional Paper No. 2 of 2015 on 'Reforming Education and Training. Other documents that informed the curriculum reforms include the 21st Century skills, the harmonized curriculum for the East African States, the sustainable development goals and KICD needs assessment report 2016 among other documents formed the basis of the curriculum reforms. (Republic of Kenya/KICD, 2017a, p.3)*

The effort to inform the national curricular reform based on regional and global contexts can be one overarching point to show how institutional theory influences education policy reform through globalization.

For the most part, this curricular reform has introduced Capacity-Building Framework for the CBC so that prepare teachers for the necessary knowledge, skills and attitude. It also aimed to help teachers apply innovative pedagogical approaches and demonstrate competencies in assessment. The reform seems in line with the 2015 National Curriculum Policy reform that stipulates how teacher education bases the philosophical and theoretical underpinnings of basic education curriculum reform (Republic of Kenya/Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2015). It appeared imperative to explore how the Capacity Building Framework has been applied to the initial ECCE teacher training program.

KICD has developed a national teacher training campaign to introduce the CBC. As part of this program, the institute prepared Facilitators Training Manual in 2017. However, this training manual was for the in-service training program. A different view has been revealed among the Kenyan informants regarding the introduction of CBC to the teacher trainees. Two of them declared that they are training with the old curriculum while the other mentioned they have been introducing CBC for their trainees. Nevertheless, the majority of the quantitative research participants asserted that they have not been introduced to the CBC.

The above findings still do not provide conclusive evidence that shows the impact of the new CBC introduction on the trainees. Reforming the initial training curriculum for ECCE was one of the 2015 National Curriculum Policy directions in line with the CBC. The respective research participants of this study also stated that Competency-Based Teacher Training Curriculum is underway that will be finished in June 2019. Notwithstanding the prominence of the initial training curriculum reform in line with the CBC, it seems no matter if the recent graduates lack acquaintance to the CBC as they will be introduced right after their employment through the in-service training. The Capacity Building Framework under the CBC illustrated the preparation of training manuals. Pedagogical approaches, assessment techniques, inclusiveness, community service learning, differentiated learning, parental empowerment and engagement, etc. are issues to be addressed in the training manuals. Hence, it is possible to figure out that the upcoming initial training curriculum will be designed in accordance with the objectives, principles and nature of the CBC.

Findings of this research and some empirical studies have shown both the prospects and the contentions in line with the CBC. The policy documents and many of the qualitative research participants declared that the CBC is taken as the backbone of the national policy reform toward quality education and training. This was also evidenced by the study of (Opertti et al., 2018). According to one of the key informants, teacher educators are not comfortable with this dynamics. Studies (Ondimu, 2018; Ngwacho, 2019) have also illustrated that CBC has been challenged by teachers and scholars. Nevertheless, all the findings predominantly showed the prospect of the new Kenyan curriculum reform.

This study could not show concrete Ethiopian curricular reform both at school (ECCE) and teacher education levels. The 2007 Teachers Development Blueprint has portrayed teacher education curriculum in the form of four training course categories: Academic Courses, Professional Courses, Common Courses, and Practicum Courses. This policy document, regardless of its ambiguity to include the ECCE subsector, has shown a sort of training curriculum reform. It intended to make teacher education governed with a standardized training curriculum that could prepare teachers with a better quality of professional competencies. Teacher education curriculum reform for a particular level of education obviously is prepared to realize the national program or school curriculum of that particular education level. It is logical to examine whether the intended training curriculum works to the then Ethiopian ECCE system or not.

ECCE was the most neglected subsector in Ethiopia. Access to ECCE opportunities in 2008 was 4.2% solely benefiting some urban children of the country (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). It had neglected the very great majority of the rural child

population. ECCE was completely nonexistent in rural areas before the introduction of non-formal programs particularly the "O" class (MoE, 2015). On the other hand, the urban ECCE system was almost given to the private sector in those days. There was also no clear ECCE curricular reform despite the efforts in 1997 and 2006. A relatively better ECCE curriculum framework was seen two years later the introduction of the teacher development blueprint. This curriculum framework (the 2009 ECCE Syllabus) was not applicable in private ECCE centers or kindergartens, however (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). Further, as the findings of this research revealed, ECCE teacher training during that time was totally under the private sector. Taking the skeptical nature of the policy document and the dynamics of the then ECCE system, thus, the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint was found to be less relevant for ECCE teacher training curriculum reform.

The situation analysis made by MoE in 2007 as stated in MoE, MoWA, MoH (2010b) showed how ECCE was challenged with abounding problems. The following extract was taken from the 2010 National Strategic Operational Plan and Guidelines for ECCE.

*The 2007 situation analysis identified the lack of proper training of ECCE practitioners, the absence of quality assurance systems such as national standards and guidelines, the lack of culturally relevant and appropriate teaching and learning materials as well as limited infrastructure and the absence of a national curriculum as factors impacting the quality of ECCE service provision. (MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010b, p.6)*

One major difference between the 2010 Curriculum Framework for Ethiopian Education (KG - Grade 12) and the 2017 Kenyan Basic Education Curriculum reform was the extent of policy insights to dictate teacher education. The document analysis affirmed there was no indication in the Ethiopian curriculum framework toward the training curriculum reform. Another related difference was the consideration of clear theoretical approaches that framed the respective curricular frameworks. The document analysis could not see any theoretical underpinnings within the 2010 Curriculum Framework for Ethiopian General Education (KG - Grade 12). One could hardly understand the Ethiopian on what theoretical approaches it is anchored. The Kenyan, inversely, was found to be assisted by clear theoretical approaches. The theoretical frameworks such as instructional design theory, visible learning theory, Vygotsky's socio-cultural development theory etc. were not only assisting the school curriculum but also the teacher training curriculum.

Table 8.6: Planned Teacher Training Curriculum Policy Reform Activities vs. Implementation

<b>No.</b>	<b>Planned reform activities</b>	<b>Implementation status</b>
1	Validated and approved training curriculum	Decoupled
2	Teachers' curriculum handbook	Decoupled
3	ECCE Material Development Guide	Decoupled
4	An Integrated Parental Education Curriculum	Decoupled

Source: MoE, MoWA, MoH, (2010b)

The 2010 Ethiopian National Strategic Operational Plan and Guidelines for ECCE envisaged crucial teacher training curriculum reform as revealed in Table 8.6. This can be seen as policy reform toward the quality of teacher education for the subsector. Nevertheless, the findings of this study have shown that the planned reform activities have not been implemented. The policy also affirmed that teacher education will be provided in collaboration with other relevant sectors mainly the health sector. Nonetheless, to date, there is no ECCE curriculum integrated with the health sector. In other words, none of these anticipated policy documents have been prepared. These findings imply the notion of "decoupling" in institutional theory. Consequently, it can be said that ECCE teacher training curriculum reform from the policy standpoint of the 2010 National Strategic Operational Plan and Guidelines for ECCE was decoupled. It appears "decoupling" was similarly apparent in Ethiopian ESDP V (2015/16 - 2019/20) as it is discussed in the next subsection.

Developing a teacher education policy framework was one of the major Kenyan policy reforms. The National Teacher Development Policy (NTDP) was planned to be developed in 2014. Operationalizing of the initial teacher training was planned in 2015 with a transition to be commenced in 2016 and completed by the end of 2017. However, this initiative could not be real so far.

Table 8.7: *Mean and Standardization of Trainees' Satisfaction on Training Curriculum and Practicum*

No	Variable	KU		KMU		<i>t</i> -test		
		M	SD	M	SD	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)

1.	Training curriculum	3.33	1.0	2.70	.648	3.27	78	.002
2.	Practicum	3.37	.77	2.61	.662	4.22	78	.000

P < 0.5

Source: 2019 Survey

Table 8.7 illustrates the two-sample group trainees' satisfaction in the training curriculum and practicum. The trainees' satisfaction rate  $t(78) = 3.27$ ,  $p = .002$  on the training curriculum revealed with acceptable difference. The Mean scores (KU= 3.33 and KMU= 2.70) have shown divergence despite their fall within a moderate extent. This variation might be associated with the extent of the training curriculum quality. The table shows that Ethiopian trainees had a lower satisfaction rate than Kenyan. Perhaps this finding relates to the poor quality of the training curriculum as the policy documents and the interviewees declared.

The Kenyan trainees have shown relatively higher satisfaction and this may dictate the long experience of the nation toward a relatively better ECCE teacher education reform in the continent (Mbugua, 2011). Similarly, the satisfaction rate on the practicum  $t(78) = 4.22$ ,  $p = .000$  shows that there is a statistically and strongly significant difference between the respective sample groups. This was apparent with the mean score results (KU= 3.37 and KMU= 2.61). It seems the Kenyan Trainees were better satisfied with the practical courses of the training than the Ethiopian. Nevertheless, the lack of more opportunities for practice was one of the challenges demonstrated by some of the sample participants. One of the informants also corroborated this finding demonstrating the prevalence of theory-centric training.

### *iii) Curricular alignment*

The teacher training curriculum has to be specific to the local context and be aligned with national education policies and school curriculum (UNESCO, 2019). This study has revealed emergent difficulty regarding program curriculum and teacher training curriculum alignment in Ethiopian ECCE. Finding equivalent ECCE curriculum and teacher training curriculum within the respective nations was a challenge to make a comparison on curricular alignment. Based on existing curricular frameworks and policy documents, however, findings have shown significant disconnection between the curricula.

The Ethiopian ESDP V ensured the finalization of ECCE teacher training curriculum linking directly to the students' curriculum. Taking the findings of this study into account, doubts may arise here in many ways. Initially, it is not clear whose student curriculum is talked about. Is it a curriculum for kindergarten, a curriculum for 'O' class or a curriculum for accelerated school readiness program or for all? Secondly, this study has affirmed that there is no comprehensive and refined ECCE teacher education curriculum both at national and training college levels. Regardless of the lack of legitimized and relevant curricula at program and teacher education levels respectively, Ethiopian research participants of this study declared absence of curricular alignment between the existing ECCE curriculum and the teacher training curriculum.

Ethiopian ESDP V has planned to train 15% ECCE teachers in diploma and this starts in the year 2016/17 (2%). The plan goes through 2017/18 (5%), 2018/19 (9%) and reaches 15% by the year 2019/20. Nevertheless, there is no evidence whether these



teachers are going to be trained for all types of ECCE modalities. On the other hand, there is no teacher training curriculum that accommodates all the programs. If this plan is solely for the kindergarten modality that contributes minimal coverage for the national early childhood population, missing to train teachers for the dominant ECCE program called “O” class might be a loss. This complication shows the misalignment of the curriculum frameworks. Above all, as Teferra (2017) depicted, there is no standard guideline for the training of "O" class teachers.

Based on evidence from this study, it appears a bit difficult to take the course description of Ethiopian initial ECCE training as an organized curriculum framework. This course description was adopted by Kotebe Metropolitan University (KMU) ECCE teacher training department as it was believed to be insufficient. Alongside this, it is important to see how there exists a missing link between this training curricular framework and the national standard for the ECCE program. According to the 2017 national standard for the ECCE program, any pre-school or kindergarten shall have a trained speech therapist. Nevertheless, the existing training curriculum (course description) has nothing to do with speech therapy. It seems that the existing teachers are not trained even properly for the kindergarten modality or for the existing syllabus. Much importantly, as already discussed, it looks imperative to note how the national ECCE program standard stands for a single modality, *kindergarten*.

The findings of this research informed mixed evidence on Kenyan ECCE and training curricular alignment. Almost all of the quantitative inquiry participants were unable to mention Kenyan ECCE program modalities properly. This finding may show the disconnection between the initial teacher training and ECCE program modalities:

formal kindergarten, *Madrassa*, *Duksi* and mobile ECCE modalities. Rather, the findings of this research have shown alignment between the *Madrassa* and *Duksi* programs and the in-service training. The integration of these indigenous program modalities into secular education through the in-service program was one of the planned strategic activities in the NESP Vol. 1 (2013 - 2018).

On the other hand, this research demonstrated that the Integrated Islamic Education for *Madrassa* based ECCE is clearly considered in initial training. It can be drawn from this that *Madrassa* is also partly introduced in initial training. Another important point to consider here is that religious education is one of the peculiar features of Kenyan teacher education to that of Ethiopians. This in turn gives a reminder of how religion is one of the competencies in the new CBC. Most importantly, the Capacity Building Framework for the CBC is a clear manifestation of curricular alignment as discussed before. Hence, as per the findings of this study, the curriculum alignment in the case of Kenya might not have an adequate policy framework and practice before the very recent CBC.

Possibly, there appeared a sort of slight convergence within the respective nations concerning curricular misalignment. It seems difficult to see a clear initial training curriculum that considers all ECCE modalities in both nations. Yet, this study gives the impression that Kenya is moving forward to ensure ECCE and training alignment. Taking the CBC and the upcoming Competency-Based Teacher Training Curriculum into consideration, there is a high expectation of alignment between the Kenyan ECCE curriculum and initial teacher training. Inversely, the policy documents and the research participants attested absence of alignment between the Ethiopian existing ECCE

curriculum and the training curriculum. This can be taken also as one of the divergence between the respective initial teachers training.

An interesting finding from this study was the discovery regarding other features of curricular alignment. Research suggests that teacher educators have to be aware of national education and training policies in order to align their teaching with the real local context (Whyte et al., 2018). The 2007 Ethiopian Teacher Development Blueprint also indicated the need for familiarization of teacher trainees with the national policies for a better quality of training. Given these two sets of information, initial teacher education has to be aligned with local contexts such as with the national curriculum policies. However, the findings of this study ascertained that both teacher educators and the sample teacher trainees have no acquaintance with their respective specific national education policies.

#### *iv) Pedagogical Issues*

ECCE teachers' high professional competence in child development and instruction is vital for the structural quality of teacher education (Wechsler et al., 2016). Regardless of their extents, this research has shown pedagogical concerns in both nations. Ethiopian documents and research participants have shown pedagogical gaps attributed to ECCE teachers and teacher educators. By the same token, the Kenyan case study has shown pedagogical concerns. The Kenyan, however, looks more concerned with the pedagogical problems of ECCE teachers. The practice of unfriendly traditional pedagogy in the ECCE subsector and its teacher training was the prime concern of the Ethiopian policy documents and the interviewees. According to ESDP V, *'the current pedagogical*

*skills of teachers are broadly insufficient for effective teaching; similarly, subject-knowledge and classroom management skills are not consistent amongst qualified staff* (MoE, 2015, p.73).

Table 8.8: *Mean and Standardization of trainees' rating on their teacher educators' approach*

No	Variable	KU		KMU		<i>t</i> -test		
		M	SD	M	SD	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1.	Teaching methodology	3.45	.75	2.30	.723	6.98	78	.000
2.	Assessment techniques	3.33	.83	1.95	.714	7.95	78	.000

P < 0.5

Source: 2019 Survey

As seen from table 8.8, the independent *t*-test result revealed a statistically significant difference between KU and KMU teacher educators' teaching approach and assessment techniques. Trainees' satisfaction rate on their teachers' teaching approach  $t(78) = 6.98$ ,  $p = .000$  asserted significantly strong variation between the two sample groups. The mean score for KU (3.45) dictates a high extent of satisfaction of the participants while the mean score for KMU (2.30) was low. The rate of satisfaction on assessment techniques  $t(78) = 7.95$ ,  $p = .000$  with the respective mean scores (KU=3.33 and KMU=1.95) also showed significant divergence. In both cases, the Kenyan participants look comparatively satisfied with their teachers' teaching approach and assessment techniques. The low and low extent mean scores with the Ethiopian sample teacher trainees may demonstrate the consequence of pedagogical, instructional and conceptual problems and failure to adequately prepare teachers as evidenced in the work of Haslip & Gullo (2018).

