

# Conceptual dimensions of quality in school education

**Maria Darra**

University of the Aegean, Greece

**Anastasia Papanthymou**

University of the Aegean, Greece

## Abstract

**Purpose:** The purpose of this paper is to explore the conceptual content of the term 'quality' in primary and secondary education through the content analysis of 32 scientific publications.

**Methods:** The analysis of the qualitative data is based on the methodology of grounded theory, revealing 21 major dimensions of quality with a high frequency of occurrence that are divided into five broader categories. The learning environment category includes psychosocial elements, physical elements, respect for diversity, and collaboration, sharing, and team spirit. The learning content category includes student-centred pedagogy, well-structured knowledge base, continuous curriculum improvement, interest in all students, and life skills. The processes category includes teaching, learning, assessment, and support and supervision. The students category includes involvement/participation, feedback, challenging learning activities, and improved learning outcomes. Finally, the teachers category includes knowledge of educational context, content, curriculum, pedagogy, pedagogical skills, emotional/management/reflection skills, and teacher professional development.

**Results:** In the learning environment category, the dimension regarding the psychosocial elements prevails; in the learning content category, the dimension student-centred pedagogy prevails; in the processes category, three dimensions prevail – the first is support and supervision, and the other two are teaching and assessment. From the students category, the dimension improved learning outcomes prevails. Finally, from the teachers category, two dimensions prevail: emotional/management/reflection skills and knowledge of the educational context, content, curriculum, and pedagogy.

**Keywords:** educational quality, primary education, quality dimensions, quality education, school education, secondary education

**JEL Classification:** I21

**Corresponding author:** Maria Darra, [darra@aegean.gr](mailto:darra@aegean.gr)

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Higher education institutions (HEIs) face a complex and The quality of education is difficult to evaluate, as it is influenced by various factors, such as social and historical circumstances, policy choices, and the quality requirements of the parties involved (Hatzidimitriadou, 2011). As noted by UNICEF (2000), the existence of many definitions of the quality of education shows the complexity and multifaceted nature of the concept; moreover, the terms 'efficiency', 'equality', and 'quality' are often used interchangeably. Nevertheless, many attempts have been made to conceptually approach quality education. Quality education has thus far been defined as education that contributes to moral development, character development, integration of personality, and the spiritual upliftment of individuals.

However, this definition is considered incomplete because it does not include the evaluation of the educational work itself. For this reason, another definition is proposed based on the satisfaction of the needs and expectations of the recipients of education (Pourgianou, 2012).

Although researchers do not seem to fully agree on the conceptual content of quality education, the literature contains some basic values that are acceptable and related to the typical characteristics of a quality school. These values include a school that treats all students equally, fairly and democratically, demonstrates to students the value of giving to the whole, contributes to the development of their autonomy, empowerment and sense of worth, promotes the value of high aspirations and excellence, enables students to acquire, practice and apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary in order to meet the demands of today's society and prepares students to engage and contribute to the

economic and cultural development of society (YPEPTH. P.I., 2008).

The purpose of this study is to analyse the conceptual content of the term ‘quality’ in primary and secondary education through the study of material from scientific texts, such as books, scientific reports, papers in journals, and proceedings, in order to determine the characteristics or elements that constitute ‘quality education’.

## 2 METHODOLOGY

The research is qualitative, and the method of data analysis is based on the methodology of grounded theory. Grounded theory refers both to the method, which gives guidelines on how to identify the categories, and to the interpretive framework within which the phenomenon under study is understood. The aim is to highlight a central category that will include the essential meaning of the object under consideration, which will contribute to the understanding of this object (Iosisfidis, 2003). For the analysis of the data in this study, the process described in the constructivist approach of Charmaz’s grounded theory was used, which includes three stages of coding: a) the initial coding, b) the focused coding, and c) the theoretical coding. The same process was followed by Hockett (2010). The first step in data analysis involves the initial examination of data. The coding was done line by line, with the same definitions of quality in primary and secondary education, and generally in the body of the text (paragraphs) in places where the characteristics or dimensions of the quality in school education were given. The second step is focused coding where data were examined to identify the most important and/or common codes. The coding allowed the data to be reduced, focusing on the most important and key points that would lead to the theory. The third and the final step of the analysis is theoretical coding. At this stage, possible relationships between important codes were tested, assuming how they could be theoretically related. The theoretical framework emerged from the process of continuously comparing data sources and detailed memos or notes (Charmaz, 2006; Hockett, 2010).

