CRITICAL EVALUATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION QUALITY AND THE IMPLICATIONS ON TEACHER QUALITY IN ZIMBABWE

BY

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DEDICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to evaluate teacher education quality and its implication on teacher quality in Zimbabwe. The researcher was spurred into investigating this area because of the misgivings of various stakeholders on the quality of today’s teacher in Zimbabwe. These teachers are said to be lacking the requisite knowledge, skills and attitudes required to effectively execute their duties. Teacher colleges are autonomous institutions and design their own curriculum, implement and assess their own students. Current teachers in Zimbabwe are blamed for low quality in the education system. This study was a qualitative study and the paradigm was interpretive. The multiple case study design was used to carry out this study. The participants in this study included student teachers, lecturers and graduates from the teachers colleges and mentors from schools. To select the sample the purposive sampling technique was used. To collect data interviews, focus group discussions, document analysis and open-ended questionnaires were used. Data were analysed using the grounded theory.

The major findings of this research were that there were variations in quality in teacher education institutions. The study found out that the ZINTEC model was used as a model for training primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. The teacher education curriculum was found to be overloaded and was impacting negatively on quality and quantity of delivery. The study found subjective assessment of teaching practice and poor mentoring as factors negatively impacting on the quality of teacher training. Prevalence of negative lecturer-student relationships was compromising the credibility of the teacher training programme and its assessment processes. The study find out that graduates were not well prepared to teach effectively in the primary school because they lack adequate content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. The study recommends the review of the whole teacher training system. There is need to standardise the teacher education curriculum and relook at the primary school curriculum to improve the quality of training. The teacher education conceptual framework should be re-defined and model of teacher training reviewed in the light of the findings of this study. Teacher education should be guided by a well-defined conceptual framework base of constructivist theory of learning. This study recommends the adoption of values, attitudes, skills and knowledge (VASK) model to improve quality of teacher preparation.
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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AACTE : American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education
CAB : College Academic Board
CAER : Council for the Accreditation of Education Preparation
CHE : Council for Higher Education
DH : Deputy Head
DLA : Daily Lesson Plan
DTE : Department of Teacher Education
EC : European Commission
ECD : Early Childhood Education
ENQA : European Association for Quality in Higher Education
ES : Environmental Science
ESU : European Standard Union
EUA : European University Association
EURASHE : European Association in Higher Education Institution
GPA : Grade Point Average
HEA : Higher Education Act
HEQC : Higher Education Quality Committee
HOD : Head of Department
ICT : Information Communication Technology
ISO : International Standard Organisation
KRAs : Key Result Areas
LIC : Lecture In-Charge
MDGs : Millennium Development Goals
MHTE : Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education
MUSTER : Multi-Site Teacher Education Research Project
NAAC : National Assessment and Accreditation Council
NASS : National and Strategic Studies
NBPTS : National Board for Professional Teaching Standards
NCHE : National Commission of Higher Education
NCLB : No Child Left Behind
NCTAF : National Commission on Teaching and Americas Future
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>NCTE</td>
<td>National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education</td>
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<td>NCTQ</td>
<td>National Commission for Teaching Quality</td>
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<td>NIE</td>
<td>National Institute of Education</td>
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<td>NRC</td>
<td>National Research Council</td>
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<td>NSBS</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
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<td>PES</td>
<td>Physical Education and Sport</td>
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<td>PLA</td>
<td>Peer Learning Activity</td>
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<td>PSA</td>
<td>Professional Studies Syllabus A</td>
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<td>PSB</td>
<td>Professional Studies Syllabus B</td>
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<td>Professional Studies Syllabus D</td>
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<td>QAA</td>
<td>Quality Assurance Agency</td>
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<td>RME</td>
<td>Religious and Moral Education</td>
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<td>RTPP</td>
<td>Race to the Top</td>
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<td>SAQMEC</td>
<td>Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality</td>
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<td>SAT</td>
<td>Scholastic Aptitude Test</td>
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<td>SGBS</td>
<td>Standards Generating Boards</td>
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<td>SM</td>
<td>Sports Master</td>
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<td>SWOT</td>
<td>Strength Weakness Opportunities and Threats</td>
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<td>TEC</td>
<td>Teacher Education Council</td>
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<td>TESSA</td>
<td>Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
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<td>TIC</td>
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<td>TPA</td>
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<td>TPP</td>
<td>Teacher Preparation Programme</td>
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<td>UK</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nation Children’s Education Fund</td>
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<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<td>VAMs</td>
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<td>ZIMCHE</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education</td>
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<td>ZINTEC</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course</td>
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<td>ZPD</td>
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Literature on teacher education asserts that “the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers, (Boaduo and Lawal, 2006, Barber and Mourshed 2007, Chong and Ho 2009). The quality of teacher education is one of the most important factors in the growth and learning of students (Cochran–Smith 2001, Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2006). According to Chong and Ho (2009) teacher education institutions need to continually provide evidence that their programmes and procedures are accountable and effective. Hence the demand for quality teachers cannot be met without high-quality teacher education programmes (Chang and Ho 2009). Teachers should be given the most appropriate tools during training, including content knowledge and skills to be able to do work professionally (Boaduo and Lawal 2006). This calls for a focus on quality of teacher education by governments and the teacher education institutions.

Ahmed and Abdul Aziz (2012) observed that teacher education in all countries of the world is at cross road. This is mainly because of the advent of the information communication technology, globalisation and the development of a knowledge society has created new demands for teacher education to satisfy. The focus on ensuring educational access to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) has resulted greater focus on quantitative expansion with little attention to quality (Ahmed and Abdul Aziz 2012).

The National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (1996:5) had this to say
“What teachers know and can do makes crucial difference in what teachers can accomplish. New courses, tests, curriculum reform can be important starting points but they are meaningless if teachers cannot use them productively. Policies can improve schools only if people in them are armed with the knowledge, skills and support they need”.

The emphasis is on the criticalness of the teacher in the whole education system. This put the teacher at the core of qualitative change in the whole education system. Without a quality teacher you cannot achieve political, social and economic transformation.

There is overwhelming evidence of the need to review teacher education worldwide in the context of quality. Surveys and research studies and academic papers have identified the need to focus on quality of teacher education and the need for a complete overhaul of the teacher education systems in most countries. Americans have targeted to develop a more knowledgeable, skilful and professional teaching force in the light of the development of a knowledge society (National Commission in Teaching and America’s Future (NCTAF 1999). Some states in America have enacted laws to improve teacher recruitment, certification and professional development (Darling- Hammond 2000). Reports from the Secretary of Education (USA) have called for the redefinition of teacher education in America in the light of complex demands of the knowledge society.

Quality of teacher education has been a central issue in Europe as well. The European Union Parliamentary report (2007) reports that teacher training systems currently operational in member states does not promote the acquisition of new teaching skills. In other words the commission realised the current teacher training system is
irrelevant and obsolete. The commission proposed new guidelines to revamp teacher education. These guidelines will ensure teachers have a full range of subject knowledge, attitudes and pedagogic skills to enable them to fully develop young people’s potential. Hence there has been a call to standardise teacher education in the European Union member states.

Literature on quality teacher education paints a bleak picture on quality of teacher education in the Middle East and Asia. Ahmed and Abdul Aziz (2012) found out that the quality of teacher education in Pakistan has been deteriorating in the last decade. They also found out that the teacher education system has been producing teachers with shallow understanding of both content and methodology. The same scenario is also reported by Chang and Ho (2009) in Singapore. They noted that in response to nation’s need for quality teachers, the National Institute of Education (NIE) Singapore reviewed and enhanced their teacher preparation programmes in 2005. Currently efforts are being made to develop a quality assurance framework.

In the past Century, teacher education in Sub-Saharan Africa has had weak teacher education and training programmes that underprepared teachers to effectively execute their duties (Darling-Hammond and Stykes 2003). The teacher education curriculum in most countries has evidence of colonial legacies. Moon (2007) advocates for urgent reforms of the teacher education curriculum. Programmes such as Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa (TESSA), Multi-site Teacher Education Project (MUST) have been launched to address challenges of producing high-quality teachers who can meet the demands of the new millennium. The main purposes of the teacher education
intervention programmes are to improve access and raise the quality of teacher education.

UNICEF (2000) reports that most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa are facing challenges of poor infrastructure and marginalised finances to offer quality education. Countries such as Ghana, Tanzania, Zambia, Kenya, and South Africa have initiated reforms to their teacher education systems to ensure production of quality teachers. Boaduo et al (2011) believes Africa needs to institute a dynamic teacher education and training system able to respond to the needs of the 21st century. Surveys, research papers and government policies point to the need to enhance quality in teacher-education in Southern African countries (SAQMEC country reports, MUST reports, Moon et al 2005). Zimbabwe being a Southern African country cannot be an exception but how this can be done is the focus of this research. However Moon (2007) believes the success of educational reform hinges on the quality of teachers who will implement it. Hence teacher education has been identified as both part of the problem and the solution to the challenge of quality (Pontenfrait and Hardman 2005, Akyeampong, Pryor and Ampiah 2006).

The quality of teacher education in Zimbabwe is deteriorating. Having scored significant gains in terms of quantitative growth between the period 1980 and 2000, the teacher education sector is in crisis. Exodus of highly skilled and experienced lecturers has created manpower deficit quantitatively and qualitatively. Mutenga (2012) and Chetsanga (2001) identify the exodus of highly skilled and experienced lecturers as the major cause of low quality in teacher education institutions. Mutenga (op cit) further highlights the sorry state of infrastructure and poor financial support in
most teachers colleges as the major causes of low quality. Nziramasanga (1999) found out that the teacher trained today has inadequacies in technology, teaching skills and counselling. The prime challenge of teacher education is establishing effective quality evaluation structures and strategies. Nziramasanga (op cit) also reported that there was lack of professionalism and lack of work ethic among teachers of today. Some teachers who were interviewed by the Nziramasanga commission confirmed that they were ill-equipped to teach some subjects offered in the primary school curriculum. The same goes for college lecturers they indicated that they lacked skills in information and communication technologies (ICT) to assist students in during training.

The Commission reports and researches confirm that teacher education quality and teacher quality are under threat in Zimbabwe. A research by Mswazi et al 2012 discovered that lecturers in teachers’ colleges are rarely supervised by their superiors and some have been accused of tempering with student assessment results. There have been reports of tension centred on quality issues brewing between external and internal assessors during Department of Teacher Education external assessment exercises. The issues raised above bring into focus the concerns of teacher education quality and its implications on teacher quality in Zimbabwe.

### 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Nziramasanga (1999) found out that stakeholders had misgivings about the competence and effectiveness of teachers in the school system. The commission concluded that there is a gap between current demands of classroom practice and the skills teachers get during initial teacher training. Hence teachers lack the requisite
knowledge, skills to effectively perform their duties. Mavhundutse (2012) recommends a complete overhaul of the whole teacher training system in Zimbabwe. His findings were that the system is fragmented and not coordinated. There are too many differences between qualities of training offered at different colleges. Gondo et al (2012) consider the models used to train teachers in Zimbabwe are inadequate and inconsistent with current international trends and standards. Given the concerns raised above by this study sought to evaluate quality of teacher education and the implications on teacher quality in Zimbabwe.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

To evaluate the quality of teacher education and how it is impacting on teacher quality in Zimbabwe.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

- To assess institutional quality policies and how they impact on teacher education quality.
- To solicit the views of pre-service students on the relevance of the teacher education curriculum in the context of quality.
- To investigate the views of students on the quality of teaching and learning during training.
- To investigate the views of lecturers on the quality of teaching practice.
- To solicit the views of graduates on the effectiveness of the teacher education programme in producing a quality teacher.
1.5 Research Questions

The research sought to answer the following questions:

• What are the institutional quality policies and how do they impact on quality of teacher preparation?
• How do pre-service students view the relevance the teacher education curriculum in the context quality?
• How do students view the quality of teaching and learning during teacher training?
• How do lecturers view the quality pre-service teachers’ teaching and learning during teaching practice?
• How do graduates from colleges view the effectiveness of the teacher education programme in producing a high quality teacher?

1.6 Significance of the Study

Changes emanating from the information communication technological (ICT) developments and globalisation have impacted on the landscape of teacher education in Zimbabwe and worldwide. These changes call for a new kind of teacher who is able to effectively operate within the global village. It is hoped that the findings of this study will provide a body of knowledge that will assist in the review of teacher education. It will contribute to the improvement of teacher education practices as well as policies in Zimbabwe. The results of this study hopefully will guide teacher education reform and assist in implementing change in the light of the research findings of this study. Hopefully this research will pave way for the professionalisation of the teaching profession and standardisation of the teacher education curriculum. It is hoped the study will provide information useful to
curriculum planners and implementers in the area of teacher education to develop a
teacher to meet the needs of the 21st century. Teacher education institutions can
redesign their courses in accordance to the national and international expectations and
standards. As a nation this study can lay the basis for raising the standards of the
teacher education quality hence produce quality teachers and enable Zimbabwe
achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGS). The study will lay the basis for
future research in the area of teacher education and teacher quality in Zimbabwe.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The study will be carried out in primary teacher education institutions. The study will
focus on teacher education quality systems in these institutions. The participants will
be lecturers, students, graduates from the teacher education institutions as well as the
mentors from the schools.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Access to confidential documents on teacher education external assessments and
teacher supervision reports affected comprehensive data collection. Fear of exposing
quality shortcomings resulted in some colleges interfering with the data collection
process and this affected the results of the study. The participants were bound by the
official secrecy obligations not to disclose sensitive information affecting quality in
the institutions. The limitation was overcome by assuring participants of
confidentiality of the research findings and that the results would be used for
educational purposes only.
1.9 Review of Related Literature

Literature Review focused on the situation of teacher shortage in Africa and Zimbabwe. Literature also focused on the significance of teacher education in producing high quality teachers.

Review of literature will be organised as follows:

1.9.1 Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

The constructivist theory guided this research and enabled the researcher to focus on both structural and conceptual aspects of a teacher education quality. Constructivism is an epistemological view of knowledge acquisition which values knowledge construction (Applefield, Huber and Moallen 2001). This theory rejects the transmission model which is rooted in the positivist theory. The positivist theory posit that knowledge exist outside the learner and can only be discovered through scientific inquiry. This knowledge can only be internalised when it is transferred from the outside of the learner. Proponents of constructivism reject that transmission model and posit that knowledge can be constructed by the learner (Fosner 1993, Glaserfeld 2005). This new paradigm the following distinct features, learners construct their own knowledge; prior knowledge is the basis of current learning and social interaction facilities learning. Constructivism promotes student-centred learning. Student can connect and analyse prior knowledge and acquire new knowledge through self-discovery and socialisation with peers and tutors. In the light of this research constructivism guides the research in analysing the quality of teacher education programmes, the quality of the teaching and learning process as well as the quality of educational outcomes of the teacher education system.
1.9.2 Understanding the Concept of Teacher Education

For years the preparation of teachers has been referred to as teacher training which implied giving prospective teacher subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge so that they could transfer these to the students. UNESCO (2000) believes this approach is still prevalent in many developing countries, particularly in Africa, Asia and Latin America. According to Jenicek (2003) teacher education is defined as that component of the education system which encompasses all activities that relate to and support the professional development of teachers. Imam (2011) also defines teacher education as policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with knowledge, attitude behaviours and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the school and classroom. A more comprehensive definition is given by Mark (2007) who refers to teacher education as the activities and procedures by which professional development of the teacher is organized, managed, monitored and sustained within a definitive policy framework. The process involves management, organisation, and delivery of programmes. While service involves sustenance of teacher education in terms of quality as well as ability to meet the needs of society, however as a discipline it is a system made up of inputs, process and outputs. The next section will discuss the various approaches to teacher education.

1.9.3 Approaches to Teacher Educational Implications on Teacher Quality

Various approaches to teacher education will guide how teacher preparation is designed, course developed, how instruction is supervised and evaluated. The academic, personal, personal, practical, technical, social reconstructionist as well as the school- based approaches are some of the approaches.
According to Zeichner and Liston (1990) the academic approach elicits that teaching and learning should be based on long established values and knowledge. In teacher preparation this approach emphasises that teaching is primarily concerned with transmission of knowledge and development of understanding. Its focus is on knowledge of disciplinary knowledge for pre-service teachers. The mastery of subject matter is the most important goal in the education of teachers (Zeichner and Liston 1990). Cochran-Smith and Zeichner (2005) noted that there is little research to calculate the influence of teacher’s content knowledge on students learning. Mathematics and Science researcher on the impact of subject matter Wayne and Youngs (2003), found moderate positive correlation between the teachers subject matter knowledge and student achievement.

The practical approach also referred to as the Normal School tradition. According to Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) practical orientation emphasises craft, technique and artistry. It is associated with the apprenticeship system of training. This approach attaches importance of classroom experience. Researches on the importance of practical teaching have found out that there was a positive impact of field experiences on student achievement (Boyd 2005, Kukla-Acevedo 2009). While research confirms that field experiences contribute to student achievement (Boyd 2001)

The approach emphasises interpersonal relations in the classroom and derives support from humanistic psychology (Calderhead and Shorrock 1997). Personal orientation places the student teacher at the centre of the educational process. The teacher’s own personal development is at the centre of teacher preparation. Learning to teach involves a process of learning to understand, develop and use oneself effectively.
Teaching is a matter of encouraging and assisting students hence activities involve active self directed learning (Combs 1982).

The technical approach focuses on knowledge and skills of teaching. The primary goal is to prepare teachers with teaching proficiency. According to Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) this approach emphasises knowledge, and behavioural skills the teachers should posses. This is referred to as the competency approach or outcome based approach. It is a mechanistic view of teacher education programmes guided by pre-determined outcomes. It regards outcomes as the basis for education of teachers hence the focus is on supervision of teaching activities and evaluation of the curriculum.

The school-based approach is based centralisation of training activities according to the needs of a particular school. The model is different in the countries they are implemented. In the United Kingdom it is known as the monitoring approach (Evans and Abbott 1997) and the USA it is based on training of teachers in district schools of different states (Dill and Staffel 1995). Luitel (2002) suggested a single approach to teacher education will not compromise quality hence the need for a synthesis approach. Instead of aligning one approach a multifaceted approach is required in designing teacher education programmes. The synthesis approach to teacher education regards the criticalness of theory – practice partnership. This brings about ecological balance in teacher education programme. This means any teacher education programmes should be include more than one model discussed above to ensure quality in a teacher education programme.
1.9.4 Achieving the MDGs Quality Objectives through Teacher Education Reform

One of the main objectives of the millennium development goals (MDGs) is to ‘achieve universal primary education and the deadline to achieve this objectivity by the year 2015. To achieve universal primary education by 2015 the world needs 1.9 million teachers and more than half of the deficit is in Sub-Saharan Africa. Zimbabwe has achieved access to education but quality remains a challenge (UNESCO, 2010). Most students leave primary school without basic literacy and numeracy skills (UNESCO, 2010 and SACMEQ, 2011). Globally 123 million youths between ages of 15-24 years lack basic reading and writing skills (The Millennium Goals Report, 2013). It can be argued that the teacher is a key element in the achievement of MDGs. With the education system churning out semi-illiterate graduates the teacher is to blame. This means teacher quality is a key factor in the achievement of MDGs without which the achievement of the second MDG remains a pipe dream. A quality teacher can only be produced by a quality teacher education programme. Teacher education should be reviewed with the hope of reforming it. Teacher education quality needs to be investigated since it has implications on teacher quality. This justifies the relevance of this research in the light of achievement of the MDGs. Zimbabwe achieved quantitative growth for the primary sector and schools increased from 3 160 in 1980 to 4 779 in 2004. Teacher education also grew in enrolment. Increase in enrolment was enhanced by the introduction of the Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC). Zimbabwe has achieved the net enrolment ratio of over 90% beyond the set target of 90%. I will next explain the history of teacher education in Zimbabwe.
1.9.5 History of Teacher Education in Zimbabwe

Formal education was introduced in Zimbabwe by the missionaries to Africans at the advent of colonial rule for purposes of Christian evangelisation. Initially teachers were not formally trained but in 1920s government started to formally train teachers at Domboshawa and Hope Fountain. These teachers taught mostly in rural areas (Tindall 1968). Efforts by the colonial government to improve quality of teachers included raising the minimum entry qualification to enter teaching profession. For example in 1945 the minimum qualification to be allowed to teach was raised from standard 4 to standard 5, and from standard 5 to standard 6 in 1951 and subsequently teachers were trained to become fully qualified teachers through a two year programme (Tindall 1968). In 1949 a first upper primary teacher training certificate course was first introduced at Kutama mission. In 1953 government established primary teacher training college in Gweru and Mutare. During the colonial period education was dominated by racial segregation and whites were sending their children to South Africa and Britain for better education. Other communities such as Indians hired teachers from other countries such as India and South Africa. Currently teachers are trained in government teacher primary colleges and private colleges. The teachers graduate with a Diploma in Education. This is a programme of four years in which students are resident in college for theory for two terms and go for teaching practice for five (5) terms the come for another two terms for theory. The model is known as the 2-5-2 model. Entry requirements to train as a teacher considers five ordinary level passes with a C grade and mathematics and English are compulsory subjects to pass (Zvobgo 1998).
The teachers colleges are associate members of the Department of Teacher Education of the University of Zimbabwe. The Department of Teacher Education coordinates and monitors their curricula and assessment systems for quality. The Department of Teacher Education (DTE) offers external examination services to colleges through external assessment.

1.9.6 Quality Challenges in Teacher Education

The quality of teachers produced by the teacher education system has been criticised. The main criticism has been poor quality of teachers produced. This is a worldwide problem but varies from country to country. Low quality in teacher education covers areas such as the curriculum, the quality of candidates and teacher educators, quality of teaching and learning approaches as well as availability of resources.

The teacher education curriculum has been criticised as being narrow in scope and not meeting the needs of schools and society. What is taught to student teachers does not adequately equip them to become effective teachers. According to Dilshad (2010) there is over emphasis on theory as opposed to practice and there is also imbalance between general and professional courses. Delaney (1995) found out that teacher education programmes were failing to impart important skills such as classroom management and skills in management of children with special needs. Hence in most cases the curricula is considered to be irrelevant and fragmented and outdated.

Stuart and Tatoo (2000) identified the following deficiencies in the teacher education curricula such as, lack of common curricula, vague objectives, lack of consensus on essential knowledge, skills and competencies teachers should be equipped with.
The findings of research confirm that teacher quality is related to successful teacher education curriculum implementation. The area of student recruitment has quality challenges. This research will investigate quality issues related quality of students recruited and the quality of the process as well as quality of the curriculum.

The quality of candidates recruited to train as teachers has been considered to be very low. Teacher education is failing to attract high performing students to join the teaching profession. In Africa the status of the teaching profession has been diminished. The salaries are low the working conditions poor, hence performing students opt for other profession with better working conditions and higher salaries (Akyeampong 2000, Lewin 2004). In the USA the major factor affecting teacher quality are low admissions requirements (Liston and Delaney 1995). These situations create quality challenges in terms of candidates that are enrolled in teachers colleges to train as teachers.

The quality of teacher educators is another quality challenge. Teacher educators are promoted from the classroom. Most of these newly appointed lecturers are from high schools and have never taught in a primary school. These educators are expected to educate primary school teachers. These lecturers are appointed and work without proper orientation. Dilshad (2010) found lack in-service training and supervision as major factors affecting teacher educator quality and effectiveness. Teacher educators do not seriously do research and evaluation of their programmes. Rao and Rao (2005) call for a review of recruitment procedures for lecturers as well as improved supervision because current teachers are competent. This research will also investigate the quality of lecturers teaching in Teacher’s Colleges in Zimbabwe.
The teacher educators are said to be using antiquated methods of teaching. According to Akyeampong 2000, and Ampiah et al 2012, pedagogy in teacher education in Africa is mainly dominated by the transmission model. Students are regarded as ‘empty vessels’ with little or no knowledge of teaching and they need to be filled in with knowledge. There is lack of relevant books especially those that fit the context of Africa hence the theories taught are irrelevant to developing nations. Research findings recommend acquisition of information communication technology skills which seem not to be found in teacher education curriculum (Rao and Rao 2005).

In Africa teacher education institutions are poorly resourced. Stuart and Lewin (2004) studied teacher education programmes in Sub-Saharan Africa and identified the following problems poorly equipped laboratories, lack of financial support for teaching practice, lack of relevant textbook sand dilapidated infrastructure and lack of maintenance. Unless teacher education institutions are well resourced quality remain an issue and lecturers can only perform well if they are supported with adequate resources and equipment and they are well remunerate. The quality challenges identified by literature will guide me while I am evaluating teacher education programme in Zimbabwe and check if such problems are impacting a teacher quality.

1.9.7 Concept of Teacher Quality

Teacher quality is highlighted in literature as a critical factor in educational quality and student achievement (Fuller 1986, Darling – Hammond 2000, Cockran Smith 2003). The critical features of teacher quality are teacher qualifications are considered as a very important factor in determining teacher quality. Teachers are educated and will attain a certificate, diploma or degree in education. Teaching is considered to be
one of the most important elements for successful and effective classroom teaching (Goe 2007). Rice (2003) found out that teacher qualifications were positively correlated to student achievement although the results were not consistent across grades and subjects.

Literature confirms that the teacher’s subject matter knowledge is a critical element of teacher quality and directly influences student’s achievement (Bath 2002, Ingersoll 2003, Darling-Hammond and Bransford 2005). A teacher who has not mastered the subject matter is considered to be of low quality. Cochran – Smith and Zeichner (2005) found out in their research that the subject matter knowledge is positively correlated to student achievement. According to Goldhaber and Brewer (1997) students gain more from teacher with a major in mathematics. Academic knowledge is a very important factor in measuring teacher quality. The main question is how much of the subject matter should a quality teacher possess? Teacher subject matter knowledge is an important factor to consider when evaluating the teacher quality.

A quality teacher has the ability to present learning materials to students and facilitate learning among students. Researchers in the area of pedagogical knowledge and student achievement are scarce. This area is difficult to research on due to a number of variables to be considered when researching. Pedagogy is complicated to research on because there are a wide variety of topics that contribute to pedagogical knowledge such as educational psychology, educational sociology, and professional studies ad theories of learning. It is difficult to separate the effect of any one of these (Wilson et al 2001). Researchers have however found students taught by certified teacher in
mathematics scored higher in standardised tests than students taught by uncertified teachers.

The teaching and learning process is quite complex and hence difficult to research on. Research conducted in this area employ use of self reports however these have been found to be unreliable and invalid. A research by Looney (2005) in this area found out that middle school teachers’ practices impacted positively on student achievement. However another research by Gallagher (2005) found out that the areas of lesson planning, classroom management, special needs education, information communication technology in education and knowledge of the subject did not contribute to student achievement.

Teacher characteristics are a very important indicator of teacher quality. Teacher characteristics influence the processes of teaching and learning in the classroom hence is related to student achievement. Teacher characteristics professional attributes such related to values, beliefs and skills of the teacher. The attributes are commitment, innovativeness, reflective, supportive and constructive, ethical and effective communication as well as good interpersonal skills (Department of Education and Training 2004).

1.10 Methodological Challenges to Teacher Quality Research

The methodological challenges arise from the complexity of the teaching and learning process, these include:

- Inability by researchers to measure effects of variables such as school and student characteristics.
• Inability to directly link teacher education to student achievement
• Inability to directly measure effects of teacher education on teacher actions in the classroom.
• Inability to measure the effects of unobserved teacher characteristics on student achievement in the classroom.

Other difficulties in researching on teacher preparation arise from failure to track the performance of graduates after graduation. This exercise is expensive and laborious exercise. Another challenge is ability to control variables related to teaching and learning in the classroom. Goe (2011) identified the variables which are difficult to control are school climate and culture, student attitude towards learning and school leadership and support, community support, the curriculum and how it is aligned to student and school physical facilities and the school environment. A single study cannot address the methodological challenges raised above

1.11 Understanding Teacher Education Quality

The quality of teacher education programme and the quality of experiences of teacher education candidates impacts greatly on the teacher education outcomes. The quality of a teacher education programme impact on the quality of the graduates to be produced by that system. Defining teacher education quality is difficult. Different people define it differently hence there is no common definition. Quality is dynamic and highly contextualised hence it is subject to change from time to time (Calderhead 2001). It is necessary to define teacher education before defining teacher education quality. Teacher education is a system, in which professional development of teachers is organized, managed, monitored and sustained (Mark 2007). However according to Imam (2011) teacher education involves all the policies and procedures designed to
equip teacher candidate with knowledge, skills and disposition required to effectively teach. From the definitions cited above it is clear that a quality teacher education programme has main purpose of equipping prospective teacher, with knowledge, skills and attitudes to perform the teaching functions effectively.

Researches by Cochran-Smith and Zeichner (2005) Darling-Hammond et al (2005) and Wilson et al (2001) identified the following features of a quality teacher education program, good programme structure, adequate subject matter preparation, adequate pedagogical preparation and adequate preparation to teach children with special needs and quality exposure to practical teaching. Other aspects to add to what was found by other researchers are the quality factors raised by Zeichner (2006) are high entry requirements, strong content preparation, strong pedagogical preparation and well supervised teaching practice. From the literature presented above the common elements researchers indentify as common are what prospective teachers should know and be able to do to ensure quality teachers are produced.

1.12 Teacher Education Models in the Context of Quality

There are seven models of educational quality based on the work of Cameron (1984), Cheng and Tam (1997). Each model has its own characteristic linked to educational quality. Teacher education aims at developing teachers to have the necessary quality, competence and commitment to provide education quality, in schools (Cheng and Tam 1997). The models to be discussed below have serious implications on teacher education quality because each model has quality demands where each teacher has to be equipped with specific set of knowledge skills, attitudes, values and beliefs ensure quality. The models to be discussed below are the goal and specification model, the
resource input model, the process model, the satisfactions model, the legitimacy model, the absence of problem model and the organisation learning model.

According to Cheng and Tam (1997) the goal and specification model involves achievement of stated goals and conformance to given specifications. The assumption in this model is that there are well defined goals and specifications as indicators and standards for educational systems to pursue. Another model is the input – resource model. Cameron (1984) pronounced the input – resource model. In this model quality is regarded as the natural achievement of quality resources and quality inputs of an institution. The model assumes that scarce and quality resources one necessary for educational institution to achieve their objectives so as to provide quality services.

The Process model according to Cheng and Tam (1997) focuses on quality of internal processes of an institution. This model assumes that the processes in an education system are a transformational process which converts inputs into outputs. The process in an educational institution include teaching and learning activities, social interactive, student participation and leadership activities

The Satisfaction Model was outlined by Cheng (1990). In this model quality is defined as the satisfaction of strategic constituencies of an educational institution (Cheng op cit). Quality is determined by the ability of an educational institution to satisfy the needs and expectation of stakeholders.

The legitimacy model involves quality being determined by an institutional reputation. This model assumes that an educational institution has to be accepted and
supported by the communities if it is to survive and achieve its mission. Quality indicators include public relations, marketing activities, status and reputation of institutions

Absence of Problem Model asserts that quality is absence of problems and trouble. Instead of looking for quality in an educational programmes or institution one has to inspect an institution to check whether problems exist. The absence of problems, trouble, defects, weaknesses difficulties or any dysfunctions in an institution then it is of high quality

Another model is the learning organisation model. According to Cheng and Tam (1997) quality means continuous development and improvement. Education is dynamic and quality factors change from time to time. Since programme quality changes from time to, there is need to evaluate programmes from time to time. Quality indicators include modalities for internal process monitoring, programme evaluation awareness of community needs, environmental analysis and methodical development planning.

According to Leprice – Riguet (2008) quality teaching lacks a clear definition, since it is stakeholder relative (Yorke 1999). However, quality teaching refers to the use of pedagogical techniques in the teaching learning process. It involves such dimensions as curriculum design, course content and the learning environment as well as student support services. Traditionally quality teaching has been associated with classroom control and the teacher is considered as an expert. The focus of the teaching and learning process is the teacher. (Crebbin 2006) In the late 20th century, the traditional
approach was challenged by the new progressive methods of teaching and learning. The emphasis was on child-centred approaches such as discovery learning and cooperative learning (2003).

Quality teaching is based on the quality of opportunities for student’s learning the teacher provides. According to Feustermacher and Richardson (2005) quality teaching has to do with how something is taught. It involves appropriate content, well designed aims, objective and methods of teaching. Quality teaching involves what teachers need to know and what teachers need to do to provide quality opportunities for student learning. Quality teaching focuses on the action of the teacher, the knowledge the teacher possess and the creativity of the teacher.

Learning is defined as the process in which meaning is constructed by the learner as they interact and internalise subject matter of the teaching process (Baker et al 1996). According to Kilic (2010) learning as a dynamic process in which learners make internal adjustments ad develops relevant skills. Thus to ensure effective learning the learner should be the starting point. Hence learning is a process that takes place in the mind, hence individuals respond to stimuli by processing information.

According to Mcleod ad Reynolds (2007) quality learning is an active purposeful learning where learners are constructors of their own learning. The constructive view is centred on viewing the student as the focus of the whole learning process. Quality of learning is measured in terms of the inputs, processes and outcomes of the learning process.
Opposed to constructivist learning is the conventional learning (also known as traditional learning) which considers the students as passive receptors of information. The approach is dominated by low student participation and the teacher or lecturer as the main source of knowledge. Students rarely challenge the existing theories or ask question to their lecturers. This approach to learning has been subject to criticism by different scholars.

