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Financial incentives, institutional prestige of course providers, and promises of guaranteed employment are variables that drew student teachers to the program, according to the paper's findings. However, the institutions have fallen short in cultivating positive impressions of rural education among teacher candidates, who continue to prefer work in metropolitan schools. Paper 3: "Tailored for China: Did It Work?" Wang, Clarke, and Webb's Reflections on an Intensive Study Abroad Programme for Chinese Student Teachers reflects on the learning experiences of a group of Chinese student teachers in a Canadian program meant to promote understanding of teaching and learning from an international viewpoint.

The findings of the study highlight the efficacy of a context-responsive approach to cross-cultural teaching and learning, with an emphasis on modeling and purposeful explanation of teaching practice, experiential learning, and dialogic reflection. The study depicts a learning process in which student instructors gained a better grasp of their own educational foundations by recognizing the many opportunities for teaching and learning in a new cultural setting. Paper 4, 'Teacher participation in school-based professional development in China: does it matter for teacher efficacy and teaching strategies?' by Ke, Yin, and Huang, examines secondary teachers' perspectives on the relationship between school-based professional development activities and their effects on professionalism and teaching.

The findings of the study show the importance of contextual factors, such as school leadership support and individual teacher willingness, in affecting teacher engagement in professional development activities. The article highlights teacher collegiality and collective lesson preparation as the most significant elements that improved teaching effectiveness, rather than frequency of participation. Paper 5, 'Teacher learning as border crossing: a case study of Master Teacher Studios in China,' by Zheng, Zhang, and Wang, analyzes difficulties entrenched in learning opportunities for in-service teachers given through 'master teacher studios.' The studios are organized by well-known teachers (often of school topics) with official assistance for prospective in-service teachers who aim for pedagogical excellence.

A study on professional learning is guided by the concept of 'border crossing.' There are four learning methods identified: seeking common ground among differences, maturing through formal and informal coordination, reflecting on one's own boundaries, and modifying behaviors. Furthermore, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and institutional aspects that influence teacher learning as well as boundary crossing are explored. Liao, Liu, Zhao, and Li's paper, 'Understanding how local actors implement teacher rotation policy in a Chinese context: a sensemaking perspective,' gives a case study on the implementation of the Teacher Rotation Policy in a rural county. The Teacher Rotation Programme was created as a major governmental attempt to narrow the teacher quality gap between urban and rural schools by rotating 'high quality' urban teachers to teach in hard-to-staff rural schools for a certain period of time.

The findings of the study demonstrate substantial administrative expenses and some unexpected implications of rotating instructors across schools, as well as the sensemaking processes used by participants while applying the program. Zhang and Yuan's paper 7, 'Uncertain identities of non-higher-education-based EFL teacher educators: a third space theory approach,' addresses the issue of professional identity among teacher educators who are not based in higher education institutions. These teacher educators' identities are viewed via the prism of metaphors, which encapsulate their self-images. According to the research findings, four types of identities exist: willing communicators, dissatisfied jack-of-all-trades and master of none, struggling professional leaders, and concerned supporters.

Paper 8, 'Understanding teachers' motivation for and commitment to teaching: profiles of Chinese early career, early childhood teachers,' by Zhang, Yu, and Liu, investigates the motivation and commitment of early childhood teachers to teach. The research outlines four categories of early childhood instructors in the early stages of their professions, with a focus on early career teachers: dedicated enthusiastic, committed compromiser, unsure, and uncommitted. The four types of early career early childhood teachers demonstrate the diversity of teachers and the complexity of teaching in the context of early childhood education, which necessitates unwavering policy and professional attention to avoid teacher attrition and shortages on the one hand, and attract and retain high-quality teachers on the other. Taken together, the publications above delve into the complexities of teacher education and teaching in China.

Reforms in teacher education and teaching have resulted in structural transformations of the fields as a result of policy-induced efforts, such as system openness, expansion of learning possibilities, reorientation of curriculum and teaching, and other notable developments. The studies' findings imply that, while significant money and efforts have been committed in nationwide projects to attain commendable goals for teacher education and teaching, the effects of such projects remain questionable. However, against the backdrop of regional and urban-rural disparities, China's teaching force and teacher education sector will be tested not only for their ability to supply sufficient competent teachers for schools and kindergartens, but also for their role in maintaining a healthy educational ecology for students.

However, teacher education institutes can assist by insisting on an approach that incorporates curricular and pedagogical insights into teaching practice. Teachers may help by educating in a creative, responsible, and humane manner. The authors of this special issue hope that by presenting a critical discourse on Chinese teacher education and teaching, the fruits of their labor will serve as a useful reference for scholars and educators interested in teachers and teaching in a society that is constantly looking for ways to improve both.

### **Governance and finance**

Higher education institutions are vertically administered and financed by one of three types of administrative authority: (a) the MOE (Ministry of Education, which was renamed the SEC, State Education Commission in 1985, and renamed the MOE in 1998), (b) non-education ministry-level central government departments, and (c) provinces and province-level municipalities. MOE institutions and central ministry-level governments are funded by MOE using budgetary allocations from the Ministry of Finance.