## 3 RESULTS

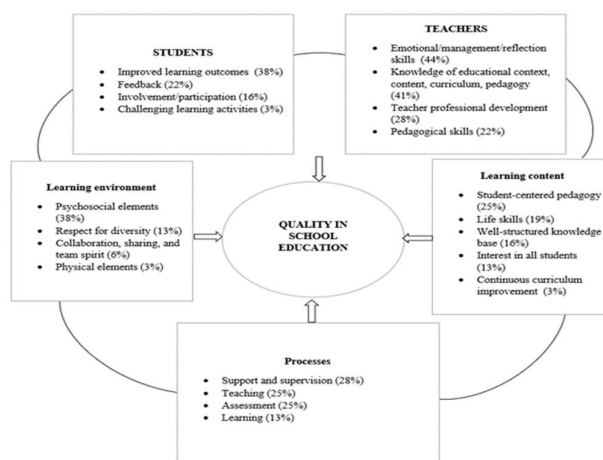
The dimensions with the highest relative frequency are *emotional/management/reflection skills* (44%) and *knowledge of educational context, content, curriculum, and pedagogy* (41%), both of which belong to the broader category ‘teachers’. These are followed by *psychosocial elements* (38%), *improved learning outcomes* (38%), *support and supervision* (28%), *student-centred pedagogy* (25%), *teaching* (25%), and *assessment* (25%). The dimensions *feedback* (22%), *pedagogical skills* (22%), and *life skills* (19%) present slightly lower percentages, followed by *well-structured knowledge base* (16%), *involvement/participation* (16%), *respect for diversity* (13%), *interest in all students* (13%), and *learning* (13%). The dimensions with the lowest percentages

were *cooperation, sharing, and team spirit* (6%), *physical elements* (3%) *continuous curriculum improvement* (3%), and *challenging learning activities* (3%).

The research data collected, analysed, codified, and presented at the stage of the theoretical coding of research lead to the formation of a theoretical framework, as a theoretical basis to become an objective and/or generalized essential theory regarding the definition of the conceptual content of the term ‘quality’ in school education. More specifically, the formulation of the theoretical framework aims to identify the basic dimensions of quality and the categories in which these dimensions are included, in their classification based on their importance and in highlighting the connection between them. The specific proposed theoretical framework for quality in school education emerged from the process of continuously comparing data sources and detailed memos/notes, presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Proposed Theoretical Framework of Quality in School Educations

Table 1. Literature review



## 4 DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to identify the dimensions of quality school education and classify them in broader categories to conceptually approach the content of the quality of education. The methodology used was grounded theory, and the sample consisted of 32 publications in scientific reports, books, journals, and conference proceedings. Five broad categories emerged: a) learning environment, b) learning content, c) processes, d) students, and e) teachers. There were 21 dimensions identified.

Regarding learning environment, the dimension that prevails is the psychosocial elements, followed by respect for diversity, collaboration, sharing and team spirit, and, finally, the physical elements. In terms of learning content, student-centred pedagogy prevails, followed by life skills, well-structured knowledge base, interest in all students, and, finally, the continuous improvement of the curriculum. In terms of processes, support and supervision prevail, as well as

teaching and assessment, and, finally, learning. Regarding students, improved learning outcomes are the dimension that prevails, followed by feedback, involvement and student participation, and challenging learning activities. Regarding teachers, the dimension that concerns the skills (emotional/management/reflection) prevails, followed by knowledge of the educational context, content, curriculum, and pedagogy, and, to a lesser extent, teacher professional development and pedagogical skills.

Then, the dimensions that appeared in each category were analysed in detail, starting from the dimension of each category with the strongest presence in the definitions of quality education or was mentioned more as a dimension of quality education in the relevant literature.

The psychosocial elements dimension is related to learning environment and concerns a quality (Amosa et al., 2007; Ladwig, 2009; Edge et al., 2012; Gore et al., 2017), effective (Ololube, 2005), continuously improving learning environment (Hirsch et al., 2001), with an excellent (Hattie, 2003), supportive (Lovat & Toomey, 2009), and positive classroom climate (Harrell et al., 2004; van der Scheer et al., 2019). In such a climate, punishments are avoided (Zavlanos, 2017), teachers respect students (Hattie, 2003), and the atmosphere is calm (Lovat & Toomey, 2009) and pleasant. The classroom is characterized by acceptance, sympathy, and understanding to support the work of the students (Zavlanos, 2017). In addition, the learning environment is a spiritual and emotional space where there are strong positive relationships between teachers and students (Lovat & Toomey, 2009) and student self-worth is recognized (Coe et al., 2014).