1.13 Evaluation of Teacher Education Quality

According to Feurer et al (2013) the system of evaluating teacher preparation programmes in the United States of America (USA) is done by various institutions and organisations. The institutions and organisations involved are the federal Government. National non-governmental bodies, individual states the independent organisations and teacher education institutions. Initially the federal government of the USA was not directly involved in the evaluation of teacher preparation programmes, however in recent years there has been more government involvement through various laws. The Higher Education Act (ITEA) (1965) is the cornerstone of the government policy evaluation efforts which has been revised several times, for example in 1998, the amendment focused on institutional accountability were institutions are mandated to collect data based on a number of indicators and compile report cards. At programme level these indicators include pass rates on standardised tests, admission requirements, teacher education status and policies at the state level (Feurer 2013). The Obama administration also put in place the Race to the Top (RTTP) programme where states publicity link student achievement data to teacher preparation programmes in their state. Dacan (2009) the secretary of education called for a shift in focus from programme inputs to programme outputs.
where effectiveness of graduates is measured by student performance in the classroom. States are rewarded financially for producing the required reports. The goals of RTTP are to ensure students in teacher education institutions are prepared well to succeed at the workplace and be competitive internationally and to build data systems that will enable institutions to measure students’ growth, success and ensure institutional improvement. Ultimately to assist in recruitment and development as well as retention of effective teachers.

- To improve the performance of less effective and low achieving schools

Non-governmental institutions play an important part in evaluation of teacher preparation programmes and their roles will be discussed below.

In the USA the approval and accreditation of teacher preparation programmes is done by the national, non-governmental accreditation boards

1.14 Professionalism as a Factor of Teacher Education Quality

Professionalism has become a common phenomenon in developed countries as well as in some developing countries. Accreditation bodies have been established in the USA, Europe, and Australia and in African countries such as South Africa and Kenya. Accreditation bodies have developed professional standards for teachers and teacher education. Professionalisation of teaching has promoted the development of standards. Professional standards enable organisations to state what their graduates will learn, be able to know and do as a result of going through the program.

The American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (2013) developed standards that can be used to evaluate the quality of teacher education. The areas of focus or the standards are content and pedagogical knowledge, clinical partnership
and practice, candidate quality, recruitment and selection, programme impact. These categories have other sub-items to guide evaluators. The National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) and Commonwealth of Learning also developed jointly quality indicators for Teacher education (2013) Institutions can evaluate quality internally and this would provide quality monitoring and continuous improvement. The six key quality indicator areas are curriculum design and planning, curriculum transaction and evaluation, research and development and extension, infrastructural and learning resources, student support and progression and organisation and management. These guidelines tend to focus on the issues related to administration and quality assurance without much focus on what teachers need to know and be able to do. Professional standards have been developed to teacher education as well. Teacher educator quality can be assessed based on these guidelines. In the light of this research, the professional standards can be adopted where to guide the researcher. However in Zimbabwe, the professionalisation of teaching has not yet taken effect but the accreditation body, the Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education (ZIMCHE, 2006) has been established. This body has not yet developed standards for teacher education.

1.15 Methodology

1.15.1 Research Paradigm

This research will be guided by the interpretivist paradigm. Interpretivism asserts that knowledge of the world is constructed by us and knowledge viewed as beginning from the learner’s activity and is mentally constructed and closely related to the action of the learner. Interpretivism has a social dimension because meaning is constructed in
social contexts and is communicated dialogically through socially negotiated understandings (Jegede, 1991, Steffé and Gale 1995).

1.15.2 Research Methodology

This research study is qualitative. According to Reid and Smith (1981) one of its major characteristics is that the researcher attempts to gain first hand holistic understanding of phenomena by means of a flexible strategy of problem formulation and data collection. It is premised on the belief that particular physical, historical, material and social environment in which people find themselves has a great bearing on what they think and how they act. The researcher is the instrument of data collection. It emphasises specificity rather than universalism. Qualitative research design for this study is the case study (Willig 2001).

1.15.3 Research Design

This research employed the multiple case study approach. According to Yin (2003) a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context. Robson (1993) defines a case study as a strategy of doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular phenomenon within its context using multiple sources of evidence. In this research a case study as defined by Hitchcook and Hughes (1995) regards it as a study of the key players; key situations as well as critical incidents in life.

The advantage of a case study was that the researcher would be able to make an in-depth intense and focused study of phenomena. As Best and Khan (1989) put it, the case study probes deeply and analyses interactions between factors that explain the
present status. In this study, the single case design was used. The case study is preferred because it takes a holistic perspective and can only be understood within its context. Although, one of the major weaknesses of a case study is that the results of the study cannot be generalised. The purposes of this study was not to generalise but to unravel opinions, views, likes as experienced by students and lecturers in the process of teaching and learning and what students consider they know and are able to do.

1.15.4 Population

The population was made up students, lecturers and graduates from teachers’ colleges and mentors from schools.

1.15.5 Sampling Procedure

The purposive sampling technique was used to select the participants in this research. The researcher selected the most productive sample to answer the research questions. Participants were individuals with special expertise and vital information to enrich the study. The participants in this research included students, lecturers and graduates from Teachers’ Colleges in Zimbabwe offering the Diploma in Education. However, it should be noted that selection of sources remained open throughout the research process.

1.15.6 Data Collection Procedure

To collect data interviews, open-ended questionnaires and document analysis were used. Data was collected from the students, lecturers and graduates from Teachers’ Colleges.
1.15.7 Data Analysis

Analysis of data was an ongoing process. Grounded theory approach was used to analyse data. The following steps were followed:, Step I Open Coding-develop categories & themes, Step II Axial Coding-cross matching of categories, Step III Selective Coding-categories and their interrelationship and Step IV Theoretical sampling involves theory-verbal statements describing relationships, events, actions and interactions.

1.15.8 Trustworthiness of data

Trustworthiness of qualitative research can be established using four strategies namely credibility, dependability and conformability which can be refused to or qualitative research as internal and external validity, reliability and neutrality.
Credibility is defined as the extent to which data and data analysis are believable and trustworthy. Credibility is analogous to internal validity that is how research findings match reality. There was use of member checking into the findings i.e gaining feedback on the data, interpretations and conclusions from participants themselves.

- Dependability is analogous to reliability that is the consistency of observing the same finding under similar circumstances. Dependability was achieved through audit which consists of the researcher’s documentation of data methods and decision make during the study. Auditing of dependability required that the data of the research were elaborate and rich.
• Conformability is the degree to which the research funding can be confirmed or corroborated by others. It is analogous to objectives i.e. the extent to which the research is aware of individual subjection bias. The Researcher made a self – critical account of how the research was done. The Research archived all the collected data in a well organised and retrievable manner.

1.16 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations included informed consent, guarantee of absence of risk or harm, ensuring privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality. The researcher adhered to ethical guidelines as a standard to ensure honest and trustworthy of the data to be collected and how it would be used for educational purposes.

• Informed Consent ensured the participants are informed of the purpose of the research, nature of the research and use of the data collected. The researcher explained his role and got informed consent from the participants.

• Harm and Risk involves the researcher guaranteed the participants that they would not be put in a situation where they might harmed as result of their participation in this research

• Privacy, Confidentiality and Anonymity ensured confidentiality and anonymity of the participants. The participants, names were not be used for other purposes or this information would not be shared and revealed to the public

• Voluntary Participation involved participants being informed that the data would be used for academic purposes; the researcher sought their voluntary participation. No one would be forced to participate and those wished to
withdraw from participating could do so. Voluntary participation in the research study was one of the key principles of ethical conduct.

1.17 Organisation of the Study

Chapter 1 The introduction consists of, Background to the study, Statement of the Problem, Objectives of the study, Research Questions, Assumptions, Significance of the study, Delimitations and Limitations, Definition of Terms, of study, Theoretical/Conceptual Framework, Organisation of the study.

Chapter 2 Review of Related literature with a global overview. Review of international and national focus of literature.

Chapter 3 The research paradigm, research methodology and research design will be presented. The data collection instruments and data analysis procedures will also be stated. Delimitations, limitations, ethical considerations

Chapter 4 Data presentation, analysis and interpretation.

Chapter 5 Summary, findings, discussion, conclusions and recommendations including the list of references.

1.18 Definition of Terms

Lecturer Teacher educators in a teachers college

Mentor A qualified teacher who is involved in the professional development of student teachers
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>the process of in which qualified teachers coach student teachers during teaching practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro-teaching</td>
<td>an exercise in which student teachers are involved in scaled down teaching to prepare them for teaching practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionalisation</td>
<td>the establishment of standards that will guide to conduct activities of professionals in a given field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>the level of achievement of standard against which to judge achievement or performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student Teacher</td>
<td>a pre-service teacher undergoing training in a teachers college</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers College</td>
<td>an institution of higher education in which individuals are trained to become teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher Education Programme</td>
<td>is a programme in a teacher education institution through which the students are trained.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher quality</td>
<td>what a teacher knows and is able to do in relation to the tasks of teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Practice</td>
<td>a period in which student teachers are exposed to practical teaching during teacher training</td>
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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Teacher quality has become a cause for concern for most governments worldwide and a fierce debate has centred on how best to prepare teachers to improve educational quality (Boyd et al: 2008). No education system is better than the quality of its teacher hence to produce high quality teachers in a country there is need for high quality teacher education programmes (Ergul et al 2013). Teacher education is defined as the total features and characteristics a student teacher acquires as a result of going through a teacher education programme. The critical aspects developed include theory and practice of teaching and the related skills as well as the forms of knowledge prospective teachers acquire to enable them to be high quality teachers. A teacher is only of quality if he or she is able to facilitate effective student learning. In this chapter the focus is on reviewing existing research relevant to this study. Because of scarcity of relevant literature focusing on Zimbabwe, most of the literature reviewed is based on researches done in developed countries such as the USA and other developed countries. Two critical variables to guide the review of literature are teacher education quality and teacher quality. Review of literature will be organised as follows.

- The Theoretical framework
- Understanding the Concept of Teacher Education and Approaches to Teacher Training
- Concept of Quality and Models of Educational Quality
- Achieving the MDGs Quality Objectives Through Teacher Education Reform
• History of Teacher Education in Zimbabwe
• The Teacher Education Curriculum and Its Implications on Teacher Education Quality
• Quality Monitoring in Teachers’ Colleges in Zimbabwe.
• Quality Challenges in Teacher Education
• Defining Teacher Quality
• Methodological Challenges to Teacher Quality Research
• Understanding Teacher Education Quality
• Micro-Teaching as a Factor of Quality
• Critical Role of Mentoring in Teaching Practice Quality
• Effective Teaching in Teacher Education
• Quality Learning in Teacher Education
• Lecturers as a Factor in Teacher Education Quality
• Professionalism as a Factor of Teacher Education Quality
• Evaluating Teacher Education Quality
• Summary

2.2 The Theoretical Framework

This research was guided by the constructivist theory whose proponents include John Dewey, Jean Piaget, Jerome Bruner and Lev Vygotsky focused their studies on how human beings learn. In this research the researcher focussed on both structural and conceptual aspects of a teacher education quality. Constructivism is an epistemological view of knowledge acquisition which values knowledge construction (Applefield, Huber and Moallen 2001). Constructivism rejects the transmission model which is rooted in the positivist theory. The positivist theory posit that
knowledge exist outside the learner and can only be discovered through scientific inquiry. This knowledge can only be internalised when it is transferred from the outside of the learner. Positivism is associated with behaviourist and cognitive perspectives. Proponents of constructivism reject that transmission model and posit that knowledge can be constructed by the learner (Fosner 1993, Glaserfeld 2005). The constructivist theory new paradigm according to Brooks and Brooks (1999) has the following features such as the learners construct their own knowledge, prior knowledge being the basis of current learning and social interaction facilitating learning.

Constructivism promotes student-centred learning. Student can connect and analyse prior knowledge and acquire new knowledge through self-discovery and socialisation with peers and tutors. In the light of this research constructivism guides the research in analysing the quality of teacher education programmes, the quality of the teaching and learning process as well as the quality of educational outcomes of the teacher education system.

The worldview of teacher educators will influence how they teach and how students learn. It will also determine the quality of the teaching process. A teacher education programme will influence the world view of student teachers and ultimately the type of teacher to be produced. Constructivism has impacted on theory and practice of teacher education and has influenced reform in teacher education. In this research, teacher education quality will be evaluated on the basis of constructivism a modern approach to student learning. In the next section I will discuss concepts of teacher education and approaches to teacher education.
2.3 Understanding the Concept of Teacher Education and Approaches to Teacher Training

For years the preparation of teachers has been referred to as teacher training which implied equipping student teachers with subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge so that they could transfer the same to their students. UNESCO (2000) found out that this approach to teacher training is still prevalent in many developing countries, particularly in Africa, Asia and Latin America. According to Jenicek (2003), teacher education as that component of the education system which encompasses all activities that relate to and support the professional development of teachers (Jenicek 2002). Another definition by Imam (2011) considers teacher education all policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom. A more comprehensive definition is given by Mark (2007) who defined teacher education all the activities and procedures by which professional development of the teacher is organized, managed, monitored and sustained within a definitive policy framework. According to Mark (op cit) believes teacher education is a system made up of processes, services and it is a system. The processes involve management, organization, and delivery of programmes. While service involves sustenance of teacher education in terms of quality as well as ability to meet the needs of society.

Teacher development occurs during pre-service training as continuing professional development as in-service. Teacher education is a system with inputs, processes and outputs. To determine quality systems, it is critical to evaluate all aspects of that
system. Various scholars have come up with various approaches to teacher quality. There are various approaches to teacher education training which impact on the nature of teacher training. These approaches will be discussed below. These approaches are academic, practical, technical, social reconstructionist as well as the school-based approach.

Conceptual orientations guide how teacher preparation programme are designed, how course are developed and how instruction is supervised and evaluated. According to Zeichner and Liston (1990) the academic approach elicits that teaching and learning should be based on long established values and knowledge. In teacher preparation this approach emphasises transmission of knowledge and development of understanding. Its focuses on knowledge of disciplinary knowledge for pre-service teachers. The mastery of subject matter is the most important goal in the education of teachers (Zeichner and Liston 1990). The teacher is an intellectual leader, scholar and subject specialist. An academic approach to pre-service training needs to attract academically talented students to the teacher education programme if it is to be of quality. According to Cochran-Smith and Zeichner (2005) little research has been done to eliminate the effect of teacher’s content knowledge on students learning. Mathematics and Science research on the impact of subject matter found moderate positive correlation between the teachers subject matter knowledge and student achievement (Wayne and Youngs 2003).

Another approach is the practical approach also known as the Normal School tradition. According to Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) practical orientation emphasises craft, technique and artistry. It is associated with the apprenticeship
system of training. This approach attaches importance to classroom teaching experience. Researches on the importance of practical teaching have found out that there was a positive correlation between field experiences and student achievement (Boyd 2005, Kukla – Acevedo 2009).

Yet another approach in which the personal approach grew out of the child study movement in the 19th century. This approach emphasises interpersonal relations in the classroom and is inclined towards humanistic psychology (Calderhead and Shorrock 1997). Personal orientation places the student teacher at the centre of the educational process. The teacher’s own personal development is at the key to teacher preparation. Learning to teach involves a process of learning to understand, develop and use oneself effectively. Teaching is a matter of encouraging and assisting students hence activities involve active self directed learning (Combs 1982).

The technical approach is another approach to teacher training. The technical approach focuses on knowledge and skills acquisition. The primary goal is to prepare teachers with teaching proficiency. According to Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) this approach emphasises knowledge, and behavioural skills the teachers should posses. This is referred to as the competency approach or outcome based approach. It is a mechanistic view of teacher education programmes guided by pre-determined outcomes. It regards outcomes as the basis for education of teachers hence the focus is on supervision of teaching activities and evaluation of the curriculum.

The social reconstructionist approach is another approach to teacher education. The social reconstructionist approach focuses on the knowledge base of the teacher
education programme which includes the social and political context of school. A quality teacher should be able to be effectively operate in the ever changing environment but should be equipped with the requisite skills.

The school-based approach is based centralisation of training activities according to the needs of a particular school. The model is implemented different in different countries. In this approach in the United Kingdom it is known as the monitoring approach (Evans and Abbott 1997) and the USA it is based on training of teachers in district schools of different states (Dill and Staffel 1995).

According to Luitel (2002) a single approach to teacher education will compromise quality. Instead of using one approach a multifaceted approach is desirable in designing teacher education programmes. He suggests the synthesis approach to teacher education, which involves use of more than one approach. This brings about ecological balance in the teacher education programme. Models of next I will discuss concept of quality and models of educational quality.

2.4 Concept of Quality and Models of educational quality

Quality is abstract notion and cannot be framed by means of a single definition or description. Quality is a highly contested concept since different people in different context have different understandings of what it means. Quality is quality for whom and in whose interest? It is a social and political construct not a predetermined static entity, and therefore is open to continual re-examination and re-interpretation. However a common understanding of quality is required in an institution if it is to be produced, monitored or maintained.
An institution wide action is needed at strategic level if lasting and significant improvements in quality are to be achieved. According to Miranda and Texeira (1995) today quality plays a major role in educational systems. Most institutions in European countries have started to implement quality management systems based on standards issued by dedicated institutions or bodies such as ISO. The ISO 9000:2000 a recent edition, which favours a wider vision of quality management is applicable to any type of organisation has facilitated the implementation of quality systems at universities all over Europe. According to Lategan (1991) quality is an elusive notion and virtually everybody recognizes it when it is seen but scarcely can anyone specify its components or features with any degree of precision or confidence. In literature there are different understandings of the term quality and it is difficult to give one single definition of quality. The notions of quality that explain the various conceptions of quality are given by Harvey’s (1993).

These are quality as value for money, quality as transformation, quality as excellence and quality as fitness for purpose. These various ways of looking at quality home implications on how an institution will monitor or enhance quality of its programmes. Quality can be viewed as value for money where quality is directly linked to value in terms of this notion. Governments, donors and funding agencies often use this approach to allocate financial resources. Quality is defined as the efficiency and effectiveness of an institution and is measured in terms of performance indicators like failure rate and pass rate. Smuts (2002) sees quality as value for money in terms of return on investment. If the same outcome can be achieved at a lower cost or a better outcome can be achieved at the same cost then the “customer” has a quality product.
or service. The growing tendency for governments to require accountability from Higher Education reflects a value for money approach. Students require value for money because of the increasing cost of Education for them. Quality can be viewed as perfection where quality refers to the performance of process, inputs and outputs, to predetermined specifications and standards. Quality is referred to as the “quest for zero defects” in this paradigm. Smuts (2002) commented that quality as perfection sees quality as a consistent or flawless outcome. This is difficult to achieve in teacher education to produce a perfect product.

Quality as transformation is rooted in the notion of qualitative change whereby education is regarded as an ongoing process of transformation for the learner. The learner is not regarded as a finished product at graduation but rather as a person adaptable to transformation. According to Smuts (2002) quality as transformation in a classic notion of quality that sees it in terms of change from one state to another. In educational terms, transformation refers to the enhancement and empowerment of students or the development of new knowledge. The student is regarded as a person being transformed. This process continues in his or her productive life. The transformation in education often involves cognitive transcendence with the provider “doing something to the customer rather than doing something for the customer (Harvey and Green 1993). Peters (1992) believes if you cannot measure it you cannot improve it. The measurement of intellectual capital, is problematic and cannot easily be gauged, as such it is difficult to frame appropriate measurement tools. Quality as transformation does not lend itself to the atomisation of clear stated purposes, because the acquisition of knowledge and the satisfaction of the mind are holistic (Harvey and Knight 1996). The service the lecturer provides to the student is less clear-cut because
the development of learning is open-ended than the service provided by the “fast
food” restaurant. It is a relationship where the customer is usually subject to criticism
from the service provider, in the form of regular academic assessments. Learning is an
incremental process that cannot be defined in absolute terms with knowledge being
acquired slowly over a period of time it is sometimes difficult to be sure when and
how it has developed.

Quality as Excellence is a traditional approach to quality and refers to the notion that
quality is about excellence that is meeting absolute criteria and standards (both at
input and output levels). Smuts (2002) refers to this view as the exceptional view,
which sees quality as something special. Traditionally, quality refers to something
distinctive and elitist. In education it is linked to notions of excellence of “high
marks” unalterable at all. Comparison is made by lecturers and outcomes of
programmes are compared to standards set. Standards according to Strydom (2000)
relates broadly to the quality of students learning experience in a course, which builds
you the qualities and abilities they bring to it (standard of students), and a judgment of
the extent to which its aims have been achieved as demonstrated by final assessment
of students performance (Standard graduates). As such standards are expectations of
performance and are critical in the process of building, assuring and improving
quality on a continuous basis in educational institution. Hence an institution can
measure the quality of its activities based on standards.

Quality as fitness for purpose is related to the purpose of a product or service and the
extent to which the purpose it met. This approach is customer driven and customer
requirements and satisfaction is therefore decisive factor. This means quality is seen
in terms of fulfilling a customer’s requirements, needs and desires. Theoretically, the customer specifies requirements and the institution responds to specified requirements. In education fitness for purpose is usually based on the ability of an institution to fulfil its mission or a programme of study to fulfil its aims. And institution is required to formulate its mission and goals and is then evaluated against itself.

According to Lomas (2002) fitness for purpose requires that the product or service fulfils a customer’s needs, requirements or desires. Goals are articulated institutional level through a particular programme’s aims and learning outcomes. Present such as ISO 9000 series quality assurance procedures can be seen as based on the notion of fitness for purpose. They require organisation to say what they do, do what they say and then prove to the third party. They are both concerned with rooting out non-conformance and ensuring adherence to the stated aims and objectives. Fitness for purpose requires that the product or service fulfils a customer’s needs, requirements or desires. Programme specifications are the major means of providing relevant information for prospective students and employers so that they can judge whether their needs and requirements are being met.

The drive for standardization of higher education institutions’ academic programmes is a means of assuring quality. The use of standards is essentially an industrial model that is considered inappropriate for the education sector. Reference can be made to the notion of Macdonaldisation. This is a process by which McDonald’s fast-food restaurant principles are applied to a wide range of production activities and service provision. Ritzer (1996) argues that the education institutions are so different from
other service industries and consumers require the same standardisation, reliability and predictability as they do when purchasing a burger meal or dealing with their bank.

Quality improvement initiatives such as the National Qualifications Framework, subject benchmarks programme specifications and other codes of practice all have brought in greater standardisation in educational institutions. The national teacher quality agencies have the task of overseeing quality in teacher education institutions in terms of processes fitness for purpose and measurement of outcomes against specific standards. Quality as fitness of purpose involves the institution’s mission, goals and objectives being evaluated against national policies, regional requirements and societal expectations. According to Beukes (2005) it could be argued in summary that the quality has some key elements namely:

- Identifying and satisfying client needs.
- Developing and tapping the full potential of staff and
- Improving key processes.

Lategan (1997) adds another aspect of quality as consistency. This is the notion of correspondence to description or conformance to specification of standards (a yardstick or benchmark as a basis of measurement) it suggests increasing accountability in course design. According to Smuts (2002) commented that the definition of quality as transformation provides the only meaningful notion of quality. If education is not about transforming the life experiences of students by enhancing and improving them, then it can hardly be fulfilling its mandate. Transformation enables a person to think and reflect critically to cope with continuous change to question and to challenge. The notion of quality is relevant in teacher education
where institutions will be compelled to reflect upon their vision, and mission statements. Curriculum redesigns and restructuring takes place because of the need meet the fitness of purpose.

2.4.1 Models of Educational Quality

There are seven models of educational quality based on the work of Cameron (1984), Cheng and Tam (1997). Each model has its own characteristic linked to educational quality. Teacher education aims at developing teachers to have the certain qualities, competences and commitment to provide quality education in schools (Cheng and Tam 1997). The models to be discussed below have serious implications on teacher education quality because each model has quality demands and student teachers have to be equipped with specific set of knowledge skills, attitudes, values and beliefs to ensure quality. The models to be discussed below are the goal and specification model, the resource input model, the process model, the satisfactions model, the legitimacy model, the absence of problem model and the organisation learning model.

2.4.1.1 The goal and specification model

Cheng and Tam (1997) saw quality as achievement of stated goals and conformance to given specifications. The assumption in this model is that there are well defined goals and specifications as indicators and standards for educational systems to pursue. An educational institution is deemed to be of good quality if its specifications listed in the institutional programme are met. In the light of this model teacher education institutions should help student teachers to:

• Understand the importance of school goals and specifications as well as be aware of the quality standards.
• Have competence to set clear goals and objectives for the schools to pursue.
• Have knowledge, skills and commitment to achieve these school goals and standards

The prospective teachers should have the competencies to monitor and evaluate implementation of the stated goals and the set objectives. These aspects should guide programme design and implementation in teacher education. The next model is the input-resource model.

2.4.1.2 The Input – Resource Model

In the model quality is regarded as the natural achievement of quality resources and quality inputs of an institution (Cameron 1984). The model assumes that scarce resources are necessary for educational institution to achieve their objectives to provide quality services. The quality indicators include high quality student intake, highly qualified teacher educators, quality facilities and equipment, good financial support. For teacher education the programmes should help prospective teachers to:

• Recognise and understand the critical impact of quality resources as inputs of an educational outcomes, competencies hence these student teachers should be equipped with strategies to identify and attract scarce resources, and inputs in the school
• Have sufficient knowledge and competencies to use resources effectively to achieve school goals.

Quality is only achieved where there are quality inputs and quality resources resulting in quality outcomes.
2.4.1.3 The Process Model

The process model focuses on quality of internal processes of an institution. According to Cheng and Tan (1997) this model assumes that the process in an education system is a transformational process which converts inputs into outputs. The process of an educational institution include teaching and learning activities, social interactive, student participation and leadership activities (Cheng and Tam op at) Teacher education programmes should aim at helping teachers to:

- understand the meaning and contribution of the process of education quality
- have competencies and commitment to ensure the quality of teaching and learning process
- be equipped with knowledge and skills to design school internal processes
- be in a position to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of school system

The teacher education curricula should equip prospective students with skills to ensure quality of its internal processes. This is a critical component of teacher education.

2.4.1.1 The Satisfaction Model

This model was outlined by Cheng (1990). In this model quality is defined as the satisfaction of strategic constituencies of an educational institution. Quality is determined by the ability of an educational institution to satisfy the needs and expectation of stakeholders. The stakeholders have diverse quality expectations in a school system hence it is difficult to achieve and satisfy the needs of multiple constituencies. According to Cheng (op cit) quality involves satisfaction of clients or
conformance to client expectations. Teacher education institutions should provide programmes that will equip prospective teachers with the ability to:

- identify who are important stakeholders and understand how these stakeholders influence quality in terms of goals, inputs, processes and outcomes
- identify and understand the major expectations and needs of influential stakeholders
- have knowledge and skills to encourage participation of important stakeholders in a school system and in decision making
- monitor and evaluate whether the school activities are satisfying the needs of major constituencies

Student teacher satisfaction is a critical indicator of quality of a programme. Hence to determine quality in teacher education the perceptions of teacher educators and students views on effectiveness of a programme is an important measure of quality.

2.4.1.5 The legitimacy model

They consider education as being quality determined by an institutional reputation. The legitimacy model was presented by Cheng and Tan. This model assumes that an educational institution has to be accepted and supported by the communities if it is to survive and achieve its mission. Quality indicators include public relations, marketing activities, status and reputation of institutions. Quality educational institutions are able to thrive in a competitive environment. These institutions as Cheng (1990) observed use accountability systems and formal mechanisms to gain legitimacy. Teacher education programmes assist prospective teachers to:
• understand the importance of community service public relations, institutional image and accountability as well as evaluate public perceptions on the institution
• know how to enhance the school image and implement public relations strategies
• to equip student teachers with skills to identify needs of the community and provide appropriate services to meet the needs

The views of the communities and ability to attract investors in an institution are a measure of quality. The teacher education programmes should include public relations in its curriculum.

2.4.1.6 Absence of Problem Models

Model is the absence of asserts that quality is absence of problems and trouble. Instead of looking for quality in an educational programme or institution one has to inspect an institution to check whether problems exist. The absence of problems, trouble, defects, weaknesses, difficulties or any dysfunctions in an institution shows that it is of high quality. This sounds more of the excellence model with “zero” defects which is more suitable in an industrial setting than an educational institution. Teacher education programmes need to equip student teacher with skills to
• identify problems and defects that pose threat to school quality
• have knowledge and skills to identify and evaluate different types of problems in the teaching and learning process
• to have a positive attitude towards problem identification and problem solving

The problem – solving skills are important in ensuring the quality of a teacher in the teacher of the 21st century have this can ensure quality of programmes in teacher education.
2.4.1.7 The Learning Organisation Model

The next model is the learning organisation model. According to Cheng and Tam (1997) quality means continuous development and improvement. Education is dynamic and quality factors change from time to time. Since programme quality changes from time to, there is need to evaluate programmes from time to time. Quality indicators include modalities for internal process monitoring, programme evaluation awareness of community needs and environmental analysis.

The teacher education programmes need to

- have techniques to collect relevant information to do a SWOT (strength – weaknesses, opportunities and treats) analysis of a school situation
- have awareness of environmental changes, developmental policies trends and community needs
- have competency to plan activities for school development and institutional improvement according to the results of environmental analysis

An organisation that fails to learn is bound to become irrelevant and obsolete hence it will not be able to meet stakeholder needs. Programmes need to be evaluated continuously evaluated if they are to be able to satisfy stakeholder needs.

A learning organisation needs to put in place quality assurance systems for quality improvement and maintenance. The models discussed above have their own characteristics linked to goals, internal processes, achievement of stated goals, conformance to given specifications to meet stakeholders expectations. Relationships with communities, image of the institution, accountability, programme monitoring
and checking for signs of effectiveness to ensure there is no evidence of problems threatening the quality of school programme (Cheng and Tam 1997). Below I will discuss achievement of the MDGs quality objective through teacher education reform.

2.5 Achieving the MDGs Quality Objectives through Teacher Education Reform

One of the main objectives of the millennium development goals (MDGs) is to ‘Achieve universal primary education and the deadline to achieve this objectivity is by the year 2015. To achieve universal primary education by 2015 the world needs 1.9 million teachers and more than half of this deficit is in Sub-Saharan Africa. Zimbabwe has achieved access to education but quality remains a challenge (Denhere, 2003 and UNESCO, 2010). Most students leave primary school without basic literacy and numeracy skills (UNESCO, 2010 and SACMEQ, 2011). Globally 123 million youths between ages of 15-24 years lack basic reading and writing skills (The Millennium Goals Report, 2013). It can be argued that the teacher is a key element in the achievement of MDGs. With education systems churning out semi-illiterate graduates the blame has been on the teacher is to blame. This means teacher quality is a key factor in the achievement of MDGs without which the achievement of the second MDG remains a pipe dream. A quality teacher can only be produced by a quality teacher education programme. This mean teacher education programme should be reviewed with the hope of reforming them. Teacher education quality needs to be improved since it has implication on teacher quality. This justifies the relevance of this research in the light of achievement of the MDGs. Zimbabwe achieved quantitative growth for the primary sector the number of schools increased from 3 160 in 1980 to 4 779 in 2004. Teacher education in enrolment also increased. Increase in enrolment was enhanced by the introduction of the Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher
Education Course (ZINTEC). Zimbabwe has already achieved the net enrolment ratio of over 90% beyond the set target of 90%. However quality remains a challenge (Report on achieving MDGs in Africa 2013). I will next explain the history of teacher education in Zimbabwe.

2.6 History of Teacher Education in Zimbabwe in the Quality Context

Formal education was introduced in Zimbabwe by the missionaries to Africans at the advent of colonial rule for purposes of Christian evangelisation. Initially teachers were not formally trained but in 1920s government started to formally train teachers at Domboshawa and Hope Fountain. Efforts by the colonial government to improve quality of teachers included raising the minimum entry qualification into teaching. For example in 1945 the minimum qualifications to be allowed to teach were raised from standard 4 to standard 5 and subsequently standard 5 to standard 6 in 1951 teachers were trained to come fully qualified teachers through a two year programme (Tindall 1968). In 1949 a first upper primary teacher training certificate course was introduced at Kutama mission. In 1953 government established primary teacher training college in Gweru and Mutare. During the colonial period education was dominated by racial segregation and whites were sending their children to South Africa and Britain for better education. Communities such as Indians hired teachers from India and South Africa to teach their children.

After independence there was great expansion of teacher education. Below are figures showing number of new teachers 1979 to 1989.
### Table 1: Increase in number of trained teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total number of trained teachers</th>
<th>New teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>16 825</td>
<td>801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>20 424</td>
<td>680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>22 654</td>
<td>666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>23 699</td>
<td>651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>25 954</td>
<td>1 244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>30 087</td>
<td>1 880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>30 081</td>
<td>2 831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>31 505</td>
<td>3 223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>31 669</td>
<td>2 995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>33 939</td>
<td>2 781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>34 073</td>
<td>2 574</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adopted from Mumbengegwi 1995:64

The increase in primary enrolment required that the number of teachers also increase. The initial focus of teacher education was quantitative expansion without consideration of quality. The government introduced the Zimbabwe Integrated teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) in 1981 funded by United Nation Children’s Education Fund (UNICEF). This model has been adopted nationwide to train teachers in Zimbabwe (Zvobgo 1998).

#### 2.6.1 Post Independence Teacher Education

When Zimbabwe attained political independence in 1980 massive expansion of the primary education sector called for more qualified teachers. The conventional system of education could not satisfy the ever increasing demand for qualified teachers. This led to the development of a new teacher training programme known as the Zimbabwe
Integrated National Teacher Education course (ZINTEC) in 1981 (Chiwore: 1990). According to Chivore (1990: 80) the aims and objectives of this programme were:

- To meet the primary teacher shortage through an in-service type of teacher education
- To develop a teacher education system relevant to specific problems facing the Zimbabwe people in their everyday lives in the community.
- To develop a teacher education programme which is better placed in terms of better dissemination knowledge guided by socialism as a principle/ideology for Zimbabwe.
- To effect development change through teacher education whose practical operation must highlight learning by doing—thus effecting theory with practice to develop a professional teacher with skills needed in the appropriate teaching techniques and capable of providing active learning experiences to pupils for example the concept of education with production
- To develop an all round primary teacher with positive attitudes and values that would promote meaningful involvement in community development.

