

Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

Although there are a number of factors namely facilities, equipments, teaching learning materials that affect the quality of education, no substantive study seemed to have been carried out in Bhutanese context that looked at the quality of pre-service teacher education and its models. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to research models of pre-service teacher education that provide quality education and to assess their suitability for Bhutan.

This chapter presents context of the study followed by statement of the problem with key research questions. A brief overview of the theoretical framework that underpins the study, which is a summary of chapter two, is discussed. Next section presents initial teacher training models, a summary of chapter three, followed by research methodology. Significance and limitations of the research is also presented and the final section is the structure of the chapters of the thesis.

Context of the Study

Bhutan started planned socio-economic development activities with the launching of the first Five Year Plan in 1961 (RGOB [Royal Government of Bhutan] 1999). During the past four and half decades Bhutan has been trying to attain what took centuries in other countries (Dorji, 2005) Bhutan adopted policies and strategies of other countries in the areas of socio-economic development in general and education in particular (Laird & Maxwell, 2000).

The education system in Bhutan has a short history since its establishment in the early 1960s and is generally acknowledged as a secular education system (Department of

Education, 2003; NIEs, 2005). The country has witnessed in the last forty years expansion both vertically; from primary to secondary schools and recently tertiary education and horizontally; with over 500 schools and institutes and nearly 160,000 students pursuing schooling and education at various levels. The annual statistical report suggests one-fifth of the Bhutanese estimated population of 671,083 (National Statistical Bureau, 2007, p. 13) are in a school or educational institution of some level.

The Bhutanese schooling structure has seven years of primary and six years of secondary with general subjects namely English, Mathematics, Dzongkha (National Language), History, Geography, Sciences, Civics (Dorji, 2005). While the basic structure has remained same there has been a diversification of subjects in the school education with the addition of, among other, Physical Education, Value Education, Information Technology, and Environmental Studies (Department of Education (2003).

The social sector has received a major share of budget allocation on each plan period. The budget outlay shows except for one or two sectors, ministries of health and education have comparatively and regularly been allotted significant share. For the ninth plan (2002-2007) this was the share: Ministry of Agriculture (6.5%), Ministry of Communication (14.8%), Ministry of Finance (2.3%), Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2.1%), Ministry of Health and Education (10.7%), Ministry of Home Affairs (0.9%) and Ministry of Trade and Industry (12.2%) (National Statistics Bureau, 2008). A case in point was the financial year 2005-2006, where the government allotted 30% of the national budget to the social sector of which education received approximately 18% (National Assembly of Bhutan Secretariat, 2006a). This regular allocation of resources indicates the importance the Royal Government of Bhutan attaches to education (Department of Education, 2003).

The country saw another significant development in the education arena with the establishment on June 2, 2003 of The Royal University of Bhutan (hereafter refers to as RUB). It is significant because all in-country post-general school education studies and training are provided under the aegis of the RUB. International linkages of tertiary education for the country are also maintained through the university. The university, which is of a federated nature, has ten member institutes, including two Colleges of Education (COE) that train teachers. The COE offer a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) and Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) as pre-service programme. These colleges also offer in-service programmes through distance and part-time modes at Diploma, Bachelor, and Masters levels. According to Dorji (2005) “From 2003 onwards, this [the educational system] has been formalized in two different ways. One is the introduction of a part-time Master of Education course and the other is a part-time diploma course for school management and leadership” (p. 32). More on COE with particular reference to pre-service programmes is presented in chapter four.

Statement of the problem

In the last decade the ‘quality issue’ has been a national concern. Public views and opinions on the quality of education are diverse. Together with the public, civil servants in particular have highlighted the poor writing skills of school graduates and commented upon student behaviour. The issue of the quality of education has been raised in the National Assembly, the country’s highest legislative forum. In relation to primary schooling, “Some of the members submitted that the NAPE (New Approach to Primary Education) system of education was responsible for the deterioration of quality of education in the country” (National Assembly of Bhutan Secretariat, 2006b, p. 5).

Bhutanese society and in particular, its education stakeholders expect much from the teacher training institutes. The general presumption is if concerns about quality

education are addressed at the source, the issue would not be raised in the community. Dorji (2005) substantiates the point, that “If quality cannot be ensured at the entrance point, it is very difficult to bring the desired improvement to the system afterwards” (p. 20). The Royal Government of Bhutan has high expectations of teachers as is evident here:

The attainment of the set goals will be dependent upon our capacity to train teachers who are not only highly professional in their approach to education but also motivated and dedicated to the profession they have chosen (RGOB 1999, p. 53).

In comparison with the general educational and training level of Bhutanese employees, the lecturers of the two colleges appear qualified and trained to teach the programmes offered. The records show that almost all faculty members of the two colleges have master degrees. These institutes also receive resources from the Royal Government of Bhutan, projects, and external supports, as noted earlier in the allocation of funds. These levels of support and assistance have been considered with expectations that the teachers provide quality education. However, concern about the quality of education has not abated.

The seriousness and magnitude of the issue appears to have necessitated a government intervention. A government Executive Order (vide letter no. COM/04/06/160 dated August 15, 2006) to the education sector focused on ‘ENHANCING TEACHER-CENTRED EDUCATION POLICY’. Teacher quality at the entry level, its review and reform are the suggested areas for revision. However, what appears to be missing is consideration of a change to the model of initial teacher training or pre-service teacher education in an effort to achieve quality education in schools.

Therefore, this study attempts to research and propose “A Model for Quality Pre-Service Teacher Education in Bhutan”. There is also a need to identify models of quality assurance for pre-service teacher education that would assure quality. The expected

outcome of the study is to propose a change in the pre-service teacher education model that would require entry level to have all graduates. The other expected outcome is a proposition that there be two different teacher education models for primary and secondary school teachers. This change in the model is expected to contribute to dealing with issue of quality.

Key research questions

In order to investigate into the teacher education models it was necessary to gather data about the associated areas namely, concepts and definitions of quality in education; the status of quality in Bhutanese pre-service teacher education colleges; factors affecting the quality teacher education and quality assurance models. Hence, the following questions were identified for the purpose of this study.

1. What are the concepts and definitions of Quality of Education?
2. What is the quality status of Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?
3. What are the factors that affect the quality of Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?
4. What is a preferred Pre-service Teacher Education Model for Bhutan?
5. What is a preferred Quality Assurance Model for Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?

A brief overview of Theoretical Framework

This section presents a brief overview of the theoretical framework used by this study. The framework involves various concepts and definitions such as higher education, quality education, models, associated terminology, and a description and analysis based on literature review to determine the best course of action for quality reform in Bhutan's colleges of education. Conceptual Framework (Figure 1) summarizes this section.

Concepts and Definitions of Quality

The definition of quality has its roots from the customers and services and therefore has a business orientation (Lim, 2001). Beamon and Ware (1998,) maintain that: “Each definition maintains at its core that quality is defined by the customer. Therefore, each organization should create a quality definition based on the requirements of its customer. The definition should be a reflection of the types of tasks involved and the requirements and expectations of the customers” (p. 6). A definition of quality can be at a system level and at organizational levels.

The literature reveals that definitions of quality are determined by the kind of industries and the customers being served. Similarly the concept of quality is determined by the expectations of those service users, for example, food industries seen to differ from medical treatment at a hospital (Farquhar, 1995; Allan, 2000; Bowers, Fibich, & Jacobson (2001).

The understanding of dimensions of quality product and quality services is imperative in order to make concepts and definitions more tangible. *Dimensions in quality product* encompass performance, features, reliability, conformance, durability, serviceability, aesthetics, and perceived quality. On the other hand *dimensions of quality and services* include time, timeliness, completeness, courtesy, consistency, accessibility and convenience, accuracy, responsiveness, tangibles, reliability, assurance, empathy, efficacy, appropriateness, efficiency, respect and caring, safety, continuity, effectiveness, timeliness, availability (Garvin, 1987).

The concept and definitions of quality from broader perspectives suggests degrees of excellence, superiority, and the totality of features and characteristics of a product or service (Green, 1994). A more contemporary definition of quality appears to be meeting customer (students, stakeholders, society) expectations. However, McGhee (2003) is

quite skeptical about employing service oriented definition of quality in higher education. A quality can be defined in associations with a set of indicators. Ann (2006) lists five categories of quality indicators relating to classroom situation:

The categories include (a) professionalism (demeanor toward each other and the students); (b) classroom management (rules, behavioral accommodations, shared responsibility); (c) instructional process (group and individual instruction, sharing both content and strategy teaching, etc.); (d) learning groups (variety, heterogeneity emphasized, multiple approaches to coteaching); and (e) student progress (elicits/ reinforces active responses, both teachers accessed by all students, shared evaluation and grading of student work) (Ann, 2006, para, 3).

Observable indicators of quality are those quality interactions seen between and among the students, faculty, administrative personnel in an institution (Srikanthan, & Dalrymple, 2002).

Cheng and Tam (1997) proposes multi-models for quality education. Among other the “Process model” has been reported to be useful when there is a clear relationship between process and educational outcomes. It places an importance on the process and outcome. This model has its indicators in leadership, participation, social interactions, classroom climate, learning activities and experiences. More details are presented in chapter two.

Similarly, Chua (2004) classifies quality using Input-Process-Output model and his findings suggest the usefulness of an integrated approach, especially in higher education. He states, “the findings support that different groups of customers have different perspectives of quality. In light of this finding, we suggest that an integrated quality model would be a better model for addressing the quality issue” (Chua, 2004, p. 3). Chua’s (2004) integrated model and the multi-models proposed by Cheng and Tam, (1997) seem to complement and has potential of addressing issues surrounding quality in education.

The need of Quality Assurance in Higher Education

The need for quality assurance systems in higher education appears to have been owing to two basic drivers. One is the need to show to “the public” what is being done with taxpayers money which is very much related to the State relinquishing control and giving more autonomy to institutions. Quality assurance is a mechanism to see what the institutions are doing, which has been particularly the case in Western Europe (OECD, 2008). The other driver concerns the distrust in government’s perception of what universities and higher education institutions do and quality assurance serves as a regular monitoring and reviews strategy (e.g. UK and Australia).

Furthermore, the need for quality assurance agency in Australian context has been because of, “Growth of the sector, increasing diversity, demand for greater transparency and accountability, impact of technology, changes in academic employment,... (Skilbeck and Connell (2000, pp. 1-3). Similarly, Bhutan is also going through a transition in that the number of colleges offering higher education is on the rise; the country is in contact with the global community more than ever before, graduates and postgraduate students seeking employment is growing. Thus a quality assurance mechanism is a necessity in Bhutanese higher education as well (more on this is in Chapter Four).

Quality Assurance and associated terminology used in Higher Education

Reviewing Quality Assurance models of the countries researched has identified two concepts and ideas that are applicable and these are Accreditation Scheme (AS) and Quality Assurance (QA) system or arrangement. QA system is defined as a systemic and planned procedure the outcome of which is to establish stakeholder confidence with product or service (Harman, 2003; Manyaga, 2008; Harvey, 2009). Accreditation Schemes is an institutionalized process that essentially leads to formal approval of

higher education institutions, their degree types and programmes (Damme, 2004; Schwarz & Westerheijden, 2004; OECD, 2008). Fundamental differences between the QA and the AS can also be drawn in terms of their definitions, purposes and approach. Details of each of these are presented in chapter two. QA typically is an umbrella of AS and appears to subsume the later (OECD, 2008).

The other concept pertinent to be presented here in light of QA and AS is the evaluations. Evaluations Scheme concerns the analysis and measurement of activities that are in implementation (Manyaga, 2008). It covers practices and stakeholders namely students, faculty members, programmes, departments, institutions and major areas of teaching, research and service. Evaluation must cut across QA and AS and is essentially the part of overall QA. Chapter two presents more on this and associated concepts and terminology.

Overview of Initial Teacher Training Models

The Initial Teacher Training (ITT) is also known as Pre-service Teacher Education and Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in the countries researched. Although there is no compartmentalized difference among the three nomenclatures, the use of ITT must take precedence in this study.

Initial Teacher Training Movement

An overview of ITT literature suggests that there has been a constant reform to make it as dynamic and relevant as possible. For example, from the 1950s through to the current decade the United Kingdom has seen teacher education movement in various forms and substances. Articles Teacher Scheme (ATS), Licensed Teacher Scheme (LTS), Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (Furlong et al, 2000) are some of the schemes and

models Great Britain has tried. The history and status of the ITE is different in various countries.

Initial Teacher Training Models: Similarities and Uniqueness

Two ITT models have been found common in most of the countries in this study. One concerns Three-Four-Year Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) offered to qualified high school graduates who work toward their first professional degree. Models include that of Great Britain (Furlong et al, 2000); Bhutan (National Institute of Education, 2003); South Asia represented by Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993); East Asia represented by China, Japan, Taiwan, Hong Kong (Leung, 2003). The other model that appears to be common across the countries is the One-Year Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), although some countries are upgrading the course to Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE), for example Bhutan and Australia. The difference between PGDE and the PGCE is that PGDE demands higher academic exercises compared to PGCE.

While commonalities exist in the structure of degree programs, there is also uniqueness in the ITT models of some countries. Literature reveals that Korea and Singapore do not have B.Ed model. Instead, they have B.A./BSc/B.Com + PGCE and above (Leung, 2003). Another unique model concerns a double degree in that during the B.Ed Hons four course students get enrolled in academic degree program within the university. This model is evident in a number of Australian Universities, for example, University of New England and University of Wollongong.

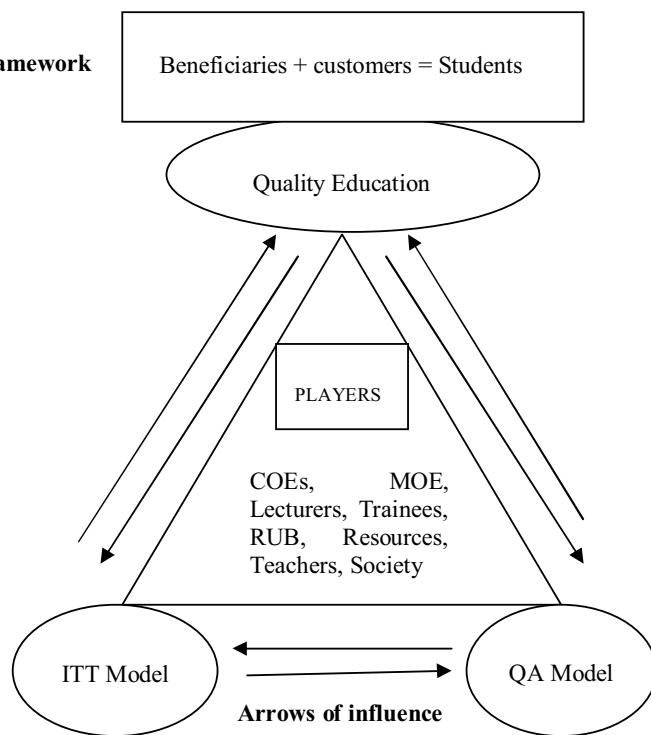
Some South Asian countries, namely India, Bangladesh, and Pakistan have models that other countries have phased out. They include undergraduate certificate level courses in teacher training. Pakistan and India also have a one year B.Ed for the first degree

holders (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993). More on these common features and unique characteristics of ITT Models are discussed in Chapter Three.

Conceptual Framework of the study

It is the belief that quality education equates to quality teachers (Tari, 2006). It is also a perception that a core place where teachers are trained well is the training colleges and invariably the type of model employed in an ITT College becomes important. This section on Conceptual Framework represented by Figure 1 denotes how players influence each other. At the apex is the Quality Education that should benefit the students. Superior ITT Model must produce quality teachers who are the key players of quality education.

Figure 1 Conceptual Framework



A QA Model is imperative in ensuring quality training at the ITT Colleges. Both ITT and QA Models to be successful players must play their roles: Colleges of Education and Management, Royal University of Bhutan, Lecturers of the colleges, Ministry of Education and the like. The end beneficiaries of the quality education are the students

who are increasingly becoming the customers (Meirovich, 2006). Some of them are facilitators, while others are watchdogs. Finally it is the society that must be satisfied (Algozzine et al, (2005) with the academic achievement of the students. It is this framework that has underpinned the study and knowledge ‘constructed’.

Research Methodology

This section introduces to the key elements of research methodology that the study has employed encompassing research design, and data analysis procedures.

Research Design

This study positions itself under an *interpretive paradigm*, the rationale of which is that the knowledge that the study seeks to construct is through interpretation of the views and opinions of the participants (Neuman, 1991; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Creswell 2008).

The *QUAN-QUAL Model* within the *mixed research design* has been employed as its research approach. It is one which data are not only concurrently collected but also given equal weight to both forms of data. The chief purpose for selecting a mixed method is its ability to complement and supplement the data and has potential to maximize *validity* through *triangulation* (Gay,Mills & Airasian, 2006; Creswell, 2008). By many counts mixed methods is synonym of *multi-method* the advantage of which is seen in its interconnectedness and integrated approach (Denzin & Lincoln 1994; Schutz et al, 2004). *Survey* and *Grounded Theory* are considered representing *quantitative* and *qualitative* schools respectively. *Survey research* is a means of collecting data (Hutchinson, 2004) and its strength is the capacity to collect a huge amount of data at a particular point of time and relatively within a short period of time (Best and Kahn, 2006; Creswell, 2008). The *qualitative* grounded theory is a method of collecting data in

order to analyze data and inductively develops theories (Patton, 2002; Charmaz, 2005).

Survey *questionnaire* and *semi-structured interviews* were the data collection instruments. The questionnaire had six main sections that asked biographical information, concepts and definitions of quality, status of quality in Colleges of Education in Bhutan, factors that affect the quality of pre-service teacher education, choice and preference of ITE models and QA models. Questionnaire employed 5-point Likert scale. Each section invited open comments. Semi-structured interview schedule also asked the participants' views and opinions on each of the six areas of quality of ITE. (See Chapter Five for more details and Appendix B, appendix C).

Data Analysis Procedures

Quantitative data were collected by administering questionnaires on the *purposely sampled 300 respondents of principals, officers and lecturers* working in the schools in the Ministry of Education in Bhutan, Royal University of Bhutan, and the two Colleges of Education. Using *Statistical Package for Social Science* (SPSS) the data were analyzed and presented in terms of *frequency of distributions* (Gravetter, 2007), cross tabulated and employed *Chi-Square test for independence* (Gravetter and Wallnau (2005) in an attempt to see if there was any difference across the variables. The *cross tabulations* allow to analyze data in two ways (Rose & Sullivan 1996): columns and rows. Variables of Age and positions on the one hand and the degree of agreement and preference on the other were the basis of comparisons. *Probability levels of 0.05-0.001* were used as the reference point to judge the *statistical significance* (Burns, 2000).

Patterns and trends drawn from the *qualitative data* of interviews and *texts* from *open comments* emerged ideas, categories, *themes*, hunches (Richards, 2005) and complemented quantitative data to answer the research questions. The interweaving of data is presented in Chapter Six.

Significance of the study

The significance of the study is seen at various levels. One concerns the improvement in the quality of training at the respective Colleges of Education. Another significance is the proposal to introduce new models of pre-service teacher education. The model is expected to identify and select quality trainees at the entry in terms of academic performance and attitude and assure quality training while at the colleges.

It is assumed that quality teachers result in quality education; by the same logic, it is held that quality educators are quality teachers (NIE, 2005). The two Colleges of Education; located at Samtse and Paro, impact on the quality of education in Bhutan. The Pre-service or Initial Teacher Education (ITE) model with quality assurance mechanism that the study proposes is expected to significantly improve the quality of teacher training.

Limitations of the study

A number of studies concerning quality in higher education have been reported wherein most of the difficulties expressed are related to the definition of the term ‘quality’ (Biggs (2001). A number of associated concepts namely quality model, quality enhancement, quality feasibility are discussed. The study also suffered the difficulty nature of definition of quality, especially in higher education.

The current study area is on quality of pre-service teacher education. It has always been difficult to assess quality with any objectivity and this study may suffer in a similar manner. At best different models of teacher pre-service education can be compared in terms of structure, curricula offered, number of years and the name and kind of degree awarded. But to draw any conclusion on how one is better than the other is a challenge.

The researcher has been a full time employee in a teacher education institute; he was teaching at the college in addition to the many responsibilities at hand. He was transferred to Sherubtse College as Director. This appointment posed a challenge to do justice to the quality of work at two fronts. First, the study area on teacher education was chosen with the assumption that he would be at Paro College of Education at least for a foreseeable number of years. With the unexpected transfer, the researcher has been necessarily distanced from the area of study, but not greatly. Second, Sherubtse College is located in eastern Bhutan without adequate library resources in education. These unexpected events may have in some ways subtly inhibited attainment of quality outcomes.

A final limitation concerns methodology, mainly in two ways. One is the design of the method. Although the mixed method appears to have major strengths the mixing of numbers and words proved difficult especially in linking what the same person said in number to his/her comments in words. Finding any relationship between numerical responses and verbal perspectives were near impossible. The other refers to gender representation. Because there are few females in the system, the study could not treat the data by female versus male variables and thus differences among gender could not be conclusively assessed.

Structure of chapters of the thesis

The thesis has eight chapters. An outline of each chapter is presented consecutively.

Chapter 1 sets the scene for the study. It provides a rationale for the researcher for choosing the topic. It also introduces the major themes of the theoretical framework, and research methods that underpins the study. Finally, it gives an overview of the entire

thesis with a brief detail of each chapter. Significance and limitations of the study are highlighted in this chapter.

Chapter 2 details the conceptual framework of the research. It has domains namely ‘quality and education’ wherein an attempt is made to define quality and how the concept is used within higher education. A section is also dedicated to the movement toward ‘quality assurance in higher education’.

Chapter 3 presents a global overview of teacher education through presentation of comparable models from selected countries with a special focus on the pre-service or initial training. Discussion details the advantages and disadvantages of various models and factors affecting their weaknesses and strengths.

Chapter 4 details Bhutan’s education system beginning in 1961, which was the onset of its modern education system. A particular reference is made to the history of teacher education in general and pre-service teacher education in particular within the Bhutan’s Higher Education System. The issue of quality of education in Bhutan is also highlighted in this chapter.

Chapter 5 explains the choice of research design and methods used in this study. The choice of sample, instrument design, data collection procedures, including pilot testing of the questionnaire, how the information were analyzed are also explained in this chapter. Ethical considerations, a necessary aspect of social research and how various steps are considered are described. Strategies employed to ensure validity and reliability are also briefly presented.

Chapter 6 makes a detailed presentation of data collected by the questionnaire, open comments and interviews. The chapter attempts to answer the major questions using

statistical data supported and complemented by comments. A number of tables, charts and graphs are used.

Chapter 7 presents the discussion of results presented in chapter six, information and conceptual issues that emerged in chapters one, two, three, four and five. Appropriate linkages are made with the existing knowledge delineated in the literature review chapters. A number of findings are listed in this chapter.

The last chapter (Chapter Eight) provides the conclusion of the study. A list of recommendations is proposed. The main crux of the study is the proposition of a pre-service teacher education model that would assure the provision of quality education in the schools in Bhutan.

Chapter Two

A REVIEW OF QUALITY IN EDUCATION AND QUALITY ASSURANCE MODELS

This chapter provides in four sections, a literature review of the key concepts relevant to the research. Section one presents definitions of the concepts ‘quality’ and ‘quality in education’. Section two discusses definition and constituents of higher education and tertiary education and how they are reflected in different regions. Examples of the education systems of selected countries are presented. Section three discusses quality assurance approaches in tertiary and higher education. Quality assurance models of selected countries are subsequently detailed in section four to provide a comprehensive review.

Section One

Concepts and definitions of quality

This section provides selected concepts and definitions of quality. It defines quality with reference to education and presents a brief discussion of the models of quality in education.

Definitions of quality

According to Green (1994) the traditional concept of quality is “associated with the notion of providing a product or service that is distinctive and special, and which confers status on the owner or user” (p. 13). The concept of quality appears to have emerged from the business sector where owner is referred to as the manufacturer and user the customer. Lim (2001) supports this interpretation:

The concept of quality and the concern for assuring and enhancing it was developed in the business sector in the West, where commercial success depends on it. The need to maximise

profit in a competitive environment requires sales to have a product or service that is in demand and of high quality at an affordable price (2001, p. 13).

Winch (1996) provides useful points as to how quality can be defined. The quality in products or services firstly concerns the species of product or services, and secondly concerns the individual product, whether it serves the intended purpose. The third relates to the user. Quality denotes whether it meets the needs and wants of the user. Quality is being used as a watchword. It is particularly relevant while discussing quality in higher education as Dunkerley and Wong (2001) propose:

As with the term global and its associates, quality has become one of the watchwords of the early twenty-first century, coming into popular vogue and usage about 20 years ago. Quality of life, quality circles, total quality management, quality products, quality service-the prefix quality has entered the lexicon of everyday life. And nowhere is this more prevalent than in higher education where agencies, managers and committees are now all dedicated to and employ the word quality (2001, p. 2).

Quality may be defined comprehensively through discussion of related terms and concepts. Green (1994) and Harvey (2009) present a set of terminologies aligned to education. Most prominent in this are ‘quality as effectiveness in achieving institutional goals’, ‘quality as fitness for purpose’ and ‘quality as benchmarking standards’ which are discussed in more detail below.

Quality as effectiveness in achieving institutional goals

Institutions include both academic such as universities, colleges and schools, and service institutions namely government organizations with set goals. Goals are set because they are the core purpose of the organization to be achieved in a given time frame. Quality is also discussed in terms of how effectively the institutional goals are achieved which more than often are geared toward serving the diverse customers with different needs (Meirovich, 2006). Thus the customer service satisfaction is associated with achieving goals effectively and “satisfaction comes from everyone in the organization working constantly to achieve customer satisfaction” (Ngware, Wamukuru & Odebero, 2006,

p.1). Institutional quality appears to have close association with the Total Quality Management (TQM) (Algozzine, Audette, Marr & Algozzine, 2005; Meirovich, 2006; Ngware, Wamukuru & Odebero, 2006) in service industries. Ngware, et al, (2006) lists the pillars of TQM to include, “Empowerment of workers/employees, Leadership and Training” (p. 4) while Algozzine, et al (2005) delineates the basic purpose of TQM, “The essence of TQM is the recognition that the quality of products and outcomes is the direct result of the quality of the processes or systems that produce them” (p. 1). They further iterate the importance of relationship between ‘achieving institutional goals effectively’ and ‘satisfying the needs and expectations of customers’ with particular reference to education. These lines substantiate, “the criteria for defining quality of behaviour and academic achievement are determined by the needs and expectations of the students, parents and other citizens in a school community” (Algozzine, et al, 2005, p. 1).

Quality as fitness for purpose

In the commercial domain a product is manufactured for a purpose, perhaps to meet the demand of the customers and to generate a profit. Similarly a service provided also has a purpose, how best it could satisfy the clients’ needs and how it best meets the needs of the service provider. Thus, it is fair to define quality as fitness for purpose both from the clients’ point of view and as well as the service providers. However, purposes or the objectives may change over time and need revisiting. Similarly, definition of quality may also change. Green (1994) suggests:

This definition, therefore, provides a model for determining what the specifications for a quality product or service should be. It is also developmental, as it recognizes that purposes may change over time, thus requiring constant re-evaluation of the appropriateness of the specification (p.15).

Quality is also related to satisfaction with the quality of goods (Perry, 2004). Belief that a PhD reveals superior quality in education has seen companies employ individuals with

this qualification. For example, “Korea has the highest number of PhDs per capita in the world and one of its major enterprises, the Daewoo Group employs about 1000 people with PhDs” (Perry, 2004, p. 33). Recent literature also debates the fitness for purpose model as a dimension of quality, for example, Doherty (2008) also concludes there is no simple answer to the question of quality, ... “is subjective-a matter of personal judgement” (p. 2).

An alternative explanation to quality is a person possessing positive attitudes, enthusiasm for the job, commitment, and dedication. These are important ingredients that support one’s knowledge and guarantee quality of teaching and performance in general (Furlong & Oancea, 2006). Put institutionally, one or two individuals cannot guarantee quality. In order to ensure reliably high standards it has to be a collective effort of every member of staff of the institution (Algozzine, et al 2005; Meirovich, 2006). In other words, quality has to be owned by each member of a team work (Harvey, 1995). Staying with team work the importance of employee participation, involvement and empowerment is of paramount importance (Jones & Seraphim, 2008; Ngware, et al, 2006).

Furlong and Oancea (2006) discuss a multi-dimensional approach to defining quality which describes dimensions of quality. One concerns the epistemic dimension that encompasses methodological and theoretical robustness, value for use; the technological dimension includes capacity building and value for people; and the economic dimension focuses on product and services.

Quality as benchmarking standards

The issue of standards and benchmarking becomes important when discussing quality. First, the original meaning of benchmarking is, “a mark on a survey peg or stone that

acts as a permanent reference point against which the levels of various topographic features can be measured” (Jackson & Lund, 2000, p. 4). Thus a generalized meaning is, benchmark is a reference or criterion against which something can be measured (Brown, 1999). Standard refers to minimum levels of achievement against which performance can be assessed. It therefore appears, standards are measurable (Melia, 1994). For example, the United Kingdom Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) defines quality in Higher Education by describing academic and standards:

Academic quality is a way of describing how well the learning opportunities available to students help them to achieve their award. It is about making sure that appropriate and effective teaching, support, assessment and learning opportunities are provided for them and academic standards are a way of describing the level of achievement that a student has to reach to gain an academic award (for example, a degree). It should be at a similar level across the UK (We achieve this by reviewing standards and quality, and providing reference points that help to define clear and explicit standards (McGhee, 2003, p. 5).

It appears the UK focuses on standards in determination of superior academic quality.

Reasons for attention to quality in education

The issue of quality in higher education in developing and developed countries has become a subject of concern and debate over the last 20 years. Stubbs (1994) justifies the need for quality in higher education because of the change in emphasize to, “increasing market orientation, value for money, price and quality as factors in resource allocation, concern for market share and consumer satisfaction” (p. 21). Schwarz and Westerheijden (2004) maintain, “Quality in the sense of achieving academic excellence has always been a central value in higher education” (p. 4). It appears because governments, private or individuals spend money in pursuit of higher education, they require value or the worth for the money in the services received (Lim, 2001). The value for money has a relevant link with the quality of the “product or service that is in demand and of high quality at an affordable price” (Lim, 2001, p. 13). Similarly, higher education became affordable to the mass and demand for it increased (Wang, 2003).

The definition of quality, which has dominated manufacturing and service industries, has shifted to the arena of academy. Cheng and Tam (1997) delineate a practical definition of quality in education by making a link to the business paradigm:

The definition of quality in education may often be associated with fitness for use, the satisfaction of the needs of strategic constituencies (e.g. policy makers, parents, school management committee, teachers, students, etc.) or conformance to strategic constituencies' requirements and expectations (Cheng & Tam, 1997, p. 23).

The quality debate has been on the educational agenda for years but, as argued previously, more prominently in the last two decades. Universities have played an important role for the traditional professions such as law, engineering and medicine and the assessment of the quality of entrants and graduates in order to meet the minimum professional thresholds has been part of their role (Mierovich, 2006; Venkatraman, 2007). Similarly, in academia, “the PhD has for the best part of a century been seen as the hallmark of an academic’s quality and provides his/her fitness for appointment” (Dunkerley and Wong 2001, p. 2).

The attention to the issue of quality in education is in response to education being equated to industry and acknowledgement that education institutions have varied customers as a result of the continuing process of massification and the rise of knowledge-based economies and societies. Meirovich (2006) maintains customers of higher education/colleges, universities to be students, graduates, employers, taxpayers, while Tari (2006) has the government, the business community, and the local community as the stakeholders. Tari (2006) however argues, “The student and customer role are not identical” (p. 5). But the issue of customer satisfaction exists in higher education as it does in service industry (Eagle & Brennan, 2007).

Models of quality in education

Cheng and Tam (1997) present seven models with potential to achieve quality in education. These models, presented in the table below, are largely based on research

into organisational and school effectiveness. Two models namely ‘Process model’ and ‘Organisational learning model’ are considered in further discussion as these models appear relevant to pre-service teacher education institutions. The two Colleges of Education in Bhutan at Paro and Samtse are experiencing a period of change focused on process and outcomes (NIEs, 2005). Similarly the two models focus internal process as an important determinant of educational outcome. As presented in the table below the concepts of education quality, conditions for model usefulness, and indicators/key areas for quality evaluation are considered to compare and critique the usefulness of the Process and Organizational Learning models.

Table 2.1 Multi-models of quality in education

	Conception of education quality	Conditions for model usefulness	Indicators/key areas for quality evaluation (with examples)
1. Goal and specification model	Achievement of stated institutional goals conformance to given specifications	When institutional goals and specifications are clear, consensual, time-bound, and measurable, When resources are sufficient to achieve the goals and conform to the specifications	Institutional objectives, standards, and specifications listed in the programme plans, e.g. academic achievements, attendance rate, dropout rate, etc.
2. Resource-input model	Achievement of needed quality resources and inputs for the institution	When there is a clear relationship between inputs and outputs, When quality resources for the institution are scarce	Resources procured for institutional functioning, e.g. quality of student intake, facilities, financial support, etc.
3. Process model	Smooth internal process and fruitful learning experiences	When there is a clear relationship between process and educational outcomes	Leadership, participation, social interactions, classroom climate, learning activities and experiences, etc.
4. Satisfaction model	Satisfaction of all powerful constituencies	When the demands of the constituencies are compatible and cannot be ignored	Satisfaction of education authorities, management board, administrators, teachers, parents, students, etc.
5. Legitimacy model	Achievement of the institution’s legitimate position and reputation	When the survival and demise among education institutions must be assessed, When the environment is very competitive and demanding	Public relations, marketing, public image, reputation, status in the community, evidence of accountability, etc.
6. Absence of problems model	Absence of problems, and troubles in the institution	When there is no consensual criteria of quality but strategies for improvement are needed	Absence of conflicts, dysfunctions, difficulties, defects, weaknesses, troubles, etc.
7. Organizational learning model	Adaptation to environmental changes and internal barriers, Continuous	When institutions are new or changing, When the environmental change cannot be ignored	Awareness of external needs and changes, internal process monitoring, programme evaluation, development planning, staff development, etc.

	improvement	
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Source: Adapted from multi-models of quality in education (Cheng & Tam, 1997)

The two models have ‘changes in process and outcomes’ as preconditions for model usefulness. What *defines* the process model and organizational learning model is their smooth functioning of the organization and continuous internal process as important ingredient for improvement and development. These models also consider both individual staff and whole institution as equally important in maintaining quality. The *usefulness* of the process model is evident when there is a clear relationship between process and education outcomes. The organisational learning model is useful when an organisation is new or changing and when change is inevitable. The process model has leadership, participation, social interactions, classroom climate, learning activities, and experiences as possible indicators for evaluation. Cheng and Tam (1997) further assert an awareness of external needs and changes, internal process monitoring, programme evaluation, development planning, staff development constitute *indicators* for Organizational learning model. It is clear the process model is focused on the internal activities or practices. Within an educational institution its internal practices comprise; management process, teaching process, and learning process. In a similar way, Laster (2004) proposes “a team model: how the team is staffed and empowered; a process model: how the experience is developed; and a perceptual model: how the experience is discussed and visualized” (p. 15). Key elements to be considered in establishing the quality of education are strategic constituencies (parents, students, etc.), strategic goals (input goals, process goals, output goals), and strategic participation (all members of an institution) (Laster (2004)).

Definitions, usefulness, conditions and indicators subsume multi-models just described above seem to be consistent with what Tari (2006) calls in academic institutions

dimensions of quality namely academic resources, competence, attitude and content. Thus, in order to discuss definitions or models of quality it is imperative to understand the dimensions and/or elements of it.

Section Two

Tertiary and Higher Education

To enable any link to be made between the concept and definitions of quality of education, higher education and quality assurance systems of the countries studied, it is useful to have an overview of the higher education systems and how the pre-service teacher education system is structured within tertiary education. Section two presents a discussion on Tertiary Education and its constituent institutions. An attempt has been made to present a global representation with case examples of few selected countries.

Notions about Tertiary and Higher Education

Literature review reveals the use of the term; ‘tertiary education’ is relatively recent as opposed to higher education which has been in common use for years. International statistical conventions define tertiary education in terms of programme levels in that programmes levels of 5A and 6 are treated as tertiary education, whereas levels 5B and below are not considered (Santiago, Tremblay, Basri and Arnal, 2008). The benchmark for the level is, “Programmes at level 5 must have a cumulative theoretical duration of at least 2 years from the beginning of level 5 and do not lead directly to the award of an advanced research qualification” (Santiago et al, 2008, p. 25). Whether or not a programme is considered at tertiary level is further distinguished by its sublevels 5A and 5B. Programmes at 5A are largely theoretically based and are intended to provide adequate qualifications for gaining entry into advanced research. Conversely, at 5B level programmes are generally more practical and/or specific to occupation. However,

programmes at level 6 lead directly to the award of an advanced research qualification. Theoretical duration of programmes at level 6 is at least three years full-time, for example, doctoral programme. Some countries however, treat all programmes at levels 5B, 5A and 6 as tertiary education.

Generally, the entry requirement for tertiary or higher education is a post secondary school education equivalent. Higher Education (HE) or Further Education (FE) usually follows post school education in most of the countries studied. The following lines although an African approach and particularly to Tanzanian context succinctly distinguishes higher education from other forms of tertiary education:

Tanzania has, within the tertiary-level of the educational continuum, higher and further education. In the Tanzanian context higher education covers all studies and training taking place in universities and non-university post-secondary institutions, which lead to intermediate professional and full professional qualifications, while further education covers pre-professional, technical/vocational education and training, which is imparted within post secondary institutions that admit candidates normally after completion of ordinary level secondary education (Manyaga, 2008, p. 1).

Literature suggests countries in various regions seem to make similar distinctions between higher education and further education within the umbrella of tertiary education. For example Australia has Higher Education and Vocational Education and Training (VET) which incorporates Technical and Further Education (TAFE) (Zhukov, 2008), Further Education and Training Colleges (FET), in the case of South Africa (Bonnema & Waldt, 2008), and programs have to be aligned with the “National Qualifications Framework (NQF)”, (p. 1). The 2008 OECD reports maintain that in some countries tertiary education and higher education is differentiated by the institutions rather than by the programmes. Programmes offered at universities are referred to as higher education whereas programmes offered at institutions other than universities are referred to as tertiary education. The following section next discusses more about levels and associated nomenclatures to provide further clarity.

Levels and associated nomenclature

Many of the countries researched have their higher education systems entailing generic degrees namely, bachelors, masters and doctorates taking three-seven years. They are Bachelor of Education (B.Ed), Bachelor of Art (B.A.), Bachelor of Science (B.Sc), Master of Education (M.Ed.), Master of Art (M.A.), Master of Science (M.Sc), Engineering, Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), and medical doctors. Similar structure is in place in many countries, for example, the Netherlands (Jeliazkova & Westerheijden, 2004; Santiago, et al, 2008), the Flemish Belgium (Damme, 2004), Australia (Lim, 2008), the United Kingdom (Brennan & Williams, 2004; Doherty, 2008), China (Mohrman, 2008), Argentina, Latin America (Cohen, 2003), Japan (Amano & Poole, 2005), African context (Bandawe, 2005), the US (Mierovich, 2006). To a large extent, universities as higher education institutions offer these programmes which are academic in nature.

As delineated elsewhere, within tertiary education institutions offer training programmes that are *professional*, *vocation* oriented and *technical* in nature. Technical education is defined as an education that enables learners to acquire higher level of skills, training, leading to a skilled occupation (Dhiwayo, 2008). Some African countries have “Work integrated learning (WIL)” (p. 2) and entrepreneurship in higher education. Similarly, the Flemish Belguin has Hogescholen, that are responsible in providing vocational and technical courses, but they also house academic disciplines like a university (Damme, 2004) by making a distinction between professional and academic programmes. In Canada and Australia these institutions are known as “Colleges of Advanced Education” (Curri, 2002, p. 4). A typical example of this brand in Australia is “tertiary music”, offered in “Australian higher education institutions” (Zhukov, 2008, p. 1) and is also known as higher education music institutions. Similarly in the Netherlands vocationally oriented programmes are also known as ‘higher professional education’

and are officially called universities of applied sciences (OECD, 2008). It seems, in order to accommodate changes universities, in addition to traditional faculties of science and humanities, also have “professional and vocational faculties” (Ensor, 2004, p. 3).

Theory versus practice

There appears to be an ongoing debate between university education and vocational institutions programmes in relation to their functionality. University programmes seem to be criticized in being too theoretical which Bandawe (2005) observes, “Higher education has often been targeted for criticism with regards to its lack of relevance in addressing the day-to-day struggle and hardships”... and ... “University graduates become an elite, out of touch with the indigenous worldview” (p. 1). Japanese university programmes have been criticized as an “elite escalator” (Amano & Poole, 2005).

However China has taken advantage of tertiary education in developing human capital through “the conscious shift from an elite to a mass system of tertiary education” (Mohrman, 2008, p. 2), and ... “develop human capital” (p. 4). Furthermore, some countries develop partnerships to diversify the mode of offering higher education to cater to the demands of customers. Australia and Malaysia’s “twinning arrangement”, “2+1” or “1+2” (p. 3)” is a case in point (Lim, 2008, p. 3). Through this arrangement students of partnering countries can study for two years in their universities and the remaining one year in the university of the partner country, or vice versa. There are also a growing number of private universities, indicative of the demand of higher education globally. A Latin American experience is Argentine, where Cohen (2003) reports both private universities and public institutions dominated higher education because of the “policy of unrestricted admission” (p. 3). Government support and legal obligation such as the “Private Higher Education Institution Act” (Lim, 2008, p. 3) seems to facilitate the growth of higher education in Malaysia, for instance. Academic flexibility like

“credit-accumulation-and-transfer” (Ensor, 2004, p. 2) between universities around the world makes the pursuit of tertiary education convenient for students.

Tertiary education thus, subsumes higher and other forms of post secondary education programmes. University, college, and vocation, professional and technical institutions are the places where tertiary education is offered. In general, the use of these nomenclatures and levels has been found to be consistent in the countries researched. In the same vein, pre-service teacher education is one of professional higher education degrees.

Section Three

Quality Assurance in Higher Education

One of the recent movements in the educational field and particularly in higher education is ‘quality assurance’. This section discusses the concepts, issues and initiatives relating to quality assurance and encompasses a wide cross section of the globe.

Key Terms and Concepts regarding Quality Assurance

Quality assurance has a number of associated terms and concepts. In this section, their definitions are considered in order to provide a clearer understanding of the literature. The definitions may also help to understand how these terms and concepts are used in higher education institutions of various countries.

Quality Assurance: It is important to understand the meaning of quality assurance (QA). According to Harman (2003) “The term quality assurance refers to specialized management and assessment procedures adopted to monitor and enhance the performance of higher education institutions” (p. 117). And according to Manyaga

(2008) QA “Usually refers to all of the planned and systemic actions necessary to provide adequate confidence that a product or a service will satisfy the specified requirements for quality” (p. 3). While Harman focuses on higher education Manyaga points to product or service. According to Harvey (2009) “Assurance of quality in higher education is a process of establishing stakeholder confidence that provision (input, process and outcomes) fulfils expectations or measures up to threshold minimum requirements” (p. 4). All definitions seem to assert the concept to be a more systematic and rigorous approach to ensuring the quality of courses and graduates or a service. The QA has functions of accountability and improvement. Whether viewed as *quality assurance scheme* or *quality assurance system*, it appears to subsume accreditation and evaluation systems in contrast to approval without formal evaluative elements (Schwarz and Westerheijden, 2004). A distinction may be made between “internal quality assurance practices within programmes and institutions’ and external quality assurance schemes that operate at a system level” (Damme, 2004, p. 128).

Accreditation Schemes (AS) refers to institutionalized and systematically implemented evaluation schemes of higher education institutions, degree types and programmes that end in a formal summary judgment. The judgment should lead to formal approval processes of the higher education institutions, their degree types and programmes. In other words, it is responsible to the authorities who give formal approval to programmes or institutions that predetermined, agreed standards (Damme, 2004; Schwarz & Westerheijden, 2004). Essentially, accreditation is external in its exercise, serves objectives of fixing accountability, outcomes produced are usually graded judgments reflecting a minimum quality standards to be met and a basic question asked is, “is a programme good enough to be approved?” (Santiago, et al, 2008).

At the very outset fundamental differences between the QA and AS must be highlighted in light of their definitions, purposes and approach. QA is defined as a tool and a process of establishing confidence of the stakeholder in a programme, product or a service (Santiago, et al, 2008). It is also a systematic, structured and “continuous attention” (p. 261) to quality. Accreditation is “approval or certification granted by the relevant authority” (Manyaga, 2008, p. 173). The two concepts also differ in their purposes. As discussed elsewhere the defining purpose of QA is embedded in two: accountability and improvement, on the other hand accreditation is to inform and assure stakeholders an accredited institution has the basic requirements to offer a course or provide training. The approach generally adopted in accreditation is that institution (s) applies to a national accreditation body to be accredited, whereas the approach to QA is accreditation itself, assessment/evaluation and audit (presented later in the section). Typically, QA is an umbrella of accreditation (Manyaga, 2008).

Evaluation schemes: Evaluation schemes concerns the measurement, analysis and/or development of quality for the institutionalized and systematically implemented activities of an institution, degree types and/or programmes. Evaluation is carried out at the supra-institutional level and its activities would not necessarily lead to the approval of the institution, degree type or programme. Evaluation covers a broad range of practices where performance of all stakeholders namely students, professors, programmes, departments, institutions and even the systems are not only measured but also appreciated (Brennan & Williams, 2004; Damme, 2004). Tari (2006) suggests a university may be evaluated in three major areas of teaching, research and service. Quality dimensions namely academic resources, competence, attitude and content can be evaluated using self-assessment or self-evaluation as a method. Tari (2006) provides generic stages of self-assessment: “developing management commitment,

communicating self-assessment plans, planning self-assessment, establishing teams and training, conducting self-assessment, establishing action plans, implementing action plans and review” (p. 3). Self-evaluation appears to be an effective method to identify areas for improvement and is being applied in many universities. In sum, evaluation is essentially the part of overall QA.

Assessment: Assessment refers to the processes of reviewing and judging quality aspects in programmes or institutions, which are done internally or externally. Internal quality assurance is done through *self-evaluation*. “Self-assessment is a comprehensive, systematic and regular review of an organization’s activities and results set against a model of business excellence” (Tari, 2006, p. 2). In *external* quality an assurance scheme is done by way of panel members visiting sites and carrying out *peer review*. Thus, in case of Belgium it is called ‘visitation schemes’ (Damme, 2004). While reviewing the quality of tertiary education in Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries *assessment* appears to have been used equating to *evaluation* which focused on “how good are the products”, emphasizing on the outputs and usually outcomes result into grading with pass or fail (Santiago, et al, 2008). Assessment also looks at accountability fixation and leaves scope for continuous improvement (Venkatraman, 2007).

Qualifications Frameworks: Qualifications Frameworks (QF) encompasses levels, titles, attributes, expected achievements of a particular programme: for example, Bachelor with Honours. Expected achievements can be equated to specific competencies. “Qualifications frameworks are methods of classifying academic and professional qualifications, usually specifying the outcomes or competencies that should normally be achieved by graduates” (Harman, 2003, p. 124). QF enables the students and employers

to understand the meaning and level of the qualifications as it would detail characteristics of a programme (Harvey, 2009).

Subject Benchmark Statements (BS): BS detail expectations about the standard of the particular qualification in broad subject areas (Schwarz & Westerheijden, 2004; Jackson & Lund, 2000). It is an explicit statement of the conceptual framework and gives a discipline its coherence and identity. The BS also defines what can be expected of a graduate in terms of knowledge, skills and other attributes needed to develop an understanding of the subject. Benchmarking is a level of intellectual demand and challenges represented in the subject area concerned. BS is useful in many ways. First, it would help higher education institutions design and approve a given programme. Second, it would help external examiners and academic reviewers to verify and compare standards. In a similar vein, reviewers look at how comparable are the programmes that are offered in similar institutions within the country or elsewhere (Jackson & Lund, 2000).

Programme Specifications (PS): In some ways Programme Specifications is similar to Benchmark Statements. The PS should detail a set of information about a programme or programmes an institute provides. Each PS describes what knowledge, understanding, skills and other attributes a student will have developed on successful completion of a specific programme. The PS also provides information about teaching, learning, assessment, and career opportunities on completion of the programme. It focuses on the means by which the outcomes are achieved and demonstrated (QAA, 2006). It explains how it relates to the overall QF. PS enables prospective students to make comparisons and informed choices about the programme they wish to study. Thus, it provides useful information for recruiters of the graduates (Brennan & Williams, 2004).

Approval: It is “an overarching term to cover various forms of [academic recognition](#) of a programme or institution” Harvey, 2009, p. 3). Approval encompasses institutions, degree types, programmes. It refers to approving or granting the right for an institution, programmes, or degree to exist within the system. Conversely, disapproval would lead to rejecting the right to exist. At the supra-institutional level one or more organizations can carry out the approval schemes. In some systems in Europe for example, the approval schemes and accreditation schemes are valued one or the same. Therefore, approval outside the accreditation scheme refers to those institutions, degree types and programmes not part of the accreditation scheme.

Auditing (Review): It is a fact-finding system geared towards auditing an institution whether or not the information published about the quality and standards are accurate, complete, and reliable. The auditing team also investigates if the information is in line with programme specifications. The other terms of reference of the institutional audit concerns auditing internal quality assurance process; its operation at programme level or across the institution as a whole, again with reference to qualifications framework, and subject benchmark statements as stated earlier (QAA, 2006). In sum, the auditing has two approaches: one at the subject level review or the whole institutional review. If the institutional audit in an extreme case is unsatisfactory, subject level review may happen. Repeated unsatisfactory observations would lead the funding agency to withdraw funding as a penalty, in case of some countries, such as the United Kingdom (Brennan & Williams, 2004). However, recent approaches to quality assurance seem to encompass more domains namely, type of institution or programme, focus of the quality review, territorial coverage, types of HEIs, and frequency of quality assurance procedures.

Essentially, auditing emphasizes the procedures and internal locus of control. It looks for more quality outcomes with the purpose of achieving improvement driven objectives (Santiago, et al, 2008). OECD countries however, seem to follow three main activities of accreditation, assessment and audit in the quality assurance.

Purpose of quality assurance in Higher Education

This section calls for the purpose of carrying out quality assurance exercises. Santiago, et al (2008) in their review of the OECD countries' tertiary education quality, report quality assurance procedures as serving "two major purposes: accountability and improvement" (p. 264). A central aspect in the *accountability* perspective is that of rendering an account about the responsibility in relation to set goals. Although institutions have autonomy, many rely on public trust and funding and hence are accountable to the state, students and general population. Reliable information concerning quality is needed during the accountability process. Accountability is frequently linked to funding and the funding agencies often want to see the public funds are effectively spent (Santiago, et al, 2008). Thus, one of the purposes of quality assurance procedure is achieving *accountability-driven objectives*.

The other purpose is achieving *improvement-driven objectives* that focuses on processes and procedures for future improvement that entail academics' revisiting their delivery approaches, methods and attitudes to teaching. The procedure also allows for an analysis of strengths and weaknesses and recommendations from peers. It however, appears the two purposes do supplement and complement rather than separate and compete. Some of the OECD member countries follow either accountability-driven or improvement-driven purpose of quality assurance procedure. For example, the United Kingdom follows pre-dominantly improvement-driven approach for its tertiary or higher education institutions (Santiago, et al, 2008).

The need for quality assurance agency in the Australian context has also received enormous attention. In the ‘national seminar report’ Skilbeck and Connell (2000, pp. 1-3) list, “Growth of the sector; increasing diversity; demand for greater transparency and accountability; impact of technology; changes in academic employment; new providers and new structures; international competitiveness; benchmarking and performance indicators; and expressed concerns” as reasons calling for quality assurance. For example, the growth in the sector has been implicated by its demand in the society. Demand tends to become diverse in the light of the volume and diversity of student population. Transparency and accountability of the education provided is increasingly becoming pre-requisites, as the funding agencies and the individuals who pay for education seek value for each dollar. Like in other countries, particularly in the developed nations, higher education has been growing in Australia.

Benchmarking, performance indicators, and expressed public concerns are reasons for quality assurance agencies to focus attention on quality of the education provided. Development of benchmarking systems is imperative as it gives specific aspects of universities “that bear comparative analysis including the value of measures relating to different categories of institutions” (Skilbeck and Connell, 2000, p. 3). In recent times concerns raised were uninformed about the quality issue in education. The sector increasingly needs quality assurance, if not control, in order to achieve the expected quality measures set in higher education (OECD, 2008).

Section Four

Quality Assurance Models in Higher Education

The models of quality assurance in higher education in selected countries are now considered including Europe, Australia, America and Asia.

European Models of Quality Assurance

A number of factors seem to have urged the countries in Europe to embrace quality assurance process namely the growth of knowledge society, the penetration of market forces in higher education, and the treatment of education as an exportable good (Stamouls, 2006). As member states, obligations to declarations such as the “Bologna Declaration” (OECD, 2008) and a member of the OECD a growing need for a quality assurance has been increasingly felt, especially in light of making the European tertiary education attractive to foreign consumers.

Although most European countries have taken initiatives to assure quality in their HEI and models and procedures differ in respective countries, a brief analysis of three countries: the Netherlands, Belgium, and the United Kingdom are presented as case examples.

The Netherlands Quality Assurance Model

Jeliazkova and Westerheijden (2004) report the Netherlands is a leader in quality assurance in the European continent. This is argued to be the case because of changes to the steering philosophy introduced in the early 1980s, resulting in the government granting more autonomy to institutions in return for greater accountability. The latter resulted in the creation of a quality assurance system that has been the model for many countries in later years.