Table 8.9: Mean and Standardization of trainees' Satisfaction with their teachers' competence

No	Variable	KU		KMU		t-test		
		M	SD	M	SD	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
3.	Teacher educators' knowledge	3.23	.66	2.40	.632	5.70	78	.000
4.	Teacher educators' skill	3.25	.59	2.25	.670	7.14	78	.000
5.	Teacher educators' ethics	2.78	.67	1.53	.640	8.60	78	.000

P < .05

Source: 2019 Survey

Table 8.9 illustrates trainees' satisfaction with their teachers' competence. Participants' satisfaction with their teachers' subject matter knowledge,  $t(78) = 5.70$ ,  $p = .000$ , shows a statistically and considerably significant difference between the two sample groups. This strong significant difference was also seen within the trainees' satisfaction in their teachers' skill  $t(78) = 7.14$ ,  $p = .000$  and professional ethics  $t(78) = 8.60$ ,  $p = .000$ . Hence, one can draw from this result that there is a strong significant difference between the satisfaction rates of the two research groups. One may say, on the other hand, there is a statistically significant difference between the respective teacher educators' competence. As discussed in chapter 6, the Ethiopian research participants have strengthened this result underlining that there are no trained and skillful ECCE teacher educators. Further, this result could possibly associate with the teacher educators'

qualification. Table 8.10 demonstrates teacher educators' professional status in KMU and KU.

Table 8.10: Teacher Educators' Professional Status in KMU and KU

	University	No. of Teacher Educators	Qualifications			Trained in ECCC
			B.A	M.A	PhD	
1.	KMU	7	-	7	-	-
2.	KU	15	-	-	15	15

Source: KU's website and Department of Early Childhood, and KMU's ECCE Department

This table illustrates that all the teacher educators in KU are PhD holders trained in ECCE. Conversely, there is no any professional teacher educator trained in KMU and neither was qualified with the third degree. There might be no Ethiopian higher institutions so far that could produce ECCE teacher educators despite recent initiatives to produce ECCE professionals in few universities. The document analysis and the interview with the research participants revealed that the absence of trained ECCE teacher educators is one of the major challenges that influenced teacher quality. This was explicated in the following extract.

*Our college is considered as experienced and benchmarked college. However, we do not have trained teacher educators. Still our teachers are better than other colleges. The problem worsens while you go to these colleges. ECCE needs serious engagement but our teachers are not much concerned. One reason is because they are not trained. Preschool education is an intervention. It needs practice; our teacher*

*educators are very good at theories of developmental psychology. But they do not know the practical goal of it. They failed to apply proper methods and assessments. What does a trainee with least high school leaving exam and bad attitude + untrained teacher educator mean? (Ali, April 8, 2019)*

The above account showed how KMU suffered from a lack of trained teacher educators regardless of the recognition bestowed as an experienced and benchmarked teacher training institution. It also showed how the problem exacerbates in the regional training institutions.

*v) Resource and Facilities*

A very clear "decoupling" was seen in what the Ethiopian ESDP V planned and the existing reality. As per this document, all colleges of teacher education will be provided with a sufficient number of school-level teaching and learning materials so that teacher trainees access them. Digital learning materials will be produced and disseminated to all regions by the curriculum development institute. The institute, at the outset, is elusive so far starting the implementation period of ESDP V (2015/16) despite the plan to establish it in 2017. Next, the research participants of this study uncovered poor resources and facilities in teacher training colleges. An informant from KMU reports; *'we do have serious problem with regard to resource and facilities; we need play grounds and playing materials; we do not have adequate pedagogical center'* (Hagos, April 8, 2019).



Table 8.11: *Mean and Standardization of Trainees' satisfaction in selected facilities/resources*

No	Variable	KU		KMU		<i>t</i> -test		
		M	SD	M	SD	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	Library	4.05	.72	2.70	.687	8.51	77	.000
2	In-door materials	3.50	.60	1.45	.597	15.3	78	.000
3	Out-door materials	3.33	.73	1.48	.554	12.8	78	.000
4	Workshop	3.13	.79	1.58	.549	10.1	78	.000

P < .05 Source:

2019 Survey

Table 8.11 describes participants' satisfaction on selected facilities and resources  $t(78) = 8.51, 15.3, 12.8$  and  $10.1$   $p = .000$  showing a very strong statistical difference between the two sample groups. As seen from the table, the average satisfaction rate of the participants from KMU (Mean score=1.80) declared a very low extent. This result has decoupled from what ESDP V is planned. Hence, the findings of this research asserted that Ethiopian training institutions for initial ECCE teacher education have little or no teaching-learning resources against the sector development plan. On the other hand, participants from KU statistically seem relatively satisfied with the facilities particularly

the library service in spite of evidence from this study that the Kenyan teacher education is also challenged with inadequate facilities and resources.

*vi) Trainees' Professional Competence*

Producing academically qualified, motivated and ethically fit teachers at all levels of general education teacher training was the prime intent of the 2007 Ethiopian Teacher Development Blueprint. Other subsequent policy documents have shown failure with the preceding policy intentions. Accordingly, policies particularly ESDP V envisaged improving teacher professional competence as one of prominent national education and training policy priorities. Findings from the Ethiopian interviewees revealed the absence of teacher education reform in the ECCE subsector and adequately trained teachers, however.

Reforming the professional competence of ECCE teachers has obtained due concern in Kenyan education and training policies. The 2012 Education and Training Policy Framework, NESP Vol. 1, and the 2017 National ECDE Policy, among other policy documents, have shown their prior interest in the better professional quality of ECCE teachers. The respective qualitative research participants on their part tried to indicate how the initial training system is working to produce competent teachers endowed with the necessary attitude, knowledge and skill.

Taking the abovementioned findings into account, the quantitative research participants of the respective teacher training institutions were asked to reflect their convictions toward their interest in the profession, knowledge acquisition, and skills

development. Table 8.12 shows the participants' responses on their professional competence.

Table 8.12: *Mean and Standardization of Participants' view on their professional competence*

No	Variable	KU		KMU		<i>t</i> -test		
		M	SD	M	SD	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	Interest on the profession	2.68	1.2	2.50	1.01	.718	78	.475
2	Necessary knowledge	3.25	.91	2.53	.781	3.30	78	.001
3	Necessary skill	3.23	.88	2.38	.740	4.40	78	.000

$P < .05$

Source: Survey data, 2019

As illustrated from Table 8.12, there was no statistically significant difference on participants' interest in their profession,  $t(78) = .718$ ,  $p = .475$ . The KU participants with a 2.68 mean score did not show considerable variation to that of KMU participants with a 2.50 mean score. This result gives an impression that the respective research groups have no adequate interest in the teaching profession. Nevertheless, it may look unprecedented result for KU participants as they have shown a significant difference in their curricular and pedagogical satisfaction. They were expected to have a significant interest in the teaching profession statistically and logically. However, two important reasons might

have triggered the participants to have inadequate interest in the profession: entrance to the training with the least score and unemployment. Hence, possibly, it can be drawn that satisfaction with some part of initial teacher training does not bear interested and motivated teachers.

Significant statistical difference was seen within the participants' view on their knowledge acquisition  $t(78) = 3.30, p = .001$  and skills development  $t(78) = 4.40, p = .000$ . Corresponding mean scores (KU=3.25 and 3.23) and (KMU=2.53 and 2.38) also revealed with significant variation between the sample groups. Given this convergence, participants from KMU seem not to have a conviction that they are academically qualified and professionally skilled teachers. This result was against the policy documents' envision.

### **8.2.3.2. Accreditation of ECCE Teacher Training Institutions**

Accreditation of Ethiopian ECCE teacher education providers has decoupled from the 2010 National ECCE Strategic Operational Plan and Guideline as it has been decoupled from the 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint. The policy document has planned for accreditation and certification of teacher training institutions by the ECCE accreditation unit under the ministry of education. Nevertheless, according to the research participants, there is no single certified training institution after nine years of this policy development. Neither has been established the ECCE accreditation unit under the ministry. ESDP V (2015/16-2019/20) has also supported this finding and planned to certify all the 36 colleges of teacher education at the beginning of the implementation year. However, as per the informants of this study, none of these colleges have been

certified hitherto. The following extract demonstrates why these colleges have not been certified.

*'The entire responsibility of this directorate [Directorate for Teachers and Education Leaders Licensing and Renewal] is licensing teachers, principals and supervisors. It requested the ministry whether the quality assurance of teacher training colleges is its mandate or not. On the other hand, the directorate for general education quality assurance and inspection has a mandate to inspect the colleges but not to prepare standard. The ministry decided to study this issue in consultation with expats but not yet finished. Accordingly, the ministry gave the responsibility for teachers and education leaders licensing and renewal directorate until the study is finished. Because of this confusion, we are unable to start accreditation of the colleges'. (Belaynesh, January 8, 2019)*

The reason for the failure of this plan does not sound compelling, however. Another important finding was the absence of a clear responsible institution for accreditation of teacher training institutions. It was also difficult to have a logical reason for this. Much importantly, it is good to note how the education and training system is influenced by global forces i.e. expats.

The Kenyan policy and practice has shown divergent features compared to the Ethiopian. The first difference was the presence of mandated authority to certify teacher training institutions. Collective responsibility and synergy among relevant departments was another feature of the accreditation process. Initially, the quality assurance is done at the county level. Curriculum implementation and delivery is one of the major concerns of the quality assurance. Taking the county inspection report into account and prescribed

standards, a team from the federal ministry of education makes a quality audit and finally endorses the accreditation if that particular institution is found to be eligible. Such a synergy might have policy implications both at national and sub-national levels. Nevertheless, there was no autonomous institution for accreditation of teacher training providers in both cases.

Views of some informants have shown complications that need clarity. Kenyatta University (KU), for instance, provides ECCE initial training from certificate to PhD levels. Understandably, Kenyan universities are licensed by the Higher Education Commission. On the other hand, teacher training institutions that provide certificate and diploma ECCE initial teacher training are certified by the ministry of education. Such responsibilities may overlap in an institution like KU. While teachers are the most prominent determinants of education quality, the quality of initial teacher training as a whole is determined by other factors based on institutional characteristics. This is because teachers alone cannot guarantee quality teacher training without efficient teacher education institutions and relevant quality assurance systems (Bikas, 2013).

### **8.2.3.3. Licensing of Teacher Educators**

The Ethiopian 2010 Policy Framework for ECCE demonstrates that the ministry of education is responsible to certify teacher educators. However, to date, there are no certified ECCE teacher educators in the Ethiopian college of teacher education. After all, all of these teacher educators are not ECCE professionals as seen from the KMU case (See Table 8.10). This study similarly revealed that TSC is responsible to register Kenyan teacher educators despite an inadequate portion of registered teacher educators.

The prevalence of untrained and uncertified teacher educators within the respective nations, at a face value, might be an indication of convergence. Responsible authorities in both nations also lag to register their teacher educators. However, there appears significant divergence. One may hardly see professional teacher educators in Ethiopian initial ECCE teacher training institutions. Albeit existence of untrained ECCE teacher educators in those unregistered teacher training colleges, this study has shown considerable trained teacher educators in Kenyan teacher training institutions.

#### **8.2.4. Certification of Trainee Teachers**

Effective teacher certification arrangement needs relevant policies and governing agencies (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Considerable divergence was evident in the certification arrangements of the respective countries. The difference apart from policy variation revealed structural and practical gaps.

The Ethiopian Policy Framework for ECCE in 2010 declared the absence of a national policy for certification of initial teacher trainees. ESDP V (2015/16-2019-20) after five years has informed the nonexistence of national teacher certification guidelines. However, the same policy document affirmed the prevalence of region-specific quality assurance arrangements to certify novice teachers. This data appear to be unrealistic as per the findings of this research. The following account illustrates this.

*We are not in a position to certify novice ECCE teachers because of absence of training curriculum and different ECCE modalities. It is not only varied modalities of ECCE program we have but also different teachers. If you go to “O” class, some of them have not completed high school and have no training;*

*some are high school (grade 10) graduates without training; some are elementary school teachers who have no any orientation on ECCE. We do not have a policy framework that accommodates this divergence. We are waiting until these problems are solved. (Belaynesh, January 8, 2019)*

The Ethiopian ESDP V as a sector development program puts improvement of teacher quality as major policy priorities. The sector development program as a result planned to produce academically qualified, motivated, and ethically fit teachers at all levels of education. A complete set of licensing instruments and practice was expected to make this plan a reality. However, the anticipation and the practice could not exist in this fourth year of the sector development program. This finding was corroborated with participants of the quantitative study; no novice ECCE teacher has been certified.

In Ethiopia, the 2007 Teacher Education Blueprint was an important policy framework for the current national teacher certification system. Inconsistent policy directions were observed between this blueprint and the 2016 Teachers' and Education Leaders' Licensing and Renewal Implementation Guideline. According to the blueprint, teacher training institutions are responsible for teacher certification, however. The guideline, on the other hand, states that the ministry of education is mandated for teacher licensing. Variation was also apparent regarding the minimum pass mark for certification as already discussed in the Ethiopian case study. The aim of certification as per the 2010 ECCE Implementation Guidelines was twofold: harmonized certification of all ECCE personnel and certification of teachers based on the national ECCE training and guideline prepared by MoE and MoH. Nonetheless, these policy intentions have no association with other relevant policies and remained unpractical. It is important to note how



decoupling and irregularity in the policy documents and unpersuasive reasons from licensing department have been existed.

The Kenyan Institute for Curriculum Development (KICD), the National Examination Council (NEC), and the Teacher Service Commission (TSC) have their own role in the certification of the teacher trainees. The Directorate for Quality Assurance and Standards sets tools and coordinates the above-mentioned authorities. Collaboration among these authorities has demonstrated the collective outcome of ECCE teacher certification. Hence, the teacher trainees are subjected to these authorities and the certification policy. The following account demonstrates this.

*Like other level of teachers, ECCE teachers are subjected to the national curriculum prepared by Kenyan Institute for Curriculum Development (KICD). They are also subjected to National Examination Council (NEC). If the teacher is trained at certificate or diploma level, the certification or registration will be made by Teachers Service Commission (TSC) and if it is at degree level, the respective university will provide certification. Teachers from private training colleges are also subjected for the national curriculum and the examination of NEC. (Stephen, April 5, 2019)*

The Kenyan appears to have a clear initial teacher certification policy. It also seems to have an autonomous teacher certification organization as seen in chapter seven. However, some of the sample teacher trainees of the KU failed to know this. It might be due to the institutional and/ or individual gap within KU toward the introduction of the licensing system.



### 8.3.5. ECCE Program Quality Assurance

ECCE program quality assurance is attributable to teacher quality assurance. It was with this notion licensing of ECCE centers was taken into account despite not the major focus of this study. Consequently, the document analysis and the research participants witnessed the interconnectedness between licensing of ECCE centers and trainee teachers. The respective national standard for program quality assurance requires trained and certified teachers. One of the Ethiopian research participants declared that a particular ECCE center has to have professional teachers in order to be accredited and certified. The Kenyan informant, similarly, said; *'among other things, the quality of teachers, availability of learning materials, classrooms, play grounds, facilities etc... are required as a minimum standard'* (Martha, April 2, 2019).

ESDP V (2015/16-2019/20) planned percentage of pre-primary schools met and well above the standards will reach 60%. But which schools is this document talking about? The document also stated that all “O” classes will be equipped with a minimum package of learning materials but there is no clear definition of what minimum mean. Currently, there is a directorate for general education quality assurance and inspection at the ministry and regional education bureau levels. But this is solely for one of the platforms called "kindergarten" and this again is predominantly working for the private sector. And hence, the national policy and standard for ECCE program inspection seems to be challenged in terms of relevance. On the other hand, from the political neo-institutional theory viewpoint (Wiseman et al., 2013b), this policy is decoupled because of the political influence not to apply in government ECCE centers.

Different views and arguments were raised among the research participants regarding ECCE program quality assurance. The 2017 Ethiopian National Standard for Quality Assurance of ECCE Programs appeared to be solely for private ECCE or kindergartens against the policy as already discussed. The policy in principle seems inclusive for all ECCE programs but remains exclusive to the private kindergartens. One of the informants gave the reason for this and said; *'In principle, government or public ECCE centers have to be accredited but this is difficult since the focus is access. Accreditation has a consequence of closure and this, in turn, has an impact on the majority of childhoods across the nation'* (Mekides, July 4, 2019). This policy is contested for two reasons. On one hand, it cannot be a national policy framework for it lacks comprehensiveness to include all programs. On the other hand, the policy contradicts itself as it asserts the need for applying quality assurance on all program modalities. Hence, as findings revealed, the standard lacks relevance to be a national policy framework.