According to Ncube (1983) ZINTEC could be defined as a teacher education programme born out of a war situation. It was born out of the assumption that the traditional approaches were unable to meet the current needs of supplying adequate qualified teachers for the school system and that teacher trainee participated in community activities would change their attitudes. According to Ncube (1983) this teacher would be a total knowledge disseminator, total knowledge discoverer and developer. This teacher becomes a social worker, a community worker as well as a political and economic worker.
Hence the programme ensured that the student teachers would alleviate teacher shortage in Zimbabwe especially in the rural areas. This student teacher would participate in developmental programmes of the community and in the process develop a critical/rational approach to problems of the school and the community (Udo Bude 1983). The structure of the programme implementation induced three phases. Phase one was 16 weeks of theory work in college, Phase two 3 years of teaching practice and phase 3 of 16 weeks of theory in college. During the first 16 weeks the students were involved in;

- Face to face contact with lecturers
- Introduced to professional foundations namely philosophy of education, sociology of education and psychology of education
- Introduced to applied Education
- Introduced to Practical subjects.

In the second phase students would be in the teaching field and would do the following.

- Full-time teaching practice
- Continue to study theory of education through distance education modules
- Attend holiday vacation courses as a continuation of face to face support
- Attend weekend seminars or lecturers

The last 16 weeks involved the following activities.

- Residential study of theories and relate these to the field experiences.
- Written examinations and certification of the student.

Each college could enrol three intakes of students per year with approximating 200 students per intake. The current teacher education programme has been modelled
around the ZINTEC model and the current model uses the 2-5-2 model. All the
teachers colleges are operating in a semi open and distance learning model using the
2-5-2 model in which students spend two terms in college doing theory, five terms in
field on teaching practice and two terms in college to complete the course being
exposed to more theory and writing final examination (Mapolisa:2013).

2.6.2 Current situation in teacher education

Teachers are trained in eight government teacher primary colleges and three private
colleges. The teachers graduate with a Diploma in Education. This is a three year
programme in which students are resident in college for theory for two terms and go
for teaching practice for five (5) terms then come for another two terms for theory.
The model is known as the 2-5-2 model. Entry requirements to train as a teacher
considers five ordinary level passes with a C grade and mathematics and English are
compulsory subjects to pass (Zvobgo 1998).

The teachers colleges are associate members of the Department of Teacher Education
of the University of Zimbabwe. The Department of Teacher Education coordinates
and monitors their curricula and assessment systems for quality. The department of
education offers external examination services to colleges through external
assessment. This associate scheme according to Chivore (1994) meant that the entry
qualifications, general regulations, curriculum and certificates are awarded to
successful candidate by the University of Zimbabwe. According to Nziramasanga
(1999) the current teacher education system has quality challenges that need to be
addressed. Through this research it is hoped some of these challenges will be
investigated and a possible solutions can be found.
2.7 The Teacher Education Curriculum and its Implications on Quality

The quality of a teacher education system is determined by the quality of its curriculum Bandhana (2011). To determine the quality of a teacher education curriculum we depend on theories of curriculum development as well as the content of that curriculum. But what is a curriculum and of what importance is it? Various scholars have defined the curriculum in different ways. On one hand the curriculum is considered as interaction or plans and on the other as what is actually done in the education system. According to Urebvu (1999) a curriculum refers to all the activities as far as possible educational ends and objectives. Steves et al (1975) defines a curriculum as a plan for providing learning opportunities to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives for an identifiable population. Tanner and Tanner (1980) defines a curriculum as the planned and guided learning experiences and intended outcomes, formulated through systematic reconstruction of knowledge and experience under an institution for the learner’s continuous growth in personal and social competence. However a more comprehensive definition relevant to this study was given by Has (1975) who defined a curriculum as all the experiences the individual goes through in a programme of education whose purpose is to achieve broad goals and related objectives that is theory and research as well as past and present professional practice. The definitions given above reflect that in theory the focus is in the subjects to be learnt by the learners and the curriculum involves what is planned and what is learnt by the students. The curriculum will also embrace all that is done in an institution to equip students with lifelong learning skills.
In the area of curriculum development is critical curriculum development is very important. Curriculum development involves all the ways in which training organisation plan and guide learning. The process involves:-

- Identifying learning needs and the training needed to meet the needs.
- Planning the training carefully so that learning will take place
- Implementation the training programme
- Evaluation of the training programme

Bandhana (2011) observed that the principles governing curriculum development in teacher education do not have much research having been done. However questions of how comprehensive a curriculum is and what is the most important components of teacher education curriculum remain unanswered questions. How much time and which areas to be included are the unanswered questions (Bandhana 2011).

There are various ways in which the curriculum is organized. Gatawa (1999) identified the following

- The subject based approach
- The child-centered approach
- The competency based approach
- The integrated approach

Bandhana (2011) identified six different types of curriculum organisation in teacher education these are:

- Social content based curriculum
- Psychological content based curriculum
- Vocational work based curriculum
- Disciplinary work based curriculum
- Integrated or inter-disciplinary content based curriculum
These approaches demonstrate the variations found in the curricula present in various institutions. In teacher education in Sub-Saharan Africa, Stuart (1999), Lewin and Stuart (2003) identified the following components as appearing in most teacher education curricula.

- Subject content based on the primary school curriculum.
- Pedagogic content knowledge focusing on teaching methods and assessment methods for various subject areas.
- Professional studies which involve how children learn their cognitive, psychomotor, affective and social development takes place and its relevance to teaching and learning.
- Teaching practice provides opportunities to practice teaching in a school under supervision with support from mentors.

According to Lewin (2004) pre-service programmes also incorporate other programme for personal, social and leadership development among trainee teachers. Most teacher education programmes prepare student teachers to teach across the primary school curriculum (Lewin 2000). In Sub-Saharan Africa languages, mathematics and science form the core subjects.

2.7.1 The Zimbabwean Teacher Education Curriculum

According to the DTE Handbook (2012) all teachers colleges who are associate institutions of the University of Zimbabwe have autonomy to develop, review and seek approval of new curricula and courses of study. However the department of teacher education (DTE) specifies the general structure of the teacher education curriculum, for the primary teachers, training colleges, the four syllabuses namely syllabus A, syllabus B, syllabus C and syllabus D (DTE Handbook 2012).
Syllabus A is the professional studies syllabus. It consists of such areas as

- General classroom practice
- Theories of teaching
- Classroom arrangement
- Public service regulations
- Conditions of service

Syllabus B is also a professional studies syllabus and focuses on

- Subject content
- Subject methodology
- Assessment, monitoring and evaluation
- Scheming and planning
- Peer and microteaching

Syllabus C is a professional studies syllabus but provides opportunities for student teachers to do action and research. According to the DTE handbook (2012) it allows students to explore, reflect, resolve and report on classroom based teaching and learning strategies. This includes teaching practice. Another syllabus is professional studies syllabus D. It consists of newly introduced subjects such as

- Health and life skills education
- Information communication technologies
- National and strategic studies (NASS)

An analysis of the college syllabuses shows that syllabus A aims to equip student teachers with knowledge skills, attitudes and values appropriate to effective curricula implementation in Zimbabwe. Students should be imaginative, resourceful, reflective and self-reliant. The content focuses on preparation for teaching, classroom
management, teaching methodology, educational media and technology and assessment procedures. The topics vary from one college to another but there are common areas. Syllabus B focuses on theory of education. Its aim is to make students aware of factors that control and influence human behaviour in teaching and learning. Hence it equips students with knowledge in the areas of psychology of education, sociology of education and curriculum studies.

The content includes psychology of education with emphasis on child development, cognitive social, emotional, moral and personality development. Other areas include theories of learning and inclusive education. Other sections are sociology of education, psychology of education, philosophy of education, school and its organisation and inequalities in education.

In terms of weighty of final assessment student teachers

- Professional studies syllabus A (PSA) has a weighty of 25% (30% coursework 70% examination).
- Professional studies syllabus B (PSB) has weighty of (35%).
- Professional studies syllabus C has an overall weighty of (25%).
- Professional syllabus D
- Professional studies have a weighty of (15%).

Candidates must pass all components of the teacher education programme. The teacher education curriculum to a large extent is influenced by what is taught in the primary school curriculum. However there are other areas that prepare student teacher for classroom teaching.
2.8 Quality Monitoring in Teachers’ Colleges in Zimbabwe

Teacher education institutions are suppose to operate within the context of the national teacher education policies (Chivore; 1994). However under the scheme of association teachers colleges are autonomous tertiary institutions. They develop their own curriculum at departmental level. The syllabi are approved by the college academic board of the college composed of heads of departments. The syllabi are forwarded to the Department of Teacher Education for final approval. According to Chivore (2011) the Department of Teacher education ensures high quality for the teacher education curriculum by ensuring that experienced educationists are involved in the design, implementation and evaluation of the teacher education curricula i.e. college lecturers, DTE lecturers and external assessors. External assessors scrutinise college syllabi as specialists in the specific specialist areas make comments and approve the syllabi (DTE Handbook 2013). In relation to assessment and certification DTE is involved in the whole assessment process. Final examination papers are produced by the College Academic Board (CAB) for scrutiny. These draft papers are sent to DTE for final approval to ensure quality. After writing examinations are marked and moderated by the college lecturers and the DTE team led by a chief examiner moderate the assessments done by the colleges and write reports (Chivore;1994). DTE is also involved in external assessment of students on teaching practice. For final grade the three grades of the college are taken into consideration and the two grades by the school are disregarded. DTE external assessors sample selected students who are awarded distinctions (80% pass) and fail students (Less than 50% pass). The moderation exercise will determine the final grade for the student. The students’ results are ratified by the examinations board of DTE and the Senate of
the University of Zimbabwe (Chivore; 1994) these are some of the procedures followed during quality monitoring in teacher education in Zimbabwe.

2.9 Quality Challenges in Teacher Education

The quality of teachers produced by teacher education systems has been criticised. The main criticism has been poor quality of teachers are being produced. This is a worldwide problem but varies from country to country. Poor quality in teacher education has been found in the curriculum, the quality of candidates and teacher educators, quality of teaching and learning approaches as well as availability of resource (Darling-Hammond 2000, Akyeampong 2003, Lewin 2004).

The teacher education curriculum has been criticised as being narrow in scope and not meeting the needs of schools and society. What is taught to student teachers does not adequately equip them to become effective teachers. According to Dilshad (2010) there is over emphasis on theory at the expense of practice and there is also imbalance between general and professional courses. Delaney (1995) found out that teacher education programmes were failing to impart important skills such as classroom management and skills in management of children with special needs. Hence in most cases the curricula is considered to be irrelevant and fragmented and outdated. A number of problems have been identified by researchers in relation to deficiencies in teacher training experienced in developing countries.

Stuart and Tatoo (2000) identified the following deficiencies in the teacher education curricula

- Lack of common curricula
• Vague objectives
• Lack of consensus on essential knowledge, skills and competencies teachers should be equipped with.
• Learning materials are grounded in cultures of developed countries especially for African countries.
• Ineffective teaching practice

In Africa Stuart and Lewin (2004) studied teacher education programmes in Sub-Saharan Africa and identified the following problems:

• Poorly equipped laboratories
• Lack of financial support for teaching practice
• Lack of relevant textbooks
• Dilapidated infrastructure and lack of maintenance

Unless teacher education institutions are well resourced, quality will remain a pipe dream. These problems raised by Lewin (op cit) will be discussed in detail below:

The problem of poor infrastructure is a problem prevalent in most educational institutions in Africa. Studies by Lewin (2004), Akyeampong (2003), identified that most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa had poor physical facilities and infrastructure had suffered neglect (Lewin 2004). The laboratories and libraries were impoverished and small. The classrooms did not have visual aids or instructional storage facilities. The laboratories were poorly equipped and small and served all practical subjects in the colleges such as physics, chemistry and biology that means one laboratory for all subjects (Akyeampong 2003).
The college population of an average of 500 students was using one library that could only accommodate fifty students at any given time and the libraries were stocked with denoted books which were old and outdated. The impoverished state of the facilities compromises lecturer effectiveness and demotivates them. Teacher education institutions are not well funded and lack of resources to support teaching and learning. They are failing to buy the required learning equipment and materials to support students learning (Lewin 2004).

Recruitment of teacher trainees was facing the challenge of attracting high quality candidates. Students without adequate qualifications were being accepted to train as teachers in some countries due to low number of applicants to join teacher training (Akyeampong 2003). In some countries top government officials bring candidates to be enrolled for training although they might not meet the set criteria. Lewin (2004) found out that although the academic background of most entrants was weak and they generally had low grades in the medium of instruction which is English.

Another challenge facing teacher education is recruitment of inexperienced and under qualified lecturers. Lewin (2004) discovered that there was absence of policies for recruitment and career development. Most lecturers were high school or primary school teachers promoted from the classroom (Akyeampong 2003).

Lecturer quality is another challenge facing teacher education institutions. In some countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, the principal is exclusively responsible for recruitment of lecturers and under qualified lecturers find their way into teacher education and quality is adversely affected. The new lecturers will be not be
knowledgeable of how teach student teachers how to teach. The teaching method which was found dominant was the lecture method and there was little or no evidence of student-centred teaching methods being used. Students were found hardly being involved in active learning (Akyeampong 2003). Under qualified staff and poor teaching methods are some of the factors compromising quality in teacher education institutions. Most of these newly appointed lecturers are recruited from high schools and do not have experience in teaching in the primary school. These educators are expected to educate primary school teachers. These lecturers are appointed and work without proper orientation. Dilshad (2010) found lack of in-service training and supervision as major factors affecting teacher educator quality and effectiveness. Teacher educators do not seriously do research and evaluation of their programmes. Rao and Rao (2005) calls for a new of recruitment procedures for lecturers as well as improved supervision.

The teacher educators are said to be using antiquated methods of teaching. According to Akyeampong and Ampiah et al (2012) pedagogy in teacher education in Africa is dominated by the transmission model. Students are regarded as ‘empty vessels’ with little or no knowledge of teaching and they need to be filled in with new knowledge. There is lack of relevant books especially those that fit the context of Africa hence the theories taught are irrelevant to developing nations. Research findings recommend acquisition of information communication technology skills which seem not to be emphasised in teacher education curriculum (Rao and Rao 2005).

Unethical practices are serious problem in teacher colleges. It affects students and lecturers recruitment. In Zimbabwe research studies by Zindi (1994) and Nyabadza and Mutendera (2014) found sexual harassment as a problem in teachers colleges in
Zimbabwe. According to Nyabadza and Mutendera (2014) it is a source of stress among female students. Zindi (1994) defined sexual harassment as an act of seeking sexual favours by male lecturers to female students. He emphasized that in Zimbabwe it is perpetrated by men. Nyabadza and Mutendera (2014) found out that some male lecturers and ask for sexual favours in return for favourable marks and those who resist are victimised for turning down the request and are being awarded low marks during assignment marking. Zindi (1994) also found out that leakages of examination papers was linked sexual relationships between female students and male lecturers. The sexual harassment had negative consequences on the credibility of the teacher training programmes and their examination system. Zindi (op cit) observed that there was no policy available to protect students from sexual harassment by lecturers and some principals were also found to be involved in this practice as a result the victims were not protected.

Other problems identified in literature affecting quality in teacher education institutions include unclear goals, fragmented curriculum, lack of relevant courses on offer and the low status of teachers in the community (Dilshad 2010). There is need to address these challenges if the quality of teacher education is to be improved.

In Africa the status of the teaching profession has been diminished. The salaries are low, the working conditions poor, hence performing students opt for other profession with better working conditions and higher salaries (Akyeampong 2000, Lewin 2004). In the USA the major factor affecting teacher quality are low admissions requirements (Liston and Delaney 1995). These situations create quality challenges in terms of candidates that are enrolled in teachers colleges to train as teachers. The quality
challenges identified by literature will guide me while I am evaluating teacher education programme in Zimbabwe and check if such problems are impacting on teacher quality.

2.10 Methodological Challenges in Teacher Education Research

At this juncture it is critical to review methodologies used in teacher education research in teacher education and how it impacts on teacher quality data. According to Harris and Sass (2008) researches on teacher education have faced methodological challenges in determining effects of teacher education on teacher quality. The methodological challenges arise from the complexity of the teaching and learning process, these include:

- Inability of the researchers to measure effects of variables such as school and student characteristics not controlled.
- Inability to directly link teacher education to student achievement
- Inability to directly measure effects of teacher education on teacher actions in the classroom.
- Inability to measure the effects of unobserved teacher characteristics on student achievement in the classroom.

Other difficulties in researching on teacher preparation arise from failure to track the performance of graduates after graduation. It is an exercise on which it is expensive and laborious exercise. Another challenge is in ability to control variable related to teaching and learning in the classroom. Goe (2011) identified the variables which are difficult to control as:

- School climate and culture
- Student attitude towards learning
- School leadership and support
- Parental and community support
- The curriculum and how it is aligned to student
- School physical facilities and the school environment

A single study cannot address the methodological challenges raised above. Gain-Score methods have been used to measure the relationship between teacher education and student achievement. Their weaknesses are failure to control student characteristics. These methods rely on observable student characteristics but fail to consider unobserved characteristics such as motivation and creativity. Earlier researchers in the area of teacher education measured teacher productivity using the production function. This is when researchers measure student achievement in relation to teacher training using cross-sectional data. The major weakness is its inability to link teacher productivity to specific teacher actions (Hanushek 2001).

More recently there has been use of longitudinal administrative data to determine effectiveness of teacher education programmes on student outcomes. This approach is difficult to use in Africa or Zimbabwe due to unavailability of teacher and student data performance data.

In addition to the above mentioned challenges, the teacher education institutions have diverse programmes with different standards for teaching and admission. In this research I am going to gather data on quality of inputs, processes and outcomes using interviews, document analysis and self-reports by the students and lecturers. To avoid generalising, a multiple case study, design study, teacher education institutions will be used to carry out this research to focus on the unique cases.
2.11 Defining Teacher Quality

Teacher quality is a critical aspect to be considered during teacher training. Teacher education institutions need to be able to say what it is they call teacher quality and how are they ensuring they have produced high quality teachers. Goe (2002) suggested a framework for teaching quality which can be used to measure teacher quality. The framework consists of four categories when looking at teacher quality.

These are:

- Inputs include teacher qualifications and teacher characteristics
- Processes are made up of teacher practices
- Outcomes include elements of teacher effectiveness
The first stand of the framework gives teacher qualifications as indicators of teacher quality. The teacher brings qualifications to the classroom as a resource. This is paper qualification and it indicates the courses done by the teacher and the areas of specialisation. This means qualifications are used as indicators of teacher quality. This indicator has been widely used in many countries by governments and institutions to recruit staff and rank them. In the USA teacher quality has been linked with the idea of a highly qualified teacher through the NCLB act (Darling-Hammond 2000, Gore 2007). The elements that make up the qualifications include coursework, grades, subject matter, standardised test scores, experience certificates, credentials and participation in professional development. The advantages of looking at quality using this dimension are that documents will enable recruiters to predict the teacher’s
potential effectiveness in the classroom. However, a teacher might appear to be of high quality on paper but might perform so badly on the job.

Another category is that of teacher characteristics. According to Goe (2007), this is where teacher quality is based on teacher characteristics including attributes and attitudes and personality. The advantages of looking at teacher characteristics are that it provides another reliable dimension of looking at teacher quality.

Another category includes teacher practices as an element determining teacher quality. In this category, teacher’s classroom practices are examined and linked to student learning outcomes. Teacher quality is then determined by what the teacher actually does in the classroom with the children. This involves the instructional and classroom management practices and how the teachers interact with the children and how the children actually perform. The advantages of this approach to defining teacher quality are that it focuses on what actually happens in the classroom in which the teachers interact with the children. The major limitation of this approach to defining teacher quality is that classroom activities are complex activities which cannot easily be measured.

The whole process of evaluating teachers in the classroom is difficult, time consuming, expensive and complicated. The school contexts vary from urban to rural, farm schools, high density schools and mine schools. There are also wealthy and poor schools. There are schools with high teacher pupil ratios while others have very low teacher pupil ratios. Such variations in context make it difficult for researchers to control variables and research on such practices. Teachers use a variety of teaching
methods which can vary every other day hence objective evaluation cannot be based on one or two teaching methods observed. Another disadvantage is that researchers examining teaching practices cannot control other variables to children’s learning such as classroom climate or distractions that prevent students from listening. Using this approach it is difficult to research and measure teacher quality. (Harris and Sass 2008)

Another category of teacher quality is teacher effectiveness. This involves measuring pupils’ learning. In developed countries like the USA standardised test are used to measure teacher quality. It is based on how much pupils have learnt. Teachers are considered to be of high quality when their students achieve highly in standardized tests. However, teacher quality has also been linked to teacher effectiveness. Shulman (1978) identified ways of measuring teacher effectives such as:

- Characteristics deduced from a theory such as psychological or sociological theory.
- Characteristics determined by pupils who evaluate teachers.
- Characteristics as defined by specialists in the domain of evaluation such as school inspections and directors.
- Characteristics determined from the functional analysis of the teacher. There is use of observation, surveys these will guide evaluation of teacher’s effectiveness.
- Characteristics derived from rate analysis of the teacher. The various and expectations of the leaders will be the base of identifying the characteristics of an effective teacher.
• Characteristics derived from descriptive research include observed characteristics in the population of teachers of an effective teacher.

• Empirical research uses questionnaires and observations scales to test for specific criteria. The evaluators results of pupils conduct will guidance on the characteristics of that teacher.

• Research can also determine the degree to which certain characteristics of trainee teachers is a predictor of teacher effectiveness in the future. These characteristics include training experience and the marks awarded these are used to predict certain characteristics that can be linked to teacher quality.

Teacher quality is highlighted in literature as a critical factor in educational quality and student achievement (Fuller 1986, Darling–Hammond 2000, Cockran-Smith 2003). The critical features of teacher quality are:

1. Academic qualification
2. Academic knowledge
3. Pedagogical knowledge
4. Good classroom practices
5. Teacher characteristics

These elements will be discussed below in detail.

Teacher qualifications are considered as a very important factor in determining teacher quality. Teachers are educated and will attain a certificate, diploma or degree in education. Teaching is considered to be one of the most important elements for successful and effective classroom teaching (Goe 2007). Several researchers have confirmed this assertion. Rice (2003) found out that teacher qualifications were
positively correlated to student achievement although the results were not consistent across grades and subjects. Rice (op cit) found out that master’s degrees contribute more to student achievement than undergraduate degrees. Darling–Hammond (2000) also found teacher qualifications as positively correlated to student achievement. In America, the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) (2001) law actually specified that a high quality teacher should have a degree (Brow, Morehead and Smith 2008). Different countries have different qualification requirements which they consider as high quality. Questions have been raised by other researchers on the validity of using attainment qualifications as a measure of high quality. The question raised is, does mere attainment of a qualification guarantee that one is a high quality teacher? However, from the researches that has been carried out shows that, some researchers have produced contrary results, majority confirm that teacher qualifications are a key variable of teacher quality. In this research, qualifications of lecturers and entry qualifications to the teacher education programme will be used to evaluate quality in initial teacher education programme.

Another key element of teacher quality is academic knowledge. Literature confirms that the teacher’s subject matter knowledge is a critical element of teacher quality and directly influences student’s achievement (Bath 2002, Ingersoll 2003, Darling-Hammond and Bransford 2005). A teacher who has not mastered the subject matter is considered to be of low quality (Cochran – Smith and Zeichner 2005) confirmed in their research that the subject matter knowledge is positively correlated to student achievement. According to Goldhaber and Brewer (1997) students gain more from teacher with a major in mathematics. Academic knowledge is a very important factor in measuring teacher quality. The main question which cannot be answered is how
much of the subject matter should a quality teacher possess? Teacher content knowledge is an important factor to consider when evaluating the quality of a teacher. The quality of a teacher is determined by the amount of content knowledge he or she possesses. Hence teacher’s quality can be evaluated using teacher’s content knowledge.

Pedagogical knowledge is also a critical element of teacher quality. A quality teacher has the ability to present learning materials to students and facilitate learning among students. Researchers in the area of pedagogical knowledge and student achievement are scarce. This area is difficult to research on due to a number of variables to be considered when researching. Pedagogy is complicated to research on because there are a wide variety of topics that contribute to pedagogical knowledge such as educational psychology, educational sociology, and professional studies ad theories of learning. It is difficult to separate the effect of any one of these (Wilson et al 2001). Researchers have however found students taught by certified teacher in mathematics scored higher in standardised tests than students taught by uncertified teachers. Wilson et al (2001) also found out that secondary school teachers with no pedagogical preparation were limited in their ability to engage students productively. There is lack of specific research linking a teaching method to student achievement although there is general agreement that teacher pedagogical knowledge contributes to effective learning and is assumed to be an important factor of teacher quality. Pedagogical knowledge of the teacher is a key determinant of teacher quality to be considered in this research.

Teacher classroom actions are considered as measures of teacher quality. The teaching and learning process is quite complex and hence difficult to research on. Research conducted in this area employ use of self reports however these have been
found to be unreliable and invalid. A research by Looney (2005) in this area found out that middle school teachers’ practices impacted positively on student achievement. However another research by Gallaghef (2005) identified areas such as of lesson planning, classroom management, special needs education, information communication technology in education and knowledge of the subject as did not related to student achievement. However other researches by MaCaffrey, Hamilton, Stecher, Kleen Bulliari and Robyn (2001), Schater and Thum (2000) confirmed that classroom practices contribute significantly to student achievement. This research will consider classroom practices as critical in determining teacher quality in Zimbabwe.

According to Ali (2009) teacher characteristics are significantly related to student achievement. Teacher characteristics are a very important indicator of teacher quality. Teacher characteristics influence the processes of teaching and learning in the classroom hence is related to student achievement. The professional attributes are commitment, innovativeness, reflective, supportive and constructive, ethical and effective communication as well as good interpersonal skills (Department of Education and Training 2004). According to Maundu (1986) teacher attributes and attitudes impact on students’ achievement. Teacher characteristic can be defined as qualities that can be measured with tests or other academic or professional records. (Kosgei et al 2013). Teacher characteristics are the qualities of teachers, that are viewed as personal or experiential (Aston 1996). Ali (2009) found out that there is positive correlation between teacher characteristics and student achievement. Hence teacher characteristics influence teaching and learning in the classroom (Adeyemi 2005). Teacher characteristics include qualifications, experience, attitudes and
personality. However Goe (2007) identified the basis upon which teacher characteristics can be derived and measured. These will be explained below.

Goe (2007:11) identified sources of teacher characteristics as follows:

- Characteristics can be deduced from a theory such as psychological or sociological educational theories and these specify the qualities of an effective teacher.
- Characteristics are also determined by pupils after the pupils have evaluated the teachers.
- Characteristics are defined by educational specialists who define the effective teacher from their past or current experiences on the job and from their own theories.
- Characteristics are derived from the functional analysis of the teacher. From observations, surveys and theories functional analysis of the teacher is made and characteristics of an effective or high quality teacher can be made biased on various sources of data.
- Characteristics are derived from a role analysis. A set of norms and expectations about teachers can provide a basis for formulating certain characteristics of a high quality teacher.
- Characteristics are derived from descriptive research on the teacher population. The study of an existing population of teachers can provide characteristics of outstanding teachers who will provide a basis for determining characteristics of high quality teachers.
- Empirical research on teacher characteristics use. The use of observation scales and questionnaires to tested against specific criteria for example the
performance of the pupils. These can form be a basis for identifying teacher characteristics.

- The characteristics of a teacher can be used a basis for measuring teacher quality. The various dimensions given by Goe (2007) provide a framework for evaluating teacher quality. Below I will discuss characteristics obtained from literature on characteristics of high quality teachers.

There are several characteristics which can make a teacher effective or ineffective. Teacher effectiveness is an indicator of quality. The characteristics of an effective teacher can be categorized as rapport characteristics, knowledge and creativity characteristics as well as organisation and preparation characteristics (Chireshe 2011). Research on qualities of effective teachers has been carried out in many countries. Drawing examples from Australia, the research by Ramsden 2003, and the USA a research by Brown (2004) these studies identified a number of teacher characteristics that contributes to student achievement and are an indicator of effective teachers. Effective teachers are associated with high quality teachers. The characteristics of effective teachers include friendliness, involving learners, fairness, good lesson delivery, motivator of learners and enjoying one’s work (Chireshe 2011). Chireshe (2011) also identified rapport characteristics of effective teachers. These include being patient, tolerant, approachable, and sensitive to pupils needs, considers the level of development of learners and understands children’s problems. Another category of attributes were related to fairness. The teacher will be unbiased and impartial. The teacher offers constructive criticism to the learners and comments on work marked shows the strength and weaknesses of the learner.
Chireshe (op cit) also identified the delivery characteristics of an effective teacher. These include encouraging pupil-centred learning; group work promotes pupil participation and gives tie to pupils to ask questions. The teacher who explains the learning concepts very well and involves learners in effective teacher presentations is considered an effective teacher. Chireshe (op cit) compared in effective teacher to an ineffective teacher. The ineffective teacher spoon feeds the learners, avoids student questions, uses meaningless words and does not mark children’s work. All the characteristics identified can be used to measure teacher quality.

Other characteristics are related to knowledge and creativity, competency and expert knowledge are some of the characteristics related to teacher knowledge. Innovativeness and resourcefulness are linked to creativity. Chireshe (2011) identified other characteristics related to organisation and preparation attributes. These are good lesson planning, punctuality, good understanding of the curriculum and syllabuses good organizational skills and hardworking. Teacher characteristics influence the performance of students.

2.12 Understanding Teacher Education Quality

A number of approaches have been given by professionals to determine characteristics of a high quality teacher education. The approaches include the expert censuses approach, the quality indicators approach, the research based approach and the professional consensus model. These will be discussed in detail below.

The expert consensus approach involves experts in teacher education is reaching a consensus on the quality indicators and using them to judge the quality of a teacher education programme (Imig and Imig 2010). Another researcher Goodlad (1990)
presented nineteen belief statements about high quality teacher education. Some of the indicators of a high quality teacher education programmes involves selection of candidates on the basis of their commitment to moral, ethical and enculturation responsibilities. Another approach by Darling-Hammond (1996) is the quality indicators approach. After researchers had examined teacher preparation programmes certain characteristics were indentified. According to Darling-Hammond (1996) a high quality teacher preparation programme has the following characteristics.

- Shared and clear understanding of good teaching.
- Lectures have practice and performance standards for the programme and the individual lecturers.
- The curriculum focuses on child and adolescent development, learning theories and other related theories like the motivation and cognition.
- Extensive teaching experience.
- A focus on the context of practice
- Shared beliefs between lectures and school teachers.
- Multiple instructional strategies given to student teachers (mentors).

Another approach is the research-based approach to defining high quality teacher education. These are evidence based determinants of high quality teacher education. This approach was as a result of the efforts of the American Educational Research Association (AERA) and the National Academy of Education Committee on Teacher Education (NAECTE) who examined teacher education programmes in the USA in relation to quality. The research based approach has two levels of implementation in teacher education. There is the basis level and the general level of teacher education. According to Toom (2010) the basic level involves mastery of teaching techniques.
This involves acquisition of practical skills and fundamental knowledge covering the instructional process, subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Another level is the general level which focuses on sustained development in the teacher’s work. Thus involves reflection, thinking and discussions based on research. Through research results teacher education can be guided on how it can be implemented. Another aspect that comes into play is the research-based teaching. University teaching involves lecturers who are experts and they can only develop by being involved in research. Research-based teacher education is an approach of organising themes of the teacher education programme. According to Zeichner (1983) the research based approach is based on the assumption that knowledge is dynamic and subject to change. The idea is to integrate theory and practice during the training period.

The other approach used in the professional consensus model which relies on the system of standards and criteria to determine the quality of teacher preparation. This approach asserts that the knowledge of the subject matter is critical in determining quality as well as the pedagogical content knowledge and the candidates should demonstrate that they can work with pupils, communities in ways that show their depositing as professional teacher. This model embraces the NCATE standard and the Intestate New Assistance and support construction (INTASC) standards. The professional consensus model has been used to set licensing requirements for teacher candidates in the USA (Imig and Imig 2010).

Pre-service teacher education has been found to impact on teacher education candidate in a big way (Darling-Hammond 2000, Iredale 1996). Teacher preparation is considered to directly impact on students achievement in the classroom (Darling-
Hammond and Youngs 2002). In the USA between 22% and 17% of the students learning is linked to the quality of teacher preparation. The quality of teacher education programme and the quality of experiences of teacher education candidates impacts greatly on the teacher education outcomes. The quality of a teacher education programme impact on the quality of the graduates to be produced by that system.

Defining teacher education quality is difficult. Different people define it differently hence there is no common definition. Quality is dynamic and highly contextualised hence it is subject to change from time to time (Calderhead 2001). It is necessary to refer to the definition of teacher education before explain further issues of teacher education quality. Teacher education is a system, in which professional development of teachers is organized, managed, monitored and sustained. However according to Imam (2011) teacher education involves all the policies and procedures designed to equip teacher candidate with knowledge, skills and disposition required to effectively teach. From the definitions cited above it is clear that a quality teacher education programme has the main purpose of equipping prospective teacher, with knowledge, to ensure high quality preparation the questions raised by Wilson et al (2002) raised the following question.

i) What kind of subject matter preparation and how much of it do prospective teachers need?

ii) What kind of pedagogical preparation and how much of it do prospective teachers need?

iii) What kind of pedagogical content knowledge and how much of it do prospective teacher need?
iv) What kinds, timing and amount of clinical training best equips prospective teachers for classroom practice?

The above questions can assist programme designers and programme implementers in ensuring quality teachers are produced by a teacher education programme.

Shulman (1986) indentified the forms of knowledge a quality teacher should possess. These are:

- Content knowledge in the subject they teach
- General pedagogical knowledge
- Curriculum knowledge
- Knowledge of educational context
- Knowledge of educational ends, purpose, value and their philosophical and historical grounds
- Knowledge, skills and disposition to work with children of diverse cultural, social and linguistic backgrounds
- Knowledge and attitude that support political and social justice.
- Knowledge and skills on how to use technology in the curriculum.