The Ministry of Education and Science, and the umbrella bodies: (1) the Association of the Universities in the Netherlands (VSNU) and (2) the Association of Hogescholen (HBO Council) negotiate implementation of quality assurance initiatives. The universities and institutes are made accountable for quality delivery of the courses to ensure there is maximum self-regulation (Billing, 2004). The government through the

Ministry of Education and Science oversee there is minimum waste of students and time, particularly with regards to student dropout rates and completion time to degree.

Threats to funding acts as a stick to assure quality which is substantiated:

If a study programme was shown to be of low quality, and there were no improvement over a number of years (after the ministerial warning popularly called ‘yellow card’), the government reserved the right to strike this study programme off the official register (‘red card’), meaning that its diploma would no longer be recognized officially and that it would no longer be funded by the government, nor would students have a right to the study grant every student of a recognized programme is given (Jeliazkova & Westerheijden, 2004, p. 330).

Such an approach makes the recipients of the government funding for higher education alert to maintain and assure the required quality. The rule of issuance of ‘yellow card’ and ‘red card’ is not only applicable to the game of football but is also relevant to academic organizations to maintain adherence to quality education.

Strategies for quality assurance

‘Ad hoc Visiting Committees’ and ‘Self-Evaluation’ are some of the strategies employed by the Netherlands higher education institutions to assure quality. The *visiting committees* are equated as external peers. During *site visits* to institutions the committee judges all programmes of study in a disciplinary area in the country. The information is based upon their observations during the visit and self-evaluation reports of the faculties. The *self-evaluation* is also considered to be an effective strategy. The guidelines provided by the VSNU, among others include, programme aims, structure and content, student and staff information, data on graduates, issue of internationalization and internal quality management. The dimensions of quality in teaching and research considered encompass productivity, quality output, relevance, and long term viability. One of the measurements used is a 1-5-point scale: Insufficient to Excellence.

While the external peer observer in the name of visiting committees is useful as a watchdog, self-evaluation is also considered a cornerstone of quality improvement. The faculties are expected to become aware of their strengths and weaknesses through self-evaluation process.

Visitation reports

The visiting committees use the self-evaluation reports of the faculties, coupled with their own observation to prepare a detailed report of the visit. During the exit meeting, the chair of the visiting committee shares the comments with the college or the institute visited. The final version of the report is made available to all stakeholders, and is also publicized in the media. The model discussed above covers all programmes of study of a given institution in a six year cycle.

The quality assurance model presented is used for HBO institutions as well, but in a slightly different way. First, because of the large number of institutions the cycle is of eight years duration. Second, the composition of the members in the visiting committees, unlike in the VSNU (who are more academic peers) are more of practitioners. Third, the focus and priority of the study and observation is applicability and job oriented. Therefore, the guidelines issued by the HBO Council differ from the ones provided by VSNU. Thus, evaluation and assessment for quality assurance be it by external or internal means needs to be different between professional courses and purely academic disciplines. According to Stamoulas (2006) due importance should be given to “the specific economic, social and cultural context of individual countries while taking account of the European dimension (of quality assurance) and a rapidly changing world” (p. 3).

Lessons to be learned

It appears one of the loopholes in the Dutch quality assurance model is there is not a direct connection between higher education policy and quality, the assessment practices. At the individual faculty level, there are no financial rewards or sanctions although ‘yellow card’ system is employed at the course or program level. Of late the Netherlands has moved its focus of quality assurance arrangement towards greater accountability and towards the system of accreditation (OECD, 2008).

An area of concern is the follow up action of the evaluation reports. However, the use of the funding as the stick to induce improvements works, so the reports do not remain in paper. It is also not necessary for faculties to follow all the recommendations of the visiting committees. The record shows about half of them have been followed. The sanction is also imposed to the quality monitoring agencies. Quality agencies which produce weak reports may be deleted from the list of approved organizations. Agencies not performing their task well are also punished through this practice.

A lesson worth noting concerns balance between accountability and autonomy. Because of the conditional funding the universities and institutions receive from the government, accountability is a prominent focus of the model. There is a perceived danger the process may compromise the autonomy of the higher education institutions, their independent thinking and originality.

The Belgium Quality Assurance Model

While discussing the quality assurance system of Belgium, mention of governance, stakeholders, and associations is necessary. These stakeholders are the government, political parties, the Flemish inter-university council (VLIR), the general Flemish education council (VLOR), the Flemish social and economic council (SERV) and the Flemish council of Hogeschoolen (VLHORA). These associations act as pressure groups

to assure quality and make the higher education in Belgium as dynamic as possible. They are also mediators between the institutions and the state and the stakeholders in society. In essence, they all are the quality assurance agencies of the Belgium higher education (OECD, 2008).

The government plays crucial roles in the higher education agenda in Belgium. Autonomy, deregulation and decentralization are key words of the legislation and policy developers (Damme, 2004). It is strongly believed, quality and autonomy are intrinsically linked. The main focus of the government is on general regulatory frameworks, decisions regarding the planning of the supply of programmes by institutions and funding. The government also funds incentives such as in the field of innovation in teaching and learning processes. What is interesting is the government has representatives in all the institutions who monitor the results of quality reviews and ensure the recommendations are followed up to assure value for money is accounted through quantifiable indicators.

Higher education and concern for quality is high on the political agenda. There are constant contacts and dialogues between institutions and policy makers. The associations have a powerful impact on policy making process (Damme, 2004). Among others access, success, equity, funding, internationalization, quality and flexibility are high on the agenda of the political parties. Neighbouring countries such as the Netherlands have influenced development of the Belgium quality assurance model. The self-regulation and improvement approach are evident in the Belgium model too.

The legal basis and obligation for an external quality assurance system was established as early as 1991 for the Flemish universities. The state asked VLIR (acronym for the Flemish inter-university council) to coordinate the same, the main aim being improvement and accountability of programmes. The VLIR goals of the external quality

assurance system encompass (1) quality improvement, (2) accountability, (3) information, (4) benchmarking and (5) optimization of the supply of higher education system.

The legal framework mandates the VLIR as the agency to coordinate the quality assurance activities commonly known as VLIR visitations. VLIR visitations are assessments of programmes by an independent panel of peers. Universities through consultation with the VLIR decide the composition of the panel membership. To begin with, the visitation normally progresses from the internal quality assurance arrangements within institutions, the pattern of which is a self-assessment report. Some of the visitation activities include critical review of the programme by questioning the self-assessment report, analysis of relevant documents, interview relevant actors and stakeholders. The findings of the panel are published in a visitation report. The report does not remain in paper rather: “The responsibility then falls upon the programme directors in the university, who have to follow up the visitation and report on the decisions and actions they take to improve the programme” (Damme, 2004, p. 135). VLIR visitation is an eight year cycle.

The model is presented in the table below by summarizing what each of the agencies does within the overall framework.

Table 2.2 The Belgium (Flemish) Quality Assurance Model

Main Agencies	Sub agencies	Mandates and Roles
Actors and institutions	The state:	Has the legal capacity to deal with sanctions when a report leads to negative conclusions, Can carry out meta-evaluation of the system of internal and external quality assurance.
	The association of universities:	VLIR is legally responsible for organizing monitoring the quality assurance scheme.
	The institutions:	Responsible for quality of their programmes, Have legal obligations to engage in internal quality assurance mechanisms, Participate in external quality assessments.
	The programme directors:	Responsible and accountable for quality programmes, Organize and monitor the programmes of the faculties and departments within the institutions.
Ownership		Ownership of the visitation system is given to VLIR and universities collectively, <u>To be placed in a perspective of self-regulation.</u>
Organization	The Council	All university rectors and a second representative meet regularly in the council, It is the highest body in VLIR in decision making, Approves visitation protocols, calendar, panels, etc. The Council chair receives the visitation report.
	Working groups	Defines the protocol of the visitation system, Monitors the functioning of the visitation system and discuss its improvements.
	Special administrator	Tends to the management of the visitation system: inauguration of panel, protocol, supervises the QA secretariat, Regularly meets with the institutional co-coordinators of the universities.
	The secretariat of VLIR	Practical organization of the visitations, A staff is assigned to each panel, Edits visitation report and publishes in VLIR website.
Reviewers	The panel, and its composition	VLIR nominates panel of independent external experts, A panel of four peers from the same discipline, are mainly academics, critical and sound judgment, etc. About two experts come from abroad, The chairperson should not be associated to any institution under review,
	Main tasks	Judge the various quality aspects and indicators listed in VLIR protocol, Recommend improvements to the programme directors, Compare the programmes under review by means of descriptive comparisons and comparable tables, Inform academic community, students and general public of their findings and recommendations by publishing the visitation reports.
Customers and stakeholders	Students and Graduates	Represent in panel of faculties and departments for self-assessment, Most self-assessments include a survey of students and graduates, Visiting panels talk to the students and graduates,
	Social partners	Participate in self-assessment of the faculties where relevant: labour market, professional associations,
Financing		Universities pay for the cost of VLIR quality assurance system, VLIR and universities receive fixed basic funding from the state, Expenses incur include operational costs, remunerations of the experts, etc.

Source: Adapted from Damme (2004)

The visitation scheme is normally carried out in four phases. Significant tasks of each of the phases are summarized in the table below:

Table 2.3 Phases of Panel Visitations for Programmes Quality Review (Belgium)

Phases	Main tasks	Duration
One: Preparatory	Review panel is appointed, Administer questionnaire to academics, administrative and technical staff, students, graduates, relevant stakeholders, The programme directors do a critical analysis of the findings and integrate to self-assessment reports. VLIR staff and programme directors edit the report, Review panel meet several times to prepare the site visits, Define and decide a common frame of reference.	Lasts for a year
Two: Site Visits	The panel interviews the personnel and students affected by the programmes under review, The basis of the interview is the self-assessment report and documentation provided (sample of dissertations, coursework, examination questions, etc), The panel gives an oral report to the committee that has prepared the visitation, and to the faculty and management of the university.	Duration would depend on the number of programmes, But normally takes two and half days
Three: Publication of report	Report is published both on the internet and on paper, Report includes reports on each of the programmes reviewed and a general, comparative report, Also include conclusions and recommendations of the panel for each of the quality aspects and indicators.	Published four months after the last visit by the review panel
Four: Follow-up by institutions	The institution has legal obligation to reflect on the outcomes listed in the report, Give an account of the actions that it has taken.	Depends on the conclusions and recommendations

Source: Adapted from Damme (2004)

The visitation protocols followed for quality assurance of Hogescholen programmes is similar to university programmes as presented above. However, the name of the council would differ; for example, it is VLHORA for Hogescholen as VLIR is for academic higher education institutions as presented elsewhere. The other chief difference concerns the focus of the programme in that the panel of experts examines the self-assessment report in light of the expectations of the professional and social context.

Lessons learned

A significant lesson one may learn from the Flemish quality assurance initiative is mainly the departure from Quality Assurance system to the adoption of the Accreditation Scheme. One of the main reasons for giving less value to the QA system

was its vagueness of the visitation reports. Whether or not the accreditation scheme serves a better purpose than the QA system it is not going to be done away with completely.

In the final analysis, the Belgium model has consequences. The demands of the accreditation scheme are more vigorous and therefore, there is bound to be the issue of ‘Quality burden’, ‘quality fatigue’, among the HEIs. It is also foreseen the programme directors may become experts in window dressing.

The United Kingdom Quality Assurance Model

The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA), a UK wide organization and sponsored by UK Higher Education Institution (HEI) is the body responsible for quality assurance activities in the HEIs of the country. Member institutions pay a subscription; heads of institutions are the company’s shareholders. The Higher Education (HE) funding council delegates funding power to QAA. The governing body of QAA and controlling body has external members who are non HE.

Some of the higher education institutions in the UK follow an ‘accreditation’ scheme that approves the existence of institutions and levels of programmes, including new programmes. The accreditation process involves a ‘periodic quality audit’. Approval in the UK HEI is used to mean the approving the programme of study of a university or a college. There is also a ‘collaborative provision’ which ensures partnership arrangement between HE, Private & Public, academic and non-academic. All stakeholders have their input in the event any program needs to be ‘re-accredited’ and/or ‘revalidated’. Re-accreditation and revalidation exercise are meant when the institutions and programmes are subjected to the same process once the stipulated cycle is repeated (Brennan & Williams, 2004).

There is a significant degree of autonomy granted to individual universities which includes the right to university title, right to award degrees; both taught and research degrees. Other authorities include approving degrees and programmes. In the UK, any one can establish college, but the title of the university as well as the authority to award degrees is protected.

Evaluation and reviews are carried out regularly. The mission of the QAA evaluation is to safeguard the public interest as to the standards of HE qualifications and to encourage continuous improvement in the management of the quality HE. Reviewers are drawn from HEI and receive training from the Agency. QAA reports are published and therefore are available all ‘customers’ and stakeholders (Eagle & Brennan, 2007). One criticism is the published reports received little attention except in some celebrated critical cases. Furthermore, the responsibility for publication of the information on quality and standards is bestowed upon the individual institutions. QAA’s role appears to remain largely in auditing the information published by the institutions.

The QAA has certain standard procedures followed when reviewing HE programs. Scotland is a case in point, which has Enhancement Led Institutional Review (ELIR) as the guiding principle. It is a national strategy focusing explicitly on the enhancement of the learning experience of students. Specifically, ELIR has four processes: annual meeting between agency and the institution, production of a reflective analysis by the institution, ELIR visit and prepares a public report and sector wide feedback and workshops held annually on themes emerging from the review.

The UK Model has QAA as a body while it has Accreditation as a scheme within which the tools employed include auditing, evaluations, and peer review. Among others, the main procedures operated by the QAA are against the variables of: ‘institutional audit’,

‘qualifications framework’, ‘subject benchmark statements’, ‘programme specifications’ and ‘codes of practice’ (Brennan & Williams, 2004, pp. 478-480).

As mandated, institutions make information available such as quality and standards of programmes, external examiner’s reports, results of student feedback surveys, and internal reviews of programmes. The institutional audit team members examine the effectiveness of the internal quality assurance processes, reliability of information shared, whether or not the institution adheres to the code of practices. The team attempts to measure the performance of the institutions against the details of each of the variables listed above. The visit usually takes five working days.

The audit report is published and the agency concerned is mandated to follow up on identified weak areas to avoid serious consequences which could reflect negativity of the institution, programmes or subject. A possible consequence is: “... in extreme unsatisfactory cases, the Agency will revisit an institution; if again the outcome is unsatisfactory the Higher Education Funding Council (HEFC) for England would withdraw its funding...” (Brennan & Williams, 2004, p. 479).

Lessons to be learned

The quality assurance exercise in the UK offers a number of lessons and the discussion can be ensued in areas of system, students and society levels at large. Each level is briefly highlighted.

System level: Because of the quality assurance and related regulatory matters, procedures were more formalized and practices standardized. There has been evidence of better documentation of courses and students’ requirement made clearer. One could also see the emergence of new monitoring and review arrangements. By the same token data collection and analysis have become more systematic. The UK has in the 1990s

moved from the discipline to the whole-institutions approach to quality evaluations (OECD, 2008). One noticeable change seen within the institution is the managers have been increasingly entrusted with new responsibilities for quality and evaluation.

Student level: The main quality indicator must be seen in the programme beneficiaries, the students. Similar to other experiences, it is not clear how the UK quality assurance has improved the learning experiences of the students. A strength seen is a marked improvement in the teaching. Mechanisms and procedures of quality assurance have taken into account of the students' views and feedback to improve quality of the programme and services in general. However, more prompt and stern actions on students' feedback and complaints are still to be evident. To the benefit of the students courses are better documented and their objectives and expectations of the students are made clear.

Societal level: At the national level, the effects of the evaluation system are seen to reinforce already existing strategies in higher education institutions. The grading of subject and research assessment of various universities and their subsequent publication provide a platform for comparison and they again reinforce reputational hierarchies. To some institutes it adds credence. A remarkable effect of the external evaluation systems is it necessitated continuous government support to higher education institutions. Individual institutions' performance and their standing could help or bar from financial support from the government. This increased the demand for having effective mechanisms of accountability to justify the vast sum of public money the HEIs use (QAA, 2006).

In retrospect, some professional bodies continue using mechanisms which have existed for decades. Attempts to integrate their procedures with those of the QAA guidelines do not appear to have achieved much (Brennan & Williams, 2004). The UK QAA is seen

as a body that brings together the accreditation and evaluation schemes for “collegial accountability and self-improvement” (Davies, Douglas & Douglas (2007, p. 3). Institutional audit appears to focus on ensuring and safeguarding the quality and standards of its awards.

The Australian Quality Assurance Model

Lately, Australia has taken major policy initiatives to assure quality in higher education. One such initiative was the establishment of the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) (Lim, 2008) in March 2000. Its policy provides a broad framework within which elements and constituencies for quality assurance can be accommodated. This section entails the need for an agency, mechanisms of the procedures, and suggestive models of quality assurance.

Australian initiatives on quality assurance

Australia has policies and practices in place for assuring quality in higher education, but most appear to have remained an individual institution’s affairs. One of the mechanisms concerns the Australian Vice-Chancellors’ Committee (AVCC). This committee has however, changed to Universities Australia in 2007. Most of the universities are members of AVCC. The committee has been entrusted with organized discipline reviews to assist in addressing quality issues.

In the last decade (1990s-2000s), the move has been more towards a national approach out of which emerged a nationally agreed framework known as Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF). Within this framework, institutions can accredit their own awards by listings on the registers of the AQF (Vidovich, 2002). Another useful practice relates to encouraging innovation and good practice, including ‘excellence in university teaching’, an initiative aimed at strengthening quality at the higher education.

The other initiative taken by Australia to improve quality teaching in higher education is the institution of the Australian Learning and Teaching Council (ALTC). The council develops networks for sharing ideas, creates a repository of good practice, recognizes, rewards and supports teachers who make a difference in students learning experiences (Australian Learning and Teaching Council, 2008). In a similar vein, institutions also share their annual plan for quality improvement geared towards achieving the same purpose.

To validate existing quality assurance practices, a number of studies were commissioned. For example Harman and Meek's (2000) study, points to one important need, a need for a more systematic, coherent and searching procedures of quality assurance. This led to a revised Australian quality assurance system, an agency of the national level standing with two broad tasks: the audit process and its relationship to institutional quality; and ownership and funding of the new agency. One of the mechanisms to materialize quality is through reviews with trust:

Peer review audits are a valuable means of bringing about quality improvements. They depend on complex professional relationships and consequently on the kinds of trust which are built on a deep engagement with mutual concerns and shared values (Skilbeck & Connell, 2000, p.11).

Thus the ethics of peer review holds a twin principle of 'trust' and 'verification'. According to Skilbeck and Connell (2000), stakeholders, whether students or funding agencies, like to see value in any framework being proposed considering process important while the ultimate objective is improving outcomes. Any program and system or model initiated to assure its quality should benefit the end beneficiaries and/or customers with an added value. The concept of quality discussed elsewhere as fitness of purpose and fitness for purpose comes to the fore again, the purpose of the program or services being provided and whether or not it fits the users or it is relevant.

One of the weaknesses of any higher education worldwide has been the minimal role of the students in relation to quality assurance. Findings of studies show a need for a deliberate attempt in maximizing the role of students not only in assuring quality but also in the development of programs.

A more recent study by Harman (2003) suggests reviews can take place at two levels: Institutional reviews and Discipline reviews. The former is the responsibility of the University and encompass system at large. The latter concerns the specific subjects which reviews at the department and faculty levels. Many countries opt for one of the reviews while some go for both.

Some of the review tools used include: Course experience questionnaire, Graduate Destination Survey (e.g. what graduates do after graduation, average salary), and performance indicator. To this effect, universities are required to submit Quality Assurance and Improvement Plans by outlining goals, strategies, and outcomes in key areas of teaching and learning, research, community service and management (Harman, 2003).

At the broader level, review can be done by benchmarking. Similar tools can be employed, such as Course Experience Questionnaire, the Postgraduate Research Experience Questionnaire, and Tests of Graduate Skills. The purpose is to compare with a similar or sister institute and the disciplines. Harman (2003) suggests some areas of comparison that could be considered: compare with other comparable institutions within the country, compare with other countries with similar characteristics, compare quantitative data, achievement of students, share strategies for improvement quality with sister institutes, identify weaknesses to improve, and visit each other. Benchmarking would allow gauging where one stands in comparison to another similar institution.

Australia has at the national level, the Australian Qualifications Framework that governs all educational standards and qualifications. Universities are responsible for their own academic standards and internal quality assurance process. However, a university wide quality assurance body, “Australian Universities Quality Agency”, conducts periodic audits of Universities and State Territory accrediting agencies (Harman, 2003). The Commonwealth provides supplementary mechanisms, including quality assurance and improvement plans, performance data, graduate outcomes, and graduate destinations survey. Similarly, States and Territories are responsible for accreditation of non-self-accrediting institutions within their states using national protocols.

Lessons to be learned

Much of the framework on quality assurance and methods has been borrowed from the European continent. They are diverse as each country has a distinct quality assurance approach. The Australian model has been modified for employment across the whole country. A lesson from Australia is its dynamism in quality assurance mechanisms which are changing and improving with a belief and practice that education is an industry, and it is exported. This perspective appears to exert a significant influence on making the models ‘user and customer friendly’.

Quality Assurance Movements in the United States

The accreditation structure in the US has three main organizations: Regional organizations, National organizations and Specialized and Professional organizations (Bogue & Saunders 1992; Brennan & Williams (2004). There are clear purposes of the Accreditation. They are to (1) indicate quality, (2) assist with access to US federal funds, (3) ease transfer and (4) engender employer conference.

The US accreditation scheme has five key features to make it operational, namely (a) institutional or programme self-study, (b) use of peer review, (c) reliance on site visit, (d) accreditation action, and (e) periodic external review (Bogue & Saunders 1992; Eaton 2001). In many ways it is similar to the visitation scheme followed in some European countries under quality assurance system.

The institutions being accredited are made accountable by using the five recognition standards of advance academic quality, demonstrate accountability, encourage purposeful change and needed improvement, employ appropriate and fair procedures in decision-making, and continually reassess accreditation practices. The main agenda of accrediting agencies has been the quality improvement: “During the 1980s and 1990s, as accountability policies were developing at the state level, accrediting agencies exerted independent pressure on institutions of higher education to improve performance and quality” (Eaton 2001; Ewell 1993 in Khawas, 2005, p. 291).

As discussed, the three accreditation structures must play active roles. It is the responsibility of the national organizations to make site visits and review the higher education institutions at the regional level. In the same vein, they also review the specialized and professional organizations.

Lessons to be learned

It recently appears the accreditation encountered some challenges. There have been pressures on the scheme; there is more demand to make the stakeholders concerned accountable. From some quarters there has been a loud call to make reviews and decisions more public in order the decision makers may become more accountable. While the process of accreditation is important, the public would like to see it becoming more outcomes focused. In other words, there should be more visible outcomes of the visit and peer reviews.

However, since the main element of accreditation is a system of self-review, it has been a powerful force for continuity in US higher education. Billing (2004) who conducted a study to compare quality assurance models reported self-evaluation and self-regulatory activity to be in place in most systems. Through review it has been made possible to gauge student learning outcomes, and student information needs.

Lao PDR (Asia) Quality Assurance Model

As discussed teacher education in all countries researched by level and/or by programme is part of higher education. The Teacher Education Programmes of Lao People's Democratic Republic is a case in point.

Among other divisions within the Department of Teacher Education (DTE) of the Lao Ministry of Education, Teacher Education Evaluation Division (TEED) is established. There are also In-service and Pre-service Teacher Education Divisions within the department with a director heading each division. A clear line of communications and chain of command is established among the Directors, Deputy Directors and other office bearers of the department and divisions. The TEED is mandated with responsibilities of carrying out monitoring, evaluation and providing support services related to teacher education programmes in the country. Specifically the TEED is responsible for direction and management of Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the country through external monitoring evaluation of QA implementation bi-annually (Young, 2007).

A Quality Assurance Handbook developed in consultation with stakeholders from the Lao PDR Ministry of Education, TEED and other appears to be comprehensive. The main objectives of the Quality Assurance appear to be to ensure public accountability for the quality of teacher training and stimulate continuous improvement in the quality

of provision. It also has specified some realistic objectives entailing public information, policy, funding and quality linkage and compliance with statutory requirement. The expected outcome of the Quality Assurance System is:

The QA procedure provides an invaluable opportunity for teacher training providers' to evaluate their own quality improvement. Processes of self-evaluation and peer evaluation provide further opportunities for individual professional development and quality improvement (Young, 2007, p. 4).

There is strong a relationship between internal and external evaluation procedures.

The Quality Assurance procedures of Internal Evaluation and External Evaluation for Lao PDR Teacher Education Institutions have a number of teams and members. They are briefly discussed next. The internal evaluation team comprises the (1) Team Leader, (2) A representative of the TEI council, (3) A representative of the administrative staff, (4) A representative of the academic staff, (5) A representative of the trainee teachers, (6) A representative of the mass organization, and (7) Representative of the concerned offices.

The main tasks of the Internal Monitoring Evaluation Team are to be familiarized with the aims and objectives of the evaluation, the QA procedures, their role, tasks, the importance of teamwork and rules of conduct and understanding of self-evaluation procedures. Other task of the team is to thoroughly prepare for the visit of the external evaluation team. To this effect, they are to make sure all concerned staff members participate in the self-evaluation review process, as this is a valuable opportunity for staff professional development. They are also to prepare with qualitative and quantitative evidences of the institute. A summary report of the evaluation is also to be prepared by the team. The frequency of the evaluation is bi-annual. The visits, dissemination of findings through reports and follow up actions, are to take place twice a year.

Similarly, the external evaluation team members are composed of (1) Team Leader: a member of the TEED staff, (2) A representative of the Inspection Committee, (3) A representative of concerned departments at MOE, (4) Peer Evaluator: a TEI manager from another TEI, (5) A representative of Ministry of Finance, and (6) A representative of concerned ministry. It is noteworthy, that the team is represented by a wider sector of the society.

The main tasks set for the External Monitoring Evaluation Team are they should be familiarized with: the aims and objectives of the evaluation, the procedures, their role, tasks, the importance of teamwork and rules of conduct and techniques for assimilating data, analysis, testing hypotheses, forming judgements and preparing reports. Specifically, the task can be presented in three phases: before, during and after/post evaluation visit. They are summarized as follows.

Table 2.4 Three phase tasks of the External Monitoring and Evaluation Team

Phase	Main Tasks
Before	Contact institutions and confirm the evaluation dates and duration, Check previous records of the institutions, Prepare pre-evaluation briefing notes, Identify particular focus for each bi-annual evaluation,
During	Meet the director, discuss the evaluation process and focus of evaluation, Meet the Internal Monitoring Evaluation Team and discuss the Internal Evaluation Summary Report, Team meetings occur and decide the focus of the 2 nd day, Looks for quality assuring evidences as the focus of evaluation, Come to final and agreed decisions about the institution's performance and its overall effectiveness, Completes evaluation summary, provides corrective actions and a list of recommendations to the institutions, Provides a timeline of follow up actions to be completed, By the end of 2 nd day Lead Evaluator provides oral feedback to the senior managers of the TEI, Normally the visit lasts for about two days,
Post/After	The Lead Evaluator completes the report in the following day, The Director, TEED checks the report, gives comments and the final version of the report is prepared with amendments incorporated, The QA Manager checks and TEED Director signs the final report to the TEI, within a month of the external evaluation with copies to ministries, departments, and divisions concerned, TEI completes corrective actions within the stipulated times with evidences, The follow up actions taken is recorded in the Final Report file in TEED, The action taken is included in the Pre-Evaluation Briefing notes in the next cycle of evaluation,

Source: Adapted from Young, 2007

The evaluation report should have three main documents namely (1) the Internal Monitoring Evaluation Summary, (2) the External Monitoring Evaluation Summary and (3) QA Evaluation Report. The QA Evaluation Report contains detailed information of the external team members with names, designation, experiences and so on.

A set of criteria is used to make decisions on the performance of the institutions. The following grading system is used as a guideline and these criteria for decisions are also discussed and agreed in the final meeting of the internal and external monitoring evaluation teams.

Table 2.5 Criteria for deciding quality performance

Grade	Description	Characteristics of Progress
4	Excellent	Very good or excellent achievement in most or all activities
3	Good	Good achievement in most or all activities
2	Satisfactory	Some achievement in most or all of the activities and indication that good achievement will be made within the planned time schedule
1	Inadequate	Poor achievement in most or all the activities and little indication that satisfactory progress will be made within the planned schedule

Source: Adapted from Young (2007)

Lessons to be learned

One may see over ambitiousness in its frequency. In some of the European countries, the visitation takes place once in three to six years while the Lao proposes bi-annually. This is likely to result in external evaluation fatigue in due course. The other area is the need to increase the value of internal evaluation report and its findings. There is also a need to focus on the discipline along side the institutional evaluation. Too frequent evaluation may not allow the institutions sufficient time for follow up actions.

Summary

Establishing a firm grounding of theoretical perspectives is useful and important for understanding a number of existing scenarios. This chapter presented a wide range of

definitions of quality in general and of education in particular. A particular reference has been made to quality in higher education. While a popular definition is fitness for purpose, there are several synonyms to quality: superiority, excellence, standard, and achievement.

A major part of the chapter dealt with quality and assurance models employed in various regions of the world. Two concepts and ideas come to the forefront to explain quality assurance: Accreditation scheme and Quality Assurance system or arrangement. They differed in definitions, purposes and approach, but accreditation is used as an approach within the QA. Evaluation seems to cut across the QA and AS and is also a part of overall QA. While some countries are inclined to QA others show preference for AS, while many adopt both portraying a blurring picture. Similarly, some countries prefer either institutional review or the disciplinary review. Some accommodate both.

Funding appears to be an incentive and regulatory tool employed by many governments. There is a dynamic tension between funding and quality that may result in the autonomy and independence of higher education institutions being compromised in exchange for dollars. In the wake of increasing accountability; usually initiated by external pressure, the essence of professional autonomy is weakened.

The appropriateness of a quality assurance model or models in higher education is determined by the socio economic and education development of individual countries. Chapter Three explores Initial Teacher Education models of selected countries.

Chapter Three

INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING MODELS: GLOBAL EXPERIENCES

This chapter presents an overview of teacher education models found in selected countries with a special focus on the pre-service teacher education or initial teacher training. Since there is a thin line in the usage of these terminologies: pre-service/initial and training/education (Blake & Landsdell, 2000) they will be used interchangeably throughout this study. The discussion canvasses the advantages and disadvantages of various models and factors which affect their effectiveness.

An analysis of teacher education models of countries including, England, Wales, Australia and the United States of America as well as countries in South Asia and South East Asia reveal ‘best practices’ worth of adaptation in Bhutan. The purpose for selecting these countries is to represent developed countries (the United Kingdom, Australia, Japan and US) and developing countries in Asia (India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, China, Malaysia, and Bangladesh). An attempt has been made to present a regional representation of Europe in section one, Asia in section two, Australia in section three and America in section four. Although, a region has a number of diverse countries with a wide range of education systems and teacher training programmes, Initial Teacher Training (ITT) models of selected countries are discussed.

Section One

The United Kingdom Experiences

The focus of this section is teacher education in the UK, namely England and Wales. It is important to acknowledge the history of Bhutan's modern education system which is based on the Indian education system that was largely influenced by the British education system. English has been the medium of instruction in Bhutan since the 1960s. The literature review of teacher education in England and Wales between 1950s-1990s reveals a series of major policy changes and reforms (Reed, 1994).

In the *1950s*, two-year certificate courses were introduced in teacher training colleges with the intention to bring about improved changes in teaching and learning. The *1960s* saw the introduction of 2-year and 4-year Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) courses, also known as honours (Crook, 2002). For non-first degree holders (non-graduates), the B.Ed courses were introduced with two exits, one after two years and one after four years. Through the two-year B.Ed student teachers were expected to choose and specialize in one subject from among the options available (such as business education, design and technology, mathematics, modern foreign languages, music and science). The course also encompassed education and teaching studies (Elliott, Park & Holliday, 1994). The four-year B.Ed offered student teachers two subject areas: design and technology and business education. Unlike the two-year B.Ed, the recruits for the four-year B.Ed were not confined to new graduates from high school but also a "significant number of students in the 25-40 age range who have been employed in business and industry" (Elliott, Park & Holliday, 1994, pp. 105-106). The students had the opportunity to receive hands-on training through practical school and industrial placements.

In the *1970s* non-university teacher training institutions were upgraded to colleges of education. A notable change in this period was the entry level to teacher training was raised to graduates with first degree, “In 1972, recommendations from the James report, meant teaching was to become an-graduate profession” (Robinson, 2006, p. 6). This change according to Reid (1994) had an impact in the conceptualization of the teacher from merely a classroom craftsperson to the one of an educated person, equipped with knowledge and ability to apply in the teaching. The *1980s-1990s* (Mutton & Butcher, 2008) to the present have been decades when the teaching profession received attention as the government initiated changes in teacher education more so than in other professions and more compared to preceding decades. The decade also witnessed a severe shortage of teachers (Furlong et al., 2000). The low status of the teaching profession contributed to low recruitment and resulted in a shortage. It appears the societal image of the teaching profession together with inadequate financial support and lack of government initiatives contributed to the perceived low status of the profession. Reid (1994) shares one such observation, “the status of teaching is related to the status of children in society and hence, by association, teachers are given lower status than professional working with adults” (p. 4).

At this time the one-year Post-Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) for primary schools was introduced (Crook, 2002; Robinson, 2006). The main aim was to improve teacher competency in primary schools. Her Majesty’s Inspectorate (HMI) reports reveal a quarter of primary teachers and one-tenth of secondary teachers the HMI had observed, exhibited insecurity about the subjects they were teaching (Fidler, 1994). The report suggested teachers, with particular reference to B.Ed graduates, lacked subject knowledge. For example, “The B.Ed was a hybrid of educational studies (variously interpreted), teaching practice and the main subject study appeared to sacrifice depth for

breadth”... (Bridge, 1996, p. 55) and Hartley (1998) described B.Ed trained teachers as the “de-intellectualization of teacher education” (p. 70).

The PGCE (Evans, 2008) on the other hand suffered a significant withdrawal of students. Sands and Bishop (1994) conducted a research on “why students withdrew from PGCE courses” using both interviews and questionnaires as data collection instruments. Their report of six years study (1988-1994) on withdrawals ranged from 4.4%-12.3%. The dominant reasons as per students included; the profession was too demanding, needed a lot of preparations, there was plenty of out of school work, huge amount of paper work, time needed in travel between home and school, a need to make worksheets, and compounding these reasons were inadequate facilities (Sands & Bishop, 1994; McPhee, Forde & Skelton, 2003). They go on to state the reasons given by students for leaving the profession revealed they did not like the profession. “About half the first term’s withdrawals are the results of difficulties experienced in the classroom or a dawning of the demands teaching make” (p. 175).

The reasons cited by Heads of schools for the withdrawal were in contrast to the students. Heads said the teachers lacked ideas or enthusiasm, poor time keeping, inability to listen to advice, inadequate preparation, and lack of commitment (Carring & Tymms, 1994; Sands & Bishop, 1994). The literature suggest students needed time to make a decision which necessitated they had to be in the situation for a sufficient amount of time. A professional responsibility of the Heads of schools was to motivate teachers to believe in the profession and to appreciate the joy of working with children.

The UK faced a teacher shortage in the 1980s-1990s which led to policy initiatives focused on recruitment in the 1990s-2000s (Mutton & Butcher, 2008). By the mid 1990s the country had seen a period of stable recruitment with the introduction of new

initiatives, including, ‘Articled Teacher Scheme’ and ‘Licensed Teacher Scheme’ which are subsequently discussed.

Articled Teacher Scheme (ATS)

This model was a two-year school based Post-Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) wherein students were required to be in the schools at least 80% of their time. It was a partnership scheme established between the local education authorities and the higher education institutions. It was a generously funded experiment and included, school-based mentors paid for their work with teacher trainees in schools.

Furlong et al (2000) put the scheme as “writing on the wall” (p. 54), by which they meant the scheme lasted for a short while. Fundamentally, it was different in terms of quality compared to the conventional PGCE model. Financially, it cost the government significantly. ATS came to an end in 1994 however, it laid the foundation for more school based training. Though short-lived, the ATS gave direction to the establishment of a more practical and professionally oriented form of initial teacher education. In the same vein, it was realized; schools could take on a far greater responsibility in initial teacher training because schools tended to be passive. As stated, “On that already tense climate of low staff morale, it is understandable that more and more schools will find excuses for not receiving novice teachers in their schools” (Downes, 1996, p. 85).

The Table 3.1 below shows the availability of alternative routes to qualified teacher status in the early 1990s in the UK.

Table 3.1 Alternative routes to qualified teacher status available in 1991-1992

Routes and award	Length	Distinctive features
1. Shortened B.Ed	2 years	For students with relevant experience and at least one year's successful higher education study
2. Shortened BA/BSc (QTS)	3 years	Reduced emphasis on certain aspects of subject study
1. Part-time PGCE	2 years	Mostly secondary shortage subjects
2. Conversion PGCE	2 years	Mostly secondary shortage subjects. Students had a degree in a subject other than that for which they were training
3. Articled Teacher Scheme (PGCE)	2 years	Students spent 80% of their time in schools and 20% of their time in the higher education institution
Licensed Teachers Scheme	2 years	Licensed teachers based full time in schools with release for training. Can be non-graduates

Source: Adapted from Furlong et al (2000).

The Licensed Teacher Scheme (LTS)

The Licensed Teacher Scheme (LTS) was another government initiative. This scheme allowed the waiver of the requirement to have a recognized teaching qualification. To meet the basic eligibility criteria for the LTS, candidates had to be a minimum of 24 years of age with at least 2 years of unspecified higher education. Upon meeting these criteria he/she was to be licensed up to 2 years. The other condition was the employer had not only to give training to the licensee but decided what type of training. With this understanding, recruits were appointed to a paid position.

The main purpose of the scheme was to streamline non-standard entry routes. According to Galvin (1994) the scheme had initial successes but was subjected to sustained criticism. There criticism was, the scheme was initiated to solve the teacher shortage problem. The LTS was a foundation period for the candidates to be admitted to a Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). At the end of two years, the teachers of the LTS were subject to assessment for the award of the QTS (Blake & Landsdell, 2000; Evans & Waring, 2006).

Assessment of the scheme was not promising in terms of costs, quality of training and variation in the implementation of the scheme across the country. Most teachers were poorly qualified and most were non-graduates with two-thirds of the licensees being

women. The other purpose, the scheme appeared to have achieved was it secured the qualification of overseas trained teachers. The licensing model to initial teacher training initiative was perceived as a “political rather than professionally led initiative” (Galvin, 1994, p. 62). Recent literature is highly critical of the hiring teachers under licensing scheme:

Teacher licensure is a regime where schools are forbidden from hiring teachers who have not completed a program of study in a teacher education and/or other requirements... Perhaps the most important conclusion is that it is very likely that a regime of teacher licensure would lower teacher quality and student achievement (Aris & Scafidi, 2009, p. 1). In the UK, the debate of preference for Licensed Teacher Scheme continued for a decade after its implementation.

Models of integration: Professionalism reformed

Both the ATS and LTS served useful purposes and provided insights for policy makers and implementers of teacher education programs. While both were intended to depart from the traditional and/or conventional model of teacher education, there were some conceptual differences between them. At the initial stage, the scheme proved to be expensive but with the implementation within the school system, the programme became sustainable as schools became responsible for the scheme. On a different note, the Licensed Teacher Scheme raised concerns amongst the general public and higher education providers, in particular:

The fact that this route provided a legitimate way to gain qualified teacher status without a degree and without taking part in a training programme organised through higher education was itself extremely significant. It certainly served publicly to undermine the claim that forms of knowledge traditionally made available through higher education were a necessary part of professional preparation (Furlong et al, 2000, p.59).

The impact of LTS for teacher professionalism remained ideological. Both the ATS and LTS initiated in Great Britain had bearings on teacher professionalism. One became a sustained program inbuilt within the schools system; the other challenged the

responsibility of higher education providing teacher education programs. One argued, whether or not there was any role for the higher education institutions, namely the university, to train teachers. What emerged from these schemes were models of integration options and middle paths for the beneficiaries to choose. By some counts there was a reformation of the teaching profession.

Table 3.2 Models of integration and partnership in initial teacher education

		Integrated models				
Traditional HEI-led models	X	HEI-led/school-focused agenda	Weak school base A	Strong school base C	New school-led models	Y
		Jointly led/joint agenda	B	D		

Source: Adapted from Furlong et al (2000).

As discussed, partnership and integration between higher education institutions and schools in teacher training began to gain momentum as a result of teacher education reforms in the UK. Table 3.2 provides a range of models with theoretical possibilities. Model X is the higher education institution agenda; whereas Model Y at the other extreme is a school agenda wherein school issues discussed seem to predominate. The traditional belief is, the higher education institution was the source of all knowledge and schools played secondary roles in initial teacher education. Model Y emerged as a result of government initiative in the 1990s. The LTS was a case in point. Models A and C present some degree of integration although both schools and higher education institutions have weak and strong base in certain agenda. The models suggest B and D have strong integration between school and university with equal share of responsibilities. Any program initiative is not only proposed but also executed jointly. However, the question of who takes the lead role in the initial teacher training still remains a debate. Drever and Cope (1999) presents one such dilemma, “The location of initial teacher education (ITE) within higher education (HE) indicates a belief that becoming a teacher involves more than learning skills on the job. But the teacher

education has wrestled for decades with the problem of defining of the theoretical dimension of ITE courses” (p. 3).

The debate about the quality of teacher education was a subset of the larger and general debate about quality in Higher Education (Graham & Barnett, 1999). A number of institutions were set up as models for quality controls to ensure quality particularly for the Initial Teacher Training (McPhee, Forde & Skelton, 2003). Among these were Teacher Training Agency (TTA), which changed its name to Training and Development Agency for School in 2005 (Mutton & Butcher, 2008), Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC), Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) (Blake & Landsdell, 2000), Qualified Teacher Status (QTS), Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), and Her Majesty’s Inspectorate (HMI). An explanation of each of these agencies is not considered pertinent within the purview of this study. However, these initiatives in Britain provided useful lessons, which Graham & Barnett (1999) state:

... those models differ over the extent to which their sponsors are agents of the state or are responsive to the academics as providers; and over the extent to which the evaluation processes which the models entail are dialogical. Given the varying character of those external systems, with contrasting ideological underpinnings, institutions at best are in difficulty in framing a coherent quality system of their own and, at worst, where excessively bureaucratic or state-controlled systems operate, they may not be able to maintain rigour and consistency in their own quality systems (p. 175).

The literature suggests the integration models would work best at professional and academic levels, but there can be conflicts with administrative and financial matters (Graham & Barnett, 1999). Usually, higher education institutions and universities are autonomous organizations and there is a great degree of independence both, administratively and financially. On the other hand, schools function within the authority and regulations of the central, state and local governments. These authorities have administrative and financial control over the schools. Professional and academic matters are often difficult to separate from administrative and managerial requirements

of a whole organization. So, a point to emphasize is the importance of ‘whole school’ and ‘whole higher education institution’ approach to integration and partnership. The whole school and/or whole institution is to include academic matters, financial aspects and any element that makes up an organization, rather than addressing one of them in a partnership and integration pursuit.

Partnership programmes

The strength of the UK experience lies in the “Partnership” between the schools and the colleges of education which entailed “course design, management, delivery assessment and evaluation” (Blake & Landsdell, 2000, p. 6). The partnership appears to have facilitated effective implementation of the teacher training program and at the same time assured sustainability (Whitehead, Foster & Blight, 1994). Fidler suggests an advantage, “A pattern which involved the alternation between short periods in school and short periods in HEI each week were more likely to be conducive to reflection on practice than longer periods in school alone” (Fidler, 1994, p. 24). For example, faculty staff as link tutors or mentors for a cluster of schools was adopted for secondary PGCE.

However, the partnership was not without complications and challenges according to research report by Whitehead, Foster and Blight, (1994). The report states that one challenge was the need for the school-based partners to understand their changed role as jointly delivering higher education courses rather than just supporting their students while working in the schools. Second, Higher Education Institutions needed to understand they were taking up part of the roles of the schools through extended quality control and quality assurance procedures. This was in line with students’ entitlement to a high quality course. Yet a third challenge was in securing adequate number of partnership schools versus the number of PGCE students. Some schools were not in a position to take up responsibilities of partnership. For example, many were small size

primary schools and the lack of non-contact time for teachers made it impossible to become partners in the training.

A major concern raised by educational critics on the initial teacher training through partnership programme was the partnership might either provide or impair educational and professional development of the graduates. The issue was raised in light of education's wider societal role and McCulloch cautioned, "deskilling of the teaching profession... is deskilling of the society itself" (1994, p. 7). The initiatives, 'School centered schemes' or 'Partnership schemes' if not implemented properly, had potential to "de-intellectualize the education of teachers" (p. 10). On a similar note Mutton and Butcher (2008) observes that schools simultaneously work across and within a number of different ITT partnerships. The multiple partners seem to cause administrative difficulties both for schools and student teachers placed there (Edwards & Mutton, 2007).

The ITT partnership encompassed two levels: PGCE and the training of secondary teachers and PGCE and the training of primary teachers. The needs and experiences of each level had similarities and differences. Harrison and Gaunt (1994) had this to say in relation to the PGCE and the training of secondary teachers, "Links-partnership- greater understanding of the community, people's skills, styles of management, better communication, and mutual regard" (p. 57). Partnership experiences thus, seem to have enriched both the parties in terms of theory and practice. The initiative seems to have considered reform of teacher education from a systemic point of view (Robinson, 2006; Ostinelli, 2009). Stakeholders share their experiences in regards to the PGCE and the training of primary teachers, "We make a considerable effort to arrange meetings between schools and university staff to plan and evaluate different aspects of the course.

...we invite school colleagues to the university to meet us and the students to exchange information”... (Whitehead, Foster, & Blight, 1994, p. 44).

Thus, the partnership is more than a link; it is a joint commitment, involving time, effort, resources, and a venture to produce joint benefits. One such observation was made by Her Majesty’s Inspectorate which reported, “The quality of school-based training and assessment is good overall and often very good in the case of the PGCE courses” (Swansea Institute of Higher Education, 2003, p. 3).

Section Two

The Asian models

This section presents Initial Teacher Training Models of East and South Asia. Preliminary reviews of the ITT programmes of selected countries reveal their dynamism and relevance to identification of best practice. Bhutan’s teacher education model(s) is not discussed here as it is presented in Chapter Four as a part of Bhutanese Higher Education system.

South East Asia

Countries considered are Japan, Korea, Malaysia, China and Singapore. Most of these countries aspire to a graduate qualification as the entry level into initial teacher training.

Leung (2003) presents the “B.Ed” (Bachelor of Education) Model versus the “B.A. (Bachelor of Arts) /B.Sc. (Bachelor of Science) + PGCE” (Post Graduate Certificate in Education) Model in the South East Asian countries. Comparative analysis shows the B.A./B.Sc + PGCE Model as having more strengths as it is expected to provide a solid background in the subject matter besides exposing the students to different subjects during their undergraduate studies. The strength is seen in providing students time to

make choices (Leung, 2003; UNESCO, 2006). These countries have requirement of training qualification as per the levels of schooling system. For example, Japan's system requires teachers to possess relevant teaching certificates of two grades: first class and second class, and for two levels of schooling: pre-school to lower secondary and upper secondary. The teachers need a bachelor's degree as a basic qualification to earn the first class certificate to teach in pre-school, elementary school and lower secondary schools (Sato & Ushiwata, 1990). Second class certificate holders require two years of study in a college or other post secondary institutions. The Japanese system requires masters degree for a first class certificate and bachelor's degree for a second class certificate to be eligible to teach in upper secondary schools (Sato & Ushiwata, 1990, p. 35). By law initial teacher training and certification is mandatory in Japanese education system:

All current Japanese teachers must; under the Educational Personnel Certification Law of 1949, hold relevant teaching certificates and in high schools these certificates apply to specific subject areas. There are three classes of teaching certificate: advanced, first and second. There are two routes into teaching: the first by a 2-year course at a junior college, and the second by a 4-year course at a university (Lamie, 1998, p. 521).

Prospective teachers are also required to have studied educational subjects, practiced teaching and be competent in teaching these subjects. Interested teachers are required to go through recruitment examinations in these three main areas, and sit for interviews and practical tests. Japanese system has a clear line of roles of teacher training in that teacher educators at universities are responsible for pre-service teacher education encompassing: theoretical education, pedagogy and subject matter, whereas in-service education programmes are managed by educational administration agencies (Lamie, 1998).

Pre-service teacher education in China also follows similar pathways in that Guo (2005) reports China to having three types of ITT programs. One is a four-year first-degree program offered at teachers' universities or colleges for secondary schoolteachers. The other is a two-year certificate program for junior secondary schoolteachers and is

offered at junior teachers' colleges. Entrance requirement for these programs is the completion of senior secondary school by the age of 19. In addition to two programs mentioned above there is also a two-three year teacher education programs for elementary schools and kindergarten levels (Guo, 2005). Eligible candidates for this program are those who completed junior middle school usually by the age of 16. In the Chinese approach to ITT these programs are part of higher education system except elementary grade teachers' programs. They are considered part of the secondary professional training system and thus there is a distinction of elementary/kindergarten, primary and secondary levels (Zhan, 2008). Similar experiences faced by other countries, that is, teacher shortages, recruitment and retention of quality teachers are reported to be pressing issues faced by China as well. The Chinese government has constantly been engaging in teacher education reforms to address pressing issues (Shi & Englert, 2008).

Malaysia embraces a dual system to teacher training, involving two institutions. The Ministry of Education is responsible for the training of non-graduate teachers who are prepared mainly to teach in primary and lower secondary schools (Lee, 2002). On the other hand public universities are responsible for the training of graduate teachers for secondary schools only. The universities employ two models, one with consecutive and the other with concurrent programmes. The consecutive programme is a one-year PG Diploma whereas the concurrent programme is a four year undergraduate programme in which students study education courses namely psychology, teaching pedagogy, and at the same time their academic studies. Lee (2002) maintains the Ministry of Education has a predominant influence on the teacher training programmes offered by universities in terms of types of programmes, length of programme, and student intake. In sum,

Malaysia offers non-graduate certificate level, four-year undergraduate B.Ed level and one-year postgraduate level of initial teacher training.

South Asia

Initial Teacher Education models of South Asia considered are those of Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. These countries offer a number of pre-service teacher training programmes. Some models are similar while others are unique in respective countries and they may be categorized into three main levels namely Non-degree, Undergraduate and Postgraduate. Each one of these is briefly described.

Non-degree level: These countries have non-graduate initial teacher training courses except Sri Lanka. Although most of the models were common in the early 1990s or earlier they still exist in some of the states.

Bangladesh has two non-degree models: Certificate in Education (1-year Certificate in Ed.), and the Higher Certificate in Education (1-year Higher Certificate in Ed). The graduates of these models are assigned to teach in the primary schools specifically grades first through five. Training takes place in the Primary Training Institutes. Entry requirement is a minimum of Secondary School Certificate (Nath & Chowdhury, 2000; Secretariat, 1993). Quality education is a concern in Bangladesh and factors of concern include; the limited number of contact hours, surge in enrolments, poor motivation of teachers (Behrman, Deolalikar & Soon, 2002) and low literacy rate of the general population (Mushtaque, Chowdhury, Nath & Chowdhury, 2003).

India also has a number of non-degree teacher training programmes. The courses range from Nursery/Primary, Elementary, and Junior Basic Training to Multi-category for Special Education. The duration of these courses is one to two years. The entry qualification requirement differs from state to state. However, generally the enrollees

have passed the Matriculation, Higher/Senior Secondary, or Intermediate Certificate examinations (Kochhar, 2004).

Pakistan also offers two Certificate level ITT. One is the Primary Teaching Certificate which involves one year of academic training with matriculation as the required entry qualification. The graduates of this course are expected to teach Classes I-V in the school system. The other is Certificate in Teaching. The duration of the course is also one year academic year but the entry qualification is a pass in the Intermediate examination. The graduates are expected to teach Classes I-VIII in a school system (Secretariat, 1993).

Undergraduate level: It is apparent all four countries have initial teacher training courses at undergraduate level. Three-Year Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) is offered to students who have Intermediate or General Education Certificate or grade 12 from high schools (Khaparde, 2002). The same model trains two levels of teachers, one for teaching in secondary schools and the other in Primary/elementary schools (Rajput & Walia, 2001). A one year B.Ed is also offered to candidates with B.A./B.Sc degrees. The programme offered is undergraduate, but the students undergoing the course already have the first degree. The graduates of this training programme are expected to teach Classes VI-X.

Postgraduate level: The South Asian ITT models have courses at postgraduate levels. Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) is offered for secondary schools as well as for primary school teachers. This level also includes M.A. Education, Master of Science Education, and M.Ed. (Dyer, 2005).

Tables 3.3 and 3.4 below are the initial teacher training models available in India and Pakistan. They are presented to represent the South Asian approaches. As can be seen, three levels of Non-degree, Undergraduate and Postgraduate are distinct in the tables.

Table 3.3 Teacher Training programmes in Pakistan

Programme of Training	Entry Qualification	Training duration	Classes to teach
Primary Teachers Certificate (PTC)	Matriculation	I academic year	I-V
Certificate in Teaching (CT)	Intermediate	I academic year	I-VIII
Bachelor of Education (B.Ed, 12+3)	Intermediate	3 academic years	VI-X
Bachelor of Education (B.Ed, 14+1)	BA/BSc	1 academic year	VI-X
Master of Education (M.Ed)	B.Ed	1 academic year	VI-XII +Supervision
Master of Art (MA) Education	BA/BSc	2 academic years	VI-XII +Supervision

Source: Adapted from Commonwealth Secretariat (1993)

The training of elementary and primary school teachers are conducted by the district where as the secondary school teachers trained by colleges and University Faculty of Education (Rajput & Walia 2001; Khaparde, (2002).