A major difference in ECCE program quality assurance was seen toward the execution of collective activities. The Kenyan program quality assurance appears to have collaborative effort within the responsible authorities and stakeholders. The involvement of other sectors particularly the health sector is influential in the quality assurance of ECCE centers. An informant stated; *'health personnel, nutritionists and others are collaboratively working with the education sector. They decide what kind of meal to be eaten and they examine basic health of the children'* (Mathew, April 2, 2019). Another difference which was less evident is the prevalence of flexible standards for different Kenyan ECCE programs. According to a few of the informants, there appeared distinct

standards for formal kindergartens and non-formal ECCE centers. Notwithstanding further exploration, this finding has clear implications with the initial teacher training. In particular, it gives an implication on how initial ECCE teacher preparation has to fit with different program modalities of the subsector.

### 8.3. Challenges

The aim of this section was twofold: summarizing the challenges stated in/by the documents, the interviewees and the sample respondents of the respective nations, and making comparisons. It is essential to note that these challenges are not the only ones in the course of this study. Other challenges in one or other way have been identified in this study. Table 8.13 outlines challenges illustrated in the policy documents that could affect the quality assurance arrangements.

Table 8.13: Challenges as revealed in policy documents

No.	The Ethiopian Case Study	The Kenyan Case Study
1	Low teacher salary	Poor teacher remuneration
2	High teacher turnover	High teacher attrition
3	Lack of proper training	Low teacher morale
4	Lack of standard training curriculum	Inadequate trained teacher educators
5	Absence of trained teacher educators	Lack of frequent curriculum revision
6	Insufficient pedagogical skills	Uncertified teacher educators
7	Inconsistent knowledge within the teacher educators	Weak institutional based quality assurance system within teacher education providers
8	Absence of teacher certification	Lack of proper recognition by TSC

Source: MoE, MoWA, MoH, (2010a); MoE, (2015); Republic of Kenya/MoEST, (2012)

As seen from the table, Ethiopian challenges as regards ECCE teacher remuneration and retention are similar to that of the Kenyan. Low salary is prevalent in both nations and consequently, teachers seem to develop low morale and high attrition. These challenges were consistent with the findings of the interviewees and quantitative research participants. Recent policy reforms seem not to bring improvements against the challenges. This shows the need for a strong recruitment policy that could attract and retain ECCE teachers.

Another slight convergence can be in relation to the training curriculum. Lagging to have a standardized teacher training curriculum and to make a frequent revision of curriculum logically could share a sort of curricular difficulty. However, as the findings of this study revealed, Kenya has already started teacher training curriculum reform in conformity with the CBC while the curricular problem was a prime indication of existing Ethiopian inappropriate training. Thus, the divergence was more significant in this respect.

Some of the challenges related to teacher educators illustrated in Table 8.13 were consistent in both cases despite the variation between the documents. This study has depicted pedagogical and knowledge gaps of teacher educators regardless of varied extents. The findings of this study depicted a complete absence of Ethiopian ECCE teacher and teacher educator certification though there was a system. Evidence in this study has also shown an established system and practice of teacher certification in Kenya while there is a lack of recognition by the TSC. However, the system did not look strong to certify teacher educators. The problem might have been easier, if not minimal, within first-degree occupant teacher educators who are working for public teacher training

institutions. This is because teachers at this level have to be registered by TCS so that they teach in education and training institutions.

Interviewees of this study accounted for major attributable challenges to the quality assurance of the respective initial teacher education. Table 8.14 summarizes the challenges.

Table 8.14: Major Challenges as informed by the Interviewees

	<b>The Ethiopian Case study</b>	<b>The Kenyan Case study</b>
1	Negligence on the subsector	Inadequate concern for the subsector
2	Poor Teacher Education Policy	Divergence among Counties
3	Macro-micro Institutional Disintegration	Inflation of Training Institutions
4	Poor Institutional Synergy	Teacher educators, trainees and teacher education providers related challenges

Source: 2019 Interview

As can be seen from the table, insufficient attention to the ECCE subsector was a similar challenge in both cases despite variation in time, extent, and other characteristics. Notwithstanding an increasing gradual concern, ECCE in Ethiopia appears to be challenged with longstanding negligence. The political decision that made ECCE and its teacher education under the private sector was taken as a formidable mistake as findings of this research revealed. The central critic at this point was the contextual mismatch between the national demography of early childhoods and the nature of the private sector.

The argument that declared the unlikely nature of the private sector to reach the huge rural childhood population within the Ethiopian context gives a sense. The negligence to Ethiopian ECCE was demonstrated with policy deprivation until the coming of the 2010 subsector policy development. This study revealed how the nation has been paying for the negligence and the late start has been influencing the current lagging response to the subsector.

The Kenyan ECCE similarly lacks adequate concern but in a different feature and degree of negligence. Unlike the Ethiopian case, the Kenyan had comparatively a long stayed policy reform on ECCE and its teacher education. The challenge was confined to practical gaps, however. Inadequate funding, lack of resources and facilities both in the ECCE program and in teacher training, and unemployment were challenging the policy execution. Lack of clean water and school feeding were critical challenges of Kenyan ECCE as demonstrated by one of the interviewees.

Raising two emerging issues at this juncture seems important. Findings of this research have shown how failure in policy practice was considerably attributed to lack of adequate investment. Studies on the other hand argued that efficient policies could allocate adequate finance and standards, and put strategies to enforce the policy (Huston, 2008; Neuman & Devercelli, 2012). Hence, financial inadequacy cannot be solely associated with the practical gap but with the strength of a policy itself.

The governance structure has shown convergence in institutional disintegration to some degree. The Ethiopian ministry of education at the macro level seems uncertain with regional education bureaus' execution and does not look to have institutional power



over them. The document analysis of this study along this point witnessed inconsistent implementation i.e. in quality assurance arrangements. Similarly, a clear Macro-micro disconnection was seen in Kenya at national and county levels particularly in teacher recruitment arrangements. However, based on the findings of this research, the variation seems a bit stronger at the micro level within the counties. The Ethiopian poor institutional synergy at a Macro level was other dynamics of the disconnection.

As seen from Table 8.14 and discussed in chapter 7, the Kenyan interviewees illustrated teacher educator and trainee-related challenges. Teacher educators' adherence to traditional pedagogy and misconceptions to the Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC) and the multi-sectored nature of ECCE were challenges. The interviewees believe that initial teacher trainees have a negative attitude toward the teaching profession for some reasons mainly due to lack of employment opportunities.

The Ethiopian interviewees have shown policy-related challenges and this was a major difference between the two cases. The interviewees believe that there is no relevant teacher education policy that could produce quality training institutions, teacher educators and teachers. The absence of trained teacher educators, resources and facilities were associated with the absence of appropriate teacher education policies. However, as per the document analysis of this study, the challenge looks more related to lack of implementation within the existing limited policy frameworks.

The quantitative part of this study demonstrated more similar challenges that might affect the quality assurance arrangements of the respective initial teacher trainings. Participants from KMU tend to focus on the challenges attributed to their teacher

educators such as problems related to professional ethics. This challenge also seems to slightly affect the Kenyan sample teacher trainees. Empirical evidence strengthens the lack of professional ethics among Kenyan teacher educators (Patrick A., 2011). On the other hand, participants from KU were found to be much concerned with issues related to selection and recruitment policy. Table 8.15 summarizes the challenges.

Table 8.15: Major challenges as demonstrated by the sample trainee groups

No.	The Ethiopian Case Study	The Kenyan Case Study
1	Misbehavior among some teacher educators	Unemployment
2	Lack of understanding the trainees	Poor and inconsistent salary
3	Disrespect of some teacher educators	Unstable (frequently changing) curriculum
4	Poor assessment techniques	Lack of adequate training facilities
5	Nontransparent grading	Some uncommitted teacher educators
6	Inappropriate teaching methods	Societal disrespect toward teaching
7	Lack of resource and facilities	Lack of more opportunities for practice
8	Lack of proper and timely information	Inadequate funding for the training
9	Disrespect from the university community	Very low academic entry requirements
10		TSC's recruitment policy

Source: 2019 Survey

An important point here is to what extent the policies were consistent with the challenges illustrated by the research participants and how far recent policy reforms have considered the challenges. If the policy reforms fail to do so, this implies the need for comprehensive policy-making based on the strong engagement of all the stakeholders particularly policy implementers, teachers (including novice or trainee teachers), and teacher educators. In line with this, the quantitative part of this study has shown the disconnection between the national policy frameworks and the teacher trainees. It is imperative here to note how the 2007 Ethiopian Teacher Development Blueprint was committed to introduce teacher trainees with relevant policy and training policies. Table 8.16 shows how the teacher trainees are distant from ECCE program modalities, policies, and curriculum.

Table 8.16: *Mean and Standardization of Participants' Awareness on ECCE Policy, ECCE Programs and ECCE Curriculum*

No	Variable	KU		KMU		t-test		
		M	SD	M	SD	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	Familiarity with ECCE policy	1.90	.30	1.80	.41	1.25	78	.215
2	Awareness on ECCE programs	2.00	.00	1.88	.34	2.36	78	.021
3	Introduction to curriculum	1.70	.46	1.83	.39	-1.31	78	.194

P < .05

Source: Survey data, 2019

As can be seen from Table 8.16, there was significant convergence between the sample groups. The sample trainees were not introduced to ECCE policies, ECCE program modalities, and ECCE curriculum. This was also evident in the respective mean scores.

#### **8.4. Implications to the Sub Saharan African Context**

The findings of this study were considerably convergent with the Sub-Saharan African context. The regional context also affected the national contexts of the nation's understudy. While a slight divergence in specific issues within the regional and the nations under study, the convergence generally revealed implications into policy, teacher education, and theory. Some of the regional implications were also discussed in the next section that tried to make a global comparison among the respective nations understudy, Sub Saharan Africa, and the rest of the world particularly the West.

Africa long considered how the well-being of its children determines its future. The region dully understands that today's investment in children is tomorrow's peace, stability, security, democracy, and sustainable development (Garcia et al., 2008). This underlining principle has influenced the continent to focus on child policies and a good deal of investment. ECCE policies, among other child policies, have been the focus of African nations. Sub-Saharan African nations, as a result, made ECCE policies within the last two decades. This regional policy reform influenced both Ethiopia and Kenya despite timeline variations (Republic of Kenya/ MoEST, 2006; MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a; Neuman and Devercelli, 2012; Republic of Kenya/MoE, 2017).

The findings of this study ascertained that ECCE is still an overlooked subsector in Ethiopia and Kenya while remarkable policy reform within the subsector. The region has been challenged with a creeping subsector, too. ECCE in Sub-Saharan Africa has remained as a neglected subsector compared to other levels of education (Sanyal, 2013; J. Neuman et al., 2015; Takyi-Amoako & Assié-Lumumba, 2018).

ECCE policies in Sub-Saharan Africa need to consider indigenous foundations, practice, adequate investment, and political commitment (Pence & Nsamenang, 2008; Awopegba et al., 2013). As a result, relevance in ECCE has become a growing concern for Sub-Saharan African policy makers. The concern mainly rests in program, curriculum, and teacher training reforms (Roopnarine et al., 2018; Takyi-Amoako & Assié-Lumumba, 2018). This situation has shown substantive similarity with the findings of the cases in this study. Nevertheless, the findings have shown that the Kenyan case has better practices toward integrating indigenous education with ECCE and its teacher education.

Teacher education in Sub-Saharan African ECCE is critically challenged with the shortage of trained teachers (Garcia et al., 2008; Roopnarine et al., 2018). This finding was well corroborated with the Ethiopian case as the Kenyan case appeared to be different. This is mainly because unemployment has been a great challenge for Kenyan trained preschool teachers while preschool teaching has become every body's job in Ethiopia. Ironically, however, Sub Saharan Africa is known for high teacher attrition despite the deficiency. This cross-national study, by the same token, revealed ECCE teacher turnover in the respective nations under study. This in turn signified the dearth of proper selection and recruitment arrangement policies in the region as it was apparent in Ethiopia and Kenya.

Quality assurance in Sub-Saharan Africa teacher education appears a recent phenomenon. Evidence indicated that quality assurance of teacher education providers seldom applies accreditation (Sanyal, 2013). This finding best explains the Ethiopian case. Notwithstanding the prevalence of unaccredited teacher training institutions, the Kenyan has shown a difference. Kenyan ECCE teacher training institutions pass through relatively organized quality assurance arrangements. Henceforth, this finding gives an impression that viewing the Sub Saharan African teacher education context in a particular monotonous framework sometimes could mislead despite substantive convergence. Again, this, in turn, implies the need for large-scale cross-national studies in this respect. Distance teacher training was also apparent in the region (Sanyal, 2013) that is completely impractical in Ethiopia and less evident in Kenya.

Studies ascertained more of the unidirectional impact of globalization in the Sub-Saharan African education and training. The studies emphasize the negative influence of globalization than its benefits for the region (Ali, 2005; Zajda, 2009; Zajda, 2010, Karner, 2018). Globalization as a typical manifestation of neoliberal education is considerably affecting ECCE and its teacher education through UN and multilateral organizations (Ali, 2005; Zajda, 2010; Karner, 2018). These organizations primarily influence the policy formation and partly the educational expertise. For instance, this study discovered that the impact of UNICEF in Sub Saharan ECCE policy development (Takyi-Amoako & Assié-Lumumba) was significant in Ethiopia and Kenya.

Studies suggest that Sub-Saharan African nations rarely have nation-driven policies (Ali, 2005; Zajda, 2009). They consequently face a challenge to have legitimized national policies. This in turn brings a sort of policy isomorphism among Sub Saharan African

nations. Alongside this, African education policy makers are regarded as the byproducts of the West lacking insights to understand their national context. They failed to properly consider indigenous ECCE and teacher education as findings of this study revealed (Takyi-Amoako & Assié-Lumumba).

One of the very convergent patterns was an integration of the ECCE subsector and its teacher education in the formal primary education systems of Sub-Saharan Africa (J. Neuman et al., 2015). This was prevalent in both cases of Ethiopia and Kenya. Nevertheless, this situation has resulted in at least two challenges as the findings of this study revealed. The integration on one hand is still loose that needs further structural and practical development. On the other hand, the integration has been problematic to assure the quality of ECCE teacher education institutions.

There existed a similar problem in Sub-Saharan Africa regarding the policy formation and practice issues. Deficiency to prepare relevant policies and translation of existing policies into practice has been a persistent challenge in the region. "Decoupling" was significant in Sub-Saharan African nations as it was ascertained in the respective nations' understudy (Neuman and Devercelli, 2012).

## **8.5. Comparison with the global context**

### **8.5.1. Introduction**

This section deals with how the global context influences the respective national teacher policy reform particularly the quality assurance of initial teacher training and the vice versa. The rationale for this broader comparison was anchored basically on the principles of institutional theory. Teacher education in a global context neither is a local

issue nor can be studied solely within the national perspective (Paine et al., 2016). The Ethiopian and the Kenyan contexts as units of cross-national comparison could not stand without the wider context. These contexts affect and are affected by the broader contexts. This is a typical stance of institutional theory as demonstrated by Morgan et al. (2010, p.4); *'if states and national institutions are our primary units of comparison, we also have to recognize that their existence has always been embedded in wider world and continental systems'*. Another study strengthens this notion; *education as a sector embedded within a complex system of local, national, regional and global actors, institutions and practices* (Al' Abri, 2011, p.20).

Empirical studies and global policy documents of international organizations were used to explore worldwide practices. Among others, sources that deal with teacher policy development frameworks and practices, international and African perspectives and comparative studies were employed.