The forms of knowledge given by Shulman (op cit) are used as a measure of quality of student teachers and what they should know after going through a teacher education programme. These will be explained in detail below.

Shulman (1987) for identified types of knowledge in teacher education and seven categories were identified. These are content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts and knowledge
of educational values. These will be explained in detail below and their relevance to teacher education.

Content knowledge is the knowledge teachers should have of the subject they teach. This knowledge excludes knowledge of the curriculum (Shulman 1987). Knowledge of the subject matter is important for the teaching and teachers with adequate content are dynamic and enthusiastic about the subject they teach. The teacher can evaluate the materials related to the subject including textbooks, soft copies and learning and teaching aids (McNamara 1991). The teachers with this kind of knowledge can tackle the difficult aspects of the subject confidently hence this content knowledge is important in decision making and teaching relevant and up-to-date facts. The teacher understanding of the subject is deeper this means the teacher should be more interested in advancing oneself in a specific subject area. However the teacher need to internally reflect on the teaching experience hence get in-depth understanding of a given subject area (McNamara 1991). Hence content knowledge is very important for the teachers since it affects how the teacher plans, execute the lesson, ask questions, explains to the students, assess the students work and give relevant comments (Shulman 1984). Teachers with adequate content are considered to be of high quality teachers. Student teachers need to be equipped with this form of knowledge.

Another form of knowledge is the general pedagogical knowledge. General pedagogical knowledge refers to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisations that are important (Ball et al n d). McIntyre (1993) identified ten elements of good teaching. These elements include a teacher creating a conducive environment of learning in the classroom, creating an atmosphere that is
relaxed and children are able to learn effectively. While the environment is conducive the teacher will ensure there is discipline among the learners hence the teacher have skills in classroom management. The lesson delivery is an important skill and includes motivation of learners are able to understand what is being taught by giving clear explanations in which students are able to grasp the concepts(Ball n d). The teacher will be clear on the aims and objectives of the content to be taught as well as being clear of the related learning outcomes. The teacher during the teaching process will identify the learner challenges and help them individually. The teacher should enable learners to set personal objectives and develop good interpersonal relationships with the students or learners. McIntyre (op cit) also highlights that the teacher with general pedagogical knowledge is able to plan his or her work with the class in mind. This teacher will focus on all the stages of the lesson and how learners will benefit. The teacher possesses good questioning skills and is able to provide meaningful answers to questions raised by the learners. The teacher is able to build trust and confidence among the learners. The pedagogical practices are influenced by the teacher’s possession of general pedagogical knowledge.

Another form of knowledge is pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Shulman defines pedagogical content knowledge as the knowledge of how to teach within a defined subject area. The focus is on a defined subject area. Ball et al (n d) considered it as the “special amalgam of content and pedagogy” needed for teaching a subject. Shulman (1987) defined pedagogical content knowledge as the most useful focus of presentation of ideas which makes the learning of specific topics easy. According to Shulman (1987) pedagogical content knowledge for teaching is a blend of both content and pedagogy specific to a subject area, as well as understanding how certain
topics, problem and aspects are organized and adaptive to diverse interest and abilities of learners and how they are taught. There are various ways in which PCK is conceptualised by various scholars. Some scholars have criticised PCK as not ignoring the teachers understanding of the emotional and social lines of the students.

Another form of knowledge to be discussed is knowledge of the curriculum. This is knowledge of what should be taught to a particular group of pupils. It requires understanding the children’s potential, national syllabuses, school planning and lesson presentation. The teacher is aware of other internal or external examination syllabuses. The teacher is according to Neary (2002) should be able to ask the following question

- Who are the learners?
- What resources are available?
- What is on offer to the learners?
- What should the learners learn?
- What are the appropriate assessment or evaluation methods?
- What teaching methods are relevant to this group
- How is the curriculum structured?

Ball et al (2008) identified the curriculum as part of pedagogical content knowledge. The curriculum has several definitions that given in literature. According to Kerr (1968) all learning which is planned and guided by the school whether carried out in groups or individually is a curriculum. However Taylor (1968) refers to a curriculum as being made up of content, teaching methods and purposes. Hence the teacher should be familiar with both the intended curriculum and the implemented curriculum. Teaching is part of the curriculum. The teacher has knowledge of the
content to be taught, methods to be used and the knowledge to be acquired by the learners. The teacher needs to be clear of the different approaches to the curriculum to ensure its successful implementation.

Another form of knowledge is knowledge of learners and their characteristics. One of the key goals of a teacher is to facilitate and support learning. It is important for the teacher to understand how his or her learners learn and what conditions support and maximise their learning potential (Scott and Scott 2000). Teaching should be structured as to promote learning. Teachers teach learners with diverse social political and cultural background. These should be taken into consideration in understanding the learners and their characteristics.

The teacher needs to know how learners learn and the styles and approaches to learning they use hence the teacher can structure the learning activities accordingly. The learner needs impact on the goals of institution and learner characteristics such as the physical and mental capabilities and learning styles need to be identified and considered. Malcom Knowles (1970) differentiated adult learners from children learners. According to Knowles (op cit) adult learners are self-directing while children are dependent on the teacher. Adult learners have a richer past experience and are ready to learn hence they have intrinsic motivation to learn yet child learners need intrinsic motivation to learn. These need to be taken into consideration by a teacher in an educational institution. Are you teaching adult learners or child learners?

Another form of knowledge is knowledge if educational context. The context is defined by Mercer (2000) as the physical social and cultural settings of the school.
Thus involves students working in groups the classrooms the school and where it is located the local communities and culture as well as the financing of the school. Institutions should provide equal opportunities for students to learn. The factors such as cultural background fairly structure, parents, the commonly impact on the educational opportunities of the learners. The learning environment can be enhanced and the social background should be taken into consideration to ensure effective learning takes place. The teacher should be equipped will the knowledge on the various social-cultural and institution or environmental factors that impact on learning.

Another form of knowledge is knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values and their philosophy and historical grounds. The teacher should be have knowledge of the learning outcomes of an educational programme. There need to be clear about the long term and short term educational goals of the institution or the curriculum. The values embedded in that curriculum are part of the knowledge the teacher should possess. According to Thungu et al (2008) a teacher should be clear about the aim, goals and objectives of the curriculum. The curriculum is philosophical on historical as well the philosophical foundation of that particular society. The teacher should be knowledgeable of the historical and philosophical foundation. Teaching involves impacting knowledge skills and values as well as attitudes to the learners. The educational policies are subject to political influence. The teacher should be knowledgeable of the power influences and political structures in that society. According to Thungu et al (2008) religious bodies, employer’s political organisations, professional organisations have interest in education and influence learning as well as
the ideologies promoted. The Ministry of Education or Ministry of Higher Education has legal authority the teacher should be equipped with.

The forms of knowledge have been subject to criticism. Banks Leach and Moon (1999) raised the issues of definition some of which need expansion such as curriculum knowledge and pedagogical context knowledge. There is little explanation of how the seven knowledge types could be linked up or implemented. The types of knowledge do not promote lifelong learning and do not make reference to it.

2.13 Teaching Practice and its Implications on Teacher Education Quality

Shulz (2005) identified two approaches of teaching practice namely the traditional approach and the critical inquiry approach. The traditional approach emphasises the acquisition of technical knowledge. This involves implementing the tried and tested methods of teaching. On the other hand the other approach is the critical inquiry approach. The critical inquiry approach allows provides testing new ideas. It provides opportunities for growth and learning. This means the critical inquiry approach, promotes lifelong learning.

Feiman–Nemser (1990) provided conceptions that guide and influence implementation of teaching practice. He identified form of orientation teaching practice could be moulded around. These are the academic orientation, practical orientation, technical orientation and personal orientation.

Academic orientation emphases mastery of subject matter to be taught as well as subject matter pedagogy which is learnt at college. According to Buchberger et al
the academic orientation can be defined as celebrating the academic disciplines. Quality of the teacher is based on teacher subject expertise. Another form of orientation is the practical orientation. According to Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) practical orientation focuses much on practical knowledge. The knowledge base of teaching includes craft and technique. The teacher is viewed as a craftsperson. The argument within the practical orientation is that the teacher needs practical wisdom and scientific knowledge. This belief attaches importance to classroom experience and apprenticeship models of teacher training. Another type of teaching practice is the technical orientation.

Technical orientation is derived from the behaviourist model of teaching and learning. According to Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) this orientation emphasizes the knowledge and behavioural skills. Teachers are a result of micro and peer teaching as well as the competency based approaches to teacher education. Teaching practice should enhance acquisition of teacher competencies. Another type of orientation is the personal orientation. Personal orientation emphasizes development of interpersonal skills. Interpersonal relationships should be cultivated between the student teacher and other teachers, children and the community. In this orientation teaching practice involves creating a conducive environment for teaching and learning for the children as well as getting support from other experienced teachers as well as the school community. In this orientation teacher development encourages development of interpersonal relationships, conducive environment in teaching and learning as well as discovery and experimentation. The last type of orientation is the critical inquiry. Critical inquiry orientation is another aspect that can guide teaching practice. Teacher
educators are developed to become critical thinkers and reflective change agents (Calderhead and Shorrock 1997).

The various forms of orientation provide various perspectives to teaching practice and hence. Hence they influence the teaching practice curriculum. How teaching practice is designed and implemented as well as how students are assessed is dependent on the orientation used by a teacher education institution. This also applies to monitoring and implementation of teaching practices. Quality is a factor of the type of orientation prevalent in that institution. In Zimbabwe it is critical that institution are aware of the types of orientation influencing implementation of teaching practice.

2.13.1 Characteristics of high quality teaching practice

Eyers (2004) identified characteristics of a high quality teaching practice programme. This program has the following:

- Integrates theoretical knowledge and professional practice.
- Well established partnership between the teacher education institution and the schools
- Clearly critical stages of development of the acquired knowledge and skills, attributes and disposition for the student teacher.
- Assessment is against clearly delineated objective, roles and expectations of student activity and performance.
- An assessment of resources needs and implementation is flexible and promotes innovation.
- Assess student teachers understanding and approach the teacher’s role, and capacity to learn from the future experience.
2.13.2 Critical aspects influencing quality of teaching practice

Quality teaching practice is based on critical skills the teacher education programme should develop in student teachers. The skills are instructional design, classroom management, managing learning activities and assessment of learning (Smith and Zeichner 2005). Instructional design involves analysis, planning, development, implementation and evaluation of a lesson (Modelnda 2003). It involves analysis of learner characteristics and tasks to be learnt and identifying learner entry skills, designing objectives as well as the instructional activities. Managing learning activities involve discipline and control as well as other activities such as classroom procedures, pupil behaviour monitoring, dealing with misbehaviour and keeping student busy. Managing class activities in an essential learning outcome hence student teachers need to demonstrate competence in these areas.

Assessment of pupil performance is also an important aspect of teaching practice. Feedback from learners will assist in determining achievement of instructional objectives. Student teachers are expected to demonstrate their assessment skills and their ability to support pupil learning in order to evaluate and monitor learner progress. Hence pupil assessment will assist student teachers identify difficulties and misconceptions in the instructional design and process to plan for the next lesson. The teaching practice programme should be comprehensive enough to cover these different aspects which are critical pillars of practical teaching. Critical elements for a high quality teaching practice are micro-teaching and mentoring. These will be discussed below.
2.14 Microteaching

In Zimbabwe during teacher training students go for micro-teaching during their first session which is two terms (6 months) in college. According to Igwe et al (2013) micro-teaching is an essential part of the teacher education curriculum. Micro-teaching has its origins at Stanford University in the USA in the early 1960s. The aim was to enhance linking of theory and practice in the training of teacher and develop desirable skills and competencies. As a result micro-teaching is extensively used in teaching practices during initial teacher training in most countries. Teaching practice can only be of quality of the students are involved in the initial stage of micro teaching.

2.14.1 Definitions of Micro-teaching

A number of definitions has been given of what microteaching is? I will discuss some of these below. Kieviet (1972) defined micro-teaching as a method of training teachers where explicit use of principles of feedback is used. Olivero (1971) defined it as a scaled down sample of actual teaching in a short time involving a few students. Deviney (1970) referred to micro-teaching as a method to help teachers gain skills introduced by educators. Ajayi (2006) refers to micro-teaching as a system of controlled practices that allows students to concentrate on specific teaching behaviours. A more comprehensive definition was given by Yusuf (2006) who referred to micro-teaching as a training technique which allows the student teachers an opportunity to master the teaching skills in a controlled environment before the actual class teaching. Yet Kanstantives (2012) defined micro-teaching as a method of training teaches that facilitate acquisition of teaching skills. All these definitions have something in common. They refer to micro-teaching as involving student teachers.
learning or mastering teaching skills. It involves preparation before going for teaching practice and it is done on a small scale and there is feedback to the student teachers and to the lecturers.

2.14.2 Purpose and Nature of Micro-teaching

Micro-teaching is a technique in teacher education which provides an opportunity to marry theory with practice (Celik 2001). This is an opportunity for trainee teachers to focus on specific teaching behaviour and to practice various teaching skills under controlled conditions.

Ryan and Deviney (1970) outlined the major purposes of micro-teaching as:-

- To provide an opportunity for real classroom teaching
- To simplify the complexities of classroom teaching by limiting time, number of students and amount of content.
- Microteaching facilitates mastering of teaching skills, techniques, methods and syllabus interpretation.
- To develop the skill of student teachers breakdown content into teachable units.

According to Ajibola (2013) before student teachers are thrown into the normal classroom to do practical teaching they do microteaching which equips them with teaching skills. Student teachers are introduced to practical teaching through micro-teaching. According to Allen and Ryan (1969) micro-teaching has the following characteristics

- Teaching is a crucial activity.
• Student teachers allowed to practice teaching activities under controlled circumstances.
• There is reduced time, number of pupils and limited teaching activities

Allen and Ryan (op cit) specified the activities related to micro-teaching. Student teachers are expected to teach for period of between 5-10 minutes. The number of students is 10 students and not a large class of over 40 pupils. The teaching time is a fraction of a lesson of 40 minutes hence it is between 5-10 minutes and only one skill at a time is practiced hence a few objectives from the content are selected for practicing the relevant skill. Hence Ajibola (2013) asserts that there is reduction in length of time, class size, task to be accomplished and the skill to be developed. As a result student teacher requires specific teaching skills.

Ajibola (2013) identified three phases of micro-teaching from Saxena and Khajariichee (2012) and Ambili (2013) and these are the acquisition phase, skill acquisition phase and transfer phase. During the acquisition student teachers are oriented to the new skills through lectures, discussions, tutorials and demonstrations of the skills by the expert. They learn about the conditions suitable for the use of a certain skill and the main purpose of using that skill.

The second phase is the acquisition phase. In this phase the student teacher is involved in the planning of the micro-lesson based on the demonstrations, discussions and tutorials. The student then practices the skills through the micro-teaching cycle until they master the skill. Here the video recording takes place and the student teacher gets feedback from lecturers and fellow student teachers as well as the self.
The feedback is meant to ensure behavioural change in the desired direction. The last phase is the transfer phase. After the mastery phase of each staff the student teacher is expected to integrate all these skills and transfer to actual classroom teaching. The major objective of micro-teaching is to enable student teachers to acquire new teaching skills under a controlled environment. Hence micro-teaching will enable student teachers acquire teaching skills which will enable them gain confidence on teaching (Ajibola 2013). According to Louw (1981) micro-teaching involves mastery of teaching skills and the means executing principles to facilitate acquisition of these skills are:

- Limited number of pupils to ensure the atmosphere is less threatening to the novice teacher
- A number of persons allow their novice to manage discipline problems.

Micro-teaching is widely used in other fields of study such as nursing and health studies, mathematics and languages (Fayaz, 2011). This is because of the various advantages associated with the method. Some of its advantages and disadvantages will be discussed below.

According to Slabbert (2013) trainee teachers put themselves in the position of pupils whom they are going to teach later. As Ajibola (2013) put it student teachers ability to act as pupils, ensure teachers are, sources of feedback as well as planners of a micro lesson and video operators. This means if video recording or audio recording can be used to record the micro-teaching lesson to give feedback to student teachers and lecturers. Student teachers interact with the equipment and get experience in recording using video cameras or audio equipment.
Another advantage of micro-teaching is mastery of teaching skills, teaching methods and curriculum selection Slabbert (2013). Student teachers are able to master one skill at a time. The students are allowed to choose the skills after mastering it they can go on to try the next one until they are able to integrate all the teaching skills. Another advantage is that the student teacher can analyse and evaluate his or her own teaching or performance. Where the video recording has been done the student teacher can view and see his or her own performance this enables them to criticise themselves (Slabbert 2013).

Another advantage is that the student teacher can learn to teach without focusing on pupil learning. During teaching practice there is focus on learning of the trainee teacher a well as pupil learning. During microteaching the focus is on acquiring of skills by the student teacher. According to Achuonge (2007) the student teacher can acquire vital teaching skills in the absence of an examination environment. This allows the student to concentrate on acquiring specific teaching skills. According to Afolabi (2010) teachers identify, select and practice teaching skills in a conducive and supportive environment hence expose student teachers to enriching teaching experience.

Microteaching provides student teachers with a controlled learning environment than an real school classroom teaching. Normal school classroom teaching can be intimidating especially to those who are doing it for the first time. Hence Ajibola (2013) believes micro-teaching exposes the student teachers to a laboratory training environment that will simplify the teaching complexities. The laboratory situations
provide opportunities to student teachers to practice teaching skills until they have mastered them before going into real classroom teaching (Slabbert 2013).

Micro-teaching provides opportunities for self-evaluation on the part of the student teacher. According to Ajibola (2013) feedback is from various sources the supervisor, colleagues and the records provided by the audio and video recordings. The student is able to view the video, and listen to the audio and evaluate him or herself. As a result the student teacher is able to develop professionally. Ajibade (2009) identified one of the advantages of micro teaching as that of facilitating data collection for improving teaching practice, assessment. Micro-teaching compliments teaching practice and provide student teachers with teaching situations that they might face in the actual teaching classroom. A well planned and implemented micro-teaching programming will promote professional development of trainee teachers. Adequate time for microteaching will ensure high quality teaching practice is experienced by the student teachers.

One of the most important critical advantages of micro-teaching is that it gives an opportunity to student teachers to practice teaching with a small number of students. Hence microteaching will ensure the student teachers gains confidence in a controlled environment under guidance from lecturers and fellow students. Micro-teaching provides teaching experiences that will enable the student teacher to link theory with practice (Bell 2007).

Micro-teaching will enhance the quality of teaching practice and the credibility of a teacher training programme. Micro-teaching allows the student teachers to try out
various skills, teaching use learning materials and teaching methods before applying them out in a real classroom situation. Micro-teaching allows student teachers to gain experience with the learning materials teaching methods and application of various skills. Microteaching brings change in student teachers in relation to their teaching (Ajibola 2013). The complex activities of teaching are broken down and simplified in a microteaching set up at the same time the students are expected to realities and demands of teaching profession. Student teachers have an opportunity to overcome nervousness and bad mannerisms that can affect their performance (Achuonye, 2007). Student teachers can plan a cession deliver lesson and evaluate it during micro-teaching which is not possible during teaching practical. (Afolabi, 2010).

Micro-teaching has its merits it has its own demerits to be discussed below. Deviney (1970) identified a number of limitations associated with micro teaching. The cost of videotaping equipment is high and videotaping is time consuming. The hardware and the software such as digital cameras and video recorder, closed circulation television (CCTV) are expensive to buy and maintain (Ajibola 2013). Educational institutions do not have financial resources to buy these. The third world countries experience erratic electrical supply and the power cuts will affect the effectiveness recording during micro-teaching.

The controlled environment is like a laboratory with recording equipment operating. This creates an artificial environment and the student teacher can be affected by the presence of the gadgets or other people. Students might pretend and at the same time they can exhibit false behaviours not related to how they behave in a real life situation (Kumar 2008).
Student teachers and lecturers do not take seriously the micro-teaching exercise. Some students do not bother to attend them some lecturers observe a few students teach and the teaching period can be very short as little as one week. They also might teach large groups of students such a situation will render micro-teaching ineffective or useless. Criticism by fellow students might not be genuine some student teachers will not to make constructive comments about their friends, mates or colleagues performance during a micro-lesson. The students believe that their comments might influence assessment by the lecturer. Hence they do not highlight the errors made during micro lesson presentation (Ajibola 2013).

Slabbert (2013) identified stages applied in presentation of a micro-lesson. The following should be done:-

- The aims of the micro teaching session should be known by the student teachers
- The pedagogical and didactic foundation of the teaching skills should be highlighted and demonstrated for the student teachers.
- There should be use of models to illustrate the teaching skills. The students get verbal description, written explanations and the related demonstration of the teaching skill.
- Student teachers observe and record the modelled skill.
- Student teachers are assisted in the evaluation of the teaching skills using an evaluation instrument.
- The student teacher is allowed to prepare for micro teaching as an individual as a group.
There are various aspects of teaching practice to be considered as the students do micro lessons. When the student should prepare a micro-lesson with a teaching skill in mind. The following aspects are important in a micro-lesson.

- Feedback is essential in micro-teaching and this feedback comes from various sources.
- Recording of the micro-lesson
- Using evaluation forms to assess teaching
- The observation of the lesson
- The fellow student teachers feedback is critical
- The student himself/herself and personal assessment

The micro-teaching skills can be divided into three categories namely pre-instructional skill, instrumental skills and post-instructional skills (Ajibola 2013). The pre-instructional skills include planning skills such as writing of objectives and the lesson plan and the various stages of the lesson presentation. The instructional skills are communication, explanation, demonstrates and illustration as well as motivation skills, classroom management and use of instructional materials. The last stage the post instructional skills is the feedback and evaluation stage.

2.15 The Critical Role of Mentoring in Teacher Education Quality

According to Mtika (2008) mentoring is one of the most effective ways of developing student teachers quality during teacher training. Mentoring has been found to be an effective way of developing professionals and it has been applied in the areas of medicine, building and the military with effectiveness (Strong and Baron 2004). Mentoring has been found to be effective in training teachers especially when it is
used in school-based approaches. Mentoring makes certain assumptions in the professional development of teachers. The assumptions are:

- The mentor is expected to impact practical knowledge to the mentee.
- Professional development of a student teacher as the responsibility of the mentor.
- Mentors are expected to provide professional and social support to the student teacher.
- The mentor inducts the student teacher in the school culture.
- Mentors should be competent in subject matter, knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and is sensitive to the needs of the student teacher.

Mentoring has been defined differently by different scholars. According to Cafferella (1992) mentoring is an intense caring relationship in which persons with more experienced work with persons with less experience to promote professional and personal development. On the other hand Shea (2002) defined mentoring as a process involving the mentor and mentee working together to discover and develop the mentee’s latent abilities and to ensure the mentee acquires knowledge and skills related to teaching. Another definition by Rogers (2007) considers mentoring as being a career friend, someone who knows the ropes in an organisation and can act as a sponsor and patron. Without an agreed or shared common definitions mentoring will be difficult to evaluate. Mentoring should be considered as a process not an event and should promote professional development of trainee teachers. According to Maphalala (2013) mentoring is crucial in the growth and development of a student teacher and the mentor has the greatest influence on the professional development of the student teacher.
Colley (2002) studied literature on mentoring and discovered that mentoring makes a number of assumptions about the teacher role in the whole process. The classroom teacher is expected to transfer their knowledge of practice to the student teacher. Mentors are expected to provide the support to the student teacher in terms of lesson preparation, pupil learning, instructional skills, reflection skills and classroom management skills.

The mentor is expected to induct the student teachers into the school community.

To ensure mentoring is effective there is need to establish formal mentoring programme (Gordon 2005). Studies on mentoring have found mentoring to be beneficial to the mentee. A study by Ismail (2001) found out that mentors influence mentee’s performance but there is need for appropriate training for the mentors.

2.15.1 Qualities of a good mentor

Student teachers look up to their mentors for support both professionally and socially (Maphalala 2013). There are various criteria for selecting a mentor to ensure the mentoring programme is effective. Radford University (2012) gives criteria for selecting a good mentor as:

- Minimum of three years of successful classroom teaching experience.
- Has history of proficient and outstanding performance in teaching.
- Is committed to lifelong learning
- Possess skills and is effective in classroom management
- Understands the process of student teacher professional development
- Has effective interpersonal and collaborative skills
• Is willing to take the extra responsibility of developing and evaluating the student teacher.

According to Ames (2009) what mentors should know and be able to do is not commonly agreed on. Preparing mentors can differ based on the type of programme and the context. However mentors need targeted preparation and training (Feiman-Neuser 1998).

What are the roles of the mentor? According to the mentoring handbook (2012), the roles of the mentor include:-

• Orientation of the mentee to the school culture, facilities, staff and school policies.
• Prepare a work space and environment conducive for the student teacher.
• Introduce the student teacher to the real world of teaching.
• To help the student teacher be familiar with the class, the pupils and promote interaction between the trainee teacher and the pupils.
• Plan together the instructional activities
• Meet regularly with the student teacher to evaluate the teaching activities.
• Assist the student teacher in the planning and teaching activities

According to Lam and Fung (2001) mentors who are good should help support student teachers take responsibility for their own teaching, facilitate learning and promote professional development. Hence a mentor is expected to guide the student teacher to acquiring knowledge of practice. Institutions need to organize mentoring workshops to improve school based teaching experiences for student teachers. A study in South Africa by Maphalala (2012) found that most mentors do not feel confident in performing their roles and they are not sure of what they will be doing. He noted the University of South Africa (UNISA) did provide a handbook to guide
mentors on how mentors should assist the student teacher during teaching practice. The issues raised by Maphalala (op cit) affect the effectiveness of teaching practice.

2.15.2 The Advantages of Mentoring

Mentoring is beneficial to student teachers mostly but it can be beneficial to mentors, institutions and, other students. (Morris 2009). This could be as a result of a successful mentoring experience of the student teacher but no research has supported this assertion. A number of researchers have reported positive benefits derived by student teachers from the mentoring process. According to Lindgren (2003) what the student teachers remembered as positive experiences during the mentoring process was that they were given opportunities to analyse different situations by an experienced teacher and this helped them develop as professionals of the tutors. This research found out that mentoring helped mentees to understand own teaching practices and at the same time mentoring contributed to increased confidence.

Mentors and mentees benefit as co-learners. The mentoring process is a two way process and it’s a vehicle for personal and professional growth (Morris 2009). Lindgren (2003) identified other benefits of mentoring as increased reflection on the part of the student teacher. The student teacher will be more careful of what he/she is actually doing from planning, lesson delivery to assessment. Microteaching promotes that will ensure the students gain confidence when they are exposed to real classroom teaching. Student teachers can try out various activities and methods of teaching during microteaching. The benefits of microteaching are increased productivity, improved communication, increased morale among staff and reduced staff turnover.
2.15.3 Mentoring Models

There are various models available in literature on mentoring. Skagen (2004) identified three models of mentoring namely the apprenticeship model, the competency model and the reflecting model. These will be explained below.

The apprenticeship model involves the master modelling the work of a novice. The novice is expected to imitate to what the master will be doing. In this case the student teacher’s expected to imitate the experienced teacher. The student teacher acquires knowledge first by observing the experienced teacher. The experienced teacher or mentor demonstrates the correct execution of the teaching task. The student is expected to copy and practice the demonstrated skills. The apprenticeship model is based on the assumption that expectations cannot be acquired through verbal communication but only through practice (Lave and Wenger 1991).

The major characteristics of an apprenticeship model as identified by Nielsen and Kvale (1999) are:

- The mentee learns by participation.
- Skills are acquired through the process of mastering new skills.

However the apprenticeship model has been criticized by scholars especially in relation to teaching. The shortcomings are according to Nielsen and Kvale (1999), Lam and Fung (2001)

- It produces traditional approaches to teaching and stifles innovations.
- The model relies on skills of observation and reflection yet these skills are effective if one is trained on how to use them.
• The model relies on competent professionals who are able to guide the novice. However some mentors have been found to be incompetent and ineffective hence the whole process of mentoring will be rendered useless.

• The model relies heavily on a good relationship between the mentor and the mentee, to ensure high quality experience during teaching practice. Poor rapport between mentors and mentees will negatively impact in the quality of the mentoring process.

The model tends to value practice at the expense of theory. Yet a quality teacher should possess both pedagogical and knowledge Shulman (1987). Hence teacher education should equip student teachers with both content knowledge and practical experience to provide high quality teachers.

Another model is the competency model. In this model learning involves acquisition of pre-defined competencies and coaching identified behaviours. Student teachers are attached to a mentor but are expected to acquire certain competencies through the mentoring process. This model assumes that all qualified teachers possess the required competencies the student is expected to acquire and that they can teach the student acquire these competencies. According to Clutterbuck (2013) competence refers to observations and measurable abilities to perform defined tasks. However the definition of competencies is not always agreed up o . Is it a matter of skills and applications does it include attitude and personality Clutterback (2013). These competencies include mentor competencies and mentee competencies. Johnson (2013) presented a model of mentor competencies.
Virtues of integrity, caring and prudence are critical elements in a mentoring process. Integrity ensures building trust in the mentoring relationship and caring involves demonstration of respect and empathy to the mentee. Prudence is demonstrated through wise decision making.

According to Johnson (2009) a mentor should have the requisite cognitive abilities. Cognitive abilities include sense of caring, dedication and experimentation and theoretical learning. These abilities are form intellectual ability. Emotional abilities are demonstrated through emotional self-awareness and receptivity. The relational abilities include ability to commensurate empathy, respect and compassion.

Other Competencies are specific skills, knowledge techniques the mentor can develop through training. The teaching competencies according to Johnson (2003) include
understanding of the learning processes and the developmental needs of mentees. Mentoring competencies include technical skills, problem-solving skills and understanding roles and responsibilities of being a mentor. Clutterbuck (2013) identified macro and micro competencies of the mentor. The macro competencies include identifying the learner’s needs, identifying the developmental needs and recognising the mentoring boundaries as well as establishing an environment conducive for learning. On the other hand micro competencies include building rapport, setting direction, communication modelling, professionalism and commitment to own learning.

Research studies on the competencies of mentees are scarce. Doresh and Playko (1995) identified strategies mentees can take to get most out of the mentoring process

- Taking initiative, developing trust with the mentor.
- Communicating with the mentor clearly
- Taking responsibility for own learning
- Being a good listener and ability to observe objectivity
- Asking questions and being resourceful
- Engaging in own critical self-reflection
- Trying out teaching skills and experimenting
- Appreciating the assistance from your mentor and institution

Another model is the reflective model. This model involves acquiring basic competencies in the teaching through meaningful reflection of one’s activities in the classroom. The student teacher reflects on his or her activities so that he or she can identify strengths and weaknesses and seek explanations for success or failure (Chakanyuka et al 2006). Early theories on reflective learning were developed by
John Dewey (1933) and these were later developed by people like Schon (1983, 2003).

According to Aitchison and Graham 2007:30

“We do not learn from experience. Experience has to be arrested, examined, analyzed, considered and negotiated in-order to shift it to knowledge”.

Hence reflective involves students explore their learning, reflection on how and what to plan for positive change hence this is what is referred to as critical reflection. Hence in the light of mentoring the student teachers critically reflecting on their mentoring experiences for this purpose of developing them professionally. Research confirmed that student teachers benefit from using critical reflection on their learning to teach. The stages of critical reflection according to Cottrell (2003) include: - Standing back, making sense of the experience repletion of the task, deeper h…. and weighing up. According to Schon (2003) the reflective process involves the experimentation of the reflected solution to the problem identified. The teacher as a reflective practitioner is an element of constructivist learning which falls in the modern approaches to learning.

2.15.4 Criticism of Mentoring

Although literature indicates that mentoring contributes positively to the professional development of student teachers it has its own weaknesses.

According to Rogers (2007) the weaknesses of mentoring include:-

- Prevalence of misunderstanding between the mentor and the mentee resulting in ineffective mentoring.
- The mentor or mentee may not like each other and this affects their relationship both professionally and socially
• When the mentor or mentee are involved in a mentoring relationship it is an obligation not out of desire if this is not the case then the mentoring process is bound to fail.
• The mentor might be not be trained or is inadequately trained or has little natural aptitude this renders the mentoring ineffectiveness.
• When there is no respect between the mentor and the mentee this can result in domineering or assigning too much work to the mentee hence there is no learning taking place.

More research needs to be carried out as the negative effects of mentoring and their effect on professional development of student teachers. These weaknesses need to be looked into to ensure effectiveness of the mentoring exercise.

2.16 Effective Teaching in Teacher Education

There is increased focus on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education (Delvin 2007). The development of information communication technologies has created globalised educational standards and the growing diverse student body requires university teacher to review the way they are teaching. Researchers have found the lecturers in teacher education institutions using the lecture method as the predominant method of teaching (Lewin 2004, Delvin 2010). According to Berthiaume (2009) Teacher education lecturers are left to develop their own understanding of teaching and learning on their own when they are appointed as lecturers from teaching positions.