Table 3.4 Initial Teacher Training models in India

Course	Stage trained for	Duration	Entry qualification	Selection Criteria
Nursery/Primary	Pre-primary	1-2 years	Matriculation, Higher/Senior Secondary	Academic record, Training Inst.
Junior Basic training, Basic training, Cert./Dip. In Edu	Primary/ Elementary	2 years	Matriculation, Higher/Senior Secondary, Intermediate	Academic record, Merit in interview, Entrance test
Multi-category training for Special Education	Elementary	1 year	+2	Deputation by State Govts. Merit in +2 for fresher
Bachelor of Education (B.Ed)	Middle Secondary Senior Secondary	1 year	Graduation, Post-grad	Academic record, Merit in interview, Entrance test
B.Ed (Special Education)	Middle Secondary	1 year	Graduation	As per University

Source: Adapted from Commonwealth Secretariat (1993); Rajput & Walia, (2001); Kochhar, (2004)

There is an increasing focus placed on the competency based curriculum, especially at the primary level. For example, the National Council of Teacher Education (Kochhar, 2004) develops and provides, A Framework for Teacher Education Curriculum, within which curriculum is developed or revised in India (Secretariat, 1993). Re-organization and revision of the curriculum is based on task-oriented and performance-based curriculum development. There is stress placed on flexibility and relevancy (Rajput &

Walia, 2001). The curriculum encompasses three main areas: Pedagogical theory (20% of time), Working with the community (20% of time) and Practice teaching and content cum methodology (60% of time). India and Bangladesh embrace this framework.

Table 3.5 Curricula Framework: South Asian approaches, a case of India

Curriculum areas	Time	Subject areas
Pedagogical theory	20%	Child development, teaching and learning in Indian society, various electives
Working with the community	20%	Activities of everyday life of the communities in which trainees interact,
Practice teaching and content cum methodology	60%	Language, mathematics, science, social sciences, work experience, art education and HPE

Source: Adapted from Commonwealth Secretariat (1993)

Lessons to be learnt: Challenges and remedies

The literature review on the initial teacher training in these four countries suggests daunting challenges lie ahead. A common concern is the significant number of untrained and in some cases under-qualified teachers in many schools. This has serious implications on the quality of education, Kochhar (2004) delineates, “The success of any educational reform depends in the quality of teachers and quality of teacher depends to a large extent on the quality of teacher education” (p. 188). Rajput and Walia (2001) also support the view in saying:

It is believed teacher education should lead to better academic performance of teachers, through the regular acquisition of new skills and competencies and through the upgrading of existing ones. The assessment of teacher performance therefore remains an essential precondition for enhancing the effectiveness of educational process (p. 248).

In order to reduce the large numbers of untrained teachers, admission to teacher training institutions was permitted to teachers from primary schools. Other mechanisms initiated included, correspondence-contact courses. At the same time, there was a difference of qualification of trainees entering the primary teacher institutes. Some were high school graduates while others had bachelor degrees. The diverse backgrounds entailed linguistic, cultural, and social of the trainees posed difficulty to the training providers and affected the quality of training and education (Maheshwari & Raina, 1998; Rajput & Walia, 2001; Kochhar, 2004). On the other hand reducing the training period was

seen to be negatively impacting upon covering necessary contents and thus compromise the quality of training.

Structural innovations initiated in India augmented improvements in accountability of the training programmes and thus enhanced the quality. At the national level are the National Council for Educational Research and Training (NCERT) (Kumar, 2005) and National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) (Kochhar, 2004). There are Colleges of Education in the regions. Each of the four regional Colleges of Education has a number of District Institutes of Education and Training (DIET) (Maheshwari & Raina, 1998). This policy initiative was to decentralize the teacher training at the district levels (Dyer, 2005).

The DIETs were instituted “to provide quality preservice and inservice teacher training” (Maheshwari & Raina, 1998, p. 90) and play an effective role in the provision of teacher training in India. A DIET has seven departments: Pre-service Teacher Education, Inservice Programmes and Extension Services, District Resources Unit for Adult and Non-formal Education, Planning and Management, Educational Technology, Work Experience, Curriculum and Evaluation (Secretariat, 1993). DIETs are expected to be functionally autonomous in academic, administrative and financial matters. A general progression of the training requires trainees to focus in the first year on lower primary with the second year on upper primary. Each DIET works with one or more model schools where trainees do practice teaching. There is a well-established partnership between the Teacher Training Institutions and districts and the main stakeholders with regard to the Indian models (Maheshwari & Raina, 1998; Dyer, 2005).

Countries do suffered inadequately qualified faculty members at the training institutions. Bangladesh for example, required course tutors with 2nd class masters degrees with B.Ed or M.Ed. The experimental school teacher needs to have a minimum qualification of a

Bachelor degree with Certificate in Education or B.Ed with BA/BSc B.Ed or BA/BSc and C in Ed. At this time, the requirements were far from realization. For example, in Sri Lanka, the teaching practicum was well established whereas in others countries the practicum was a new subject. Bangladesh is a case in point.

Effective planning, sincere implementation and rigorous monitoring enhance the probability of an initiative achievement of objectives. It has been reported, where planning was weak because of a lack of clear targets for teacher supply, the initiative failed. For example, in Pakistan Teachers Colleges suffered severe staffing problems in terms of relevant experiences of their staff, an experience similar to Bangladesh. One of the consequences of the weak planning was the teaching practice was found to be ineffective in Pakistan's initial teacher training. Other reasons, the study reported were weak management and excessive term breaks (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993).

Structurally, Sri Lanka has a well-defined system. At the national level is the National Institute of Education manages policy, programmes, and all to do with the teacher education, both In-service and Pre-Service. At the regional or the district levels there are Teacher's Colleges and Colleges of Education. Colleges of Education are the institutions of the Universities. Another advantage Sri Lanka has is the high literacy rate (UNESCO, 2006) compared with other countries of the region. Thus, there is relatively less concern in recruitment of sufficient qualified candidates to teaching.

However, one of the challenges Sri Lanka has to face is managing the number of graduates aspiring to join the teaching profession. There are no adequate facilities to accommodate all interested candidates. The national initiative to reduce the number of untrained teachers by giving them training continued to be the other challenge generic to problem region. In the 1990s, untrained graduate teachers and untrained non-graduate teachers total more than 80,000 teachers without formal teacher training of any kind

(Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993) and UNESCO suggests there is a need of more trained and qualified teachers in South Asia including Sri Lanka (UNESCO, 2006).

The ITT, South Asian approaches featured some diverse challenges and issues facing the region. Poor economic status and low literacy rate are the overriding factors surrounding those challenges. Yet, there is a common aspiration: the countries aspire to provide quality education to children of their respective countries by ensuring quality training of the teachers. To many, this is possible through a quality model of teacher training.

Section Three

The Australian Experiences

Teacher education initiatives in Australia can be traced as far back as 1850s. Chadbourne (1997) succinctly presents development and evolution of initial teacher preparation models in Australia.

Beginning in the 1850s, teacher preparation took place under a combined ‘model school’ and monitorial or apprenticeship scheme. By the 1920s, teachers’ colleges, run by state education departments, had replaced model schools and the initial four month course had grown to one year. During the early 1970s, these colleges became autonomous and federally funded, and offered three year diplomas. In the late 1980s teacher education became exclusive preserve of university faculties of education and three year college diplomas were replaced, in the main, by four year university degrees (Chadbourne, 1997, pp. 8-9).

It appears from the late 1980s, four year B.Ed, at the undergraduate, one year PGDE, at the post graduate levels among other ITT models became available to prospective student teachers. For example, Beeson (1987) reports some of the models available. One model is “End-on model” (p. 49) in which academic and professional studies are completely separated. In other words students take up the course that is largely dominated by teaching profession after completing their university academic degree programmes, example, One-Year Graduate Diploma in Education (Grad Dip. Ed.). The other one is the “Concurrent model” in which academic and professional studies

programmes are present in each year of the courses. Essentially it is an integrated, 2+2 model, the first two years comprise academic studies, 3rd and 4th year combine academic and professional studies. Four-year B.Ed is an example. Through this model, graduates are awarded “double degree” and this model has been largely for secondary teachers. The four year route also prepares primary school teachers but without having to delve into academic studies like the 2+2 model. A third ITT model in Australian context is a “Graduate B.Ed” offered to candidates who have graduate diploma in education (Grad. Dip. Ed+1). In addition to concurrent model both end-on model and graduate B.Ed routes prepare secondary school teachers.

Furthermore, a nationwide study commissioned by the Department of Education Training and Youth Affairs (DETYA) to find out the ITT course completion listed these levels in Australia: Bachelors undergraduate, Bachelors graduate entry, Bachelors undergraduate double degree, Graduate diploma and Masters (Ballantyne, Bain & Preston (2002).

The ITT models of the University of New England (UNE), Armidale, New South Wales are briefly presented. UNE offers three models of ITT: Four-year Bachelor of Teaching (Primary), Two-year Bachelor of Teaching (Secondary) and One-year Graduate Diploma (UNE, 2006).

Bachelor of Teaching (Primary) is Four-Year training in teaching at the primary levels of the school system. Through distance mode the UNE allows the training to take as many as eight years. Students are enrolled into this program after Grade XII of the senior high school. *Bachelor of Teaching (Secondary) double degree* is a combined degree (UNE, 2006b) with students enrolled in the subject specific schools of Art, Science, etc where they spend three-fourth of their time doing B.A., B.Sc. or B.Com. At the same time they take education and teaching units spending a total of two years. In

effect they earn two degrees: B.A./B.Sc/B.Com + B.Teaching. Within this model students can also opt for a one-year Bachelor of Education. And *Graduate Diploma* is a one-year diploma in teaching for bachelor degree holders. The model prepares secondary school teachers and the focus of the training is in professional development (UNE, 2006c). Structurally, the ITT models in Australia have remained consistent between 1980s-2000s.

Practicum/Professional Experience

Students of ITT programmes have to fulfil a number of days in practicum which is also identified as professional experience or practice teaching. For example, UNE student teachers are engaged 110 days (22 weeks) in practicum and this professional experience occupies approximately one-quarter of the entire training period. It is spread over all four years of the training in a progression of one week, three weeks, six weeks and finally a ten week period in the fourth year of the programme (UNE, 2006g).

According to the guidelines (UNE, 2006g) students choose their schools for practicum throughout Australia. They may go back to the same school during first to third years, but will have to choose a new school in the fourth year. Six weeks of professional experience in the third year takes place in two stages of two weeks and four weeks. The philosophy behind this requirement is to allow the students to experience the school situation and reflect while learning theory in the university. This arrangement is expected to enhance link between theory and practice.

The ten weeks or one full school term practicum in the fourth year is significant as it allows the trainee teachers go through an internship. During the internship, student teachers are expected to teach independently with minimum intervention from mentors and supervisors. Importance of this stage of professional experience cannot be undermined as highlighted:

The Internship is seen as a period for developing and putting into practice knowledge and skills learnt within university-based studies and in previous professional experience units. It provides clear guidance as to whether or not the Intern is ready take on the full-time professional role. This experience cannot be simulated. It also provides opportunities for extensive reflection on practice and building individual portfolios of work (UNE, 2006f, p. 3).

The Internship is a deciding moment as to whether or not a student can be an effective and competent teacher.

A recent national initiative to maintain teacher quality is the institution of “A NATIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS FOR TEACHING” (MCEETYA, 2003). The Preamble to the document reads:

As a critical step towards the achievement of the national goals, MCEETYA established the Teacher Quality and Educational Leadership Taskforce (TQELT) in July 2001, to provide advice, among other things, on: Teacher preparation and ongoing development aimed at improving the quality and standard of teaching and learning; and, Professional standards for teachers and principals, both for entry to the profession and to meet the ongoing needs of students over time (MCEETYA, 2003, p. 1).

What emerged from the TQELT and endorsed by the Ministers at the meeting in July 2002 of the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) was a National Framework as a guide and key point of reference by all stakeholders including the employers and professional associations. The Australian National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching entails two broad aspects: “Career Dimensions” and “Professional Elements”. Career dimensions are progressive pathways for a teacher that he/she is expected to perform beginning as a graduate, a competent teacher, an accomplished person, and to becoming a leader. In the Professional elements the national framework requires a teacher to possess standard professional knowledge, professional practice, and professional values against each career dimension as a teacher progresses in his/her professional life (MCEETYA, 2003).

A detailed list of standards is annexed in *Appendix L*.

Although, it serves as a mechanism for teacher development while in the profession, the professional standards for teaching have an immense impact on the initial teacher education in higher education institutions or universities. Following the national

framework each state is expected to further develop their strategy to implement. New South Wales (NSW) has an institution in place, namely NSW Institute of Teachers.

Section Four

The American Experiences

Literature review of the ITT programs in the US suggests two models are common: Four-Year Baccalaureate and Five-Year Integrated Programs. Each one of them is briefly explained.

Four-Year Baccalaureate Programs is the most prevalent model for teacher education (Scannell, n.d.) and culminates with a bachelor degree after high school. A unique feature of this model is the degree given is called B.A. not B.Ed (common models of other countries). This model caters to elementary and/or primary education with a major in educational studies, but one requires the major to be in an arts or sciences disciplines to be teachers in secondary education. A chief strength of the requirement to have a major in arts or science is to ensure an academic rigour which a candidate only majoring in education may lack.

The implementation of four-year BA in teaching differs from state to state. Teacher education programs are offered in the School of Education in Universities and in independent campuses known as Community Colleges. A number of partnership programmes seem to be in place to make the teacher education dynamic. One type is the 4-year degree which is split into two-plus-two partnership programs between community colleges and public or private teacher education programs (Locklear, Davis & Covington, 2009). The collaborative partnership is reported to have a well established understanding in terms of course delivery:

In this model, candidates in the university center follow the same curriculum, have the same degree expectations, and meet the same academic standards as on the on-campus students. The community college faculty delivers the general education course work. All programmatic decisions for the first two years are made by the community college, with the university making all programmatic decisions for the final two years (Locklear, et al, 2009, p 240).

A unique feature of a partnership ITT program is the “University Center Model” and co-location, the “co-location model is defined as a university center partnership in which the partners share the same physical location to deliver programs” (Lorenzo, 2005 in Locklear, et al 2009, p. 241). Academic programs and student services are delivered through the virtual consortium using an online model. The partnership program has been initiated to address teacher shortage problem and the model has been useful in rural areas. Colbert, Brown, Choi and Thomas (2008) argue collaboration should include groups within school, same grade, or department, not merely campus to campus. Johnson and Atland (n.d.) further argue subjects of collaboration should be decided through a consultative approach as, “externally mandated teacher training may result in only superficial changes in teacher’s pedagogy” (p. 64). Samson and McCrea (2008) claim “peer-review as a formative process” (p. 61) to be the best collaborative partnership to facilitate student centered education.

Teacher training reforms in the US has been influenced by ‘national act’ such as “No Child Left Behind” [NCLB] (Education Policy and Leadership Center [EPLC], 2003; Thornton, 2006; Colbert, et al, 2008; Keller, et al 2008) and ‘special educational program’ like “Head Start” (Domitrovich, Gest, Gill, Bierman, Welsh & Jones, 2009). These educational act and special program not only mandate every child to be in school but also requires stakeholders to pay attention and play important roles to help achieving the goals. The initiatives resulted in the increased demand of teachers (EPLC, 2003; Thornton, 2006; Domitrovich, et al 2009).

Five-Year Integrated Programs is a more recent ITT model in the US though not common among most higher education institutions. This model has drawn advocates as

well as opponents. According to Scannell (n.d.) advocates assert the program to be providing adequate general education, appropriate depth and breadth in the teaching fields, pedagogy and professional experiences, and pluses with graduates are: more entry into teaching, better retention in the profession, more committed, more satisfied, more highly recruited, achieve more in their studies. On the other hand, opponents base their arguments and say, “A majority of students cannot afford a fifth year before producing income, the fifth year is untenable given the low salaries for teachers, and/or programs cured of redundancy and based on solid research can be accommodated within the traditional four years” (Scannell, n.d., p. 2). Traditional four years is referred to generic Bachelor degrees offered by universities other than education or teaching profession.

Five-Year Integrated Programs culminates a candidate in obtaining Master of Art in Teaching (MAT). Originally the concept was a two year masters program, but the model transformed with alternative structures in two ways. One, the model allowed a candidate to continue the fifth year into MAT after four years B.A. in teaching. Second, in order to attract graduates from traditional four-year bachelors of science and arts, and to accommodate career-changers and/or early retirees, one-year MAT was made available (Scannell, n.d.). Both of these are initial licensure programs.

Several universities embraced the model and offered MAT courses: University of North Carolina (UNC), Rice University (RU) and Wake Forest University (WFU) are a case in point. The UNC offers graduate preparation for prospective teachers of English, Latin, mathematics, science, and social studies in grades 9-12. The program on offer is designed to prepare candidates for initial licensure in North Carolina (Palmer & Rong, 2001). RU also offers courses similar to UNC. Both universities require the MAT students to take teaching subjects. For example RU has art, English, foreign language,

and physical education, and educational subjects, namely Historical and Philosophical Foundations, Fundamentals of Secondary Education, and Psychology of Human Learning (Heckelman (2001). However, WFU has taken a step further in making the MAT program more balanced. Baker (2001) calls “balancing tensions between the liberal arts and professional training” (p. 80). According to Baker the fellows come to the university with diverse background in their majors and professional subjects:

One of the reasons we are able to balance the tension between the liberal arts and professional training is that the Master Teacher Fellows come to us with broad and deep backgrounds in the subjects they plan to teach, having completed the requirements for majors in academic subjects at selective colleges and universities in the south... (Baker, 2001, p. 82).

There is a balancing exercise required to make the MAT course useful and needed by the colleges and schools, and the graduates productive in the society.

Trends in Licensure of Initial Teachers

Whether an ITT model is a four-year bachelor, five-year integrated master programs or any other model the issue of licensure to beginning teachers is by law mandatory in the US. The responsibility of universities, colleges and other teacher education providers is to train the potential teachers and upon completion of the course, if found successful, recommend for the issuance of license to teach (Baker, 2001; Edmonds, 2007; Heckelman, 2001). A unique feature of teacher licensure is, a candidate after completion of the program has to appear for state teacher certification examinations and a teaching license is issued if she/he passes the exam (Keller, et al 2008). All colleges, universities and any public or private teacher education providers located in a particular state are governed by state law including having to follow teacher education program approved by the state. A national agency, National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) approves Teacher Education Programs in the country (Edmonds, 2007; Keller, 2008; Reusser, Butler, Symonds, Vetter, & Wall, 2007; Thorton, 2006).

A state's license is valid only within the state as these lines suggest, "When an institution's programs have been approved by the state, graduates who are recommended by the institution and who meet whatever test requirements the state has set are awarded a license to teach in that state" (Scannell, n.d., p. 9). The Certification Office of the State Department of Education is responsible for organizing licensure exam (Tissington & Grow, 2007). Every state has an office similar to this. One of the outcomes of recent reforms of licensure and program approval has been the institution of the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC). The INTASC proposes basic principles or standards in order to seek a common framework for licensing beginning teachers.

Some lessons may be learnt from the American experiences of ITT. First the nomenclature of the degree, is the B.A. in Teaching after four years of education and training, and Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) after five years of study or a fifth year, mainly for secondary education. A uniqueness of a partnership programs between the community college and public/private teacher education programs concerns two-plus-two collaboration. Partnership programs entail on-campus-based (University and colleges) and site-based (schools) or "field-based" (Colby & Stapleton, 2006, p. 1) education and training to maximize hands on experience. An American approach to ITT is its mandatory on licensure to beginning teachers, which on the one hand must ensure the uniformity of standards, but on the other hand one may be tempted to comment about the state being skeptic of the job done by education institutions.

Summary

The Initial Teacher Education and/or Training Programs explored in various countries reveal a number of common patterns. At the same time some countries have unique initial teacher education programs. Commonalities are the teacher education programs

are part of the higher education or university programs. Popular and/or common initial teacher training models are 3/4 B.Ed after Secondary Education and One Year PGDE Program for first degree holders. Uniqueness concerns the levels of models; certificate levels, undergraduate levels and postgraduate level initial teacher training. The other finding is the nomenclature of the models namely; end-on, consecutive, concurrent, 2+2, 15+1, and 16+1. The duration of the training also differed, and ranges from one year to four years and five years, typically a US model.

Reflecting the UK experiences of the Articled Teacher Scheme, the Licensed Teacher Scheme, Qualified Teacher Status, there are both strengths and weaknesses. Licensing to teachers and Partnership programmes are possible lessons worth contemplating for Bhutan. In the light of demand from the society for teachers to perform better, licensing can be a potential option for teachers to enhance their effectiveness. Some countries call it certification to teach while the UK and the US prefer licensure. Partnership has paved ways for instituting professional experience wherein schools are expected to play important roles. Partnership programmes of the UK and Practicum and the Internship program of the Australian experiences are worthwhile lessons for Bhutan as it is still in developmental stage in these areas. Certificate level models of ITT still in operation in some of the Asian countries are apparently long abandoned models in many countries. Bhutan too has phased them out, in early 2000s.

The quality of teacher education is recognized as a significant issue as reviewed in this Chapter. There is an increasing belief that one of the quality indicators of a teacher is the possession of in-depth subject knowledge. Taking this belief into consideration, a model between undergraduate B.Ed and one year PGCE programmes warrants further investigation. There exists literature advocating the B.Ed has had its day as these words reveal:

The evidence suggests the B.Ed is not especially stellar in the classroom. Trainees who take the degree are twice as likely to drop out before attaining qualified-teacher status as those who opt for the PGCE. This could be because career choices are made too early or it could be because, as critics claim, the B.Ed is too theoretical (Kelly, 2009, p. 2).

The review of the literature suggests that there is a constant engagement in the reformation of ITT models in various countries. B.Ed, PGCE/PGDE and double degree are reported to be popular ITT models in most countries researched. There is an increasing debate about the effectiveness of B.Ed model. The US model of 4-year BA and 5-year MA in teaching is worth considering.

Teacher educators constantly face challenges as evident from observations such as these, “within these broad periods, teacher educators were largely change-takers rather than change-makers, reactive rather than proactive. They tended to follow changes in society and the education system rather than lead change” (Chadbourne, 1997, p. 9).

This calls for an ITT model to address professional criticism.

An Initial Teacher Training Model may ensure in-depth pedagogical orientation and at the same time, content learning to assure quality pre-service teacher training. The next chapter aligns the scenario presented in this chapter to Bhutan context in light of its education system, higher education and initial teacher education structures.

Chapter Four

BHUTANESE EDUCATION SYSTEM

This chapter details Bhutan's education system. Section one presents school education system beginning in 1961, which was the onset of modern education system. Section two delves into higher education system with some focus on the Royal University of Bhutan. A brief presentation of monastic education with particular reference to higher education is made in section three. Section four makes a reference to the history of teacher education in general and pre-service teacher education in particular within the Higher Education System of Bhutan. The issue of quality of education in Bhutan is also highlighted in section five of this chapter.

Section One

Modern Education System

Sources suggest that a western model of education in Bhutan started as early as 1914 in the district of Haa in western part of Bhutan (Dorji, 2003). However, this earliest system is not necessarily modern if put in the overall development status of Bhutan. The launch of the Five Year Plans in 1961 is significant because Bhutan began her socio-economic developmental activities in a more organized manner. This meant that any plan activity was considered with a proper planning, prioritising the needs, timely mobilisations and balanced allocation of resources to different sectors and regions (RGOB, 1999). From about the same time any approach to development was considered as modern development. Modern is also related to physical facilities development in Bhutanese context, “Modernisation started with the realization of basic infrastructures (until then Bhutan had no motorable roads and was connected only by footpaths and

mule tracks) upon the initiative of the third king Jigme Dorji Wangchuk" (Simoni, 2003, p. 30). Hence, it appears that the education system that prevailed from 1960 onwards has been identified as modern education system within the framework of overall national development.

The purpose of education

In 1961, Bhutan had some 11 schools, 90 teachers and 400 students. These schools were spread across the country. The purpose of education was twofold: instrumental and integration. It was instrumental, because "there was a need for people to use new languages, learn new forms of knowledge and acquire new sets of skills to be able to participate fully in the newly adopted developmental process" (Dorji, 2003, pp. 2-3). It became a necessity for the Bhutanese population to be skilled and knowledgeable to manage developmental activities. With ever increasing globalization Bhutan could no longer remain isolated from the rest of the world rather integration became a necessity (Somoni, 2003). A tool to enhance the position of Bhutan was through education. The choice of English in the early 1960s as medium of education is evidence of Bhutan's commitment to integration with the outside world (RGOB, 1999). Leaders realised that policy of self imposed isolation with age old system was not going to bring progress in the country as fast as the time demanded and would be left behind the rest of the world (RGOB, 1999).

A period of adoption and learning

Education in Bhutan from *1960s* through *1970s* saw a period of adopting education system of neighbouring countries particularly India. Three reasons are identified for the adoption of already existing approaches. Firstly, Bhutan opened its door to the outside world. In order to catch up, the government of Bhutan believed it expedient to copy. Secondly, Bhutan had insufficient human and financial resources to develop and

implement a unique solution to its immediate needs called upon by the fast developmental activities taking place in the country. And thirdly, Bhutan had close relation with India and a system was readily available (Dorji, 2005). In the same vein India had exclusively financed Bhutan's first and second year plans (Galay, 2004) and assistance was mainly in the social sector including education (Choden, 2004). It appeared natural to depend on her neighbour on the education system as well. Thus, Bhutan copied education system that was prevalent in India which was largely that of the legacy of the British education system.

A period of ‘...izations’ and ‘...nesses’

The next two decades, that is, *1980s-1990s* can be marked as a period of evolution of the Bhutanese Education system. One of the causes can be linked to the Bhutanese people returning from higher studies and beginning to take up important decisions making posts in the country (Dorji, 2003). They came back from the United Kingdom, Australia, and other developed countries, which imply that their experiences influenced changes in the system. The other cause for initiation of modernisation was changes in the leadership of the education sector. Changes in the leadership with different beliefs and ideologies inevitably impacted on the education policies and therefore the plans and programs (RGOB, 1999). As a result two periods are identifiable; that of ‘isations’ which concerned Bhutanisation, Nationalisation, Decentralisation and ‘nesses’ which concerned Teacher centeredness, Student centeredness, Wholesomeness. Each of these is subsequently discussed.

The **Bhutanization** of education system began in the 1980s and continued in the succeeding decades. This change was evident in curriculum development and text books. For example, Environmental Studies (EVS) within the New Approach to Primary Education (NAPE) was one of the first initiatives taken to bring the contents and

delivery of the subject into the Bhutanese context (Department of Education, 2003). The contents of the curriculum and the kind of education system the children experience does impact on the students. The Royal Government of Bhutan considered the possible negative impact the western approach would have on Bhutanese children. The western system was identified as not reflective of Bhutanese social, cultural and historical values.

The National Policy impacted on the plans and programs of education sector. In the 1960s and 1970s school children had to learn content which was not relevant to their everyday life, and contexts that existed 100s of years ago and 1000s of miles away from Bhutan. Thus, language text books such as Druk Readers, Druk English Series, Druk and Drukpa replaced Radiant Readers, Brighter Grammar, etc. Geography, History, Civics based on the Bhutanese contents and context replaced earlier text books which were foreign. The Bhutanese system was consistent with the psychological approach followed in curriculum development, which maintains that children learn better if they are taught from known to unknown, familiar to unfamiliar, concrete-abstract (Sowell, 2000).

For a small country to survive the importance of having certain common and basic understanding as a citizen was considered imperative. Thus, the visionary leaders of Bhutan coined the concept of ‘One Nation, One People’. One might be tempted to say that this policy in question had an impact on the Bhutanisation and **Nationalization** of the education system. From the inception of planned development activities and establishments of formal secular schools in the 1960s most of the schools, institutions, organisations were headed by expatriates, chiefly from India. From late 1980s Bhutanese were appointed as the heads of schools and institutions across the country, a process commonly came to be known as ‘Nationalisation of Heads’. The cadre of these

educational leaders had unique experiences and orientations and their leadership impacted on the education system of the country at large. One particular impact concerned Bhutanese culture and values which notably began to make headway in the school system (Department of Education, 2003).

Decentralization is a new concept and practice in the Bhutanese system of governance in general and the education system in particular. The institution of Dzongkhag Yargye Tshogdu (District Development Committee) in 1981 and Geog Yargye Tshogchung (Block Development Committee) in 1991 has been the beginning of the decentralization process. Decentralization became national prominence in the 1990s. In particular, political change initiated by His Majesty the fourth King, Jigme Singye Wangchuk was most influential to the decentralization process. In 1998 he dissolved the Cabinet of Ministers and instituted a system whereby Ministers were elected by the National Assembly. This was the most significant step in the decentralization of power because since that change, authority and responsibility of decision making, choices of local leaders, choices of development activities, plan and prioritization of needs have been increasingly devolved to the people. Understandably, this national policy had an immense impact on the development and management of education system of Bhutan.

Parents, stakeholders, and to some extent students began to have a say in the decision making process related to education. The local leaders plan and decide what type and how many schools they like to have in their locality. Local leaders and the educational leaders of various levels discuss issues of common concerns. Since the beneficiaries, particularly in the rural areas do contribute in the construction of facilities and maintenance of the schools they have the responsibility of critiquing the performance of their children and involve in the teaching learning process.

The concept of ***Student Centeredness*** featured in Bhutanese Education system with the introduction of New Approach to Primary Education (NAPE) in the early 1980. A student centered approach views each child as the centre of the educational process. The student's needs in the cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains are priorities to be addressed. This change in the approach gave directions to development and strengthening of educational programs at the primary level. From this change emanated curriculum development, revamping of teaching learning approaches, development of user-friendly infrastructures, and student centred approaches. One may observe that this renewed commitment continues today (Ministry of Education, 2004).

Educational leaders realized the focus on the child alone did not guarantee the desired results in the overall education system (NIEs, 2005). A change in the leadership in the 1990s propagated another ideology development, '***Teacher Centeredness***'. This approach was a development in the history of Bhutanese Education system in that three major changes were observable (Ministry of Education, 2006). Firstly, policy and programs were put into place which facilitated enhancement of the academic and professional qualifications of teachers (Example, teachers with certificate qualification upgraded to Bachelors degree, B.Ed upgraded to M.Ed). As a result of the 'teacher centeredness approach, teachers had an advantage over other professions until recently. Secondly, teachers were given financial allowance of 15-45% of the basic salary. The policy was intended to attract better qualified teachers. Thirdly, initiation of efforts to improve the living conditions of teachers, redesigned teachers' residences, and provide free housing to the head teachers and essential staff of schools and institutions. Except for the financial allowances, other incentives, mentioned above continue today. There has been an increased interactions and sharing of information among different

stakeholders. Bottom up policy was initiated which encouraged every teacher to have a say in the educational decision making (Department of Education, 2003).

Bhutan has to live in the global community, has to respect values in the global societies but yet to retain and enhance its own values. During this time of substantial change, there was a perceived decline in the basic values of Bhutan. The 3Rs in the classrooms focused only on the cognitive aspect of education and not the whole person. Two other issues of concerns appear to be the increased rate of unemployment and the anti-social activities that are often displayed by youths. These undesired social changes necessitated the development and implementation of the approach known as the '***Wholesomeness in Education or wholesome education***'. A number of policies and programs were put into place to provide education beyond the four walls of classroom. Some of these policies related to vocational education, value education, guidance and counselling programs, and scouting programs. The policies and initiatives were to be immediately implemented at the grassroots levels (Department of Education, 2003). Today we observe these activities are increasingly becoming institutionalised in the education system.

The challenges Bhutan's education system faces in post 2000 era reflect the major political transformation taking place in the country. The Constitution of the Kingdom of Bhutan has been developed and His Majesty, the fourth King, has himself travelled across the country; met the public and given orientation to the contents of the constitution. The political transformation appears to have numerous implications on all walks of life including the education sector. Students seem to be excited in the wake of a number of fundamental rights that are laid down in the Kingdom's constitution, (E.g., right to opportunity). To what extent individual students are aware of the responsibilities that should equate with these rights remains to be seen. At this juncture except for the

inclusion of the constitution as part of the Bhutan Civics and History curriculum, the Ministry of Education does not seem to have any concrete programs to specifically prepare students and teachers for the historic change (Ministry of Education (2006).

The education system at the structural level may not appear to have changed but the philosophy, aims, goals, objectives and delivery approaches would require adjustments. Some contents of the curriculum need revision as a result of the constitutional changes. More importantly, if not the most important change, is the need for a complete review of the manners and behaviour of the teachers, principals and the managers of education. Change is inevitable in the light of freedom and fundamental rights that are bestowed upon the Bhutanese citizens (Royal Government of Bhutan, 2008). The enhanced constitutional rights relate to students, parents and stakeholders of education at all levels.

The Minister of Education (2003-2008), Lyonpo Thinley Gyamtsho, appointed in 2003 coined five pillars to address educational issues. These pillars comprise Teachers, Curriculum, Infrastructures, Wholesome Education, and Values Education (Ministry of Education, 2006). The pillars are the basic elements that make up education system. With achievable policies, plans, programs, and strategies for each of the elements now in place, the education system seems to be making a constant effort to move forward.

Structure of school education system

The review of the literature and record shows that the education system of Bhutan has drastically grown in the past four and half decades. An overview of the structure of education system and its statistics is presented below.

Table 4.1 Public and formal school education

Levels	Primary	Lower Secondary	Middle Secondary	Higher Secondary
Age-Years	6-12	13-14	15-16	17-18
Class/Grade	Pre-Primary-VI	VII-VIII	IX-X (Basic education)	XI-XII (End of general school education)
Total schools	342	89	44	24
Total students	52515	48706	32292	16155
Boys	26690	24111	16481	8491
Girls	25825	24593	15811	7664
Total teachers	1799	1627	1177	754

Table 4.2 Other types of schools and institutions

School Type	Total	Boys/men	Girls/women	Total	Teachers
Private (Primary to HSS)	24	3752	3692	7444	388
Day care	10	143	151	294	26
Non-Formal	747	4183	9647	13830	736

Table 4.3 Total schools, students/learners and teachers of all types and levels

Schools/centres	1280	%
Boys/men	83851	48.96
Girls/women	87383	51.03
Total	171234	
Total teachers	6507	

Source: RGOB, (2008)

Tables 4.1-4.3 show the overall numbers of schools, students, and teachers, both private and public. The increase has been many folds as can be seen, 11 schools in 1961 and 1280 schools in 2008. The increase in student enrolment and gender representation has been greatly impacted by the non-formal education centres and students/learners and to large extent private schools (RGOB, 2008). Non-formal education centres are places where classes are organised which include a school, temple, a community, or a space constructed for the purpose. The programme is geared towards providing educational opportunity to adults who missed formal schooling for various reasons. As of 2008 about 70% of the learners were females and the number of centres sprang up as many as 747 (RGOB, 2008).

Stakeholders of education

Following sections briefly present various stakeholders of education system to portray some unique features.

The Royal Government of Bhutan (RGOB)

The roles of the RGOB can be discussed on two fronts. One concerns the broad policy directions and the other is the allocation of financial resources. The policies framed at the national government level impact on the education policies in each school. Bhutan has ‘Gross National Happiness’ as its developmental philosophy. This broad policy impinges upon the education sector to reflect such a concept. The Royal command, ‘the future of the nation lies in the hands of the Bhutanese children’ carries major responsibilities on the education sector. Programs and strategies therefore have to be cognizant of this Royal command. The RGOB also provides financial support to the sector. From the time the First Five Year began in 1961, the social services sector particularly education, has received substantial amounts of the public funds and continues to do so.

The Ministry of Education

Of the ten ministries, the Ministry of Education (MOE) is the largest because of the large number of schools, teachers, and facilities. Understandably, financial commitment has to be in accordance with its size. The MOE frames policies and programs at the national level. It mobilizes resources: human, materials and finance. In particular training of teachers, deployment, and promotion is managed by the ministry. Long term educational planning is one of the main responsibilities of the ministry at the headquarters (Ministry of Education, 2006). The ministry has four departments and several divisions and sections. The MOE disseminates information to Dzongkhags (Districts) and ensures balanced growth and development in all regions and communities.

The Dzongkhag (District)

Bhutan is divided into several political boundaries known as Dzongkhags or districts with varying sizes. All 20 Dzongkhags have a Dzongkhag Education Officer (DEO) each assisted by one or two Assistant Dzongkhag Education Officer (ADEOs). DEOs and ADEOs work under the direction of the District Administrator called the Dzongdag. The Dzongdag follows the government directions on education in general and the MOE in particular. He/she gives directions to the DEO and in turn DEO is an advisor to the Dzongdag in educational matters.

Dzongkhag level plans and promotion of education are carried out on an annual basis and plan period basis. DEOs are responsible for implementing the programs at the grass roots levels and reporting to the MOE the status of the facilities. They are also expected to take a lead role in informing the general public of availing educational opportunities. In sum, they are the stakeholders who see education in action in the field.

The Gewog (Block Level)

A Gewog is the smallest unit of Bhutan's political set up, which is made up of several households and villages. Gewogs not only differs in their sizes but also the number of Gewogs that make up a district range from 4-16. Since the beginning of the 9th Five Year Plan (2002-2007) people at the grass roots level began to have some say in the development activities. Development of physical facilities and maintaining them is the main responsibilities of the stakeholders at the Gewog level. The government policy is that all 204 Gewogs of the country should have at least a school. This government policy has been achieved and some Gewogs have as many as five schools. The Gewog administration thus has important responsibilities in educational matters. Schools have to route the Gewog leaders to the District Education Officer with regards to physical

facilities management of schools. However, academic and curriculum components are still centrally decided (Ministry of Education, 2006).

The Schools

In the hierarchy of stakeholders, the school is at the most grass roots level. Educational programs are implemented in schools. Schools prepare annual plan, five year plans, short term and long term plans. The draft plans are consulted with the Gewog leaders before putting up to the Dzongkhag Head Office. Some programs are also centrally implemented. In practice, schools have a direct link with the ministerial office at the centre through school level monitoring and support services.

Section Two

Higher Education System

Definitions of Higher Education in Bhutanese context

It is important to understand two scenarios when discussing higher education in Bhutan. While general school education is completed after Grade XII or 13 years of schooling, the Royal Government of Bhutan has set completion of Grade X as basic education. In effect, school education policy and structure allows students to exit the system at two points. One scenario concerns the majority of students joining Technical and Vocational Institutes (VTI) after basic education for training and further education ranging from few months to a couple of years, similar to Higher Education and Vocational Education and Training (VET) and Technical and Further Education (TAFE) in Australia (Zhukov, 2008) and Further Education and Training Colleges (FET) in the case of South Africa (Bonnema & Waldt, 2008). In some sense they are also higher education. The other scenario deals with the university programmes for which the entry eligibility is passed Grade XII. The structure is similar to OECD countries with Bachelor, Master and

Doctorate. More often than not discussion and definition of higher education frequently appears to be confined to secular domain only. Religion, in Bhutanese context Monastic, warrants some mention as important component of higher education. This is presented later in this chapter.

The Royal University of Bhutan (RUB)

With the establishment of the Royal University of Bhutan in June 2003 all post general school education programmes have been streamlined as higher education programmes or the University Education. Table 4.5 below presents an overview of the member institutes of the Royal University of Bhutan and their programme focus. The student enrolment numbers have also been projected till 2012, the end of the 10th Five Year Plan.

Table 4.4 RUB's member institutes, students and programme concentration

Institutes	Student strength projection					Concentration of study area
	200 5	2006	2008	201 0	201 2	
1. Institute for Language and Culture Studies	268	278	280	716	750	Humanities & Social Sciences, Visual Arts, Design & Communication
2. Paro College of Education	837	888	1083	112 8	112 8	Teacher Education
3. Samtse College of Education	598	671	803	988	106 8	Teacher Education
4. College of Natural Resources	231	186	364	397	400	Agriculture and Allied Sciences
5. National Institute of Traditional Medicines	24	29	31	30	540	Health
6. Royal Institute of Health Sciences	191	269	349	429		
7. College of Science and Technology	460	506	655	850	955	Engineering, Technology
8. Royal Institute of Management	183	204	319	404	464	Business & Management
9. Sherubtse College	107 3	1117	1273	154 3	176 2	Sciences, Humanities & Social Sciences, Computing & IT
10. Gedu College of Business			454	785	134 1	
Total	386 5	4148	5611	727 0	840 8	

Source: Adopted from Royal University of Bhutan, 2007

Admission to University Programs

Essentially, the admission is decided on merit of the academic results of the students. The Office of the Vice Chancellor, Royal University of Bhutan coordinates admission. Members of the Admission Committees of the colleges form the university level admission committee. The committee discusses and decides the common criteria and also criteria specific to individual colleges and their programmes. Each of the programmes in member colleges has limited seats. Following the admission announcement made by the Registry of the university eligible students apply and the committee admits students for each of the programmes on merit ranking.

Establishment of the Royal University of Bhutan

The establishment of an important institution must take a unique course of actions, so has the Royal University of Bhutan. In some ways the researcher himself was a party to it and a brief mention of chronology of events is considered next.

One of the colleges of the RUB; the Institute of Language and Cultural Studies (ILCS,) a premier institute, underwent several changes in the 1990s. The researcher had been the Principal of the Institute from March 1993 through July 1999 during which a number of significant changes took place in the institute. A noteworthy change was the introduction of higher secondary school programmes in language and culture studies. The program allowed admission at two entry points (Class X and XII graduates) and two exits (Class XII and First Degree). The first batch of 35 students was admitted in 1997 for the two year study: Classes/Grades XI and XII.

The first batch of students was due for admission to degree in July of 1999 and would graduate in 2001 for which curriculum had already been developed. One main concern raised by the institute was the certification and accreditation of the courses, especially

the degree. The new degree offered at the ILCS needed a separate body to provide certification. There has been a policy to establish a university in Bhutan that dates back as early as 1976. The National Education Policy (1976) states:

The sooner we set up our own education system the better. This would enable us to adapt the syllabi of other educational systems to fit in with our own culture and manpower requirements. It is, therefore, recommended that the Ugyen Wangchuk Universiy should start functioning with a Three-Year Degree Course in 1978 (Royal Government of Bhutan, 1976, p. 6).

The National Education Policy (1976) not only suggested for the establishment of a university but was also concerned about the education system being relevant to Bhutan.

The Sherubtse College offered degree courses since the 1980s with affiliation to the Delhi University. The revised 1982 National Education Policy seems to equate the degree course of the Sherubtse College to having a university at the time. The policy document states, “The Degree College shall be affiliated to the University of Delhi till such time that Bhutan establishes its own university or an authority/institution for issuing national academic awards” (RGOB, 1982, p. 9).

The establishment of a national university as desired by the 1976 policy document did not materialize any further. Although the 1982 Policy Document contains the review of the previous one and is much more comprehensive, there does not appear any active and action driven discussion for the establishment of a university for approximately next 20 years. As a result idea on the development of higher education with the establishment of university remained on paper and policy. One of the main reasons was associated with the overall development of school education at that time. It was only Sherubtse College, then high school that offered plus two school education. The graduates were sent to India and elsewhere for their higher education.

The chronologies of events thus substantiate that the need of the ILCS had been the immediate cause that led to the establishment of the Royal University of Bhutan in June 2003. Sherubtse College was asked to develop a proposal for the establishment of the

university. The ensued discussion was based on the proposal prepared by the college. The situation analysis phase of the establishment of the Royal University of Bhutan also caught up the event:

... Some 13 years later the Council of Higher Education (formed during the Second Education Conference in 1997) discussed the viability of setting up a National University for Bhutan and following this Sherubtse College prepared a draft proposal for the establishment of a National University in 1999 (RGOB, 2003, p. 1).

The researcher was a party to the chain of events that took place in the crucial period of 1997-1999. In 1999 a national vision document, *BHUTAN 2020: A Vision for Peace, Prosperity and Happiness* was formulated which provided a broad area of development in the next 20 years (till 2020). The establishment of a national university was also mentioned in this document:

... we must take steps at the earliest feasible opportunity to establish a National University that is not only able to meet national needs but also those of individuals from neighbouring countries and even further afield. The university should link Bhutan to the international world of learning and its establishment should be guided by the need to establish recognized ‘centre of excellence’ (Planning Commission Secretariat, 1999, p. 54).

Although the thought of establishing a national university was conceived as early as 1976 the actual materialization of the same remained in policy document even as late as 1999.

The interim solution opted was the institution of an Academic Board for the Institute. The proposed Organisational Structure of the institute also suggests that “The Academic Board or University (to be) will decide any major changes both in academic and administrative issues” (ILCS, n.d.). One of its main functions was to certify the degree to the graduates. The Board still exists as it has members from various sectors and its chief function now concerns the curriculum matters. The degree awarding function has been taken over by the Royal University of Bhutan with the accreditation of the institute’s programmes in 2005, two years after the establishment of RUB.

The national education policy document with particular reference to the establishment of a university remained in paper for almost three decades (1976-2003). As discussed earlier in this section one reason for having to wait for so long was that an immediate need was not felt for it. However, necessity called between 1997-2003 with the evolution of the Institute of Language and Culture Studies and seemed to have led to the creation of the Royal University of Bhutan.

Section Three

Monastic Education

The thesis provides reasons to discuss Buddhist monastic education in Bhutan at the status of higher education. A chief purpose of presenting a brief review of monastic education is to explore a partnership for enhancing quality initial teacher education especially in Dzongkha programmes. A detailed presentation of how and when Buddhism came to Bhutan is not within the scope of this paper.

The established notion is that Buddhism came to Bhutan in the 8th century with the coming of Guru Padma Sambhava, a great saint from India. However, Dr Dargye counter argues that notion when he says, “As to the religious situation in Bhutan, Buddhism reached as early as the second century A.D, but its impact was not strong” (Dargye, 2001, p.208). It took considerable time to establish Buddhism and in the course of time two sects, namely Nyingmapa and Kagyupa gained firmer root and became popular (Kuenleg, 2000). Today Drukpa Kagyupa sect of Buddhism is the state religion of the country. Phajo Drugom Zhigpo, a great proponent of Drukpa Kagyupa Buddhism in Bhutan was responsible for the establishment of the first Drukpa monasteries at Tango and Dodena in the upper valley of Thimphu (Dargye, 2001). It is therefore

understandable that formal education in Bhutan by any definition started in the Buddhist monasteries with monks as the disciples or students.

Political Commitment to Monastic Education

Ever since the country was united under some form of systematic law in the 17th century, it had a dual system of functioning: Religious and Secular. The Desis (temporal rulers who succeeded one after another from 1651-1907) was the head of secular wing and the Je Khenpo, the Chief Abbot was the head of the religious wing. The post of Je Khenpo continues today while the Desi system came to an end with the enthronement of the first hereditary monarch in 1907. Symbolically, the King and the Je Khenpo hold similar status. However, since 1907 the King is the absolute head of the country, and appoints the Je Khenpo.

An important contribution made by monastic institutions is echoed in the vision document: “Our religious history and monastic institutions have played a decisive role in the evolution of our nation” (RGOB, 1999, p. 70). Owing to the unique history there is a continued political commitment to monastic education and it appears to receive equal attention as the secular one. Preservation and promotion of Bhutanese culture is one of the four pillars of realizing Gross National Happiness (GNH), the national development philosophy. Religion and monastic education form the root aspects of our culture. One of the elements to Bhutan’s pride lies in its culture and existence of Buddhism in its pristine form. The Royal Government of Bhutan continues to commit to propagate monastic education for times to come.

Monastic Higher Education

Shedras are the institutions within the monastery where the study of Buddhist literature and philosophies are the primary curriculum. This orientation differentiates Shedra from other centres where chief activity concerns the physical way of conducting ritual and

ceremonies. Other monastic centres with adequate descriptions are annexed as *Appendix M*. A Shedra, equivalent to a College in a secular system warrants some discussion while delineating higher education in the monastic order. Bhutan currently has 15 Sheddras spread across the country. It is structured systematically as per the levels of monastic education namely, Elementary, (Zhirim), Middle/Secondary, (Dringrim) and Higher (Thorim). The sequence is Higher Secondary School (4 Years), Bachelors (2 Years) and Masters (3 Years). Therefore, a monk enrolled in a Shedra undergoes 9 years of rigorous learning and the structure appears to be similar in any Buddhist higher learning institutions, especially in India and Nepal (Tshewang, 2003).

Curriculum and admission to Monastic Higher Secondary level

Depth and width of the curriculum of the four year pre-university course of the monastic order which the students take up before getting enrolled into the degree level studies is impressive. The four year curriculum includes language and grammar, poetry, Buddhist philosophy, logic, religious history, Buddhist values and monkhood, evolution of Buddhism in Bhutan and functional English language. Curriculum in particular has relevance to discussion of the depth and quality of contents of RUB's admission of Dzongkha candidates into the initial teacher education and their competency in the subject.

As far as the admission is concerned monks who would have spent at least 8 years of study in other centres (Rabdey, Lobdra, Datshang, refer to Appendix M) are eligible to get admission to Shedra. Students with minimum of grade 8 from general school education are also eligible for this four year program. Of the 15 Sheddras or Colleges in Bhutan only two of them offer Bachelors and Masters Degree courses. These are Tango Shedra in Thimphu and Sang Chokhor Shedra in Paro.

Tango Buddhist College

With the farsighted vision, His Majesty, the Fourth King of Bhutan commanded the upgradation of Tango monastery to an institution of higher learning and to introduce graduate and post graduate studies in Buddhism in 1988 during the tenure of the 68th Je Khenpo, Tenzin Dendup. In 1997-98 the first batch of students with Masters Degree in Buddhist studies graduated. Rinchen Wangyal and Tashi Gaylay, graduates of the college shared with the researcher that some 30-40 students were enrolled however, only approximately 50% graduated given the long and tedious learning (pers. Comm., 15 March, 2007).

Course/Curriculum Structure

The Curriculum Structure presented here is offered at Bachelors and Masters Degrees.

Table 4.5 Curriculum Structure of Monastic Higher Education

Sl	Course Concentration	Degree name in Sanskrit	Degree name in English	Year
1	Tenchoe Khenpo Year I (Master of commentarial works)	Shastri	Bachelors	XIII
2	Tenchoe Khenpo Year II (Master of commentarial works)	Shastri	Bachelors	XIV
3	Rigzhung Lopen Year I (Teacher of ten sciences and philosophies)	Acharya	Masters	XV
4	Rigzhung Lopen Year II (Teacher of ten sciences and philosophies)	Acharya	Masters	XVI
5	Rigzhung Lopen Year III (Teacher of ten sciences and philosophies)	Acharya	Masters	XVII

The year reflected here is continuation of year XII, or Grade XII.

Sangchen Chokhor Buddhist College/University

Sangchen Chokhor in Paro as a Buddhist Monastery was established in 1765 by Choglay Trulku Sacha Tenzin (Wangchuk, 2003, p. 46). The place became the seat of Sungtrul (Speech reincarnation) of Zhabdrung Ngawang Namgyal (an architect of Bhutan's law and order) and thus it has a significant religious importance even today.

The lineage is linked to our Royal Family in that Yab, Dasho Ugyen Dorji, the father of

the queens of the Fourth King of Bhutan is the nephew of the fifth Speech reincarnation, Choglay Yeshi Ngodrup (1851-1917) (Tshewang, 1994).

Owing to its importance Yab Dasho Ugyen Dorji, became a patron, renovated, up-gradated the monastery and established Buddhist College in 1991 with 25 students and began to offer post graduate courses in 2000. Lam Rinjin Wangchuk was appointed as the Principal of the College in the same year and still heads the college. The college offers Buddhist studies which in contemporary terms is equivalent to a university. The current (2007) enrolment is 110 students and 14 tutors.

Curriculum of the College

In general terms curriculum is similar to the ones offered at Tango Buddhist College, and more generally in any Shedras or Buddhist Institute of higher learning in that it is nine years of rigorous learning including 4 years of Higher Secondary or Pre-University (PU). The area of concentration and nomenclatures of degrees also remain similar. However, a unique feature of the Sang Chokhor College lies in two main areas: specialization and admission open to diverse students.

Specialization leading to a Doctoral Degree

According to the principal of Sang Chokhor College, the uniqueness of the curriculum of the college is that students are required to specialize in a particular subject or area of learning. The student and college keep a record of the performance of the students in various subjects. A student is expected to put more effort in the specialized subject. By the time a student completes Masters Degree, he is considered the master of the subject: Logic, Language, and Philosophy. A student completes all the 13 philosophies which can be condensed to the four theologies of Buddhism which both the Tibetan and Bhutanese Buddhism follow. In general, an MA graduate completes all the 13

philosophies, but an inter-disciplinary MA student graduates with specialization in one of the four theologies of Buddhism in his/her subject of interest (Wangchuk, 2003).

A student with Master Degree can continue teaching his subject of specialization for two years acquiring a post of a *Specialized Tutor*, equivalent to an M. Phil. During this tenure, the candidate can enrol for PhD in the same subject of specialization which is a rigorous three years, including writing a thesis. The college is ready and capable but yet to enrol the first batch of PhD candidates.

Allowing students to specialize in a field has been adopted from the Nalanda University model, the first ever Buddhist University of the time. The same model was also propagated by Zhabdrung Ngawang Namgyal in the 17th century in Bhutan but did not appear to have gained much momentum. The Sang Chokhor Buddhist College deserves a loud applaud for making attempts to revive the once popular model.