### **8.5.2. Global Teacher Policy Formation and Practice**

The International Task Force on Teachers for Education for All in collaboration with UNESCO has developed Teacher Policy Development Guide. This framework was developed in an attempt to assist nations how to develop evidence-based national teacher policy. The guideline also intended to meet teacher-related targets within Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Education 2030 Framework for Action. It serves all subsectors of general education (preprimary to high school). Initial teacher training was one of the key dimensions of the document. The policy guideline emphasized the great



importance of initial teacher education policy for teacher quality and performance (UNESCO, 2019).

The International Task Force was committed for its statement '*ensure that teachers and educators are empowered, adequately recruited, well-trained, professionally qualified, motivated and supported within well-resourced, efficient and effectively governed systems*' in Incheon (South Korea) in May 2015 (UNESCO, 2019, p.5). The task force, since its establishment, has made strong international policy dialogue and intensive review of global teacher policy and practice. As a result, this policy development framework complies with views of other international teacher policy documents and empirical researches (Viennet & Pont, 2013; UNESCO, 2013; Wortham, 2013; European Union, 2015; Akiba, 2017; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Manning et al., 2017; Roopnarine et al., 2018). Making a brief review of this document was found to be very important to compare the wider teacher policy context with the respective national and African contexts.

To begin with, the document provides a couple of reasons why teachers are at the top of policy makers' concerns. It appears worth mentioning to discuss the rationales in accordance with empirical evidences and their implications.

According to the policy document, the prominence of education as a key human priority and its dependence on the interaction between learners and their teachers was one reason that made teachers prime concern of policymakers. Worldwide education policymakers often pay considerable attention to teachers' subject knowledge, professional skills, and attitude in order to have appropriate interaction between learners

and teachers (UNESCO, 2019; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Schleicher, 2019). African policy makers in a similar manner are curious about teacher professional competence so that ensure real communication in the teaching-learning process (Sanyal, 2013). They are highly criticized for crafting contextually relevant and globally balanced ECCE training policies, however (Takyi-Amoako & Assie-Lumumba, 2018). Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE teacher education policies, regardless of variations, can be typical examples of this limitation as findings of this study revealed.

The other reason that made policy makers considerate to teachers was the power of teacher quality as the most important school variable to influence learners' achievement (UNESCO, 2019). Similarly, abound literature demonstrated nothing exceeds as an influential factor than teacher quality. Quality teacher education has become one of the emerging global themes in ECCE policy reforms (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013a; Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Akiba, 2017; Roopnarine, et al., 2018).

UNESCO's teacher policy development guide along this line indicated the need for a strong link between good teacher policy and education sector plan to improve the quality of teacher education (UNESCO, 2019). Global nations have been aligning their education and training policies with their education sector development plans (UNESCO, 2013). It has to be noted that Ethiopia and Kenya have their own long experience in developing education sector plans or programs (Kiros, 1990; Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2005; MoE, 2015; Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2013). However, the practice appears to have less impact mainly for Ethiopians and partly for Kenyan education reform. For instance, the failure to properly translate these sector development policies in Ethiopia for

more than six decades can best explain the situation (Kiros, 1990; MoE, 2015). On the other hand, having appropriate ECCE education and training policy and failure to implement planned activities are prime challenges of Sub-Saharan African nations including Ethiopia and Kenya (Awopegba, 2010; Neuman & Devercelli, 2012; Takyi-Amoako & Assie-Lumumba, 2018). Henceforth, making alignment between policies and education sector plans does not guarantee a good policy practice.

The already mentioned UNESCO's teacher policy development guide advises that a single holistic teacher policy aligned with education and other national policies is better than a less comprehensive policy disseminated in other educational documents. As to this framework, holistic teacher policy by its nature is a broader education policy guided by a single overall vision and essential characteristics. It addresses all the major determinants of learning success linked to teachers including selection, recruitment, initial training, and certification of teachers. It also aligns with all levels of education and growing priorities that can enhance flexibility to meet the changing educational needs (UNESCO, 2019). The Ethiopian 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint and the Kenyan 2015 Teacher Service Commission Code of Regulations for Teachers can be taken as teacher policies. These policies tried to show teacher quality assurance arrangements while incomprehensive. In tandem, ECCE policies, sector development plans or programs, and others have also shown teacher quality assurance arrangement issues. Conclusively, in both cases, the findings of this study did not reveal comprehensive teacher policy as suggested by UNESCO (2019).

A holistic teacher policy has a forward-looking feature that is essentially important in exceptional contexts such as civil strife where significant numbers of both

teachers and learners may be internally displaced, and in the case of emergencies and refugees (UNESCO, 2018). A study made by INEE (2015) argues that nations shall consider specific contexts in their quality teacher education policies. Developed nations and OECD countries have already considered emigrant education. However, these nations seem not serious toward teacher education (Paine et al., 2017).

A significant number of African nations are known for an internal displacement of their people and education is one of the most hampered social services because of different man-made and natural catastrophes including Ethiopia and Kenya (UNESCO, 2018). Recently, for instance, internal displacement has become a day-to-day scenario in Ethiopia (Maru, 2017). Schools including ECCE centers have been closed and a number of student children and teachers have been dislocated (INEE/Ethiopia Education Cluster, 2013). The nations under study have a huge number of refugees but they do not have inclusive education policy in general and forward-looking comprehensive teacher policy in particular. Africa profoundly needs comprehensive and futuristic education and training policy to overcome disasters (UNESCO, 2018).

Evidence shows that effective education and training policy often devises cost-based operational plans. A study conducted by Neuman & Devercelli, (2012) revealed that such a policy is a more tangible document; ensures accountability and adequate resource allocations mainly finance provision. Nevertheless, the same study asserted that the prominence of a costed-implementation plan seems not considered by many Sub-Saharan African countries despite a relatively better practice in Kenya. Neuman & Devercelli, (2012) also uncovered the importance of strengthening the enforcement of policies through a legal framework to ensure implementation and adequacy of resources.

As findings of this study revealed, the respective education sector development policy documents appeared to be cost-based operational plans. There found, however, unclear association to ensure the quality of initial teacher training quality assurance arrangement policies as part and parcel of ECCE quality. The Ethiopian was a very general cost plan that shows the total expenditure for the whole sector development while the Kenyan conversely was a detailed plan. Notwithstanding the Kenyan effort to show financial operational plans as regards teacher certification, quality standards, and teacher policy reform, finding strong evidence on the quality assurance of the ECCE subsector was difficult. Taking suggestions made by Neuman & Devercelli (2012) and findings of this study, devising initial teacher quality reforms on the basis of costed-operational plan is crucial for the nations. This could help nations alleviate failure to practice policies or "decoupling".

### **8.5.3. Teacher Quality Assurance Arrangement Policies**

Global researches, as discussed earlier, informed that initial teacher quality assurance arrangement policies comprise three main stages: Recruitment and Selection, Preparation, and Certification. Inconsistent focus on each of these stages has been prevailing among nations, however (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). For instance, countries like Canada, Chinese Taipei, Finland, and Singapore have strong recruitment policies that made teaching a very attractive career choice while the United States has comparatively a weaker policy (Akiba, 2017). The former nations offer a ranked profession with attractive salary, working conditions, and career arrangements thereby ensure a strong demand for initial teacher training from their cleverest high school graduates. On the other hand, nations such as Australia, England, and United States focus more on accreditation

policies for teacher training institutions than selection and recruitment policies. Such policies pay considerable attention to quality teacher preparation measures (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017).

An interesting discovery by Ingvarson & Rowley (2017) was the mere focus of global studies on single components or stages of quality assurance arrangement policies neglecting the collective effect of the arrangements. However, such findings were inconsistent for Sub Saharan African context. The quality assurance arrangement policies, above all, seem not well designed and look fragmented (Takyi-Amoako & Assie-Lumumba, 2018). With all limitations, the Kenyan case appears to be nearer to the global context such as its certification arrangement policies are by far better than its selection and recruitment arrangement policies.

UNESCO (2013) argues that policies must take into account factors that may limit their feasibility, such as sufficient institutional capacity and human resources to implement the policy, and appropriate management structures, and sufficient financial resources to enable the achievement of the policy goal. These factors might be attributable to African policy makers formulate and practice appropriate teacher policies (Neuman & Devercelli, 2012; Takyi-Amoako & Assie-Lumumba, 2018).

The prominence of smart design in the course of education policy formulation and implementation is well conceptualized in OECD's Education Policy Implementation Framework (Viennet & Pont, 2017). According to this document, a policy that is well justified, offers a logical and feasible solution to the policy problem, will determine to a great extent whether it can be implemented and how. It also

suggests many of the global nations fail to formulate smartly designed education policies. Apparently, this was a challenge for the respective nations' understudy.

Nations with a better or high enrollment rate properly could think to improve their quality of teacher education. Conversely, nations with low or poor enrollment rates prioritize having a sufficient number of teachers. Such nations, accordingly, ignore the issue of quality teachers and quality education. Apparently, the quality of teachers in these countries remains poor. This is a typical feature of Sub-Saharan Africa (Sanyal 2013; J. Neuman et al, 2015). This situation may deter Africa to escalate its teacher policy reform at the international level. The success of teacher education reform cannot be solely measured by solving the shortage of teachers. It requires motivated and able teachers who have endowed with a sense of professional responsibility through quality training (UNESCO, 2019).

European Union (2015) and World Bank (2010) suggest flexible teacher education policy to address various needs of the society. Alongside this, a comparative study on Initial Teacher Training of China and United States mad by Gong & Wang (2017) revealed two divergent dimensions of training: formal and informal. China has developed some informal initial training to overcome teacher shortage while the US focuses more on formal training. China's informal training has been very dominant in areas where the shortage is severe. The aim of teacher preparation in the US is more professional-oriented compared to Chain's more ad hoc nature. Yet, the quality of ECCE teachers became a central policy topic to guarantee the real benefit of children in both nations.

The selection policy of initial teacher education affects the decision to become a teacher (World Bank, 2010). According to this study, nations can regulate the admission criteria applied by providers of initial teacher education, and consequently, they face a trade-off. The study also underlined how very strong selection criteria can contribute to recruit the most talented individuals into teaching, and raise the social status of the profession. On the other hand, the study argued how moderate requirement helps to build a socio-culturally different pool of teachers, prevent teacher shortages, and easy access to the teaching profession. The study further noted that it is imperative to understand how nations balance the need to attract a sufficient and diverse pool of entrants into teacher education, while at the same time attracting the most able applicants to ensure the quality of teaching.

A recommended critic here might be uncertainty whether African nations have clear alternative teacher policies. Taking this point into consideration and given variations, the respective nations under this study, neither have comprehensive teacher policy nor have clear alternative initial teacher training policy in ECCE. Whatsoever, this study revealed that the global literature tends to advise nations to have strong teacher policy reform regardless of their development status.

In spite of the fact that teachers are the most important determinant of quality education, good quality of teacher education is unattainable without an effective teacher training institution (Sanyal, 2013). Much of the responsibility of the teacher preparation stage is highly dependent on the quality of teacher training providers (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Finding evidence on the global status of ECCE initial teacher preparation



seems one of the major limitations in the existing worldwide literature. Nonetheless, the challenge worsens in African pre-service ECCE teacher education (Nganga, 2009).

#### 8.5.4. The Impact of Globalization on Teacher Education

As discussed earlier in chapter four, teacher education policies in a global context cannot be viewed solely in national or local circumstances. There is a heated and growing global debate among scholars and policy makers on teacher quality (Paine et al., 2016). The last two decades also revealed global reforms on the quality of initial teacher education in the selection, preparation, and certification policies (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). Research has shown multiple driving forces toward the globalization of teacher education. Table 8.17 summarized major driving forces.

Table 8.17: Driving forces on the globalization of teacher education

No.	Driving Forces	Sources
1	International connectedness	(Hilton, 2016; Akiba,
2	Universal movement of ideas on teacher education	2017; Ingvarson &
3	Comparative education research	Rowley, 2017; Paine et
4	Multilateral organizations	al., 2017; Verger et al.,
5	Global competition to have 'best teacher education'	2018)
6	International assessment and ranking	
7	Learner center pedagogy	
8	Immigration	
9	Education Agenda 2030 (SDG, Goal 4)	

The abovementioned driving forces have brought global convergence of worldwide teacher reforms and this has an impact on Ethiopian and Kenyan teacher education policies. The convergence is more observable in quality assurance and standardization of teacher education policies and this, in turn, has brought policy isomorphic tendencies. However, this needs further investigation and the following points have to be taken into account.

First, the driving forces appear to have varied levels of impact between the northern and southern practices. Many of the dynamics look more influential for the developed world than the Sub-Saharan African nations. The global competitiveness and international ranking has insignificant power in Ethiopian and Kenyan teacher education, for example. Rather, it has a substantial impact on OECD and other developed countries (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Akiba, 2017; Karner, 2018). Ethiopia and Kenya may need a couple of decades to have a competitive teacher education despite their varied level of teacher policy reforms. This is because they are currently engaged more in fulfilling their own quantitative need. At the moment, notwithstanding Kenya's forefront position in teacher education (Mbugua, 2011), their teacher education even does not look regionally competitive. Their recent interest to join international achievement tests, however, may bring a sort of policy isomorphism. On the other hand, as evidenced by (Niwaigaba & Okurut-Ibore, 2014), comparative education research has brought a positive impact on African teacher quality policy reforms. But it seems that this driving force has no clear effect on Ethiopian and Kenyan teacher education policies.

Findings revealed that there is little effort toward improving the teacher training for Ethiopian and Kenyan refugee education (INEE/Ethiopia Education Cluster, 2013;

UNESCO, 2018). Based on the reviewed national policy documents, the effect of immigration is not well considered in teacher policies despite a huge number of refugees in Ethiopia and Kenya. Among the driving forces, however, the impact of multi-lateral organizations along with Education Agenda 2030 will have a strong positive influence on Ethiopian and Kenyan teacher education policies (Roopnarine et al., 2018; Karner, 2018).

Secondly, it is not clear how the global trend influences the teacher education policy of the ECCE subsector. The global policy convergence seems more relevant to other levels of teacher education particularly primary and secondary teacher education (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Akiba, 2017). One major problem is that the policy convergence does not show specific trends in accordance with the level of education. Another problem is that ECCE is a creeping subsector both in Ethiopia and Kenya that needs teacher policy reform (Republic of Kenya, 2012; MoE, 2015). This is notwithstanding that quality teacher education reform by itself is a bigger problem at all levels of education within the respective nations, but to show the extent of worseness.

In spite of the fact that there are significant similarities, there appears a kind of divergence within the two nations' understudy. The document analysis of this study showed that the Kenyan context is comparatively convergent with the global trend such as both mimetic and formative policy isomorphism is happening in Kenya than Ethiopia in this respect. The Kenyan initial teacher training quality assurance arrangement policy seems relatively nearer to the worldwide policy convergence than the Ethiopian. For the most part, the global teacher certification has influenced the Kenyan teacher registration policy.

To conclude, researchers have been invested their energy in examining the effect of globalization on the convergence and divergence of education policies and the interaction of the global and the local (Paine et al., 2016). Despite this effort, the impact of globalization in national education systems often is not easy to observe, distinguish and track empirically. This is because of the multiple impacts of globalization and its very different dimensions on education policy (Verger & Altinyelken, 2018). Consequently, the global impact of teacher education policy in general and in accordance with the African ECCE in particular needs continuous and thorough investigation.

### **8.6. Summary**

The findings of this study revealed several convergent and divergent policy and institutional related characteristics. At the start, this study was anchored on the profound importance of the two-sided education quality: quality ECCE and quality teacher. There was a consistent view among the Ethiopian and Kenyan research participants of this study regarding the prominence of ECCE teacher quality for the overall quality of education. By the same token, the document analysis has shown a growing interest to improve the quality of ECCE and teacher education. The policies lack strong evidence to unveil the combined effect of ECCE as a subsector and its teachers as the most determinants of quality education, however. As a result, the findings of this study were vague to reflect the global interest toward the two-pronged quality (Mbugua, 2011) and the special prominence of teacher quality in ECCE (Watts, 2009). ECCE in both nations had still inadequate concern compared to subsequent subsectors. Despite policy indications of how ECCE quality and teacher quality are milestones for all levels of

education quality, the subsector in the respective nations looks in need of considerable attention.