Teacher education teaching has to be effective. What is effective teaching? There is no common definition of effective teaching (Evans and Abbott 1998). Defining
effective teaching is not possible without being clear of the purposes of teacher education teaching. Higher education’s main functions include teaching, and professional development. Others have considered teacher education institutions as centres of excellence where there is knowledge generation. Teaching is a critical component of teacher education including teaching how to teach. According to Feustermacher and Richardson (2000) effective teaching is more than teaching. It encompasses how something is taught in terms of appropriate content, methods, objectives and these should be grounded in shared conceptions. In defining effective teaching Acer 2006:9 had this to say:

Educational effectiveness for all students is crucially dependent on provision of quality teaching by competent teachers who are equipped with effective teaching strategies that work and the maintenance of high teaching standards via strategic professional development at all levels of schooling

Effective teaching could be referred to as that teaching which promotes achievement of student learning outcomes. Hence effective teaching is student-centred (Devin 2007). There are various dimensions of teaching effectiveness found in literature on teaching but gives conflicting views. Hopkins et al (1997) identified three categories of effective teaching. These are teaching effects and teaching artistry as well as effective teaching. Teaching effectiveness include both teaching skill and teaching behaviours of the teachers. Other elements are time management and promotion of independent learning. Effective teaching models are concerned with the type of environments that a teacher establishes as the classroom (Allan et al (2009). Teaching artistry includes the teacher creating conducive atmosphere for effective learning. Hativa, Barak and Simhi (2001) in Delvin and Samarawickrema (2010) also indentified elements of effective teaching and these are interest, clarity, organisation
and school climate. Kreber (2002) considers subject matter knowledge, motivation of students and how to make children understand concepts as well as how to overcome difficulties in learning as important elements of effective teaching.

Samarawickrema (2010) identified six major dimensions of effective teaching as value of the subject, motivating students, a comfortable learning atmosphere, organisation of the subject, effective communication and concern for student learning. A summative list of elements constituting effective teaching were given by Kemcher and McNaugh (2004) as follows-

- Teaching and curricular designing focusing satisfying students needs
- Thorough understanding of concepts by students
- Relevance of what is taught to real life situations.
- Interrogating student beliefs to manage misconceptions
- Engaging students in active learning
- A good lecturer- student relationship based on empathy
- Motivation of students through encouragement and activity based lessons
- The curricular and concepts and learning activities should ensure achievement of learning areas.
- Proper planning of lessons
- Assessment should be linked to the targeted learning outcomes

According to Mcleao and Reynolds (2007) effective teaching involves promoting high levels of intellectual; activity and creating a conducive environment for effective learning where teachers and students work productive. Aspects to be included are listed below:

- Sharing love of the subject with student
• To make the lessons taught stimulating and interesting
• To engage students at their level of understanding
• Show concern and respect of students
• Promotion of independent learning
• Improvisation and adaptation to new challenges
• Focus on student’s understanding of the students
• Use of valid and reliable assessment methods
• Use of relevant and teaching methods
• Giving high quality feedback (Ramsden 2003:86-87)

Ingvarson and Rowe (2007) consider good teaching as just one of the elements or ingredients of effective teaching. Lecturer should be very clear on the objectives to be achieved by the higher education institution or by that lesson. In an effort to ensure effective teaching standards have been developed in various countries, in the USA the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS (1987) was set up and they developed standards on effective teaching. They focus on what knowledge should possess and things they should be able to do. The teaching standards include:

• **Domain 1** Preparing the way for productive student learning. These involve the teachers understanding the students, ensure instructional resources are available and teachers have knowledge of the subject.

• **Domain 2** Involves establishing favourable learning environments. This involves engaging the students creating a conducive environment for teaching and learning.

• **Domain 3** The lecturers advancing student learning, ensuring students understand fundamental concepts and practicing skills such as inquiry.
• **Domain 4** It involves supporting teaching and learning. This involves supporting reflective practice. The external environment is linked to the learning process. Assessment is valid and reliable. Other evaluation bodies have developed their own criteria to ensure teaching in higher education is effective and of high quality.

According to Berthiaume (2007) developing an understanding of teaching and learning is not sufficient to become an effective teacher in higher education. One must develop understanding of the discipline specific teaching and learning. Various researches have been carried out by scholars such as Shulman (1986) and, Munby et al (2001) on the knowledge-bases of effective teaching. Others focused on disciplinary specific teaching Neumann (2001) and Donald (2002). In the area of knowledge bases the three aspects which are indicators of effective teaching are the teacher’s knowledge of teaching and personal beliefs about teaching and the goals relating to teaching.

On the subject discipline specific characteristics that indicate effective teaching are the socio-cultural characteristics and the epistemological structure of the discipline. It is important to note that the teachers’ personal epistemological beliefs about the nature of knowledge influences the way they teach and facilitate learning. (Berthraume 2007).

Effective teaching can only be determined by student learning. Sajjad (nd) quoted Thomas Angelo who observed that teaching without learning can be considered as ordinary talking. Research on teaching tend to focus on presentation of content and
ways of ensuring student learning and strategies that teachers can use in the classroom. Researchers have contradicted on the efficacy of the same teaching method. Sajjad (nd) observed that extensive research shows that students are the most qualified sources to report on lecturer performance. Many researchers have been done as student evaluation of teaching and the conclusion has been that student ratings are reliable, valid and unbiased (Murray 1994).

Effective teaching is that teaching in student learning is purposeful and beneficial (Centra 1993). Effective teaching is linked to the use of appropriate teaching methods. Various methods are used in teaching. One of the extensively used methods is the lecture method. It is relevant to discuss the lecture method because Lewin (2004) found out that it was the most extensively used method of teaching in teacher education. The lecture method is a tradition style of teaching that has been used extensively in colleges and universities. It is a word derived from the Medieval Latin word “lecture” meaning to read aloud. Lecturing can be defined as a method of teaching in which the instructor gives oral presentation of facts to learners and the learners take notes. (Brown 1997). Good and Merkel (1959) defined a lecture as a method of teaching by which an instructor gives an oral presentation of facts or principles to learners and learners take notes. A lecture is a talk or verbal presentation given by a lecturer Sajjad (2012). A lecture has the following features

- A lecturer sends verbal messages to learners
- The lecturer intents to provide a wide coverage of a given topic
- Students receive information of what the lecturer considers is important
- The lecturer may change the perceptions of students about a theory, increase students’ insight and stimulate students reading.
The lecture method can be effective. Sajjad (nd) gives the tips of ensuring lectures are effective and these are:

- Preparing material that is stimulating and thought provoking
- Excellent presentation of content
- Constant use of the questioning technique during the lecture
- Use of visual support material through preparation
- Getting feedback from structures on the effectiveness of the lecture method

The advantages of a lecture method are

- Students can get a proper perspective and orientation of a topic or subject
- Many facts can be presented in a short time in an impressive way
- The lecturer can stimulate interest among students being taught
- Greater attention can be secured and the word can have great impact on the learners

According to Brown (1977) the major weaknesses of the lecture method are that:

- It places the student in passive role and this hinders learning the lecturer.
- It promotes one-way communication this means the students’ problems and misunderstandings are not addressed.
- The method relies heavily on the content knowledge of the lecturer as well as the skills of researching, writing, organising and presenting the material
- The skills of problem solving and development of positive attitudes among students is absent in a lecture method.

To improve the quality of the lecturing method Makoni (2000) suggest the lecturer asks himself/herself for the following questions
• What has been previously taught and what are the students expected to know?

• What resources are available to students?

• How will the unit be assessed?

• What will be the main purpose of the lecturer?

Makoni (op cit) suggest that the lecturer should present information that will promote students to research further on their own

• The lecturer should demonstrate a problem-solving way of thinking.

• The lecturer should highlight the advantages and disadvantages of issues under discussion

The lecture method should ensure it promote high quality teaching and learning. Other methods of teaching can be useful in teacher education to improve teacher education teaching but these were not discussed in this study.

2.17 Quality learning in teacher education

According to Martin and Booth (1977) consider learning involving mastering of principles, understanding proofs, remembering factual information, acquiring methods, techniques, approaches and developing behaviours specific to situations. A number of questions can be asked in relation to learning. How can teachers ensure quality learning is taking place? Kilic (2010) refers to learning as a dynamic process during which individuals make internal adjustments and develop knowledge and skills. Hence to ensure effective learning, the learning itself should be the starting point. Learning as a process occurs in the mind hence individuals think before responding to stimuli. Baker et al (1996) defined learning as a process in which meaning is constructional by the learner as the learner interacts with and internalizes
subject matter. This is to ensure effective learning the learner should be actively involved in the learning process. Quality learning is an active purposeful learning where learners construct their own knowledge. Hence the student should be the focus of the whole learning process. There various approaches to learning to be discussed below.

2.17.1 Constructivist approach to learning

According to Fry et al (2010) constructivist theories have been used to explain how human beings learn. New experiences, understandings and information are built on existing structures and learning will not take place unless the schemes have changed. This means learning involves individual transformation (Biggs and Moore 1993).

Constructivism is a theory which asserts that knowledge of the world is constructed by us. Knowledge involves learner activity and is mentally constructed and is related to the action and experience of the learner. The learner is responsible for own learning (Jegede 1991). Various constructivist theories are used to explain how human beings learn. All the theories tend to focus on continuously building the schemata that hold knowledge. The new things learnt are assimilated and accommodated in the mental structures. Learning involves cognitive, affective, interpersonal and psychomotor and is a process of transformation (Biggs and Moore 1993). According to Fry et al (2010) constructivism considers that learning involves new experiences and new knowledge the learners already have and this is only possible if there is transformation and understanding. Various scholars are associated with the constructivist theory such as Piaget and Bruner in the 1950s and 1960s respectively.
This theory is associated with the work of Vygotsky a Russian psychologist in the 1970s developed the theory of social constructivism. The focus of learning is not on the individual but related to the social and cultural context. All constructivists agree that knowledge is constructed by the learner. According to Dewey (1916) education is not telling or being told but an active and constructive process. When a person gets ideas they process and modify these ideas and came up with their own ideas. Although we construct knowledge as subject to external influence, which is the experience of life and the world. Individuals need to reflect on their learning. Vygostky emphasized the role of social and cultural context in the process of learning. He realised what he referred to as zone of proximal development (ZPD) where individuals can understand by themselves as well as with the help of others, which is acknowledgment of the importance of teaching during the learning process. Social constructivism promotes active and experiential and structured learning.

Knowledge is experiential based and learners must use previous knowledge to interpret new experiences (Schon 1983). Learners level of new ideas based on their experiences of the world. According to Fry et al (2009) the connection between knowledge and experiences is relevant to teacher education since student teachers bring their own past experiences to the teacher education institution as former high school students or as untrained teachers. Student teachers bring varied attitudes, abilities to the teacher training institution that need to be transformed.

Learning is social. Although Piaget referred to the social element as important to learning Vygotsky (1978) brought in the importance of dialogue (Wells 1994) The knowledge individuals posses is important for productive dialogue. Social
constructivist, learning is not dependent on social interaction only but on the attitudes, emotions, values and actions of the individual. Hence individuals need to developed a holistic approach to teaching. In the context of teacher education new teachers tend to teach the way they were taught (Lortie 1975). Their previous life experiences need to be restructured to meet the demands of the new ideas to teaching being introduced to them.

2.17.2 Approaches to learning

Students approach learning in a variety of ways. Morton (1975) conducted a research study in which the conclusions of different approaches were observed. What students know and do will determine the quality of learning to be achieved. Entwistle (1994) categorised approaches to learning as deep, surface and strategic. The surface approach involves studying things without reflecting on the purpose. The surface approach to learning is characterised by isolated detail of what is being studied and the student memorise facts. According to Ditcher (2001) the surface approach focuses on discrete process of knowledge without attempting to integrate them. Hence the surface approach is characterised by the students intending to complete a task, memorise information and failure to link between new ideas and old ideas and the task is externally imposed. Prosser and Trigwell (1999) this approach gives the impression that learning can place yet it and be achieved through superficial levels of cognitive processing.

The deep approach involves the learner understanding the material. The students focus on the structure of the materials and attempts to reconstruct the relationships and the meaning. In the deep learning approach the student looks at underlying
meaning and structure of knowledge (Ditcher 2001). The student is concerned with understanding materials. The student also shows interest in the study material relating new ideas to previous knowledge and experience looking for patterns and underlying principles. The deep approach to learning is characterised by interaction to understand and seek meaning and students relate concepts to existing understanding and can distinguish new ideas from existing knowledge and critically evaluate it. Hence student gain meaning from what they are learning (Prosser and Trigwell 1999).

Briggs (1987) identified another approach to learning called the strategies approach, associated with assessment. According to Baker (1996) this approach is related to meeting assessment requirements and orderly work to perceived preference of lecturers. It is a consistent effort to studying ensuring that there are right conditions and materials for studying. The emphasis is on organising learning is to obtain high examination grades. According to Barker (1996) the students are driven primarily by the desire to meet the assessment requirements as their key objective. Quality learning is determined by the quality assessment and what the student does to get high marks. Lecturers need to know how students learn and the various approaches to learning to enable them assist student teachers during teacher training. Lecturers need to indentify the student teachers’ misconceptions about teaching and learning.

2.17.3 Experimental Learning and Reflection

In the constructivist perspective learning is called experimental learning. The theory was developed by Kolb (1984). Kolb (1984) offered on experimental learning cycle.
According to Kolb (1984) learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of experience. In the experiential learning model concrete experiences are the basis for observing and reflecting. These observations are processed into abstract concepts from which new implications for action can be drawn. The implications are tested and guide in creation of new experience. In the concrete stage the learner is actively experiencing activity by being actively involved in a laboratory session in field work. The learners are involved in new experiences, the second stage of reflective observation the student consciously reflects on his or her experience from different perspectives. Abstract conceptualisation is when the learner is presented with a theory or is conceptualising a theory. Learners form and reform and process new ideas and take ownership observed. The last stage called active experimentation is where the learners test the theory. The student makes
decisions and solves problem and test implications. The cycle can be entered at any point. The theory gives importance to experimentation activities such as field work and laboratory sessions (Jenkins 1997). In teacher education lecturers need to be aware of the learning styles and how these impact on the quality of learning experienced by the students. According to Fry (2009) experiential learning is based on the notion that understanding is not fixed or unchangeable hence it is continuous process.

Reflection is a key part in experimental learning. Boud (1985) developed a reflection process model to be explained below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiences</th>
<th>Reflective Process</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour</td>
<td>Return to experience</td>
<td>New perspectives of experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideas</td>
<td>Utilizing positive feelings and removing</td>
<td>Change in behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feelings</td>
<td>obstructive feelings</td>
<td>Readiness for applications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Re-evaluating experience</td>
<td>Commitment to action</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adopted from Baker 1996.114

Figure 4: The Reflection Model

Model 1 learning views the professional as an expert making all the decisions related to teaching and learning. Another model known as model 11 learning involves the practitioner having specialised knowledge and experience and works with a student to solve learning problems. The individual’s response to new experiences is determined by past experiences (Neary 2003). Hence there is no experience that occurs in isolation. From what happened before. The process of reflection increases the potential of learning as the individual reflects on past experiences and is able to learn new knowledge. Boud et al (1985) the first stage, return to experience involves describing the experience and recollecting what happened and what one did. The next stage attend to feelings involves noticing any positive or negative feelings. The next stage is re-evaluating the experience and the last stage is the learning stage. The reflective practices apply to both the teachers and the learners.

2.17.5 Learning Styles

Learning styles are important in ensuring learners learn. There are different learning styles for different learners. I will explain the learning styles given Kolb (1984). Wolf and Kolb (1984) identified different learning styles learners use. They consist of four elements, diversify, assimilating, converging and accommodating. According to Kolb (1984) the diverging style is dominated by concrete experiences and reflective observation. Situations are viewed from different points of view. The learning situations involves brainstorming, this diverging style promotes group work, listening and empathetic discussions.

The assimilating learning style involves abstract conceptualisation and reflective observation. The learning style involves putting information in a logical form. The
focus is not on people but on ideas and concepts. In formal learning the learners prefer reading and studying and have time to think things through. The converging style involves abstract conceptualisation and action experimentation. Learners engage in problem solving and find solutions to problems. Learners focus on technical tasks than social and interpersonal issues. The learners experiment with new ideas and work assignments in a laboratory. (Kolb 1984)

The accommodating learning style is dominated by concrete experience and active experimentation. Learners learn from ‘hands-on’ experiences. (Nieary 2007) They venture into new and challenging experiences. Problem-solving relies heavily on other people than the technical analysis. In formal learning situations learners prefer group work to do tasks. (Fry 2009). However research has found out that learning styles are shaped and influenced by other factors such as personality, job findings and adaptive competencies. Learners need to be encouraged to use wide range of learning styles and those involved in teaching should create opportunities for use of different learning styles and reflect on how they themselves as well as their students learn. Research in these areas is scarce in Africa and Zimbabwe. Learning styles of students have implications on quality of students in an institution.

2.18 Lecturers as a Factor in Teacher Education Quality

The term lecturer or teacher educator a term used in other countries refers to a teacher in higher education, teaching a specific course in a teacher education programme (European Commission 2013). However the peer learning activity (PLA) of the European Commission defined a teacher educator as all people who actively facilitate
the learning of student teachers whom they teach. For the purposes of this research lecturers are individuals who teach various courses in teacher education institutions.

Teachers are considered as one of the most important factors influencing student learning (Darling- Hammond 2000). Hence lecturers are important players in ensuring high quality teacher education. Employing high quality lecturers ensures high quality experiences for student teachers in teachers colleges so lecturers should ensure the quality experiences for student teachers. Little research exists on the impact of lecturers on quality of teacher preparation. According to OECD (2010) there is lack of extensive research on teacher education because of variations as a result of greater amount of autonomy being enjoyed by teacher education institutions. These institutions have developed their own teacher education programmes. Their varied curriculum makes it difficult to attain assessment and evaluation data covering many institutions. The Practicum and professional qualification standards differ as well. Where teacher education programmes are centrally controlled there is lack of comprehensive data on teacher preparation. Buchburger et al (2000) found out that very few lecturers have been trained to teach in tertiary institutions.

Learning is a collaborative process between the student and the lecturer. Lecturers are key players in ensuring high quality of teacher education is achieved. According European Union commission (2010) lecturers are role models and from them student teachers acquire teaching competences they would use in the classroom. That means lecturers can impact on the quality of the teacher education system through the quality of their student teachers.
Lecturers are employed to work in teacher’s colleges from different backgrounds and experience. According to a research by Lewin (2004) school teachers are promoted to become lecturers in a variety of ways in sub-Saharan Africa. Some are promoted without going through interviews while others apply and are interviewed for the job. The qualifications to be considered for the lecturing post vary from one country to another. In Zimbabwe to be appointed to become lecturer requires a degree or post-graduate degree although among lecturers in primary training colleges there are some lecturers without undergraduate or postgraduate qualification. According to the Caena (2012) in most countries there are no shared qualifications requirements into teacher education teaching.

2.18.1 Competences of lecturers

In most countries there is no common understanding of the role and competences of lecturers. However Snoek et al (2011) believes lecturers because of the influence they have on student learning they should be of high quality. Raising the quality of lecturers can also lead to the improvement of teacher education quality (Buchberger et al (2000). Snoek et al (2010: 12) had this to say:

the general consensus is that teachers are the most important in-school factor influencing the quality of their pupils learning, It seems appropriate to assume that teacher educators are an important factor influencing the quality of the learning of student teachers. The issue of the quality of teacher education then becomes an issue of paramount importance

According to Akiri and Ugborugbo (2009) lecturer competences in the teaching process is a multi-dimensional concept with a number of interrelated aspects such as knowledge sharing communication and other related activities. However, there are no commonly agreed professional competences of lecturers. The European Commission (2010) identified areas of expertise required by teacher educators. These include-
• pedagogy of educating student teachers
• knowledge of educational studies
• knowledge and practice in research
• professionalism and discipline
• Subject discipline and deductions knowledge.

Hence OECD and the European Union concuss that the lecturer competences in teacher education require are-

• Teaching student teachers competences on how to teach.
• knowledge of research
• transversal competences
• leadership competencies
• competencies in collaboration and networking

The European Union (op cit) identifies other areas that lecturers should have competences as:

• They need to be highly professional
• They should be life-long learners and expand their knowledge base.
• They should be needed to be dynamic and ensure teaching knowledge, skills and attitudes are up to date.
• They should possess high qualifications hence they need to staff develop themselves to ensure they have higher qualifications than those of the students they are teaching.
There are no formal courses to become a lecturer. The formal requirements are the qualifications required by the selection boards or institution. The Caena (2012) raises a number of questions in relative to lecturer qualification.

- Should a lecturer have prerequisite teaching qualifications?
- Should a lecturer have a masters degree
- Should all lecturers have PHDs?

Most countries have no specific qualification requirements for lecturers. Recruiters might prioritise experience or academic qualifications. Some countries have opted for the development of a quality framework for lecturers. Countries such as Sweden and Ireland have put in place minimum qualification requirements for lecturers in teacher education institutions (Caena 2012).

Lewin (2004) found out that the quality of lecturers was affected by lack of policies on recruitment of lecturers and absence of models to train lecturers. Students in teachers colleges are taught like secondary school pupils. This means many lecturers have the “banking” view of training that assume that the student teacher should acquire content knowledge and methods of teaching to be used in their teaching in the schools. Lewin (2004) also found out that where expose student-centred learning theories there are and demonstrated by the lecturers. According to Smith (2003) because of absence of training programmes for lecturers there is need to staff develop individual lecturers to meet their professional needs and prepare them for new developments in the area of teacher education.

**Evaluation of Lecturer Performance as a factor of Teaching Education Quality**
Literature on teaching point to the fact that the teacher is the most important factor influencing student achievement. (Darling-Hammond 2000, Muzenda 2013). Of all the factors influencing students academic performance, lecturer performance remains the most important aspect determining of student academic achievements (AL-Mutairi 2011). It is important to evaluate the performance of lecturers in tertiary institutions. Fox (nd) considers the main objective of evaluation as to maintain standards, identify weaknesses and improve the quality of the courses and the institutions as a whole. However, according to Curley (1994) the method used to assess professional performance has not been agreed upon and is subject to criticism. Gul (2010) concluded that what is very important in evaluation of lecturers is students’ perceptions. Institutions should know students’ opinions about how the lecturers are performing.

To evaluate lecturer performance it is important to know the lecturer competences required in the teaching process. It Arden and Crosby (2000) identified twelve roles of lecturers which could provide a base for measuring lecturer performance. This information is considered as provider, clinical teacher on the job role model, learning facilitator, mentor, student assessor, curriculum assessor, curriculum planer, course planer, resource developer and student guide producer. Akiri and Ugborugbo (2009) identified competences such as communication skills, subject matter expertise, lecturer attendance, teaching skills and lecturer attitude. These competences all be explained in detail as they tend to focus on the activities of teaching and learning. Again these competences can lay a basis for evaluation of lecturer performance. Akiri and Ugborugbo (op cit) observed that lecturer competences are multidimensional and
include a number of elements such as subject matter knowledge, teaching skills, attitude and attendance by the lecturers.

Akiri and Ugborugbo (2009) identified three dimensions that can be used to measure teacher knowledge namely content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and general knowledge. The ability of the teacher to teach effectively is dependent on the knowledge he or she possesses. Knowledge of the subject and how it is taught defines the way it is presented to the students. Carolyn et al (1985) concluded that one must know what one is teaching for teaching to be effective. How wide and low the subject matter should the lecturer possess before going in the field in to teach. Research on assessing the effects of subject matter on teacher effectiveness by Druva and Anderson 1983 showed that there was a close relationship between what teachers know and how they perform on the job. Other researchers have found no relationship between teacher knowledge and student achievement. A lecturer who possesses subjects matter knowledge does not make a good lecturer. There are other competences and skills required to be an outstanding lecturer.

The lecturers’ teaching skills can be measured on the bases of ability to transform and comprehended concepts to be imported to the lectures (Ganyaupfu 2013). A teacher should be clear about the educational outcomes of the topic to be taught including how subject matter is structured in the discipline (Shulman 1992). The knowledge of teaching skills as involves principles of classroom management, organisation, motivating students, retaining students’ attention, knowledge of learning theories and pedagogical theories. He further revealed the purposes of teaching
promote literacy skills and development as well as develop values and ultimately acquisition of new knowledge.

Another area of competence is the lecturer’s attitude. Chireshe (2011) reported that a number of students reporting on characteristics of effective lectures were caused and the point to the following characteristics friendships, helpful, human fairness and other characteristics. Research in education reveals that lecturer attitude is positively related to student’s achievement. Eggen and Kauchak (2001) found that the teacher’s positive attitude contributes to effective teaching and student achievement. The elements to be measured include caring enthusiasm, teaching efficacy, democratic practices, effective lesson delivery, constructive criticism and promotions of motivation. Chireshe (2011) identified attribution such as being friendly, patient, tolerant, approachable sentence in students needs humble gender sensitive, sociable and some of attributes of effective lecturers.

Student performance can be affected by lecturer absenteeism (Manlove and Elliot 1977). Researchers have confirmed a positive correlation between teacher attendance and student achievement. A research by Jacobs and Kritsonis (1997) found out that teachers who were constantly absent had their students performing badly. Chireshe (2012) identified absenteeism as an attribute of ineffective lecturers. Generally teachers who are constantly absent receive how performance ranking from students.

Lecturer evaluation done in most institution has been student evaluation of lecturers teaching performance. Evaluation is a process of obtaining data necessary for making a judgment about the worth of any educational institution (Nakpodia 2011). The
strength of an education system is dependent on the quality of its teachers. Hence in a
teacher college the trainers and the trainees should be of high quality. There should be
a method of monitoring the performance of lecturers as they do their work.

The common method of evaluating lecturer performance is seeking student evaluation
at end of every semester. According to Oraru (1983) students are the consumers of
teaching and they should be in a position to evaluate teaching by lecturers. Evaluation
of lecturer competences should include measurement of relevance of subject matter
communication skills, facilitating student learning and attending to student’s
individual needs. This puts student evaluation of teaching at the core of lecturer
performance evaluation. Other researchers hence argued that students are not in a
position to evaluate lecturer performance because they are not skilled in evaluating
and observing Costen et al (1971) include that the student ratings were reliable and
valid information on quality of teaching. Elliot (1996) carried out a long teaching
study on the validity and reliability of student evaluation of lecturers over a three year
period. He concluded that student evaluation provides a reliable index of the teacher’s
performance. One can identify the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher.

Ramsden (1977) identified the advantages of student evaluation as getting opinions of
students on the teaching done by the teacher. Student evaluation will ensure teachers
think about this teaching and promote students-lecturer interaction. However, others
have found student rating as dependent on whether the student is passing or failing.
According to Okoro (1991) sometimes students fill in on the form what they think the
teacher would like rather than how they feel about their performance. He further
highlight that some teachers will treat students with leniency so that they can get a
favourable rating of the end of the semester. Marsh (1988) identified other factors that affect the validity of student rating as:

- Higher are given to more challenging courses since they need more effort to accomplish.
- Purpose of rating can influence how students will evaluate the lecturer.
- The administration of the evaluation will determine how student evaluate the lecturer to be evaluated.

To ensure effectiveness of student rating of lecturers the following must be observe according to Nakpodia (2011) the following should be done:

- The purpose of evaluation should be disclosed to the students.
- Students should not write names on the evaluation form to avoid victimisation.
- Evaluated staff should not be present when students are rating the lectures.
- A large number of students should rate a lecturer. There are students who have been taught by a staff member. This will minimise “penalty error” or “generosity error” consulted by some students.
- The rating scale must be multi-dimensional with well defined variables to measure and these should be identifiable.

Research on student evaluation of lecturers tended to identify the following characteristics as indicates of lecturer effectiveness.

- Clear interpretation of abstract ideas and theories.
- Increases student interest in the subject.
- motivates students.
- Inspires confidence by knowledge of the subject.
• Gives new viewpoints and broadness students thinking
• Explanations will be clear and well understand.

Hence effective lecturers have a number of characteristics which are exhibited from time to time. These include knowledge and creativity attribute human relations attribute, fairness attributes and lesson delivery attributes (Chireshe 2012). Crawford and Brashow (1968) identified through knowledge of the content, well planned and organise lecturers energetic, enthusiastic as well as being friendly and willing to help students. Teachers need to create a good atmosphere for learning. Institutions need to establish lecturer performance evaluation systems. These could be based on peer evaluation or student evaluation or supervisor evaluation. Supervision is used for controlling, searching and inspecting teacher performance. Lecturer supervision is sometimes applied in institution to improve efficiency and effectiveness. In countries like Turkey and the United Kingdom (UK) lecturer supervisions is based on regulation.

2.19 Professionalism as a Factor of Teacher Education Quality

Professionalism has become a common phenomenon in developed countries as well as in some developing countries. Accreditation bodies have been established in the USA, Europe, and Australia and in some African countries such as South Africa and Kenya. Accreditation boards have developed professional standards for teachers and teacher education. Professionalisation of teaching has promoted the development of standards. Professional standards enable organisations to state what their graduates will learn, be able to know and do as a result of going through the program. The American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (2013) developed standards
that can be used to evaluate the quality of teacher education. The areas of focus or the standards have the following categories as points of evaluating quality.

- Content and pedagogical knowledge
- Clinical partnership and practice
- Candidate quality, recruitment and selection
- Programme Impact
- Quality continues improvement and capacity

These categories have other sub-items to guide evaluators. The National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) and Commonwealth of Learning also developed jointly quality indicators for teacher education. Institutions can evaluate quality internally and this would provide quality monitoring and continuous improvement.

The six key quality indicator areas are:

- Curriculum design and planning
- Curriculum transaction and evaluation
- Research and Development and extension
- Infrastructural and learning resource
- Student support and progression
- Organisation and management

Within these KRAs are the related quality aspects with the related quality indicators. Below I will discuss the quality aspects and the indicators to be considered in each KRA. The KRA of curriculum design and planning has the important quality aspect of institutional vision. The vision should be clearly stated including the mission as well as the goals and be in line with regional and national quality expectations. Other quality indicators are well laid down policies and regulations of curriculum implementation. Those who assess the quality as a programme do not want to see a
mismatch between the visualised curriculum and the actual programme. The programme should have adequate inputs for the development of the teacher.

Another KRA is the curriculum transaction and evaluation. The quality aspects are the quality indicators on how often the curriculum is revised and how substantive and up to date it is. Are the new candidates well oriented on the programme goals and objectives? The programme quality is judged by the achievement of quality objectives. The institution should have a well evolved process of induction done at the start of the programme and throughout the year. Acquisition of theory is critical in developing a holistic teacher. The instructional processes should develop a reflective teacher and the various units of the programme should be connected and interrelated. Exposure to high quality teaching practice provided by the institution to develop hands on experiences is a critical quality element of a programme. The duration and time and the experiences are quality indicators as well. These should be based on experience should be comprehensive and expose candidates to various functions of the teacher.

The candidates need to acquire the competences that will ensure they are of high quality. The lecturers also should be well versed with modern approaches to teaching and demonstrate that they continually seek improve on their performance at work. Hence during teaching and learning they need to promote collaboration as well they need to promote collaboration as well as individual learning experiences for the candidates.
Research, development and extension is another KRA. There is need for the relevant learning material and organisational arrangements that need to be in place. An institution should have a way of appraising these through internal research and innovation practices and be involved in national research projects. Learning should be sensitive to community issues, gender disparities as well as the social inequalities.

Infrastructure and learning resources are considered as one KRA. The physical infrastructure of an institution should be suitable for effective programme implementation. Poor infrastructure impacts negatively on programme quality. Resources should be adequate to ensure high quality since it supports maintenance of infrastructure. Another quality information indicator is availability of information communication technological (ICT) facilities such as teaching and learning laboratories and resource centres. The institution has to have a well evolved process for recruitment and retention of staff. These will impact on quality of staff running the programme. An institution should be able to demonstrate that it is upgrading the competences of its staff.

Student support and progression is another KRA. The quality of a programme is checked against the number of drop outs within a programme. Other indicators include the institution checking whether the programme is of quality through feedback from internal stakeholders. This means an institution should have a comprehensive feedback system in place to ensure it’s of quality. Relevant information about this programme should be collected from time to time and used for programme improvement or development. The concerns of students should be one of the objectives of the student monitoring system which an institution is required to
have. Programme implementation should be monitored to identify weaknesses and workout solutions. The institution should provide high quality courses in areas such as handling children with special needs as well as remediation. There should be structures in place for guidance and counselling of students. These structures should be run by highly qualified staff to ensure guidance and counselling is effective.

Admission policies and procedures have implications on programme quality. This is one of the indicators of programme quality. Appropriate, clear, inclusive and well known policies are required in an institution. The institutional quality is judged by how well the admission procedures are adhered to and how transparent in this system. Organisational management is a critical KRA of teacher education quality. An institution should have infrastructure for social as well as leisure activities for its students and its students should be actively involved. The institutional leadership should introduce professional management approaches and the gender sensitive. Recruitment of staff should follow laid down procedures to attract highly competent and qualified staff. All in all the quality of the institution is shown when there are adequate resources to run the programme.

The institution has to have mechanisms to undertake internal academic audit for the programme. The institution needs to use the management information system (MIS) for running the programme. Other quality indicator includes regular performance appraisal of staff by peers or head of departments. The quality indicators discussed in this section are based on the framework developed by the commonwealth and NAAC for teacher education institutions.
2.20 Evaluation of Teacher’s Preparation Programmes.

Evaluation is defined as the systematic acquisition and assessment of information to provide useful feedback about something (Madaus 2002). All evaluation work involves collecting and sitting data, making judgment about validity of the information. Hence this process involves determining standards of judging quality, collecting information and applying the standards to determine the quality. According to Luitel (2002) evaluation provide useful feedback to judge quality. (Madaus 2005) it influences decisions making and policy formulation.

Curtis (2012) observed that whole process of teacher education requires that there be high standards of entry into programme as well as high standards of learning experiences. Evaluation experts have developed specific evaluation models for a specific purpose. These include:

- Tylers evaluation model
- Stafflebeam’s CIPP model
- Hammond’s evaluation model
- Scriven’s evaluation model

To evaluate this teacher education programme a number of approaches can used and these will be discussed below and example is from the US experiences.