Admission Open to diverse students

Currently the only regular students of the College are monks. However, the year 2005 marked a significant milestone in its history as the college began to cater its teaching outside the monastic sphere. The first batch of 25 Dzongkha lecturers of the Colleges of the Royal University of Bhutan and Education Ministry's academicians were enrolled in the Masters Degree program through distance mode. These candidates are lay people and civil servants. Course package of this program is not only of Sang Chokhor Buddhist College but most of the tutors also come from the same institute. The college management seems to be confident in continuing the program and even enrolling in for PhD who have MA and M.Phil. Policy plans and programs are under consideration to admit foreign students who are both lay persons and monks. With the implementation of this plan the college would become an advanced university level institution.

Monastic University Committee (MUC)

At the national level is the Monastic University Committee. The committee has been in existence for the last 20 years but the membership has been revised to seven members some seven years ago. The current seven members represent Monastic Commission, Monastic Body and University Secretariat. It has a Chairperson and Vice Chairperson. The main functions of the committee are to review policies plans and programs pertaining to the higher learning in the monastic order and to review membership of the committee. The committee also takes decisions and appoints tutors in the Shedras. The principal of the college is a member of the University Council of the Royal University of Bhutan.

The higher monastic learning institutes function under the umbrella of the Monastic University Management guidelines. For example, Sang Chokhor Buddhist College keeps regular contact with Lopchi (equivalent to a Registrar) of the Committee's Secretariat for its smooth management. The hierarchy of the college academic staff goes thus: Registrar, Principal, Professor, Senior Lecturer, Lecturers, and Apprentice teacher (Chorpen) (Wangchuk, 2003).

Assessment and Confer of Degrees

Admission to higher degree courses, especially Masters, and Doctoral is scrutinized through the MUC. The Committee also endorses the choice of thesis topics. Final assessment and evaluation of the performance and theses of the students are also under the guidance of the committee. The registry office or the secretariat of the committee compiles, prepares results and the final authority of the degrees is bestowed with the Je Khenpo's (Chief Abbot of the Bhutan) signature.

Convergence of Monastic and Secular Higher Education

The chronology of events establishes that higher education was prevalent in the monastic order prior to the secular one. By the same token graduate and post graduate levels of studies in Buddhism were evident as early as 1988 when the establishment of a National University of secular order remained a policy document as recent as 1999 (RGOB, 1999).

Considering the length and breadth of the courses offered in the monastic institutions, it is fair to say that they are colleges of a university. What remains to be answered is the lack of converge of the two: monastic and secular in the initial stage of discussing the higher education in Bhutan. However, what may be considered is the convergence of the two to complement and supplement quality teaching and learning. While quality has been the issue in the College of Education of RUB, a possible solution may be explored through collaboration with the monastic higher education.

Section Four

Teacher Education

The Ministry of Education by far has the largest number of employees in the Royal Government of Bhutan. Of over 18000 civil servants some 6000 are teachers, which constitutes about 30% and this is a significant share of the work force of the country. The large number of student teachers at the two colleges of education is commensurate with the need in the country. This section presents an overview of the teacher education in Bhutan with particular reference to pre-service or initial teacher training.

Brief History of Teacher Education in Bhutan

Teacher education is perhaps one of the more formalized professional training programmes established in Bhutan (NIEs, 2005). The establishment of Teacher

Training Institute (TTI) in Samtse (in southern Bhutan) in 1968 marked a historic move towards building a cadre of professionals who would use the most relevant teaching learning techniques to teach the children. The institute is now called Samtse College of Education and is one the member colleges of the RUB. Later, in 1975, a sister institute was established in Paro which now is known as Paro College of Education and is also a member college of the RUB.

Table 4.6 Enrolment strength at two Colleges of Education as of 2006

Paro College of Education (PCE)			
Programme	Male	Female	Total
B.Ed Primary	244	126	370
B.Ed Secondary	134	76	210
B.Ed Dzongkha	50	73	123
Samtse College of Education (SCE)			
PGCE	35	27	62
B.Ed Primary	132	87	219
B.Ed Secondary	192	73	265
Total of two Education Colleges	787	462	1249
Grand total of the University	2533	1287	3820

Table 4.6 above shows the two Colleges of Education housed some 1249 students (RUB 2006), constituting about 33% (one-third) of the student population of the RUB. By 2009 the number of student teachers in the two Colleges of Education has surged to 1568 students (969 men and 599 women). The trend is expected to continue. This demonstrates the need of teachers in the country and importance government attaches to the profession.

Both the colleges have developed and grown in the past three to four decades. Initially, they were established to offer certificate courses to teach in the primary schools. These certificate level programmes are being phased out. Now the institutes offer courses both at undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

Initial Teacher Education Model

The Initial Teacher Education in Bhutan currently (as of 2009) has two Models. One concerns Three-Year Bachelor of Education (both Primary and Secondary) offered to the graduates of Grade XII from general school system. The other model is the One-Year Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE).

The COE has been offering Three-Year B.Ed since 1983 (Samtse) and 1999 (Paro). With the placement of the two Colleges of Education are under the responsibility of the Royal University of Bhutan a significant reform process has been taking place in the past couple of years. One major initiative has been the B.Ed program to be extended to four years (RUB, 2008). One of the chief reasons for changing to four years is the RUB's requirement of the five modules per semester model. The other reason concerns the number of subjects to be covered that are required by the Ministry of Education. The third reason is associated with the improvement of quality of teacher graduates in terms of learning in-depth content and practice by increasing one more year of training. With the launching of Four-Year Model anytime, the COE have two models running parallel. Since the Four-Year Model was at development stage at the time of finalising the research, discussion presented in this chapter is largely that of the Three-Year B.Ed that is in operation.

The Three-Year model has six semesters with a semester long of practicum in the second year of the training. A student teacher spends five semesters in the college with face to face teaching learning with the faculty. The other model is the One-Year Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) catered to the first degree holders of Arts, Commerce, and Science and Dzongkha streams. Within the year long training, a trainee spends about 45 days of practicum in the schools.

It has been a matter of debate as to the content of the curriculum of teacher education. The teacher training colleges were part of the Ministry of Education until 2003. The MOE continues to have a say on the teacher education programmes because the ministry is the employer of the teacher graduates. A prominent issue has been the addition of new contents in the training programmes and it has always emerged from the need in the ministry. Two implications always dominated: the colleges have to revise and change the curriculum too often; and curriculum became overcrowded and a student has to study as many as 58 modules in the three year programme with 8-10 modules in a semester on an average.

Course Structure of B.Ed

The curriculum of the current Three-Year B.Ed programme has three main components and weighting of each in the entire programme is (1) Professional Development Studies (26%), (2) Personal Development Studies (22%) and Specializing Subjects (52%).

The overall objective of the first component, *professional development studies* is to enhance the student's professional knowledge, skills and attitudes required for effective teaching in Bhutanese schools (COE, 2007). This component includes education and related subjects namely teaching skills, child psychology, curriculum studies, education systems, education and development. A semester long teaching practice is also part of this component.

The second component of the initial teacher education in the Colleges of Education in Bhutan is the *personal development studies*. The overall objective of the courses included in the area of study is to enhance the student's basic knowledge and skills of communication in Dzongkha and English, and use of information technology in education for effective teaching in Bhutanese schools (NIEs, 2003). Courses included in

this component among other are study skills, academic writing, functional IT, Dzongkha for communication and English for communication.

Subject of specialisation is the third component of the teacher training. The aim of this area is to develop adequate knowledge and skills in the subjects of specialization and a lifelong desire for further exploration and inquiry in the disciplines of the student teachers' choices. A student teacher enrolled for B.Ed Secondary takes two subjects to be specialised in teaching them. The Primary B.Ed student teachers on the other hand are specialised in primary education subjects and any one of the secondary school subjects. The subjects include Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, English, History, Geography, Health and Physical Education, Information Technology, and Primary Curriculum Studies. Each of the subjects has 10 modules spread across the training period and aims at providing in-depth knowledge and appropriate instructional methods (NIEs, 2003). Curriculum structure and a list of modules for each of the components of the B.Ed programme are annexed in *Appendix N*.

School Experience (Practicum)

This is an important component of the B.Ed programme. All student teachers are required to spend one semester in the second year in their school of placement for teaching practice and experience (NIEs, 2003). This is reported to be a rigorous process in that lecturers of the college make regular supervision visits. The student teachers are required to prepare daily lesson plans and observations of the whole school functioning and make a comprehensive report upon return to the college (COE, 2007).

The course component of PGDE is similar to B.Ed with professional development studies, personal development studies and specialization of subjects. However, since the student teachers already have firm grounding in the subjects they spend more time in the

professional development studies. As discussed earlier the practicum for PGDE is for 45 days (COE, 2007).

Attempts have been made to make the programs of the teacher education as dynamic as possible. The two Colleges of Education maintain five-year cycle to revise their curriculum.

Section Five

Quality debates

Debates on the quality and standard of education have not spared Bhutan. This section attempts to highlight some of those that have been on in various forums of Bhutanese society.

Quality of Education and National Education Policy documents

The need to address the quality of education in Bhutan had been considered as early as 1976 with the drafting of the first National Education Policy where it is stated, ‘In order to improve the quality of education, certain concrete steps will have to be taken by the Department of Education’ (RGOB 1976, p. 7). The recommended steps included Teachers (selection, service conditions, salaries, special allowances, free education for children of teachers, housing, etc.), class size, science equipment and teaching aids, library, art and crafts, and so forth. As discussed elsewhere, some visionary thoughts had earlier been advanced, when the modern education system was hardly 15 years old (RGOB, 1982)

One might question whether or not those well intended recommendations were implemented. For example, the policy recommended giving ‘Special Allowances’ to heads and deputy heads of the schools and institutions (RGOB, 1982). A note

considered worth is the selection of teachers which in some ways may have affected the quality later on. The policy recommended the following criteria to be considered for selection of teachers:

Fluency in English, ability to live in a new culture, ability to appreciate the great assets in Bhutanese character, ability to learn from the local people, willingness to consult Bhutanese teachers on local matters. High qualifications should not be the criteria for appointment. Teachers who are enthusiastic, alive (sic) who show initiative and who can adapt themselves to local conditions are far more likely to become successful teachers in our country (RGOB, 1976, p. (ii)).

These criteria focused more on the moral aspect than the cognitive and wisdom aspects. Furthermore, it appears the criteria were meant to be applied to the expatriates who formed majority of the teaching force at that time.

The revised National Education Policy of 1982 contains more elaborately recommended strategies and activities. It appears some of the recommendations of the first National Education Policy of 1976 were being implemented when the revised version was under consideration. Although the ‘quality of education’ was not identified under a separate topic the policy document did talk about assurance of quality in the revised document (RGOB, 1982).

It is understandable that the policy objectives must impact and influence the plans and programs and therefore the users at large. The policy objectives of the National Education Policy of 1976 and 1982 seem to focus on the needs of the time. There was discussion that education and curriculum need to meet the manpower requirements of the country are immediately applicable to local conditions, dedicated to realizing national goals and aspirations, loyal to the King and Country, and similar inspirational statements. It appears that educational objectives which expected school graduates to be academically competitive, did not receive appropriate focus in the earlier years (RGOB, 1976).

Quality Issues: Some Sparks

The deterioration in the quality of education was raised in the 85th session of the National Assembly in 2006 (National Assembly of Bhutan Secretariat, 2006b). A significant number of members of the highest law making forum of the country were of the view that school graduates were weak in communicative skills; both spoken and written. Other critiqued the behavioural aspects of the students. A number of school and college graduates did not exhibit expected manners in the family and society at large according to some members of the assembly. The focus of concerns was the languages, both Dzongkha and English.

The aftermath of the discussion drew wider attention. There has been coverage in the media: television, radio, and newspapers. Views and opinions were expressed in the papers, readers' forum, personalities were interviewed.

Government directives towards addressing quality issues

A number of actions have been put in place to address the issue of quality of education. It has been discussed in the Council of Ministers following which the Prime Minister issued an Executive Order (vide letter no. COM/04/06/160 dated August 15, 2006) to the education sector: Ministry of Education and the Royal University of Bhutan. The order covered a wide range of areas including curriculum, facilities, pedagogy, and the like strategizing into short, medium and long terms. One of the order concerns 'ENHANCING TEACHER-CENTRED EDUCATION POLICY'. This included enhancing teacher quality at the entry level, review and reform of the initial teacher training programme, enhancing quality amongst existing in-service teachers, and enhancing English proficiency.

The Cabinet Secretary also conveyed a number of directives of the government to the Vice Chancellor, RUB on quality concerns (vide letter no. COM/04/06/1195, dated May

26, 2006 & COM/04/06/159, dated August 14, 2006). These directives mainly concerned Quality of Tertiary and Higher Education. Among one of the suggestions of some members of the Council, is the proposal to admit only undergraduate degree holders to the initial teacher education program. A recurrent issue seems to be a need to improve ‘Proficiency in English’.

As a follow up of the deliberations in the National Assembly, the Minister of Education submitted a report to the assembly on the status of activities being carried out to address the quality issue. Education Review Commission has been instituted to further look at education sector in the light of concerns raised over quality. The ‘Wheel of the Academic Law’ is a bible of the Royal University of Bhutan in that it spells out procedures and mechanisms to assure quality of the RUB programs and resources (RUB, 2008). As delineated elsewhere the two RUB colleges of education have been carrying out curriculum revision exercise responding to the quality concerns raised by the society at large and as a requirement of the RUB.

Summary

This chapter briefly explained the history of Bhutanese Education system encompassing school education system, higher education system and pre-service teacher education. A noteworthy inclusion in the chapter has been the monastic (higher) education system and its potential benefits of converging with the secular system.

Although the discussion of Bhutanese education system especially inclusion of monastic system could date as early as 18th century, system with a western or modern approach have prevailed from the 1960s. The Bhutanese general school education system experienced a rapid growth and development both in terms of enrolments, number of schools, curriculum, and history revealed that leadership of the ministry had significant

impact on the system. The 1980s saw a significant change in that nationalization of leadership of schools and institutions and contextualization of curriculum made headway. The political change and shift in the governance namely decentralization process and empowering the people at the grassroots level have had impact on the education system and the way it began to function. A cycle of teacher-student-teacher centeredness approach continues. While student-centeredness as an approach to teaching is desired, debate about teacher-centeredness in terms of providing attractive salary and incentives continues. What are not clear are policies and strategies that would attract the best school and university graduates to joining teaching, notwithstanding the Ministry of Education has invested substantial effort.

The higher education system in Bhutan was formalized with the establishment of the RUB in 2003. Although some colleges have been in existence since the 1960s they have become part of RUB and their programmes are accredited following the validation process of the RUB. With ten member colleges the RUB is making attempts to consolidate its system and gain recognition at the international level. Admission to RUB programmes is merit based and therefore limits to academically high achieving school graduates. The chapter also delved into the monastic higher education system. It revealed that considering length and breadth of programmes *shedras* are equivalent to colleges of secular system. With political commitment, monastic education system in Bhutan is receiving support and growing at a rapid pace.

Pre-service Teacher Education started as early as 1960s with less than 100 student teachers. What was then a non-degree course; the two Colleges of Education now offer B.Ed and PGDE. The two colleges have undergone change, growth and development which are significant. The colleges are responding to growing student numbers and

academic requirement of RUB as manager, and demands of the Ministry of Education as employer.

The debate on the quality of education is persistent and population of all walks of life is raising concerns. However, opinions are divided as to a solution. What cannot be established is whether claim is valid or invalid. What are also not clear are the dominant factors that affect the perceived deteriorating quality of education.

Chapter Five

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to maximize clarity and to delineate fundamental elements of methodology and method, considered of significant importance in this research. Methodology is the study of methods and a method is the means by which a researcher collects and analyses research material or data (McConnell-Imbriotis, 2004, Namgyel, 2003). McConnell-Imbriotis delineates that:

All methods are underpinned by a system of implicit beliefs and in any research project it is critical to know why certain approaches and their associated methods are chosen. These approaches or methodologies determine all aspects of the research process from what it is possible to ask of the research to aims, methods, ethics and outcomes (2004, pp. 29-30).

Similarly, Marrais and Lapan (2004) assert that the methodology must describe theory, principles and procedures of a particular field of inquiry. They provide a succinct difference between a method and methodology:

... A method is a particular research technique or way to gather evidence about a phenomenon. Methods are the specific research tools we use in research projects to fuller understanding of phenomenon. Examples of methods include surveys, interviews, and participant observation. ... Methodology encompasses our entire approach to research. Our assumptions about what we believe knowledge is are embedded in methodological discussions and therefore have consequences for how we design and implement research studies ((Hutchinson, 2004) deMarrais & Lapan 2004, pp. 4-5).

Furthermore, (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994) list essential phases involved in research design. These phases and their elements that are consistent with the study are considered. For example, paradigms-constructivism and interpretive; strategies-grounded theory; methods of data collection and analysis-interviewing, documents, records, computer assisted analysis, textual analysis; interpretation and presentation-the art of politics of interpretation, writing as interpretation, and policy analysis. These inform the choice of the components that a researcher would make which are pertinent to the topic.

The chapter has four broad sections namely interpretative research paradigm; mixed method research design; research procedure and ethical considerations. Each of these is described in respective sections.

Section One

Interpretative Research Paradigm

In simple terms, paradigm is a basic set of beliefs that guide action ((Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). They maintain that paradigms deal with principles, they are human constructions, and they define worldview of the researcher. A paradigm encompasses ethics, epistemology, ontology, and methodology Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Description of these is not within the purview of this study and hence is not considered. Frequently the subject of paradigm is associated with way of knowing and the nature of knowledge. Ways of knowing concern objectively or subjectively; in quantitative or qualitative terms (Creswell, 2008). Invariably, positivist views and interpretative views play a significant part in social science research.

In terms of positivist and interpretive approaches used in the social sciences, the interpretive paradigm takes precedence in this study. This is because the production of knowledge in the social world is possible through understanding the environment by interacting with subjects, observing critically their actions and interpreting the meanings (Neuman, 1991). The study required interaction in natural settings to understand the subjects properly and analysis of large number of documents and interviews in order to better understand the views of the subjects (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Neuman, 1991; Seale, 1999). Participants were asked to share their views and opinions of the quality of education at Colleges of Education in order to interpret and construct meanings. Thus, the study in question anchored around the interpretative paradigm.

Sections Two

Mixed Methods Design: QUAN-QUAL Model

This section briefly describes mixed methods and its type, the purposes and strengths of the methods chosen in the study: Survey, and Grounded Theory. The data collection instruments used was questionnaire and interviews. This section also discusses samples and sampling technique employed in the study.

Mixed methods are presented by types and models. First, a simple definition and a purpose of mixed methods are provided in the following words:

Mixed methods designs combine quantitative and qualitative approaches by essentially mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study. The purpose of mixed methods research is to build on the synergy and strength that exists between quantitative and qualitative research methods in order to understand a phenomenon more fully than is possible using either quantitative or qualitative methods alone (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006)..

Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2006) propose three types of mixed methods design: the QUAL-Quan Model (A), the QUAN-Qual Model (B) and the QUAN-QUAL Model (C). The importance and preference of these three types of mixed methods is determined by uppercase and lowercase letters used for each of the models. According to Gay et al (2006) in Model A, also known as exploratory mixed methods design, qualitative data are collected first and more weight is given to the qualitative data. In a second phase study, variables are identified from concepts derived from the qualitative analysis and hypotheses are tested with quantitative techniques. In Model B, also known as explanatory mixed methods design, the priority of data collection and weight given, are the reverse to Model A. But in Model C, which is also known as triangulation mixed methods design, both the quantitative and qualitative data are collected concurrently or in parallel and equally weighted (Creswell, 2008, Gay et al, 2006).

Essentially, in mixed methods one is discussing and making a case on “confluence of designs”. The quantitative research may achieve the same purpose by a larger number of respondents participating in the research and repeating the research more than once. By the same token the issue of reliability can be addressed. More about reliability is presented later in the chapter.

Some educational researchers have employed mixed approaches (Namgyel, 2003; Dorji, 2003) in which the qualitative and quantitative data are interwoven, complementing and supplementing each other; resulting in a strong evidence of triangulation. Instead of using only a test which takes precedence in the quantitative school, a researcher uses combination of qualitative data collection methods (Creswell, 2003; Mertens, 1998). Qualitative research involves performing a large number of tasks from interviewing to observing. Even within the qualitative method there is a degree of mixed as stated here:

Qualitative research is multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them... Qualitative researchers deploy a wide range of interconnected methods, hoping always to get a better mix on the subject at hand (Denzin & Lincoln 1994, p. 2).

Finally, the standpoint for choosing mixed or multi-method in this study is that the method has a number of benefits. One concerns how the subject treats a particular reality in that one might respond better through self-administered questionnaire whereas other might feel more comfortable with interviews. The use of quantitative and qualitative methods allows for the opportunity to look for compatible findings between the methods, thus ... “the use of more than one method in the study of a phenomenon is helpful in the development of construct validity” (Schutz et al, 2004, p. 276).

The mixed method is also an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question. In sum, the benefits of the proposed method revolves around finding compatibility, corroboration, seeking convergence, finding complimentary, using the results for expansion, investigating possible paradoxes and contradictions that

might emerge from the data (Schutz et al, 2004). To a large extent the multimethod has potential to maximize the validity of the study. The issue of validity is presented later in this chapter.

Survey and Grounded Theory

Essentially, mixed method is the mixed of quantitative and qualitative methods. Here, the design is a mixed of survey, which is quantitative in nature as the data collected is generally in the form of numbers. It is mixed with grounded theory, a design that is qualitative in nature. Therefore, a brief introduction to survey and grounded theory is considered and how each is treated in this study is presented.

Survey and Quantitative research

Survey research is discussed here encompassing definitions, advantages and strengths of using it, why it is appropriate in this study, and limitations and considerations to address them.

Survey research can be defined ... “as a means of gathering information, usually through self-report using questionnaires or interviews. ... surveys are more commonly considered the medium used for data collection” (Hutchinson, 2004, p. 285). Hence it is also known as self-report research (Gay et al 2006).

Of the various types of surveys, Cross-Sectional Survey Design is the most popular in education, and in this survey design, ... “the researcher collects data at one point in time, ... has the advantage of measuring current attitudes or practices. It also provides information in a short amount of time...” (Creswell 2008, p. 389). But how survey has been classified as quantitative in nature is detailed here:

“... you may not want to test an activity or materials or may not be interested in the association among variables. Instead, you seek to describe trends in a large population of individuals. In this case, a survey is a good procedure to use. Survey designs are procedures in quantitative research in which you administer a survey or questionnaire to a small group of people (called the *sample*)

to identify trends in attitudes, opinions, behaviors, or characteristics of a large group of people (called the *population*)” (Creswell, 2008, p. 61), and survey researchers collect quantitative, numbered data using questionnaires (p. 388).

Creswell (2008) also identifies possible areas of social science research that survey could possibly and effectively engage in namely trends in attitudes, people’s opinions, behavioural changes, other characteristics of population. Opinions and attitudes about the quality of education, factors affecting education quality could be gathered employing agreement and preferential scales.

Advantages and strengths of a survey

A notable strength of a survey method is that it gathers data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions. Such conditions help identify standards against which existing conditions can be compared (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Cohen & Manion, 1997; Sapsford, 1999). Best and Kahn (2006) are cognizant: “the survey method gathers data from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time. It is not concerned with characteristics of individuals as individuals. … It is essentially cross-sectional” (Best & Kahn 2006, p. 121).

In the same vein, the survey has its noted strength in its ability to measure attitudes, and, “attitudes are dispositions to react positively or negatively to some object. … Most definitions of attitudes suggest there are three major components: the cognitive, affective and behavioural components” (Burns 2000, p. 555). Invariably, questionnaire items and interview questions constitute these three domains. The survey method in this study is confined to descriptive.

Limitations of survey and considerations to address them

Survey design does not escape its limitations and they are mainly in the sample size, construction of questionnaire items and response rates and hence the generalizability of

the findings. The study ensured the samples were enough to be representative and statistically significant, care was also taken to developing clear and non-leading and/or non-threatening questions and every means was tried to ensure return rate of the questionnaires was high. More on this is highlighted later in the chapter.

Appropriateness of survey to this research is that it has potential to collect data from a fairly large sampled population within a short amount of time (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Burns, 2000; Creswell, 2008). The study intended to administer mail questionnaires to as many as 300 respondents which would not have been possible with one-to-one option. The study also entailed collecting data that needed a degree of confidentiality in that respondents would privately expressed their honest opinions. Mail and self-administered survey ensured this preference. Therefore, considering the strength and popularity of the design, survey has been found appropriate to be employed in the study.

Grounded Theory and Qualitative research

Qualitative research has more than one method: biography, case study, ethnography, phenomenology and grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1994 ; Mertens, 1998; Creswell, 2003). Grounded Theory is presented encompassing its definition, its strength, when it is generally used, weaknesses and considerations for overcoming the identified weaknesses, and its appropriateness to the current study.

Grounded theory is one that is inductively derived from the study of the phenomenon it represents. That is, it is discovered, developed, and provisionally verified through systematic data collection and analysis of data pertaining to that phenomenon. Therefore, data collection, analysis, and theory stand in reciprocal relationship with each other. One does not begin with a theory and then prove it. Rather, one begins with an area of study and what is relevant to that area is allowed to emerge (Strauss & Corbin 1990, p. 23).

Charmaz (2005) and Creswell (2008) also define grounded theory. According to Charmaz, the term Grounded Theory,

... “refers to both a method of inquiry and to the product of inquiry. However, researchers commonly use the term to mean a specific mode of analysis. Essentially, grounded theory methods are a set of flexible analytic guidelines that enable researchers to focus their data collection and to build inductive middle-range theories through successive levels of data analysis and conceptual development (Charmaz, 2005, pp. 507-508).

Creswell’s (2008) definition appears to emphasize, systematic and qualitative procedure: ... “A grounded theory design is a systematic, qualitative procedure used to generate a theory that explains, at a broad conceptual level, a process, an action, or an interaction about a substantive topic” (p. 432).

The study entails looking at quality in higher education, ITT models, quality assurance and its mechanisms.

Strengths of Grounded Theory

One of the strengths of the Grounded Theory is the... “approach encourages researchers to remain close to their studied worlds and to develop an integrated set of theoretical concepts from their empirical materials” (Charmaz, 2005, p.508). Concepts and empirical materials are arranged or coded into categories and themes. And, it seems the process of coding helps see a quality interaction of the researchers’ and research participants’ assumptions.

It appears grounded theory has the strength of being user friendly for the beginning qualitative researcher, because it ... “offers a step-by-step, systematic procedure for analyzing data. As a systematic process, grounded theory exhibits the rigour quantitative researchers like to see in an educational study” (Creswell 2008, p. 432). The other strength is as a tool to analyze process: “A major strength of grounded theory is that they provide tools for analyzing processes” (Charmaz, 2005, pp. 507-508). It also assists

qualitative analysts to extract other views and inductively theorize about the phenomena (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Patton, 2002).

One may also be tempted to discuss the benefits of grounded theory from the viewpoint of the researchers' position and roles. It is often the case that the researcher's role is that of an "analyst becoming implanted in the data" (Patton, 2002, p. 454). Data is sourced from interview, observations, and other qualitative data collecting instruments namely personal experiences, and various documents (Richards & Morse, 2007, p. 34; Strauss & Corbin, 1994, p. 274). In grounded theory in-depth interviews and/or semi-structured interviews, diary entries, participant observations and the like may be used to collect data (Morse, 1994a, pp. 224-225).

The other notable strength concerns its approach in that the grounded theory offers a well-established approach to ensuring that ideas and recommendations which the researcher develops and emerge from the data, are grounded in what key participants have contributed through their words and experiences (Goodley, Lawthom, Clough, & Moore, 2004, p. 119). The approach is rigorous as it enables the researcher/analyst implanting in the data and extracting theory via induction/deduction and comparative methods.

When to use Grounded Theory

Creswell (2008) offers possibilities as to when the grounded theory could best be used. It seems the approach is to explain a process and to study some process. The following words of Creswell sum up the kind of process involved and the research one sees employing grounded theory:

...you might examine a number of individuals who have all experienced an action, interaction, or process. Grounded theory designs are systematic, qualitative procedures that researchers use to generate a general explanation (called a *grounded theory*) that explains a process, action, or interaction among people. ... From this explanation, you construct predictive statement about the experiences of individuals (Creswell, 2008, p. 61).

Grounded theory is generally used when there is a need to generate theory from the data with the involvement of the researcher and participants. Thus, the interplay between the researcher and the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 13) is considered important because this close interaction enables generating and confirming the development of theory through “close involvement and contact with the empirical world” (Patton, 2002, pp.215-216), and there is much ‘groundedness’ (Patton, 2002, p. 454).

Weaknesses of Grounded Theory and measures to overcome them

One of the weaknesses of grounded theory is generally associated with researchers being unable to critically analyze. This was overcome because of the researcher’s association with the subject of study. The researcher worked in one of the colleges of education and has experience of the situation there.

The other weakness concerns the researchers’ tendency towards bias and a lack of sensitivity to the data can invalidate the results (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 7). In addition, immediate phenomena can not only be difficult theoretically to obtain and construct but also to theorize about in the analysis processes. There is an assumption that the researcher will have no preconceived views and framework of the theory. This could, to a large extent bias the results. But one would consider the researcher having no preconceived ideas what the theory is going to be about as an advantage (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005, p. 19). This has potential to exert control over any researcher’s bias.

Appropriateness of Grounded Theory to the current study

Thus far, grounded theory has been presented encompassing its definition, uses, and strengths. Now the design’s appropriateness to the study is discussed mainly in areas of methodology and mode of analysis, and its versatility nature of approach.

The study in question set out to find the perceptions of the Officers, Lecturers and Principals about the quality of pre-service teacher education at the Colleges of Education in Samtse and Paro, in Bhutan. A huge amount of qualitative and/or textual data was collected via the interviews and open comments. They were qualitative because “findings, or concepts and hypotheses... are not arrived at by statistical methods” (Glaser, 1992, p. 11). The grounded theory was considered appropriate because as a qualitative research methodology, the design is considered suitable for studying a diverse range of phenomena and analysing the unpredictable (Goodley et al, 2004).

Grounded theory is “a way of thinking about and conceptualizing data” (Strauss & Corbin, 1994, p. 275) that requires the researcher to become closely associated with and immersed in the data. The researcher in this study was deeply immersed in the interview process. From analyzing the same data and texts of the open-ended comments or the qualitative data to treating them and conceptualizing and then drawing thematic categorization with the help of emerging trends and patterns. Hence, the grounded theory as a mode of analysis was appropriate in this study.

The versatility nature of grounded theory makes it appropriate to this study. It is versatile because it guides a researcher through the process of producing theory that is conceptually dense (Patton, 2002). The interview process in grounded theory seeks to elicit a participant’s story (Morse, 1994b), and the story in the study concerned the story of the quality of teacher education. From this story unfolded unexpected sub-stories (See Chapter Six for details). The other versatility of grounded theory concerns its flexibility in that it supports the researcher who seeks to form a broad story of the phenomena and to expose the dimension, variations (Morse, 1994b, p. 39; Richards & Morse, 2007, p.

32). It is this approach that allowed the researcher to develop broad concepts, narrow down to themes and draw presentable conclusions in this study.

Design of instruments

This section details the design of the research instruments: how the researcher developed the questionnaire and interview schedule. Purpose and contents of the instruments are also highlighted.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a self-administered instrument of the survey family (Alreck & Settle 1995). A major advantage of the questionnaire is that a large number of respondents can participate in the project enhancing the validity of the research. What follows is the content of the questionnaire items.

The questionnaire had six sections (A-F) namely, biographical data, concepts of quality in education, quality of teacher education at the Colleges of Education, factors affecting the quality of teacher education at Colleges, preferred pre-service teacher education model and models for pre-service teacher education quality assurance. A brief overview of each section is relevant here.

Section A asked the participants to identify their gender, age range, and their occupational positions. These demographic data was thought to be useful in the identification and discussion of the differences of opinions (if any) among data of the rest of the other sections and/or within the section. Questionnaire items in Sections B, C, D, E and F were based upon the literature in Chapters Two, Three and Four. For example, various definitions and concepts of quality of education formed basis for items in Section B which asked the respondents to rate on a 5-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree). Likert scale gets respondents to indicate their degree of

agreement to comprehend their attitude toward an object, and the like (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Kent, 2001). Section C contained items on the quality of teacher education programs at colleges for which respondents were asked to rate the scale. Dorji (2003) and NIEs (2005) discussed the quality of teachers in terms of qualifications and pedagogical experiences. Hence six questionnaire items in this section encompassed these aspects of quality at the Colleges of Education.

Hannan (1994) employed survey questionnaire to find responses of the Headteachers', Parents', Students' and Teachers on reform of primary initial teacher education. Using survey questionnaire respondents were asked to indicate their degree of support or opposition. A 5-point scale used was Strongly Support, Support, Neutral/don't Know, Oppose, or Strongly Oppose. Similarly Carrington and Tymms (1994) used 5-point scale: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Not Sure, Agree, or Strongly Agree to find Headteachers' perspectives on Primary Education Policy.

Leveson (2004) explored the factors affecting the teaching among the university academics. A range of factors seemed to have affected teaching both negatively and positively. These are lack of resources, poor staff-student ratio, lack of institutional culture to reward good quality teaching, either through promotion or other incentives, burdensome workload, administration, classes too large, workload too heavy, student lack of interest, curriculum restructure, greater complexity of subject, problems with the system, general decline in course quality, and poor status of teaching.

What seems to be lacking in the currently available literature according to Leveson is "...an empirical study into the academic's approaches to teaching and their perceptions of their teaching environment" (2004, p. 368). Apparently there is a need for an empirical investigation rather than blanket assumptions in order to accurately reveal what is or is not important for teaching staff in any particular context (Leveson, 2004).

However, three critical factors: class size, workload, and student characteristics while formal support mechanisms for quality teaching emerged from the literature review as affecting teaching both negatively and positively. They were included in the questionnaire items in Section D of the questionnaire.

Sections E and F contained questionnaire items on the preferred models for pre-service teacher education and quality assurance respectively. Respondents were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert scale (Least preferred to Most preferred models). Basis for these questionnaire items were drawn from literature in Chapter Three where various teacher education models have been reviewed in the UK (Europe), Asia, Australia and America. Similarly, quality assurance models have been based on the movements in Europe, Asia and Australia and the US. At the end of each section, an open ended question invited participants to add their views and opinions (see Appendix B for details).

Participants and sampling procedure

Discussion of quality in higher education, models of teacher education and quality assurance mechanisms reveal the importance of participation by the stakeholders. For example, Green (1994) and Winch (1996) appear to equate educational worthwhileness to commercial product the quality. In other words quality in education needs to be understood by the employers and providers, just as a quality of a product need to be understood by both the owner and the user in the commercial sector. Thus, inclusion of educational stakeholders, the programme developers, managers and beneficiaries as participants in the research was identified as important. Respondents to the questionnaire included officials of the Ministry of Education, officials of the Royal University of Bhutan, Heads of Colleges of Education, Principals and Head teachers of schools, District Education Officers, and Lecturers of the Colleges of Education.

In survey research, understanding the target population and sampling population is important (Gorard, 2001). Study target population is a list of all the cases the researcher desired to include in the study. Due to a range of practical reasons: time constraint, geographical considerations, among others, the researcher was unable to use the entire population which numbered over 600 (See Tables 5.1 and 5.2 for details). The choice of this type of population size in this study was because the study requires the participation of pre-service teacher training providers and employers of graduates. Wiersma (1991) and Silverman (2000) maintain that purposive sampling allows the researchers to choose a case, which illustrates features in which they are interested. From purposefully selected population, individuals were listed using random sampling technique. It is random or by chance because any individual of the population could have been included as part of the sample. The researcher in this study used the technique in that the entire list of target population was obtained from the Colleges of Education, Royal University of Bhutan and Ministry of Education. To mitigate researcher bias every second person was picked up by serial numbers without referring to their biographical details. A set of questionnaire was mailed to each one of them.

An overview of the questionnaire respondents and interview participants is now presented in terms of two Colleges of Education, and Royal University of Bhutan. This included programmes managers, providers, owners and schools and officials of the Ministry of Education as the employers and users of the graduates.

Royal University of Bhutan's Prospectus 2008 revealed that it had 10 officials in the office of the Vice Chancellor and 80 academic staff in the two Colleges of Education including the directors. General Statistics 2008 of the Ministry of Education lists close to 500 schools, which include Primary, Lower Secondary, Higher Secondary and Private schools. Each has a head, either a principal or a headteacher. The ministry has four

departments and several divisions. Of the 300 staff in the ministry central office 40 of them hold posts of a director, a joint director or a section head that have direct stake with the teacher education programmes at the colleges and their graduates.

Table 5.1 Programme providers: Royal University of Bhutan

Sites	Who	Available	Participation	%
Royal University of Bhutan	Officials of the Vice Chancellor's Office	10	5	50
Colleges of Education,	Directors, Principals, Lecturers	80	40	50
Total		90	45	50%

Table 5.2 Graduate users/employers: Ministry of Education

Sites	Who	Available	Participation	%
Head Office of the Ministry of Education	Secretaries, Directors, Joint Directors, Division and Section heads	40	20	50
Districts (Dzongkhags)	District Education Officers	20	10	50
Schools: all levels	Principals, Headteachers	458	229	50
Total		518	259	

Table 5.3 Total sampled questionnaire respondents

Programme providers	45
Programme users/ employers	259
Total	304

Tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 shows the target population of the study.

As far as the sample size in the survey is concerned Alreck and Settle (1995) mention minimum and maximum limits. They maintain that most experienced researchers regard 100 to be a minimum sample size and the maximum practical size to be 1000. Under normal circumstances “it is necessary to sample more than 10 percent of the population to obtain adequate confidence, providing that the resulting sample is less than about 1,000 and larger than the minimums noted earlier” (Alreck & Settle, 1995, p. 89). It is thus fair to say that 50 percent of the available population must ensure reasonable confidence. The sample size of the proposed study was consistent with the literature both in terms of number of cases (304) and percent (50). In other words every second person of the target population had an opportunity to participate in the self-administered survey questionnaire.

Interview schedule

Interview has been considered a second major data collection technique (Gay et al, 2006) and a cross cutting tool of inquiry in all types of qualitative researches, including Grounded Theory. Interview is a purposeful verbal interaction intended to dig information on a research study (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Fontana & Frey, 2005; Gay et al, 2006). “An interview is a process in which a researcher and participant engage in a conversation focused on questions related to a research study” (deMarrais, 2004, p. 54).

Interviews can be highly structured, semi-structured, to highly unstructured or open-ended and in-depth. It is also known by being very formal to very informal (Best & Kahn, 2006). The structured option tends to have a standardized list of questions. In some ways survey interviews follow this approach, and may be criticized as being too mechanical and quantitative data collection technique. Conversely, unstructured interview by definition does not seem to have a list of questions, but an idea to explore. It is being criticized for being too open and often gets deviated from the area of study, and therefore arise the problem of validity (Burns, 2000).

Semi-structured Interview

Along the continuum, semi-structured option is being increasingly used, as a middle pathway. It is one that, “Rather than having a specific interview schedule or none at all, an interview guide may be developed...” (Burns, 2000, p. 424). The semi-structured interview has potential to provide a direction without fixed wording or ordering, but at the same time it also permits greater flexibility than the close-ended type and thus a more valid response can be expected (Burns, 2000). The strength of the semi-structured interviews is that it not only provides liberty to the interviewer but also to the interviewees and would make the atmosphere of the interaction relaxing. The creation of

a collegial atmosphere is essential to harvest quality data without which there is likelihood of interviewing bias (Alreck & Settle, 1995) taking precedence. Considering the strengths and advantages of semi-structured interview the same was employed in this study.

Interview Participants

The research invited seven participants from among the officials of RUB, MOE, COE and lecturers to participate in the interviews. deMarrais (2004) shares a possible criterion to select interviewees for qualitative research, “Interview researchers select people to talk with who have the knowledge and experience about the particular focus of the study. A primary consideration is to select participants who can talk about the topic” (p. 59). Seven participants were those who the researcher thought had the knowledge about the subject and could talk. They were selected on the basis of their availability and representation (RUB, COEs, MOE).

In qualitative research, it is the in-depth inquiry into the phenomenon and not the number of participants which is more important. Therefore, it is fair to say that qualitative data collected from seven persons through semi-structured interviews harvested substantial amount of data.

Interview Guide: Semi-structured

Contents of the schedule were similar to the questionnaire items but were left rather broad, flexible enough within each area to ask sub-questions and room for interpretations by the interviewee and the interviewer. It had six sections, A-F. Each section asked a broad question concerning an educational area (See Appendix C). As is permissible in a semi-structured interview, the researcher asked several questions within that broad area in any order (Best & Kahn, 2006; Gay et al, 2006)). For example,

Section F invited interviewees to share their views on the models or mechanisms that would assure quality of teacher education. They were permitted to express their experiences on the subject.

Section Three

Data Collection Procedures

This section, research procedure, elucidates the steps involved in the administration of questionnaire and conduct of interviews to collect data. The section also briefly presents data analysis procedures that were employed in this study.

Between March and June 2006 questionnaire and interview schedules were ready. The data collection instruments were reviewed, revised and further refined. Data collection was done following these procedures.

Initial Pilot study

The questionnaire was completed by three Bhutanese students undergoing postgraduate studies at the University of New England. The exercise was scheduled for the end of May, 2006. They were teachers by profession. The same individuals also piloted the interview questions. A letter inviting them to participate in the pilot study was drafted and reviewed with the incorporation of comments.

Pre-testing of the questionnaire

Fowler (2002) maintains, “once a set of questions has been drafted, and revised as warranted, the next step is to find out if they are questions people consistently can understand and can answer” (p. 108). Similarly, Alreck and Settle (1995) and Gay et al (2006) also reiterate the importance of pre-testing for clarity of instructions, the scales, question items, and time taken.

The questionnaire was pre-tested with seven principals of schools in Paro Valley (Paro is one of the 20 Districts of Bhutan and is located in the country's western region), eight Heads of Departments of the Paro College of Education (erstwhile NIE), and ten Curriculum Officers of the Ministry of Education. The questionnaires were sent to the participants in the first week of September 2006 each with a self-addressed envelope to be returned to the researcher.

Eighteen sets of questionnaires were returned. Based on the written feedback of the respondents five items were added to make the items of the questionnaire clearer and more comprehensive. They were items 18, 19, 32, 34 and 35 making the total items 41. Items 18 and 19 asked the "Trainees having to study too many modules every semester" and "Overburden workload for trainees leaving no time for independent study and self reflection" respectively as possible factors affecting the quality of training at the Colleges of Education. Section E contains different models of pre-service teacher training. Item 32, "Four-Year B.Ed with one year of practice teaching" was added as a separate one in the revised version. Items 34 and 35, "Practice teaching to be at a stretch of a semester or a year" and "Practice teaching to be progressive with few weeks to few months spread over different years of the training" respectively were added.

Other change concerned the name of the institute. The Royal University of Bhutan recently circulated a letter with new names of its member colleges. Similarly, the National Institute of Education, Paro was changed to Paro College of Education (PCE). PCE replaced NIE wherever pertinent in the questionnaire. Some minor changes were made by way of adding or deleting words, and the order of items got revised from the earlier draft. With these changes and improvement the final questionnaire was ready and administered.

Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered between October-December 2006 in order for the data to be returned to the researcher before schools and institutions closed for winter holidays in December. A cover letter with clear instructions accompanied each questionnaire booklet. The respondents were asked to send back the questionnaire to the researcher at Paro College of Education, Paro, using the self-addressed envelope within December 10, 2006.

Alreck and Settle (1995) caution possible pitfalls of mail data collection and provide useful suggestions to overcome them. One important aspect concerns the quality construction of a mailing. Table below describes materials, which is good, fair or poor. Considering the long distances in Bhutan the quality option was fair if not good.

Table 5.4 Quality control of the mail questionnaire

Components	Good	Fair	Poor
Paper	Twenty pound or heavier, 100% rag bond	Twenty pound or heavier, part cotton rag stock	Light paper that is not opaque, so print shows through
Color	White, off-white, light grey, or beige paper, black ink	White paper and black ink	Bright, dense, or unusual colours, pink, blue or yellow
Size	Letter-size panels, #9 and #10 envelopes, or special sizes	Letter-size sheets, #9 and #10 envelopes	Legal size or oversize paper, envelops, small or folded
Print	Typeset, multisize, proportional, justified, bold italics	Typed, singlestrike ribbon, 12 pitch	Typed, old ribbon, smaller than 12 pitch
Layout	Ample white space, use of graphics and shading	Ample white space, well separated sections	Cramped, dense, narrow margins, sections too closed
Attachment	Large, folded stock, saddle stapled multiple pages	Single sheets, stapled in upper, left corner	Pages not attached or multifolded and complex

Source: Adapted from Alreck & Settle (1995)

In addition to mailing the piece components, four or five essential components make up the piece: the mailing envelope, the cover letter, the questionnaire, the return envelope, and perhaps the inducement. Care was taken so that a mailing piece had each of these components.

Interviews

Between November and December 2006, the researcher conducted seven interviews. After securing authorization from the Ministry of Education and the Royal University of Bhutan, individual interviewees were contacted over phone or in person and appointments made with them at their convenience. The researcher interviewed seven stakeholders ensuring as far as possible regional, positional and gender representation. Each interviewee received a copy of the semi-structured interview guidelines before the interviews in order for them to mentally prepare and feel comfortable during the conversation. The researcher took a detailed note of the conversation, expanded and transcribed later. Initially the conversation was taped but this technique made the interviewees uncomfortable and artificial. The ensuing interactions were not tape recorded. Some Owing to the geographical distance and time constraint reminding through mails was not realistic. The researcher made calls to DEOs to remind the respondents when they came to the district head office. Respondents from RUB, MOE and COEs were personally contacted over phone. These reminders have enhanced the response rate from the questionnaire.

Data analysis procedures

This section briefly discusses how quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed. Questionnaire and interview were used as data collection techniques. A huge amount of both types of data were collected from managers of the university's tertiary institutes, professors, lecturers and concerned stakeholders who were the participants of the study.

Questionnaires were checked to see if any pages were missing and whether or not the question items were answered properly and completely. None of the questionnaires had to be discarded. Each set of questionnaires was labeled with a serial ID for identification before finally punching the data into the computer.

Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures

Quantitative data collected via the questionnaire was analyzed using “*Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS)*”. The SPSS provides several programs for analysis, such as inferential, multivariate, test of significance, correlation statistics, and the like. These more complex analytical statistics have utility in quantitative methods that are consistent with the scientific, technical or positivist paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). They may not be, however, appropriate in the interpretative paradigm that underpins this study.

Essentially, statistical data in this study were analyzed using two levels of analysis within the largely simple descriptive statistics. One was the “Distribution of Frequency and Percentages” and the other “Categorical Data: Chi-Square and Crosstabulation. What, why and how each one is relevant in this study is discussed.

The use and purpose of *Frequency Distribution*, as Rose and Sullivan (1996) state, is: “... frequency distribution (the number of cases and in the categories of a variable) and percentage distributions (p. 84). Using Frequency Procedures of the SPSS Tables of Frequencies (also called General Tables) were generated. This procedure was employed for generating frequency distributions of the “Biographical Information” of the respondents and “Degree of agreement and degree of preference to various aspects of quality of education” (See Chapter Six). The purpose and strength of this procedure is that it provides a convenient two-way contingency table (Field, 2000; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005; Kinnear & Gray, 2008). The SPSS output tables have been cleaned up to present only the variables (bio-data; degree of agreement; degree of preference, so on) on the columns and frequencies and percentages on the rows (See Chapter Six).

Each questionnaire item had a frequency distribution table. These data provided an overview of the data because “a frequency distribution is an organized tabulation showing exactly how many individuals are located in each category on the scale of measurement” (Gravetter, 2007, p. 15).

The next analysis used was the *Categorical Data: Chi-Square and Crosstabulation*. Sometimes, the interest is in categorical variables or grouping variables that describe categories of people: gender, age groups, positions, so forth (Sapsford, 1999; Field, 2000). The employment of Chi-square test can address a question of this nature. Further, Burns (2000) states its appropriateness to social science research:

There are many educational and social science issues which involve nominal data for which chi square is a simple and appropriate means of analysis; for example, social class levels, academic subject categories, age groups, sex, voting preferences, pass-fail dichotomies, etc., (Burns, 2000, p. 213).

Of the two noted uses of chi-square test, the “*Chi-Square Test for Independence*” (the other one is the “chi-square test for goodness-of-fit) is considered more appropriate to this study although the two in many ways are similar. The reason being that the chi-square test for independence is “a test that uses the frequencies found in sample data to test a hypothesis about the relationship between variables in the population” (Gravetter, (2007, p. 257). The test proposed here is that of non-parametric statistical tests in nature because it is not about making assumptions about the parameters of the populations. Thus, it is clear that the goal of the chi-square test for independence is to evaluate the relationship, not the hypothesis testing, between the two variables.

Further, the test allows the analysis of cases across variables. Cross tabulations are also referred to as cross-classifications or contingency tables. Rose and Sullivan observe that cross-tabulations:

... are tables of counts which describe and analyse the relationship between two or more variables in a data-set. They contain row variables across the horizontal axis and column variables down the vertical. Cell entries give the number of cases (persons, households, or other units of analysis) that occur in each cell. The cells themselves are formed by combining one category from each of the row and column variables (Rose & Sullivan 1996, p. 233).

The data had variables, bio-data and scales of agreement and preference. Bio data consisted of three sub categories of gender, age groups and positions. Scales ranged “Strongly Disagree-Strongly Agree and Least Preferred-Most Preferred”. The study intended to find out whether there was any relationship between the categories of various variables by employing “Chi-Square Test for Independence”.

The Chi-Square test formula reproduced below explained by Gravetter and Wallnau (2005) has been employed using SPSS: $\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$, where in common language, Chi-square (χ^2) is equal to the sum (\sum) of the square of observed frequencies (f_o) minus expected frequencies (f_e) divided by expected frequencies.

To provide clear picture of the process and formula a brief discussion of the “null hypotheses”, “observed and expected frequencies”, and “degrees of freedom”, “probability” and “statistical significance” is imperative. A variable or two from the study deem pertinent are exemplified to draw better linkage.

“The *null hypothesis* for the chi-square test for independence states that the two variables being measured are independent” (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005, p. 466). For example, Item 15 “Inadequate support and motivation from the management” as a null hypothesis. This item was rated on a 5-point scale of Strongly Disagree-Strongly Agree. The five scales are sub-categories within a variable, “*rating scale*”. The item was rated

by respondents with various categories namely *gender, age groups and positions*. There were sub-categories within each of these variables. The assumption was that there would be no significant difference between these populations, null hypothesis represented by “ H_0 version 2” (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005, p. 466), about the stated quality factor, (hypothesis).

Finding *Observed frequencies* (f_o) and *Expected frequencies* (f_e) is next and is equally important while employing chi-square test. Their definitions are:

The observed frequency is the number of individuals from the sample who are classified in a particular category. Each individual is counted in one and only one category. ... the expected frequency for each category is the frequency value that is predicted from the null hypothesis and the sample size (n) (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005, pp. 458-459).

Formula for expected frequency is written as, $f_e = \frac{f_c f_r}{n}$ (see Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005, p. 469) where f_c is frequency for the column (column total), f_r is the frequency total for the row (row total), and n is the number of individuals in the entire sample.

Each chi-square distribution is identified by *Degree of freedom (df)* and the chi-square distribution is “the theoretical distribution of chi-square values that would be obtained if the null hypothesis was true” (Gravetter, 2007, p. 257). For the chi-square test of independence, degrees of freedom are based on the number of cells for which you can freely choose expected frequencies” (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005, p. 469). Thus, the formula is written as,

$$df = (R - 1)(C - 1), \text{ where } R \text{ is the number of rows and } C \text{ is the number of columns.}$$

Employing the logic and rationale discussed above on each questionnaire items by variables using SPSS: Analyze-Descriptive-Statistics-Crosstabs-Explore-Chi-Square procedure, a huge amount of results was harvested in the form of tables. Next was to make decisions whether or not each result was statistically significance. To identify significant differences of opinions among the variables levels of probability were used.

Burns (2000) defines *probability* and level of significance or *statistical significance*: “If the odds against occurrence by chance are greater than a certain figure, the educational researcher decides that the result is statistically significant. In practice certain fixed probability levels are generally used” (pp. 75-77). The highest probability generally considered is $p = 0.05$ occurrences by chance in 100 and possibly lower level of $p = 0.001$ or 1 occurrence in 1000. In general, the lower the probability of a chance result (low p value), the more confidence the researcher has in the results. The major thresholds for decisions about statistical significance that are conventionally accepted are the three $p =$ values of 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 (Burns, 2000).

Qualitative Data Analysis Procedures

Richards (2005) emancipates the richness of qualitative data, but only if they are treated with heart and analyzed well.

The researcher discovers themes, or threads in the data, by good exploration, good enquiry. By handling the data records sensitively, managing them carefully and exploring them skillfully, the researcher “emerge” ideas, categories, themes, hunches, and ways of relating them (Richards, 2005, p. 68).

Textual data collected via the open-ended questions were transcribed and recorded against the respective Ids of the quantitative data because they were the same persons. The data was cleaned up by way of deleting those Ids who did not write any comment. Five separate files were created for each of the five aspects of quality, Sections B-F. Similarly, interviews were also transcribed referring to the notes, and were recorded.

Since the semi-structured interviews had five categories of questions, Sections B-F each one of them was put under respective section and merged with open comments. This way qualitative data collected through two techniques were considered as one and analyzed accordingly.

The researcher read the data several times to develop a feel and to make sense of them because “analysis initially consists of developing a general sense of the data, and then coding description and themes about the central phenomenon” (Creswell, 2008, p. 244).