The dimension respect for diversity in the learning environment category includes recognition of the diversity, individuality, and singularity of students (Zavlanos, 2017). According to Samu (2006), the diversities and differences between groups of students, as well as those within groups of students, should be at the very centre of teaching. Therefore, it is important for teachers to respond to student diversity (Alton-Lee, 2003) and provide an inclusive classroom climate (van der Scheer et al., 2019). The dimension collaboration, sharing, and team spirit, belonging to the learning environment category, involves cohesive learning communities (Alton-Lee, 2003) and the affective dimensions of learning and teaching, including the relationships that characterize the learning environment (Lovat, 2010). The dimension physical elements of the learning environment category includes the use of information and communication technology (Zavlanos, 2017).

The dimension student-centred pedagogy of the learning content category involves learning where students see value in it (Amosa et al., 2007; Edge et al., 2012), as well as facilitating learning that leads to self-control, self-assessment, empowerment, mental development, and emotional stability (Zavlanos, 2017). In addition, this dimension relates to teaching that focuses on improving performance (Alton-Lee, 2003) and contributes to the cognitive activation of students (Praetorius et al., 2018) and their smooth adaptation to the school environment (Zavlanos, 2017). It concerns the teaching and learning process that affects students' cognitive, social, behavioural, and affective outcomes of schooling (Rowe, 2004). This dimension also includes the existence of clear learning goals (van der Scheer

et al., 2019), explicit expectations for learning (Edge et al., 2012; Zavlanos, 2017), and motivation of students by teachers (Hattie, 2003; Zavlanos, 2017).

The life skills dimension belongs to the learning content category and is associated with the production of ideas; the development of criticism and thinking; the ability to analyse, synthesize, and evaluate (Zavlanos, 2017); the development of social skills (Alton-Lee, 2003); the inculcation of personal and social values (Lovat, 2010); and the improvement of self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-regulation (Hattie, 2003; Amosa et al., 2007; Edge et al., 2012), all of which can be achieved in the teaching and learning process.

The dimension well-structured knowledge base of the learning content category involves the connection of disciplinary knowledge and practices to the daily experiences of students from diverse linguistic, experiential, and cultural backgrounds (Hollins, 2011). Analytically, this dimension concerns the need to draw clear connections with contexts outside of the classroom and students' prior knowledge and identities, including cultural perspectives (Ladwig, 2009; Edge et al., 2012). Therefore, it refers to a clear teaching approach that connects the lesson with what the student already knows (van der Scheer et al., 2019) and creates effective links between school and other cultural contexts in which students are socialized to facilitate learning (Alton-Lee, 2003).

The dimension interest in all students belonging to the learning content category refers to the teacher's knowledge of his or her students (Schacter & Thum, 2004; Hollins, 2011) – namely, how well the teacher knows the students as members of social and cultural groups and as individuals with their own unique characteristics. This dimension involves teaching strategies that are based on the developmental needs of the students to facilitate learning and personal development. Such strategies allow the achievement of immediate learning outcomes, contribute to the best quality of life possible, and enable students to make a difference in improving life conditions in wider society (Hollins, 2011). Therefore, it emphasizes the importance of student-centred instruction (MacGregor, 2007) and student support (Praetorius et al., 2018).

The dimension continuous curriculum improvement of the learning content category is related to the improvement of the curriculum in order to align with the philosophy of the education system and the requirements of the labour market (Zavlanos, 2017).

The dimension support and supervision of the processes category involves support (Praetorius et al., 2018), professional training (Allen & Palaich, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Ololube, 2005; Rowe, 2004), and appropriate teacher preparation (Allen & Palaich, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Harrell et al., 2004; Rowe, 2004). This includes support for high-quality initial preparation of new teachers (Hirsch et al., 2001) in order for them to have the necessary skills (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rowe, 2004) and be sufficiently well-trained (Rowe, 2004). In addition, this dimension includes recruitment of teachers when necessary; development of strong and distinct leadership (Allen & Palaich, 2000); opportunities for teachers to practice and demonstrate leadership (Zammit et al., 2007); efforts to attract, reward, and retain capable individuals in the

teaching profession (Hirsch et al., 2001); and, finally, the redesign of teacher accountability systems so that all teachers have the knowledge and skills they need to improve student learning (Allen & Palaich, 2000).