Evaluation of teachers training programmes should base on the development of professional standards. There should be well specified standards to guide programme evaluation. According to Feurer et al (2013) the system of evaluating teacher preparation programmes in the United States of America (USA) is done by various institutions and organisations. The institutions and organisations involved are:
Initially the federal government of the USA was not directly involved in the evaluation of teacher preparation programmes, however in recent years there has been more government involvement through various laws. The Higher Education Act (ITEA) (1965) is the cornerstone of the government policy evaluation efforts which has been revised several times, for example in 1998, the amendment focused on institutional accountability were institutions are mandated to collect data based on a number of indicators and compile report cards. At programme level these indicators include pass rates on standardized tests, admission requirements, teacher education status and policies at the state level (Feurer 2013). The Obama administration also put in place the Race to the Top (RTTP) programme where states publicity link student achievement data to teacher preparation programmes in their state. Dacan (2009) the secretary of education called for a shift in focus from programme inputs to programme outputs where effectiveness of graduates is measured by student performance in the classroom. States are rewarded financially for producing the required reports.

The goals of RTTP are:

- To ensure students in teacher education institutions are prepared well to succeed at the workplace and be competitive internationally.
• To build data systems that will enable institutions to measure students’
growth, success and ensure institutional improvement.

• To assist in recruitment and development as well as retention of effective
teachers.

• To improve the performance of less effective and low achieving schools

Non-governmental institutions play an important part in evaluation of teacher
preparation programmes and their roles will be discussed below.

In the USA the approval and accreditation of teacher preparation programmes is done
by the national, non-governmental accreditation boards. The main purpose of this
accreditation is to ensure that the teacher preparation programme meet certain
standards in terms of quality (Feuer 2013). The accreditation process involves:

  • Setting standards by both the accreditation agency and the teacher education
    institution.

  • The teacher education institutions will then carry out self-evaluation and
    thereafter request for external evaluation.

  • The accrediting agency will select a team to visit the institution and carry out
    an evaluation.

  • After the applicant has met the standard the accrediting body monitors the
    accredited institution from time to time to verify that it continues to the
    standards.

The main accrediting body for teacher preparation programme in the USA has been
the National Council for Accreditation of teacher Education (NCTE) formed in 1984.
This body developed valued standards to evaluate teacher preparation programmes. In
1997 the Teacher Education Council (TEC) was established with the support of
independent colleges. The TECs allowed TPPs to set their own standards within the framework set by TEC. The guidelines include

- Evidence of students learning
- Evidence of valid assessment of learning
- Evidence of continuous improvement

The two accreditation bodies namely the NTCE and the TEAC merged in 2010 to establish a new body called the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). The CAEP established its standards in 2013. The standards have five categories. These are

- Equipping candidates with subject matter and pedagogical skills
- Establishing partnerships with key stakeholders especially districts to ensure a strong student-teaching experience and feedback.
- Attracting academically gifted candidates and developing them through all the stages of the preparation programme.
- Demonstration of programme effectiveness using measures such as student academic achievement, teaching effectiveness in the classroom, employer satisfaction and graduation satisfaction.
- Establishing and monitoring a quality assurance and continuous implement system.

These guidelines will assist teacher education institution to evaluate their programmes internally as well as prepare for external evaluation.

### 2.20.1 Quality Indicators in a Teacher Preparation Programmes

Feuer, Floden, Chudowsk, and Alu (2013) outlined aspects evaluators focus on when evaluating a teacher education programme. These aspects include quality and quantity
of instruction, staff qualifications, and quality preparation of teachers. A variety of indicators are used to measure certain attributes related to teacher preparation quality. Teacher preparation is evaluated using performance assessments of teacher candidates to determine the impact of graduates on student achievement.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>ATTRIBUTE</th>
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<td>Admission and recruitment criteria</td>
<td>• GPA (Grade Point Average)</td>
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<td>• Entrance examination scores</td>
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<td>• Monitoring students</td>
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<td>• Needy subject areas and specializes</td>
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<td>Quality and substance of institution</td>
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<td>• Lectures and assignments</td>
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<td>Quality of student teaching experience</td>
<td>• Field work policies</td>
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<td>• Qualifications of mentors</td>
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<td>• Teaching observation assessments of student teacher</td>
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<td>Effectiveness of teacher preparation</td>
<td>• Pass rates on standardized licensure tests</td>
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<td>• Hiring and retention data</td>
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<td>Success in preparing quality teachers</td>
<td>• Teacher performance on assessments administered at the end of a programme</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Ratings of graduation by school principals and employers</td>
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<td>• Value added estimates</td>
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Figure 5: Indicators of Teacher Preparation Quality
Adopted from Feuer, Floden, Chudowsk and Ahn 2013:27

The aspects highlighted in the table presented above will be explained in detail based on the aspects highlighted in the table. Input measures to be considered when evaluating the quality of teacher preparation programme. These include entry requirements, programme syllabi and teaching practice policies, programme
admission criteria are used as measures of teacher preparation quality. The TPPs with high admission criteria can attract more gifted candidates and enhance the programme reputation. Teacher candidate with high SAT scores, GPAs and class rank have been found to perform better (Gitomer and Latham 1999). Other studies by Ferguson and Ladd (1996), Henry, Bastia and Smith (2012) found out that teacher candidates with high entry academic qualifications also end up being more effective teachers.

Another aspect measuring quality of a teacher preparation programme is the substance of institutions. This includes what the course offers, hours allocated to key subjects area as measures of teacher education quality. Some evaluation analyse course syllabi, lectures textbooks and assignments. These sources according to Feuer (2013) et al to include the extent to which important subject matter and pedagogical content are covered and delivered hence check if the expected standards have been met. The syllabi alone provides limited measures of programme quality since some material or content is written in the programme syllabus but may not be taught during programme implementation. The same applies to textbooks, the content that appears to the book does not mean it will be taught Boyd, Grossman, Landford, Loeb and Wyckoff (2008) in their study of teacher preparation programmes found out that teachers who had greater opportunities in their preparation to engage in actual teaching practice performed better and the student outcomes improved for these teachers especially in the area of mathematics Floden and Meniketti (2005) found out that secondary mathematics teachers who were well prepared in mathematics content posted a positive correlation between teachers study of mathematics and improved student achievement. The above findings were also conferred by Monk and King (1994).
Another aspect used to measure the quality of teacher preparation programme is quality of the teaching experiences. These include time allocations as well as analysis of teaching curricula and students’ work. Other measures are surveys of teacher candidate about their experiences review of teaching practice policies records of teaching practices, policies, records of student teaching assessment. These can give greater insight with the quality of teaching practice than just the hours allocated to (TP) Coggshall, Bovina and Reschly 2012 believe that surveys of student teachers rely heavily on their perceptions than reality hence they are not a valid and reliable measure of quality. However Boyd, Grossman, Landford, Loeb and Wyckoff (2008) in their research on teacher quality found out that high-quality student teaching experiences have positive effects on student achievement.

Lecturer qualification is a measure of quality. Lecturers with high qualifications are considered to be of high quality including expertise and relevant experience. Evaluators place value on the qualifications of lecturers. The programme outcomes are considered as an element of quality. The measures of quality of programme outcomes include teacher licensing tests, graduate survey and employee surveys as well as impact of graduates on student learning (Feuer 2013 et al). In the USA than in any other country, the licensure tests take the form of written tests or computerized tests. These may be multiple choice or essay questions. The content of the tests focuses on subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. According to the National Research Council (2010) a number of tests are used in TPP evaluation in the USA but they vary in the way they are applied and developed and hence they cannot be easily generalised in all the states. However licensure tests are used to protect public investment into education and identify those who have not mastered the
minimum competencies of the trade (Mehrens 1990). Teachers with high licensure test scores have been found to have a positive effect on student test scores especially on mathematics (Clotfelter, Ladd and Vigor 2007).

The hiring of teachers and their retention are measures of teacher preparation quality. The major focus is on job prospects of TPP graduates and to what extent TPPs prepare candidates to teach effectively. There is need to link TPPs with the labour market and this means institutions need to understand the labour market and satisfy the needs of the labour market. Teacher retention is also used as a measure of programme quality. Retention focuses on long new teachers stay in the teaching profession. A programme that produces a high percentage of teachers who leave after the first year of teaching may be a sign of something amiss in the programme in terms of the selection process or the programme preparation process. Research does not confirm this assumption since various factions came into play such as family and personal reasons (Ingersoll and Smith 2003).

Graduate performance assessments are used to assess the quality of TPP. The teacher performance assessment includes observations of the lessons and children’s work. The idea is to capture what the graduate learnt as a student teacher. According to Darling-Hammond, Newton and Wei (2013) in teacher performance assessment can predict subsequent teacher effectiveness in the classroom. In the USA the widely used performance assessment approach was developed by the Stanford University and is called TPA. This assessment is administered at or near the end of the pre-service training. The candidates are video-taped while teaching at least five lessons. The evidence includes the video clips of institution lesson plans, children’s work samples.
Analysis of children’s learning and the candidates’ knowledge assessment results are referred back to the TPP. The main disadvantages of these assessments are that they are costly to administer on the large scale and they are not a valid and reliable measure of what skills the teacher possesses. The candidates are allowed to rehearse as many times as possible and edit the video tape of their teaching hence the end product might not reflect a true picture of the candidates teaching abilities and skills.

Another measure of quality of TPPs is graduate surveys after the graduates are employed. Graduates are asked to give feedback on how well they feel they were prepared to handle certain demands of the job. Graduates give feedback on their experiences during teaching practice and the nature of the feedback they received from mentors after lesson delivery (Coggshall Bivana and Reschly 2012). The major weakness of the graduate surveys is that they rely on the individuals perceptions which might not reflect reality on the ground.

Another approach to evaluating the quality of TPPs is the use of value-added models (VAMS). The (VAMS) are statistical techniques that are used to measure student achievement gains on standardized tests. Support for use of VAMS in teacher preparation programme evaluation because it bases quality on effectiveness of the graduates in enhancing student achievement while controlling out-of-school factors. Critiques of the VAMS consider this approach be fought with methodological challenges whose result are not valid and reliable. Some of the weaknesses of this approach are technical problems of tests and biases, impressions and stability related to test administration.
2.21 Teacher Preparation Programme Evaluation in Other Countries

The countries to discussed are the European countries and South Africa as examples

2.21.1 The European Experience in TPPs Evaluation

Teacher education quality has been influenced by increased global competition, internationalisation and the growing influence of the knowledge society. In Europe the main policy changes in teacher education has been influenced by the Bologna Process (1999) and the Lisbon Strategy (2005) as well as the Modernisation Agenda for Universities. According to Salimova et al (2011) in the last decade quality of education has been the most important priority of development in the hope of increasing competitiveness of educational institutions. The Sorbonne Declaration (1998) signed by four countries set the stage for policy development in the next decade for Europe. Subsequently most quality efforts in Europe have been greatly influenced by the Bologna process. The Bologna Declaration (1999) was signed by 29 countries and more countries have signed to increase to 47 countries. The European commission has influenced national governments to pay attention to the quality of teachers European Policy documents published by the European Commission namely

(i) The European commission 2005, 2007

(ii) The European council 2001 and the OECD policy document all pay attention to the quality of teachers and teacher education.

According to Salimova et al (2011) recently several European Countries have reviewed their teacher education policies in line with the Bologna process and the Lisbon strategy. In (2005) European Association for Quality Assurance in the Higher (ENQA) in consultation and cogent with bodies such as European Student Union (ESU), the European Association of Higher Education Institution (EURASHE)
developed the standards and guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and the cover into quality assurance in higher education, external quality assurance in higher education and external quality assurance agencies.

In the Lisbon process, enhancing the quality and effectiveness of education and training systems in Europe is one of the three main goals to be achieved in the period up to 2010. The European commission has set up as expert group as improving the education of teachers and trainers. The key principle of Bologna Declaration focusing on quality emphasises, promotion of cooperation in quality issues with the view if developing comparable criteria and methodologies.

Hence the development of quality assurance in Europe arises from this declaration.

Other documents shaping teacher quality such as:

- Teachers matter OECD (2005) which addressed issues important in developing and retaining effective teachers.

- Common European principles for Teacher competencies and Qualifications – European Commission (2005) this document indentifies common principles with respect to teacher competencies and qualifications aiming to support member states to develop their own policies.

- Improving the Quality of Teacher Education European Commission (2005) and European commission (2007) summarises the main findings of various documents and formulate directions for further development of teacher education in Europe.
Consequently several agencies have been set up in line with quality these include:

- The European Association for Quality in Higher Education (ENQA)
- The European Standard Union (ESU)
- The European University Association (EUA)
- The European Association if Higher Education institutions (EURASHE)

These bodies have developed evaluation systems and accreditation standards for higher education one of the priorities is improving teacher education quality.

The European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education established standards and guidelines for quality in higher education in Europe which were adopted at the conference of Ministers responsible for higher education Bergen (2005). ANQA recommended that institutions should have policies and associated procedures for quality and standards of their programmes and should recognised the importance of quality and quality assurance. Eurydice (2006) reports that most countries in Europe except Luxembourg have a regulated system for evaluating initial teacher education although the procedures differ from are commonly to other in general teacher education for the secondary school level is provided at universities and there is no regulated system of evaluation.

Some countries evaluate their entire system of teacher education. In most countries have general regulations for evaluation of all higher education apply to evaluation of teacher education apart from the legislative framework for evaluation or accreditation of higher education and there are no specific evaluation systems specifically tailored for teacher education. Evaluation of teacher education is governed by general and specific regulations for quality control in Higher education.
Specific regulations apply to a particular stage of initial teacher education e.g. professional training phase or induction phase.

In the UK the arrangements for the review of all higher education institutions is done by the Quality Assurance Agency QAA. These are separate arrangements established by law for the school inspectorates to evaluate programmes for initial teacher education. In several countries regulations provide for more than are evaluation procedures including external and internal evaluation. External evaluation is compulsory in most countries and is recommended in other countries such as Spain, Germany and France. Based on internal evaluation results in some countries regulates actually stipulate that higher education institutions that have not produced an internal evaluation report are not entitled to full payment for their service.

Regulations concerning bodies responsible for external evaluation exists in all countries where there are formal requirements for external evaluation and majority of which are carried out by are evaluation agency, committee or a dependency body acting on behalf of public authorities. In some countries the Ministry of Education is directly responsible for external evaluation. Sometimes the mostly shares responsible into the independent bodies or will be the inspectorate for school education. Several documents may recommend or require as the basis for external evaluation. These may include general legislation on higher education, regulations or guidelines on initial teacher education qualification standards prospective teachers a list of evaluate criteria are specific national indicators or education student performance.
2.21.2 Teacher Education Quality in South Africa

Teacher education quality development in South Africa has been greatly shaped by the legislative and policy documents of the government. Upon attainment of independence the colleges of education were incorporated into universities. As such the policies that influence quality in universities are relevant (Westhuizen, 1999). There was little focus on quality assurance in the 1990’s; hence the national policy on quality was not in place.

The National Commission of Higher Education (NCHE 1995) report resulted in the drafting of a White Paper on Higher Education and subsequently the Higher Education Act (1997). The Act made provision for quality management in Higher Education, through its subcommittee, the Higher Education Quality Committee. The Council for Higher Education (CHE) and the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) were established in 2004 (CHEQ). The HEQC has the mandate to promote sound education practices, audit quality management systems and accredit programmes. A ministerial report (2005) brought transformation in South Africa. Higher education brought mergers and incorporations in Higher Education institutions. Teachers Colleges were incorporated into universities (Chisholmi 2004). The hope was that this would improve the quality of teacher education.

According to Smout and Stevenson (2001), quality assurance and accreditation falls within the responsibility of the Council for Higher Education (CHE) subcommittee of Higher Education Quality Assurance Committee (HEQAC). The work of HEQC with regards teacher education is shared with the South Africa qualification Authority (1995) which is responsible for the standards of teacher education and quality.
assurance of programmes. The work of SAQA was initially assistance by the national standards body NSBS, and the standards Generating Bodies (SGBS) which set the standard of teacher education. Today this is the responsibility of the education and training quality assurance structure.

2.22 Summary

The literature review discussed has highlighted methodological gaps related to teacher education quality and teacher quality. While most researches were mostly done in developed countries this research is done in the Zimbabwean Context and is therefore relevant to teacher education reform in other developing countries. Most researches have been fragmented focusing on either quality of inputs, processes or outputs of teacher education. This study used the systems approach assessing quality of inputs, processes and outputs guided by the constructivism epistemology. Hence this research adopted a holistic approach to evaluation of teacher education quality. This research gives a full context specific views and experiences of students and lecturers and relate these to the documents and reports available in the institutions on teacher education quality. Ultimately the results of this study can contribute to the body of literature in teacher education.
CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the research paradigm, research methodology and research design are presented. The population, sample, data collection instruments, data analysis, ethical consideration and trustworthiness of data are also presented.

3.2 The Research paradigm

In this research the paradigm is interpretive. A research paradigm guided the researcher in making philosophical assumptions about the research study, in choosing the appropriate methodology and the related methods and instruments to be used in the study. It also guided the researcher in data collection and analysis (Denzin and Lincoln 2000). The term paradigm has been defined in various ways and tends to have multiple meanings. According to TerreBlanche and Durrheim (1999) a research paradigm is an all-encompassing system of interrelated practices and thinking that define the nature of inquiry along the dimensions of ontology, epistemology and methodology. On the other hand Khan (1977) refers to a paradigm as a research culture with a set of beliefs, values and assumptions that a community of researchers has in common regarding the nature and conduct of research. Another definition is given by Filstead (1979) who refers to a paradigm as a set of basic beliefs that represents a worldview and the nature of the world in which individuals have a range of relationships to that world and its parts. From the definitions given above it appears a paradigm should have assumptions, ontological and epistemological views which
guide or influence how a researcher examines several phenomena understand it and explain it from that view.

There are a number of classifications of these paradigms. Pentorotto (2005) classified them as positivism, post-positivism, constructivism-interpretivism and critical theory. However Gephart (1995) classified paradigms positivism, interpretivism and post-modernism. In this study the classifications were used to classify paradigms and below the positivist paradigm will be explained. The positivist paradigm is rooted in the ideas of Comte a French philosopher who believed that knowledge is based as experience of senses and could only be obtained through observation and experimentation (Ponterotto 2005). Its ontological view is that social reality is external and objective and axiologically this paradigm maintains the separation of the researcher to the researched. Epistemologically it advocates for the use of the scientific approach by using numeric measures to generate acceptable knowledge (Ponterotto 2005). According to Creswell (2009) positivist researchers conduct value-free research to measure several phenomena. The positivist believe that different researchers observing the same problem will generate and came up with similar results using standardised instruments and similar research processes in investigating a large sample. The results of a sample will be generalised to a large population.

Another paradigm of research opposite to the positivist paradigm is the interpretivism paradigm. It is also referred to as constructivism. This paradigm emerged as a rejection of the positivist approach to social understanding of the nature human beings and social phenomena. Interpretivism adheres to relativist notion that believes that multiple realities exist which are equally valid (Schwandt, 1994). Interpretivists are of
the opinion that reality is constructed in the mind of the individual. The underlying assumptions of this paradigm are that:

- Knowledge comes into existence out of the individual’s interaction with the world.
- It espouses a hermeneutical approach where meaning hidden must be uncovered. (Schwandt and Scarra 1999).

According to Cresswell (2000) all knowledge and all meaningful reality for interpretivist is contingent upon human practices being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and the world within a social context. Interpretivist researchers recognise that individuals with their varied backgrounds, assumptions and experiences contribute to the construction of reality. This means interpretivist researchers believe in understanding the social world from the experiences and the meaning of the researched through interaction and dialogue and then came up with a shared meaning with the researcher. I believe it is the centrality of this research which is rooted in my interactions with the participants in which i was able to get a deeper meaning of teacher education quality as experienced by the participants.

3.3 Research methodology

Research methodology is a strategy and inquiry which moves from the understanding assumptions to research design and data collection (Myers 2009). Sarantakes (2005) refers to a research methodology as a model to conduct research within the context of a particular paradigm. It comprises of the set of beliefs that guide the researcher to choose a set of research methods to use in the study. Hence methodology refers to the process and procedures of the research. According to Silverman (1993) methodology identifies a general approach to research and is determined by the researcher’s
epistemological position. However Myers (2009) defined a methodology as a strategy of inquiry which is derived from the underlying assumptions to a research design and data collection and data analysis. The two commonly known methodologies are quantitative and qualitative. In this study the research methodology was qualitative. However qualitative research is a generic term for investigative methodologies which include ethnographic naturalistic, anthropological and participant observer research (Joubish et al 2011). This means there are qualitative methodologies than just qualitative methodology (Willig 2001). The qualitative research methodology was preferred because it enabled me to interact with the participants and generate data rooted in their experiences. Qualitative researchers share a number of common beliefs and values which are referred to as qualitative methodology and these are discussed below.

3.4 Qualitative research

Qualitative has been referred to as a generic term for investigative methodologies. A number of definitions of qualitative research have been given by various researchers. Cresswell (1998) defined qualitative research as an inquiry process of understanding, based on a distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore social or human problems based on building a complex holistic picture conducted in a natural setting. However Denzin and Lincoln (2005:3) defined it as

“... a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive material practices that make the world visible. They turn the world into a series of representatives including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos of the self. At this level qualitative research an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings,
attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them”.

The definitions given above indentifies some major characteristics of qualitative research methodology which include studying phenomena in its natural setting and reality being based on different perceptions of different people. Hence qualitative research will guide the researcher is choosing the appropriate research methods, data collection instruments to use as well as techniques to analyse data. Creswell (2007) outlined some of the major characteristics of qualitative research methodologies. These include

- Conducting research in a natural setting. This involves researchers collecting data in the field with participants where participants experience the issues under investigation. In a natural setting researchers face to face interaction with participants.

- The researcher is the key instrument of collecting data. Data is generated through interviews, documents and observations. The researchers are the ones who actively participate in data generation hence do not rely on instruments developed by other researchers.

- It gathers multiple forms of data from interviews, observations and documents. The researchers review all data and make some of them then analyse the data.

- It is iterative and involves collaborating with participants and data analysis is inductive.

- Focusing on the meanings participants have about the issues under investigation not the understanding and interpretation the researcher brings to the research.
• Qualitative research is interpretive hence it involves researchers interpreting what they see, hear and understand. Hence the researchers background, risking context, prior knowledge influence his or her understanding of phenomena.

• It takes a holistic posture that takes into consideration the context to guide understanding.

• The researcher will spend time in the research setting and interact with the participants and hence the researcher can gather data directly from the participants.

• The researcher does not make premature assumptions but will be open to other alternative ideas and information.

I this research the research process could not be prescribed prior to conducting the research. As I started collecting data new themes emerged and new questions had to be formulated from time to time. Hence the questions changed as the research progressed. The researcher was enlightened by the participants on other aspects of the research problem and relied on the participants to obtain in-depth useful information. The qualitative research is an interpretive inquiry process carried out in a natural setting and the research gets a holistic picture if the words, actions, reactions and reports of the participants in a natural setting. Its main purpose is to understand phenomena from the point of view of the participants in their natural setting. Hence qualitative research will enable the researcher understand how participants feel and why they feel they way they do and this leads to the question why things appear the way they appear. Qualitative research was the methodology of this study. It assisted me to solicit views, feelings, and opinions of students, lecturer and graduates of teacher education institutions on teacher education quality from the point of view of their experience. In this research the researcher interacted with the participants in their
natural setting and was able to understand how they view quality as they experienced it. The major focus was on how do they view teacher education quality and why do they view it the way they do.

3.5 Case Study

This research used the case study design. According to Willig (2000) a case study as an approach to a studying a case. A number of definitions have been given on what a case study is. Yin (2003) defined a case study is an empirical investigation of contemporary phenomenon within a real life context. Robson (2002) also defined a case study as a strategy of doing research where investigation focuses on contemporary phenomenon within a context. A more informative definition was given by Best and Khan (1993) who refer to a case study as a way of organising data for the purpose of understanding social reality and examining a social unit, groups or institutions in a given context. Hence a case study involves study of key players, key situations or critical incidents in real life. Willig (2000) identified the major features of case study research

- The research is concerned with the particular than the general to understand the individual case.
- It is a holistic approach and the researcher will focus on the various aspects of the case as they relate to that environment.
- There is use of various sources of data collection and analysis techniques to gain an understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.
- Case study facilitates generation of theory through detailed exploration of a particular case.
There are various types of case study research given Willig (2001). These are single case study, multiple case studies, descriptive and explanatory case studies as well as intrinsic and instrumental Yin (2003), identified four types of case study strategies. These include:

- Single case and multiple case study as well as holistic and embedded case study.
- In this research I will explain types of research given by Willig (2001) focusing on single multiple case studies relevant to this research.

A single case involves a study of a critical case or a unique case. It can be selected because of its detailed study of a single case. The reason of choosing a case can be to test an existing theory or a revelatory investigation into a contemporary issue or a unique case of interest to the researcher. On the other hand multiple case study strategy or design incorporates multiple cases which mean it’s more than one case. The reason of using a number of cases is that there is need to establish whether the findings in the first case occur in other cases. In this study the multiple case study was be used and a number of colleges were research sites where data was collected to establish whether the findings in the first college occurs in other colleges.

A case study can be used in both qualitative and quantitative methods. The researcher needs to make decisions on the type of design as well as the methods of data collection and analysis. The case study has been criticised because the results of the study cannot be generalised to the population. This study being qualitative research study its aim was in-depth evaluation of teacher education quality than generalisation to the population.
3.6 Population

A population refers to the entire group of people events or things of interest that the research wishes to investigate (Sekoran 1984). It can be defined as a full-set of cases from which a sample is taken. However a comprehensive definition is given by Best and Khan (1993) who defined a population as any group of individuals that have one or more characteristics in common that are on interest to the researcher. Hence a population will include all the groups of individuals of interest to the researcher. In this study the population was made up of the student teachers, lecturers graduates from teachers colleges and mentor in the primary schools.

3.7 Sampling Procedure

The purposive sampling technique was used to select the participants in this research. The researcher selected the most productive sample to answer the research questions. Participants were individuals with special expertise and vital information will enrich the study. The participants in this research included students, lecturers, graduates and mentors who were involved or had been students in the teachers colleges training primary teachers for the Diploma in Education. However it should be noted that selection of sources remains open throughout the research process.
Table 2: Research Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Type of data collection</th>
<th>Type of Sampling Procedure</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Focus Group Discussion</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>1 Hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>30 Minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Open ended Questionnaire</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduates</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>30 Minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentors</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Focus Group Discussion</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>1 Hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentors</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>interviews</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>30 Minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Focus Group Discussion</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>1 Hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>30 Minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.8 Data Collection Instruments

The research instruments will be discussed below

3.8.1 The Researcher as the Key Instrument

In qualitative research the researcher is the primary research instrument in data collection (Lincoln and Guba 1985). The researcher collects data on his own. This memo the researcher interviews the participants, examines the document and is involved in focus group discussions. (Cresswell 2009). In this research the researcher actually developed the interview and focus group discussions. During the data generation the researcher was involved in focusing participants on important issues, planning and organising the data collection activities. This involved seeking permission from teachers’ colleges and the participants as well as set the dates to collect data from the institution. According to Watson (2008) the researcher in a qualitative research has multiple roles and the enormous work is exhaustive. There is need for an assistant researcher to assist. In this research the researcher had to engage the services of a novice researcher to ensure the process of data collection and
management of data could be manageable. Hence the researcher was actively involved in data gathering.

To collect data from participants the researcher used various data collection tools. The tools are interviews, documents analysis, open-ended questionnaires and focus group discussions. These will be discussed showing their advantages and disadvantages as they were used.

3.8.2 The Questionnaire

In this study a questionnaire were used to compliment the interviews and the focus group discussion as well as collect background information of the participants. Parahoo (2008:299) defines a questionnaire as:

> A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of questions with instruments on how to record the answers. It is mostly designed to be completed by respondents themselves. The respondents complete the answers and return the questionnaire.

This means a questionnaire is an instrument with a list of questions to be answered by the respondent orally or written form. The purpose of the questionnaire varies on the type of information sought. Questionnaires can be used to collect data on attributes such as demographic data, or personal tracts, beliefs, experiences views and feelings. It can also be used to examine patterns and trends. In most cases the questionnaire generates quantifiable data. (Parahoo 2008). In this research questionnaires were used to access colleges the researcher could not visit personally as well as a form of triangulation and confirmation of data collected from the students.

Questionnaires can be open-ended and closed-ended. Open-ended questionnaires are where answers are not provided to choose from. Instead the participants give their
own free responses in their own words. Open-ended questions provides for greater in depth responses and the reasons for their responses. Closed-ended questionnaires involve questions provided by the researcher and the respondent picks their responses from the answers already provided. This type of questionnaire calls for check mark responses on the list of responses provided (Best and Khan 1993). According to Parahoo (2005) the questionnaire should be structured in such a way that it is user friendly and easy to understand and answer. Avoid leading questions and double-barred questions. The advantages of questionnaires were that:

- The researcher was able to contact large numbers of people, easily from different research sites.
- A questionnaire guaranteed anonymity and this encouraged some respondents to reveal details of their views which they may not do in an interview.
- A questionnaire was easy to create code and interpret during the data analysis and demanded less time specially when using the SPSS.
- It was able to explore sensitive areas some that could be embarrassing such as issues of sexual harassment hence it guaranteed privacy.
- The questionnaire had consistency during data collection.

This research used open-ended questionnaires that generated qualitative as well as minimal quantitative data.

The following limitations of the questionnaire were noted

- It provided little scope clarifying questions to the respondents and was therefore limited in gathering detailed, in-depth and rich information.
- Posting a questionnaire to a participant can resulted in a low return rate of the questionnaires.
• A questionnaire makes it difficult to determine whether the respondent understood the questions where they fill them when in the researcher is not present.
• The question asked by the researcher might not mean the same way the respondents has understood it.
• It was difficult to ascertain whether the respondents actually completed the questionnaire on their own without influence from others, present when the questionnaire was filled.

Ethical issues were taken care of in the covering letter or introducing section of the questionnaire.

3.8.3 Interviews
The interview was the main data collection instrument used in this research. According to Jackson et al (2008) an interview is defined as a meeting of persons face to face for the purpose data collection of generation. Best and Khan (1993) consider an interview an oral and questionnaire. This is mainly because the interviewee will give answers orally and face to face. Research interviews are usually audio-taped and transcribed into text for purpose of analysis.

There are various types of interviews. The interview type is chosen on the basis of the purpose of the interview. Interviews can be structured, semi structured and unstructured. Structured interviews involve standardisation of the questions. Interviewers using structured questionnaires are required to ask pre-determined questions in a consistent manner. Semi-structured interviews involve broad questions and are not controlled or fixed as the structural interview. The questions guide the
dialogue and allow the participants to give own responses that are not pre-determined. Unstructured interviews involve questions that are pre-determined and that do not have predetermined responses. The unstructured interview is guided by participants and the order of questions will vary between participants and will be dependent on the issues they will raise (Jackson et al 2008). Interviews occur between the researcher and individual participants or between a researcher and a group of participants. In this research interviews were conducted face-to-face with the participants. The researcher personally visited the teachers colleges and the schools as well as homes for some graduates.

The researcher noted the following advantages of face-to-face interviews were:

- The presence of the interviewer allows for complex questions to be explained and to minimise misinterpretation.
- The interviewer could control the environment and the context in which the interviews took place.
- The interviewer could create a rapport with the interviewees and establish a friendly and confidential relationship resulting in certain confidential or sensitive information being obtained.
- The interviewer could explain the purpose of the research and what he or she wants from the interviewee. Interviews provide opportunities to follow up on misinterpretations of questions by the participants and clarify them.
- The interviewer could evaluate the sincerity and insight of the interviewee and can even pick non-verbal clues, which had implications on the data generated.
- The interviewer could stimulate the participant’s insight into his or her own experiences thereby motivate them to explore very important areas of the study.
The disadvantages of interviews noted were:

- Interviewees showed biases especially to issues pertaining to their college and this could have affected trustworthiness of the data.
- The data from the interviews and questionnaires in some cases contradicted each other and hence it was a challenge during data analysis.
- Interviews might have reduced the scope and the sample for data generation. The cost and time associated with face to face interviews limited the size and geographical coverage of the study.

In this study data was collected to the point of saturation.

The success of an interview hinged on the following:

- Selecting the participants that will provide rich information you are looking for
- Trial run of questions to be asked to ensure the questions solicit what you are looking for
- Schedule convenient the end location for the interviewer. This mean the place where interviews are conducted should be comfortable for both the interviewee and interviewer.
- The interviewer should create a friendly and open environment for discussion.
- The interviewer should refrain from asking leading questions or cutting off the interviewee during the interview.
- The interviewer should have experience in interviewing and be able to get critical incidents valuable to the study.

All the above mentioned aspects were observed to ensure the success of the interviews done in this study. Another qualitative approach to data generation are focus group interviews to be discussed below.
3.8.4 Focus Group Interviews

The focus group discussions were conducted in the teachers colleges with the students and separately with lecturers in their departments were possible. Group interviews are commonly referrals as a “focus groups” (Sofaer 2002), usually comprise people who may be unknown to one another or share a common characteristics that of interest to be researcher. Hence focus groups are a form of group interview that allow the researcher to generate data from interviews participants are encouraged to talk to one another asking questions exchanging anecdotes and commenting on each other experiences. Jackson et al 2008:283.

A detailed definition of focus groups given by Krueguer 1994:10-11

The focus group interview taps into human tendencies attitudes and perceptions relating to concepts, products, services, or programs are developed in part by interaction with other people we are a product of our environment and we are influenced by people around us

Hence the focus group as a method that can help participants explore and clarify their views in ways that will be easily accessible interviewer. Interaction among participants to access data is the key to the focus group method. Hence the focus group can allow both the researcher and the participants to discuss openly their opinion, attitudes and experiences.

The advantages of the focus group give by Joyce (2008) and Zinger (1995) are:

- Ability to generate data for a large group of participants.
- Participants will give detailed information important for the study
- It is cheap and convenient to the researcher in data generation
• Individuals can build each other’s ideas.
• It provides opportunities to explore views and unique perspectives of the study and allow participants to actively participate in the study.
• The researcher is able to identify participants’ needs and concerns.
• There is natural quality control on data generated since participants request to provide checks and balances on each other.
• Participants can provide mutual support in expressing feelings that are common in the group.