Successful ECCE policies could affect quality in two ways: provision of finance and regulation or standard setting (Huston, 2008). As seen from the document analysis of this study, teacher training and quality assurance are some of the priorities in the respective ECCE policies. Other policies particularly education sector development plans/programs also revealed an attention to quality initial teacher training in ECCE. Nevertheless, the impact of the policies toward financial provision and the quality standard was unclear.

This study affirmed divergence in governance structure and power that has brought significant impact on all stages of quality assurance arrangement policy formation and practice. Kenyan ECCE governance structure seems coherent across national government and county governments. The Kenyan appears to have ECCE directorate at national and sub-national levels that in turn helped to maintain better institutional synergy. In contrast, the Ethiopian structure and governance even has no a unit or desk office throughout all levels of administrative entities. The difference might indicate the extent how the Ethiopian ECCE has been fragmented.

The recruitment and selection policies of the respective nations demonstrated strong similarity. Aside from the impracticability of career arrangements, a consistent pattern was seen on least entry academic requirements for initial training that compromised the making of teacher quality. Poor interest toward the teaching profession and high attrition due to discomfort in working conditions i.e. low salary and societal

disrespect was apparent in both cases. To some degree, such similarities were found to be the result of "policy isomorphism".

A major policy divergence unveiled in the privatization of teacher education. This deviation has also affected the respective nations differently. The majority of Kenyan ECCE teacher training institutions are private based while the current Ethiopian policy is totally closed for private teacher education. This situation seems to be attributable to a couple of dynamics and influences within the nations dictating the impact of *political neo-institutionalism*. In line with this, unemployment was one distinctive characteristic of Kenyan ECCE trained teachers whereas Ethiopian ECCE is suffering from critical shortage of teachers. One may consider saturation as a major or a sole attribute to unemployment taking a mushrooming number of private training providers into account. Nevertheless, an overarching point here is that this was mainly due to a policy and practice gap in recruitment procedures and inconsistent capacity between county governments.

There was a plain difference toward the professionalization of teacher educators. In Kenya, training institutions for ECCE teachers are available ranging from first degree to PhD levels. In Ethiopia, currently, there are no ECCE professional teacher educators in any of the training institutions. This was evident in the sample teacher training institutions; all the Kenyan teacher educators were ECCE professionals and PhD holders while the Ethiopians were non-professional teacher educators and second degree holders. Nonetheless, this does not mean that there are no untrained Kenyan ECCE teacher educators.

A special lesson might be drawn from some of the challenges mentioned by the research participants. Certainly, there is very strong evidence that no other structural quality component exceeds quality teachers. This is true as the findings of this research have shown. However, how could the quality of teachers affect quality in ECCE centers at which children are critically suffering with the shortage of clean water and lack of school feeding in need? It appears that the quality of teachers in some circumstances could not surpass other basic contextual structural components of ECCE quality. Henceforth, empirical evidence on the impact of teacher education as the most powerful determinant of process quality needs revision.

The notion of "decoupling" from institutional theory was apparent in both cases but to varied extent and characteristics. The Ethiopian ECCE, for instance, has shown significant "decoupling" between planned policy reform activities in initial teacher training and failure to develop intended policy documents. The same was done to the Kenyan National Teacher Development Policy envisaged in 2016. This was a bit divergent type of "decoupling" that may need redefining the policy-practice notion of institutional theory. "Decoupling" in its common sense, failure to implement a policy, was evident in both nations to a differed extent. The Kenyan teachers' career arrangement policy is significantly decoupled in ECCE, for example.

The findings of this research were also compared to the wider regional and global contexts. The implications of global forces and trends of teacher policy reform were drawn. The nations understudy to some degree were found to be convergent and substantially differed at some points. The impact of multilateral organizations was among similar trends specifically in the respective nations and at large in developing nations.

The global forces appear to have varied levels of impact between the northern and southern practices. The dynamics look more influential for the developed world than African nations. The global competitiveness and international ranking have insignificant power in Ethiopian and Kenyan teacher education, for instance.



## CHAPTER NINE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND REFLECTIONS

This chapter presents a summary, conclusion, and reflection of the study. The findings of this study were summarized in the first section. Major similarities and differences, and implications with the regional and the global contexts were discussed in this section. Section two draws conclusions corresponding to basic research questions. Section three discusses theoretical and methodological reflections. This section has shown how selective theoretical concepts of neo-institutional theory assisted the findings of this study. Also, it revealed how the methodological approach and theoretical underpinnings have oriented this study. Section four presents major policy implications while section five briefly provides an opening for further research.

### 9.1. Summary of the findings

#### 9.1.1. Major Similarities

##### 9.1.1.1. The Irony: *An Increasing Concern vs. 'The Cart before the Horse'*

The document analysis of this study revealed growing policy concerns on ECCE. Given the Kenyan policy reform poses the forefront in Africa, the Ethiopian ECCE has shown remarkable policy reforms since 2010. The reform at a policy level dictated considerable attention to the overall quality of ECCE including its initial teacher education. The 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint prior to the subsector policy reform has considered quality assurance of initial teacher training with all its contentions. In spite of all these efforts, however, the negligence appears to be paradoxically apparent. The prominence of adequate investment on ECCE and its multiple returns was boldly underlined in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE policies (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2006;

MoE, MoWA, MoH, 2010a). Nevertheless, the respective nations' understudy and policy makers practically have no equal consideration to ECCE subsector as they have to the subsequent subsectors.

Alongside this, the work of Takyi-Amoako & Assie-Lumumba (2018) depicts African policy makers' and development planners' ignorance on ECCE as they put *the cart before the horse*; they ignored ECCE and paid attention to the rest level of education. The study also indicated that consequently now they are paying for this as they are painfully redesigning their curriculum, teacher training and financial resources. The study further argues that ECCE has to be a key subsector; it has not been taken as an afterthought. The situation in Ethiopia and Kenya is not far from this. In Ethiopia, irrespective of the limitations, there exists a teacher certification system that has been applied in primary and secondary education teachers while there is no a single certified ECCE teacher. In Kenya, the Teacher Service Commission has been committed to register and recruit primary and secondary teachers despite a huge number of unemployed ECCE teachers. These are plain manifestations of how the *cart* is positioned before the *horse*.

This research witnessed the two-pronged increasing global concern in the ECCE subsector: taking ECCE as the bedrock for human development and quality teacher preparation for childhood education. This in turn called for quality teacher education policy reform. A prime convergence within the respective nations was a failure to consider the combined effect of ECCE and its teachers on subsequent subsectors' quality of education.

### **9.1.1.2. Lack of Comprehensive Teacher Policies**

In this study, ECCE initial teacher training issues mainly appeared in three kinds of policy documents: national ECCE policies, national teacher policies and regulations, and strategic policy documents. The respective national ECCE policies were not expected to portray concrete and detailed directions on initial teacher education quality assurance arrangements and they remained as expected. A relative wholeness was seen in the national teacher policies but with different contentions. The respective education sector development policy documents have also envisaged improving the quality of initial teacher education while they were not in a position to treat all the stages of quality assurance arrangements properly. Finding elaborate quality assurance arrangements in a holistic policy document was a similar challenge for both nations.

Based on the document analysis and literature review, the existing policies of the respective nations seem to miss important features of comprehensive policy. One major characteristic missed in the respective national teacher policy framework was farsightedness despite its profound importance. The nations such as have no predicting and flexible teacher policy that suits consistent internal displacement and an increasing number of immigrants.

A clear costed implementation plan toward quality of initial teacher training and legal frameworks that enforce policy practice was also another feature of a holistic policy. Finding such quality in both cases, mainly in Ethiopia, was challenging. Some may think literally that African nations have good education policies but implementation and finance gap, and this seems basically wrong. Scholars can also argue that lack of

adequate funding is a critical problem related to ECCE matters such as improving its teacher quality. Nevertheless, a problem related to funding or finance allocation is part of a policy limitation. Limitation in this respect was evident within the respective initial teacher training quality assurance arrangement policies.

This study has shown that both Ethiopia and Kenya were long recognized the need for adequate investment in their ECCE policies. There is also an increasing worldwide interest in prioritizing ECCE teacher policy but the difference seems that developed nations are more allocating enough resources in their policies (Manning et al. 2017). According to the UNESCO Framework for Teacher Policy Development, teacher policies have to be built on evidence, politically feasible, financially realistic, and agreed upon by the government and relevant stakeholders (UNESCO, 2019). Investing in initial teacher education is crucially important (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017). However, this study declared that the nation's understudy was behind adequately invest in ECCE as they lack comprehensive teacher policy.

#### **9.1.1.3. Consequences of Poor and Unpractical Arrangements**

The findings of this study indicated similar trends due to poor and unpractical arrangements. This was largely apparent in recruitment and selection arrangement policies. Much of the career arrangements in both cases were unattractive and tended to be in-service merit based benefits instead of being inviting new entrants to the profession. On the other hand, those available arrangements were impractical for different reasons. The Kenyan arrangements look better at the policy level but impractical because of inconsistent recruitment policy and recruitment settings while the Ethiopian arrangement

policy primarily lacked clear inclusion of the ECCE subsector. Consequently, among other common challenges, the Kenyan unemployment was found to be a prime challenge that hampered the quality of initial teacher training.

The least academic entry requirement was one of the major similarities in Ethiopian and Kenyan ECCE initial teacher training. The Ethiopian trainee selection policy at face value seems to have rigorous and scientific requirements but is characterized with ambitions, ambiguity and uncertainty toward the ECCE subsector. The contradicting academic requirement shows how the policy was suffering to invite high achievers and practically calls low achievers. The findings of this study have proven that desperate, uninterested and demotivated trainees are joining the teaching profession. It also seems even being ECCE teacher is much attributable to societal disrespect than the subsequent level of the profession. Hence, those policies envisioned to make teaching *a choice of the profession* were inconsistent with the rest of the policies and the reality.

## **9.1.2. Major Differences**

### **9.1.2.1. Governance Structure and Coordination**

This research revealed significant differences in ECCE governance structure and power. The Ethiopian ECCE policy puts the ministry of education as an interim coordinating entity at the national level. The rest of the governance and coordination mechanisms seem to be loose and impractical as discussed earlier. A person who is in need of data on ECCE cannot access any information from the particular unit or directorate at the ministry of education unless the issue is very specific such as curriculum or teacher training. He/she has to go through different offices to have a full

picture of ECCE. As per the findings of this research, he/she possibly can observe poor coordination mechanisms and practices among those offices. It was apparent how this trend influenced the quality assurance of initial teacher education.

This study has shown complicated features of the Ethiopian ECCE governance structure. For the most part, the ECCE program curriculum and teacher training curriculum preparation were structurally governed with different entities. This characteristic in turn was attributed to the misalignment of the curricular frameworks. Findings also declared the absence of a clear responsible governance structure for accreditation of teacher education providers. This situation again was taken as the reason for the absence of accredited teacher training institutions.

The Kenyan ECCE policy sets a clear institutional framework ranging from the national educational governance structure to the smallest administrative unit. The policy intended to establish strong governance and accountability structure. At the national level, the ministry of education leads the sub-sector through the Directorate of Early Childhood Education. This directorate, among other responsibilities, provides technical advice and policy direction for the implementation of ECCE across the nation. It shall also work synergistically with other directorates dealing with teacher education and quality assurance. There is also the Directorate of Early Childhood Education at county level and ECCE coordinators at sub-county and ward levels. This study affirmed the relative impact of the Kenyan governance structure toward the quality assurance of initial teacher education. In particular, the institutional synergy at a Macro level was seen in teacher certification system. This might dictate Kenya's relative leading experience in African ECCE subsector as evidenced by empirical studies. For this reason, governance

structure and coordination had a key indicator on the quality assurance of the respective initial teacher education.

#### **9.1.2.2. Teacher Preparation Arrangements**

Teacher preparation arrangements varied considerably as regards curricular policy reform, accreditation of training institutions and professionalization of teacher educators. The current Kenyan Basic Education Curriculum Framework significantly showed its alignment with the teacher training curriculum. The Capacity Building Framework for the new Competency Based Curriculum was a clear blueprint for the upcoming teacher education curriculum. The curricular policy reform substantially differed from the existing Ethiopian education and training policy in terms of comprising religious competence and indigenous education. Inversely, the Ethiopian education system was completely secular and excludes indigenous education. As revealed in the findings of this study, the existing Ethiopian ECCE program curriculum and training curriculum are contested for various reasons.

This study has shown comparatively clear policy and practice in Kenyan accreditation of teacher education providers. However, the Ethiopian case was found to be divergently characterized with the absence of a plain institution for accreditation associated with the absence of any single accredited training institution.

An overarching finding in line with accreditation of teacher training institutions was the privatization of teacher education. ECCE and its teacher education in Ethiopia were fully operating under the private system. There were abound private ECCE teacher training institutions working in a very loose regulation. They served for more than a

decade and were banned by the government for their poor quality provision. Conversely now, there is no a single private training institution while the subsector has been suffering from a critical shortage of teachers. On the other hand, in Kenya, private ECCE teacher training institutions have been mushrooming being a bigger challenge that collapsed quality.

This study demonstrated great variation in the professionalization of teacher educators. Documents and informants of this study declared that there is no professional teacher educator in Ethiopian ECCE. In Kenya, inversely, many of teacher educators are ECCE professionals ranging from undergraduate to PhD level.

#### **9.1.2.3. Teacher Certification Arrangements**

Teacher certification arrangement policies and practices differed significantly. The Kenyan teacher certification arrangement was found to have a synergized institutional framework among different entities. The Kenyan Institute for Curriculum Development (KICD), the National Examination Council (NEC) and the Teacher Service Commission (TSC) in collaboration with the Directorate for Quality Assurance and Standard have interweaved and indispensable roles in teacher certification. The Ethiopian teacher certification arrangement at the policy level has to be done by the Directorate for Teachers and Education Leaders Licensing and Renewal. Yet, as revealed in the findings of this study, there is no a single certified teacher in Ethiopian ECCE.

#### **9.1.3. Regional Implications**

This cross-national study ascertained a clear disconnection between Africa's compassion on multiple importance of investment in ECCE and practical actions. African ECCE



policymakers dully consider the special prominence of the subsector for the socio-economic transformation. Nevertheless, they lack prudence to consider real national contexts and adequate investment. They also have shortcomings to understand the impact of the two-pronged quality: ECCE quality and teacher quality. They are not in a proper position to pay attention to the subsector as they do for the subsequent subsectors. Despite such limitations, substantial improvement would have been registered had the existing policies been implemented. Consequently, negligence to the subsector and "decoupling" appeared to be apparent across the region as seen in the Ethiopian and Kenyan context.

Findings of this study have shown poor practices regarding teacher selection and recruitment arrangements. The Ethiopian and Kenyan recruitment policies, irrespective of their limitations, lack implementation. Dispassionate entrants to the training due to poor academic requirements and other compelling reasons significantly affected both nations. Attrition was consequential for the nations in spite of the huge unemployment problem in the Kenyan case and a limited number of trained teachers in Ethiopia. Given these dynamics, a critical shortage of ECCE teachers was a common denominator in Sub-Saharan African countries. In one or another way, the findings conclusively attested that the region has been challenged with inappropriate selection and recruitment arrangement policies.

One key implication of the findings of this study was the need for large-scale studies on the quality assurance arrangement policies in Sub Saharan ECCE initial teacher education. This enables to critically draw the extent of converging and diverging issues that are generalizable to the region.

#### **9.1.4. Global Implications**

The wider context of teacher policy reform dictates several lessons. Understandably, ECCE teacher policy reform in Ethiopia and Kenya is creeping compared to the global context. This is notwithstanding that quality teacher education reform by itself is a bigger problem at all levels of education within the respective nations in varied extents. Another finding was how divergence and convergence within the two nations are associated with the wider context. Accordingly, it seems that the Kenyan context appears to be relatively convergent with the global trend. The findings of this study may also inform the global community how African indigenous ECCE and teacher education have been existed before the Western-centric ECCE and teacher training. The global forces that influenced the teacher policy reform possibly explain the following major findings.