The dimension teaching of the processes category concerns the characteristics that a teacher should have. Specifically, according to Zavlanos (2017), teaching should be beneficial, democratic, living, diagnostic, and therapeutic. Meanwhile, van der Scheer et al. (2019) discuss the value of adaptive teaching. Ololube (2005) focuses on teaching that lowers dropout rates among students, while Gore et al. (2017) discuss teaching that includes concern for social justice. MacGregor (2007) notes the importance of a lesson plan that contains clear objectives, as well as teaching that is clear and utilizes research-based strategies. In addition, it is important for teaching to align with curriculum objectives, resources, homework planning, and school practices (Alton-Lee, 2003). It should include key elements such as effective questioning but also use specific practices, such as the review of previous learning, the provision of adequate time for practice to embed skills securely, and the provision of models for the kinds of responses students are required to produce (Coe et al., 2014). Also, as noted by Schacter and Thum (2004), emphasis should be placed on the presentation of the course, the use of questions, and structure and pacing.

The importance of the dimension assessment of the processes category is emphasized by teachers (Barrett et al., 2011; Coe et al., 2014) – namely, the use of assessment methods, strategies, and techniques (Rekalidou, 2011). The use of assessment for learning (MacGregor, 2007) or, as noted by Alton-Lee (2003), the use of assessment practices that enhance learning and motivate students, is essential. Therefore, it is very important to develop appropriate assessment approaches (Hollins, 2011). Teaching should be adapted to the results of the assessment (Alton-Lee, 2003). Finally, as underlined by researchers, assessment must be continuous (Zavlanos, 2017) and effective (Ololube, 2005). The dimension learning belongs to the processes category and refers to the ways in which teachers monitor learning (Hattie, 2003), teach learning strategies to students, explain subjects in ways that students understand (van der Scheer et al., 2019), and connect school learning to broader social issues (Gore et al., 2017), as well as to learning objectives and activities (Schacter & Thum, 2004).

The dimension improved learning outcomes of the students category refers to components related to learning orientation (Allen & Palaich, 2000; Hattie, 2003; Amosa et al., 2007; Burgess & Berwick, 2009; Lovat & Toomey, 2009; Hightower et al., 2011; Edge et al., 2012; de Jager et al., 2017; Zavlanos, 2017) and goal orientation (van der Scheer et al., 2019). This dimension is also related to the teacher's ability to work collaboratively with colleagues in a professional community to improve learning outcomes (Hollins, 2011). Moreover, it concerns the need for clear, observable, and explicit evidence of student learning (MacGregor, 2007). Finally, as noted by de Jager et al. (2017), the achievement of quality learning outcomes depends on the learning and teaching process, as well as on the teachers' practices; it is very important to provide sufficient and effective learning opportunities (Alton-Lee, 2003).

The dimension feedback belonging to the students category concerns the provision of necessary information from the teachers to the students and from students to the teachers (Zavlanos, 2017). This includes feedback from students regarding the strengths and weaknesses of their lessons to help teachers improve teaching quality (Bijlsma et al., 2019). Feedback has been mentioned by several researchers (Alton-Lee, 2003; Hattie, 2003; Schacter & Thum, 2004; Zammit et al., 2007), and it is noted that feedback should be offered frequently (MacGregor, 2007). The dimension involvement/participation belongs to the students category and refers to the active participation of students in their learning (Hattie, 2003; Zavlanos, 2017; van der Scheer et al., 2019), which occurs when students set goals or self-assess (MacGregor, 2007), as well as when they engage in higher-order thinking and communicate substantially about their learning (Edge et al., 2012). Finally, the dimension challenging learning activities in the students category refers to the provision of tasks and goals that demand effort and focus from students (Hattie, 2003).