The advantages highlighted above were found to be relevant to this study.

However the major disadvantages were that:
• Lots of qualitative data were generated which are difficult to analyse.
• Outspoken individuals tended to dominate the discussions while others would be passive this impacted negatively on the effectiveness of focus group discussions.
• Individual behaviours of participants presented challenges so there was need for researcher moderation had some participants not willing to be recorded during the discussions hence it affected participation of those involved.
• Lack of privacy was found to be inappropriate when discussing sensitive topics such as sexual harassment.
• Data which was varied was with similarities and a difference in participants’ opinions and experiences was collected.

Hence focus group interviews could not help collect data on sensitive information that cannot be shared in a group or could be harmful to others. Focus groups were useful in explaining people’s knowledge and experiences hence can be used to examine what
people think and why they think the way that do. This method was effective and it encouraged participants to explore issues of importance Kitzinger (1995) believes the researcher can tap into many different forms of communication people use in day to day interaction such as jokes, anecdotes, arguing and teasing. Hence this form of communication can tell the researcher more about what people know or experience hence capture the cultural values or group norms. In analysing humour, consensus and dissent the researcher was able identify shared and common knowledge as well as sensitive institutional issues. The researcher can identify dominant cultural values and homogeneity within the group will provide peoples or the groups shared experiences as well as capture the different views within a group.

3.8.5 Document Analysis

Documents can be very important sources of data for the researcher. Document analysis involves the researcher using various documents such as reports, letters, syllabi, records, pictures and films to gather data (Best and Khan; 1993). In this research the documents which were analysed include the syllabi, external assessment reports, policy documents, teaching practice forms, syllabuses and strategic plans. In this study policy documents from the Ministry of Higher Education and the Teachers’ College related to quality were analysed. Other documents to be analysed included minutes, and circulars availed. However Best and Khan (1993) warned that when using documentary sources one must be aware that data appearing in print are not necessarily trustworthy hence they must be subjected to careful critical analysis. Not only is authenticity of the document important, but the validity of its contents is crucial as well. The researcher had to establish the authenticity of all the documentary sources used in this research.
3.8.6 Pilot Study

The open-ended questionnaire and the interview guide were pilot tested. Prior to using the research instruments be it a questionnaire or an interview guide there is need to pilot test the instruments. Pilot test will involve giving the instrument to a small group of people maybe ten or fifteen people with the same characteristics as the target sample (Watson et al 2009). The purpose of pilot testing is to refine the research instruments and the advantages of pilot testing are:

- Participants will not have problems in responding.
- The researcher can identify problems related to understanding the questions asked and how participants are misinterpreting the questions.
- The researcher can assess the validity of the questions.
- It will assist the researcher to determine if data will be generated or collected by the instruments.
- It will assist the researcher to determine the representativeness and the suitability of the questions asked.
- The researcher can revisit the structure of the questionnaire or interview guide and determine the content validity of the instrument.
- Participants can comment on the readability, layout and clarity of the instruments especially the questionnaire and comment on it either being to extensive and time consuming or might comment on need to include some questions not covered in the questions asked.
Watson et al (2009) observed that the pilot testing will give information about the feasibility of the instrument but not the feasibility of the study as a whole. However Bell (2005) advices that even if you are pressed with time you are do your best to give the research instrument a trial run and without it there is no way of knowing that the instrument will work successfully.

In this research the open-ended questionnaires were piloted tested and ten student teaches on teaching practice and three college lecturers participated in the trial run. The questionnaire had questions that were ambiguous and it was rather long. The interview guides were also pilot tested both for students and lecturers. The research was able to gain experience on how to ask and pursue the question of the study and the questionnaire was reviewed accordingly.

The researcher was able to determine whether certain questions made sense to the participants. The critical issues attended to in relation to the open-questionnaire were as guided by Bell (2005) and I looked at:

- Time taken to complete the questionnaire
- Clarity of instructions
- Identification of ambiguous questions
- Questions which were difficult to answer
- The major omission made by the questionnaire in relation to the area of study
- The attractiveness and clarity of the layout
- Which questionnaires were unanswered?

These were the points focused on and the weaknesses were attended to. The same questions applied to the interview guide and the focus on the sequencing of the questions and the clarity of questioning on the part of the interviewer and ability to
follow-up on misinterpretations and misunderstandings. The pilot study was a critical step in fine tuning the research instruments in this study.

3.9 Data Analysis

The grounded theory of research was be used to analyse data (Glaser, 1978, Glaser and Strauss 1967). According to Gorra (2006) grounded theory developed by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss in the 1960s. Grounded theory advocates creating a new theory rather than testing existing theory hence it is designed to facilitate theory generation. Grounded theory is both a method and a theory. As a method it provides guidelines on how to identify categories how to make links and relationships between categories. As a theory it is the end-product of this process and provides an explanatory framework to understand the phenomenon under investigation (Willig 2001). Data collection and analysis occurred at the same time in alternating sequences (iterative cycle of induction and deduction).

According to Yates (1998:201) grounded theory is

“a detailed grounding by systematically grounding and intensively analysing data often sentence by sentence or phrase by phrase of the field notes, interviews or other documents by ‘constant comparison’ of data that are extensively collected and coded...

This quotation explains grounded theory data analysis process but it should be stressed that data collection included moving forward and backwards (iterative). The process of data analysis was carried out as follows open-coding, axial coding and selective coding. These stages will be explained in detail below how they applied to this study and were used to analyse data.
Open-coding is the initial stage of the data analysis process. According to De Vos (2009) open-coding involves naming and categorising of phenomenon by examining data. It involves breaking down, examining, constant comparison, conceptualising and categorising data. During this process data are broken down into discrete parts, closely examines, compared for similarities and differences (De Vos 2009). Hence two basic analytic procedures were important in this process these are constant comparison and asking questions about the phenomena as reflected in the data. According to Strauss and Cobin (1990) breaking down and conceptualising involves observing closely sentence by sentence or paragraph by paragraph and giving each a name or identity. This approach was used in this research to analyse data from focus group discussion and interviews. In this research it involved taking part in an analysis of sentence by sentence or paragraph by paragraph and giving each discrete idea or identity. This was done by comparing interview with another interview so that similar phenomena can be identified. Once phenomena were identified in data then the researcher had to group concepts. The process of grouping concepts is called categorising and the researcher generated the categories from the data.

The next step is axial coding. It is defined as a set of procedures whereby data are put together in new ways after coding by making connections between categories. Hence axial coding involves looking for relationships between categories of data that will have emerged. Sub-categories are linked to a category is a set of relationships denoting context, casual conditions and international strategies. In this research axial coding enabled the researcher to structure the existing categories of data so that they start to have meaning.
The next step is **selective coding**. Strauss and Cobin (1990) defines it as the process of selecting the category and relating it to other categories. Gorra (2010) is also referred to as focused coding. The researcher had the task of integrating the categories to generate a theory which is grounded in data. The process involved

- Explaining the storyline
- Relating categories
- Validating relationships of categories from the data
- Refining other categories that need further refinement

The core categories were identified and related to other categories to it. Then patterns and connections could be found. Hence selective coding involved coding the core categories. At this stage of data analysis involved relating patterns to core categories. Selective codes were applied to lines or paragraphs in the transcripts and the researcher had to choose the most telling codes to represent the interviewee’s voice.

The last step is **theory generation**. It involves exploring the relationships that have been established between categories. This involves giving direction to the process of examining data in theoretical rather than descriptive way. This involved applying a variety of analytical procedures to data to enhance their abstractions. Hence the researcher examined all the variables that had an input on the data and the findings. Hence the research report in this study presents the theory generated from data and represents the views of both the participants and the researcher.

### 3.10 Trustworthiness of Data

The trustworthiness of data in qualitative research has been subjected to criticism by positivist researchers because of absence of validity and reliability (Shenton 2000). However in qualitative research validity and reliability are referred to as
trustworthiness. Lincoln and Guba (1985) proposed constraints that an accurately reflect the assumptions of qualitative research paradigm these are:

- Credibility alternative to internal validity
- Transferability alternative to external validity
- Conformobility alternative to objectivity

These four criteria will be discussed below and their relevance to this research.

3.10.1 Credibility

Credibility is analogous to internal validity and it involves determining how the findings are credible. Credibility is very important factor in establishing trustworthiness. Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to credibility as the extent to which data and data analysis are believable and trustworthy. In qualitative research there are multiple realities because of individual constructs and understanding of phenomena hence there is no objective reality to which the study can be compared to ensure credibility (Lincoln and Guba (1985), Gorra 2006).

To ensure credibility in this research the researcher did the following:

- Member checking is which involves getting feedback on the data and its interpretation from the participants.
- Triangulation is also very important in ensuring credibility. Triangulation might involve use of different methods of data collection such as focus groups, individual interviews and document analysis. Different methods could complement the limitations of other methods.
- Another form of triangulation involved use of a wide range of participants. These included students, lecturers, mentors and graduates. Including documents. This was called triangulation using data sources. Individual view
points and experiences of different participants were verified and their attitudes and behaviours under study can be constructed based on contributions of a wide range of participants. In this research participants were from the teachers colleges in Zimbabwe or those involved in teacher education training directly and these included student teachers, lecturers and graduates from this teacher education institution. Triangulation can involve analysis of a wide range of document found or used in the teachers colleges. The research could verify certain issues raised during data collection.

- Another form of triangulation used in this study is site triangulation. Site triangulation can be achieved by involving participants from several institutions and this reduced the effect of one institution and this enhances credibility of this study. This sampling of a wide range of participants from different institutions provided a wider view of issues under investigation. In this research a number of teachers’ colleges were selected to participate in this research until data saturation.

The researcher ensured that participants willingly participate in the study and ensuring those who are not interested had a right not to participate this ensured genuine participants participated in this study and offered data freely and this enhanced credibility. In this study the participants were be asked to indicate their willingness to participate in this research. After their consent then data gathering took place hence the researcher was able to establish rapport with the participants and build trust.

The researcher declared his independent status to the participants and gave reasons why he is carrying out the research to ensure participants contribute to the study and talk about their experiences without fear of victimisation and hence this enhances credibility. The research was able to uncover untrue statements by probing and
eliciting detailed information as well as iterate questions by rephrasing questions and asking them again in a different way.

Credibility was ensured through member checking and verification of the emerging theories and inferences during data collection. Participants can be asked to offer or verify occurrences or particular patterns observed or noted by the researcher in the previous interviews. Detailed descriptions and explanations conveyed the actual situations that obtain in the area under investigation. Previous research findings assisted the researcher to assess the degree to which the research results were congruent with those of previous studies. The researcher related his findings to the existing body of knowledge to improve credibility of his findings.

3.10.2 Dependability

Another critical aspect to ensure trustworthiness of a research is dependability. Dependability is analogous to reliability which is the consistency in getting the same results under similar circumstances (Merriam 1998). Ensuring reliability in a qualitative research is a challenge or problematic especially where humans behaviour is involved. In studies focusing on human behaviour it should be noted that human behaviour is dynamic and highly contextual. Human beings interpret events in a different way this means that a similar study with different researchers and participants will yield different results. Personal constructions of meaning in human beings arise from different individual experiences as well as difference in data collection and analysis experience including data interpretation which impact on credibility of data.

In this research I ensured dependability using the following approaches:
• Use of multiple methods of data collection analysis (triangulation).
• A detailed explanation of how data was collected, analysed
• Member checking to ensure data verification.
• Examination of the data by peers.
• I declared his biases and orientations relevant to this study.

3.10.3 Conformability

Conformability is the degree to which the research findings can be confirmed or corroborated by others. It is analogous to objectivity. In this research the researcher was aware of his biases. The researcher took steps were taken to ensure that the data was a reflection of the actual experiences of the participants than my own views and preferences. Conformability can be enhanced through triangulation. According to Miles and Huberman(2009) refer to conformability as the extent to which the researcher admits his or her predispositions. The researcher had experience of being a lecturer in a teachers college previously this had implications on focusing questions to the participants as well as get the relevant responses. The researcher was able to build confidence among the participants.

3.10.4 Transferability

Transferability is analogous to external validity or generalisability. According to Von Dos (2009) in a qualitative study transferability or generalisability can be problematic. To ensure transferability the research should state the theoretical parameters of the research. To ensure transferability there is need to use multiple sources of data collection and analysis. Data from different sources can contribute, elaborate and even
illuminate the research questions. In this research transferability will not be applicable since the results from this study will not be generalised to the population.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Research is both a moral and ethical endeavour and this means the interest of participants should not be harmed. According to Orb et al (2000) ethics are defined as doing well as a researcher as well as avoiding harm to the researched. History has records of researchers who abused the researched for example the Tuskegee 1932-1971 syphilis research where African Americans who were infected with syphilis were left untreated hence they were subjected to harm without their knowledge (Caplan 1992). Qualitative researchers when doing research they explore examine and describe human behaviour in the natural setting. Any research that involves people should ensure the researcher is conscious of the ethical issues arising from their interactions with the researched (Orb et al 2000). The researcher should carefully choose the methodology that will protects the dignity of the researched during the whole process. Use of the interviews, audiovisuals during data gathering requires the researcher to negotiate with the participants. The researcher was guided by ethical principles that protect the dignity of the researched which include voluntary consent, guarantee of absence of risk or harm, ensuring anonymity of participants, respect of privacy and confidentiality of participants and recognising the rights of participants.

The first principle to be considered was voluntary participation. An individual participating in a research has a right to be informed of the nature of the study and has the right to choose whether to participate or not in a research study. The participants should not be coerced to participate. The participants have a right to freely decide
whether to participate or not as well as the right to withdraw anytime without penalty (Kvale 1996). In this study the researcher explained to the researched before data collection their right to participate or not and to agree to participate in the data collection process. Individuals in colleges might feel they cannot refuse when asked to participate in a research the researcher ensured no pressure was placed on them by lecturers or their peers to be involved. In this research the researcher obtained informed consent from all the participants who participated in this research. Written consent will be obtained from the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education as well as the respective institutions in which data will be collected. The letter explained the purpose and nature of the research and the research procedures to be used. The benefits of the research to teacher education were explained to ensure participation was voluntary and participants were well informed. Participants had to confirm their desire to participate in the interviews or in focus group discussions before the data collection was done.

Another important ethical principle considered was guarantee of absence of risk or harm, it should be clear to the participants that their involvement will not cause or bring harm to them. In this research the researcher had to safeguard against anything that would harm or pose danger to the participants. Another principle considered was ensuring anonymity and confidentiality of participants. The researcher had to ensure privacy guaranteed for the participants. No identity of names of individuals or institutions was revealed the report or on oral form. In this research the researcher removed any identifying information from all the records. The researcher pledged not to share information gathered with other people or researchers as well as giving pseudonyms to institutions that participated in this research used. According to Halai
(2006) confidentiality and anonymity can be breached by legal requirements as well as the audit trail done by other researchers to ensure conformobility. These could be a challenge to this research. The participants were informed that other researchers may want to verify the data collected by the researcher.

Another principle is recognising the rights of participants. The principles of justice are linked to fairness. One of the critical features in research is to avoid exploitation and abuse of participants. The researcher recognised the vulnerability of students as participants to this study hence their identity was protected in this the study. The voices of the minority and the disadvantaged groups need to be heard and these participants need to be protected. In this research the vulnerable groups are the students, lecturers and graduates now qualified as teachers had to remain confidential and be protected.

Another ethical aspect is beneficence which refers to doing well to others. The researcher had to reflect on the consequences of research engagements of all participants and get rid of potential disadvantages. Dissemination of research results will be managed and used in a responsible manner. Consent to publish certain information concerning an individual or institution will be sought where necessary before publication. Ethics according to Orb et al (2000) can be compromised by conflict of interest between the researchers and the researched. Imbalance is relationship and power intrusion of privacy can affect the reliability of the participants and these were being guarded against in this research. Ethics are a critical element in research and the researcher had to pay attention to all ethical issues that affected the participants to this study.
3.12 Summary

This Chapter outlined the research paradigm, the research methodology and research design applicable to this study. The population, participants, the research sites and the sampling procedures were also discussed. How data were collected and analysed and approaches of data analysis to ensure that the data collected is trustworthy and the ethical considerations taken care of were highlighted.
CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the focus is on data presentation, analysis and interpretation. Data presentation is guided by the research questions of this study as well as the themes that emerged from the data. The main focus of the study was to evaluate teacher education quality and its implications on teacher quality. The following research questions form the basis of how data were organised.

- What are the institutional quality policies and their implications on quality of teacher preparation?
- How do pre-service teachers view the relevance of the teacher education curriculum in the context of quality?
- How do students view the quality of teaching and learning during teacher preparation?
- How do lecturers view the quality of teacher preparation?
- How do graduates view the effectivenss of the teacher preparation in the context of teacher quality?

4.2 Data Presentation

All data from various sources were converged guided by the research questions presented above.
4.3 The Conceptual Framework Guiding Teacher Education in Zimbabwe

Lecturers were asked through interview questions to indicate the theoretical or conceptual framework guiding teacher education in Zimbabwe. This question solicited lecturers’ knowledge of the conceptual framework guiding their practices. The following responses were made:

- We have a DTE handbook to guide us
- The college policy document gives us the conceptual framework
- The College strategic plan guides us
- We are guided by the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary education mission statement
- We are guided by the Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) model

The varied responses given by lecturers reflect that there is absence of a shared conceptual framework within colleges and between colleges. Literature and analysis of policy documents indicate that the Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) model is guiding teacher education and training in Zimbabwe. These findings concur with the findings of the Nziramasanga Commission Report (1999) which reported that all primary training colleges were using the ZINTEC approach to train teachers. The ZINTEC model is also referred to as the 2-5-2 model. This model involves students being exposed to theory in the first two terms in residence at the college. These students are deployed for teaching practice for five terms and spend the last two terms in college being equipped with theory and during that period they will write their final examinations and certified. Views of students and lecturers on the part played by the 2-5-2 model in enhancing teacher education quality and teacher quality were as follows:
• The 2-5-2 model increases number of students enrolled every year however the challenge is that of a high lecturer-student ratio which compromises quality of delivery.

• Teacher preparation is heavily burdened by the schools yet these schools are not well resourced and equipped to do so.

• Students are not regularly supervised due to lack of resources.

• Lecturers have a challenge is selecting and amount of content to teach in the first two semesters when students are in college to ensure quality preparation for teaching practice. The model forces lecturers to make individual decisions on which topics from the syllabus to cover to ensure effective preparation for teaching practice.

• The students are over loaded with distance learning assignments and modules to read without library facilities hence assignments written are of poor quality and are done to meet college requirements.

• The period for teaching practice was considered to be too long by some students as a result it would end up not being productive in terms of professional development. Students attached to good mentors benefited but those attached to poor mentors had their professional development compromised negatively.

• Some lecturers believe that the lengthy period of teaching practice is beneficial to students’ professional development since they had a lot of time to apply theory they learn in college.

The institutional quality policies should guide programme implementation as well as the quality assurance processes in an institution.
4.4 What are the policies which have implications on quality of teacher preparation?

Lecturers were asked to indicate policies that had quality implications on teacher preparation quality. The responses were:

- Department of Teacher Education Quality Assurance Guidelines
- The College Strategic Plan
- The College Academic Policy Document

Analysis of documents made available by the colleges shows that all colleges have the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education mission statement which reads

“To produce an effective system in the production of patriotic and competent high level manpower through provision and accreditation of higher and tertiary programmes and institutions for sustainability and global competitiveness.”

The mission statement has quality implication especially the aspect of global competitiveness. It has an international focus hence higher and tertiary institutions should be able to produce manpower which is globally competitive and of high quality. An analysis of the college strategic planning documents and mission statements seem not to reflect the aspect of professional growth with a global focus in relation to global competitiveness or high quality manpower development. The following mission statements were extracted from college strategic plans. They read as follows:

“To equip students with knowledge, skills and attitudes of continuous integrity, and attributes of commitment, integrity, honesty and transparency necessary for professional growth” .(College B Policy Document(Draft) 2013:1)
Another mission statement reads

“To ensure total commitment to the development of competent and versatile school
teacher capable of providing quality education to the Zimbabwean child”. (College D
Policy Document 2013:1)

The mission statements cited above cannot be linked to the MHTE mission statement especially the aspect of global competitiveness of manpower produced by an institution. Each institution is producing its own strategic plan and an analysis of their key objectives reflects divergent areas of focus in relation to teacher education. Interviews and document analysis reflects that the major document guiding teacher education quality policies is the Department of Teacher Education Quality Assurance Handbook. This handbook (year) 2013 is found in each college and specifies aspects in which the Department of Teacher Education (DTE) of the University of Zimbabwe is involved in quality control. The areas of quality that are dealt with in this handbook are as follows:

- Curriculum review
- Final Assessment of Teaching Practice and Final Examination
- Academic processes such as setting examinations and standardization of the examination process.

However it was observed that these colleges enjoy considerable autonomy. The DTE handbook highlights that teachers’ colleges produce their own curriculum, subject syllabi and examination papers which are subjected to critical evaluation by subject assessors (DTE Handbook for Quality Assessors in Associate Teachers’ Colleges 2013). Hence there is no common curriculum for colleges because each college formulates its own curriculum. This has implications on quality of Teacher education and consequently the quality of the teacher. These findings concur with the findings
of the Nziramasanga Commission (1999) which identified lack of a common curriculum in teachers colleges as a challenge facing teacher education in Zimbabwe.

4.4.1 Recruitment Policies

Another source of policy is the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary education directives for example the MHTE specifies the entry requirements to train as a teacher in a teacher college as 5 ‘O’ level passes with grade C or better. The applicants should have passed Mathematics and English that are considered as compulsory subjects for teacher education entry point in Zimbabwe. This research found out that most candidates recruited for primary teacher training hold ordinary level passes and a few hold ‘A’ level passes. A critical analysis of the ‘O’ level passes in the subject areas of Mathematics and English shows the majority of the respondents had the lowest pass of “C” grade in these critical and compulsory subjects. There is evidence of low performance in public examinations by high school students that are being recruited to become teachers.

Lecturers interviewed indicated that colleges are enrolling candidates with 5 ‘O’ level passes without considering the number of sittings or without giving preference to those with ‘A’ level passes. In addition to ‘O’ level passes candidates are accepted for training by passing a qualifying test as well as passing an oral interview by the college as well. Other candidates are not interviewed neither do they write a qualifying test and these are candidates recruited through the various government departments. Participants agree that ordinary ‘o’ level passes are enough and suitable to produce high quality teachers while others believe ‘A’ level as adequate to produce high quality teachers. There is an agreement among lecturers who participated in this
study that the quality of candidates currently recruited in the teaching profession are low performers at ‘O’ level. The following comments were made.

1. We are recruiting average performers.
2. The quality of candidates is not high since we recruit candidates without considering how many sittings it’s just five ordinary level passes.
3. We are accepting candidates who have passed the bridging course and they are not interviewed and this compromises quality.
4. Candidates are average since we do not attract high performers.
5. Low since politicians impose candidates for training

Generally teachers’ colleges are attracting low performing candidates while high performers seem not to be attracted to the teaching profession. The quality of the candidates has implications on the ultimate quality of the teacher produced by teacher education institution. These findings concur with the findings in a research carried out in New Zealand by McPherson (2002) found teacher education was attracting low performing candidates from high schools. This study found out that Teachers’ Colleges in Zimbabwe have other ways of recruiting trainee teachers. For example some students are enrolled after passing the mathematics bridging course. Some students are automatically accepted to train as teachers after passing the mathematics bridging course offered by the relevant college. These candidates do not go through the interviews or neither do they write a qualifying test. The question of whether interviews are an objective and reliable way of selecting the best candidate has been questioned. Interviews have been found to be unreliable as a strong predictor of production of a high quality teacher (Fletcher 2000).
4.5 The Relevance of the Teacher Education Curriculum

Document analysis of the teacher education curricula found the following syllabi prevalent in the teachers colleges but these are not the same in terms of content.

- Professional Studies Syllabus A (PSA)
- Professional Studies Syllabus B (PSB)
- Professional Studies Syllabus C (PSC)
- Professional Studies Syllabus D (PSD)
- National and Strategic Studies (NASS)
- Information and Communication Technologies (ICTS)

Both lecturers and students who participated in the study rate the quality of the teacher education curriculum as of high quality. The teachers who went through this curriculum had this to say:

- The curriculum is of high quality because its challenging
- It is high because we are able to enable to acquire new teaching methods
- It is high quality because it acquire classroom management skills
- The curriculum is of high quality because we have a tight schedule and we have no time to rest.
- It is of very high quality because there is too much theory and practice
- It is very high quality because we do too many assignments.

Data gathered through interviews reflect that the quality of the curriculum is based on the amount of work given to students. The quality of the curriculum is also based on exposure to new areas of study that are experienced during teaching and learning. The participants consider the syllabus content to be relevant and adequate in terms of breath, depth and quality. Students who participated in this study consider the content learnt at college to be of high quality a further probe indicated otherwise since it
showed that students lacked adequate content in areas such as religious and moral education (RME), environmental science (ES), physical education and sport (PES), art, music and information communication technologies (ICTs). Literature specifies content knowledge as a very important indicator of teacher quality (Darling-Hammond 2000, Rivers 2006).

4.6 Student Participants’ views of Quality of Teaching and Learning

Interviewees considered the quality of teaching as very high. Lecturers considered themselves to be of high quality since they hold masters degree qualifications but there are some with undergraduate degrees and others without degrees. Students identified the method of teaching used by lecturers as mainly lecture method. No alternative method of delivery was referred to by the students. Lecturers talked of the use of the student-centred approaches in their lecturing as the basis of their delivery but these views were not corroborated by the students. Students identified the lecture method as a teaching method used extensively by college lecturers. According to Good and Merkel (1959) the lecturing method is a teaching method in which the lecturer or instructor gives oral presentation of facts to the learner and the learner takes notes. Its disadvantages are that it produces a student who is passive, encourages one-way communication and is dependent on the effectiveness of the lecturer and all these aspects hinder effective and high quality learning.

An analysis of data from the learning styles used shows that there is use of role and strategic approaches to learning as being employed by the students. This conclusion is based on what students said about the teaching and learning in teacher education colleges studied.
• Lecturers’ performance is rated on average by the student based on effectiveness of lecture delivery.
• The student lecturer ratio is high because of the large number of students enrolled every year and it impacts on the quality of delivery.
• Lecturers do not use student-centred approaches when teaching and these are not demonstrated in any way.

Data gathered revealed that some colleges expose student to peer teaching. There was no specific time allocated to peer teaching. It was done as lecturer felt and considered it necessary. Peer teaching is another aspect that prepares students for teaching practice. Students did not value it much since it is not taken seriously. The teacher education programme also involves student teachers doing practical teaching referred to in Zimbabwe as teaching practice and views on its quality are discussed below.

4.6.1 Quality of Teaching Practice

While lecturers and students as well as graduates participants considered teaching practice to be of high quality they identified the following aspects as compromising the quality of teaching practice.

• Conflicting comments are made by the assessing lecturers tend to confuse the students and hence they are not sure of the correct thing to do.
• Some lecturers who come to assess students on teaching practice tend to be fault seekers and one student said “vanenge vari kanyangira mbavha” meaning its like they are waylaying a thief.
• Some lecturers can dress down the students in front of children during supervision. One participant student reported the he or she was asked, “Ndo chii
chaurikuita urikuuraya vana” meaning what sought of content are you teaching you are poisoning the children with wrong content.

- Students are overloaded during teaching practice. The undertake distance learning assignments, daily lesson plans, evaluation of both schemes of work and the daily lesson plans (DLP) as well as participate in all the school extra curricula activities.

Students who participated in this study consider the workload as unmanageable. One student participant referred to teaching practice as “cheating practice”. This is mainly because students participants indicated that they write children’s records such as reading record, social record and the attendance registers at home after school without reference to what will be happening in the classroom. Data reveals that these records are done to meet the requirements of the course without a critical reflection of what will have transpired in the classroom. Data gathered from student participants also reveal that there is too much emphasis on production of records by the colleges at the expense of pupil learning. Another aspect of affective teacher quality is the aspect of mentoring that is discussed below.

4.6.2 Mentoring as an Aspect of Teaching Practice Quality

Data indicate that teacher education students are deployed to various schools to do teaching practice under guidance from the mentor in the school. During teaching practice students are attached to mentors for five terms which is equivalent to one year six months. This is the most critical aspect of the apprenticeship model of teacher education. Data revealed that mentors impact on the quality of teaching experience and the professional development of student teacher. This study found the following from participant student, student teachers, lecturers and mentors.
- Mentors are not trained in the area of mentoring students
- Students are assigned to mentors who have responsibilities to alleviate their tight schedule in the school such as these on school heads, deputy heads, and teacher in charge, sports masters and in some cases lazy teachers or even temporary teachers. Assigning student staff with responsibility compromises the quality of the teaching experience as well as their professional development. The students will find they are in charge of the whole class without professional guidance.
- While hardworking mentors tend to be of great assistance to students and guide them well during teaching practice, the lazy and weak mentors are contributing to low quality professional development of study teachers.
- Students reported that some lazy mentors use old schemes of work dated for example year 2000 and they ask students these old schemes to use to prepare for their lessons since they share a class.
- A student reported poor relations between students and mentors as negatively impacting on their performance and diminishes their confidence. Some mentors come and dress down students in front of school children, “Uri kupoisoner vana vangu”, meaning you are poisoning my children with wrong content.
- Mentors do not have information on what the college expect them to do. There are no documents available to assist or guide mentors how to assist students during teaching practice and some lecturers ask mentors to leave the class when they come for supervision and do not involve them in discussions on student performance.
• Some mentors who were trained a long time ago were found not to be of assistance to student professional development yet students in their professional hence students were asked to the mentor is doing although it might no longer be professionally and factually correct.

• Interviewed mentors highlighted the following reflected concerns on the quality of student teachers they work with. They identified the following weaknesses:

• Students are not well equipped with adequate theory to enable them effectively teach during teaching practice.

• The students were unable to formulate aims or objectives during lesson planning and these impacts on the quality of lesson delivery. One mentor had this to say, ‘its like we have to teach them basic aspects of teaching but we do not have time to do that we have a class to attend to’ the result is that mentors are not doing willing to do the work of lecturers teaching the students the basic of lesson delivery theory and practice.

• Mentors were not oriented on what mentoring is all about but some colleges have held workshops for mentors these have been few and they are not to get a certificate or recognition after attendance.

• There are no incentives for mentors either from the school or the colleges for mentoring students. The work they do is not recognized. One mentor asked, “What’s in it for me”.

• Students are ill-prepared to teach a class and the mentor has this to say.

• We are afraid to spend a lot of time assisting these students at the expense of the children in my class after all I have a syllabus to cover, these students
practice. I wonder how they will perform when they graduate and go into the field.

Another mentor also commented that “Because the students are not well prepared to do practical teaching I will resort to do so I do approach”. Data revealed that these student teachers come for teaching practice half-baked hence they are an extra burden to the mentor. On the other hand participant lecturers considered mentors to be of high quality because they conduct workshops for mentors and school heads from time to time. The participant lecturers also indicated that colleges they give guidelines on how to select effective mentors who are hardworking, supportive and competent as well as experienced teachers although such guidelines were not found in the schools.

Data gathered found the quality of teaching practice to be low because of the following:

1. Student teachers are deployed for teaching practice without adequate theory to do teaching practice
2. Students are overloaded with distance learning assignments and modules which they hardly read hence produce assignments of low quality.
3. They are not well supported in terms of library resources or other reading materials. Mobile libraries have been used but participant students say that they have found them not stocked with relevant books hence they re not useful.
4. Lecturers do not supervise students on a regular basis due to lack of vehicles for teaching practice.
5. Teaching practice assessment has been found to be unreliable since lecturers give conflicting comments in the same issue in some instances.
6. Lecturers are not trained to supervise practical teaching although a teaching observation guide is available. Quality of mentors is questionable.

7. How they are selected is flawed since students are asked to relieve pressure on those with specified responsibilities such as Teacher In-Charge (TIC), Sports Masters(SM), Deputy Heads (DH) and Heads.

8. Some students are assigned to a teacher who is considered to be weak or too old hence the student is considered to be helping these individuals. Some teachers are favourites of the school head hence they are allocated students to cement their friendship not on the basis of merit but friendship.

9. The quality of teaching practice is compromised by lack of also supervision by school heads that have the responsibility of supervising student teachers. There is lack of agreed upon school-college memorandum of agreement or association in relation to teaching practice to ensure maximum cooperation between college and schools.

10. Mentors are not trained to guide students in their professional development. Mentors do not consider themselves as responsible for the students assigned to them and they feel these students belong to the teacher education institution where they are training. Therefore student mentor relationship is another area impacting negatively on the quality of teaching practice. Below I will present data on quality of external assessment

4.7 Quality of external assessment

Quality of external assessment was questioned by lecturers because of the following

- There is lack of transparency on the appointment of external assessors and they alleged favouritism
External assessors are handpicked and some of these lack this requisite primary
school teaching experience and expertise.

Quality was also very low because of lack of in-depth pedagogical content
knowledge of the external assessors.

In some cases ECD lecturers are asked to be external assessors for a secondary
school course.

External assessment has got guidelines but the implementation of these guides is
not standardized hence comments of external assessment tend to conflict and vary
from year to year depending on the individual conducting the assessment. The
concerns raised by the lectures have implications on the quality of the teacher. In
the next section I will present views of lecturers on quality of teacher preparation.

4.8 Views of lecturers on quality of Teacher Preparation

Participant lecturers gave conflicting views on the quality of candidates they were
recruiting in their college. Some lecturers considered the candidates recruited by their
college to be of high quality based on the process of oral interviews the qualifying
tests they write and the intensive academic selection process. Others considered
candidates to be of low quality citing the following factors:

- Colleges are recruiting low performing students from high schools.