##### **9.1.4.1. Unrepresentative Trend**

This research has repeatedly shown the growing global teacher policy reform. Nevertheless, it seems all these are nothing to do with the ECCE subsector. Despite increasing global studies in ECCE, finding evidence on preschool initial teacher education was relatively scarce (Gong and Wang, 2017). It is not clear how the global trend influences the teacher education policy of the ECCE subsector. The global policy convergence seems more relevant to other levels of teacher education particularly primary and secondary teacher education (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Akiba, 2017). One major problem is that the policy convergence does not show specific trends in accordance

with the level of education. All these said the global quality assurance of initial teacher education appears to be less or little concerned in the ECCE subsector.

#### **9.1.4.2. Unbalanced Impact**

The driving forces appear to have varied levels of impact between the northern and southern practices. The dynamics look more influential for the developed world than African nations. The global competitiveness and international ranking have insignificant power in Ethiopian and Kenyan teacher education, for example. Rather, it has a substantial impact on OECD and other developed countries (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017; Akiba, 2017; Karner, 2018).

#### **9.1.4.3. Combined Effect of Arrangement Policies: the Missing Link**

An important global lesson drawn from the findings of this cross-national study was the missing link between the combined effect of quality assurance arrangements and the practice. Assuming teacher quality solely within the second arrangement or teacher preparation framework cannot bear a change. Yet, within this gap, missing to understand the impact of accreditation of training providers and certification of teacher educators will be missing prominent constituents within the missing link. Without the proper consideration of the first arrangement (selection and recruitment) and the third arrangement (certification), indeed, it is quite impossible to have an effective arrangement for teacher preparation. In a similar vein, setting high selection criteria and attractive recruitment arrangements or having a rigorous certification procedure alone does not guarantee the quality assurance of initial teacher education.

This study revealed that worldwide nations were focusing on the single component or stage of initial teacher education quality assurance arrangement policies. It appears that the collective effects of the arrangements have been neglected. However, attaining quality novice teachers without a strong quality assurance arrangement policy is impossible. From the existing inconsistent attention to each of the quality assurance arrangements, it can be drawn that global nations might be some way behind having a comprehensive teacher policy. If nation-states fail to recognize the combined effect of the quality assurance arrangements for initial teacher education, they might have the problem of designing holistic teacher policy. Henceforth, the issue of having a strong and comprehensive teacher policy remains a pressing global concern.

## **9.2. Conclusions**

This cross-national comparative study was entirely triggered by the two-pronged increasing global interest: quality ECCE and quality teacher for the subsector. In other words, this study was inspired by the structural quality of ECCE in terms of initial teacher education. Policies as prime manifestations of structural quality were at the center of understanding this study. Based on the major findings and the basic research questions, the study reached the following conclusions.

This study revealed consistent recognition as regards the prominence of quality ECCE and quality teacher education. Both the documents and the research participants underlined the profound impact of these two on the overall quality of education. However, the intersecting point of quality in ECCE and teacher education was less evident. This was mainly because the policies tended to demonstrate quality in the ECCE

subsector and quality in teacher education independently. Thus, the structural quality of ECCE in terms of teacher education was not emphasized in both cases.

The findings of this cross-national study revealed greater convergence at the first stage of quality assurance arrangement policies. Inversely, the third stage of quality assurance arrangement policies and practices declared strong divergence. The absence of a single certified ECCE teacher in Ethiopia and licensed teachers through a relatively rigorous system in Kenya best illustrates the difference. Nevertheless, this single and last stage of quality assurance arrangement was unfortunate for it contradicts back to the first stage, recruitment and selection. Several certified Kenyan ECCE teachers have been suffering from unemployment. Many of them are also demotivated and have low morale due to the unattractive remuneration and low level of professional prestige. Thus, in conclusion, the sole strength of policies at a particular stage of quality assurance does not guarantee the whole arrangement.

In both cases, particularly in Ethiopia, there was a strong ambition to transform teaching into a profession of choice. The major problem attributed to this aspiration was twofold. This study on one hand conclusively has shown that the initial teacher education quality assurance in both nations, with the varied extent and at different stages of the arrangements, was regulated in fragmented, inadequate, unclear and impractical policies. On the other hand, such ambitions mostly target primary and secondary education. Hence, the need for holistic teacher policy in general and comprehensive teacher education quality assurance arrangement policies and practices, in particular, is imperative.

A particular teacher education system that failed to properly align with the national ECCE program modalities conclusively will be considered as nonexistent. ECCE in Ethiopia and Kenya, as revealed in this study, has been functioning in different formal and non-formal program modalities. The program modalities, however, appear to be disconnected from initial teacher education in different degree of variability between the nations. This major difficulty, thus, made the respective initial teacher education somehow illusory.

From the policy standpoint, this study has shown a similar pattern of disconnection between national policies and teacher education. Producing teachers who have no awareness of national ECCE policies, curriculum and programs has a negative impact on teacher education. In conclusion, as the findings of this study revealed, the lack of introducing the respective national policies weakened alignment between the school (ECCE) curriculum and the teacher training curriculum.

"Decoupling", among other institutional theory concepts, better explains the major findings of this study. The Ethiopian 2007 Teacher Development Blueprint, regardless of the contentions, was strongly decoupled. Had this policy been implemented with all its limitations, Ethiopia would have better quality assurance arrangements in initial ECCE teacher training. In a similar sense, "decoupling" was evident in the 2015 Kenyan Teacher Service Commission Code of Regulations for Teachers. This study uncovered not only the policy practice "decoupling" but also between the planning of policy formulation and failure to do it. Such "decoupling" has been manifested strongly and consistently in Ethiopian policies than the Kenyan. Ethiopian policy documents have planned for ECCE teacher policy reforms that are attributable to quality assurance

arrangements since the last decade but nothing has been done yet. This is not the issue of practicing available policies but developing planned policy frameworks. Apparently, this situation needs reconceptualization of "decoupling" in institutional theory.

Three major reasons for the "decoupling" can be drawn based on the findings of this research. National legal frameworks aligned with education and training policy are instrumental to enforce implementation and ensure accountability. Had the policy documents been aligned with legal policies, we might have seen the intended policy reform, for instance. The second reason is attributable to the low status of investment and lack of costed subsector development plans. The third reason might be related to the institutional culture that is the inefficiency to develop strong and relevant policies. A shred of very interesting evidence here might be the power of policies to decide their practicability if they are formulated in such a comprehensive manner. Hence, based on the findings of this study, the respective national policies lack quality to ensure their practicability.

The impact of the global context on the respective nations has come out with mixed pieces of evidence. Much of the driving forces of global teacher quality reform were unable to explain the nations under study and the Sub Saharan African context while some have a significant impact. Above all, as revealed in this study, the global teacher policy reform rarely considered the ECCE subsector. Flourishing literature on teacher quality assurance arrangement policies found to be much considerate to post preprimary levels or least attentive for ECCE. Thus, irrespective of the degree with the African policymakers, global teacher policymakers and initiatives seem not free from the idea of "putting the cart before the horse".

In sum, worldwide evidence revealed how prioritizing ECCE is essential for quality education irrespective of national development status. In tandem, the special prominence of ECCE for poor and developing nations is evident in research. Cross-national comparative researches in the past two decades have clearly shown how national education policies impact the respective structural and process qualities of ECCE. Ethiopia and Kenya, alongside this, have already made subsector policy reform. They have also recognized multiple returns of investment in ECCE. However, in varying extents, the nations were not in a position to properly translate this into the quality assurance of initial teacher education policies and practices. Henceforth, the irony persists until relevant policy and practice comes into effect.

### **9.3. Reflections**

#### **9.3.1. Theoretical Reflections**

This study was assisted by institutional theory while neo-institutionalism was predominantly used. The overall rationale to employ this theoretical framework was the longstanding contribution of neo-institutional theory to assist cross-national comparative education research (Baker & Wiseman, 2006). Both nations and education policies as institutions have been influenced by neo-institutional theory putting globalization at the center of gravity. Despite the difficulty to define globalization in terms of education, it can be often interpreted as ‘policy diffusion’, ‘policy borrowing’, ‘policy transfer’, and ‘policy traveling’ or ‘policy convergence (Verger & Altinyelken, 2018).

The global concern in teacher quality has brought worldwide convergence of teacher policies and this has an impact on Ethiopian and Kenyan teacher education



policies. The convergence, for instance, was evident in Kenyan teacher licensing policies. Consequently, both mimetic and formative policy isomorphism seem to happen more in Kenya than Ethiopia. There was no homogenous and legitimized policy isomorphism in quality assurance of initial teacher training both at the global level and within the respective nations, however. Hence, in this respect, policy isomorphism occurred on the basis of the theoretical underpinning of neo-institutional theory.

Nevertheless, a complete but very specific policy isomorphism was prevalent between the respective national policies. The convergence on sub policy section between the 2006 Kenyan National ECD Policy Framework and the 2010 Ethiopian National ECCE Policy framework can be strong evidence. This finding substantiates the notion of neo-institutional theory how homogeneity occurs in the pieces of education policies rather than in a whole (Wiseman et al., 2013a). Table 9.1 shows how the aforementioned policies have made a similar explanation on the benefits of investing in early years.

Table 9.1: A complete policy isomorphism on the benefits of early year investment

<b>No.</b>	<b>Kenyan 2006 ECD Policy</b>	<b>Ethiopian 2010 ECCE Policy</b>
1	Early identification and intervention	Early identification
2	Enhanced enrolment in primary schools on equal grounds	Enhanced enrolment in primary schools on equal grounds
3	Increase productivity	Increase productivity
4	Cost savings for both the families and the nation	Cost savings for both the families and the nation
5	Reduction of poverty	Reduction of poverty
6	Improved chances for the girl child	Improved chances for the girl child
7	Improved family welfare	Improved family welfare
8	Increased opportunities for parental and	Increased opportunities for parental and

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Source: Republic of Kenya/MoEST, (2006, p.2-3); MoE, MoWA, MoH, (2010a, p.19-20)

International dominant education models are more likely to be transmitted in many or most of the global states. In a study that made a comparative analysis on five national curriculum reforms, the Kenyan Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC) was one of the cases under investigation (Operti et al., 2018). This might signify how the Kenyan CBC is globally comparable in representing African nations. The introduction of the Capacity Building Framework in the new CBC could show the strength of the policy to ensure curricular alignment between the school and teacher training curriculum. This can be another indication for the global policy convergence and Kenya's position as the prominence of curricular alignment is a worldwide concern.

A major neo-institutional theoretical concept that consistently prevailed in this study was "decoupling". Policy "decoupling" was apparent in ways: in its very common definition that is failure to implement policy and failure to prepare a planned policy. The common concept of "decoupling" was appeared in both nations to varied extent while the Ethiopian was more characterized by the later type of "decoupling". Further theoretical clarification or redefinition in institutional theory might be imperative to consider the later type of "decoupling".

Empirical studies (Wiseman et al., 2013a; Akiba, 2017; Cochran-Smith, 2012) indicated how the political system and the political power of nations could affect policy and implementation showing the impact of political neo-institutionalism. It seems that this theoretical stance was evident in Ethiopian and Kenyan case studies. However, this

argument cannot overshadow the worldwide convergence toward teacher quality (Musset, 2009; Akiba, 2017; Ingvarson & Rowley).

### **9.3.2. Methodological Reflections**

This study was undertaken using a cross-national comparative case study design and sequential exploratory mixed strategy. The study was also assisted by the methodological underpinnings of neo-institutional theory (See chapter 3, section 3.1.5.). The cross-national comparative case study design was relevant to deal with the national policy contexts of the nation's understudy and the wider context. Sequential exploratory strategy was popular in educational research to explore a particular phenomenon. By the same token, the neo-institutional theory methodological approach in cross-national comparative studies focuses to uncover the worldwide education phenomenon. The combined and consistent nature of these methodological approaches and stances enabled to increase the credibility of the study.

In light of these methodological approaches, this study deployed multiple data collection and analysis strategies. Different research sites, organizations or offices, research participants, documents and empirical evidences helped to maintain the reliability and validity of this study. The data from different relevant education offices and different officials in a particular issue, the use of two qualitative and one quantitative data collecting instruments to investigate a single theme, and data from various policy documents on specific issues enabled for higher triangulation and complement. Further, the empirical findings played a key role to fill the information gap and strengthen the findings.

A major prominence of the methodological framework of neo-institutional theory for this study was staying away from value-laden recommendations and solutions. The framework enabled this study to focus on analytic exploration of the cases, comparisons and contrasts based on available evidence. One of the recommended methods for cross-national comparative education research was policy-oriented analysis at the macro level and that was the dominant method in this study.

#### **9.4. Policy Implications**

The evidence from this study has suggested several implications that could influence the respective nations' teacher policy in general and their initial teacher education quality assurance arrangement policies in particular. The implications, however, have also a global impact as the findings of this study demonstrated. An overarching lesson learned regarding policy implications of this study could be the multiple importance of initial teacher quality assurance. In particular, it has a substantive impact on the quality assurance of teacher training institutions and teacher educators. Major policy implications were presented hereunder.

##### **9.4.1. Putting the Horse before the Cart**

The findings of this study have demonstrated the longstanding negligence on the ECCE subsector despite the progress. The policy evolution in Ethiopia and Kenya practically failed to put ECCE in the right position. ECCE as a subsector often comes after primary, secondary, TVET and higher education is an afterthought education and training issue. This was, as discussed earlier, evident throughout Africa. The global policy and practice, however, has revealed the prominence of putting ECCE before its

subsequent subsectors or education levels. Hence, this study suggests Ethiopia and Kenya to put *the Horse before the Cart*.

#### **9.4.2. Combining the Two-pronged Quality**

This study has shown the profound importance of ECCE and its teacher quality. On the other hand, this study unveiled how Ethiopian and Kenyan policies have tended to see ECCE and teachers as two important variables of education quality. The nations appeared to be far to recognize the combined effect of ECCE and teachers for overall quality education. Understanding the structural quality of ECCE in terms of teacher education strengthens the combination.

#### **9.4.3. Comprehensive Policy for Strengthened Practice**

Ethiopia and Kenya need to consider the concept of smart or comprehensive policy design. In so doing, they can have a well justified and comprehensive initial teacher training quality assurance arrangement policy. Comprehensive policy helps them to set proper quality standards, adequate investment, and accountability. This is because such a policy sets a costed policy implementation operational plan supported with legal frameworks. In light of this, Ethiopia and Kenya need to have a farsighted or forward-looking teacher policy so as to properly select, recruit, prepare and certify teachers in time of emergency. Most of all, a smartly designed comprehensive policy helps them to increase policy practice thereby could save them from the problem of "decoupling".

Ethiopia and Kenya will benefit a lot if they consider the old adage, "Think globally and act locally" (Roopnarine et al., 2018). In so doing, they could balance the global and diversified needs of their people in their policy reforms. Ethiopian and Kenyan

quality assurance in ECCE initial teacher training must consider their local contexts of the subsector. The nations have also to consider common characteristics of teacher policy reforms in order to understand minimum global standards on quality ECCE and its teacher education. This can help them to better consider both the care (child health and development) and education (preschool education for 3-6 years children) elements of ECCE in teacher quality assurance.

The ongoing Kenyan policy reform and the upcoming Ethiopian policy reform might have prominent implications for the quality assurance of initial teacher training in ECCE. Nevertheless, as clearly seen from this study, the policy will not guarantee quality unless the sector is by far alienated from the notion of "decoupling". Hence, a comprehensive teacher policy that could include the three stages of initial teacher training quality assurance arrangements with a strong enforcement mechanism is recommended.

One major consideration toward the making of holistic teacher policy is a proper engagement of stakeholders. In particular, Ethiopia and Kenya need to consider ECCE policy implementers, teacher educators, and ECCE novice and senior teachers.