The central phenomenon in the study was the quality aspects of education and intended to explore ideas that support the main theme. Chapter Six reveals the data did provide ordinary themes, unexpected themes, hard-to-classify themes, major and minor/sub themes, and the texts deemed related were imported to these themes till saturation, till a point no new information could be added (Creswell, 2008).

Essentially, “the purpose of analyzing the data is to find meaning in the data, and this is done by systematically arranging and presenting the information” (Burns, 2000, p. 430).

As delineated elsewhere the grounded theory procedure allows the researcher to remain close to the studied worlds and by following a step-by-step procedure during data collection and analysis (Charmaz, 2005 and others). In the same vein the data were systematically arranged, and presented.

Reflections on Validity and Reliability

The issue of reliability and validity is considered important in any research. This section provides reflections on these, their pertinence to qualitative research in particular and how the study made attempts to address these issues.

Validity

The term validity concerns the degree to which a test measures what is supposed to measure. The definition such as this, “In qualitative research, validity is the degree to which the qualitative data we collect accurately gauge what we are trying to measure” (Best & Kahn, 2006, p. 403) suggests its relevancy to both qualitative and quantitative researches. It appears however, the problem of validity might arise in quality research if these areas, trustworthiness, descriptive, interpretive, theoretical, and evaluative are not adequately given considerations.

According to Best and Kahn, (2006) trustworthiness concerns addressing the credibility, transferability, so forth of the studies; descriptive validity refers to the factual accuracy of the account being investigated, without being distorted; interpretive validity is the meaning being made out of the data, be it words or behaviours of the participants. Theoretical validity involves the ability of the research report to explain the phenomenon being studied and how it is being related well to the theory; and evaluative validity refers to which the research reports are presented with maximum objectivity, unbiased, appropriateness, and adequacy.

In general terms, content validity and construct validity seem to feature both in quantitative and qualitative researches. Content refers to the content coverage including the content of the data collecting instruments. Construct involves the level of language, length of questions: questionnaire items or interview guidelines. Whether or not these are appropriately considered has potential to implicate on the validity.

Reliability

The term reliability refers to an act, whether or not it is consistent. A set of sister terminology include accuracy, stability, dependability, and predictability (Burns, 2000;

Best & Kahn, 2006; Gay et al, 2006). Although, traditionally reliability is associated with only quantitative and scientific experimental researches its relevance in qualitative paradigm may not be undermined. A number of authors such as Brock-Utne (n.d., p. 8) Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, (2002), and Golafshani (2003) assert that quality research concerns reliability as much as it does validity. Further Golafshani (2003) reiterates its position, “The use of reliability and validity are common in quantitative research and now it is reconsidered in the qualitative research paradigm” (p. 1). The issue of reliability in qualitative research; among others, concerns the techniques the researchers use to gather data, consistency of the responses, and the generalizability of the findings.

Gay et al, (2006) describes the reliability and appropriateness of the techniques, be interviews, or observation. Because of the large number of participants in a survey, for quantitative data, it is fair to generalize based on the findings. The same stance is being questioned in qualitative research due to small number of participants. However, to understand what is happening and why is the main goal of qualitative research and it is possible to gauge it from a small group of selected participants, and the reliability lies in “the relevance of findings” (Gay et al, 2006, p. 407).

Measures for ensuring validity and reliability in the study

The study made attempts to address these issues in order that validity was ensured. Recall, the research design, data analysis procedures employed, ethical considerations that follow and these all along addressed possible validity issues. Care was taken to include the contents of the questionnaire items that were familiar to the respondents. The pilot and pre-testing of the questionnaire further improved the specificity of the instrument. Similarly, the contents of the semi-structured guidelines included the concepts and issues with which the participants were familiar. By the same token, plain

and non-technical language and fairly short and simple questions ensured the mitigation of construct validity problem.

One of the main purposes of employing mixed methods was to maximize reliability in that the data collected from different sources complemented. The QUAN-QUAL design allowed triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data by concurrently analyzing and reporting.

Section Four

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations and how permission was sought are highlighted in the last section of this chapter.

It is of great importance that social researchers consider ethical issues in the study, especially in the educational setting, has potential to encounter extremely complex and subtle situations (Cohen & Manion, 1997). Ethical considerations concern three stages: pre-data collection, during data collection and post-data collection (Gay et al, 2006). Each of the stages was addressed in the following ways.

Pre-data collection

For the study to be valid and reliable and to fulfill university norms it is important for the accrediting body to approve the study. Therefore, approval was sought from the University of New England Human Research Ethics Committee. Necessary forms and documents were filled up prior to data collection. The importance of such approval is shared here:

If you will be conducting your research under the auspices of a college or university, you will be required to submit an application for approval of research with human

subjects prior to conducting the study. ... The purpose of the approval process stems from a federal mandate to protect the rights of research participants, particularly those considered vulnerable, such as children or institutionalized individuals (Hutchison, 2004, p. 298).

Whether it is a federal mandate or a mandate of the government, the purpose for requiring approval is geared towards protecting the subjects. In the same vein, the research in question was conducted under the auspices of University of New England and its research policy requires the researchers to seek prior approval. The UNEHREC accordingly accorded approval vide letter no. *HE06/101 valid from 21st June 2006 to 21st June 2008* in June 2006 (Refer *Appendix A* for details of contents).

It is a moral responsibility of the researcher to apply for and receive consent of the institutions that are responsible for the proposed participants. Hence, permission was sought from the Office of the Vice Chancellor, the Royal University of Bhutan to meet the stakeholders. Since the study had a number of participants from districts, schools and education head office permission was sought from the Ministry of Education.

During data collection

The researchers are often faced in serious dilemmas between the demands placed on them as professional scientists and participants' rights and values. The process places a moral obligation upon the researcher. Tisdale (2004) equates this obligation to protecting the vulnerable subjects of the research. Be it self-administered questionnaire or interviews a noble responsibility of the researcher is to protect the participants who because of their expressed views might feel threatened at worst and uncomfortable at best. Every means was considered to make the participants comfortable, protected, and not to intimidate them. Because without assuring their maintenance of confidentiality and anonymity the intended data may not be valid or reliable.

Individual participants were invited through consent letter or by meeting them personally to participate in the study. The cover letter that accompanied the questionnaire explained the purpose of the study. The information in the letter mentioned about the freedom of the participants to discontinue if they felt uncomfortable at any stage of completing the questionnaire or the interview. The researcher explained the purpose of the study to the interviewees. Optimum care was taken in considering the opinions and beliefs of the respondents.

Another ethical issue involved during the data collection, concerned tape recording of the conversation. In order not to lose data and responses, the researcher tape-recorded the interviews. Due permission was sought from the participants. However, the initial interviews, using a tape, experienced some unnaturalness of the conversation. Hence, tape was not used in the subsequent interviews. The researcher was more diligent in note taking during the interviews.

Post data collection

Ethical obligation of the researcher to the participants after data collection is as important as before and/or during collection. It involves the storage of the information, access to them, analyzing them and to publication of the same (Creswell, 2003). The researcher maintained the data that were collected using questionnaire and interviews. They were stored in the filing cabinet under lock and key for ensuring their safety. The researcher provided pseudo names or alternative identity to each participant and entered into the computer program for analyzing. This information was clearly mentioned in the covering letter of the questionnaire. Similarly, interviewees were given the freedom to discontinue if they felt uncomfortable at any stage of the interaction.

The next concern was access to the information. At the initial stage, only the researcher and his supervisors could access the collected data. At a later stage, if necessary, the

Office of the Vice Chancellor, Royal University of Bhutan and the Head Office of the Ministry of Education may also have access. In consultation with the researcher other researchers in the same area of study could also have access if the future study was to carry out within two-three years from the time this initial data was collected. As the researcher had invited the participants to share their personal views that in some ways may be detrimental to other parties, it was essential to ensure individuals could not be identified.

Final ethics the researcher is obliged to, concerns publication of the material in any form. Walford (2001) cautions about the ethics involved in the publication of the materials especially whether or not the names of the participants and organizations should be mentioned.

The fact that the institution was named makes the ethical problem clear. There has to be a balance between the positive outcomes that might be done through publication and the negative outcomes that might be done to individuals or institutions through publication. But the problem still exists where the institution is not named in publications (p. 145).

Walford's caution was considered at every stage on the attempt to publish the material. Initially, the results were presented as Doctoral Thesis. At a later stage, it is to be published as a book and part of the results would also be published in a journal.

Summary

Methodology chapter presented a wide range of practical procedures, in most cases referring to theory to anchor the rationale behind making selections from a number of options available.

Interpretative paradigm was found an appropriate knowledge claim to anchor the study. A rather recent approach to researching-mixed method was selected as its design because it provided diversity on the one hand, and ensured validity and reliability on the other. More importantly, it needed the researcher to have a level of competency in both and was considered useful at this learning stage.

Both survey and its essential elements, and grounded theory and its aspects have been quite elaborately explained with particular reference to their strengths and appropriateness to the current study. The questionnaire numerical data; interviews and open comments texts separated the quantitative survey and qualitative grounded theory. Combination of the two justified the mixed methods and the employment of QUAN-QUAL Model. Tedious yet useful description was the presentation of instrumentation and administration of the tools to collect the data of both forms.

Data analysis procedure was also delved into in some depth. The employment of Chi-square testing with probability levels of 0.05-0.001 as statistically significance took precedence as far as the quantitative data analysis is concerned. SPSS was the tool used. With the support of theory on how qualitative data are analyzed is also presented in the chapter. Transcribing, coding, categorizing to thematic grouping, among other procedures are highlighted.

The provision of a brief reflection on validity and reliability could not be ignored. What a research study would demand in these areas and how the study addressed are quite adequately delineated. In sum, the choice of research design, procedures followed, ethics considered, and so forth all aligned to address the issues of validity and reliability. Finally, the chapter presented a section on Ethical Considerations that involved three stages: pre, during and post data collection.

Chapter Six

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Chapter Six presents details of data collected by the questionnaire, open comments and interviews. The chapter attempts to answer the major research questions using statistical data supported and complemented by comments. A number of tables, charts and graphs are also used. Firstly, details of questionnaire respondents and interviewees are presented.

Part A: Biographical Information of Respondents and Participants

Questionnaire Respondents

Of the 300 sets of questionnaire distributed to the sampled respondents a total of 203 (68%) were returned. Tables 6.1-6.3 present response rates by Gender, Age Range and Positions.

Gender

Table 6.1 shows that 92.1% of respondents were male and only 7.9% were female. The small number of female respondents is reflective of the gender imbalance within the sample population. The total sample population included 216 males (71%) and 64 (29%) females. Although females constitute 29% of the civil servants very few hold managerial positions, such as Principals, compared to male counterparts. The two Colleges of Education have relatively better representation of women (25%) but they are mostly lecturers not managers or senior academics. In an email communication on 23 May 2008, Sherab, lecturer at the Paro College of Education reported that in 2006 the two Colleges of Education had 59 male (75.6%) and 19 female (24.4%) lecturers out of

the total of 78. In 2008 colleges have 72 males and 24 females; male-female proportion has not changed much from 2006. Since the female representation is minimal discussion by gender difference is not considered.

Table 6.1 Respondents by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	187	92.1
Female	16	7.9
Total	203	100.0

Age Range

Most of the participants were between 26-45 years of age revealing 92.1% were less than 46 years of age with 48.3% of respondents being younger than 35 years of age. This is reflective of the demographic profile of employees. Royal Civil Service Commission (RCSC) statistics show that 76% of the civil servants are below 39 years of age, and majority of them are in the 25-34 brackets (n=9700; 52%). Of the total of 18807 civil servants, 1416 above 45-49 years old constitute approximately 8% (RCSC, 2008). Officials, lecturers and teachers of the Ministry of Education and Royal University of Bhutan are all civil servants. While no participants were aged 25 years and below, there was a small group (7.9%) who were 46 years and older (See Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Respondents by Age range

Age Range	Frequency	Percent
26-35 years	98	48.3
36-45 years	89	43.8
46 years and above	16	7.9
Total	203	100.0

Positions

The majority (156 or 76.8%) of the respondents were principals of schools. They are the employers of teacher graduates of the Colleges of Education. The sample included principals of schools from the width and breadth of the country. In 2006 Bhutan has 458

principals of schools and therefore the 156 respondents represent about 34% of all principals.

Table 6.3 (a) Respondents by Positions

Positions	Frequency	Percent
Heads of Departments, Colleges, Divisions	4	2.0
Heads of Organizations	1	.5
District Education Officers	4	2.0
Lecturers/Teachers	30	14.8
Principals/Head teachers	156	76.8
Any Other	8	3.9
Total	203	100.0

As presented in Table 6.3(a) positions included: (a) Head of educational institution/department/division, (b) Head of any other institutions/ organizations, (c) District Education Officers, (d) Lecturers/Teachers, (e) Principals/ Headteachers, and (f) Any other (specify). Preliminary analysis reveals that Positions (a), (b), (c) and (f) had very few respondents, with 1 to a maximum of 8 in a position and the maximum was up to 17 when aggregated. For the purpose of convenience they have been collapsed under the position, “Officers”. Therefore, discussions presented are in three positions, namely Officers, Lecturers and Principals. However, the original data is presented in tables in the Annexure.

Table 6.4 Positions (collapsed to Officers), Gender and Age (% within each category)

Positions	Age range				Total
	26-35 years		36-45 years	46+ years	
Officers	Gender	Male	8	4	16 (7.9%)
		Female	0	1	1 (0.5%)
	Total		8 (3.9%)	5 (2.5%)	17 (8.4%)
Lecturers	Gender	Male	13	9	24 (11.8%)
		Female	5	2	7 (3.4%)
	Total		18 (8.9%)	11 (5.4%)	31 (14.8%)
Principals	Gender	Male	69	68	147 (72.4%)
		Female	3	5	8 (4%)
	Total		72 (35.5%)	73 (36%)	155 (76.4%)

Table 6.4 presents summary frequencies of the Positions by Gender and Age. As can be seen female representation in each of the Positions is comparatively very low,

particularly in the Officers category. While majority of the respondents were Principals there were only eight females in this category, constituting about 4%. There was only one female Officer in the study.

Open Comments Respondents

Of the 203 who returned the questionnaire a significant number of respondents did not respond to the open comments question. Only an average of 32% shared their comments. Table 6.4 presents the response rates in each of the sections. Respondents of the open comments are allotted identities or case numbers, for example B/C/D/E/F001, and their comments are quoted and acknowledged using these respective numbers. For example, while presenting Section B: Views and opinions on the “Concept of Quality of Education” respondents are allotted codes beginning with B. The serial or the case number 001 is the same that each one of them has been identified with in the quantitative raw data that were entered using SPSS (See Chapters Five for details). However, there are also responses that by content fall under other sections and they are presented. In other words they are interchangeably presented in some cases.

Table 6.5 Response rate of Open comments

Open comments	Frequency (N=203)	Percentage	Codes, example
Section B: Views and opinions on the Concept of Quality of Education	71	35%	B001
Section C: Views and Opinions on the Quality of Pre Service Teacher Education	94	46%	C001
Section D: Views and comments on Factors affecting Quality of Teacher Education	71	35%	D001
Section E: Preferred Pre service Teacher Education Model	48	24%	E001
Section F: Pre Service Teacher Education Quality Assurance Models	41	20%	F001

Interview Participants

The study interviewed seven stakeholders. Attempts were made to make sample as representative as possible with the inclusion of officials from the Office of the Vice

Chancellor, Royal University of Bhutan, Ministry of Education as the employers of the teacher graduates and the two Colleges of Education. To maintain anonymity in reporting, interviewees are also allotted codes. For example first interviewee is IntB001 if the responses are concerning Section B, IntC001 for section C, and they are acknowledged accordingly in the texts.

Codes allotted respectively to open comments and interviews will be used in presenting data in the ensuing sections of the chapter.

Part B: A detailed presentation of data

The five research questions (Chapter One), each asked an aspect of quality. This section makes a detailed presentation of data attempting to answer those questions. First a summary of frequencies is presented, followed by discussion by age and positions variables for selected items. Comments from open-ended questionnaire and interviews are presented complementing and/or supplementing the views and opinions expressed through numbers to make better meanings.

Concept of the Quality of Education

This section relates to the research question, “What are the Concepts and Definitions of Quality of Education?” Some five different concepts and definitions of quality in education have been proposed and asked the participants to respond in terms of how far they agreed and they were also asked to write and share their views and opinions.

Choice of Quality Concepts and Definitions: Summary Frequencies

By and large the rating seems to skew towards higher scale of Agree and Strongly Agree with regards to the concept and definitions of the quality of education. Of the five

concepts and definitions proposed “Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change” is rated Strongly Agree by 56.2% of respondents (Refer to Table 6.6 (a)).

Table 6.6 (a) Summary results of the concept and definitions of quality of education

Concept and Definitions of Quality of Education	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %
Quality in education is to do with specification and standard of a product	2.0	5.4	12.8	51.7	27.1
Quality in education is associated with the satisfaction of the needs of stakeholders	2.5	6.9	13.3	44.3	32.5
Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes	0	2.5	6.9	48.8	40.9 (3)
Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes	0	2.0	9.9	38.9	48.3 (2)
Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change	0.5	1.0	8.9	32.0	56.2 (1)

Open comments and interviews also seem to be in agreement with the proposed quality concepts listed in Table 6.6 (a), mostly relating to process and products and outcomes. Process is referred to the experiences of students in schools and product refers to the kind of graduates the education system produces. An importance attached the importance of process and product is stated here:

“Quality education may not be necessarily impacted in the end product, it should be a balance struck between the quality of process of imparting education and the impact thereof” (B161). Quality of education is also seen in the performance of the products when they are employed and how the employers judge them.

It seems the outcome of education is identified by how well students compete in examinations, “Quality of education is some thing that would help every individual to do fairly well in any competitive examinations. To find the quality we have to compare with same base” (B042). A rather suggestive comment concerns the need to produce students and teacher graduates with specializations as the following comment reveals:

Quality education is production of balanced human resources in every areas of need. This means educational institutions should not focus in proving wholesome individual but the focus should be towards producing and proving required numbers of standard people in specialized areas. Idea of producing general teachers in primary school/level should be discontinued (B014).

One of the views concerns process, and outcome as a product. IntB002 stated:

Quality of education can be defined in terms of the outcome of education, and related to process-to produce productive and progressive citizens. Schools are places to learn, prepare to meet challenges, later to be productive in the job, to have skills, positive in their thinking, care about the society and the country. Curriculum should match with outcomes (IntB002).

Consider collapsing two scales (Table 6.6 (b) three concepts and definitions of quality remain top three when Strongly Agree in Table 6.6 (a) is compared. Results in the lower scales are relatively insignificant.

Table 6.6 (b) Summary results of quality concepts (upper and lower two scales collapsed)

Concept and Definitions of Quality of Education	Strongly Disagree+ Disagree %	Neutral %	Strongly Agree+ Agree%
Quality in education is to do with specification and standard of a product	7.4	12.8	78.8
Quality in education is associated with the satisfaction of the needs of stakeholders	9.4	13.3	76.8
Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes	2.5	6.9	89.7 (1)
Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes	2.0	9.9	87.2 (3)
Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change	1.5	8.9	88.2 (2)

Choice of Quality Concepts and Definitions by Age

Refer Table 6.6 (c). All Age groups agree with the proposed quality concepts by an overwhelming majority within the 73.3%-100% range. The most popular concepts among all groups appear to be: “Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes” and “Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes”.

Table 6.6 (c) Choice of quality concepts by Age (two scales collapsed)

Quality concepts and Definitions	Disagree+Strongly Disagree			Agree+ Strongly Agree		
	26-35	36-45	46+	26-35	36-45	46+
Quality in education is to do with specification and standard of a product	8.1%	5.6%	13.3%	75.5%	84.2%	73.3%
Quality in education is associated with the satisfaction of the needs of stakeholders	11.2%	9%	0%	77.6%	74.1%	87.5%
Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes	2%	2.2%	2.5%	90.8%	88.7%	87.6%
Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes	3.1%	1.1%	0%	83.7%	88.7%	100%
Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change	2%	1.1%	0%	86.8%	93.1%	81.3%

However, closer inspection of the data reveals different choices within the age groups. The younger group nominated “Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes” at the top of the list with 90.8%. The middle age group has “Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change” with 93.1%. For the older age group “Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes” is also one of the top three in the summary results (See Table 6.6 (b)).

The qualitative data seem to complement the quantitative data in these themes related to meaningful life, values and social needs.

Relating to meaningful life and values

A number of opinions and comments on the concept of quality of education appear to be relating to life and values as B094 delineates, “Quality in education also means valuing our Bhutanese way of life and respecting/caring environment”. The following comments also support the theme.

The quality of education would mean living well and making meaning to life and not just lying to achieve purpose and goal. Living well and making meaning to life would be implemented by basic literacy (B058).

I feel quality education has to be balanced by birth attitude (values) and skills and knowledge-there is always mismatch or one of it is lacking in our system (B082).

Quality of education depends on the delivery of goods to the learners in the right way, in right quantity and right method. It has to be harmoniously delivered with right environment aligning to the needs of learners; I feel if education is made purposeful in life, quality can be ensured in the process (B094).

According to B028, “Quality of Education is related with self development or improvement through experiencing reality of Education”. It seems the concept needs to be translated to real and tangible experiences in life in order to be seen as relevant to participants. B004 also shares the relation of quality of education to skills and values in life, “Education that is useful to the learners both for higher studies as well as for use in

their after school life. Provision of all relevant knowledge, skills and values in life” (B004).

Relating to social needs

A number of comments related to social needs and the provision of services to the society. For example, “The quality of education would also mean highest standard in providing services to the society. Includes students, public, government, institutes, etc.” (B125). Further the societal needs appear to encompass community and guarding traditional values that might be affected by modernization.

Quality in education is the continuous process in improving individuals standards of knowledge, experience with adequate sound characters that would have best effectiveness of services when need greatly by the community and country (B048).

Quality of education can be qualify and referred to the educational output which can qualify and fulfill the present needs of the individuals and the society at large. For example, in the process of modernization, our people get westernized, leaving away our age old tradition and values behind. Therefore our quality education should be able to address the needs of the situation (B137)

At least one of the interviewees seems to define quality of education in terms of ‘fitness for purpose’ encompassing social parameters.

Quality is decided by what you need and what you want. If graduates can do what you want/need then quality is good, if students can do more and achieve higher quality is higher. Eg. Office Secretary can fulfill her/his day to day duty the quality is good, if he/she can write memo. Write speech for you, then the quality is high. In my opinion as long as children can do what you need or want the quality issue is addressed. Quality is also defined in terms of ‘fit for purpose’. However, today we also use other social parameters to define quality- like Driglam Chosum [Bhutanese etiquette enshrined in Buddhism], manner of reaction, knowledge and skills of culture, IT (IntB003).

Choice of Quality Concepts and Definitions by Positions

Table 6.6 (d) presents differences in the choices of the quality concepts. Generally all positions agree to the proposed list of quality concepts. One can also observe that “Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes” and “Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change” seem to be more popular concepts

according to Officers, Lecturers and Principals as they are in the top three. “Quality in education is associated with the satisfaction of the needs of stakeholders” is also among the top three among Officers and Lecturers indicating their same choices.

Table 6.6 (d) Choice of quality concepts by Positions (two scales collapsed)

Quality concepts and Definitions	Disagree Strongly+ Disagree			Agree Strongly+ Agree		
	Officers	Lecturer s	Principa ls	Officers	Lecturer s	Principa ls
Quality in education is to do with specification and standard of a product	25.1%	13.3%	4.5%	56.3%	70%	83.3%
Quality in education is associated with the satisfaction of the needs of stakeholders	5.9%	16.6%	8.4%	82.4% (2)	73.4%	77%
Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes	0%	13.3%	0.6%	82.3%	73.3%	93.6% (1)
Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes	0%	3.3%	1.9%	94.1% (1)	76.6% (2)	88.5% (2)
Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change	0%	3.4%	1.3%	94.1% (1)	89.6% (1)	88.4% (3)

The older age group (46+) and officers’ choices are consistent in that the same quality concept is at the top. The middle age group and lecturers’ agreement to the quality concept seem to be same. But at the top of the list according to Principals and younger age group is, “Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes” as 93.6% are in agreement to the concept.

Quality is achieving institutional goals, is to have system success and wholesome development. The following comments appear to substantiate the former sentence.

Relating to system success

Some of the opinions on the concept of quality of education appear to relate to the Bhutanese Education system and one is expressed by B086.

In Bhutanese context, quality in education is to do with positive and better change in the system that fulfils certain goals set by ministry or institution, and should not be compared with other countries’ quality in education. There is no specification in quality and hence cannot be compared to a single- previous quality in education like most of our people feel...e.g. people blame quality in education by comparing NAPE system to old traditional style. Many blame NAPE as deteriorating factor- and compare saying that students in olden days can read and write

well, but not now I see no quality difference in this because NAPE as brought many good changes which people are not aware of it (B086).

A comment on quality concept seems to relate to performance:

Quality education is the highest performance of the children that can only be achieved through the collective responsibility of all the individuals involved in the system. Policy makers, curriculum designs, EMSSD [Education Monitoring and Support Services Division] officials, teachers and learners themselves as well (B071).

B196 seems to conclude that there is no one definition and no single individual can define the quality in education.

Quality of education is responsible for stakeholder to put procedures system to lead higher degree. Concepts and definition of quality of education is I personally feel that “it is future brighter”. Quality of education is not depending on individuals responsible to define it. I believe that it is depend on system to success (B196).

Relating to wholesome development

The quality of education should be able to enable development of individuals, students, and teachers. In other words there must be impact on the wholesome development of students as outcome of education. The following comments support the concept.

Helps to enable teaching staff for their professional growth. Help students to develop concrete skills, knowledge and ideas. Enable students to achieve higher level education as well as scholarship. It develops standard of a products, help to achieve education goals, improves base on acquiring further education of a std. or a teachers (B126).

Quality in education is to develop (wholesome development) academic excellence and non academic excellence. Quality in education is to support/ to motivate to loyal and weaker students/ people in academic and also to build our cultural and tradition strong and attractive (B142).

The development of wholesomeness in a person can be possible with the provision of “wholesome education” as expressed here: “Quality in education is when an institute can produce productive student or when an institute achieves its objective of effective learning and teaching delivery and providing wholesome education” (B143) and “Quality in education can be also measured in away a person lives and survives positively in life bringing physical, emotional and cognitive development” (B179).

Table 6.6 (e) Choice of quality concepts: Age and Positions compared (two scales collapsed)

Quality concepts and Definitions	Agree Strongly + Agree			Agree Strongly + Agree		
	26-35	36-45	46+	Officers	Lecturers	Principals
Item 7: Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes	83.7 % (3)	88.7 % (2)	100% (1)	94.1% (1)	76.6% (2)	88.5% (2)
Item 8: Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change	86.8 % (2)	93.1 % (1)	81.3 %	94.1% (1)	89.6% (1)	88.4% (3)
Item 6: Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes	90.8 % (1)	88.7 % (2)	87.6 % (2)	82.3%	73.3%	93.6% (1)
Item 5: Quality in education is associated with the satisfaction of the needs of stakeholders	77.6 %	74.1 %	87.5 % (3)	82.4% (2)	73.4%	77%
Item 4: Quality in education is to do with specification and standard of a product	75.5 %	84.2 %	73.3 %	56.3%	70%	83.3%

Table 6.6 (e) further compares Age and Positions in their perception of the quality concepts. Concepts have been ranked considering whether or not all age groups and positions have nominated in the top three. Notice that Item 7 has been nominated by all six variables (Age and Positions), Item 8 by five variables, Item 6 by four variables, and Item 5 by three variables. Item 4 is not in the top three although agreement to it ranges 56.3% to 84.2%.

Furthermore, qualitative data appear to complement the foregone discussion and are presented under the following themes: attitudes and behavioral changes, preparation for life, competency, benchmarking and happiness and the like.

Relating to attitudes and behavioral changes

A number of opinions on the quality of education related to personal development seen in the attitudes and behavioral changes of individuals. B084 shares one such belief, “Quality in education is related to behavioral changes in a person, where he/she becomes better person each day and becomes capable of surviving in any situation” (B084). A similar view is expressed here, …“the concept of the quality of education I

believe. Above all, I think it is development of personal positive altitude towards one's life and society at large" (B044).

Further, some opinions seem to have philosophical dimension in that the concept and definition of quality should be impersonal and correlate to morality: "We should build up an impersonal out look on the definition of the quality of education and it should be correlated with the behavioral changes of the people and the sum total of the out put, those changes creating" (B170); "The quality in education can result to standard work outcomes associated with moral behavior and conduct of humanity" (B173).

Relating to preparation for life

Some data appear to reiterate the importance of quality education in preparing individuals for life. One such comment relates to the changing world, "Quality in education is to prepare children to face the changing world through provision of better services and equipped instruments" (B017).

In the same vein the concept and definition of quality of education seem to circle around survival, coping, and so forth in life.

Quality of education to me is being able to express oneself both in speech and words. It also means thinking logically and being confident in making decision, prioritizing things and managing one's own life (B016).

Quality of education may be defined as the process of exploring an individual needs, so that he/she can survive on their inborn skills (B056).

Quality is relative term and it differs from person to person and forms one context to another.

Quality of education has to be based on content level- for basic education it should be general. Suitable for coping up with life as well as possessing basic knowledge for higher studies (B065).

Quality of education is knowledge accrued by any learners, coping with the change of time and matching the demand of the market outside (B073).

According to IntB001 quality can be achieved without many facilities if a teacher is committed for preparing his/her child for life.

Quality of education is defined from different viewpoints, everyone should agree. Proper definition of quality of education is the provision of education. Eg. A teacher who is best trained should have input versus provision. It is the teacher who can make the best quality education even without facilities, eg. Gurukul system there was no classroom. Quality of education is the one that prepares a child for his life (IntB001).

Relating to competency, benchmarking and happiness

Quality can be discussed only when there is a basis and benchmarking. Although the question asked was on the concept and definition of quality in education responses encompassed the quality scenario in the Ministry of Education as the following data show.

Quality of education to me, I cannot comment in broad terms. We should look at indicators, performance of students in various levels. This is in general and cannot quantify, whether going up or down. I like to refer to concrete examples, NEA: National Education Assessment in Class VI performance. Dzongkha is not too bad, English is pretty good but performance in Mathematics is not satisfactory. We cannot say the quality as it was tested at that point in time. Similarly although 90% students pass in Board Exams, but results of Maths and Science are not so good. Students generally are good in Languages, Geography and History. Based on this evidence we can say something of the quality of education today. Thus NEAs data are benchmarks and assess the quality after 5 years. General notion is that language is not satisfactory; quality teaching learning is not taking place. We tend to comment only on the poor ones (IntB006).

It has become apparent that the concept and definitions of quality in education relates to a wide range of themes and issues from as broad as a system success to an individual's happiness. IntB007's view seems to subsume some of those aspects.

To me, quality of education is dependent on the following factors: Possession of adequate knowledge of all aspects, possession of values and ethics, having adequate skills to take up the day to day challenges, being gainfully employed, being eloquent, articulate, and being able to think critically (IntB007).

The data also seem to suggest quality is related to these themes: dynamism of teaching learning, equity of opportunities, commitment and dedication. Since the comments for each of the themes were limited to few they are not presented.

Section summary

Data suggest that quality in education is a multidimensional concept evidenced by respondents' agreement to the proposed list of concepts and rating more on Agree and Strongly Agree scales. Although age and positions slightly differed in their choices of quality concepts younger age group and principals are aligned for "Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes". Middle age group and lecturers seem to favor "Quality in education is related to continuous internal

improvement and accommodation to change”, and the older age group and officers rated higher the “Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes” than other concepts.

Qualitative data suggested quality of education much beyond the proposed concepts. Views encompassed a number of themes namely, meaningful life, social needs, systems success, wholesome development, values and attitudes, preparation for life, competency, benchmarking, so forth.

Quality Status of Pre-Service Teacher Education

This section attempts to answer the research question, “What is the Quality Status of Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?” Six questionnaire items were asked to explore how far the respondents agreed about the status of quality of the Initial Teacher Education at the two Colleges of Education, located in Samtse and Paro. They were also asked to share their opinions through open comments and interviews.

Quality Status of ITE at COE: Summary Frequencies

Refer to Table 6.7 (a) and consider the scale, Strongly Agree. When an indirect and a general question such as “There is a serious problem with the quality of teachers that Colleges of Education produce” only 7.9% strongly agreed. However, to a more direct question like “Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement” some 29.1% strongly agreed.

Table 6.7 (a) Summary results of the quality status of Pre-Service Teacher Education at the COE

Quality of Pre-Service Teacher Education at the Colleges of Education	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %
9. There is a serious problem with the quality of teachers that Colleges of Education produce	9.9	36.5	25.1	17.7	7.9

10. Teacher training programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge	8.4	37.9	16.7	27.6	7.4
11. Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement	.5	6.9	13.3	46.8	29.1
12. Qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher graduates	1.0	4.4	12.8	36.5	44.3
13. There is a need to improve teaching methods and strategies of lecturers	.5	4.4	20.7	44.3	26.6
14. An entire revision of Teaching Practice system would help improve quality of Teacher Education	.5	9.4.	25.6	30.5	29.1

Two questions: “Teacher training programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge” (Item 10) and “Qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher graduates” (Item 12) that are directed to lecturers generated contrasting results. While the strongly agreement to Item 12 is 44.3%, only 7.4% said that they strongly agreed. The differences in the perceptions of the quality status, by Age and Positions is presented later in the section (Refer Tables 6.7 (b), 6.7 (c) and 6.7 (d)).

Table 6.7 (b) Quality status of Pre-Service Teacher Education at the COE (two scales collapsed)

Quality of Pre-Service Teacher Education at the Colleges of Education	Strongly Disagree+ Disagree (%)	Neutral %	Strongly Agree + Agree (%)
9. There is a serious problem with the quality of teachers that Colleges of Education produce	46.4 (1)	25.1	25.6
10. Teacher training programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge	46.3 (2)	16.7	35
11. Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement	7.4	13.3	75.9 (2)
12. Qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher graduates	5.4	12.8	80.8 (1)
13. There is a need to improve teaching methods and strategies of lecturers	4.9	20.7	70.9 (3)
14. An entire revision of Teaching Practice system would help improve quality of Teacher Education	9.9 (3)	25.6	59.6

Disagreement to items 9 and 10 is quite significant. Questions 11 and 12 still remain two of the top three. Question 13, a general and an indirect one intended to express the status of lecturers’ qualifications at the colleges. An overwhelming 80.8% is on the agreement pole of the scale.

Although the response to the item suggests that there is no serious problem generally with the quality of training at the Colleges of Education comments do indicate some areas for attention. Some of the more prominent ones are presented.

Relevancy and currency: Course structure, curriculum and practices

A number of observations on the status of quality surround the need to make the training programmes more relevant and current and one such comment is shared here, “Certain things might have already undergone changes, but there is a system which is redundant-same assignments. Trainees need to be trained/offered courses which have direct bearing on the lecturers. For instance computer (IT), skill in carpentry, tailoring, etc” (C039).

Some of the observations are on the need to revise the curriculum and course structure to maximize its relevancy: “Quality of teacher training program at the colleges may improve if the number of modules per semester is reduced” (C101) and “Curriculum for teacher trainee may have to be revised to address changing needs of the education system in general need of all stake holder and education receivers” (C104).

It seems how a teacher performs in the field is related to the type of training they received back at the colleges. For example,

Teacher can do wonders; if only they are taught well back at the colleges. The modules offered are standard but the pre-service teachers need to take more modules, which are compact and burdensome. Therefore, there is lesser room left for the field of specification (C133).

Furthermore, there is a great need to specialize in certain disciplines to bring about quality teaching learning in the students: “PP-III teaching learning is weakening and it needs a special focus. PGCE, M.Ed and even PhD degree holders should be prepared to teach at the lower primary levels. These areas need attention while proposing TE program revision” (IntC003). C065 also shares a similar observation, “Teacher

education should not be preparing teachers to be jack of all trades and master of none. They should have mastery of some and other or where they can build them professionally” (C065).

A couple of observations on the quality status seem to suggest for a thorough study and innovation in TE program, “The entire system of training program and practicing system need to update with the changing world” (C006), “A thorough study of teacher education program is required. ... I have seen not much of innovation and challenge generated to make teaching more meaningful and interesting” (C008) and “Some teachers training modules need to be revised and incorporate some factors demand by the situations” (C066).

A strong observation concerned a change not only in courses and practices but also in regards to human resources, namely faculty members’ motivation and enthusiasm:

Teacher training program at the colleges needs continuous research and study on trainings with latest changes in pedagogy and the colleges need motivated, enthusiastic and qualified lecturers. Not simply filling the spaces with unqualified and demotivated (C030).

Quality of trainees

A number of comments reflect upon the quality of trainees at the Colleges of Education. The data suggests a need for a more stringent selection process to ensure only quality trainees enter the colleges. Comments encompass a range of professional and ethical issues namely lack of respect, drunkards, academically incompetent, and behavior. The following sample observations elucidate:

The candidate may be selected amongst the interested one instead of solving the employment problem. The candidate should meet some high level of cut-off criteria. The RUB should make entry level to teaching profession competitive like other organization. RUB and Education Ministry should go for best and interested candidate (C159).

Selection procedure/criteria for pre-service teacher education should be designed in a way that the best and the most hard working, dedicated and sincere people, genuinely interested in teaching are selected. This could probably be done by requiring the secondary school to submit individual portfolio of students’ interest, likeness, habit etc (C014).

From my point of view the quality of the Teacher Training program at the colleges are good, but the teacher selection review program is bit unfair, to state that the candidate who did not qualify

for PTC course interview where selected for the B.Ed course, later after producing an Indian school certificates (ISC). Like wise with B.Ed and PGCE teachers (C027).

Some of the observations were related to the quality of lecturers at the colleges. “The quality and the qualification of lecturers and students need to be improved. More intelligent and qualified lecturers and students are to be enrolled in the college” (C096), “The teacher training program at the colleges need to enhance qualification and skills of the lecturer” (C128).

Concern about the quality of lecturers was not restricted to professional qualifications but also attitudinal traits as this line suggests, “Lecturers/trainees quality should have dedication, loyal, experience desire and qualified” (C142). Similar comments were also made by C071, and at least an observation desires to upgrade lecturers’ status to that of professors: “Colleges of education may need more number of professors and lecturers with better training and qualifications. The professors/lecturers: trainee ratio has to be (1:25)” (C137).

Observation made by IntC002 also suggests the importance of quality people, quality resources and quality reactions at the college for ensuring quality training.

... It is important to have quality of lecturers, quality director and quality of reactions. The quality of student teachers at the entry levels should be superior. There should be input-output like computers. Our observation is that best, high achievers do not come to COE. In four years of training at COE students should transform their flexible mind. The graduates should come out with good value and ethically sound (IntC002).

IntC003 agrees that in addition to government support and attention a means to assure quality trainees joining the college is to ascertain uncompromising selection criteria:

Before 2000, Teacher Education has been neglected, did not receive the required attention. Now I feel teacher educators should be given prime focus. Teacher educators should themselves be active learners, full of questions, full of zeals, they should be specially selected with special quality. At present there seems to exist a vicious cycle: low quality of training, low quality teacher graduates, low quality trainees join. Something should be done to break the cycle somewhere, sometime, by someone. We cannot blame the system but rather there should be stringent selection criteria (IntC003).

Quality Status of ITE by Age

Table 6.7 (a) Table 6.7 (b) presented a summary result of frequencies. The upper two scales of Agree and Strongly are collapsed to identify the status of quality at the Colleges of Education by Age (Table 6.7 (c)). Consider top three questions. According to their observations by age groups the three elements that need attention concern, “Qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher graduates”, “Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement” and “There is a need to improve teaching methods and strategies of lecturers”. The last three items also follow the same order of agreement.

Table 6.7 (c) Degree of Agreement to Quality status by Age (Agree and Strongly Agree collapsed)

Status of Quality of Pre-Service Teacher Education at the COE	26-35	36-45	46+
Item 12: Qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher graduates	76.6% (1) (n=75)	82% (1) (n=73)	100% (1) (n=16)
Item 11: Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement	74.5% (2) (n=70)	78.7% (2) (n=70)	87.5% (2) (n=14)
Item 13: There is a need to improve teaching methods and strategies of lecturers	72.4% (3) (n=71)	67.4% (3) (n=60)	81.3% (3) (n=13)
Item 14: An entire revision of Teaching Practice system would help improve quality of Teacher Education	59.2% (n=58)	61.8% (n=55)	50% (n=8)
Item 10: Teacher training programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge	29.6% (n=29)	41.5% (n=37)	31.3% (n=5)
Item 9: There is a serious problem with the quality of teachers that Colleges of Education produce	19.4% (n=19)	41.1% (n=30)	18.8% (n=3)

Open comments also suggest the importance of subject content knowledge and are presented under a theme, ‘a debatable imbalance’.

Subject content and pedagogy contents: A debatable imbalance

A quality issue in the Colleges of Education concerns an ongoing debate between how much of the courses must have pedagogical contents and subject contents. The data of this study however tends to favour more subject content such as IntC003:

A deficiency lies in the fact that the students joining the colleges of education do not seem to have mastery of the subjects they were expected to learn in schools. Yet they are expected to teach in the schools. And they should be given proper grounding in the subject matter while in

the colleges. This area need to be seriously considered while reviewing TE program. ... (IntC003).

The importance of subject content has been stressed in saying that the teacher graduates are expected to teach them in schools. In the same vein C125 suggests for a thorough curriculum analysis to have better orientation of the subject content.

Since the graduates of these two institutes would be teaching their elective subjects in the school, I strongly feel that the trainees must thoroughly do curriculum analysis of the subject for different standards. For instance, a Geography teacher trainee must thoroughly do curriculum analysis of Geography for cl-VII-X and during training period itself. Similarly, for all others (C125).

What appears to be certain is that no one seems to have mastery of both pedagogy and content as expressed here: “Teacher passed out from the institute has teaching methods weakness. Be it an elective subject they have weakness in methodology” (C049) and “Teacher training college must improve in the delivery of teaching pedagogy and content” (C046). C060 and C126 elucidate the importance of methodology.

Generally, people think that the teachers are the role players to the students. If teacher have the good content of subject knowledge he/she can be more respected and quality could be enhanced. Pre-service teacher also need the methodology part (C060).

Trainee teachers should be qualified with good % of marks obtained in individual subjects. The college should have qualified lecturers with specific subject knowledge. The college must invent new methods teachings from different resources to meet the present quality education (C126).

It would be pertinent to explore why the trainees at the Education Colleges need to enhance subject contents during their training time.

Quality Status of ITE at COE by Positions

While it is marginal there is a difference between the employers (Principals) and the trainers (Lecturers), in relation to competency in subject and content knowledge. It appears the employers are generally satisfied with the performance of the graduates and their content knowledge. About 10.3% of the principals Strongly Disagreed that “Teacher training programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge”. But 10% of the lecturers Strongly Agreed the status to be so (See Table 6.8).

Table 6.8 Degree of agreement to quality status Item 10: Difference by Positions

			Item 10 Teacher training programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge						Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't Know	
Position s	Officers	Count	0	4	4	2	6	1	17
		% within Positions	.0%	23.5%	23.5%	11.7%	35.2%	5.8%	100.0%
	Lecturers	Count	1	14	5	5	3	2	30
		% within Positions	3.3%	46.7%	16.7%	16.7%	10.0%	6.7%	100.0%
	Principals	Count	16	59	25	49	6	1	156
		% within Positions	10.3%	37.8%	16.0%	31.4%	3.8%	.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	17	77	34	56	15	4	203
		% within Positions	8.4%	37.9%	16.7%	27.6%	7.4%	2.0%	100.0%

The other quality status of the Colleges of Education concern Item 11, “Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement” and reveals differences among the Positions. By and large ratings of all positions seem to skew toward Agree and Strongly Agree scales and they ranged from 25% to 52.9%. Table 6.9 contains more detailed statistics.

Table 6.9 Opinions on quality status Item 11: Difference by Positions

			Item 11 Pedagogy components of TE program need further enhancement						Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't Know	
Positio ns	Officer s	Count	0	2	4	4	5	1	16
		% within Positions	.0%	12.5%	25%	25%	31.25%	6.25%	100.0%
	Lecture rs	Count	1	4	3	10	12	0	30
		% within Positions	3.3%	13.3%	10.0%	33.3%	40.0%	.0%	100.0%
	Princip als	Count	0	8	20	81	42	2	153
		% within Positions	.0%	5.2%	13.1%	52.9%	27.5%	1.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	1	14	27	95	59	3	199
		% within Positions	.5%	7.0%	13.6%	47.7%	29.6%	1.5%	100.0%

Qualitative data suggests that there is a need to enhance the subject and content knowledge in the training programmes and at the same time the importance of pedagogical components is also being expressed. They are presented in the themes of ‘perceived gap’ and ‘a quality synergy’.

Preaching and practicing: A perceived gap

According to open comments a quality issue that seems to exist in the Colleges of Education is a gap between what is being advocated and practiced in reality. C011 and C076 share their observations here:

Lecturers often fail to adopt teaching methods and strategies when they teach the classes in NIE. How ever they stress its importance and make trainees to adopt (strategies and skills) which are good of course. But, when lecturers themselves ignore those methods and strategies, it doesn’t come in ‘healthy form’ to the trainees and thereby these proper channels of information dissemination remain mostly in papers. ... (C011).

Quality of teacher training program is directly related to quality of trainers. The post, unlike in the past, of lecturers/teachers should be based on past performances in the institute and their readiness to change in themselves in terms of professional growth and willingness to deliver quality teaching (C076).

C067, C073, IntC001 and other share similar views on the need to update skills and knowledge and practices in the classrooms. For example C001 has this to say:

... We have to ask questions such as, do lecturers at the college do what they should be doing. I feel they are not doing enough. Lecturers seem to be transferring knowledge only. They should teach the students to let them try out new things, do new things. Simply collecting information is not enough. They should try out new things, eg. Making lesson plans. Lecturers seem to be good preachers but not practitioners. ... It is important to review their actions, performance of lecturers, should be expert in their field (IntC001).

An important characteristic of quality is that the intention is translated and seen in the classroom, “The review exercise must not only look what we have in each module, but what each lecturer does in the classroom including the assessment. Although, we have done several reviews, I feel the review exercise need more time to do the quality work” (InC005).

Quality Synergies: School situation and Teacher Education Colleges

The quality of interaction between schools and Colleges of Education is seen as important to better understand the theory and practice. Some schools apparently do not seem to be ready with what happens in the training colleges.

The type of skills and knowledge imparted in the institute should be in line with the Bhutanese class room situation, not with the foreign class room situation. They should be also in line with level of development. There is no need to spend so much on IT and other pedagogy aspects (unsuitable) when 50% of school does not even have electricity (C016).

Some observations in the areas of curriculum changes taking place in schools reveal that the colleges do not seem to be aware of: “If teaching methods and strategies would go in line with the Text books supplied in the school, it would further enhance the quality teacher training program” (C031) and “There is need to hope (sic) what we teach in relation to what school curriculum demands. How well are the colleges informed regarding the changes in the school curriculum and what do future Bhutan need?” (C151).

A quality status of COE concerns the need to understand the importance of teaching practices in that trainees learn through hands-on experiences during the practicum. One such observation is shared here:

I think the trainee teachers should be given more of teaching practices so that they understand the real class room situation better and learn during the training as per their observation. I think that the trainee teachers should be given more classes on psychological understanding of the children since the biggest challenge that the teachers are facing in the class room is the difficulty in meeting the needs of every individual. Moreover, PGCE, teachers lack teaching methodology and other skills though they contain knowledge due to short period of training received (C136).

At least one comment is highly critical of the skills and approaches used by lecturers with the trainees in the training period as being “too foreign”, “The lecturers at the training institute should impart the skills of teaching in Bhutanese classrooms and not bring in what is happening in classroom elsewhere. In a sense, we should adopt to our situations their technical know-how of teaching-learning processes” (C161).

It seems some of the recent graduates are holding the posts of principals and appear to be satisfied with the relevancy of the courses offered at the Colleges of Education. For example, C103 wrote, “I did my teacher training course from July 1998 to 2001. As a trainee, I could not think of how relevant the course would be in the field but after 5 years of experience in the field, the courses offered in the education college are definitely helpful” C103).

A gap is identified between the allotment of the trainees’ subjects of specialization during teaching practice and C001 is critical of the observation:

... but if it is made compulsory that the trainee gets his own elective subjects in the field, we feel it would add to the make up of teacher quality. This is because, trainees in the fields end up in filling up the blanks of teacher shortage and have to go for other subjects keeping aside his own subject. Thus, this hampers the depth of content knowledge-acquired by trainees (C001).

An increasing quality interaction between schools and colleges seems necessary to address the observed gap.

Qualitative data also appears to suggest the importance of role modeling in terms of having positive attitudes and up keeping values at the Colleges of Education and it is presented next.

Role modeling: Attitudes and values

Data suggests the complacency and relaxed nature of life at the colleges among a number of lecturers and trainees and as portraying the kind of quality teaching learning taking place on the campuses. One such comment is equated to trainees not being hungry for knowledge, “Trainees are not hungry for knowledge (lack competition) may be the system does not demand. Depends on the kind of support and motivation they receive once they are in the field” (C026).

Some observations concern the complacency nature of some trainees during the training period.

From personal observation, trainee teachers lack full commitment and dedication to the profession during the practice teaching. The monitoring and supervision frequency of lecturers during practice teaching is limited and consequently trainees do not get enough supports and guidance. In couple of cases, fresh graduate teachers lack professional enthusiasm and personal interest in teaching (C090).

Any mediocre teacher trainee from the colleges of Education come out happily and is thrown to schools blindly. Very strict evaluation in terms of practice teaching and academic performance need to be in place. Only competent teachers can do well in the schools and bring out quality education. For this lecturers need to work harder. As of now, only a few lecturers seem to have dedication and commitment for their profession. The majority are there only for name sake (C091).

Similarly, quality status at the COE is related to the commitment and dedication from the lecturers as C042, C058 and C179 state:

There is a need to the commitment by the individual lecturer. Some with qualification are just opportunists always choosing to be out of the station. Dynamic academic leaders would be prepared in any bigger education institution for quality education (C058).

Lecturers in the colleges are the backbone of quality education. They should play the most important part in imparting and inspiring teachers at the colleges. Through their teaching, the teachers learn lots. Thus, lecturers are largely responsible for qualitative and productive teachers (C179).

C004 is in consonant with the statement of the importance of dedication in quality education, “The lecturers at the institute must be of quality. The students aspiring to be teachers must be committed to continued learning and development. All involved in teaching and learning must possess high standard of integrity and dedication” (C004).

Some of the observations concerned attitudes and values and they seem to point at the teachers in the system in general and invariably they have roots at the Colleges of Education.

Something must be done with the ‘values; I mean now a days we get teachers with good subject and content knowledge but they lack dedication, sincerity and loyalty. They try to teach the class not the children. And also B.Ed trained teachers are poor in handling the lower classes (C141) My personal experience is that most teachers (new) have adequate content knowledge and pedagogy components but lack right attitude and values. Most think of gaining personal benefits (money and training) and one’s duty and responsibilities are not much taken care (C082).

Comments also talk about the inequity in training and professional development opportunities among teachers that demoralize them and some do not want to face hardships in life as reflected in the attitude, “There isn’t much serious problem with the teachers’ quality. There are attitude problems with some of the teachers. Most do not want to face hardships” (C083) and C109 also supports this assessment by saying, “The

quality of teacher graduates from both the collage is good, but inner feeling of the teacher is not with his/her profession than it affects the quality of out come” (C109).

A succinct observation made by C006 appears to encompass a wide range of scenario: motivation, qualification, attitude and interest, large class size, life long learning at the Colleges of Education:

I will share my own observation particularly of Teacher Education programmes at Paro. I think if the quality of Teacher Educators is better than the quality of the training will be better. We need better qualified lecturers. Some 60% of the lecturers are not motivated. The givers of the training should be motivated. At the same time receivers, the trainees make the last choice to join teaching, intake is too huge a number; there are 50-60 trainees in each class. So, quality of lecturers and trainees are the main concerns. No training institutes will fully prepare for the field; the graduates should continue to learn while in the job (C006).

Satisfactory with the training quality

Some comments appear to be saying that there is no serious problem with the quality of training programmes at the Colleges of Education and the teachers who graduate. C083 compliments: “There are also good teachers produced by College of Education” (C083). C147 and C164 express their satisfactory stance on the quality scenario, both the lecturers and the programmes.

As far as my year about the lecturers at training centre they are highly qualified and highly experienced in training the teachers and at the same time all the teachers who are trained from the two training centres are well trained and good at the profession (C147).

C169 compares the recent teachers with the ones graduated about two decades ago, “Recently graduated teacher. From training institutes are better than 15-20 yrs teachers in teaching of concepts, method and methodology” (C169) and one is particularly happy about the professional development studies of the TE programmes, “The pedagogy and skills that the two COE provided are more than sufficient in my view. Professional development modules are sufficiently addressed” (C003).

Themes such as “Communication skills” and “Selection procedures for Distance education programmes” also emerged from the data. Since they were isolated comments confining to one or two they are not presented here.

Table 6.7 (d) presents Positions' perception of the quality status at the COE. Items have been ranked by %.