The emotional/management/reflection skills dimension is a key element of quality education; it belongs to the teachers category in this analysis. Researchers note the importance of a particular set of skills in effective teaching. First are emotional skills, which include interpersonal and intrapersonal skills. Lovat and Clement (2008) and Barrett et al. (2011) refer to interpersonal skills. These include a teacher's overall communicative ability (Lovat & Clement, 2008; Lovat & Toomey, 2009) and, in particular, his or her ability to achieve the essential (Gore et al., 2017) high degree of communication (Zammit et al., 2007). Additionally, interpersonal skills are required for teachers to communicate with parents (Coe et al., 2014) and collaborate with colleagues (Zammit et al., 2007), particularly in the assessment and refinement of teaching (Gore et al., 2017) and peer support (Coe et al., 2014). Intrapersonal skills include self-knowledge and self-management, as well as the ability to understand others (Lovat & Toomey, 2009). Second are management skills, which relate to the teacher's individual classroom management skills (Harrell et al., 2004; Praetorius et al., 2018), the quality of classroom management (van der Scheer et al., 2019), and classroom management techniques (Barrett et al., 2011). These techniques include grouping students (Schacter & Thum, 2004) and using practices that motivate them (Alton-Lee, 2003), including rewards (Zavlanos, 2017). In addition, management skills include a teacher's ability to make efficient use of lesson time, to manage student behaviour with clear rules that are consistently enforced, and to coordinate classroom resources and space. These are all ways in which teachers can enhance student learning (Coe et al., 2014). Furthermore, management skills involve a teacher's ability to make decisions and solve problems (Hattie, 2003), as well as his or her ability to use a positive behaviour management strategy, in which expectations for student behaviour are clear and behaviour is monitored in a positive, preventive, and subtle manner (MacGregor, 2007). Additionally, researchers emphasize the importance of reflection skills (Lovat & Clement, 2008; Lovat & Toomey, 2009), which concern a

teacher's ability to think about and analyse his or her professional practice (Coe et al., 2014).

The knowledge of educational context, content, curriculum, and pedagogy dimension of the teachers category emphasizes the requirement for knowledgeable teachers (Day & Sachs, 2004; Lovat & Clement, 2008) with essential pedagogical knowledge (Harrell et al., 2004; Amosa et al., 2007; Zammit et al., 2007; Lovat & Clement, 2008; Ladwig, 2009; Barrett et al., 2011; Hollins, 2011; Edge et al., 2012; Gore et al., 2017), pedagogical content knowledge (Lovat & Clement 2008; Coe et al., 2014), and teacher content knowledge (Schacter & Thum, 2004) – namely, the knowledge base of the subject matter (Ololube, 2005; Barrett et al., 2011). Knowledge also includes deep knowledge of the learning process, understanding of the important concepts in a particular discipline, and knowledge related to managing curriculum requirements (Hollins, 2011). This dimension also includes teaching skills such as presentation and explanation, as well as devotion to teaching (Ololube, 2005) and the development of inquiry habits (Gore et al., 2017).

The dimension teacher professional development that belongs to the teachers category is associated with continued professional learning (Hirsch et al., 2001) and a teacher's ability to maintain a strong professional identity and engage in self-directed professional development (Hollins, 2011). Therefore, this dimension concerns professional development (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Coe et al., 2014; Harrell et al., 2004; Rowe, 2004), teacher development (Darling-Hammond, 1997; Allen, & Palaich, 2000; Hirsch et al., 2001; Day & Sachs, 2004), and, specifically, assurance of high-quality professional development (Darling-Hammond, 1997).

The dimension pedagogical skills concerns teachers who are highly motivated (Day & Sachs, 2004), work collaboratively with colleagues (Hollins, 2011), and show enthusiasm and commitment (Zammit et al., 2007). High-quality teachers possess a passion for teaching and learning (Hattie, 2003; Zammit et al., 2007) and develop positive (Ladwig, 2009; Lovat & Toomey, 2009) and strong relationships with students (Lovat & Clement, 2008).<sup>5</sup> conclusion

This study focused on the conceptual analysis of quality in primary and secondary education by collecting and studying elements of quality education in books, scientific reports, and papers in journals and conference proceedings. There were 21 dimensions that emerged through this analysis, which were organized into broader categories. The learning environment category includes psychosocial elements, physical elements, respect for diversity, and collaboration, sharing, and team spirit. The learning content category includes student-centred pedagogy, well-structured knowledge base, continuous curriculum improvement, interest in all students, and life skills. The processes category includes teaching, learning, assessment, and support and supervision. The students category includes involvement/participation, feedback, challenging learning activities, and improved learning outcomes. Finally, the teachers category includes knowledge of educational context, content, curriculum, pedagogy, pedagogical skills, emotional/management/reflection skills, and teacher professional development.