#### **9.4.4. Proper Privatization of Teacher Education**

Divergence in the privatization of teacher education has an important policy implication for the respective nations. Ethiopia might have paid a lot for the complete shutdown of private teacher education providers and ECCE seems the most affected subsector because of the decision. Irrespective of pushing factors for the decision, marginalizing the private sector from teacher education could not have a logical ground or compelling reason for a country like Ethiopia where privatization in -post-secondary

education is not new. Conversely, the Kenyan ECCE teacher education has been suffering from mushrooming private institutions. This in turn has affected quality assurance arrangements of the initial teacher training as evidence revealed in this study. This study suggests that Ethiopia may gain much if it considered private teacher training within the future teacher policy. Kenya on the other hand needs strong quality assurance mechanisms on private teacher education.

#### **9.4.5. Establishing model ECCE Centers in Teacher Training Institutions**

The 2007 Ethiopian Teacher Development Blueprint regardless of its "decoupling" has provided key policy direction as regards the establishment of model ECCE centers in teacher training institutions. Future national policy reforms of the respective nations may benefit if they consider the practical application of this policy direction. The nations in so doing could have teachers who are ready to align the theory and practice of the training. It also strengthens the curricular alignment between ECCE and teacher training.

#### **9.4.6. Relevant and Efficient Governance Structure**

The findings of this study demonstrated how the Ethiopian ECCE governance structure affected the overall function of ECCE including the quality assurance of initial teacher training. The subsector might perform better if it has at least departmental structures both at federal and regional levels. At a national level, proper coordination among relevant departments is also recommended. This helps to synergize ECCE, teacher education and quality assurance of the subsector. Alongside this, regardless of strengthening the existing ECCE center in Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia may learn a

lot from the Kenyan National Center for Early Childhood Education (NACECE) and District Center for Early Childhood Education (DICECE). Further, in the case of Kenya, the practical devolving function of ECCE would be recommendable within the existing governance structure.

#### **9.4.7. Inclusion of Private ECCE**

The Ethiopian quality assurance practice on private ECCE centers demonstrated twofold policy implications. The sole application of ECCE program quality assurance on private preschools or kindergartens has to be stopped as it is against the policy. Government ECCE centers have to be part of the quality assurance as the policy intended to be. This practice, as shown from this study, has an impact on the quality assurance of teacher education. On the other hand, Ethiopian teacher education has to consider teacher demand of private ECCE so as to meet the national quality standard. This can save the policy itself from the paradox between the mere application of quality assurance and the negligence to consider the demand for private ECCE. Making private ECCE part of the national teacher demand-supply strategy is also prominent for the Kenyan case.

#### **9.4.8. Alignment between ECCE Program Modalities and Teacher Education**

This cross-national study significantly informed that alignment between ECCE program modalities and teacher education is one of the major quality measures in initial teacher training quality assurance arrangements. Existing predominant non-formal program modalities in the respective nations were not included in initial teacher training despite variation in the extent. However, this does not mean the formal program modality, preschool or kindergarten, was properly included. Henceforth, flexible initial teacher



training policy arrangements that fit all ECCE modalities without compromising quality is recommended for both cases.

### **9.5. Openings for Further Research**

Future studies in this area could benefit a lot from this cross-national comparative study. To mention some, this study is believed to contribute to the quality assurance of initial teacher training beyond the ECCE subsector. Hence, looking for a subsequent level of teacher education can be one area for further study. This study was delimited to one specific structural quality of teacher education, initial training. Researchers, on one hand, who are interested in the quality assurance of pre-service teacher education, would benefit much from this study. On the other hand, this study might contribute a lot to studies that investigate the relationship between teacher education and another component of structural quality in ECCE. Much importantly, this study enables researchers who are interested to see associations between the structural quality and process quality of teacher education. Further, cross-national comparative researchers in Sub-Saharan African countries in this respect may benefit much.

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## Appendices

### Annex 1: Data Collecting Instruments

#### I. Guiding Questions for Document Analysis

No.	Questions	Remarks
1	What type and what is the document about?	
2	How does this document relate to quality assurance arrangements?	
3	To what extent is it comprehensive?	
4	To what extent is it relevant?	
5	What relationship does it have with other related policies?	
6	What major challenges are mentioned?	
7	How is its implementation status?	

#### II. Interview Questions

##### A. Interview questions for ECCE officials

1. Please briefly explain the duties and responsibilities of your directorate or department.
2. How do you conceptualize quality Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)?
3. How could you explain the sufficiency of the national ECCE policy framework?  
Do you think there is an adequate quality assurance policy for the subsector?

4. How do you conceptualize the prominence of quality teacher education for quality ECCE? In your opinion, how is this prominence reflected in the policy landscape?
5. What ECCE program modalities are functioning? Whom and how do these program modalities serve? Is the curriculum aligned with these program modalities?
6. How is the national ECCE policy context reflected in practice? Do you think there appears a gap between the policy and the practice? How?
7. In your view, what major challenges hinder the overall quality of ECCE?

**B. Interview questions for curriculum officials**

1. Please briefly explain the duties and responsibilities of your directorate or department.
2. How do you conceptualize quality Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)?
3. How could you explain the sufficiency of the national ECCE policy framework?
4. How do you conceptualize the prominence of quality teacher education for quality ECCE? In your opinion, how is this prominence reflected in the policy landscape?
5. Which institution is responsible for teacher training curriculum development? What specific duties and responsibilities does your institution have on existing teacher education institutions?
6. How could you reflect on the relevance of the national ECCE training curriculum?
7. Do you think that the training curriculum is aligned with all ECCE program modalities of your nation? How could you explain the training and school (ECCE) curricular alignment?

8. Please briefly explain major challenges and prospects in ECCE initial teacher training quality Assurance. Please pay attention to the training curriculum.

### **C. Interview questions for teacher education officials**

1. Please briefly explain the duties and responsibilities of your directorate or department.
2. How do you conceptualize quality Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)?
3. How could you explain the sufficiency of the national ECCE policy framework? Do you think there is an adequate quality assurance policy for the subsector? Particularly, how could you evaluate the policies in terms of initial teacher training quality assurance?
4. How do you conceptualize the prominence of quality teacher education for quality ECCE? In your opinion, how is this prominence reflected in the policy landscape?
5. Which directorate or department is responsible for teacher training curriculum development? How could you reflect on the relevance of the curriculum? Is it properly aligned with the ECCE curriculum?
6. In your view, how do you evaluate the relevance of national teacher education policy for ECCE?
7. At what level/levels (certificate, diploma, degree) are ECCE teachers training?
8. What specific duties and responsibilities does your directorate or department have on the existing teacher education institutions?
9. How do you reflect on teacher educators' profession and competence? Which directorate or department is responsible to certify them? How could you explain the certification practice?

10. In your view, what major challenges hinder the quality assurance of the initial training?

**D. Interview questions for quality assurance officials**

1. Please briefly explain the duties and responsibilities of your directorate or department.
2. How do you conceptualize quality Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)?
3. How could you explain the sufficiency of the national ECCE policy framework? Do you think there is an adequate quality assurance policy for the subsector? Particularly, how could you evaluate the relevance of policies in terms of initial teacher training quality assurance?
4. How do you conceptualize the prominence of quality teacher education for quality ECCE? In your opinion, how is this prominence reflected in the policy landscape?
5. Which institution is responsible for the accreditation of ECCE teachers training institutions (Colleges and/or Universities)? How is the quality of these institutions assured? Could you please briefly mention it?
6. Which directorate or institution is responsible for the certification of ECCE teachers? Is this your directorate's responsibility? How is the quality of these teachers assured? Could you please briefly mention it?
7. Are there standards that could enable to assure the quality of teacher educators? Which institution is doing this? Could you please briefly mention it?
8. Please briefly explain the process of producing ECCE teachers from selection to certification within the initial training? (Please focus on recruitment, selection, curriculum, practicum, teacher educators' approach, and teacher certification)



9. Please briefly explain major challenges and prospects in ECCE and its initial teacher training quality assurance?

#### **E. Interview questions for teacher educators and department heads**

1. Please briefly explain your qualification and teaching experience.
2. Are you licensed by any relevant authority? If yes, how could you explain the procedure?
3. To your opinion, what is your expectation on the prominence of ECCE teacher education compared with the other levels of teacher education? Do you think there is a difference between your expectation and the reality on the ground? If yes how?
4. In your view, what does quality and relevant teacher education in ECCE mean? Based on your definition, how do you evaluate your institution toward the provision of quality training?
5. How do you evaluate the relevance and practice of the national policy frameworks on ECCE teacher education?
6. What strengths and weaknesses does the existing ECCE teacher education curriculum have? What do you suggest on the way forward?
7. What does relevant pedagogy in ECCE teacher education mean to you? How do you evaluate your institution on the basis of your definition?
8. What does relevant assessment in ECCE teacher education mean to you? How do you evaluate your institution on the basis of your definition?
9. How do you reflect on the resource and facilities of the training system?

10. How could you explain the knowledge, attitude and skill of graduating teacher trainees in your institution?
11. What reflections and suggestions do you have on the quality assurance system of ECCE trainees, teacher educators and teacher education institutions?
12. How could you explain the knowledge, attitude and competence of teacher educators and trainees in your institution? (For department heads)
13. To your opinion, what are the challenges of ECCE teacher education in particular in your institution and in general in your nation?

### **III. Survey Questions**

**Addis Ababa University**

**Center for Center for Comparative Education and Policy Studies**

**International and Comparative Education**

**A Questionnaire to be filled by the Teacher Students**

#### **Introduction**

#### **Dear teacher trainees**

I am a PhD candidate at the Center for Center for Comparative Education and Policy Studies. I am conducting a study on *Structural Quality in Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE): A Cross-national Comparative Study on Ethiopian and Kenyan Initial Teacher Education*.





11. What result or score have you been asked to join this training? Please specify  
 .....

12. Have you been asked other requirements to join this training?

A. Yes

B. No

13. If your answer to question 12 is **yes**, please mention it.

.....  
 .....

**Section D: Curricular, Pedagogical, Professional and Service Issues**

14. Rate your satisfaction in the following curricular, professional and service issues.

Rating: 5=Very high    4= High    3= Moderate    2= Low    1= Poor

	5	4	3	2	1
Training curriculum					
Teacher educators' teaching methodology					
Teacher educators' assessment technique					
Practicum or practical courses					
Teacher educators' attitude toward the trainees					
Teacher educators' knowledge on their subject matter					
Teacher educators' skill to train the trainees					
Teacher educators' professional ethics					

15. To what extent are you satisfied in the following facilities and services? Rate your satisfaction and note that you have to rate if and only if the facilities and services are available

**Rating:** 5=Highly satisfied      4=Satisfied      3=Moderately satisfied 2=Unsatisfied  
1=Very unsatisfied

	5	4	3	2	1
Library					
In-door teaching and learning materials					
Out-door teaching and learning materials					
Workshop					
Departmental services					
Administrative services					

16. Rate the extent of your agreement on the following statements.

Rating: 5=Strongly agree      4= Agree      3= Neutral      2= Disagree      1= Strongly disagree

	5	4	3	2	1
I have a profound interest to be a preprimary teacher.					
I have got the necessary knowledge to be a preprimary teacher.					
I have got the necessary skill to be a preprimary teacher.					

**Section E: Certification/Licensing**

17. Are you going to be licensed at the end of your training?

A. Yes

B. No

18. If you say **yes** to question 17, which institution is responsible for licensing? Please specify hereunder.

.....

**Section F. Specific Conceptual Questions**

19. How do you conceptualize/define "care" and "education" in ECCE?

.....

.....

.....

20. Please mention the major domains of child development hereunder.

.....

**Section G. Opportunities, Challenges and Suggestions**

21. Please mention major opportunities, challenges and suggestions related to your training.

Opportunities

.....

.....

Challenges

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Suggestions

.....  
.....  
.....

*I thank you.*

**1. ቃለ መጠይቅ**

**ሀ/ ለሁሉም ቃለ መጠይቅ አድራጊዎች የቀረቡ ጥያቄዎች**

1. እባክዎትን የሥራ ክፍሎዎን የሥራ ድርሻ በአጭሩ ቢገልጹልኝ
2. ጥራት ያለውን የቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት እንዴት ይረዱታል?
3. አሁን ያለው የቅድመ መደበኛ ፖሊሲ ማዕቀፍ በቂ ነው ብለው ያምናሉ? እንዴት? ዘርፉ በቂ የሆነ የጥራት ማረጋገጫ ማዕቀፍስ አለው ብለው ያምናሉ?
4. በእርስዎ አስተያየት ጥራት ያለው የመምህራን ሥልጠና ለቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት ምን ያህል አስፈላጊ ነው? አስፈላጊነቱስ ምን ያህል በፖሊሲ ተደግፏል ብለው ያምናሉ?

**ለ/ ለቅድመ መደበኛ ባለሙያዎች/ኃላፊዎች የቀረቡ ጥያቄዎች**

1. የቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት መርሐ ግብሮችን እና ተደራሽ የሚያደርጓቸውን ሕጻናት ቢዘረዝሩልኝ። ሥርዓተ ትምህርቱ ከመርሐ ግብሮቹ ጋር የተዋሀደ ነው? እንዴት?



2. አሁን ያለውን የቅድመ መደበኛ የትምህርት ሥርዓት ተገቢነት እንዴት ያዩታል?
3. የቅድመ መደበኛ ፖሊሲው እንዴት ነው እየተተገበረ ያለው? ትግበራው ክፍተት አለበት ብለው ያምናሉ? እንዴት?
4. በእርስዎ ግንዛቤ የቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት ጥራትን የሚፈታተኑ ዋና ዋና ተግዳሮቶች ምን ምን ናቸው?

**ሐ/ ለቅድመ መደበኛ ሥርዓት ትምህርት ባለሙያዎች/ኃላፊዎች የቀረበ ቃለ መጠይቅ**

1. የመምህራን ሥልጠና ሥርዓት ትምህርት እንዲያዘጋጅ ላላፊነት የተሰጠውን የሥራ ክፍል ቢነግሩኝ። በመምህራን ማሰልጠኛ ተቋማት ላይ የእርስዎ የሥራ ክፍል ተግባር እና ላላፊነት ምንድን ነው?
2. አሁን ያለውን የቅድመ መደበኛ መምህራን ሥልጠና ሥርዓት ትምህርት ተገቢነት እንዴት ያዩታል?
3. የመምህራን ሥልጠና ሥርዓት ትምህርት ከቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት መርሐ ግብሮች ጋር የተዋሀደ ነው? እንዴት?
4. የቅድመ መደበኛ መምህራን ሥልጠና ጥራትን ለማረጋገጥ የሚፈታተኑ ዋና ዋና ተግዳሮቶች ምን ምን ናቸው? አስቸይ ሁኔታዎችስ? (ሥርዓት ትምህርቱ ላይ ቢያተኩሩ)

**መ/ ለቅድመ መደበኛ መምህራን ሥልጠና ባለሙያዎች/ኃላፊዎች የቀረበ ቃለ መጠይቅ**

1. የመምህራን ሥልጠና ሥርዓት ትምህርት እንዲያዘጋጅ ላላፊነት የተሰጠውን የሥራ ክፍል ቢነግሩኝ። የሥርዓት ትምህርቱን ተገቢነት እንዴት ያዩታል? ሥርዓት ትምህርቱ ከቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት ጋር የተዋሀደ ነው ብለው ያምናሉ? እንዴት?
2. በእርስዎ አስተያየት የመምህራን ሥልጠና ፖሊሲን ተገቢነት እንዴት ያዩታል?
3. በአሁኑ ወቅት የቅድመ መደበኛ መምህራን ሥልጠና እየተሰጠ ያለው በምን ደረጃ ነው?
4. በመምህራን ማሰልጠኛ ተቋማት ላይ የእርስዎ የሥራ ክፍል ተግባር እና ላላፊነት ምንድን ነው?

5. በቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት የመምህራንን ሥልጠና ከምልመላ እስከ ምዘና ያለውን ሂደት ቢያብራሩልኝ።  
(በተለይ ምልመላ፣ ምዘና፣ ሥርዓተ ትምህርት፣ "ፕራክቲካም" እና አሠልጣኝ መምህራን ላይ ትኩረት ሰጥተው ቢያብራሩልኝ)
6. የአሰልጣኝ መምህራንን ሥልጠና እና ሙያዊ ብቃት እንዴት ይገመግሙታል? የእነርሱ ሙያዊ ምዘና የሚረጋገጠው በየትኛው የሥራ ክፍል ነው? ሂደቱስ ምን ይመስላል?
7. በእርስዎ ዕይታ የቅድመ መደበኛ መምህራን ሥልጠና ጥራትን ለማረጋገጥ የሚፈታተኑ ዋና ዋና ተግዳሮቶች ምን ምን ናቸው?

**ሠ/ ለጥራት ማረጋገጫ ባለሙያዎች/ኃላፊዎች የቀረበ ቃለ መጠይቅ**

1. የቅድመ መደበኛ መምህራን ሥልጠና የሚሰጡ ተቋማት የሚመዘኑት በየትኛው የሥራ ክፍል ነው? የተቋማቱ ጥራት የሚረጋገጥበትን ሥርዓት ቢያብራሩልኝ?
2. የቅድመ መደበኛ ሰልጣኝ መምህራን የሚመዘኑት በየትኛው የሥራ ክፍል ነው? የምዘናውን ሥርዓት ቢያብራሩልኝ?
3. የቅድመ መደበኛ አሰልጣኝ መምህራን የሚመዘኑት ስታንዳርድ አለ? አሰልጣኝ መምህራኑ የሚመዘኑት በየትኛው የሥራ ክፍል ነው? የምዘናውን ሥርዓት ቢያብራሩልኝ?
4. በቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት የመምህራን ሥልጠና ከምልመላ እስከ ምዘና ያለውን ሂደት ቢያብራሩልኝ።  
(በተለይ ምልመላ፣ ምዘና፣ ሥርዓተ ትምህርት፣ "ፕራክቲካም" እና አሠልጣኝ መምህራን ላይ ትኩረት ሰጥተው ቢያብራሩልኝ)
5. በእርስዎ እይታ የቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት እና የመምህራን ሥልጠና ጥራትን ለማረጋገጥ የሚፈታተኑ ዋና ዋና ተግዳሮቶች ምን ምን ናቸው? አስቻይ ሁኔታዎችስ?
6. ተግዳሮቶቹን ለማሻሻል ወደፊት ምን ቢደርግ መልካም ነው ብለው ያምናሉ?

**ረ/ ለአሰልጣኝ መምህራን እና ለዴፓርትመንት ኃላፊዎች የቀረበ ቃለ መጠይቅ**

1. አገራዊ የፖሊሲ ማዕቀፎችን ተገቢነት እና ታግባራዊነት ከቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት የመምህራን ሥልጠና አኳያ እንዴት ያዩታል?
2. አሁን በሥራ ላይ ያለው የቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት መምህራን ሥልጠና ሥርዓተ ትምህርት ጥንካሬዎቹ እና ድክምቶቹ ምንድን ናቸው? ወደፊት ምን ቢደረግ መልካም ነው ብለው ያስባሉ?
3. በቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት መምህራን ሥልጠና ተገቢነት ያለውን የማስተማር ዘዴ እርስዎ እንዴት ይገልጹታል? ከዚህ አኳያ የእርስዎን የማሰልጠኛ ተቋም እንዴት ያዩታል?
4. በቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት መምህራን ሥልጠና ተገቢነት ያለውን የምዘና ቴክኒክ እርስዎ እንዴት ይገልጹታል? ከዚህ አኳያ የእርስዎን የማሰልጠኛ ተቋም እንዴት ያዩታል?
5. የመምህራን ሥልጠናውን ተገቢውን ግብዓት ከሚሟላት አኳያ እንዴት ይገመግሙታል?
6. የሰልጣኝ መምህራንን ዕውቀት፣ አመለካከት እና ክህሎት እንዴት ይገመግሙታል?
7. የሰልጣኝ መምህራንን፣ የአሰልጣኝ መምህራን እና የማሰልጠኛ ተቋማት ጥራት ማረጋገጥ ሥርዓትን በተመለከተ ምን አስተያየት አለዎት?
8. የአሰልጣኝ መምህራንን እና የሰልጣኝ መምህራንን ዕውቀት፣ አመለካከት እና ክህሎት እንዴት ይገመግሙታል?  
(ለዴፓርትመንት ተጠሪዎች ብቻ)
9. በእርስዎ አስተያየት የመምህራን ሥልጠናን አስመልክቶ አጠቃላይ በአገር ደረጃ እና በተቋም የሚስተዋሉ ተግዳሮቶች ምንድን ናቸው? ወደፊት ምን መደረግ አለበት ብለው ያምናሉ?

2. አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ የንጽጽራዊ ትምህርት እና ፖሊሲ ጥናት ማዕከል

የዓለም አቀፍ እና ንጽጽራዊ ትምህርት ክፍል

መጠይቅ

ውድ ዕጩ መምህራን

እኔ በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ የንጽጽራዊ ትምህርት እና ፖሊሲ ጥናት ማዕከል የሦስተኛ ዲግሪ ተማሪ ስሆን በቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት በኢትዮጵያ እና በኬንያ የቅድመ ሥራ መምህራን ሥልጠና ጥራት ላይ ጥናቴን በማካሄድ ላይ እገኛለሁ።

የዚህ ድንበር ተሻጋሪ ጥናት ዋና ዓላማ በቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት የኢትዮጵያ እና የኬንያ የመምህራን ሥልጠና ጥራት በሁለቱ ሀገራት ዓውድ ምን እንደሚመስል መመርመር እና የጥናቱ ግኝት አህጉራዊ እና ዓለም አቀፋዊ አንድምታውን ማመላከት ነው።

ይህ መጠይቅ የተዘጋጀው በሌሎች መረጃ መሰብሰቢያ መሳሪያዎች የተሰበሰቡትን መረጃዎች ለማጠናከር ነው። ይህ መጠይቅ የተወሰኑ ቀላል ግን በጣም ጠቃሚ ጥያቄዎችን ይዟል። እናንተ ጥናቱ በቀጥታ የሚመለከታችሁ በመሆኑ በጉዳዮቹ ላይ ያላችሁን ዕውቀት እና ልምድ እንድታካፍሉ ይጠበቃል። በመሆኑም ተገቢውን መረጃ በመስጠት ልባዊ የሆነ ትብብራችሁን እድታበረክቱ በትሕትና እጠይቃለሁ።

አመሰግናለሁ

መመሪያ፡-የሚከተሉትን ጥያቄዎች በማንበብ ተገቢውን ምላሻችሁን ስጡ።ትክክልኛ መልስ የያዘውን ፊደል አክብቡ፤ ስምምነታችሁንም የ "✓" ምልክት በማድረግ መልሱ።

ሀ/ የተወሰኑ የግል መረጃዎች

- 1. ስም .....
- 2. ዕድሜ .....

ለ/ የተወሰኑ የፖሊሲ ጉዳዮች

3. የቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት ፖሊሲን ያውቁታል?

ሀ/ አዎን አውቀዋለሁ

ለ/ አላውቀውም

4. ለተራ ቁጥር 3 ጥያቄ ምላሽዎ አዎን ከሆነ የፖሊሲውን ስያሜ ቀጥሎ በተመለከተው ክፍት ቦታ ይጻፉ።

.....

5. የቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት የሚሰጡባቸውን የመርሐ ግብር ዓይነቶች ያውቃሉ?

ሀ/ አዎን አውቃለሁ

ለ/ አላውቅም

6. ለተራ ቁጥር 5 ጥያቄ ምላሽዎ አዎን ከሆነ የመርሐግብሮቹን ዓይነት ቀጥሎ በተመለከተው ክፍት ቦታ ይጻፉ?

.....

7. በተራ ቁጥር 6 መርሐግብሮቹን ከገለጹ በመርሐግብሮቹ መሠረት ነው የሰለጠኑት?

ሀ/ አዎን

ለ/ አይደለም

8. በሥልጠና ወቅት ከቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት መርሐግብሮች መካከል ተዛማጅ የሆነ ሥርዓተ ትምህርት ጋር ትውውቅ አድርገዋል?

ሀ/ አዎን

ለ/ ትውውቅ የለኝም

9. ለተራ ቁጥር 8 ጥያቄ ምላሽዎ አዎን ከሆነ የመርሐግብሩን ስያሜው እና መቼ እደተዘጋጀ ቀጥሎ በተመለከተው ክፍት ቦታ ይጻፉ

.....

**ሐ/ የሰልጣኞችን ምልምላ የተመለከቱ ጥያቄዎች**

10. ለሁለተኛ ደረጃ የመልቀቂያ ፈተና የተቀመጡት መቼ ነበር? እባክዎን መልስዎን በክፍት ቦታዎቹ ላይ ያስቀምጡ ሀ) ዓመት..... ለ) ወጤት.....



5=በጣም እረክቻለሁ 4= እረክቻለሁ 3= በመጠኑ እረክቻለሁ 2= አልረካሁም 1= ፈጽሞ አልረካሁም

	5	4	3	2	1
ቤተ መጻሕፍት					
የክፍል ውስጥ ማስተማሪያ እና መማሪያ ቁሳቁስ					
ከክፍል ውጪ ማስተማሪያ እና መማሪያ ቁሳቁስ					
የሙያ ማበልፀጊያ ማዕከል					
ከዴፓርትመንት የሚሰጡ አገልግሎቶች					
አስተዳደራዊ አገልግሎቶች					

15. ቀጥሎ በቀረቡት ሃሳቦች ላይ ያለዎትን ስምምነት ይግለጹ።

5=በጣም እስማማለሁ 4= እስማማለሁ 3= መወሰን አልችልም 2= አልስማማም 1= በጣም አልስማማም

	5	4	3	2	1
የቅድመ መደበኛ መምህር ለመሆን ከፍተኛ ፍላጎት አለኝ					
የቅድመ መደበኛ መምህር ለመሆን ተገቢውን ዕውቀት ቀስሜያለሁ					
የቅድመ መደበኛ መምህር ለመሆን ተገቢውን ክህሎት አግኝቻለሁ					

መ/ ምዘናን የተመለከቱ ጥያቄዎች

16. የመምህርነት ስልጠናዎን ከጨረሱ በኋላ ሙያዊ ምዘና ይወስዳሉ?

ሀ/ አዎ እወስዳለሁ ለ/ አልወስድም

17. ለተራ ቁጥር 17 ጥያቄ ምላሽዎ አዎን ከሆነ ምዘናውን የሚሰጠውን ተቋም ስም ይግለጹ

.....

**ሠ/ የተወሰኑ ዕውቀትን ወይም አመለካከትን የሚዳሰሱ ጥያቄዎች**

18. በቅድመ መደበኛ ትምህርት "ክብካቤ"ን እና "ትምህርት"ን እንዴት ይገልጹታል?

.....

.....

19. እባክዎን መሠረታዊ የሕጻናት ሁለንተናዊ ዕድገቶችን ይዘርዝሩ?

.....

**ሠ/ መልካም ዕድሎች፣ ተግዳሮቶች እና የመፍትሔ ሃሳቦችን የተመለከቱ ጥያቄዎች**

20. እባክዎን በመምህራን ሥልጠናው ላይ ያሉትን መልካም ዕድሎች፣ ተግዳሮቶች እና የመፍትሔ ሃሳቦችን ይግለጹ።

መልካምዕድሎች

.....

.....

ተግዳሮቶች

.....

.....

.....

የመፍትሔ ሃሳቦች



አመሰግናለሁ!

**Annex 2: Pseudo Names and Respective Institutions of Interviewees**

<b>Ethiopian Informants</b>	<b>Kenyan Informants</b>
"Ali" (Department of ECCE, Kotebe Metropolitan University)	"Beatrice" (Directorate for Quality Assurance and Standards, MoE)
"Belaynesh" (Directorate for Teachers' and Education Leaders' Certification and Renewal, MoE)	"Elizabeth" (Department for Early Childhood studies, Kenyatta University)
"Hagos" (Department of ECCE, Kotebe Metropolitan University)	"Isaac" (Department for Early Childhood studies, Kenyatta University)
"Getachew" (Directorate for Curriculum Preparation and Implementation, MoE)	"Judy" (Directorate for Early Childhood Development and Education, MoE)
"Megerssa" (Directorate for General Education Quality Assurance and Inspection, MoE)	"Kimani" (Department for Early Childhood studies, Kenyatta University)
"Mekides" (Agency for General Education Quality Assurance and Relevance of the City government of Ethiopia)	"Martha" (Directorate for Teacher education, MoE)
"Meseret" (Directorate for Teachers and Education Leaders Professional Development)	"Mathew" (Kenyan institute for Curriculum Development, KICD)
"Tesfaye" (Directorate for Curriculum Preparation and Implementation, MoE)	"Stephen" (Directorate for Early Childhood Development and Education, Nairobi County)

Source: Researcher's own construction



### **Annex 3: Mean Score Interpretation for Five Points Scale**

<b>No.</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>Scale</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
1	4.21 - 5.00	Strongly agree	Very high extent
2	3.41 - 4.20	Agree	High extent
3	2.61 - 3.40	Neutral	Neutral
4	1.81 - 2.60	Disagree	Low
5	1.00 - 1.80	Strongly disagree	Low extent

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Source: He, Huajuan, 2012, <http://eprints.utcc.ac.th/id/eprint/1323>.

**Annex 4: A Table of Recommended Sample Size**

N	n	N	n	N	n	N	n	N	n
10	10	110	86	300	169	950	274	4,500	354
15	14	120	92	320	175	1,000	278	5,000	357
20	19	130	97	340	181	1,100	285	6,000	361
25	24	140	103	360	186	1,200	291	7,000	364
30	28	150	108	380	191	1,300	297	8,000	367
35	32	160	113	400	196	1,400	302	9,000	368
40	36	170	118	420	201	1,500	306	10,000	370
45	40	180	123	440	205	1,600	310	15,000	375
50	44	190	127	460	210	1,700	313	20,000	377
55	48	200	132	480	214	1,800	317	30,000	379
60	52	210	136	500	217	1,900	320	40,000	380
65	56	220	140	550	226	2,000	322	50,000	381
70	59	230	144	600	234	2,200	327	75,000	382
75	63	240	148	650	242	2,400	331	100,000	384
80	66	250	152	700	248	2,600	335	250,000	384
85	70	260	155	750	254	2,800	338	500,000	384
90	73	270	159	800	260	3,000	341	1,000,000	384
95	76	280	162	850	265	3,500	346	10,000,000	384
100	80	290	165	900	269	4,000	351	500,000,000	384

Key: N stands for the size of the population; n stands for the corresponding sample size.

The sample sizes are based on the 95% confidence level.

Source: Adapted from R.V. Krejcie and D. W. Morgan. “Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. “ *Educational and Psychological Measurements*, 30 (3). P.608, copy

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**Annex 5: Numerical Phrases for some Percentage Values**

<b>Percentage Value</b>	<b>Equivalent Numerical Phrase</b>
5–20 %	A tiny/ small minority
21–39 %	A minority
40–49 %	A substantial/ significant minority
51–55 %	A small majority
56–79 %	A majority
80 % +	A large majority

Source: Adapted from Bailey, (2011, p.143)



## Annex 6: List of Supporting Letters

No.	From	To
1	Center for Comparative Education & Policy Studies (CCEPS)	Ethiopian Ministry of Education
2	CCEPS	Kenyan Ministry of Education
3	CCEPS	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation, Kenya
4	CCEPS	Addis Ababa City Government General Education Quality and Relevance Assurance Agency
5	CCEPS	Kotebe Metropolitan University, Ethiopia
6	National UNESCO, Ethiopia	National UNESCO, Kenya
7	Ministry of Education, Ethiopia	Kenyan Embassy in Addis Ababa

Source: Researcher's own construction