Table 6.7 (d) Degree of Agreement to Quality status by Positions (two upper scales collapsed)

Status of Quality of Pre-Service Teacher Education at the COE	Officers	Lecturers	Principals
Item 12: Qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher graduates	94.1% (1) (n=16)	73.4% (1) (n=24)	78.8% (2) (n=123)
Item 13: There is a need to improve teaching methods and strategies of lecturers	88.3% (2) (n=15)	73.4% (1) (n=22)	68.6% (3) (n=107)
Item 11: Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement	56.3% (3) (n=9)	73.3% (2) (n=22)	80.4% (1) (n=123)
Item 14: An entire revision of Teaching Practice system would help improve quality of Teacher Education	52.9% (n=9)	50% (n=15)	55.2% (n=97)
Item 10: Teacher training programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge	47.1% (n=8)	26.7% (n=8)	35.2% (n=55)
Item 9: There is a serious problem with the quality of teachers that Colleges of Education produce	47% (n=8)	40% (n=12)	20.7% (n=32)

Degree of agreement by Positions also has those three items at the top three (Tables 6.7 (a) & (b), excepting items altered their ranks; see Table 6.7 (d). Considering these statistical data neither the teacher education programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge, nor is there is any serious problem with the quality of teacher graduates.

Unique responses (Hard-to-Classify Themes)

As delineated elsewhere this section asked views and observations on the quality scenario and status at the Colleges of Education. But a number of opinions slightly moved away from the subject and covered a wide range of issues both home and abroad. These have been presented under the theme, *unique comments/responses* because it was hard to classify under any theme. One of them shares a research done elsewhere.

Along with Pre-service, In- service teacher education improves the also quality. I believe that no matter what training is proved in the pre-service, they are not fully prepared to face the reality of the field. The study shows that it takes about seven years in the field before the teachers start consolidating their teaching practice and a long period thereafter for the full consolation and professional development. Very little research is done on teaching career, however, one was done in Switzerland. Please refer to; Huberman, M. 1988, 'Teacher careers and school improvement', journal of curriculum studies, vol.20, no.2, pp. 119-32 (C081).

Yet another suggests recruiting lecturers from western countries:

As we are trying to adopt the western method of instructional delivery, this is a need to recruit western teachers (lecturers) in our teacher training colleges. Their lessons delivery (methods and style) would strongly influence the teacher trainees (C144).

Some comments talked about the deployment of teachers in the school system, shortage of resources, change taking time and the like, not really relating to the situation at the two colleges.

Section summary

This section reported the quality status of the teacher education programmes as observed by the respondents. Considering the overall frequencies views are not overwhelmingly different. There have been some divided opinions on aspects of quality status at the COE.

A unique finding is that by all age groups and by all positions identified three aspects of quality status in their top three. These are, “Qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher graduates”, “Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement” and “There is a need to improve teaching methods and strategies of lecturers”.

Consider the outsiders’ (Officers and Principals) and insiders’ (Lecturers) perspectives in the bottom three items. It appears that three positions have their priority. One would speculate that Officers feel there is some problem with the quality of teacher graduates as 47% of them rated agreeing to the question. On the other hand Principals’ rating is significantly less than half (20.7%) compared to the Officers. Since this is a general question the principals do not seem to observe a serious problem. But lecturers do not identify the training program as weak in subject and content knowledge.. Only 26.7% agreed to the question as opposed to officers and principals at 47.1% and 35.2% respectively. One might assume two scenarios. Firstly, lecturers did not feel comfortable

acknowledging the programme as weak in content knowledge because at large they review, develop and offer the programmes. Or alternatively, the teacher training programmes in fact are strong in subject and content knowledge as viewed by the lecturers.

According to comments, quality status circled around the course to be more relevant and current, need to improve quality of trainees, balance of pedagogy and subject content, perceived gap between preach and practice, school and colleges synergy, professional role modeling, and the like. However, a contrasting picture is observable between comments and numbers relating to the ITE programmes being weak in subject and content knowledge.

Factors Affecting the Quality of Pre-service Teacher Education

This section attempts to answer the research question, “What are the Factors that affect the Quality of Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?” Summary results, responses by age, positions and open comments are presented.

Agreement to Quality Factors: Summary Frequencies

Table 6.10 (a) below is a summary result of the factors affecting the quality of teacher education at the two Colleges of Education. Consider the three top factors on the basis of the Strongly Agree options. These factors are reported to be adversely affecting the quality of teacher education: “Inadequate physical facilities”, “Trainees having to study too many modules every semester” and “Class size too large at the colleges” as each of them was rated by 20.7%, 20.7% and 18.7% of the respondents respectively.

Table 6.10 (a) Summary of factors affecting teacher education quality

Factors affecting the quality of teacher education at Colleges of Education	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %
Inadequate support and motivation from the management	6.4	29.1	24.1	23.6	11.3
Inadequate physical facilities	5.9	19.7	16.7	34.0	20.7 (1)
Over-crowded with non-academic programs for trainees	4.4	19.2	26.1	29.1	15.3
Trainees having to study too many modules every semester	3.0	23.2	19.7	29.1	20.7 (1)
Trainees overburdened with workload	4.9	25.1	19.2	30.5	17.2
Academically poor students at the entry	7.4	25.6	24.1	25.6	14.3
Lack of dedication and motivation of the lecturers	5.9	27.6	34.0	19.2	6.9
Inadequate basic resources at the colleges	5.4	27.1	16.3	34.5	15.8
Overburden workload for the lecturers	7.4	25.1	26.6	23.6	10.3
Class size too large at the colleges	4.9	24.1	18.7	28.1	18.7 (2)
General decline in the course quality	4.4	26.1	29.1	21.7	6.9

The lower and upper two scales have been collapsed to see whether the position of quality factors change from their extreme scales of Strongly (Agree or Disagree) as discussed in the summary table. Consider the top three factors. At least two of them remain prominent factors. But now, “Trainees overburdened with workload”, not the “Class size too large at the colleges” is in the top three factors. Consider, the lower two scales, the factors that are reported to be affecting the least are “Inadequate support and motivation from the management”, “Lack of dedication and motivation of the lecturers” and “Academically poor students at the entry”. Quality factors are ranked considering the higher scales (See Table 6.10 (b)).

Table 6.10 (b) Degree of agreement to quality factors (scales collapsed)

Factors affecting the quality of teacher education at Colleges of Education	Disagreement: (Disagree + Strongly Disagree)	Agreement: (Agree+ Strongly Agree)
Inadequate physical facilities	25.6% (n=52)	54.7% (1) (n=111)
Trainees having to study too many modules every semester	26.2% (n=53)	49.8% (2) (n=101)
Trainees overburdened with workload	30.0% (n=61)	47.7% (n=97)
Class size too large at the colleges	29.0% (n=59)	46.8% (n=95)
Over-crowded with non-academic programs for trainees	23.6% (n=48)	44.4% (n=90)
Inadequate basic resources at the colleges	32.5% (n=66)	40.3% (n=102)
Academically poor students at the entry	33% (3) (n=67)	39.9% (n=81)
Inadequate support and motivation from the management	35.5% (1) (n=72)	34.9% (n=71)
Overburden workload for the lecturers	32.5% (n=66)	33.9% (n=69)
General decline in the course quality	30.5% (n=62)	28.6% (n=58)
Lack of dedication and motivation of the lecturers	33.5% (2) (n=68)	26.1% (n=25)

However, in general the percentage of respondents who rated the agreement scale is not overwhelmingly large, the highest being 54.7% and the lowest is 26.1%. Conversely, the number of participants in the disagreement group is not small either, 35.5%-23.6%. The opinions on the quality factors seem to remain divided.

Agreement to Quality Factors by Age

Consider the top three factors. Younger (26-35) and middle (36-45) age group agreed that “Inadequate physical facilities” is a factor affecting the quality at the COE. All the age groups have at least a factor common in the top three. Middle and older groups reported “Trainees having to study too many modules every semester” as one of the factors affecting TE quality.

Table 6.10 (c) Agreement to Quality Factors by Age Range (upper two scales collapsed)

Factors affecting the quality of Teacher Education at COE	26-35	36-45	46+
Inadequate support and motivation from the management	27.9% (n=27)	43.6% (n=38)	40% (n=6)
Inadequate physical facilities	50.6% (n=49)	60.3% (n=53)	64.3% (n=9)
Over-crowded with non-academic programs for trainees	41.2% (n=40)	44.8% (n=39)	68.8% (n=11)
Trainees having to study too many modules every semester	42.2% (n=4)	55.1% (n=49)	68.8% (n=11)
Trainees overburdened with workload	46.4% (n=45)	47.1% (n=41)	68.8% (n=11)
Academically poor students at the entry	30.6% (n=30)	45.4% (n=40)	68.8% (n=11)
Lack of dedication and motivation of the lecturers	22.4% (n=22)	30.7% (n=27)	26.7% (n=4)
Inadequate basic resources at the colleges	53.1% (n=52)	45.4% (n=40)	62.5% (n=10)
Overburden workload for the lecturers	32.3% (n=31)	34.1% (n=30)	50.1% (n=8)
Class size too large at the colleges	45.4% (n=44)	67.1% (n=41)	62.6% (n=10)
General decline in the course quality	32.7% (n=22)	34.5% (n=30)	37.6% (n=6)

On the other hand younger and older group reported “Trainees overburdened with workload” as a factor. It is noteworthy that the older age group reported at least four factors as equally important which would affect the quality (Refer Table 6.10 (d)). One of them was “Over-crowded with non-academic programs for trainees”.

Respondents and interviewees also mentioned about the quality being affected by too many modules and an over crowded curriculum.

The overcrowded curriculum, both academic and non-academic activities have been highlighted as one of the factors affecting quality. D143 could not agree more, “Percentage shouldn’t be just one criterion at the entry level as Class XII percentage alone doesn’t justify academic excellence. Too many module to study, no of modules could be reduced studying the relevance of the content” (D143). A number of respondents seem to believe that too many modules are offered in a seminar and this affects the quality of learning.

Graduates who are working in the fields also share, because of quantity curriculum trainees end up compromising quality learning.

The number of modules in the semester could be reduced to enhance the better understanding by including the apprenticeship time in the formal training (4 years formal training). Teachers don’t learn anything during their apprenticeship. The leniency of lecturers would affect the quality of teacher training at the colleges. That is especially during the time of assignments, semester exams. Trainees take for granted and land up learning very little. This is based on the experiences of the graduated like us (D177).

One would speculate that lecturers also seem to be compelled to compromise assessment due to overburden and workload created by having to attend to too many curricular and non-curricular tasks.

Agreement to Quality Factors by Positions

While Table 6.10 (a) above shows the overall frequency the researcher wanted to investigate if there was any difference in the responses by Positions. None of the Lecturers believed that “Trainees having to study too many modules every semester” (Item 18) was an over riding factor affecting the quality of teacher education at the Colleges of Education. Similarly few of the Officers and Principals Strongly Disagreed as only 5.8% and 3.2% respectively chose the scale. Lecturers also Strongly Agreed with 46.7% (higher than Officers and Principals) of saying it (Refer to Table 6.11) and Chi-Square test result is .035

Table 6.11 Quality factors Item 18 Difference by Positions

			Item 18 Trainees having to study too many modules every semester							Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't Know		
Position s	Officers	Count	1	1	3	5	4	3	17	
		% within Position s	5.8%	5.8%	17.6%	29.4%	23.5%	17.6%	100.0%	
	Lecturers	Count	0	5	2	8	14	1	30	
		% within Position s	.0%	16.7%	6.7%	26.7%	46.7%	3.3%	100.0%	
	Principals	Count	5	41	35	46	24	4	155	
		% within Position s	3.2%	26.5%	22.6%	29.7%	15.5%	2.6%	100.0%	
Total		Count	6	47	40	59	42	8	202	
		% within Position s	3.0%	23.3%	19.8%	29.2%	20.8%	4.0%	100.0%	

Overburden workload of the lecturers

Some comments seem to suggest “overburden workload of the lecturers” as a factor affecting the quality delivery of training at the Colleges of Education.

Lecturers are over burden with teacher's qualification up gradation programmers besides working in institute. They must be given special recognition as well some incentives, so they are encourage to work harder which will bring input in Education (D005).

Statement such as, “Too much of assignment as well as examination is over work load therefore one can not concentrate on one thing” (D150) seems to suggest that lecturers attend to a number of tasks, get burnt out and affect quality training.

Overburden of lecturers has direct relation to a large number of trainees and high lecturer trainee ratio: “High lecturer trainee ratio is a factor affecting the quality of teacher education at the COE. Huge and packed class affects proper teaching learning.

An ideal ratio could be 1:20” (D002). Lecturers’ heavy workload is related to large number of trainees that they have to teach in a class.

Understandably, resource constraints, both human and materials is the cause for having the class to keep large and detrimental to conducive environment. This has a bearing on the leadership and management as some of the comments seem to be directing at.

Enabling factors: Leadership and conducive environment

An important factor that assures or deteriorates quality is presumed to be leadership and management. Dynamism and vibrancy in leadership and enabling environment has been mentioned as a factor that will positively affect the quality, and D005 elaborated thus:

The possible factors are professionally and personally. There should be support to grow by proving equal and adequate opportunities. There should be conducive working environment, with a dynamic leader (not boss) and these will bring quality (D005).

The importance of dynamism and goodness can be heard through these words: “I think college need dynamic, vibrant, institute and creative leaders” (D046), “If the management system is weak in the colleges, it would affect the quality of teacher training program” (D031), and “Environment of the college is important. The moment you enter the college campus there should be sense of goodness” (D002). The importance of team work and collective approach is reiterated.

Some of the factors are in the hands of the director of the college, such as creating conducive environment. Some factors can be beyond the director such as teaching allowances to attract good people o teaching. It should be a collaborative decision making involving all stakeholders (D002).

Management should also play active role, there should not be confusion, no contradiction in the delegation of responsibilities. There should be ‘team spirit’ and everything must be consonant (D003).

Recall Table 6.10 (a) and see Table 6.10 (d) below. Lecturers seem to report all top factors related to inadequate resources. The factors that seem to bother them the least

concern “General decline in the course quality” and “Lack of dedication and motivation of the lecturers”. Conversely, Officers reported “General decline in the course quality” as a factor followed by “Over-crowded with non-academic programs for trainees”.

Table 6.10 (d) Agreement to Quality Factors by Positions (upper two scales collapsed)

Factors affecting the quality of Teacher Education at COE	Officers	Lecturers	Principals
Inadequate support and motivation from the management	53.4% (8)	50% (15)	31.1% (48)
Inadequate physical facilities	56.3% (9)	83.3% (25)	50.3% (77)
Over-crowded with non-academic programs for trainees	64.7% (11)	68.9% (20)	38.3% (59)
Trainees having to study too many modules every semester	52.9% (9)	73.4% (22)	45.2% (70)
Trainees overburdened with workload	58.8% (10)	66.6% (20)	43.8% (67)
Academically poor students at the entry	58.8% (10)	60% (18)	34.2% (53)
Lack of dedication and motivation of the lecturers	47% (8)	30% (9)	23.3% (36)
Inadequate basic resources at the colleges	50% (8)	83.4% (25)	44.5% (69)
Overburden workload for the lecturers	29.4% (5)	76.6% (23)	26.8% (41)
Class size too large at the colleges	41.2% (7)	93.4% (28)	29.2% (60)
General decline in the course quality	70.6% (12)	26.7% (8)	24.8% (38)

Principals’ agreement to the quality factors are not markedly large compared to the Lecturers agreement to the top three factors with the highest being 50.3%. A possible reason is that many principals work in remote schools with far less resources, large class size and under difficult conditions than the lecturers at the colleges. Factors proposed were mostly related to resources and workload.

As reported elsewhere resources related factors still remain as a major concern of the lecturers. The two Colleges of Education are located in urban and semi-urban areas and have access to modern and IT related resources. Moreover lecturers do travel to educational settings where there are quality and adequate resources. The lecturers invariably appear to make comparisons with those institutions. Ensuring adequate resources in the colleges is presumably the responsibility of the management. But they do not seem to link these two factors adequately.

Officers, who are largely responsible to overseeing the general course quality, appear to be concerned as 70.6% of them rated agreeing to the question. Officers also see factors

related to trainees more pertinent and they do not seem to see overburden workload of the lecturers as a major factor.

Dynamism in the training programmes

There is a call for the teacher training programmes to be more dynamic, innovative and to be in tune with the changing time and needs. As the programmes become redundant the quality deteriorates according a number of respondents. Following views substantiate:

... the course quality needs to be dynamic with the changing needs of the country and also with the different academic level of students coming to the two colleges. Quality of students joining the two colleges is declining since we are getting much younger and lesser matured students coming in. More over their academic learning (sic) are also lesser compared to earlier candidates. This necessitates the improvement in course quality though in reality it is not declining (D085).

D064 is critical of the need for creativity: “Not much of creativity is asked in the course of training. But modules are very rig. Some kind of independence and reflection could be encouraged” (D064) and D076 shares the same view, “Some course modules are reportedly copied from other countries that have become obsolete of late” (D076).

Institution of research culture among the lecturers and trainees is seen as an important mechanism to enhance quality in the colleges and bring about innovation in teaching learning and curriculum changes. These comments support the proposal, “Quality in assignment-writing. Need to focus on Action Research more, and not just mere assignment- a qualitative students work to be encouraged, and not the quantity” (D086), “Inappropriate and out dated teaching-learning processes. Lack of research activities in the institutes and for lecturers and students a lack of continuous assessment and monitoring of quality of graduates by the Education sector” (D072) and “Study the situation of different school in every nook corner of Bhutan and than frame the curriculum for teacher training (trainees). May be lake (sic) of updating self knowledge through research and reading” (D117). Colleges of Education are equated to a school in a

way their courses are offered, “The colleges are functioning almost like a school with prescribed periods, modules, and syllabus” (D001).

Quality trainees at the entry: Academic, motivation and interest

A large number of comments concerned individuals who are academically poor and disinterested in teaching getting into teaching profession and that this negatively affected the quality of teacher education at the colleges. The following views cover a range of issues related to academic, human qualities, and so forth.

The mechanism of conducting review and selection of teachers seems to be the dominating factor affecting the quality of teachers. There should be certain precautions taken to put the right teacher with the right subject. Even though, the existing pattern has a respect to the above issue, somehow, there are some teachers. In other subjects rather than their subject of specialization (D179).

Since it is the entry point which is like gateway for other qualities and development. So it is very mandate to have strict mechanism of criteria and checking like academic and other human qualities that are instrumental factors that would bring differences in quality of teacher (D004).

Equally important as the cut of marks for the review for teacher training candidates, their psychological and behavior background, interests in teaching and other general competence also have to be looked at in the selection review/examination (D137).

It seems high school graduates join teaching because there are no options available and once they are in the vocation they take it easy which these opinions support: “Lack of interest, honesty and dedication from the trainees. Having selected for the course things are taken very lightly by the trainees” (D006), “There are trainees who join the teaching services as a last resort” (D133). “Individual feeling towards his/her profession affect the quality, because some love as a teacher they teach, some are force (sic) by environment they teach but not from inner feelings” (D109), “Generally there is a lack of right candidates. They have mostly joined teaching out of force. There lacks motivation to be a teacher” (D004).

The data seem to suggest stern measures be employed at the admission time and trainees monitored during the training: “I feel candidates with sound academic background should only be inducted and the academic (both in the field practice and college)

performance of trainees should be monitored and supported strongly” (D090) and “System of evaluation of trainees really needs to be revisited. Some trainees are not at all fit to be teachers. There should be more strict rules to enroll/admit trainees and evaluate the trainees till they pass out from the colleges” (D091).

Qualitative data suggested a number of factors that are in addition to the proposed list. Some of them are presented here.

Lenient approach: Assessment and discipline

A factor that seems to affect the quality of teacher education concerns leniency in terms of assessment and discipline at the Colleges of Education. D136 made an observation on this.

One factor that could affect the quality of teacher training is that the lecturers do not check their trainees’ assignments sincerely and lacks feedbacks for improvement. Also trainees submit the assignments of very low quality due to lack (sic) of motivation and sincerity (D136).

There seems to be inconsistencies in the assessment of assignments and administration of examinations. These concerns are shared here: “Time for teaching learning in the college and also liberal assessment of assignment/exam by the lecturers” (D065) and “Inadequacy of strong and strict Examination” (D120).

Specialization in subject and discipline

An increasing need is discernable for greater specialization of the courses of the two Colleges of Education. Although comments have been confined to two or three the theme is important as shared here: “Specialized teacher/lecturers not teaching their specialized subjects but made to teach different subjects” (D017), “Subject specialist should be trained for lower classes pp-III to improve the quality of education at the grass root level” (D157) and “Provision of extra effort and time for subject and content knowledge” (D014).

Pedagogy and content: A grey area

The pedagogy and content, where the focus should be has always been a question in a professional teacher training college. It seems the imbalance between the two appears to be a factor affecting quality of teacher education. D081's opinions have bit of both:

More theory, less practice in the courses. High reputation and less individual support to trainees. Inadequate professional supervision by lecturers and teacher in the field leaving the trainees to teach the class on their own. No opportunities to specialize in certain areas of teaching (D081)

There is also a need to give equal importance to pedagogy and content. "The methodology parts should be given equal importance with that of content. Lecturers and trainees should look for different strategies and methods to teach different subjects" (D071). D175 also supports a balanced curriculum, "Emphasis need (sic) to be given on a more balanced curriculum which helps individual teacher trainees to realize his/her full potential" (D175). On the other hand D137 and D140 appear to contradict on theme when they say: "The present system of 1 year practice teaching in the field is not adequate. It may be increased to at least 2 years (D137) but there seems to be "Over stressed on the professional development of the teacher trainees (lack of stress on practical curriculum)" (D140).

Realization of excellence in professionalism: A necessary evil

A quality factor seems to be how professional is the whole institution? Observations appear to suggest that there is a need to realize excellence in professionalism among all stakeholders.

There is a lack of professionalism in lecturers and trainees. Trainees do not seem to know the main purpose for being in the college. Trainees do not strive for learning; they do not go after the lecturers to ask and clarify doubts, etc. There is no professional drive and atmosphere. There is lack of academic pursue and excellence in the college. It looks just like a school. There should be sense of responsibility to help each other, desire to learn (IntD001).

To make these happen lecturers should have exposure themselves first. They have been in the college too long, but there is no professional development. Of course management and leadership of the college should be role model; there should be culture building and a culture of commitment. We understand that it is difficult to change old habits. Some motivational factors could be having a common tea, coffee, comfortable workspace, access to the internet, keep the office door open. Lecturers with sound mind should be recruited; there should be certain

standard, experience. Lecturers should either improve or leave the job. They should be positive in the way they talk, never be negative (IntD001).

Professional development can happen within the college and lecturers can shine as professional academics, as subject experts, and IntD003 strongly promotes:

Quality of Teacher Educators is a main factor. They should not be complacent; they should take pride, be paid well. They should have enthusiasm and commitment. There should be high rate of motivation in the teacher educators. They should become specialists in various fields: writers of primary school children literature, primary educationist, professor of primary education, expert in primary curriculum, education psychology, education, etc. We should gain image from the public and academia. Present papers in the seminars and make the presence visible. (We do not have to wait for RCSC, OVC, PCS to recognize, to promote)(IntD003).

It seems there are many avenues that individuals can access to enhance their professional development rather than waiting for the system and external factors to initiate development or opportunities.

Dialogue with stakeholders: Informing, understanding and recognizing

As Ministry of Education (MOE) is the sole market for the teacher graduates any policy changes in the ministry affects the lives of teachers and therefore the quality of teacher education in the colleges. One such policy concerns student teacher ratio and the teacher deployment policy:

Most of the classes in our schools are over crowded. Teacher deployment is done as per the teacher student ratio which 1:32 or above 45 in earlier ratio. In fact it is 50 and above in a class. Teacher deployment should be done as per the no. of sections and teacher student ratio. Therefore, teacher deployment criteria may need to be revised and improved (D062).

D158 also observes too frequent change of policies as a factor that would negatively affect quality: “There are many factors; sudden changes in education policies without

teaching (sic) the future impacts, large class though limited resources, no competitiveness in learning by the trainees” (D158). But best can be reaped from teachers with support and dynamic leadership in schools and ministry as suggested here, “I don’t blame the trainee, but once they are posted to any school, it becomes the duty of the school to take out the best out of him or her” (D084).

Whether or not there is recognition and support from society seems to be an important factor affecting quality of teacher education. More often than not criticism is directed at Ministry of Education, “Not much support and motivation from the own ministry and other stakeholders” (D164) and “At the same time there is no respect from the society” (D196).

B005 cautions the quality scenario of education in the country owing to a number of factors. It seems motivational level of teachers and dynamism of management team may need to share responsibilities.

I feel the quality of education in Bhutan is at risk. Of course there are many factors which lead to this. Let me share my observation from the management se. More than 60% (assumption) of our teachers are not happy either because of: the leader in the school is not capable enough, narrow vision; too many works to do with limited resources and time; no adequate support to grow them professionally and personally (MOE should scale up the support). I feel our schools are sometimes dumping pits where everybody wants their idea/plan to be started from school. Teachers find it difficult to implement with quality (B005).

The scenario delineated here is related to schools and Ministry of Education, but appears to have implied a possible linkage to Colleges of Education.

IntD007’s views seem to encompass essential factors that would ensure or deteriorate quality of education: “The level of general education of the teacher trainees, the efficiency and education level of the lecturers, the relevance of curriculum, its content and currency, the pedagogic practices, the work culture, leadership and management, library holdings (both print and soft)” (IntD007). It seems fair to say that all factors can be categorized into three main baskets: resources, programmes and attitudes.

Section summary

Views and perspectives about factors affecting quality of teacher education at the colleges were reported to be diverse. Qualitative data suggested a number of factors in addition to generally agreeing to the proposed list. Mentioned among other were enabling environment and leadership, dynamic training programmes, quality of trainees, firm and just approach, balanced pedagogy and content, excellence in professionalism, quality dialogue with stakeholders.

Analyzing the frequencies of agreement and disagreement scales against each of the quality factors no single item was rated overwhelmingly high, 54.7% was the highest in agreement of “Inadequate physical facilities”.

Agreement to factors by age and positions was a telling in that there were diverse opinions. The older group (46+) rated 68.8% in agreement to four of the factor questions. Younger and middle age groups’ views were divergent. However, middle age group believed resources related factor to be affecting the quality of ITE at COE.

Lecturers’ agreement remained bent towards resources related factors, while officers believed general decline in the course quality and issues linked to trainees: academically poor at the entry, overcrowded curriculum, so forth. Principals also supported lecturers as two of the three top factors were related to resources, although their rating was not significantly high.

Preferred Pre-Service Teacher Education Model in Bhutan

This part relates to the research question, “What is a preferred Pre-service Teacher Education Model for Bhutan?” Ten questionnaire items with possible initial teacher education models or pathways to training were listed for the respondents to rate their

degree of preference from Least Preferred to Most Preferred. Five (Items 26-30) concerned new models and four of them requiring first degree to pursue B.Ed course. Three models (Items 31-33) are existing models and the other two encompass teaching practices. In purpose, presentation of data must delve more into proposed models represented by items 26-30.

Preference to ITE Models: Summary Frequencies

Table 6.12 (a) is the summary results of the Teacher Education Models reportedly preferred by the respondents to the survey. The analysis considered is the extreme scales of Least and Most by inter items/models. The Least preferred model reported is the “No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses on demand”. Some 55.7% of the respondents reported. Three models follow with 27.6%, 26.1% and 20.7% respectively. They are “Practice teaching to be progressive with few weeks to few months spread over different years of training”, “All graduate entry: Schools based teacher training. Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses based on demand” and “Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 60/40 (60% time school based and 40% time institute based)”.

Considering only new models by Most Preferred scale option top three are items 28, 26 and 27, in that order. They are again not overwhelmingly large.

Table 6.12 (a) Summary results (%): Preference of the Initial Teacher Education Models

Pre-Service Teacher Education Models	Least Preferred	Somewhat Preferred	Neutral	PREFERRED	Most Preferred
Item 26: Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 50/50 (50% time school based and 50% time institute based)	7.4	19.7	19.2	35.0	12.3
Item 27: Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 60/40 (60% time school based and 40% time institute based)	20.7	17.2	22.2	24.1	7.9
Item 28: Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors +					

2year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)	7.4	16.3	21.7	28.1	20.7
Item 29: All graduate entry: Schools based teacher training. Schools decide duration & award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses based on demand	26.1	16.7	20.7	16.7	6.9
Item 30: No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses on demand	55.7	5.4	17.2	7.4	3.4
Item 31: Current model: Three-Year B.Ed with one semester of teaching practice	11.8	16.7	9.4	40.9	17.2
Item 32: Four-Year B.Ed with one year of practice teaching	12.8	11.3	9.4	14.8	18.2
Item 33: Current model: Bachelors + One-Year PGCE with 45 days practice teaching	17.2	17.2	21.2	27.6	11.8
Item 34: Practice teaching to be at a stretch of a semester or a year	11.8	13.3	20.7	30.0	19.2
Item 35: Practice teaching to be progressive with few weeks to few months spread over different years of training	27.6	13.3	13.3	21.2	19.2

Proposed new models (Items 26-30) require the candidates to have first degree (B.Sc/B.A./B.Com) at the entry to pursue B.Ed. A number of general and largely positive comments were made on the proposed model to entertain only the bachelor degree holders to the B.Ed programmes. The advantage is seen in addressing the perceived criticism on the weak subject content competency of B.Ed graduates.

A regular feedback received from the field was that the NIE [National Institute of Education, erstwhile name for Colleges of Education] trained teachers were good in terms of pedagogy skills but lacked in academic content. Therefore, having a bachelor's degree for entry would be worthwhile and one or two full years devoted to delivery skills would churn out quality teachers (E007).

Having BA/BSc +2 years would be a good idea but more focus must be given on didactical part of teaching. The current mode needs little modification, i.e. segregate secondary and primary. Secondary needs more content and more method. Primary needs more methods and content level upto class 12 (E005).

Better qualification seems to have a bearing on the status of teachers which is shared here; "Minimum qualification desired should be upgraded to Bachelor degree. This not only contributes toward quality but also help revive the status and morale of teachers, and these two are important for teacher motivation to strive harder" (E074). A number of also suggested preferences for bachelor degree holders at the entry but a caution to be considered is whether or not colleges will get adequate number of candidates joining the training as alerted here: "Now PU [Pre-University] graduates for B.Ed can be

academically better than degree students. Progressively cut down at Class XII and increase degree, but need to study the trend” (E002).

The Most preferred model reported in the study among the Double degree (Bachelor plus B.Ed) is the “Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)”. Open comments seem to support the model with some modifications suggested and atleast four respondents commented:

Stringent selection process to be instituted for graduates to be inducted as teachers. Offer different assignments every year, otherwise there is every possibility of plagiarism in assignments. (E083). Training should be 60 at college and 40 in field Degree with 1 year training is sufficient. B.Ed (+2) must be given more content knowledge and make them able to teach till class XII (E094) 60% institute (academic and knowledge) 40% school based. Written support from management and staff (E104)

This is followed by “Four-Year B.Ed with one year of practice teaching” (18.2%). Some respondents’ comments also strongly support. But there is however some suggestions provided.

The TP should be in the 1st semester of 3rd year (E015), Four year BEd (with 6 months teaching practice for 4 years) I mean; Year one—6 month theory+6 month practice teaching, Year two—6 month theory+6 month practice teaching, Year three—6 month theory+6 month practice teaching, Year four—6 month theory+6 month practice teaching. (Practice teaching could include independent study and school based research) (E046)

I strongly recommend for the four years of teacher training program, with 1st and 2nd year in the college, 3rd year in the field (send on TP to different schools), 4th year back to college and then reflect over the needs and changes in the teaching program (E071).

I think the 4-year programme with the most relevant module in indepth study might be the best solution (E158)

PGDE, M.Ed etc graduates should teach at the primary level. Four year B.Ed should have visible enhancement of content and subject matter. First year of the four year must be spent to study content and test to be able to get into the regular program. Or the fourth year should be spent to master subject matter. Test mastery and then take up pedagogy. PHZH has a similar model. (IntE003)

Although the “Current model: Three-Year B.Ed with one semester of teaching practice” was rated as the third most preferred with 17.2% most of the supporting comments concerned adjustments in Practice Teaching as suggested here:

Current model with practice teaching to be progressive with few weeks to few months spread over different years of the training (E017). The current practice of sending apprentice teacher to school is not a good system. However 3 years B.Ed and 1 year teaching practice may be helpful to schools (E021). Current module three-year B.Ed with one semester of teaching practice (E186)

Comparison of Preference to TE Models

Tables 6.12 (b)-(e) show the comparison of preference to models in which upper and lower two scales have been collapsed. Table 6.12 (b) compares the preference of models among the proposed new models where all but one require first degree at the entry and two year B.Ed. The top three are highlighted. Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based) is the most preferred. Earlier discussion did support it.

Table 6.12 (b) Preferences of models compared (upper and lower two scales collapsed)

New Models (with 1 st Degree entry except last one)	More preferred (%)	Less preferred (%)
Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)	48.8 (1)	23.7 (5)
Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 50/50 (50% time school based and 50% time institute based)	47.3 (2)	27.1 (4)
Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 60/40 (60% time school based and 40% time institute based)	32.0 (3)	37.9 (3)
All graduate entry: Schools based teacher training. Schools decide duration & award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses based on demand	23.6 (4)	42.8 (2)
No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses on demand	10.8 (5)	61.1 (1)

Notice the Least preferred models with the highest percentage after merging lower two scales. “No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses on demand” is the least preferred model (rejected model in this study) as it received the highest percentage. Data in Table 6.12 (b) seem to align in that what is labeled at the top in the most preferred ranking is at the bottom in the least preferred ranking.

Three-Year B.Ed is at the top of the ranks with 58.1% when two upper two scales are combined although it does not draw strong support when the Most preferred scale alone is considered. In essence the three existing models must stand separately, by level and

the number of years. One is a PGCE, and the Four-Year B.Ed is a proposed model and its implementation is under consideration. It appears that the study participants are generally satisfied with the existing Three-Year B.Ed model.

Table 6.12 (c) Ranking preference of existing models (collapsing two scales)

Existing models of B.Ed and PCGE	Most Preferred (%)	Least Preferred (%)
Current model: Three-Year B.Ed with one semester of teaching practice	58.1 (1)	28.5 (2)
Four-Year B.Ed with one year of practice teaching	33.0 (2)	24.1 (3)
Current model: Bachelors + One-Year PGCE with 45 days practice teaching	29.4 (3)	34.4 (1)

Preference of Practice Teaching Models

Refer Table 6.12 (d). It seems the respondents prefer Teaching Practice to be at a stretch of one semester or one year although the margin is narrow indicating a split perspective about the preference of TP model. More about it will be discussed in the next chapter.

Table 6.12 (d) Ranking of Teaching Practice Models (collapsing two scales)

Teaching Practice Models	Most Preferred	Least Preferred
Practice teaching to be at a stretch of a semester or a year	49.2 (1)	25.1 (2)
Practice teaching to be progressive with few weeks to few months spread over different years of training	40.4 (2)	40.9 (1)

The assumption was that the respondents would comment on the proposed Teaching Practice models (Items 34 and 35) indicating their preferences. However, a number of suggestions were made on improving the existing TP and these are important reminders to be considered while proposing quality assuring Pre-service Teacher Education Model. Valuable observations were made are mentioned below.

If the duration of practice teaching be stretched, the quality of pre-service teacher training would be ensured (E031)

Pre-service teacher must be given maximum period of time to be in real school (teaching practice) to learn and experience the right teaching and ways (E049)

Frequent visit by lecturers during practice teaching. Feedbacks and Recommendation (E054)

Intensive practical teaching implementation with very close monitoring and supervision by professionals (E063)

Regular supervision and monitoring is required from the training Institute. Only subject specialized need to supervise and guide the trainees in the field. In the existing practice, even Dzo. Lecturers are supervising science students (E066)

Best trainee in the college can be bad teacher in the school. Therefore adequate field experience more important than best methodology in the college. Give more opportunity for trainees to deal with students in the school that will work far better than the lecturer in the college (E091)
Teaching practice should be as it is but should be given extra importance (E150)
Extend the duration of teaching practice. Recruit only interested and high achievers for admission (E174)

Consider the contents of the comments made. They are diverse as much as contradictory. But what appears to underpin is the quality and frequency of supervision and monitoring from the colleges needs a tremendous improvement.

Preference of Teacher Education Models by Age Range

One of the models is presented for a brief discussion as different age groups expressed their differences is Item 26 “Double degree. All graduate entry: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 50/50 (50% time school based and 50% time institute based)”. Table 6.107 (a) shows that the 26-35 years group appears to bend more toward “Preferred” (36.5%) compared to “Somewhat preferred” (25.3%). The trend is similar with the 36-45 years group. Consider two extreme scales and older age group. The data is reverse as 26.7% and 13.3% reported Least preferred and Most preferred respectively.

Table 6.13 Preference of ITE Model Item 26: Difference by Age Range

		Item 26 Double degree. All graduate entry: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 50/50 (50% time school based and 50% time institute based)							Total
		Least preferred model	Somewhat preferred model	Neutral	Preferred model	Most preferred model	Don't Know		
Age range	26-35 years	Count	8	24	16	35	10	2	95
	% within Age range	8.4%	25.3%	16.8%	36.8%	10.5%	2.1%	100.0 %	
	36-45 years	Count	3	13	19	35	13	5	88
	% within Age range	3.4%	14.8%	21.6%	39.8%	14.8%	5.7%	100.0 %	
	46 years and above	Count	4	3	4	1	2	1	15
	% within Age range	26.7%	20.0%	26.7%	6.7%	13.3%	6.7%	100.0 %	
Total		Count	15	40	39	71	25	8	198
		% within Age range	7.6%	20.2%	19.7%	35.9%	12.6%	4.0%	100.0 %

Some open comments did suggest a preference to the model, “Two years of teacher training after First degree will be suitable. There should be 50/50 content/method” (E006).

Preference of Teacher Education Models by Positions

The model considered here for discussion is Item 30, “No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made course on demand”. Table 6.14 shows that a large percentage of the respondents from all three Positions had least preferred this model with (73.3%) of the Officers, 46.7% of the Lecturers and 57.5% of the Principals rating the Least Preferred scale. Chi-Square tests result is .010

Table 6.14 Preference of ITE Model Item 30: Difference by Positions

		Item 30 No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made course on demand							Total
Position s	Officers	Least preferre d model	Somewhat preferred model	Neutral	Preferre d model	Most preferre d model	Don't Know		
Officers	Count	11	1	2	0	1	0	15	
	% within Position s	73.3%	6.6%	13.3%	.0%	6.6%	.0%	100.0 %	
Lecturer s	Count	14	3	5	2	1	5	30	
	% within Position s	46.7%	10.0%	16.7%	6.7%	3.3%	16.7%	100.0 %	
Principa ls	Count	88	7	28	13	5	12	153	
	% within Position s	57.5%	4.6%	18.3%	8.5%	3.3%	7.8%	100.0 %	
Total		Count	113	11	35	15	7	17	198
		% within Position s	57.1%	5.6%	17.7%	7.6%	3.5%	8.6%	100.0 %

Both by Age and Positions respondents this model is the least preferred one and they seem to be quite unanimous. More on the differences of preferences by age and positions is presented next.

Preference of Teacher Education Models: Comparing Age and Positions

Table 6.12 (e) presents preference of Teacher Education Models by Age and Positions. Higher scales of Preferred and Most Preferred are merged and the highest in each category is highlighted. At least in three models Officers and Lecturers are in the same wave length of preferences in that both the groups rated preferred. Models happened to be one from each of the categories of new, existing and teaching practice. Conversely, Principals' preference seems to remain isolated from the other two positions and further discussion on this is presented in Chapter Seven.

Similarly, the two older age groups appear to be indicating same preferences in three of the models. In some sense upper age groups and Officers and Lecturers appear to be making similar preferences.

Table 6.12(e) Preference of ITE Models: Age and Positions compared (higher scales merged)

Pre-Service Teacher Education Models	Most Preferred by Age			Most Preferred by Positions		
Preference of New Models	26-35	36-45	46 plus	Officers	Lecturer	Principals
Item 26: Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 50/50 (50% time school based and 50% time institute based)	47.3%(1) (n=45)	54.6%(2) (n=48)	20%(2) (n=3)	26.7%(3) (n=4)	36.6%(2) (n=4)	74.2%(1) (n=81)
Item 27: Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 60/40 (60% time school based and 40% time institute based)	33.7% (3) (n=31)	37.2% (3) (n=32)	13.3% (n=2)	33.3%(2) (n=5)	34.5% (3) (n=10)	33.6% (3) (n=50)
Item 28: Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)	45.7%(2) (n=43)	55.9%(1) (n=48)	50%(1) (n=8)	50%(1) (n=8)	44.8% (1) (n=13)	51.6% (2) (n=78)
Item 29: All graduate entry: Schools based teacher training. Schools decide duration & award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses based on demand	21% (n=20)	29.1% (n=25)	20%(2) (n=3)	26.7% (3) (n=4)	33.3% (n=10)	22.5% (n=34)

Item 30: No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses on demand	9.5% (n=9)	13.6% (n=12)	6.7% (n=1)	6.7% (n=1)	10% (n=3)	11.8% (n=18)
Preference of Existing Models						
Item 31: Current model: Three-Year B.Ed with one semester of teaching practice	63.6% (n=61)	52.3% (n=45)	80% (n=12)	37.6% (n=6)	41.4% (n=12)	65.8% (n=100)
Item 32: Four-Year B.Ed with one year of practice teaching	55.7% (n=39)	38.6% (n=22)	46.2% (n=6)	72.8% (n=8)	57.9% (n=11)	43.6% (n=48)
Item 33. Current model: Bachelors + One-Year PGCE with 45 days practice teaching	42.7% (n=41)	34.1% (n=30)	60% (n=9)	50% (n=4)	43.3% (n=10)	43.2% (n=66)
Preference of Teaching Practice Models						
Item 34: Practice teaching to be at a stretch of a semester or a year	52.7% (n=50)	50% (n=43)	43.8% (n=7)	43.8% (n=7)	36.7% (n=11)	54.6% (n=82)
Item 35: Practice teaching to be progressive with few weeks to few months spread over different years of training	44.8% (n=43)	40.2% (n=35)	25% (n=4)	50% (n=8)	46.7% (n=14)	39.2% (n=60)

Consider new models (Items 26-30). The top three ranking are items 26, 27, and 28.

Item 28: “Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)” seems to be particularly popular as all age groups and positions rated mostly in the top priority, and is followed Item 26 which is also in the top three but mostly in the second priority.

Qualitative data provided some information encompassing additional models, apprentice teachers, teacher candidates, employment and licensing of teacher graduates.

Additional models proposed

Some additional models have been proposed. One is, “Double degree; Bachelors +3years B.Ed with 30/70(30% time school based and 70% time college based)” (E096). This model suggests the B.Ed to be for three years after first degree with 70% of the time spent in the college orienting to theory.

One is reminded of the erstwhile courses (See Chapter Four) namely Primary Teachers Certificate (PTC), Zhungkha Teachers Certificate (ZTC). Zhungkha is referred to

Dzongkha, the National language of Bhutan. The caution is the need to consider external factor that would affect in determining the decision for proposing new training models:

We have had models: PTC [Primary Teachers Certificate], ZTC [Zhungkha Teachers Certificate], B.Ed Primary, Secondary, English, etc. The type of models should be based on social development. In the long run the current B.Ed programme should have 60% of content. It is the responsibilities of the two colleges. The lecturers are not able to teach academic (IntE001).

A policy related question that appears to have some bearing on the intake of trainees has been raised here in that the time spent after first degree is equivalent to completing post graduate course (s). A demand for raise in the position at the entry after the training is inevitable. IntE006 has been farsighted

We also need to consider that two years B.Ed is equivalent to PGCE or even Master level. There would be a need to raise the position. We should also consider offering M.Ed after B.A./B.Sc/B.Com. The M.Ed could have thesis and course work routes with 1.5 years and 1 year respectively (IntE006).

Apprentice teachers

Although limited to a few, critical comments were made on the inadequate preparedness of Apprentice teachers who are sent to schools to take up responsibilities of full time teachers. Observations are shared here: “Apprentice teacher should be attached with experienced teacher. Trainees should be specialized in one or two areas of teaching. Various areas like child psychology, counseling, and physical education should not be taught together” (E016) and “Training must be given adequately before sending as apprentice Teacher” (E005). These comments are apt in that same arrangement may be avoided in new models.

Employment and licensing

Some comments concerns a policy to making teacher graduates pull up their socks by letting them know completing training does not guarantee employment. This statement, “All the graduate trainee should be interviewed to employ, after training from both the Institute” (E045) seems to suggest completion of training at the colleges only obtains a teaching license

Among the suggested models with bachelor degree holders, “Double degree. All graduate entry level: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and

60% time institute based)" (Item 28) appears to be a more popular model. Except some differences of opinions by Positions, Age, frequencies and open comments support the model. One of the new models proposed concerns, "Four-Year B.Ed with one year of practice teaching" (Item 32). The data show that this model is popular as well and recommendations have been made for improvement of the model.

Section summary

This study aimed to propose Initial Teacher Training models which would ensure and assure quality. Summary here is confined to the new models represented by items 26-30. Referring to Tables 6.12 (a), (b) and (c) and considering top three preferences one is given an understanding that "Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)" (Item 28) is the most preferred model. This is followed by models proposed through items 26 and 27. Model also proposes time allocation for Teaching Practice in that 40/60 means 40% of the training time is school based. Essentially, it should encompass practicum and professional experience in the schools. Conversely, the least preferred model is "No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses on demand" (Item 30), followed by "All graduate entry: Schools based teacher training. Schools decide duration & award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses based on demand" (Item 29).

All age groups and positions have ranked items 28 and 26 in the top three indicating their strong preferences to the models. Except 46+ years old age group all the variables have also rated item 27 in the top three. However, 46+ years old age group and officers have the model, (Item 29) among the top three. Although rated by two variables and a small percentage this appears to be telling because one would presume this model to be

moving toward virtual autonomy at the school level. On the other hand the least preferred model is represented by item 30.

Qualitative data by and large supported the proposed ITE models with first degree at the entry to B.Ed course. Comments also appear to propose new ITE Models, provided suggestions to improve teaching practices, apprentice teachers, institution of licensing policy to teachers, and mentioned erstwhile models of ZTC and PTC.

Pre-Service Teacher Education Quality Assurance Models

This section relating to the research question, “What is a preferred Quality Assurance Model for Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?” details models that are expected to improve the quality of the Pre-Service Teacher Education at the two Colleges of Education. Some six models were listed and asked the respondents to report the degree of preference from Least to the Most.

Preference of QA Models: Summary Frequencies

Table 6.15 (a) is a summary result of the quality assurance models preferred by the participants of the study. Discussion considered here concerns the Most preferred scale as opposed to the Least preferred one. All the models proposed have been rated the highest scale compared to the lowest one. Of these “Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services” is at the top of the rank with 45.3% followed by “Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to the relevant office and sharing with stakeholders” with 36.9%. “Involvement of students in programs development, reviews, assessment and evaluation” is third with 32.0%.

Table 6.15 (a) Summary results of preference of the Pre-Service TE Quality Assurance Models

Pre-Service Teacher Education Quality Assurance Models	Least Preferred %	Somewhat Preferred %	Neutral %	Preferred %	Most Preferred %
Item 36: Periodic external reviews of the whole institution	4.4	15.8	19.7	39.9	13.8
Item 37: Periodic external reviews of specific disciplines or subjects		9.4	17.7	43.8	25.1
Item 38: Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region	3.0	8.9	13.3	44.3	25.1
Item 39: Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to the relevant office and sharing with stakeholders	1.5	8.9	7.9	40.9	36.9
Item 40: Involvement of students in programs development, reviews, assessment and evaluation	4.4	13.3	15.8	31.0	32.0
Item 41: Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services	1.0	3.9	11.8	34.0	45.3

“Periodic external reviews of specific disciplines or subjects”, and “Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region” with 25.1% each are also quality assurance models and mechanisms worth considering. Even when you collapse two higher scales of Preferred and Most Preferred the preferential ranking remains same. More about this is presented later in the section.

Table 6.15 (b) Summary results: Ranking of Preference to Quality Assurance Models

Pre-Service Teacher Education Quality Assurance Models	Less Preferred	Neutral %	More Preferred
Item 41: Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services	4.9	11.8	79.3 (1)
Item 39: Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to the relevant office and sharing with stakeholders	10.4	7.9	77.8 (2)
Item 38: Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region	11.9	13.3	69.4 (3)
Item 37: Periodic external reviews of specific disciplines or subjects	9.4	17.7	68.9
Item 40: Involvement of students in programs development, reviews, assessment and evaluation	17.7	15.8	63
Item 36: Periodic external reviews of the whole institution	20.2	19.7	53.7

Table 6.15 (b) presents less preferred (collapsed Least Preferred and Somewhat Preferred scales) and more preferred (collapsed Preferred and Most Preferred scales) models. Item 41 is reported to be a popular model, and it is followed by Item 39 and 38 respectively.

The qualitative data also seem to complement the statistical data in that there is a preference of the models proposed. Comments such as this, “College of education may assure teacher quality by closer ties with teachers and schools, with sister institutions like BBE, CAPSD, CERD, Shebutse College, NRTI, and RUB. Colleges of Education should have been and more links with schools, BBE, CAPSD and CERD” (F137) seem to be relating to peer reviewing between sister institutes (Item 38). Discipline specific review or whole institute review and/or involvement of students are proposed quality assurance models. In some sense data seem to endorse these models. These observations substantiate: “Review of disciplines and whole institute curriculum needs to be done frequently” (F017), “Involvement of pre-service teachers for the development of curriculum” (F052), “What has to be included it has to align with needs of stake holder. So molding teachers accordingly is vital and critical” (F094) and “Field teachers should involvement in programs development and reviews” (F100).

There are also suggestions to institute national monitoring agency, if the proposed organization has capacity to do so or an external body would be worth exploring, the data suggests.

There should be a monitoring agency of the two colleges of education. May be EMSD, but is it capable? Quality of programmes, trainees and educators could be monitored. I think this can be outsourced, invite certain agencies to monitor from time to time. May be in 3-5 years interval. There can also be external self, peer assessment. External specialized in subjects and disciplines can focus on programmes, staff and infrastructures. One means of finding out the performance is by carrying out survey of the graduates by batches in the field, find out how they are faring in the fields (IntF006).

On a similar note, involvement of the main players and stakeholders are suggested to be effective partners in reviewing the whole program of the colleges: “There need an

extensive review to be done with the whole programs of an education college by including Teachers, Lecturers, and Curriculum Officers, Policy makers, students and parents as well” (F071). Several comments do appear to support timely and quality revision of the training program considering the needs of schools. One has been critical of PGCE as iterated here, “PGCE course be extended to two years; so they get to know what actually is teaching by widening the scope to learn further” (F133).

Preference of QA Models: Age Ranges

Of the six proposed Pre-Service Teacher Education Quality Assurance Models the respondents by Age Range had some differences of opinions on the Item 39 “Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to relevant office and sharing with stakeholders”. A significant number of all the age groups, young, mid and old rated Most preferred scale with 35.4%, 37.5% and 40.7% respectively. Some 18.8% of the oldest group also rated the Least preferred scale. On the other hand two younger groups had none rating Least preferred scale. Table 6.16 below provides more details.

Table 6.16 Preference of ITE QA Model, Item 39: Difference by Age Range

		Item 39 Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to relevant office and sharing with stakeholders							Total
		Least preferred model	Somewhat preferred model	Neutral	Preferred model	Most preferred model	Don't Know		
Age range	26-35 years	Count	0	11	9	39	34	3	96
		% within Age range	.0%	11.5%	9.4%	40.6%	35.4%	3.1%	100.0 %
36-45 years		Count	0	6	7	38	35	0	86
		% within Age range	.0%	7.0%	8.1%	44.2%	40.7%	.0%	100.0 %
46 years and above		Count	3	1	0	6	6	0	16
		% within Age range	18.8%	6.3%	.0%	37.5%	37.5%	.0%	100.0 %
Total		Count	3	18	16	83	75	3	198
		% within Age range	1.5%	9.1%	8.1%	41.9%	37.9%	1.5%	100.0 %

It seems the model that shares improvement plans with the stakeholders has common interests that can build strong partnership. In Bhutanese context partners of Teacher Education Colleges are Ministry of Education, Royal University of Bhutan in particular and government in general. A few comments did elucidate.

Partnership-coordination between COE and schools can be a model for assuring quality. There should be conducive environment in the COE. Colleges should also involve in new initiatives being taken by MOE [Ministry of Education] to developing school curriculum. Colleges of Education should be much ahead of schools (IntF002).

Partnership model has been found essential and effective elsewhere. For example, the UK experience has been successful (Fidler, 1994; Mutton & Butcher, 2008).

Refer to Table 6.15 (a) which presented the summary of the frequencies. Further analysis of the data is presented by merging the higher two scales of Preferred and Most Preferred Models to see the difference among the Age groups (Table 6.15 (c) and Positions (Table 6.15 (d). The results between the overall and the age groups differ. Each age group seems to nominate different models. For example, 26-35 age groups has “Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services”, while 36-45 group has “Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to the relevant office and sharing with stakeholders” at the top and 46 years and above group prefers “Periodic external reviews of specific disciplines or subjects”.

Table 6.15 (c) Preference QA Models by Age Range (upper two scales collapsed)

Pre-Service Teacher Education Quality Assurance Models	26-35	36-45	46+
Periodic external reviews of the whole institution	51.6% (n=49)	57% (n=49)	68.8% (n=11)
Periodic external reviews of specific disciplines or subjects	69.2% (n=65)	72.1% (3) (n=62)	81.3% (1) (n=13)
Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region	72.4% (3) (n=68)	70.9% (n=61)	75% (2) (n=12)
Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to the relevant office and sharing with stakeholders	76% (2) (n=73)	84.9% (1) (n=73)	75% (2) (n=12)
Involvement of students in programs development, reviews, assessment and evaluation	68% (n=66)	63.9% (n=55)	43.7% (n=7)
Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services	86.4% (1)	77.9% (2)	68.8% (n=11)

	(n=83)	(n=67)
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Preference of QA Models by Positions

One of the quality assurance models asked through Item 39 is the “Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to relevant office and sharing with stakeholders”. In general all Positions rated the higher scales of Most Preferred with 37.5% (Officers), 53.3% and 13.3% (Lecturers) and 40.8% and 42.8% (Principals). But Officers also bent toward Least Preferred (6.25% and Somewhat Preferred (25%) scales. One would be tempted to propose that the two Colleges should share with the stakeholders their quality improvement plan to assure quality of training. Refer to Table 6.17 for more details.