In general, budgetary allocations are based solely on enrollment numbers, plus irregular, special-purpose financing. The provincial institutions are supported by the departments of finance in each province and municipality, as well as irregular "encouraging" funds from the federal government. In 1995, the SEC financed 36 national "keypoint" colleges, with enrollments accounting for 11% of the total (Table 2). The average class size was 6,680 pupils. There were 331 ministry-funded institutions, accounting for 34% of total enrolment. The average class size was around 2,100 people. There were 687 provincial and local institutions, accounting for 55% of total enrolment. The average class size was approximately 1,600 students. The average size was about 1,600 students. In 1997, the average enrollment size of the three types of higher education institution grew to 3,112.

According to American higher education enrollment figures, all of the colleges and universities (with the exception of a few recently amalgamated ones like as Zhejiang University and Sichuan Union University) are comparable to relatively minor U.S. institutions. However, due to diseconomies of scale, excessively high unit costs, ineffective organizational structures, mismanagement, high student subsidies, and limited revenue sources (Hartnett, 1993), Chinese colleges and universities lack the economic efficiency, academic vitality, professional development, affirmative action, and democratic participation found in American colleges and universities.

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

The two countries' education systems, as portrayed in the carefully chosen issues, have both similarities and differences. The origins of education are as old as the nation's history and could be referred to as ancient education. For example, in Ethiopia, the origin of ancient education is associated with two aspects: indigenous and religion. Even if these two perspectives occasionally overlap, they can be described by highlighting their distinguishing characteristics. Since the beginning of communal life, humans have intended to convey information, skills, and values verbally (in most cases) through specific ways in order to preserve and develop what their forefathers accomplished. Indigenous education is an essential, valued, and inseparable element of indigenous peoples' existence, having helped them survive for millennia. We believe that this works for China as well, where we have enjoyed molding generations with the wisdom of the time. History reveals a great deal about the role indigenous education has played and continues to play in the country's educational system.

Religion is also important in both countries' educational systems. Prior to the entrance of major religions from the Middle East, local beliefs (which lacked inscriptions in most cases) were the lifeblood of citizens in all realms of human endeavor. When alien religions were imported later, they began to have written form, resulting in basic education (how to read and write). They gradually developed a solid foundation for modern/western education. In the case of Ethiopia, for example, imported religions, primarily Christian and Islam, made significant contributions to the country's then-civilization and created the groundwork for modern western education.

Other critical challenges in the education system are national education policy and system structure. As the presentations show, the current education policy is the outcome of prior governments' long-term coordinated efforts. In its current form, it is intended to meet the demands of citizens. It attempts to address every diversity, regardless of gender, religion, socioeconomic background, and so on. It is promoted as a fundamental right of all citizens, particularly at the primary level. The typical issue, however, is one of implementation. There appears to be no significant commitment from all stakeholders, as well as no means to effect every strategy designed in accordance with national policy. This may be determined by the capacity of the regions or states, as they have varying human and material resources. For example, the educational status of China's northern and southern states differs greatly. This is also true in Ethiopia, where the eastern and western peripheries lag behind others.

The educational system is similar, with the exception that Ethiopia's primary level concludes at grade 8, whereas China's primary level ends at grade 6. Primary education is divided into two levels, followed by lower secondary education (grades 9 and 10) and preparation stages (grades 11 and 12) before entering higher learning institutions. The curriculum is also constructed in accordance with the nature of the discipline and the

developmental phases of the learners, ranging from environmental sciences at the primary level to hard sciences at the other end of the spectrum. Learners can also enter the workforce at various levels, particularly through vocational and technical education, based on their interests and merit.

Teachers and teaching are given less attention in both countries, despite the fact that policy documents consider them as the most significant profession for propelling the nation's position forward. The key reasons cited for teaching's poor status are that students with low success levels enter the field, they lack desire, the working conditions are unappealing, and recruiting and training are sometimes politicized. Because of these and other related factors, their professional contribution is insignificant.

In terms of governance and financing, because the two countries' state formations differ, Ethiopia has decentralized power to states or regions, whereas China has a centralized system. As a result, the federal government takes the lead in defining and formulating the whole education system through national education policy, which collects and organizes all major educational concerns from the ground up. The handling of local concerns is the responsibility of the regions. They are supposed to create curricula and choose teaching tactics based on societal priorities. However, there are times when the central government operates as a unitary entity, such as when recruiting and assigning educational experts based not only on merit but also on political commitment. The flow of resources to the target areas has its own constraints. For one reason, it is insufficient to raise educational standards. On the other hand, the allocated resource does not reach the target group due to administrative flaws.

Finally, it should be recognized that a comparative viewpoint cannot supply us with comprehensive action plans unless it is complemented by broad vistas. Thinking just within one's own borders is expensive in the age of globalization. A comparative study of this type allows you to examine things from a different perspective and focus on the flaws while ignoring the strengths. From both countries' perspectives, we must acknowledge that students are at the forefront of fostering innovation and creativity. If we are to have any impact on the global stage, we must take efforts to move forward toward a desired vision. This will necessitate a policy framework that combines increased access, equity, and quality with the appropriate balance of autonomy and regulation in order to achieve far-reaching missions.

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