In the learning environment category, the dimension regarding the psychosocial elements prevails; in the learning content category, the dimension student-centred pedagogy prevails; in the processes category, three dimensions prevail – the first is support and supervision, and the other two are teaching and assessment. From the students category, the dimension improved learning outcomes prevails. Finally, from the teachers category, two dimensions prevail: emotional/management/reflection skills and knowledge of the educational context, content, curriculum, and pedagogy.

---

## REFERENCES

---

- Allen, M., & Palaich, R. (2000). *In Pursuit of Quality Teaching: Five Key Strategies for Policymakers*. Denver: Education Commission of the States.
- Alton-Lee, A. (2003). *Quality teaching for diverse students in schooling: Best evidence synthesis*. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.
- Amosa, W., Ladwig, J., Griffiths, T., & Gore, J. (2007). Equity effects of quality teaching: Closing the gap. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/88b1/de2dfc0610cb7bff5ca9826d5351c53e1a2.pdf>
- Barrett, K., Hovde, K., Hahn, Z. L., & Rosqueta, K. (2011). High Impact Philanthropy to Improve Teaching Quality. <https://www.impact.upenn.edu/teaching-quality/>
- Bijlsma, H. J., Visscher, A. J., Dobbelaer, M. J., & Veldkamp, B. P. (2019). Does smartphone-assisted student feedback affect teachers' teaching quality?. *Technology, pedagogy and education*, 28(2): 217-236.
- Burgess, C., & Berwick, C. (2009). Aboriginal peoples' perceptions and beliefs about quality teaching. [https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Catherine\\_Burgess3/publication/228478476\\_Aboriginal\\_Peoples%27\\_Perceptions\\_and\\_Beliefs\\_about\\_Quality\\_Teaching/links/5524c4f00cf22e181e73ab0d/Aboriginal-Peoples-Perceptions-and-Beliefs-about-Quality-Teaching.pdf](https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Catherine_Burgess3/publication/228478476_Aboriginal_Peoples%27_Perceptions_and_Beliefs_about_Quality_Teaching/links/5524c4f00cf22e181e73ab0d/Aboriginal-Peoples-Perceptions-and-Beliefs-about-Quality-Teaching.pdf)
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Coe, R., Aloisi, C., Higgins, S., & Major, L. E. (2014). What makes great teaching? Review of the underpinning research. <http://dro.dur.ac.uk/13747/1/13747.pdf>
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). *Doing what matters most: Investing in quality teaching*. New York: National Commission on Teaching & America's Future.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Teacher quality and student achievement. *Education policy analysis archives*, 8(1): 1-44.
- de Jager, T., Coetzee, M. J., Maulana, R., Helms-Lorenz, M., & van de Grift, W. (2017). Profile of South African secondary-school teachers' teaching quality: evaluation of teaching practices using an observation instrument. *Educational Studies*, 43(4): 410-429.
- Day, C. & J. Sachs. (2004). *International Handbook on the Continuing of Professional Development of Teachers*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Edge, K., Reynolds, R., & O' Toole, M. (2012). Typical HSIE Pedagogy?—Quality Teaching in NSW HSIE Classrooms. <https://nova.newcastle.edu.au/vital/access/manager/Index>
- Gore, J., Lloyd, A., Smith, M., Bowe, J., Ellis, H., & Lubans, D. (2017). Effects of professional development on the quality of teaching: Results from a randomised controlled trial of Quality Teaching Rounds. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 68(2017): 99-113.