Table 6.17 Preference of ITE QA Model, Item 39: Difference by Positions

		Item 39 Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to relevant office and sharing with stakeholders							Total
		Least preferred model	Somewhat preferred model	Neutral	Preferred model	Most preferred model	Don't Know		
Position	Officers	Count	1	4	0	5	6	0	16
		% within Positions	6.25%	25%	.0%	31.2%	37.5%	.0%	100.0%
	Lecturers	Count	1	3	5	16	4	1	30
		% within Positions	3.3%	10.0%	16.7%	53.3%	13.3%	3.3%	100.0%
	Principals	Count	1	11	11	62	65	2	152
		% within Positions	.7%	7.2%	7.2%	40.8%	42.8%	1.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	3	18	16	83	75	3	198
		% within Positions	1.5%	9.1%	8.1%	41.9%	37.9%	1.5%	100.0%

When we consider Positions' preference further (Table 6.15 (d)) by collapsing the upper two scales, Principals preferred "Institution of excellence award, focusing on teaching, research and community services" as the quality assurance model in Pre-service TE. But when we look at top three all positions preferred this model. While "Periodic external reviews of specific disciplines or subjects" is nominated by Officers. But the Lecturers prefer "Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region" as a QA Model at the top of the list (See Table 6.15 (d) for more details.

Table 6.15 (d) Preference QA Models by Positions (upper two scales collapsed)

Pre-Service Teacher Education Quality Assurance Models	Officers	Lecturers	Principals
Periodic external reviews of the whole institution	60% (n=9)	56.7% (n=17)	54.6% (n=83)
Periodic external reviews of specific disciplines or subjects	73.3% (1) (n=11)	73.4% (2) (n=22)	70.9% (n=107)
Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region	60% (n=9)	82.8% (1) (n=24)	71.1% (3) (n=108)
Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to the relevant office and sharing with stakeholders	68.8% (2) (n=11)	66.6% (n=20)	83.6% (2) (n=127)
Involvement of students in programs development, reviews, assessment and evaluation	56.3% (n=9)	53.3% (n=16)	67.3% (n=103)
Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services	68.8% (2) (n=11)	68.9% (3) (n=20)	84.9% (1) (n=130)

In sum all positions have a preferred model in common among the top three. However, considering the statistical data in terms of frequencies the model, "Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services" appears to be prominent. However other models are also rated on the higher scale. Thus, the overall finding according to the statistical data is that all proposed QA models are preferred and supported by the study.

Qualitative data seem to support that "Institution of a vibrant research culture" in the Colleges of Education can be a tool or model seen to be assuring quality. The nominated theme is substantiated by the statement:

To encourage research on education, a simple research method module should be produced to be followed compulsorily by all trainees. This skill will help trainees across all other modules and later in the schools to conduct simple research on their own (F081).

Furthermore action research and participation in the academic congregations have been specified, “In order to improve quality of pre-service teacher education, teacher should be encouraged to do more Action research according to needs and requirements that is important to both teachers and college” (F004), “Encourage and support research within college and outside. Encourage wide participation in seminars and workshop in the international forum” (F046).

Invariably, research makes professionals learn continuously and therefore sustains knowledge and skills. IntF001 states thus:

Graduates should refer back to college. Teacher need to continuously grow Eg. By doing ‘Action Research’. Teacher graduates should be equipped with skills and motivation to keep broadening knowledge, continuity, and build expertise in certain field (IntF001).

Continuous learning model through research would possibly be a role model at the Colleges of Education. The power of it could be seen in its dual purposes. First, for the lecturers to grow themselves and role model before the trainees; second, the trainees receive hands-on-experiences and the potential of transferring the similar culture to schools is high.

Some of the comments appear to suggest a need to provide incentives to perform well either during the training period or while working in schools. While one would expect teachers to have intrinsic motivation it seems extrinsic motivations are inevitable. At the same time the data suggest the system should be strict with the poor performers. Thus, one is tempted to coin “Carrot and Stick Model” for the purpose of presenting data here.

These comments could be equated to carrot: “Incentives for teachers would ensure quality education. Happy teacher happy products” (F040), “If individual hard work is reinforced and recognized, it makes lot of difference. If there is no distinction between who works well and who don’t, that is when the spirit of hard working people fall”

(F044), “Provide handsome salary or incentive for the teachers. As the teachers are the one who mould the students. To be better citizen of the country,” (F164). Exposure tours and timely support for professional development are thought to be motivating incentives.

Study Tour: once in the field we are expected to have the profound knowledge about the world especially by their students. In such case, it would be a wise idea if trs, not only head trs, are send (sic) for study tour abroad to view some parts of the world, practically (F179).

On the other hand comments also suggest sanctions to be levied on the unsatisfactory performers. Some of them are shared here: “If teachers have not upgraded within 5 years time they can be put to non-teaching category” (F076), “Proficiency testing of teacher at the institute level and provide support. In the long term introduce teaching license” (F081), “Licensing of the graduates, upon graduation give them license to teach but job is not guaranteed” (IntF003) and the like.

It appears the two colleges among other, may need to accelerate the institution of excellence awards for job well done, plus maximize research activities and community services.

Section summary

Some six quality assurance models or mechanisms were proposed and asked the respondents to show their degree of preference. Generally, respondents seemed to prefer all models. When two upper scales were collapsed and ranked these three models come at the top: Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services (Item 41) (79.3%); Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to the relevant office and sharing with stakeholders (Item 39) (77.8%); and Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region (Item 38) (69.4%).

Further analysis by age and positions showed that items 38, 39 and 41 still remained at the top three. But all positions had item 41 in the top three, while all age groups have item 39 in top three. What has emerged when age and positions were compared is item 37: “Periodic external reviews of specific disciplines or subjects” is a preferred QA model. Statistically, the top two most preferred QA models were items 39 and 41, followed by items 37 and 38. These pairs of models were nominated by five and four of the six variables. In addition a number of suggestions were made that related to assuring quality of TE at COE. These were: Partnerships, Collaboration, External monitoring agency, Institution of a vibrant research culture, Carrot and Stick Model and the like.

Chapter Seven

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter links information and conceptual issues that emerged in the preceding chapters to the data collected from primary sources. Using concepts expressed in the research questions as the key variables the two types of data are analyzed. Additional literature is used where appropriate to maximize the validity of the discussion which is presented in five sections (A-E). Section A discusses the Initial Teacher Training models, Section B the Quality Assurance models, Section C the quality status of Initial Teacher Training at COE, Section D factors affecting the quality of ITT at COE and Section E discusses quality concept and definitions. However, it is important to revisit the key research questions of this study although the ensuing discussion does not necessarily follow sequentially the key questions listed.

What are the Concepts and Definitions of Quality of Education?

What is the Quality Status of Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?

What are the Factors that affect the Quality of Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?

What is a preferred Pre-service Teacher Education Model for Bhutan?

What is a preferred Quality Assurance Model for Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?

Section A

Initial Teacher Training Models

Cochran-Smith (2001) posed four questions related to attributes, effectiveness, knowledge and outcomes as drivers of teacher education reform. By researching models for ITT it is proposed to address one or all of these questions posed by Cochran-Smith. Discussion in this section is organized in four groups of ITT models because each

appears to be different in focus and resulting policy implications. A brief discussion on the Teaching Models is also presented.

Group I

Three models proposed in Group I require candidates to have a first degree before enrolment in the Two-Year B.Ed course. The models also proposed a division of programme time between the school practicum and Higher Education Institutes (HEI) in the ratio of 50/50, 60/40 and 40/60 as indicated below. The intention is the programme time allocated in the HEI is to orient the students to education and related studies, while the practicum is to gain professional experiences in schools.

ITE Model A: Double degree. All graduate entry: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 50/50 (50% time school based and 50% time institute based)

ITE Model B: Double degree. All graduate entry: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 60/40 (60% time school based and 40% time institute based)

ITE Model C: Double degree. All graduate entry: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)

Data collected from primary sources overwhelmingly supported the ITT, B.Ed models with a first academic degree at the entry. These three models were preferred by all age groups and positions (See Chapter Six). While the rating was on the higher scales of Agree and Strongly Agree, the comments suggested advantages for improving academic content and addressing the criticism of the weak subject knowledge of teacher graduates. Comments also revealed a belief the better academic qualification should boost morale of teachers. It appears education officers, lecturers and principals in Bhutan are in agreement with the model adopted in Singapore and Korea which favored

the requirement, candidates to the teacher training have a BA/BSc/BCom (Leung, 2003).

The proposed models have major differences in two areas with models in operation in some of the researched countries. One is the model is still a regular B.Ed for two years, and the other, the school experience/college time is in the ranges of 50/50, 60/40 and 40/60. Among these models, the most preferred one is “Double degree. All graduate entry: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)”. The preference of the 40/60 model requires student teachers spend 40% of the two years in school for practicum whereas 60% of the time is to be spent in the CoE orienting themselves to education theories. The model offers much less time for school based professional experience compared to the Articled Teacher Scheme (ATS) of a United Kingdom model (Furlong, et al, 2000) which required PGCE students to be in the school for at least 80% of their time. However the model offers much more time compared to the practicum provided in the one-year PGCE in Bhutan (Dorji, 2005; COE, 2007).

The proposed model(s) is presumed to have two major implications, one concerns level and nomenclature for the degree and the other position classification, both of which may have bearing on successful implementation of policy change. Although the proposed model is called double degree the candidates already have first degree. The graduates after two years of training earn an additional bachelor’s degree, at the undergraduate level. As detailed elsewhere, the South Asian model offers a one-year B.Ed for BA/BSc holders, or 14+1 model and Master of Art or Master of Education in two academic years for BA/BSc holders, or 14+2 model. One year M.Ed is also offered to candidates with B.Ed degree, 14+1+1 (Secretariat, 1993). The level of the degree if not commensurate with the time spent in training and in practice elsewhere, may contribute to a lack of

candidates joining the course. While the name of degree remains BA B.Ed as one option, an offshoot model is proposed, a M.Ed, Bachelors+2 model. Alternatively, the nomenclature of the degree may be Graduate B.Ed as Australia offers to Graduate Dip.Ed holder (UNE, 2006). Structurally, the model is same for primary and secondary schools but course details can be designed differently.

The other policy implications concerns Position Classification System (PCS) of the Royal Civil Service Commission (RCSC). All civil servants of Bhutan are grouped into major occupational groups. All teachers in Bhutan are civil servants and work within the rules and regulations of the RCSC. Teachers fall in the “teaching services” subgroup of the major “Education and training services group” (RGOB, 2005), and they are in the professional categories (P5A-P1A) of the RCSC’s PCS. Each level of position is attached to the pay structure and incentives. PGCE and B.Ed graduates are placed in P4A. The RCSC selects a cadre of fresh graduates and after a year of training the incumbents are placed in P4A. The graduates who are not selected by the RCSC are placed in P5A or lower. In order to ensure quality and quantity candidates join the programmes and the proposed ITT model is sustained, assigning appropriate positions to the graduates of this model is of paramount importance.

Group II

The Articled Teacher Scheme (ATS) was a school based two year PGCE initiated in the United Kingdom (Furlong et al, 2000). Schools and local authorities had the responsibilities of providing professional experiences to the teachers of this scheme. The scheme required about 20% of the two year training time to be in the higher education institutions. The scheme gave a more professional approach to training teachers. The proposed Model D is similar to ATS in that schools are charged with major tasks of training teacher. Model D is mainly different in the decision making authority bestowed

to the schools in the areas of training duration, type of award, and courses. Schools are also responsible for developing linkages with CoE and arranging tailor made courses with the higher education institutions on payment.

ITE Model D: All graduate entry: Schools based teacher training. Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses based on demand

Model D was not a preferred option as far as the primary data source is concerned except for few officers and older age group (46+). Bhutanese Education Officers, Lecturers and Principals of schools are of the view schools and local education authorities are not ready to accept major roles in mentoring and providing initial teacher training at their levels. A large majority of the current teaching force and principals especially in primary and lower secondary schools are graduates with B.Ed and PTC (Department of Education, 2002). One may speculate there is a need to improve professional competency and confidence of school principals and local education authorities to train their own teachers. The finding is Bhutanese officers, lecturers and principals seem to agree with the traditional belief of teachers training being the responsibility of higher education institutions or universities.

Group III

Model E is similar to Model D except it is intended to give extensive decision making authority to the schools including making judgments about the required entry qualification of candidates. According to the primary data the model was the least preferred one.

ITE Model E: No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made course on demand.

In countries such as Pakistan, India and Bangladesh certificate level teacher training courses are offered (Secretariat, 1993). Without a standard entry qualification requirement to ITT candidates from different educational backgrounds are likely to seek admission to the same programmes with training providers facing similar problems as Sri Lanka. It is understandable ITE providers could encounter pressures at the time of admission pertaining to the selection criteria because of the absence of a standard qualification requirement. In some ways the model is similar to the United Kingdom's Licensed Teacher Scheme (Furlong et al, 2000; Blake & Landsdell, 2000; Evans & Waring, 2006).).

Group IV

This group consists of three existing ITE models. ITE Model F is a Three-Year B.Ed the two Colleges of Education in Bhutan have offered, Samtse since the early 1980s and Paro later in the 1990s. Both Colleges of Education have offered a One-Year PGCE (ITE Model H) for nineteen years in Samtse and two years in Paro respectively. However, the ITE Model G scheduled for introduction in 2007 has been introduced only in 2009.

ITE Model F: Current model: Three-Year B.Ed with one semester of teaching practice

ITE Model G: Four-Year B.Ed with one year of practice teaching

ITE Model H: Current model: Bachelors + One-Year PGCE with 45 days practice teaching

Most of the countries researched offer three-four year B.Ed to the senior secondary school graduates under the model 12+3, 12+4, including Australia (Beeson, 1987), China (Guo, 2005), These countries also offer Graduate Diploma and/or Certificate of

PGDE and PGCE via the 13+1 and/or 14+1 models (Secretariat, 1993). However, the one-year PGCE is criticized as being too academic and less of pedagogic orientation (Fidler, 1994; Leung, 2003; NIEs, 2005).

When the primary data and overall frequencies were combined, the ITE Model F received stronger support than all other models when considering the two scales of most preferred and preferred. However there was a split perspectives about the ITE Model F and ITE Model H based upon positions and age groups. While officers and lecturers seem to have similar preferences, principals appear to make a different choice. For example, the preferred model for officers and lecturers' was ITE G while principals' preferred option was ITE Model F. It appears awareness of changes and developments taking place at the CoE influenced these preferences. The three-year B.Ed has been in operation for about 25 years and many school principals are the graduates of this model and appear to be comfortable with the model. In comparison, the Four-Year B.Ed is a new development of the past two-three years and the principals are possibly are not aware (NIE, 2008). The responses by age are similar to that by positions with the younger age group and two older groups recording different perspectives about the models. In other words, principals and younger age group tend to show similar preferences to the models. This may be reflective of the large number of principals being in the younger age range (See Chapter Six, Table 6.3 (b)). No age or positions groups had ITE Model H as their first preference. Teaching Practice Models

In the researched ITT settings two models were identified. Bhutan's Colleges of Education offer a three-year B.Ed (now four year) to the high school graduates. Teaching Practice model is approximately a semester in duration and is scheduled in the second year of the training (COE, 2007). The other is an Australian model. For example, the University of New England's model is different with the teaching practice

progressively spread over the four year training programme ranging from one week to ten weeks. A student teacher is required to practice teach for 110 days, or approximately 22 weeks. The choice of the Bhutan model may have been made because of managerial and financial necessity (NIEs, 2003). The UNE's model has been designed for a gradual professional growth of student teachers (NUE, 2006f).

TP Model A is the one the Colleges of Education (CoE) in Bhutan are using whereas the University of New England uses Model B.

TP Model A: Practice teaching to be at a stretch of a semester to a year

TP Model B: Practice teaching to be progressive increased from a few weeks to a few months spread over different years of the training

The statistical data reveal participants preferred, by a small margin, TP Model A. It appears the model is generally accommodated within the existing TP models. But a different picture is evident when the data is analyzed by positions. While officers and lecturers preferred TP Model B, principals chose TP Model A. Model B calls for some change in the way TP is being operated, whereas Model A is status quo.

Other factors appear to influence the choice of a model namely financial status, and teacher shortages, (NIEs, 2005). At this juncture it is tempting to speculate possible reasons of these differences in opinions. For example, principals and younger age groups do not seem to be supportive of change or embracing new developments which is contrary to a perception older people not preferring changes. Principals appear to be aware of the direct effect the change will have on them which is, the student teachers while on TP for a semester are used to fill in teacher shortage in schools (NIEs, 2005). The new Model B moves away from this arrangement. It is possible frequent student visits for TP for a week or so schools could cause disturbances and the principals seem

to be aware of these inconveniences. And finally, it portrays a general lack of awareness of ITT development among the principals.

Paro and Samtse Colleges of Education send student teachers on TP during the third year for B.Ed and second semester for PGCE. A group of 2-6 students are sent to a school depending upon their subjects and convenience of schools. Lecturers undertake rounds of supervision in order to observe each student at least twice, while school principals and associate teachers work closely with the trainees on a regular basis (COE, 2007). The study received a number of comments to improve existing TP especially in areas of quality supervision and the frequency of visits from the college lecturers (See Chapter Six). It seems the frequency of monitoring by lecturers needs to be increased and the quality of supervision warrants improvement. A study on the effectiveness of the four phases of pre-service teacher training carried out in 2005 also had similar finding (NIEs, 2005).

Linking TP Model to the ITE Model C warrants a brief discussion. A proposal based on the finding is that TP Model whether the choice is A or B may be inbuilt to the 40/60 ITE Model C in that 40% time of two years may be committed for TP which converts to about eight months. An amalgamation of TP Model A and B would be 10%+10%+20% model with 10%+10% could be committed for first year and 20% in the second year of the training.

Section B

Quality Assurance Models

This section discusses Quality Assurance models. Essentially, a quality assurance mechanism operates at two levels: externally and internally. Within these a number of schemes and arrangements are possible (Jeliazkova & Westerheijden, 2004). External

and internal can be flexible with a sister institute and/or monitoring agency within or outside country constitute external agency in some of the HEIs. Colleges of the same universities and/or faculty members of the same college and school can be internal evaluation team members. Six QA Models (A-F) this study proposed and their choice do not necessarily restrict to one or two, in the sense a higher education institution employs one, two or all of these models.

QA Model A: Periodic external reviews of the whole institution

QA Model B: Periodic external reviews of specific discipline or subjects

QA Model C: Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region

QA Model D: Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to relevant office and sharing with stakeholders

QA Model E: Involvement of students in programs development, reviews, assessment and evaluation

QA Model F: Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services.

The study finding is, all the models are preferred with participants nominating higher scales with large percentages compared to the lower preference scales. However, the top three ranks QA Model F, D and C are more preferred although with a small margin. Higher Education Institutions worldwide are expected to perform three major roles of teaching, research and community services (Tari, 2006) within which quality assurance mechanisms are put in place. For example the AUQAA (Australian Universities Quality Assurance Agency) assures country wide quality in Australian universities (Skilbeck &

Connell, 2000) within the national qualification frameworks and agreed benchmarks. The Royal University of Bhutan'(RUB) strategic plan aims to promote research and scholarly activities of its college faculty members through provision of funds, training and support (RUB, 2007). Since its inception the RUB has coordinated research activities and provided funds to its member colleges to carry out researches. Qualitative data suggested the need for the two Colleges of Education and lecturers to engage in researches, particularly action research to improve quality.

QA Model D concerns regularly developing and sharing quality improvement plans with stakeholders. All age groups ranked this model in top three, and when position was considered officers and principals also ranked the model in top three. In the case of Australia, the Commonwealth Secretariat annually publishes performance indicators of students, staff, and research graduates of higher education institutions. Institutions also share annual plan for quality improvement (Harman, 2003). Through Teacher Education Board (TEB) Bhutanese Colleges of Education share their plans with the Ministry of Education either for improvement or with regards to introduction of new courses. This is in addition to regular consultative meetings held among the faculty members and management of two colleges with regards to course development (NIEs, 2008). In the Netherlands, at the centre is the Ministry of Education and Science, with the stakeholders known by umbrella bodies that include VSNU, HBO. While the higher education institutions ensure there is accountability and maximum self-regulation (Damme, 2004; Tari, 2006; OECD, 2008), the Ministry of Education and Science oversees that financial resource is not wasted (Jeliazkova & Westerheijden, 2004).

QA Model C, “Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region” is most favored by lecturers when analyzed by positions. Suggestions made identified the need for colleges to have closer ties with schools and teachers in the field.

A number of colleges of RUB and divisions of the Ministry of Education have been equated to sister institutions of COE. Among other, Curriculum and Professional Support Division (CAPSD) and Bhutan Board of Examinations (BBE) of MOE, and Sherubtse College, Natural Renewable Training Institute (NRTI), Centre for Educational Research and Development (CERD) of RUB have been listed. These member colleges of RUB and departments/divisions of MOE are stakeholders and therefore in essence may not be sister institutions.

Bhutan has two colleges that offer ITT programmes and hence they are the only sister institutions in the country. The two colleges work in partnership in order the details of courses offered are uniform (RUB, 2007), but not to the extent of reviewing each other's performance. Discussion here preempts one to make some recommendations. One, the two Colleges of Education develop mechanism to peer-review each other as desired by the study. Two, develop linkage with a sister institution in the region to peer-review both Colleges of Education in Bhutan. With the institution of peer-review between sister colleges within the country or in the region what naturally follow are making decision about the kind of mechanisms to be employed: visitation cycle, self-evaluation reports, and self-regulation records.

External review of the whole institution and external review of specific discipline or subjects (QA Models A and B) are common quality assurance mechanisms in the countries researched (OECD, 2008), some choose one and while other adopt both.

QA Model A: Periodic external reviews of the whole institution.

QA Model B: Periodic external reviews of specific discipline or subjects.

External visit is made either on an *ad hoc* basis or planned in consultation with the colleges. The visitation committees and external peers during the site visit evaluate self-

evaluation reports of the faculty, dimensions of quality such as productivity, quality output, relevance, long term viability. Visit lasts 3-5 working days and the arrangement has been found similar in Belgium (Damme, 2004); the Netherlands (Jeliazkova & Westerheijden, 2004); the United Kingdom (Brennan & Williams 2004); Lao PDR (Young, 2007). The visitation cycle differs from country to country, for example in Belgium VLIR visitation is a eight year cycle whereas the frequency of External Monitoring Evaluation Team for Lao PDR's Teacher Education Institutions is bi-annually (Young, 2007).

Although RUB does not explicitly mention QA, academic regulations, procedures and number of committees with terms of reference contained in the RUB's "Wheel of Academic Law" are geared up towards assuring quality. Since the establishment of RUB in 2003, an external team known as "validation panel" comprised of academics representing cross-sectional sectors who are expert in their disciplines have been visiting colleges to adopt existing programmes and to validate new programmes. In some countries, particularly, the US, it is called accreditation scheme (Bogue & Saunders 1992; Manyaga, 2008). Essentially, this external visitation appears to be an endorsement exercise or accreditation visits as in the case of the United States and to some extent the United Kingdom. However, the exercise is demanding and rigorous both for the visitors and the colleges visited. Programmes are required to be meticulously documented following validation checklist (RUB, 2006b). During the three-five working day visits documents are thoroughly reviewed, facilities (library, IT, classrooms, laboratories, etc) visited with students and staff interviewed.

Validation reports are presented as part of exit meeting in the presence of college management and faculty members concerned. Results usually follow one or all of these: fully adopted, adopted with conditions or not adopted and need re-documentation.

Conditional adoption and re-documentation are given deadlines to clarify questions, fulfill conditions and observations made during the site visit. In serious cases programmes are asked to be revalidated and in the United Kingdom the exercise is also known as re-accredited (Brennan & Williams, 2004). The only sanction the RUB's colleges have not yet faced for poorly documenting or functioning is the “yellow card” and “red card” as in the Netherlands and withdrawing of the public funding as in the United Kingdom. The RUB's validation visit seems to align with Belgium's Visitations for Programmes Quality Review in that it follows four phases of preparatory, site visits, publication of reports and follow up by institutions (See Chapter Two).

Colleges of Education are umbrella bodies of the RUB and their programmes similarly are being adopted and validated. In some sense QA Models A and B operate in the two colleges. Open comments suggest the importance of the participation of teachers from the field, curriculum officers, and MOE not only in the development of programmes but also in the regular reviews. In general there is a need for quality dialogue with the MOE as partnership in quality assurance of ITT and to this effect the possibility of EMSD (Education Monitoring and Support Division) of MOE has been suggested to be a monitoring agency of the two colleges. One is given an understanding the RUB's review of the whole institution and discipline specific is observed to be inadequate considering QA Models A and B although preferred but not ranked in the top three. Conversely, a plausible explanation is a number of participants are not aware of the validation procedures.

QA Model E is intended to assure quality by instituting internal review, assessment and evaluation mechanism involving students. In essence this model is an internal review driven. Although students are members of the Academic Board (at the University level)

and Institute Academic Committee (at the college level) their roles and voices appear to be negligible.

QA Model E: Involvement of students in programmes development, reviews, assessment and evaluation

Self-study and self-evaluation reports are tools for internal review in HEI and they form a strong basis for external review to take off. Whether external or internal quality reviews the target is “student learning” or students are the ultimate customer (Meirovich (2006; Eagle & Brennan, 2007). In teaching for example, in internal quality assurance model, the main actor is faculty members and involves self-study report, programme judgments, quality improvement and finally seen in teaching. The external team observes self-study on teaching at two points, one during site visit and the other when it is included in the visiting committee’s report, for example in the Netherlands (Jeliazkova and Westerheijden, 2004).

Guidelines on “critical self-appraisal of a programme”, “review of the programmes in operation” and “programme management” in the “Wheel of Academic Law” are expected to assure internal academic quality in RUB’s colleges (RUB, 2006b). The regulation details roles and accountability of a module coordinator, programme leader, programme committee, and student staff consultation processes to manage a programme within a college. The study found the programmes of the Colleges of Education need to be dynamic to meet the need of changing time. A programme in operation needs to be critically self-appraised and reviewed posing questions such as “when a programme’s set aims are achieved, who are the audience to be consulted”. These guidelines allow individual faculty and management to self-evaluate and consequently review internally. As part of self-reflection, guidelines suggests for the colleges to submit annual report to the Office of the Vice Chancellor of the teaching learning for which much of the data

are students' feedback collected via a standard questionnaire. It must take a high level of professional maturity to share such report because students critique lecturers' performance, may or may not be authentic, more often than not portraying a blurring distinction between personal and professional life.

The researcher was a faculty member in Paro College of Education in 2005-2007. Similar exercise was initiated by analyzing students' feedback and sharing in the subject department and submitting to the management for inclusion in the performance evaluation records. Peer observation of teaching among lecturers and provision of feedback was also initiated as a mechanism for quality improvement and also included as one of the indicators of performance. By some counts these reports are similar the evaluation reports of the OECD countries (OECD, 2008).

Section C

Quality status of Initial Teacher Education at the Colleges of Education

This section presents a brief discussion on the Quality Status of Pre-service Teacher Education at two Colleges of Education as observed by the study participants in six areas. For purpose of convenience the labels, Quality Status (QS) A-F are used.

Quality Status A: There is a serious problem with the quality of teachers from the Colleges of Education

Quality Status A concerns a general question. The finding of the study is that there is a mixed perspective. In general quantitative data suggest there is no serious problem with the quality of teacher graduates. However, more specific questions revealed notable differences for discussions. They are presented next.

Quality Status B: Teacher training programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge

Quality Status C: Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement

The three questions were related to the quality status of the training programmes. They are QS B, C and F. QS B concerned whether or not the programmes of ITT at COE are weak in subject and content knowledge. While 46.3% of responses disagreed the ITT does not seem to be weak, 35% did agree. Furthermore, comments (reported in Chapter Six) reveal concerns about a need to pay attention to the subject and content knowledge. These comments are substantiated by general public's criticism and earlier research on the subject (NIEs, 2005). As noted in Chapter Four, at least 52% of the training is focused on dealing with the "Subjects of Specialization" (NIEs, 2003) and thus there appears to be sufficient content components.

The discussion here preempts some speculations. The participants, particularly lecturers noted the programmes of ITT at CoE are not weak in content and subject knowledge. One may argue there is a gap between inclusion and existence in the course syllabus and the actual transfer of contents to the trainee teachers. Alternatively, one may also like to critique the school situation in the way the teacher graduates are challenged to use and exhibit their content knowledge.

One may approach the QS C with a word of caution because there was an overwhelming 75.9% agreement the two colleges need to further enhance pedagogy components of teacher education. The ITT course handbook lists a number of modules for professional development (NIEs, 2003) and furthermore student teachers are also given rigorous orientation to teaching skills and strategies during the entire training period (COE,

2007). Professional institutions are expected to be better in the pedagogical components, yet comments suggest the need for further improvement. There appears to be a gap between expectation and practice because aims and course details seem to be comprehensive (NIEs, 2003).

Quality Status F: An entire revision of Teaching Practice system would help improve quality of Teacher Education

Although it was not nominated in top three, QS F was rated by 59.6% on the agreement scale. The question was an indirect with one the wording “would help improve”. The COE appear to take teaching practice components of ITT seriously. In 2007, the two colleges jointly revised and published a “Handbook for Teaching Skills and Teaching Practice” to streamline and ensure consistence in contents and practice (COE, 2007). This is the phase of ITT in which the stakeholder, MOE and schools in particular are involved.

Recall ITT Model referring to TP Model which was discussed earlier in this chapter and Chapter Six. Officers and lecturers reported they like to change and have a revision of TP system at the COE. But principals with a small margin opted for status quo.

QS D and E relate to lecturers. QS D is an indirect question meant to gather information on the importance of qualification of lecturers to improve quality of teacher graduates. The overwhelming majority (80.8%) agreed with the statement. This is understandable because of the perceived nexus between the qualifications of lecturers and the quality of teacher graduates. In light of this one is tempted to make an assumption: either the colleges do have qualified lecturers (as the study suggests) and they help improve quality of teacher graduates, or, there is a need to improve the qualifications of lecturers and hence increase their competency.

Quality Status D: Qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher graduates

Table 7.1 below shows lecturers' qualification of the two colleges in 2006 and 2008. It is apparent a significant number of lecturers possess undergraduate (BA/BSc/Dip.Ed) degrees. Lecturers with an undergraduate degree were almost 27% in 2006 and 26% in 2008 of the faculty working in the colleges. A concern in both colleges is the absence of faculty with doctoral degrees. The colleges and RUB face a major challenge of achieving RUB's policy to have 10% of Bhutanese staff with PhD doctorate by 2011 and 50% by 2020 (RUB, 2007).

Table 7.1 Qualification status of lecturers at COE in 2006 & 2008

College	Year	M.Ed	MA	BA/BSc	B.Ed	Dip.Ed	MSc	PGCE	Total
Paro	2006	12	12	5	1	1	5	5	41
Samtse	2006	8	6	5	9		6	3	37
Total		20	18	10	10	1	11	8	78
Paro	2008	15	14	5	1	1	6	10	52
Samtse	2008	9	8	12	6		6	3	44
Total		24	22	17	7	1	12	13	96

K. Sherab, 2008, pers. Comm., 23 May

There is debate about the appropriateness of degrees of lecturers in a professional teacher training college. MA/MSc and BA/BSc are believed to have better academic subject and content knowledge compared to M.Ed/B.Ed. On the other hand, M.Ed/B.Ed are said to be appropriate qualifications in a teacher education colleges when it comes to pedagogies (Leung, 2003; NIEs, 2005). This draws QA E into discussion. Analyzing by positions, lecturers themselves rated the statement at the top of top three while officers and principals nominated in the top three. Close to 46% of the lecturers have M.Ed, B.Ed and PGCE degrees indicating they had at least a year long methodology training encompassing methods and strategies. In addition, other lecturers with MA/MSc are required to have additional teaching qualification of B.Ed or PGCE to qualify to teach in a teacher training college.

Lecturers joining the two colleges seem to have diverse background. While most are Bhutanese, some are from India, and other foreign countries. Among Bhutanese lecturers many join after pursuing higher education in monastic order namely Sang Chokhor in Paro and Tango in Thimphu where postgraduate equivalent education in Buddhist and language studies are offered (Wangchuk, 2003). They also undergo one-year PGCE in Dzongkha to induct them as full-fledged lecturers to teach Dzongkha.

Quality Status E: There is a need to improve teaching methods and strategies of lecturers

The assumption is, QS E should not receive strong support. Finding of this study suggests whether or not postgraduate degrees of M.Ed, which are available in overseas universities, are sufficiently focused on teaching methods and strategies. Most of the lecturers having M.Ed degrees graduated from one of the colleges either with B.Ed or PGCE after a year or three years of formal teacher training. Thus, there is a need to investigate B.Ed programmes in-depth to ensure the content in regards to methods and strategies is sufficient. Similarly, the quality of in-service programmes with a special focus on the methods and strategies warrants further investigation. The finding here is consistent with earlier studies carried out where the student teachers did not agree on the teaching methodology used and role-modeled by NIE lecturers (NIEs, 2005).

Section D

Factors affecting the quality of ITT at COE

Dorji (2005) maintains, “Quality of education is a product of competence of teachers, quality of curriculum, efficiency of management and adequacy of physical facilities” (p. 87). In a similar vein the following discussion of the factors affecting the quality of ITT

is presented in four main themes or clusters with proposed quality factors (QF) A-K grouped into one of the clusters as shown here. Cluster I: Management (QF A, F), Cluster II: Programmes (QF C, D, E, K), Cluster III: Lecturers (QF G, I) and Cluster IV: Facilities (QF B, H, J).

In general terms the study found factors listed below were agreed but agreement was not by an overwhelming majority while the percentage of participants disagreeing was not negligible. The following discussion is ensued in clusters of age and positions with comments made about the quality factors.

Cluster I: Management (QF A, F). Two factors QF A and F relate to management. Considering the quantitative data and ranking top three factors, all age groups and positions are of the opinions that there is no lack of support and motivation from the management of the two colleges and this was not a serious factor affecting the quality. CoE management consists of a Director who is the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) in the college who mostly performs administrative tasks and is assisted by Dean of Academic Affairs and Dean of Student Affairs who have specific responsibilities. Furthermore, management and faculty of two colleges often meet to discuss managerial and academic matters and deans, heads of departments and lecturers are given flexibilities for decision making. The empowerment of employees in the COE management approach appears prominent, that is common in TQM (Algozzine et al, 2005; Meirovich, 2006; Ngware et al, 2006). Management of programme is consistent with the RUB's regulations (RUB, 2006b). Two Colleges of Education have been supported by a four year Swiss project, "Support to Teacher Education Program" (STEP) since 2004. Curriculum revision and development, human resource development, lecturers' capacity development and IT and library enhancement were activities of the project (NIEs, 2005). Management not only endeavored to motivate and

support lecturers but provided opportunities for professional development to the majority of the faculty (NIEs, 2005).

Quality Factor A: Inadequate support and motivation from the management

Quality Factor F: Academically poor students at the entry

QF F is related to management because admission of appropriate candidates is understandably the responsibility of the management. Officers and the older age group are of the view academically poor students is a major factor affecting the quality of teacher education. About 60% of the lecturers thought QF F was a concern although it was not in their top three ranking. As detailed in Chapter Four, admission of high school graduates to colleges is strictly based on academic results merit ranking (RUB, 2006a). Top achievers enroll in professional courses such as MBBS, Engineering, Architect, Pharmacy, and Nursing in Bhutan and abroad under scholarships. Second cohort of high achievers seem to opt for colleges in the country which offer academic degree courses namely Sherubtse College, College of Science and Technology. The third group of candidates who can afford to do so seek admission in private colleges in India and elsewhere. Normally it is the next group of students which enroll in teaching. It is apparent the top academic achievers do not join teaching (NIEs, 2005). Not the best candidates enroll in teaching as a career and those who do subsequently, leave the profession. This high turnover rate is a global phenomenon, for example Malaysia (Lee, 2002), the UK (Sands & Bishop, 1994; McPhee, Forde & Skelton, 2003).

A number of policy initiatives endeavoured to increase teachers' salaries, lengthen the teacher education programmes, raise admission requirements, and improve career structures, there remains a high rate of turnover in the teaching profession. There is acknowledgement, "a teacher's job is very complex and demanding" (Lee, 2002, p. 80).

There is credence to the assessment of officers and lecturers that teaching attracts “academically poor students at the entry” (see Chapter Six, Table 6.10 (d)) and this subsequently affects the quality of teacher training. University and colleges management need to serious critical reflection upon current practices of entry. Plausibly, policy change including raising the position of teachers with a marked difference is necessary to attract better academic achievers into teaching.

The next cluster of factors concerns *Programmes* (QF C, D, E, K). While QF C, D and E are direct factors QF K was an indirect one seeking general view of the course quality. All three quality factors C, D and E are associated with too many modules to study in a semester. In most of the universities researched, undergraduate students study up to five modules a semester. B.Ed programmes of Bhutanese COE are structured wherein a student teacher has to take as many as eight modules a semester (NIEs, 2003). In addition student teachers are expected to participate in non-academic activities namely, clubs, cultural activities, games and sports and they are assessed as part of the training. There seems to be sufficient reasons for trainees to suffer learning fatigue, and to lack the opportunity for in-depth study of teaching pedagogy.

Quality Factor C: Overcrowded non-academic programmes for the trainees

Quality Factor D: Trainees having to study too many modules every semester

Quality Factor E: Overburden workload for trainees leaving no time for independent study and self reflection

Quality Factor K: General decline in the course quality

The RUB requires all member colleges to follow five modules per semester and credits valued model. CoE have redesigned their existing three-year B.Ed courses into four-year

B.Ed to fit into RUB's five modules per semester structure and at the same time to ease over-crowdedness of curriculum. Recent revision of primary curriculum (NIEs, 2008) and teaching practice and teaching skills (COE, 2007) are aligned to these new developments as member colleges of RUB. Thus, a finding of this study is overcrowded curricular and non-curricular activities adversely affect the quality of teacher training.

According to the study, officers are of the view there is a general decline in the course quality (QF K) while lecturers and principals relatively do not seem to be worried about it. The study also points out there is a dire need for ITT programmes to be more dynamic to address quality issue.

The factors related to **Lecturers** are discussed in **Cluster III**. Both age groups and positions do not overwhelmingly agree (referring to QF G) lecturers in the colleges lack dedication and motivation and it could not be a serious factor affecting the quality of teacher education. However, 30.7% of mid-age group, 30% of lecturers and 47% of officers agreed with the proposed factor, though these figures are not in the top three ranking. Of the participating lecturers, 9 (30%) indicate skepticism about the motivation and dedication of lecturers which is interesting. What is difficult to say is whether these individuals are being self-reflective or critical of their colleagues. A recent research, “an inquiry into teaching as a profession in Bhutan” revealed the lecturers were generally satisfied about their profession at the colleges (CERD, 2007). If satisfaction, motivation and dedication have any link QF G is consistent, and is less strongly supported as far as the quantitative data is concerned. Qualitative data however indicate rooms for improvement for lecturers in terms of being firm in assessment and discipline, realizing excellence in professionalism, and specializing in specific subject areas.

Quality Factor G: Lack of dedication and motivation of the lecturer

Quality Factor I: Overburden workload for the lecturers

With regards to QF I, although not in the top three, 76% of the lecturers are of the view they have overburdened workload. Owing to the number of specialized and professional subjects colleges offer, lecturers are required to teach five to six different modules in a semester. In addition they are also expected to organize and coordinate non-academic activities in the colleges (NIEs, 2003). A significant number of lecturers also assist in managerial and administrative tasks which appear to further overburden them. The nature of teaching learning appear to be dominated by summative evaluation and examinations (NIEs, 2005) and lecturers more often than not are overburdened with assessment burden.

Lecturers overwhelmingly believe factors related to facilities (**Cluster IV: Facilities**) are the core influence upon teacher education quality while principals to some extent also express such belief. Officers, to a lesser degree see adequate physical facilities as important enabling conditions to maintain and ensure quality teacher education. The COE, when initially established in the 1960s and 1970s planned to accommodate less than 100 students at a given time (Dorji, 2003). Over the years both the institutions have grown in terms of number of students and programmes.

Quality Factor B: Inadequate physical facilities

Quality Factor H: Inadequate basic resources at the Colleges

Quality Factor J: Class size too large

The development of physical facilities both in quality and quantity on the other hand does not seem to have established or maintain parity with other changes. As noted in Chapter Four, students at two COE constitute about one-third of the total student

strength of RUB. A classroom designed for 25 students have to accommodate up to 50 students, hostels are overcrowded, water scarcity is a perpetual problem, and shortage of stationery is related to budgetary constraint. Colleges are also challenged by having to maintain parity with the rest of the world; hence IT facilities and digitalizing of teaching learning are in need of development. In the recent years, colleges have received increased attention from the government. Massive building constructions are ongoing in both the campuses for classrooms, to house IT and related facilities, library, games and sports, entertainment activities, lectures, meetings and seminars. However, it appears there are still more to be procured to provide quality facilities for teacher education at COE. Inadequate facilities which contributed to making finding teaching challenging and demanding are not constrained to Bhutan only. For example in the United Kingdom (Sands & Bishop, 1994) and in Malaysia (Lee, 2002). Leveson (2004) identified limitation in critical resource related factors namely class size, workload, student characteristics and formal support mechanism which adversely affected teaching in higher education.

Section E

Concept and Definitions of Quality in Education

Since quality has multi-dimensional aspects an understanding of them is imperative to authenticate the perception of quality status of education. The purpose of asking respondents their views and opinions about the concept and definitions of quality was to gauge their understanding and clarity of the phenomenon. Alternatively, if the participants portray a blurred picture of concept and definition of quality of education, then the general public may have even lesser clarity about the issue in question.

Quality Concept A: Quality in education is to do with specification and standard of a product

Quality Concept B: Quality in education is associated with the satisfaction of the needs of stakeholders

Quality Concept C: Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes

Quality Concept D: Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes

Quality concept E: Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change

The study found the proposed dimensions and aspects of quality (Quality Concept, QC A-E) received strong support from the quantitative data. Although quality has business orientation as its roots it is relevant to higher education in light of education becoming increasingly perceived as a business industry (Frazer, 1994; Lim, 2001). As delineated in Chapter Six, QC D has been the most popular when all age groups and positions were considered, particularly all participating officers of the study agreed with the concept. There is a demand for effectiveness of services being expected of education providers by the society at large. Literature also suggest definition and concept of quality equating to effectiveness and excellence in services and performance (Garvin, 1987; Melia, 1994; Harvey, 2009). Bhutanese officers and older age group, who are mostly bureaucrats, prefer education quality related to effective services and outcomes.

Further analysis and discussion by age and positions reveal slightly differed opinions about the quality concepts. Lecturers and mid age group agree the concept ‘quality’

promotes internal improvement and accommodates change. This is consistent with Cheng and Tam's Organizational learning model of the multi-models of quality in education. The concept the model promotes is, "Adaptation to environmental changes and internal barriers. ... Continuous improvement" (Cheng & Tam, 1997, p. 24). The two Colleges of Education CoE? have experienced sustained changes over a relatively short period of time. It is barely four years since they have been transferred from the Ministry of Education to the Royal University of Bhutan RUB?. Lecturers also have seen changes in the college management with regular curriculum revision and changes. It appears the lecturers find advantages in changes taking place.

Principals and younger age group overwhelmingly agreed with the QC C. Frazer (1997) maintains quality embraces three broad aspects: goals-process-achievements model. These three aspects can refer to the whole institution, or a part of the institution. The concept is similar to Dill (1995) who proposes input-throughput-output model of quality. While Dill's concept seems to be aligned to industrial product Frazer's concept appears to be consonant with education. Principals of Bhutan's schools are charged with responsibilities of developing strategic planning for their schools encompassing vision, mission, goals, and strategies. They are responsible to ensure the institutional goals and purposes are achieved (CERD, 2008).

Some of the significant findings in this study related to concept of quality education emerged from qualitative data wherein comments made have been about "value". Value and quality education discussed in literature (Beamon & Ware, 1998; Frazer, 1994; Garvin, 1987; Lim, 2001) is chiefly related to prices and costs and how the educational services received commensurate the value of money paid. But Bhutanese Officers, Lecturers and Principals appear to relate to human values, wholesome development, and meaningful in life. In recent years, the RGOb and Ministry of Education have been

mindful of youths not adhering to the traditional and cultural values. To address this challenge, values education has been introduced as one of the key learning areas in schools since the mid 1990s (Dorji, 2003; NIEs, 2003). It seems Bhutanese education stakeholders are of the opinion, quality of education equates to quality life because it tames human mind and prepares children for life.

The study could not establish with confidence any argument as to whether or not the participants have a blurred picture of the concept and definition of quality of education.

Summary

This chapter presented discussion of data in relation to the main research questions that encompassed five aspects of quality in education. Each aspect had a number of questions.

In general all Models of ITT proposed were preferred with differences of opinions by age and positions. The existing model of Three-Year B.Ed, Four Year B.Ed and the proposed Double Degree with 40/60 models were popular. ITT Models prevalence in the United Kingdom, Asia, and Australia were compared. As far as Teaching Practice models are concerned Principals preferred the existing model of a semester long, whereas Lecturers and Officers preferred a change; with progressive approach of spreading over different years of the training period.

Quality assurance models proposed were all generally preferred. QA model related to institution of award for teaching, research and community services was preferred most. The preference is also differed by positions. The QA Models of the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Belgium, Loa PDR, and Australia were referred to adopt or to propose for Bhutanese CoE.

Quality status and quality factors of the colleges were discussed. In general no serious problem with the quality of teacher graduates, however opinions differed by age and positions. Status related to qualifications of lecturers, pedagogy components, methods and strategies are observed to be needing attention. Quality factors proposed were supported but not with an overwhelming majority. Age and positions differed their opinions about the factors. Resources related factors were dominant. Less interested and academically poor entrants were identified as a major factor affecting quality of teacher education. Many countries, example Malaysia, the United Kingdom, seem to suffer from the same phenomenon.

Quality concepts and definitions proposed were all supported with overwhelming majority of participants. It was found, quality concept in education has roots in business. A major difference between the literature and the primary source concerned the meaning of value. While literary meaning confined to costs and prices, the Bhutanese Officers, Lecturers and Principals related value to human value and meaningful life. They seem to say education must address human value, traditions and culture.

Chapter Eight

CONCLUSION and PROPOSITION of ITT MODELS

The issue of poor quality education drew attention not only of the policy makers and general public but also the highest legislative forum in Bhutan. The study investigated the quality scenario at the source, the Colleges of Teacher Education with the belief quality education equates to quality teachers, and quality teachers necessitate provision of quality initial teacher training. The main research questions were:

- What are the Concepts and Definitions of Quality of Education?
- What is the Quality Status of Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?
- What are the Factors that affect the Quality of Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?
- What is a preferred Pre-service Teacher Education Model for Bhutan?
- What is a preferred Quality Assurance Model for Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan?

Employing the QUAN-QUAL model of mixed methods with survey questionnaire and interviews as the data collection instruments, information gathered was concurrently analyzed. The study also discussed the quantitative and qualitative data and attempts were made to link them with the available literature to make meanings and draw conclusions.

This last chapter has two main sections. Section one provides the conclusions based on the findings of the study. The main purpose of the study was identification of a Pre-

Service Teacher Education Model or models that should assure quality teacher training in Bhutan. Section two proposes models informed and supported by the data with highlight of policy implications where appropriate.

Section One

Conclusions

The study encompassed five domains of quality education with a number of questions in each of them. Details of findings and discussions were presented in Chapters Six and Seven. On the basis of those findings following conclusions may be drawn.

1. Concepts and definitions of quality of education

Some five questions relating to concepts and definitions of quality education were asked to gauge whether or not education officers, school principals, and college lecturers had clear understanding about them. This included quality concept related to specification and standard of a product, satisfaction of stakeholders' needs, achievement of institutional goals and purposes, effectiveness in services and outcomes, and continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change. The study concludes as follows:

1.1 Bhutanese Education and University Officers, Teacher Education College Lecturers and School Principals are of the view the concept of quality education is multi-dimensional as evidenced by their agreement to the proposed concepts.

1.2 Officers and Teacher Educators and middle age group thought quality education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation of change.

1.3 Principals and the younger age group were aligned toward the quality education concept which has strong links to achievement of institutional goals and purposes.

1.4 The older age group and MOE's Directors, Joint Directors, Sections Officers, and Heads of Teacher Education Colleges, District Education Officers and Assistant DEOs equated the definition and concept of quality education to effectiveness in the provision of services as evidenced in outcomes.

1.5 It appeared officers, lecturers and principals agreed the quality concept is anchored on input-throughput-output and input-process-achievement models of quality,

1.6 Participants believed education in essence must nurture human value, and quality life.

2. Quality Status of Pre-Service Teacher Education at the Colleges of Education

As the two CoE train teachers, expectations are they should have high quality status. This section intended to find out the quality scenario in terms of academic and content of the programme, pedagogical components of the training, importance of the qualification of lecturers, effectiveness of methods and strategies of lecturers, effectiveness of teaching practice and general quality of teacher graduates. These are the conclusions drawn.

2.1 The study found there was divided opinion about the quality of teacher graduates of the CoE. While lecturers and principals did not appear worried about the quality of teacher graduates, officers by a small margin expressed concern.

2.2 There was overwhelming agreement the qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher education indicating a need to constantly enhance academic and professional qualifications of the lecturers of the colleges

2.3 It was reported there is a need to enhance pedagogical components of teacher training and the need for lecturers to improve their methods and teaching skills.

2.4. Perspectives were also divided about the teacher training programme being weak in subject and content. Lecturers were less inclined to perceive it as a problem, but officers were not in full agreement. According to quantitative data it was not overwhelmingly supported rather there were substantiated open comments advocating a need to enhance content knowledge of the teacher graduates. Thus, it drew a divided opinion.

2.5 It was reported there was a need for the programmes to be made more relevant and current, shorten the perceived gap between academic theory and classroom practice, synergize college theory and school situation, improve the quality of trainees, and maximize professional role modeling.

3. Factors Affecting the Quality of Pre-Service Teacher Education

This section intended to investigate the factors affecting the quality of teacher education at the colleges. Opinions sought included support and motivation from the management, adequacy of physical facilities and basic resources, over crowdedness of curriculum, workload of lecturers and trainees, academically poor students at the entry, dedication and motivation of lecturers, size of the class and general quality of the course. This aspect of quality drew these conclusions.

3.1 The participants in general who did not overwhelmingly support the proposed factors were clustered under management, programmes, educators, and facilities, thus indicating these were not identified as major problems in the colleges. Nor did they completely disagree. However, lecturers showed more concerns relating factors to quality of teacher education.

3.2 A majority of lecturers and to some extent principals thought factors related to inadequate resources including physical facilities, basic resources and large classrooms to be of concern.

3.3 Officers and to some extent lecturers were of the view overcrowded curriculum and admission of academically poor students were the major factors affecting the quality of teacher education at the colleges.

3.4 Principals and lecturers thought too many modules of study per semester impacted upon the quality of teacher training.

3.5. According to a large majority of officers, general decline in the course quality is a dominant factor.

3.6 A small number of lecturers appeared critical of the motivations and dedication of college lecturers and this they thought negatively affect the quality of training.

3.7 Other quality factors nominated were; enabling environment and dynamic leadership, up to date training programmes, firm and just approach to assessing assignments and examinations, quality of trainees, a balanced between pedagogy and content, excellence in professionalism, continued quality dialogue with stakeholders, and recognition of the teaching profession.

4. Preference of Pre-Service Teacher Education Model in Bhutan

A number of Pre-service Teacher Education Modules were listed for the participants to express their preference. Four of the models were two-year B.Ed degrees with first degree requirement at the entry with a slight variation in the time allotted for professional preparation and professional practice; one was a free choice without any qualification requirement, three were existing models of three-year B.Ed, four-year B.Ed, and PGCE and two models concerned teaching practice. One of the TP models was status quo and the other required a change. Following are the conclusions the study drew in this section.

4.1 All age groups, officers, lecturers and principals although not by an overwhelming majority, generally preferred two of the proposed Pre-Service B.Ed Models, 40/60 and 50/50 models which require bachelor degrees at the entry. The other models, 60/40 and school based training, with the same requirement were less preferred. Qualitative data provided substantiated reasons for preference saying the models stated above would address the criticism about teacher graduates being weak in content knowledge, and would also raise the morale of teachers.

4.2 Of the five new proposed models, “No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses on demand” was the least preferred by a large majority.

4.3 The young age group and principals preferred the status quo as indicated by their preference for existing Three-Year B.Ed and a semester long teaching practice. Conversely, older age groups, officers and lecturers preferred to embrace changes consistent with their agreement that the quality concept in education related to internal improvement and accommodate changes. Their preference was more on the Four-Year B.Ed and progression model of TP.

4.4 Data suggested the responsibility of teacher education should remain largely with the higher education institutions namely the COE and RUB as evidenced by the choice of 40/60 and 50/50 models, and less preferring 60/40 and school based training models. This is reflective of school system and local education authorities not confident in mentoring and providing training to their own teachers.

4.5 Another pertinent conclusion is the need to improve teaching practices in terms of quality of supervision, and institution of licensing for teachers.

5. Quality Assurance Models for Pre-Service Teacher Education

The issue and institution of quality assurance procedure has not only become popular but are a requirement in most higher education institutions worldwide. This section proposed possible models for the participants to share their views and preference. They were (1) the periodic external review of whole institution, (2) periodic external review of specific disciplines, (3) peer-review between sister institutions from in-country or from the region, (4) close collaboration with the stakeholders by sharing improvement plan, (5) involvement of students in the reviews and assessment, and (6) giving award for excellence in teaching, research and community services. Conclusions are drawn as follows.

5.1 A large majority of the respondents preferred the proposed six quality assurance models and this is indicative of the importance of multi-models to assure quality in a higher education institution.

5.2 It seems the two COE need to develop a mechanism for “Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services” as desired by the principals and younger age group. Qualitative data supported the model as an important tool for colleges to becoming knowledge creation HE institutions.

5.3 Older age group and officers reported external reviews of specific disciplines or subjects can assure quality. This is reflective of the importance of site visitation which encompasses reviewing internal self-study reports, benchmarks and qualification frameworks.

5.4 College lecturers appeared to be aware of internal and external quality reviews as they reported developing linkages with sister institutions within the country as well as in the region for the purpose of peer-review, which they identified as a worthwhile model

to assure quality. They had an understanding of its advantages and scope to encompass external, internal, whole institutions, specific discipline, and review tools.

5.5 It appeared the importance of partnership and collaboration with the stakeholders, especially schools and Ministry of Education within Bhutan is increasingly recognized. It was reported there is a need to institute a national monitoring agency to review the two COE, in relation to quality of programmes, trainees and educators, specific disciplines, and infrastructures.

5.6 It was reported the adoption of a reward and sanction model for quality assurance was timely. This is indicative of withdrawal of public funding as practiced in some of the European countries (For example the Netherlands, the United Kingdom).

In summary the study makes these conclusions.

- (i) The Bhutanese teacher education stakeholders did not seem to be guided their actions by any education philosophy,
- (ii) There was a reported connection between the training curriculum at the COEs and the quality of education in the country, generally,
- (iii) Education stakeholders and lecturers at the COEs appeared to be torn apart in the process of bridging between the largely western philosophy and theoretical knowledge and contextualizing to the Bhutanese situations and souls.

Section Two

Proposition of Pre-Service Teacher Education Model (s)

This section proposes Pre-Service Teacher Education Model (s) that provides the best option for quality education in Bhutan. Policy recommendations are made where applicable to make the proposed model functional and sustainable. Proposal of the Pre-Service Teacher Education Model is determined by the following assumptions based on the literature review and findings of this study.

Assumption 1: B.Ed programmes with current high school graduate entrants produce teacher graduates with weak subject content knowledge, and contributes to reports of graduates being incompetent to teach secondary subjects in particular.

Assumption 2: One-Year PGCE or PGDE graduates have insufficient pedagogical orientations and are not able to perform well in methods and teaching skills.

Assumption 3: Two-Year PGCE in operation in the United Kingdom are either part time, conversion, or school based,

Assumption 4: One-Year B.Ed offered to first degree holders is similar to one-year PGCE/PGDE.

Assumption 5: One-Year M.Ed is offered to B.Ed and PGCE/PGDE graduates, but mostly in-service teachers access this programme.

Assumption 6: Change is inevitable to bring improvement and to address the perceived issue of poor quality of education.

Assumption 7: The general trend in Bhutan is for school graduates to strive to complete their first degree within academic disciplines.

Assumption 8: Sufficient numbers of high school graduates are projected to seek teacher training opportunities.

Assumption 9: Policy implications are expected which will reflect the concerns of stakeholders.

Brief description of the models

The study proposes three ITT models Model C, Model A and Model B and each one is briefly described below.

Model C: Four-Year B.Ed, **12+4 model** (Refer Chapter Six, item 32; Chapter Seven, ITE Model G)

Although there was divided opinion about Three-Year B.Ed and Four-Year B.Ed between principals, lecturers and officers, the two colleges are developing the Four-Year B.Ed to align with the RUB's semester and modular structure. Since Three-Year B.Ed is an existing model and the Four-Year B.Ed is being developed discussion of these models is not considered.

Model A: Two-Year Post Graduate B.Ed, 16+2: 40/60 model (Refer Chapter Six, item 28; Chapter Seven ITE Model C).

Model A is a consecutive two years PG B.Ed programme with course contents progressing from first year to second year. Bachelors' degrees usually take up to four years of study. Therefore when a student spends four years to complete an undergraduate degree after grade XII from a high school he/she should have spent 16 years of study. As discussed in Chapter Seven an adjustment in the name is proposed, "Two-Year PG B.Ed" instead of "Double degree: All graduate entry: Bachelors + 2year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)". This is one of the proposed models the participants of the study preferred. In essence the graduates earn one more professional degree, B.Ed, in addition to first academic degree. This model addresses *Assumption 1*: Professional B.Ed degree graduates are weak in subject content, *Assumption 2*: One-Year PGDE graduates do not have sufficient grounding in pedagogy.

Model B: Two-Year MAT (Master of Art in Teaching), 16+2: 40/60 model

Model B is similar to Model A, with the difference being the nomenclature and level of the degree; it is Master instead of PG B.Ed. As discussed in Chapter Seven, and based on the available models, presented in Chapter three, Master (MAT) is proposed as a preferred nomenclature for the degree. Since the candidates of the proposed model already have bachelor's degree the next higher level is masters, but with a focus on teaching and education. The degree is proposed to be largely professional because the candidates are expected to already have a strong grounding in the subject and content knowledge. Hence the course may be structured as proposed in Table 8.1. Structurally, the proposed model is to be used for teachers of primary and as well as secondary students, with differences in course details. Two alternatives are proposed for using the model.

Alternative A: Alternative A is proposed to address Assumptions 1, 2, 7 and 8. The proposal is graduates of the Model C, Four-Year B.Ed (12+4 model) teach in the primary schools (PP-Grade VI) only. Hence, the COE may consider revisiting training structure and curriculum in the next cycle of revision. On the other hand the Models A or B (16+2 models) will prepare graduates to teach in secondary schools.

Alternative B: Alternative B attempts to address Assumptions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7. It proposes the Two-Year MAT, 40/60 Model (Model B) will prepare graduates to teach both primary (PP-Grade VI) and secondary schools (Grades VII-XII). The division of candidates into the two different levels would be made at the time of admission. Similar models are available elsewhere, Pakistan and India in the form M.Ed (Secretariat, 1993) and as MAT, Master of Art in Teaching in the US (Scannell, n.d.). The MAT in the US is a *Five-Year Integrated Programs*, an extension of a year after *Four-Year Baccalaureate Programs* in teaching (see Chapter Three, the American Experiences).

Proposed course structure for Models A and Model B

Table 8.1 below proposes a course structure that can be used for Models A and B respectively.

Table 8.1 Course structure for Two-Year MAT and Two-Year PG B.Ed models

Training base	Time (%)	Focus areas	Specialization	Modules %
Colleges of Education	60% (16 months) Equal to 12 modules	Professional Preparation	1) Education and professional studies	5 (25%)
			2) Pedagogy/ teaching methodology studies	5 (25%)
			3) Educational research methods	2 (10%)
Schools	40% (8 months) Equal to 8 modules	Professional Practice	1) Teaching Practice	4 (20%)
			2) School situational analysis,	2 (10%)
			3) Orientation/ critique teaching subjects,	2 (20%)
Total	100% (24 months) 20 modules			20 modules, 5 per semester

Implications

As explained elsewhere and further presented through the assumptions in this section, the main purpose for proposing new ITT model (s) is to address the perceived poor quality of education both in “content and methodology”. The proposed Pre-Service Teacher Education Model is a major shift in the teacher training approaches. For the proposed model to be successfully implemented, a number of factors and conditions will need to be addressed. Some foreseeable major implications are briefly presented.

Curriculum

A significant amount of works in curriculum restructuring and development is foreseen. The two Colleges of Education have sufficient experiences in teacher education having offered B.Ed for nearly three decades, PGCE for over 18 years and M.Ed in leadership and management for in-service education officers and secondary schools principals for over 5 years, and in running other in-service professional training workshops for

teachers and lecturers. Curriculum development would require, firstly, a review of the B.Ed, PGCE and M.Ed. Secondly, assess and adopt relevant elements from one-year B.Ed and one-year M.Ed offered elsewhere. And thirdly, to ensure compliance with the RUB's modular master degree course frameworks. However, the focus of the proposed model is on professional and education studies. The objective is having lecturers teach the academic component of the programme which has been a concern at the colleges.

Enrolment

Proposed models A and B are broad ones. Candidates enrolling into the training need to be offered options to choose their subjects of specializations. Candidates for English medium subjects are expected to come from colleges within the country and from elsewhere. As far as students for Dzongkha medium programmes are concerned the proposed model will bank on the monastic higher education institutions, largely from within the country, as discussed in Chapter Four.

Human Resources

Another implication concerns human resources. This involves having the teaching faculty in particular to manage the courses of proposed model. A large number of existing faculties have MAs and M.Eds qualifications with teaching profession background. Ideally, the majority of the faculty needs to have PhD degrees in order to teach masters level courses. On the other hand, with realization of RUB's HRD policy of having 10% of faculty with PhD by 2011 and 50% by 2020 (RUB, 2007) the scenario is expected to be far brighter.

Policies

In reference to *Assumption 9*, a major policy implication is assigning teaching position to the graduates of the proposed model. Given the importance of the teaching profession, it is important to ensure graduates with a double bachelor degree or a master degree are placed in appropriate position within the Position Classification System of the Royal Civil Service Commission (RCSC, 2008).

Since the proposed model is a major shift from the existing pre-service teacher training, system adjustments to be made in the education system are inevitable. With the graduation of cohorts of teachers with Master or PG B.Ed joining schools as general teachers, senior principals who may have lower professional and academic qualifications will need to adjust to the new atmosphere. A number of in-service training programmes planned for teachers with undergraduate and postgraduate degrees may need re-orientation, while human resource development plans of the government; Ministry of Education and Royal University of Bhutan in particular, warrant revision.

Quality Assurance: A Model

A mechanism needs to be put in place to assure quality of the proposed model. Quality assurance can take place at various stages. The course will be *accredited* by the RUB's programmes of study following a detailed checklist of *validation* process. With this process *benchmark statements* and *qualification framework* for the programme would have been addressed. Upon programme implementation, quality assurance is possible through *Internal QA procedure* and *External QA procedure*. The proposed QA Model is an amalgamation of the Dutch (Jeliazkova & Westerheijden, 2004), Lao PDR (Young, 2007), Australia (Harman, 2003; Skilbeck & Connell, 2000), Belgium (Damme, 2004) and RUB QA (RUB, 2006b) models. Following are possible options briefly highlighted.

Main players of the QA process

The proposed Pre-Service Teacher Education models and the QA model is a small part of the bigger college or university organization, that is, Colleges of Education and the Royal University of Bhutan. The learner is considered to be the main focus of any educational programme and by the same token the candidates enrolled for the proposed Pre-Service Teacher Education Model must be at the centre from where all other players, resources and procedures should be concentrated. In the same vein the institution of QA mechanism needs to be uncompromising to ensure each student receives the best training.

Internal Team of the QA

In the QA system the layers of players fall under internal and external teams of quality assurance. The two inner players are in the Colleges of Education, they are internal members. The first group of inner players will be represented by among other, Module Tutor (s), Programme Leader, and Head of Department as they will function on a more regular basis and are closer to the learners. The second group of players should constitute Chair of Institute Academic Committee, Chair of Programme Board of Examiners, College Management, and college as a whole. These two groups will carry out three main functions of teaching, programme management (full compliance of WAL's G6), and preparing annual programme monitoring documents (full compliance of WAL's G2). The RUB's Wheel of Academic Law, Section G6 details out responsibilities of a module coordinator, programme leader, programme committee. Similarly, RUB's WAL G2 specifies aims and purpose of annual report, contents of report, curriculum and kind of teaching and assessment approaches employed, treatment

of the previous report, schedule of report submission, and the requirement of external hard evidences to accompany the report (RUB, 2008).

External Team of the QA

The third and fourth groups of players may be designated to *semi-external* and *external teams* respectively. The Royal University of Bhutan, Ministry of Education and sister College of Education are considered semi-external review teams because they are part of the programme development and regularly work with the colleges. The fourth group will be designated to the external review team for which members will represent sister institution (s) in the region of international standing. For example, National Institute of Education, Singapore; School of Education, University of New England, Australia; the Royal Education Council and other professional bodies of the country.

Colleges are expected to submit their annual programme monitoring report, to the OVC which in many ways is a self-evaluation of the performance of the departments at the college level. This has a potential through the Academic Director to inform Programme Quality Committee (WAL B82, RUB, 2006b) and the University's Academic Board (WAL, B8) of the management and delivery of the programme at the college.

External Reviews and its Cycle

The model sufficiently addresses internal QA exercises and what is desirable is five-year cycle external review by either or both semi-external and external review teams. Literature revealed too frequent visits make colleges suffer from “review fatigue”. A full scale site visit of the college encompassing both whole institution and discipline specific is desired in the model. In addition to WAL G2 and G6 complete compliance to the WAL G4 is of paramount importance to make strong basis for external review team to take off their task. WAL G4, “Critical Self-Appraisal of a Programme” similar to G2

requires in nutshell to assess the success and life of a programme in operation, such as achievement of its aims and purpose, attainment of maturity and experience of staff, judgment on the quality and effectiveness of teaching methods, evaluation of value and currency, and status of external recognition. The empirical evidences the appraisal must accompany include enrolment records, examinations results, graduates tracer study with employment and retention rates, external examiners' reports, consultant reports (if any). This institutional academic auditing must take at-least five working days. The students must be the main reference point of the site visit from whom other areas of investigation must radiate. As desired by the study a major portion of assessment of the quality of programme and effectiveness of faculty besides teaching should be research and community services.

Recommendations

The study makes a set of recommendations in three main areas: implementation of proposed ITT models, further research and existing ITE.

Recommendations relating to implementation of proposed models

- a) Although a futuristic one, the study recommends that the RUB and COE make choice of the ITT Model A: (Two-Year Post Graduate B.Ed, 16+2: 40/60 model) and ITT Model B: (Two-Year MAT (Master of Art in Teaching), 16+2: 40/60 model) proposed by this study and a thorough evaluation carried out. This will go a long way in addressing the subject content knowledge and pedagogical skills of teachers. The model is expected to become a virtual teacher training model for Bhutan.
- b) The study also recommends that the stakeholders, namely Royal University of Bhutan, Colleges of Education, member colleges of the RUB, Royal Civil

Service Commission and Ministry of Education, coordinate and develop a sustainable partnership, work towards addressing the implications foreseen by the study in implementing the proposed ITT models. With the implications, especially the position of the proposed ITT graduates looked into, the teaching profession is likely to become an attractive career.

Recommendations relating to further research

Although the study made attempts to address quality issues as comprehensive as possible, the researcher realized there are still many more areas to be researched. Hence, following are the possible areas recommended for further research.

- a) The study could not delve into finding views and opinions of the teacher trainees of the Colleges of Education as the primary source of data. A study involving teacher trainees as the focus of quality issues would be worth exploring.
- b) More often than not parents of children and general public appear to critique the quality of education in the country. This study confined its participants of study to principals and education officials. Research may be carried out seeking views of the parents and general public about the aspects of quality of education in the future.
- c) The current study employed interview and questionnaire as its main research tools. To be able to gauge quality of education and its aspects in a real situation observation has potential to collect authentic data. Research using observation as a tool to compare quality theory and quality practice would be considered worth.

Recommendations relating to existing teacher education

The COE currently have two pre-service teacher education models, Three-Year B.Ed and One-Year PGDE. With the Four-Year B.Ed under consideration two B.Ed models will run in parallel. Based on the literature on ITT and the findings of the study following recommendations are made for considerations.

- a) Although there does not appear to be a water tight compartment difference between pre-service and initial, the COE may consider using one for harnessing better focus,
- b) Colleges and Universities elsewhere seem to be consistent in the use of “Education” “Training” and “Teaching”. The COE may consider revisiting the names of the degrees offered, Bachelor of Teaching or Bachelor of Education. The choice of name has potential in providing focus in the programs the colleges offer and impact on the type of graduates: teachers or educationists.
- c) The study found the resources constraints as a major factor affecting the quality of teacher education in COE and thus recommends making attempts to address them.
- d) The study found that there is a need for COE to institute an award of excellence focusing on teaching, research and community services. This was highly desired by the participants of the study.

A FINAL REFLECTION

A Buddhist parable, “People blame change of time for seeing bad behaviors of humankind; but it is said, human themselves behave badly and blame change of time”.

Another parable states, “with changes beautiful culture and traditions are no more valued; a perfect person’s manner among the thugs is seen ill-mannered”.

One cannot with certainty say whether the time or people caused the perceived poor quality of education to be so. It is also not certain at whom the people direct the blame. This study addressed quality education issues not in a superficial manner by scratching at the surface of quality status and quality factors at the Colleges of Education but went further to investigate if the decision makers and managers of education are clear about the concept and definitions of quality education.

The researcher is reminded of the project title, “A Model for Quality Pre-Service Teacher Education in Bhutan” this necessitated spending 12 hours a day, seven days a week and for nearly three years. The academic journey extremely rewarding with learning and experiences gained throughout the process. The study has been able to put forth a proposition of a Pre-Service Teacher Education Model, based upon an empirical rationale to ensure provision of quality education by the Colleges of Education. Like every citizen elsewhere, quality education is the dream of every Bhutanese, and it has high potential to be an indicator of “Gross National Happiness”. When many nations have attained happiness, chances of achieving Gross International Happiness are high.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Ethics approval from HREC, the University of New England



Ethics Office, Research Services
Armidale, NSW, *2351 Australia
Telephone (02) 6773 3449 Facsimile (02) 6773 3543

The University of
NEW ENGLAND

email: Ethics@metz.une.edu.au
http://rs-nt-10/Home/V_2_1/ethics.htm

Dear Dr D Riley, A/Prof L Goedegbuure and Singye Namgyel

HREC has given approval for the following.

A Model for Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan

Your HREC approval number is: HE06/101 valid from 21st June 2006 to 21st June 2008

The Human Research Ethics Committee may grant approval for up to a maximum of three years. For approval periods greater than 12 months, researchers are required to submit an application for renewal at each twelve-month period. All researchers are required to submit a Final Report at the completion of their project. The Renewal/Final Report Form is available at the following web address: http://rs-nt-10.une.edu.au/Home/V_2_1/ecforms.html

The NHMRC National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans requires that researchers must report immediately to the Human Research Ethics Committee anything that might affect ethical acceptance of the protocol. This includes adverse reactions of participants, proposed changes in the protocol, and any other unforeseen events that might affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project.

In issuing this approval number, it is required that all data and consent forms are stored in a secure location for a minimum period of five years.

These documents may be required for compliance audit processes during that time. If the location at which data and documentation are retained is changed within that five year period, the Research Ethics Officer should be advised of the new location.

Best Wishes,

Belinda Ackling
Acting Research Ethics Officer Researcher Services University of New England
Armidale NSW 2351 Ph: 02 6773 3449 Fax:02 6773 3543 Email:
Ethics@une.cdu.au

Appendix B: Survey questionnaire



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School of Professional Development and Leadership
Armidale, NSW 2351 Australia
Telephone (02) 677 2581 Facsimile (02)

Telephone Int'l +61 2 63373 2581 Facsimile +61 26773 3363

To _____

Subject: Questionnaire survey

Dear

I am pursuing Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) at the University of New England in Armidale, New South Wales, Australia. The topic is "**A Model for Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan**".

To achieve quality education for all students it is important that Colleges of Education offer and maintain quality programmes at the pre-service training. The study intends to research different teacher education models and quality assurance mechanisms and recommend model(s) of quality pre-service teacher education relevant to Bhutan.

I would like to invite you to kindly complete the enclosed questionnaire. The questionnaire has six sections, A-F. You are asked to either fill in the boxes or rate scales. Please read instructions provided at the beginning of each section before you respond the questionnaire. After each of the section B-F a space is provided for you to share additional written comments. Your views will help improve the quality of the research. You are also free to discontinue at any time if you feel uncomfortable answering them. Please be assured that your identity will not be revealed in any form.

Only the research and his supervisors will access the data collected. At a later stage, if necessary, the Office of the Vice Chancellor, Royal University of Bhutan and the Head Office of the Ministry of Education may also have access to the results although the raw data will remain confidential. The collected data will be stored in filing cabinet under lock and key. Pseudo names or alternative identity to each participant will be provided and entered into the computer program for analyzing. The questionnaires will be packed, kept under lock and key in the office of Singye Namgyel, Principal of the Academic Affairs, College of Education, Paro.

For your kind information this project has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of New England vide Approval N0. HEO6/IOI and Valid to 21st June 2008. Furthermore, Honorable Secretary, Ministry of Education and Honorable Vice Chancellor, Royal University of Bhutan have accorded their permission to me to approach you and collect data.

Enclosed herewith is also an envelope with postage stamps (those who are far away from me) addressed to me at Paro College of Education of Education, Paro. I would

be grateful if you could send it as soon as possible so that the questionnaire reaches me by December 10, 2006.

Yours sincerely,



(Singye Namgyel)

Ph.D Candidate

School of Professional Development and Leadership

Faculty of Education, Health and Professional Studies

University of New England

Armidale, NSW 2351 Australia

Telephone : At UNE Office: 02 6773 2826, Flat: 02 6773 5991 At PCE, Paro Office : 08 271-487, Home: 08 271-270 Email: snamgyel@une.edu.au, [singye_amgyel\(a\).nieparo.edu.bt](mailto:singye_amgyel(a).nieparo.edu.bt)

Should there be any complaint you may also contact: Research Services University of New England Armidale, NSW 2351, Australia

Telephone : (02) 6773 3449, Facsimile (02) 6773 3543 Email : [Ethics\(a\).pobox.une.edu.au](mailto:Ethics(a).pobox.une.edu.au)

Thank you for your participation in the study

A Model for Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan

Questionnaire

Booklet No._____

Date : _____

This questionnaire has six sections, A, B, C, D, E and F. Please read the directions provided against each item carefully before your respond.

Section A: Biographical Information

Please provide your biographical information by answering the following items.

1. Please indicate your gender by ticking relevant box.

- a. Male.....
- b. Female.....

2. Where does your age fall in these ranges? Tick the box

- a. 25 years and below.....
- b. 26-35 year
- c. 36-45 years.....
- d. 46 years and above.....

3. Please tick the relevant box to indicate your position.

- a. Head of educational institution/department/division.....
- b. Head of any other institutions/organizations.....
- c. District Education Officers.....
- d. Lecturers/Teachers.....
- e. Principals/Headteachers.....
- f. Any other (specify).....

Section B: Concepts of the quality of Education

Rate (1-5) how strongly do you agree or disagree with the various concepts and definitions of quality of education. Please rate only one scale against each item by circling the number in the box.

	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
4.	Quality in education is to do with specification and standard of a product	1	2	3	4	5	7
5.	Quality in education is associated with the satisfaction of the needs of stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	7
6.	Quality in education has strong link to achieving institutional goals and purposes	1	2	3	4	5	7
7.	Quality in education can be equated to effectiveness in the provision of services and seen in outcomes	1	2	3	4	5	7
8	Quality in education is related to continuous internal improvement and accommodation to change	1	2	3	4	5	7

You may share more about the concepts of quality in the spaces provided below (if any).

.....

.....

.....

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Section C: Quality of Pre-service Teacher Education at the College of Education:

It is believed that quality of pre-service teacher education equates with quality education. Hence, pre-service teacher training program at Colleges (both Samtse & Paro) may have bearing on the education quality. Share your observation on the quality of programmes at the Colleges by rating scale (1-5) against each item. Please rate only one scale against each item.

	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
9	There is a serious problem with the quality of teachers that College of Education produce	1	2	3	4	5	7
10	Teacher training programme is weak in the subject and content knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	7
11	Pedagogy components of teacher education program need further enhancement	1	2	3	4	5	7
12	Qualifications of lecturers would help improve the quality of teacher graduates	1	2	3	4	5	7
13	There is a need to improve teaching methods and strategies of lecturers	1	2	3	4	5	7
14	An entire revision of Teaching Practice system would help improve quality of Teacher Education	1	2	3	4	5	7

You may share more about the quality of teacher training program at the Colleges in the space below.

Section D: Factors affecting quality of teacher education at Colleges

Express your degree of agreement to various factors that may be affecting the quality of Pre-service teacher training at the Colleges. Please rate only one scale against each item.

	Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Don't know
15	Inadequate support and motivation from the management	1	2	3	4	5	7
16	Inadequate physical facilities	1	2	3	4	5	7
17	Over crowded non-academic programmes for the trainees	1	2	3	4	5	7
18	Trainees having to study too many modules every semester	1	2	3	4	5	7
19	Overburden workload for trainees leaving no time for independent study and self reflection	1	2	3	4	5	7
20	Academically poor students at the entry	1	2	3	4	5	7
21	Lack of dedication and motivation of the lecturer	1	2	3	4	5	7
22	Inadequate basic resources at the Colleges	1	2	3	4	5	7
23	Overburden workload for the lecturers	1	2	3	4	5	7
24.	Class size too large	1	2	3	4	5	7
25.	General decline in the course quality	1	2	3	4	5	7

Please mention any other factor that you think would affect the quality of teacher training program at the Colleges.

Section E: Preferred Pre-service Teacher Education Model

A list of models is proposed for possible introduction at the Colleges of Education in the near future. Rate your preference against each of the modules. Please rate only one scale against each mode.

	Models	Least preferred model	Somewhat preferred model	Neutral	Preferred model	Most preferred model	Don't know
26	Double degree. All graduate entry: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 50/50 (50% time school based and 50% time institute based)	1	2	3	4	5	7
27	Double degree. All graduate entry: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 60/40 (60% time school based and 40% time institute based)	1	2	3	4	5	7
28	Double degree. All graduate entry level: Bachelors +2 year B.Ed with 40/60 (40% time school based and 60% time institute based)	1	2	3	4	5	7
29	All graduate entry: Schools based teacher training. Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made courses based on demand	1	2	3	4	5	7
30	No standard entry qualification: Schools decide duration and award. Colleges of Education offer tailor made course on demand	1	2	3	4	5	7
31	Current model; Three-Year B.Ed with one semester of teaching practice	1	2	3	4	5	7
32	Four-Year B.Ed with one year of practice teaching	1	2	3	4	5	7
33	Current model: Bachelors +one-year PGCE with 45 days practice teaching	1	2	3	4	5	7
34	Practice teaching to be at a stretch of a semester on a year	1	2	3	4	5	7
35	Practice teaching to be progressive with few weeks to few months spread over different years of the training	1	2	3	4	5	7

You may suggest any other models for pre-service teacher training that would ensure quality.

.....

Section F: Pre-service Teacher Education Quality Assurance Models.

Some models or mechanisms for assuring quality of teacher education are listed. Rate your preference to indicate those models that you think will improve quality of teacher education. Please rate only one scale against each item/model

	Models	Least preferred model	Somewhat preferred model	Neutral	Preferred model	Most preferred model	Don't know
36	Periodic external reviews of the whole institution,	1	2	3	4	5	7
37	Periodic external reviews of specific discipline or subjects,	1	2	3	4	5	7
38	Peer review between sister institutes within the country and as well as in the region	1	2	3	4	5	7
39	Development of regular quality improvement plan, submitting to relevant office and sharing with stakeholders,	1	2	3	4	5	7
40	Involvement of students in programs development, reviews, assessment and evaluation	1	2	3	4	5	7
41	Institution of excellence award focusing on teaching, research and community services	1	2	3	4	5	7

Share any other mechanism that might help improve quality of pre-service teacher education.

.....

Thank you for your time and response!!

Appendix C: Semi-structured Interview guide

A Model for Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan

A Semi-structured Interview Schedule

Interview No _____ Alternative identity_____

Date of interviews_____ Time of interviews:_____

Do you mind if I tape our conversation?

Section A: Biographical Information

1. Gender:

a. Male_____ b. Female_____

2. Age range. Please tick the age range that you belong.

a. 25 years and below

b. 26-35 years

c. 36-45 years

d. 46 years and above

3. Please tick the relevant space to indicate to which group you belong.

a. Manager/Director of educational institution/ department/ division

b. Director/Manager of any other institutions/organizations

c. District Education Officer

d. Lecturers/Teachers

e. Principals/Headteachers

Section B: Concepts of the quality of education

It is possible that quality of education may be described from different perspectives. Could you share your understanding of the quality of education?

Section C: Quality of Teacher Education at the National Institutes of Education (NIEs).

It is said that quality teachers ensure quality education. If this is correct, it makes sense to review the quality of pre-service teacher education at the NIEs. What is your observation on this?

Section D: Factors affecting the quality of teacher education at NIEs

Please share factors you think might be responsible for affecting the quality of pre-service teacher education.

Section E: Preferred Pre-service Teacher Education Model

What pre-service teacher education model do you think is a preferred model for Bhutan? Example, in terms of entry level, duration, content/pedagogy time division, etc.

(Clues: BA/BSc+ 2 year B.Ed, B.Ed, 50/50 content/method, institute/practicum,

Section F: Models and mechanisms for assuring quality of teacher education

Please share what you think of that might assure quality in pre-service teacher education at the NIEs.

Appendix D: Consent of Participation for interviews



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NEW ENGLAND

Consent of Participation

Research title: A model for quality pre-service teacher education in Bhutan

Researcher: Singye Namgyel, PhD Student

Approval Number: HE06/101 valid from 21st June 2006 to 21st June 2008

I (participant) have read all the information contained in the Information Sheet for Participants and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in the research activity, realizing that I may withdraw at any time. I agree that research data gathered for the study may be published, provided my name is not used.

Participant

Date.

I agree/do not agree to have my interview audio taped and the transcribed data used for the purpose of this research.

Participant

Date.

Appendix E: Information for questionnaire participants

School of Professional Development and Leadership



Axmidale, NSW 2351 Australia

Telephone (02) 6773 2581 Facsimile (02) 6773 3363

Telephone Int'l +61 2 6773 2581 Facsimile 61 2 6773 3363

The University of
NEW ENGLAND

To

Date.....

.....

Sub: Information for questionnaire participants

Dear

I am pursuing Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the University of New England in Armidale, New South Wales, Australia. The topic is "*A Model for Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan*".

To achieve quality education for all students it is important that National Institutes of Education offer and maintain quality programmes at the pre-service training. The study intends to research different teacher education models and quality assurance mechanisms and recommend model (s) of quality pre-service teacher education relevant to Bhutan.

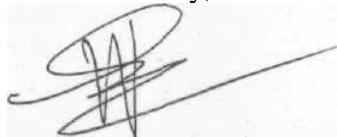
I would like to invite you to kindly complete the enclosed questionnaire. The questionnaire has six sections, A-F. You are asked to either fill in the boxes or rate scales. Please read instructions provided at the beginning of each section before you complete the questionnaire. After each of the sections B-F a space is provided for you to share additional written comments. Your views will help improve the quality of the research. You are also free to discontinue at any time if you feel uncomfortable answering them. Please be assured that your identity will not be revealed in any form.

Only the researcher and his supervisors will access the data collected. At a later stage, if necessary, the Office of the Vice Chancellor, Royal University of Bhutan and the Head Office of the Ministry of Education may also have access to the results although the raw data will remain confidential. The collected data will be stored in a filing cabinet under lock and key. Pseudo names or alternative identity to each participant will be provided and entered into the computer program for analyzing. The questionnaires and interviews will be packed, kept under lock and key in the office of Singye Namgyel, Principal of the Academic Affairs, National Institute of Education, Paro.

For your kind information this project has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of New England vide Approval No. HE06/101 and Valid to 21st June 2008.

Enclosed herewith is also an envelope with postage stamps addressed to me at National Institute of Education Paro. I would be grateful if you could send it by December 10, 2006.

Yours sincerely,



Singye Namgyel

(PhD Candidate)

School of Professional Development and Leadership
Faculty of Education, Health and Professional Studies
University of New England,
Armidale, NSW 2351 Australia

Telephone: At UNE Office: 02 6773 2826, Flat: 02 6773 5991

At NIE, Paro: Office: 08 271-487, Home: 08 271-270

Email: [snamgyel\(q\)imc.cdu.au](mailto:snamgyel(q)imc.cdu.au), singye_namgyel@nieparo.edu.bt

Should there be any complaint you may also contact: Research Services,
University of New England, Armidale, NSW 2351, Australia

Telephone: (02) 6773 3449, Facsimile (02) 6773 3543

Email: Ethics (ajpobox.une.edu.au)

Thank you for your participation in the study

Appendix F: Information for Interview participants



School of Professional Development and Leadership
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Telephone (02) 6773 2581 Facsimile (02) 6773 3363
Telephone Int'l+61 2 6773 2581 Facsimile+61 2 6773 3363

The University of
NEW ENGLAND

To _____

Date:.....

Sub: Information for interview participants

Dear _____

I am pursuing Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the University of New England in Armidale, Australia. The topic is "**A Model for Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan.**"

To achieve quality education for all students it is important that National Institutes of Education offer and maintain quality programmes at the pre-service training. The study intends to research different teacher education models and quality assurance mechanisms and recommend model (s) of quality pre-service teacher education relevant to Bhutan.

I would like to invite you to be one of the interviewees. Your views will help improve the quality of the research. You are also free to discontinue at any time if you feel uncomfortable at any stage of our conversation. Please be assured that your identity will not be revealed in any form. I would like to tape our conversation for which a consent form is provided for you to fill it for me indicating whether or not you agree the conversation to be taped.

Only the researcher and his supervisors will access the data collected. At a later stage, if necessary, the Office of the Vice Chancellor, Royal University of Bhutan and the Head Office of the Ministry of Education may also have access to the results although the raw data will remain confidential. Pseudo names or alternative identity to each participant will be provided and entered into the computer program for analyzing. The interview transcriptions and tapes will be packed, kept under lock and key in the office of Singye Namgyel, Principal of the Academic Affairs, National Institute of Education, Paro.

For your kind information this project has been approved by the Human

Research Ethics Committee of the University of New England vide Approval No.
HE06/101 and
Valid to 21st June 2006.

Enclosed herewith is also an envelope with postage stamps addressed to me at National Institute of Education Paro. I would be grateful if you could indicate your interest to be an interviewee before November 15, 2006 after which we would prepare schedule to meet any time between December 2006 and March 2007.

Yours sincerely,



Singye Namgyel
(PhD Candidate)

School of Professional Development and Leadership
Faculty of Education, Health and Professional Studies
University of New England,
Armidale, NSW 2351 Australia

Telephone: At UNE Office: 02 6773 2826, Flat: 02 6773 5991

At NIE, Paro: Office: 08 271-487, Home: 08 271-270

Email: snamgyel@uiie.edu.au, singye_namgyel@nieparo.edu.bt

Should there be any complaint you may also contact:

Research Services, University of New England, Armidale, NSW 2351, Australia
Telephone: (02) 6773 3449, Facsimile (02) 6773 3543 Email:
Ethics@pobox.une.edu.au

Thank you for your participation in the study

Appendix G: Approval letter from the Ministry of Education, Bhutan



ROYAL GOVERNMENT OF BHUTAN MINISTRY OF EDUCATION THIMPHU : BHUTAN P.O. BOX NO. 112

Ref.No.MOE/2006/509

25th August 2006

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Singye Namgyel, Principal, Academic Affairs, National Institute of Education, Paro is pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) Programme at the University of New England, Armidale, Australia. The title of his study is "**A Model for Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan**".

In the process of his research he will be administering questionnaires and interviews. He will also need to access records and documents relevant to his study. The Ministry of Education is happy to accord permission to collect data as necessary.

All officials concerned are requested to render all necessary assistance.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Dr. Pema Thinley".

(Dr. Pema Thinley)
SECRETARY

Appendix H: Approval letter from the Royal University of Bhutan



Royal University of Bhutan
Office of the Vice Chancellor
Semtokha, Thimphu
Bhutan
Post Box 708

Royal University of Bhutan

RUB/ADM/08/2006/

09 October 2006

To Whom It May Concern

Mr. Singye Namgyel, Principal (Academic Affairs), Paro College of Education is pursuing PhD studies at the School of Professional Development and Leadership, University of New England, Armidale, Australia. The title of his research is "A Model of Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan". In the process he will administer questionnaires and interview Directors, Principals, Lecturers and students in the colleges and also the officials of the Office of the Vice Chancellor. The study will also require him to access the college and institute records. All relevant officials of the Royal University of Bhutan approached by Mr. Singye Namgay for the same are requested to extend necessary information and support to facilitate successful completion of his study.

(Phintsho Choeden) Director Research

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Phintsho Choeden".

Telephone: Vice Chancellor:+975 2 351625 Facsimile+ 975 2 351710 Registrar +9752351649
Director, A & A, (Tele-fax)+ 975 2 315627 General: (PABX) +975 2 351626/ 351711

Appendix I: Application seeking permission from the Vice Chancellor, RUB



The University of
NEW ENGLAND

School of Professional Development and Leadership
Armidale, NSW 2351 Australia
Telephone (02) 6773 2581 Facsimile (02) 6773 3363
Telephone Int'l+61 2 6773 2581 Facsimile+61 2 6773 3363

Date: August 23, 2006

The Vice Chancellor
Royal University of Bhutan
Semtokha, Thimphu, Bhutan.

Sub: Seeking permission to collect data

Respected Sir,

I am pursuing Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the University of New England, Australia. The topic of my study is "**A Model for Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan**". The study requires administering questionnaire and interviewing Directors, Lecturers, Principals, and Students in the institutes and officials of the Vice Chancellor of the Royal University of Bhutan.

For your kind perusal these documents are attached: 1. Approval documents of the University of New England Human Research Ethics Committee, 2. Information Sheet for participants, 3. Consent form for taping interviews, 4. Questionnaire, and 5. Interview schedule.

I will be very grateful if you could kindly accord permission to meet the people concerned and collect data. Furthermore, I would also need to access to records and documents from relevant divisions and sections of your Honor's office and kind permission may be given to do the same.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Singye Namgyel'.

Singye Namgyel
(PhD Student)
School of Professional Development and Leadership
Faculty of Education, Health and Professional Studies
University of New England
Armidale, NSW 2351 Australia
Telephone: AtUNE: Office: 02 6773 2826, Flat: 02 6773 5991

AtNIE, Paro: Office: 08 271-487, Home: 08 271-270
Email: snamuryeifajune.edu.au, singye_namgyel@nieparo.edu.bt

Should there be any clarification you may also contact: Research Services University of New England, Armidale, NSW 2351, Australia Telephone: (02) 6773 3449, Facsimile (02) 6773 3543 Email: [Ethics\(a>pobox.une.edu.au](mailto:Ethics(a>pobox.une.edu.au)

Appendix J: Application seeking permission from the Ministry of Education, Bhutan



School of Professional Development and Leadership
Armidale, NSW 2351 Australia
Telephone (02) 6773 2581 Facsimile (02) 6773 3363
Telephone Int'l+61 2 6773 2581 Facsimile+61 2 6773 3363

Date: August 23, 2006

To
The Secretary
Ministry of Education
Thimphu, Bhutan

Sub: Seeking permission to collect data

Respected Sir,

I am pursuing Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the University of New England, Australia. The topic of my study is "**A Model for Quality Pre-service Teacher Education in Bhutan**". The study requires administering questionnaire and interviewing Directors, Joint Directors, Section heads, District Education Officers, Principals, Head teachers, Teachers in the Ministry of Education.

For your kind perusal these documents are attached: 1. Approval documents of the University of New England Human Research Ethics Committee, 2. Information Sheet for participants, 3. Consent form for taping interviews, 4. Questionnaire, 5. Interview schedule.

I will be very grateful if you could kindly accord permission to meet the relevant people and collect data. Furthermore, I would also need to access to records and documents from relevant divisions and sections of the Ministry and kind permission may be given to do the same.

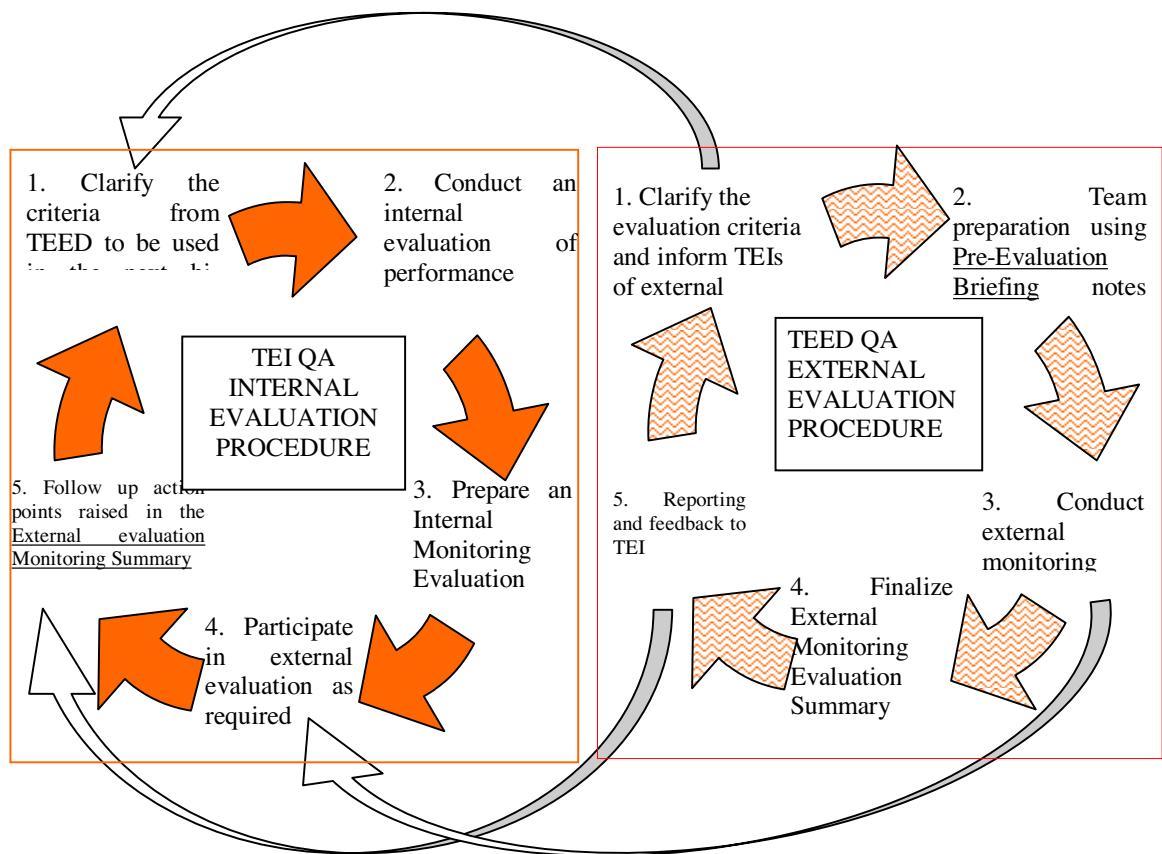
Yours sincerely,

Singye Namgyel (PhD Student)
School of Professional Development and Leadership
Faculty of Education, Health and Professional Studies
University of New England
Armidale, NSW 2351 Australia
Telephone: At UNE: Office: 02 6773 2826, Flat: 02 6773 5991

At NIE, Paro: Office: 08 271-487, Home: 08 271-270
Email: snamgvelfajune.edu.au, singye_namgyel@nieparo.edu.bt

Should there be any clarification you may also contact: Research Services University of New England, Armidale, NSW 2351, Australia Telephone: (02) 6773 3449, Facsimile (02) 6773 3543 Email: Ethics@pobox.une.edu.au

Appendix K: The Lao PDR Quality Assurance Model



Source: Adapted from Young (2007, p. 5)

Appendix L: The Australian National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching

Designing and managing student learning	
Career Dimensions	Professional Elements
<p>Graduates:</p> <p>Equipped to engage in and negotiate a process of on-going professional learning,</p> <p>Identify their development needs and seek advice and support from colleagues,</p> <p>Have high expectations of themselves as professional learners, and for the learning of their students,</p> <p>Their commitment to students and student learning is reflected in their desire to support students' achievement of the highest possible education outcomes,</p> <p>Have the commitments, enthusiasm and interpersonal skills to assume a professional role within their schools and its broader communities.</p>	<p>Professional Knowledge:</p> <p>Know and understand the fundamental ideas, principles and structure of the disciplines they teach,</p> <p>Know and understand the links to other content areas and are able to integrate learning across and between content areas,</p> <p>Effectively teach content, and understand the prompts and barriers to learning likely to be encountered by students,</p> <p>Have a detailed understanding of how young people learn and their role in facilitating the learning,</p> <p>Can articulate a range of philosophies of learning, critically evaluate range of learning theories and apply them where appropriate,</p> <p>Sensitive to diverse social, cultural, and learning needs.</p>
<p>Competence:</p> <p>Have demonstrated successful teaching experience,</p> <p>Effectively monitor, evaluate and plan for learning,</p> <p>Are able to tailor teaching programs to meet the needs of individuals and groups within the class,</p> <p>Have a record of effective and ongoing professional learning,</p> <p>Work collegially and in teams to further enhance their professional practice,</p> <p>Are effective members of a school and its broader community.</p>	<p>Professional Practice:</p> <p>Communicate effectively with their students and establish clear goals for learning,</p> <p>Possess a repertoire of inquiry techniques and teaching strategies, uses a range of tools, activities and resources,</p> <p>Select and organize content in logical and structured ways to meet learning goals,</p> <p>Create safe and supportive learning environments and are attentive to child's protection and welfare,</p> <p>Utilize a range of formative and summative assessment techniques, and provide timely and effective feedbacks,</p>
<p>Accomplishment:</p> <p>Highly accomplished and highly regarded by their peers,</p> <p>Are highly proficient and successful practitioners,</p> <p>Are regarded by other teachers as having in-depth subject knowledge and pedagogical expertise,</p>	<p>Professional Values:</p> <p>Committed to their own development and continually, evaluate and enhance their professional practice,</p> <p>Understand and adapt to changing contexts, work closely with parents and caters to acknowledge that the education of students is a shared enterprise,</p>

<p>Keep abreast of and contribute to professional learning of others, Are advocates for the profession and their schools, Communicate effectively to diverse audiences and interact professionally with the community.</p>	<p>Uphold high professional ethics with regard to their own conduct and that of others, and respect their students and value their diversity, Act professionally at all times in their dealing with their students, peers, members of the profession and members of the community.</p>
<p>Leadership: Are knowledgeable about the latest development in pedagogy and can apply those to unique student contexts, Have outstanding interpersonal and leadership skills, underpinned by principles of fairness, compassion, integrity and equity, Recognize the talents of others and encourage those people to achieve their potential, Apply critical analysis and problem solving skills to educational matters, Engage in ongoing professional learning and facilitate and support the professional learning needs of others, Communicate effectively with the community to support the development of the school and promote student learning.</p>	<p>Professional Values: Meet challenges by forming professional relationships at all levels of the community that represent diverse populations, Design and manage learning experiences for individuals and groups of students that value contexts, and actively engage other members of profession and wider school communities, Work proactively with colleagues and other professionals to enhance the learning of their students, and value the importance of links between home and school, home and community in the intellectual development of their students, Understand and foster the critical relationship and between them and students underpinned by trust, respect and confidence.</p>

Adopted from MCEETYA, 2003 pp. 8-11

Appendix M: General Structure of Monastic Education

Zhung Dratshang (Central Monastic Body)

It is considered the apex in terms of the structure as it may be equated to the central government of the secular system. Punakha (winter residence) and Thimphu (summer residence) are the seats of Zhung Dratshang. As of 2006 this body has some 1600 monks.

Rabdey (Dzongkhag Monastic Body)

Each of the 18 Dzongkhags has a Rabdey with a Lam (Priest). The number of monks range from 50 to close to 400. Size of the enrolment is dependent on the interest of the individuals and the age of the institutions in a particular Dzongkhag.

Dratshang/Rabdey Yenlag (Dzongkhag Monastic Branch)

These bodies are branches of the Dzongkhag Monastic Body. Few Dzongkhags headquarters which are not able to accommodate interested students have branches in the far flung villages.

Drubdey (Meditation Centres)

These centres are few in number and are located in isolated places because of the purpose of establishing these meditation centres. Drubdeys are either managed by Central or Dzongkhag Monastic Bodies. In 2006 the country has 31 such centres and some 422 individuals, who are usually adults or elderly, doing meditation of different levels and types (Government Statistics, 2006).

Lobdra (Schools)

These are institutions where young novices of either monks or lay children are enrolled where elementary learning of monastic order takes place. They are too young to be included in other institutions. Some of these schools are nested with the Rabdeys or Dratshangs. But they do get enrolled into Rabdey or Drubdey in due course of time.

Gomdey (Lay Clergy Body)

These are associations or groups of clergy who are usually located in the communities. The clergies are married and have families. Their daily learning activities can be different from monk order. In other words their main focus is the practical and ritual performance aspect of Buddhism. Rituals are vajrayana practices and can only be done after understanding the gist and essence of Buddhism. Nowadays, people learn the physical way of doing it but it is fair for one to doubt whether all of the practitioners touch the essence of the practices. This is an example of the divergence of Tibetan and Bhutanese Buddhism from its gist with time. It is rather difficult to find printed theories on how and why this divergence took place.

Services of the clergies of the Gomdey are vital as the communities need them to perform both for happy occasions or sorrow ones. Each Gomdey has a lam (priest). Although functionally Gomdeys and Drubdeys are same, explanation proposed here is the way these institutions are understood by general population.

Aney Dratshang (Nunneries)

These are Nunneries which in terms of level or type may be equivalent to any other institutions of monastic order. Because the learners and disciples are women these centres are known as nunneries. There are only three government nunneries in the country with 88 nuns. But there are a good number of private nunneries which are not registered with the government therefore are not provided support.

Shedra (College)

These are the institutions within the monastery where the study of Buddhist literature and philosophies are the primary curriculum. This orientation differentiates Shedra from other centers where chief activity concerns the physical way of conducting ritual and Vajarayana ceremonies.

Enrolment

The monastic bodies, institutions or centers are spread across the country and total enrolment in each varies. Table 4.6 below shows the number and types of monastic institutions and enrolment as per the record of salary/stipend disbursement.

Monastic Institutions and Enrolment as of 2006 (state funded)

Institution Types	Dratshang/ branch Rabdey	Shedra	Lobdra	Drubdey	Gomdey	Gomdey Lams	Nunneries	Total
Total	1+18	15	58	31	57		3	183
Enrolment	4892	887	1236	422	1593	169	88	9287

Source: Kinley, 2007, pers. Comm. 15 March 15)

However, the actual enrolment would be many more considering the number of private monastic institutions and young dependents who study in the government centres. The management of the monastic bodies manages the provision of meals and necessities of the young novices (who are called To-zey, they do not receive stipend but depend on other who receive scholarship from the government).

Financial support

All the monks, nuns, clergies of the government registered bodies receive financial support from the state in the form of stipends for students/learners and salary for the appointed positions. Monthly stipend for monks would range from Nu 300 to Nu 800 and the salary of priests from Nu 1500 to Nu 3000. The Finance Division of the Central Monastic Office in the capital city maintains the record of the expenditure for each Dzongkhag and monastic institutions.

Dratshang Lhentshog (Monastic Commission)

The highest policy making body is the Commission which was constituted in 1984. The Chief Abbot is the Chairperson of the Commission and has representatives from distinguished bodies including National Assembly. This Commission reviews policies and frames new ones to move the monastic wing of the country forward.

Appendix N: Curriculum structure of the Four-Year B.Ed and modules in each component

Professional Development Studies (EDN I)

1. EDN 1301: Teaching Skills I
2. EDN 1302: Understanding the Learner
3. EDN 1303: Teaching Skills 2
4. EDN 1304: Measurement & Evaluation
5. EDN 1305: Teaching strategy
6. EDN 2306: School Organization
7. EDN 2307: Learning process
8. EDN 3308: Bhutanese Education System
9. EDN 3309: Education for Development
10. EDN 3310: Curriculum Studies

Professional Development Studies (EDN II)

1. Agriculture and Social Forestry (Required study)
2. Value Education
3. Visual Communication (Required study)
4. CND 1603: Teacher as Social Animator (Required study)
5. CND 2604: Optional Modules (Note: CND: Community and National Development)

Personal Development Studies

1. Dzongkha for Communication (DFC) – 5 modules
DFC 1201; DFC 1202; DFC 2203; DFC3204; DFC 3205
- English for Communication (EFC) - 5 modules
 1. EFC 1001: Study Skills
 2. EFC 1002: Academic Writing
 3. EFC 2003: Use of language
 4. EFC 3004: Sound and Speech
 5. EFC 3005: Performance Skills
- Functional Information Technology (FIT) – 3 modules
 1. FIT 1101: Fundamentals of Computer & Microsoft Word
 2. FIT 1102: Functional Information technology: Excel & Power point.
 3. FIT2103: Local area network & Internet (NIEs, 2003).

Subjects of Specialization

The course modules in this area of study include the following:

- a. Mathematics (10 modules), b. Biology (10 modules)
- c. Chemistry (10 modules), d. Physics (10 modules)
- e. English (10 modules), f. History (10 modules)
- g. Geography (10 modules), h. Health and Physical Education (10 modules)
- i. Information Technology (10 modules), j. Primary Curriculum Studies (10 modules) (NIEs, 2003).

Modular approach

Modular approach consists of a set of learning opportunities, organized around a well-defined topic, which contains: Elements of instruction, Specific Objectives, Teaching-Learning Activities and Evaluation that uses criterion-referenced method (NIEs, 2003; COE, 2007)