- Harrell, P., Leavell, A., van Tassel, F., & McKee, K. (2004). No teacher left behind: Results of a five-year study of teacher attrition. *Action in Teacher Education*, 26(2): 47-59.
- Hattie, J.A.C. (2003). Teachers make a difference: What is the research evidence? [http://research.acer.edu.au/research\\_conference\\_2003/4/](http://research.acer.edu.au/research_conference_2003/4/)
- Hatzidimitriadou, C. (2011). Quality in education and teachers' satisfaction with their work: an effort to explore the relationship between quality in education and teacher professional satisfaction. Application of the Kano model in the case of primary school teachers in Evosmos and Kalamaria, Thessaloniki [Master's thesis, University of Macedonia]. Psepheda. <http://dspace.lib.uom.gr/handle/2159/14349>
- Hightower, A. M., Delgado, R. C., Lloyd, S. C., Wittenstein, R., Sellers, K., & Swanson, C. B. (2011). *Improving Student Learning by Supporting Quality Teaching: Key Issues, Effective Strategies*. Bethesda: Editorial Projects in Education, Inc.
- Hirsch, E., Koppich, J., & Knapp, M. (2001). Revisiting what states are doing to improve the quality of teaching. An update on patterns and trends. <https://www.education.uw.edu/ctp/content/revisiting-what-states-are-doing-improve-quality-teaching-update-patterns-and-trends>
- Hockett, J. A. (2010). The influence of lesson study on how teachers plan for, implement, and understand differentiated instruction. <http://search.proquest.com/library.uark.edu/docview/858070962?accountid=836>
- Hollins, E. R. (2011). Teacher preparation for quality teaching. *Journal of Teacher education*, 62(4): 395-407.
- Iosifidis Th. (2003). *Analysis of Quality Data in the Social Sciences*. Athens: Kritiki.
- Ladwig, J. G. (2009). Working backwards towards curriculum: On the curricular implications of quality teaching. *The Curriculum Journal*, 20(3): 271-286.
- Lovat, T., & Clement, N. (2008). Quality teaching and values education: Coalescing for effective learning. *Journal of moral education*, 37(1):1-16.
- Lovat, T., & Toomey, R. (2009). *Values education and quality teaching*. Australia: Springer.
- Lovat, T. J. (2010). Synergies and balance between values education and quality teaching. *Educational philosophy and theory*, 42(4): 489-500.
- MacGregor, R. R. (2007). The essential practices of high quality teaching and learning. <http://www.riverarts.8m.net/lessons/Collaboration/EssentialPracticesofHighQualityTeaching%20and%20Learning.pdf>
- Ololube, N. P. (2005). School effectiveness and quality improvement: Quality teaching in Nigerian secondary schools. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/6c7f/c529aa26ac8e6441e2706fc0f4a5dda53aaf.pdf#page=17>
- Praetorius, A. K., Klieme, E., Herbert, B., & Pinger, P. (2018). Generic dimensions of teaching quality: the German framework of Three Basic Dimensions. *ZDM*, 50(3): 407-426.
- Pourgianou, E. (2012). The effective school in modern times: exploring the views of primary school teachers [Master's thesis, University of Thessaly]. University of Thessaly Institutional Repository. <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/132822648.pdf>
- Rekalidou, G. (2011). *Assessment of learning or assessment for learning?* Athens: Pedio Publications.
- Rowe, K. (2004). The importance of teaching: Ensuring better schooling by building teacher capacities that maximize the quality of teaching and learning provision-implications of findings from the international and Australian evidence-based research. [https://research.acer.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1010&context=learning\\_processes](https://research.acer.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1010&context=learning_processes)
- Samu, T. W. (2006). The 'Pasifika Umbrella' and quality teaching: Understanding and responding to the diverse realities within. *Waikato Journal of Education*, 12: 35-49.
- Schacter, J., & Thum, Y. M. (2004). Paying for high-and low-quality teaching. *Economics of Education Review*, 23(4): 411-430.
- UNICEF (2000). *Defining Quality in Education*. New York: UNICEF.
- van der Scheer, E. A., Bijlsma, H. J., & Glas, C. A. (2019). Validity and reliability of student perceptions of teaching quality in primary education. *School effectiveness and school improvement*, 30(1): 30-50.
- YPEPTH. Pl., (2008). Quality in education: Research to evaluate the quality characteristics of the primary and secondary education system. <http://repository.edulll.gr/edulll/handle/10795/83>
- Zammit, K., Sinclair, C., Cole, B., Singh, M., Costley, D., Brown, L., & Rushton, K. (2007). Teaching and leading for quality Australian schools. [http://lclibrary.loreto.qld.edu.au/teachers/professionalreading/MiddleLeaders/TEACHING\\_AND\\_LEADING\\_FOR\\_QUALITY\\_AUSTRALIAN\\_SCHOOL.pdf](http://lclibrary.loreto.qld.edu.au/teachers/professionalreading/MiddleLeaders/TEACHING_AND_LEADING_FOR_QUALITY_AUSTRALIAN_SCHOOL.pdf)
- Zavlanos, M. (2017). *Quality in teaching, learning and administration*. Athens: Stamoulis Publications.

*SUBMITTED: DECEMBER 2022*

*REVISION SUBMITTED: FEBRUARY 2023*

*ACCEPTED: APRIL 2023*

*REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY*

*PUBLISHED ONLINE: 31 JULY 2023*