- The candidates recruited have several sittings at ‘O’ level hence these are low
  performing students.

- High rate of unemployment is attracting individuals who opt to become
teachers because of the prospect of being employed after graduating yet they
  are not teachers at heart.
• Politicians impose candidates who are automatically enrolled to become teachers without going through the rigorous screening process some of these candidates would not qualify under the college recruitment process

• Lecturers give conflicting views on the quality of teaching and learning provided to student teachers.

Asked to comment on the quality of the teaching and learning process participant lecturers considered it to be of high quality. The following reasons were given to support their views:

• The college syllabi are scrutinised and approved by DTE who are expert in teacher education

• Lecturers are specialists in their areas of study and they provide high quality content

• What is taught in teachers colleges is guided by what is taught in primary schools and colleges claim they are given content equivalent to first year in university level.

• Modules are issued to compliment content learnt in colleges are of high quality other lecturers think the quality of teaching and learning is low cited the following factors.

• The time available to teach in-depth content is very little especially the two terms are not adequate to teach in-depth content in such a short period.

• Students are overloaded with work when they are in college hence they get content which is not detailed.

Participant lecturers also considered pedagogical knowledge provided by colleges to be of high quality. This is mainly because this area is covered by PSB syllabus B which tends to cover how to teach all the subjects done in the primary school. The
DTE guidelines provide quality framework to guide colleges in student assessment. Quality of pedagogical knowledge is ensured when students are exposed to micro teaching and teaching practice.

Lecturers also rated teaching practice highly. They base their rating on the following.

- Colleges hold workshops to educate school heads, deputy heads and teachers in charge on issues relating to teaching practice supervision.
- Teaching practice assessments are moderated by teaching practice department and the external assessors as well.
- Colleges use a teaching practice assessment instrument to standardise teaching practice assessment hence the assessment of teaching practice is objective.

Asked to comment on the quality of mentors students are attached to the participant lecturers consider the quality of mentors to be satisfactory. This is mainly because the quality of mentors is dependent on the efforts made by the relevant colleges to educate mentors. Data revealed that some colleges are holding these workshops while others are not. Although school heads are given guidelines on how to select high quality mentors the selection of mentors has been found to be based on other criteria such as favouritism, or the position of responsibility one holds ensures that one is allocated a student teacher to monitor. These include teachers-in-charge (TIC) deputy heads (DH), School Heads (H) and Sports Masters (SM). Hence students are regarded as relief teachers not learners in a school. One lecturer cited a case where the student teacher was attached to a blind mentor and he did all the marking and writing of records with little assistance.
Participant lecturers were asked if their performance was assessed by the college. The interviewees indicated that final results also reflect the performance of lecturers as either high or low. Lecturers are not formally evaluated through normal channels of the college to ensure efficiency and effectiveness. Data revealed that lecturers were not evaluated or assessed by the lecturers-in-charge (LICs) or, Heads of Department HODs) or other senior members of the college administration. There is no feedback from students through student evaluations or peer evaluation of lecturer’s performance. Lecturers who attain the largest number of distinctions during final student assessment by external assessors are considered to be the high performers.

Asked to comment on the quality of external assessments by DTE in teachers colleges, the lecturers rated these to be of low quality. The interviews revealed that some departments have a large number of distinction students from one year to another yet others do not have distinction students at all. While the student body is the same the concern is why these variation. The college academic board has been involved in asking certain department to review student works upwards when they fail their final examination.

4.9 Views of graduates on the quality of the teacher education programme

Participant graduates were asked several questions in relation to the quality of training they experienced during their training. Asked on how they rated the quality of subject matter the college equipped them with they considered it to be inadequate but of low quality. The reasons were that they did not get in-depth content in most areas covered relevant to the primary school curriculum except the main subject area where they got adequate content. Other candidates however considered the content to be very high
because they were given challenging work by their lecturers and they considered their lecturers to be highly qualified. This means the graduates gave conflicting views on the quality content the college taught the students.

Participant graduates were asked to give their views as the quality of pedagogical knowledge they received during training. Participant graduates rated the quality of pedagogical knowledge to be very high. They believed they were equipped with pedagogical theory. These include child psychology, human development theories, classroom management skills, managing children with special needs, teaching from the known to the unknown, and a variety of teaching methods which are child-centred. Data revealed that during training however lecturers tended to use the lecture method with little demonstration of child-centred methods hence students had nothing to copy from the lecturers in terms of lesson presentation.

Participant graduates viewed teaching practice to be of high quality. Graduates gave conflicting views concerning the quality of teaching practice. Some considered it to be of high quality while others considered it to be of low quality. Those who considered teaching practice to be of high quality considered that they had been equipped with theory related to teaching, use of media and how to ensure children actively participated in the learning process. Data indicated that teaching practice provided opportunities of applying the theories learnt in college and as well as build the confidence of the student to teach children without fear. Those who rated teaching practice to be low quality cited the following reasons as influencing their views.
1. Inability to scheme and plan at the beginning of the period assisted by mentors.

2. Inability to understand most of the things they were doing during the teaching practice only to be exposed to the theory during the last two final semesters in college.

3. Some students did not find teaching practice beneficial because their mentors were lazy and did not provide stipulated opportunities for students to practice teaching for some gave as little as one lesson per day to teach.

4. Participant graduates rated the quality of teaching practice assessment to be low quality because of lack of standardisation or subjective assessment by the college lecturers.

5. Headmasters rarely assess students on teaching practice and where supervision is done it is superficial with the mentor or deputy head or head filling in the supervision form without lesson observation or scrutiny of record books.

4.9.1 Focusing on the graduates rating of their mentors

The participant graduates considered most mentors to be of low quality while others considered them to be of high quality. There were conflicting views because of different experiences. Generally they were reports of lower quality mentors, and indicated in the following statements from the participant graduates:

a. “My mentor was very lazy she left everything to me including teaching, marking and recording. She virtually did nothing”.

b. “My mentor could be moody and will be quit for the whole day”.

c. “Micro-teaching would wonder what will be the problem”.

• The mentors have their own way of teaching not consistent with what we were taught in college.
• Some are lazy, to the extent that they do not assist the students or supervise his or her work. If the student relaxes he or she will end up fail teaching practice.
• Mentors do not teach the subjects offered at primary school level have students we do not get opportunities to teach them.

Data revealed that the poor relationships between student teachers and mentors also affect the quality of teaching practice. One participant graduate who was a student representative cited a number of cases that happened between students and mentors such as “wave kuda kuchena maqualified teachers’ iwe” meaning you want to be too smart better than us. This had nothing to do with professional development another comments were, “matichiro ako unenge munhu akutanga nhasi” meaning you are teaching like somebody who has first entered a classroom for the first time. The participant graduate indicated that they would prefer a situation where students are given a chance to choose mentors of their own choice of it could be allowed.

According to one participant some of the mentors are a disaster. They lack the requisite knowledge and skills needed in teaching. Teachers who are not competent are given students to mentor hence students are unable to learn from them during the entire teaching practice period.

The participant graduates considered that they had been equipped with the following values during training, respect of the community, sense of commitment, professionalism and professional behavior consistent with the teaching profession one actually said I acquired ‘unhuism’ meaning good professional behavior. Participant
graduates gave their overall comments on the quality of the teacher education programme and their views were as follows:

- The quality of the graduates is average because some subjects are not properly taught to the requisite standard and where demonstration is required these are not done.

- The 2-5-2 model produces average graduates because the programme is like a crush programme and students are overloaded too much work during the terms they are in college without learning much.

- There is a lot of cheating during teaching practice to ensure records are up to date so that lecturers will find everything in order.

- Too many subjects done at college create too much work for the student to do hence the graduates recommend subjects specialization during training to improve quality.

- Low quality of graduates is a result of the quality of lecturers most of them are appointed to teach areas they are not conversant with since their qualifications are not directly related to the subject they will be teaching and some lack the relevant primary school teaching experience and some do not even have degree qualifications. One of the graduates had this to say, “vanonongo bonya bonya pasina kunzwisisa” meaning they scratch the surface of the subject matter and students end up not understanding anything.

- The scheming and planning we do during training we abandon when we graduate we now use scheme-cum-plan yet we are not trained to use it in college. The graduates indicated that “tavakutora zvitunha tichikopa” meaning borrowing old scheme-cum-plans from other teachers to prepare for our own teaching some of which are old not be well prepared.
Data revealed that quality of training is compromised by student-lecturer relationships. It was revealed that these love affairs result on leakages of examination question papers and candidates access papers before the scheduled examination date and this compromises quality of assessment. A female graduate indicated that she experienced sexual harassment on three occasions. The graduates revealed that “aitotaura kuti ukasandida, you shall do marewrite” meaning you will continue to get rewrites until you consent to my demands. The same student faced victimization of how her fine coursework file will not accepted for final assessment she has refuted the lecturers sexual advances. According to the graduates some students are asked to rewrite when they do not deserve to rewrite. Rewrites are used as methods of creating opportunities for making sexual advances by male lecturers towards female students. One graduates indicated that “kuti course iende pamavhiri I had to comply’ meaning I had to comply to ensure I graduate. Some female graduates confirm that love relationships between male lecturers and female student were not unusual in teachers colleges. Some weak female students want to use this avenue to pass the programme. One graduate sad these issues are difficult to investigate because of fear of victimisation. Graduates recommended putting in place a policy to curb student-lecturer relationships to improve quality of training and professionalism.

4.10 Summary

The data presented in this chapter were collected through interviews, focus group discussions and open-ended questionnaires. The data reflects the views of key stakeholders the students, lecturers and graduates from teachers’ colleges. The data are presented in the language used by the participants. The next chapter will present the summary, findings, discussion, conclusion and recommendations.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

A summary of this thesis is presented in this chapter. The major conclusions are highlighted based on the research questions. The researcher also highlights the recommendations he hopes could be instrumental to the teacher educators as they strive to produce quality teachers who can teach in the global village with ease. This chapter is structured as follows: summary, findings, discussions, conclusion and recommendations.

5.2 Summary

In Chapter 1 the researcher highlighted the background to the study. It was observed that the quality of teachers being produced is being questioned in most countries including the developed countries. However the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers. The quality of the teacher education system impacts on the quality of the teachers produced by that system. There is overwhelming evidence of the need to review teacher education worldwide in the context of quality.

Chapter 2 explored related literature review which has a bearing on this study. The following aspects were discussed, the conceptual framework, achieving MDGs quality objectives through teacher education and history of teacher education in Zimbabwe as well as the approaches to teacher education. Literature further discusses quality challenges in teacher education, the concept of teacher quality, methodological challenges in teacher education research as well as understanding teacher education
quality. Lastly literature discussed the teacher education models in the context of quality, professionalism as a factor of teacher education quality and evaluation of teacher education quality.

In Chapter 3 presents research methodology used in this study. The researcher explains the research paradigm guiding this study which is the interpretivist paradigm, methodology, the research design, the population, sample and sampling procedure of the study were also discussed. All data collection instruments and procedures, trustworthiness of data and related ethical considerations were explained.

Chapter 4 dealt with data presentation, analysis and interpretation. The data generated were organized based on the research questions. Data from various sources namely interviews, open-ended questionnaires, focus group discussions and institutional documents were converged guided by the research questions. The data reflected quality groups prevalent in the teacher education system from the inputs processes and outputs in Zimbabwe.

5.3 Findings

The findings from this study showed that the conceptual framework guiding teacher education in Zimbabwe is the Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) model. It was also found that the ZINTEC model provides a longer period of teaching practice (5 terms) and less time for theory (4 terms). The ZINTEC model requires students to beef up theory by writing assignments while on teaching practice load. Most colleges do not have supporting mobile library facilities to support students on teaching practice who are expected to write high quality assignments to
beef up their content. Student teachers are not equipped with adequate theoretical knowledge before proceeding to do practical teaching. More students are enrolled by a college in year through the ZINTEC model hence it increases graduate output.

On Institutional policies which have implications on teacher quality of teacher preparation the study found out that the Ministry of Higher Tertiary Education mission statement is available in every college to guide programme implementation. The department of teacher Education (DTE) quality assurance guidelines are used for assure quality in teachers’ colleges. Teachers’ colleges have an academic policy document derived from the DTE guidelines as another quality monitoring document administered by the academic board of the college.

As for the recruitment Policies it was found out that the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education specifies the entry requirements for all Teacher’s College and the entry requirements are five (5) ordinary level passes including passes in English and Mathematics. Other entry requirements in the colleges include writing of qualifying tests, oral interviews and candidates accepted after passing the English or Mathematics bridging course offered by that college and others who accepted without going through the screening process.

Most candidates enrolled in Teachers Colleges have ordinary “o” level passes and a few have advanced “A” level passes.

As for the relevance of the teacher education curriculum the study found out that teachers’ colleges have a number of syllabuses used to prepare teachers these are syllabus A, syllabus B, syllabus C and syllabus D. other studies include ICT and
development studies. The syllabuses have adequate coverage of subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Students and lecturers rate the quality of the curriculum to be very high. Students graduate without in-depth subject matter knowledge in areas such as religious and moral education (RME), physical education (PE), and music, art and information communication technology (ICT).

As concerning student’s views on quality of teaching and learning students rate the quality of teaching and learning to be very high. The lecture method is the method of teaching used extensively by the lecturers. There is a high student-lecturer ratio in teachers colleges. The learning approaches used by the students include rote and strategic approach to learning. The students adopt these strategies to survive the high workload experienced during the training period. Lecturer qualifications range from certificate qualifications, diploma in educations, undergraduate degrees and post graduate degrees.

On quality of teaching practice the study found out that students go for teaching practice without an adequate preparation. There are no formalized partnerships agreements between colleges and schools. However some student teachers found teaching practice to be beneficial because they were able to apply theory learnt at colleges others did not find it helpful and they thought it was too long. The study found out that student teachers were attached to a mentor during teaching practice. There were no documents available to guide mentors who have students under them. Various criteria are used to select mentors in the school these include teachers holding positions of responsibility such as Heads, Deputy Heads, TICs, Sports Masters and in some cases those favoured by the school head were allocated students.
to ease their teaching load. Lazy and old teachers were also allocated students as well
as temporary teachers in a few situations. Mentors decide the number of the lessons
the student teacher will teach despite the availability of college recommendations.
Mentors are not trained in the area of mentoring students. Students do not benefit
from being attached to lazy mentors but benefitted from recently graduated mentors
who appreciated that they were still trainee teachers and assisted them immensely.
Young mentors were found to be very helpful to the professional development of
students. Supervision was rarely done by school heads and deputy heads, TICs and
mentors where it was done in most cases it was superficial without actual supervision
having been done. To increase commitment on the part of mentors they feel they need
to be paid for the work they will be doing.

On lecturer assessment of teaching practice the study found out that any lecturer in a
teachers college can assess any student on teaching practice without consideration of
expertise. Conflicting comments are given by lecturers during teaching practice to the
same students. Lecturers can supervise a student teaching any subject in the
curriculum even if they have no expert knowledge in that area. Lecturers use
supervision forms during lesson observation to assess student teachers and each
college has its own teaching practice form. Lecturers are not trained to students on
teaching practice assessment and upon appointment there is no orientation program
focuses on teaching practice assessment. Some lecturers tend to be fault finding
during teaching practice supervision and do not provide a conducive environment for
learning while other lecturers were found to be very supportive assisting the student
teachers very well.
The study found out that college lecturers view the quality of external assessment to be low. These lecturers consider appointment of assessors by DTE to be fraught with favouratism. The external assessors tend to be inconsistent and give conflicting comments from one year to the tear hence there is tension in some cases between internal and external assessors. All colleges achieve very high pass rates every year and distinction students will be quite sizeable in some areas while others will be very few in the same cohort of students and the average pass rate is usually more than 95%.

The study also found out that graduates rate the quality of teacher education programme as very high. Graduates face challenges in use of the scheme-cum-plan which they are not trained to use while they are in college as students. Graduates also face problems in teaching most subjects of primary school curriculum because they have done the methodology without the content. Graduates have adequate content in the main subject area of study compared to other subject areas of the primary school curriculum. Some graduates face challenges in syllabus interpretation, scheming, use of media and use of child-centred methods. Graduates feel they were well endowed with values such as "unhuism" "professional dressing, professional behaviour and respect of the community during training. Graduates reported prevalence of lecturer-student love relationship in teacher colleges which they feel is compromising quality of teacher preparation. This is mainly because student teachers can be given clues or can have access to question papers before the examination. Some female graduates reported that they were victimized for not accepting sexual advances by some lecturers. Graduates reported prevalence of leakages of examination papers especially during the final examinations.
5.4 Discussion

The conceptual framework guiding teacher education is the ZINTEC model. This is more of a structural model. Finding concurs with the findings of Nziramasanga Commission (1999) who founded that teacher education in Zimbabwe applied the ZINTEC model of training teachers. This can be aligned to the apprenticeship model. This model gives little importance developing to problem solving skills but emphasizes routine and mastering of skills. The apprenticeship model is one of the traditional models of teacher education. Traditional models of teacher education promote teacher centred pedagogy hence emphasizes the transmission model of learning. The teacher is the transmitter of knowledge. In a teacher’s college the lecturer has all the knowledge and uses the lecturer method when teaching. Students are involved in rote making.

This research also found out that the lecture method is pre-dominant as a mode of delivery in Teacher Colleges in Zimbabwe. However modern teacher education practices should be guided by the constructivist theory which puts the learner at the centre of all learning and values knowledge construction. The students can connect and analyse prior knowledge and learn through self-discovery and socialization with peers and tutors. The chief agent in the learning process of the learner in the case of colleges it is the student. There is need to embrace the modern approaches to teaching and learning in the teachers’ colleges which seem to be embedded in the traditional practices of teacher education.

A number of policy documents were found to be guiding teacher education quality. All the colleges have the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education mission
statement. It emphasizes producing highly competent manpower that is globally competitive. This research also found out that all colleges had strategic plans designed differently with the major objectives also different. A critical analysing the strategic plans shows that the emphasis is not a quality but production of graduates. There are no sign of inclusion of the MHTE mission statement thrust in the documents analysed. There seem to be no link between college strategic plans and the Ministry mission statement especially in the context of quality. For example in countries like the USA colleges of education are required to produce a conceptual framework. The conceptual framework will specify the beliefs, values about teacher education and teaching student experience emphasized by the program and these are reflected in the practices of teaching and learning. Colleges in Zimbabwe do not have the theoretical and philosophical guidelines for the Diploma in Education or even the values and beliefs guiding programme implementation.

Teachers’ colleges do not have internal quality assurance documents or systems. They rely on the DTE quality assurance handbook to guide quality assurance. Colleges tend to implement programme activities to meet DTE expectations. Some college lecturers even go to the extent of asking potential distinction students to rewrite their assignment or redo display samples to meet DTE standards. External assessors’ reports are used to guide the quality of work students should produce. Although colleges develop their own curriculum they seem not to be responsible for setting up their own quality standards.

Most candidates joining the teaching profession as students in a teacher college have ‘O’ Level qualification. The teachers’ colleges are attracting candidates who are
average performers from the high school. The criteria used to select candidates for
teacher training include oral interviews, writing of qualifying tests and those who are
accepted because they studied Mathematics and English with the relevant college and
others do not go through the screening process at all. There is no research support to
show that those who pass the interviews are likely to perform above average during
teacher training. The same goes for the qualifying tests which are not standardised.
The recommended students and those who pass the bridging course are not subjected
to the entry tests or oral interviews. These are potential low performing candidates
who cannot make it through the rigorous process of interviews writing of tests. Most
lecturers are not trained in the area of conducting interviews to select teacher trainees.
It is not clear if the interviews are an effective way of selecting candidates or writing
of test will ensure selection of high quality candidates. This research found out that
the quality of candidates entering teacher training was rated as by the lecturers to be
average. An analysis of the ordinary level results shows that the majority of the
candidates have C passes in Mathematics and English.

The graduates and the students indicated that they lacked in-depth content knowledge
in the subjects such as RME, Art, P.E and Music and they had challenges in teaching
these subjects. Teacher colleges teach detailed content in the main subject area with
other subjects taught as part of professional studies which equips trainee teachers with
pedagogical content knowledge. Shulman (1987) views subject matter knowledge as a
critical element of teacher quality. However this research found out that student
teachers are not exposed to in-depth subject matter knowledge. The time allocated to
professional studies is inadequate yet students are expected to do preparation in the
thirteen subject areas of the primary school curriculum. There is evidence of
curriculum overload and student teachers are being equipped with little pedagogical content knowledge as well because of the broad curriculum and little time for study. This research found out that graduates were not well equipped with content to teach in the primary school and they have to rely on their knowledge of the subject from high school. Considering that most candidates have five ordinary level passes it appears the other eight subjects of the primary school suffer when they graduate and go to teach in the schools. This is compromising quality of teacher preparation.

Lecturer qualification is an important indicator quality. In most countries governments have tried to improve teacher education quality by setting the minimum qualifications required for one to teach in a teacher education institution. In Zimbabwe the minimum qualifications to teach in a Teacher’s College is a Diploma in Education. This research found out that the lecturers teaching in education especially in the practical subjects areas. The study found out that most lecturers had undergraduate degree qualifications yet in other countries the minimum qualifications to teach in a college of education is a master’s degree qualification. There is need to set a minimum qualification for lecturers to teach in a teachers’ college. Lecturers teaching in Teachers’ Colleges in Zimbabwe are expected to teach content up to first year level at University. The lecturers should be highly qualified to teacher in a Teacher’s Colleges. Teaching practice is a very important component of Initial Teacher Education (ITE). In Zimbabwe teaching practice is an integral part of the diploma in education qualification. It is a core course in teacher education and it is one of the four examined areas of the teacher education curriculum. This study found out that teaching practice is indeed one of the examinable core courses of the teacher education curricula. Students spend 5 terms (15 months) on teaching practice attached
to a mentor. A number of factors were found to be impacting negatively on the quality of teaching practice. These include variation in grading of student teachers performance during teaching practice and the variation of lecturer expectations of the same area of teaching.

Student teacher cited a number of challenges impacting on the quality of teaching practice. They indicate that they are not well prepared for classroom practice before embarking on teaching practice. The criteria to select teachers who will be mentors is not transparent with a well defined criteria. School heads, deputy heads, teacher in charge, sports masters and other close friends of school administrators are allocated students. Cases of teachers with disabilities, old teachers, temporary teachers and lazy teachers being attached to a student teacher were also found by this study.

Mentoring is considered important in skills enhancement and professional growth of the mentee hence bridge the gap between theory and practice. This study found out that students did not benefit from attachments to individuals with administrative responsibilities who left the whole class to student most of the time.. The same applied to elderly and lazy teachers who spend the whole day on ‘whatsapp’ and others who do private business as long as they have a student teacher in their class. Some student teachers were given few lessons per day to teach hence they did not have in-depth teaching experience in all the subjects of the primary school curriculum. Most subjects not examined at grade seven are mostly not taught as prescribed by the timetable of the school. The findings of this research indicate that there is low quality of teaching practice although there are a few cases of good
mentors especially newly graduated teachers. The students had different experiences with mentors during teaching practice.

The study found out that student teachers were intimidated by lecturers during teaching practice supervision. The lecturers arrive without warning; they spend little time scrutinizing records and the lesson. Lecturers appear to be ‘witch hunters’ and focus on errors committed by the student teacher than the good aspects of the lesson observed. Lecturers did not create a conducive environment for effective teaching but created an intimidating atmosphere which hampers quality teaching and learning on the part of the student teacher. Cases of a lecturer interrupting a lesson and making nasty comments were cited by interviewees. Other student teachers though cited good rapport with their lecturers and getting good professional advice.

Colleges use their own teaching practice supervision forms. The designs of these assessment instruments vary from one college to the other. Their application also varies from one lecturer to the other. This research concluded that the teaching practice instruments are inconsistently used by lecturers in assessment of teaching practice. The various forms used by the colleges during teaching practice supervision are a quality challenge in assessment in teacher education in Zimbabwe.

The model of teaching practice could not be clearly articulated by lectures. The colleges are using the traditional approach to teaching practice which emphasises technical knowledge. This type of model emphasises development practical application at the expense of other aspects of professional development. Mentors in the schools are not trained in mentoring. Although some colleges organise workshops
majority of mentors have not attended these workshops. The mentor seminars or workshops are attended on a voluntary basis and they are organized on a regular basis. The mentors do not get incentives for the work they are doing. They feel they are not obliged to assist the student teacher and after all they have a class to teach so they do not have time to assist the student teacher. When lecturers visit schools they do not consult mentors on the performance and conduct of the student attached to them. Some even ask the mentor to leave the class when they are observing a lesson presented by the student. The lecturers tend to be in a hurry and have little time to discuss with the mentor or the student teacher. Poor communication between mentors and lecturers impact negatively on the attitude and assistance mentors give to the student teachers. Student teachers on teaching practice in most cases are not supervised by school headmasters or the mentors. Lack of constant and regular has implications on the quality of professional development of the student teacher. Rapport between mentors and student teachers negatively affects student performance. Some mentors do not want students in their class while other become so close these situations impact negatively on the quality of teaching practice. Mentors need to be trained mentoring in the work they do in supporting teacher preparation.

This research found out that little time is set aside for student teachers to teach all subjects of the primary school curriculum. This affects the quality of teaching practices. Micro-teaching allows student teachers to have first experience standing in front of a class and to apply the theory being learnt in college without being assessed. Lectures are overloaded with other responsibilities as a result most students are not assessed and assisted professionally during micro-teaching. The period of one or two weeks is not good adequate to prepare a student teacher for teaching practice. This is
an area of concern to the researcher since there are variations on how micro teaching
done in the teachers colleges. The student teachers therefore are not well prepared for
teaching practice. The students lack pedagogical centred knowledge and the practical
experience as well as lack of subject knowledge when they go out for teaching
practice. One school mentor said that “I have to teach the student everything starting from
scheming, planning, writing objectives lesson delivery but I do not have ... for that because I have
children to attend to “This means mentors do not have time o assist the student’. In some cases this
situation is exacerbated by the hot-sitting arrangements where teachers have little time
to in a classroom where they can teach in a comfortable environment however the two
mentor and mentee have to pave way for another class to came in and teaching under
a tree is not ideal for effective teaching..

Colleges assess their students following guidelines from DTE. The quality assurance
framework for DTE tends to focus on summative assessments than formative
assessment. Colleges will ensure their departments prepare for external assessments
by meeting the requirements of DTE. Some lecturers ask students to redo assignments
and projects to meet DTE expectations especially prospective distinction students.
The study found out that the lectures are involved in writing the syllabus, setting
examination questions, set and making of assignments as well as assess practical
teaching. The process of producing a teacher and the quality of the graduate as in the
hands of a single lecturer with prevalence of cases of examinations leakages and
lecturer-student love relationships quality of the whole process is heavily
compromised.
Quality of the teacher education graduates has been compromised by the quality of external assessment. The researcher found out that in experienced lectures and non-specialists in primary teaching are assigned in some cases to assess programmes they are not conversant with. College’s lecturers are concerned with the criteria used to select external assessors. External assessors tend to give conflicting comments from year to year creating mistrust between external assessors and internal assessors in some institution or departments. Criteria for selecting external assessors should be transparent.

5.5 Conclusion

From the above findings and discussion the researcher concludes that:

- Teacher education in Zimbabwe does not have clearly articulated theoretical or conceptual framework guiding teacher education. This study concludes that teacher training does not have clearly specified standards to be achieved by a teacher education institution.

- This study also concludes that the teacher education curriculum is relevant to the Zimbabwean context and can adequately equip student teachers with the basic elements of teaching.

- Teaching in teachers’ colleges is dominated by the lecture method and students cannot learn how to use other methods through demonstration and the lecture method negatively impact on the quality of learning.

- The quality of inputs, processes and outcomes is low. The quality of all the aspects of teaching and learning has had its quality compromised by high enrolments into the teacher education programmes as well as the absence of student centered learning.
• The quality of teaching practice is of low quality due to poor mentoring, work overload on the part of the students as well as lack of standardised student assessment.

• There is poor mentoring of student teachers during teaching practice and student teachers are not getting professional guidance.

• The quality of graduates is low because of lack in-depth content knowledge and low quality teaching practice experiences

• This study concludes that the whole teacher education system in Zimbabwe needs to be reviewed in the context of quality.

5.6 Recommendations

The study makes the following recommendations which are compartmentalised for colleges, ministry, mentors and further research.

• There is need to have a conceptual framework that will guide teacher preparation in Zimbabwe.

• There is need to review the implementation of the ZINTEC model to facilitate acquisition of in-depth theory as well as the related practice.

• There is need to establish a student support system to support student teachers on teaching practice and those in college. These include use of e-library, e-resources or mobile libraries.

• When colleges are designing their strategic plans they need to consider quality as one of the key strategic objectives.

• There is need for an independent quality assurance body or unit under the Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education focusing on quality assurance in teachers’ colleges.
• For entry into teacher education I recommend ‘A’ Level to be the minimum entry qualification into teacher training to ensure high quality candidate join the teaching profession.

• There is need for standardisation of the teacher education curriculum to ensure teacher education standards are developed and these programmes can be evaluated by government or independent bodies.

• Lecturers need to be trained on how to interview teacher education candidates to ensure selection of the best candidates.

• A teaching practice assessment instrument based should be developed based on research to standardize teaching practice in the context of quality.

• A code of conduct should be put in place to protect the victimization and sexual harassment of student teachers by lecturers especially female student teachers.

• A model for mentoring of student teachers need to be developed and should developed in the context of Zimbabwe and a standardised criterion be put in place to ensure high quality mentors have students attached to them during teaching practice.

• A criterion for selection of external assessors needs to be put in place and a more transparent system should be put in place to ensure experience and highly regarded assessors are selected to do external assessment.

• The teacher education curriculum should be reviewed to include what teaches need to know and be able to after going through the teacher education programme in terms subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge practical experience.
• There is need for a teacher education model which emphasises student–centred and adult learning approaches.

• This study recommends a minimum qualification of a master’s degree to teach in a teacher’s college and this is in line with world standards.

• There is need to develop a standardized micro-teaching model for teacher education in Zimbabwe to improve its design and delivery and ultimately its quality.

• The schools and mentors involved in teacher training need to be assessed and a criteria put in place to ensure student teachers are guaranteed high quality teaching practice.

• This study recommends giving mentors involved in training of teachers incentives.

• Colleges need to put in place institutional quality assurance policies, processes and procedures to ensure high quality internal evaluation of the programme.

• There is need to introduce subject specialisation in colleges so that students are not generalists but they are specialist and this will curb the problem work overload on the part of the students and qualified teachers.

• There is need to review the primary school curriculum in the light of the number of subjects offered (thirteen) which is impacting on the teacher education curriculum. Teacher education institution are required to prepare teachers who can teach all subjects offered in the primary schools but this is proving to ineffective hence the need to review subjects taught in the primary school to promote quality preparation and quality teaching in the primary schools.
This study recommends further research in the following areas.

- The relationship between entry qualifications and the quality of the graduates produced by teachers colleges.
- The relationship between entry qualifications and student teacher performance during teaching practice.
- Mentoring models and practices in Zimbabwe their impact on teacher quality.
- Teacher education models and practices in Zimbabwe and their impact on teacher quality.
- The impact of pedagogical content knowledge on teacher effectiveness in Zimbabwe.
- What should we teach in the primary schools? What should primary children learn and what skills should they be equipped with to prepare them for future studies.
- A critical examination of lecturers’ underlying beliefs and dispositions and their impact on their teaching practices.
- A national research on the composition and structure of the primary school curriculum and its implication on quality education in Zimbabwe.
- What knowledge, skills and attitudes do initial teacher education possess before and after training.
- Approaches, designs and standards underpinning teacher education programmes in Zimbabwe.
- A study of the recruitment and selection of teacher education candidates in teachers colleges in Zimbabwe.
• A study of internal assessment processes in teacher education institutions in Zimbabwe in the context of quality.

• The study of sexual harassment of students by lecturers in Teachers’ Colleges in Zimbabwe.

• Quality of teaching practice Assessment by lecturers and its impact on teacher quality in Zimbabwe.

• The impact of the Scheme of Associate between DTE and Teachers College on Teacher training in Zimbabwe in the context of quality.

5.7 The contribution of this research to teacher education in Zimbabwe

The researcher proposes a teacher education model guided by the constructivist approach to teaching and learning. Unlike the model for teacher education developed by Chong (2009) that has values, skills and knowledge the model proposed in this study include a component of attitudes. The study indicates the need for developing positive teacher attitudes during initial training. The model that is proposed is called the values, attitude, skills knowledge (VASK) model. The model is illustrated below:
The Values Attitude Skills and Knowledge (VASK) Model

Values
- Unhuism
- Patriotism
- Collaboration
- Teamwork
- Commitment
- Dedication
- Professionalism
- Lifelong learning

Attitudes
- Care for children
- Kindness to children
- Responsibility for own learning
- Sensitivity to students diversity
- Promoting student
- Creating and innovation
- Honesty and integrity

Skills
- Pedagogical
- Administrators
- Interpersonal
- Reflective
- Critical inquiry
- Technical

Knowledge
- Subject matter
- Pedagogy
- Pedagogical content
- Curriculum
- Pupil-centred learning
- Learning environment

Values are important aspects that should be developed by a teacher education programme. These should be values considered important by the educational community and society at large. These are core values cherished by the educational community. The school is an institution with a community of students and teachers who or are to serve society. Hence these values should ensure high quality and lifelong learning.

Attitudes are dispositions that should be developed in teacher candidates. Student teachers have prior experiences in relation to effective teaching. Attitudes or dispositions are a habitual way of thinking about various aspects of teaching and
learning. Attitudes towards learners, education, self and work have implications on how one does his or her work. Skills to be developed include teaching skills, interpersonal skills and technical skills among others. Skills enable teachers execute their work in the classroom.

Quality teacher should be equipped with a solid knowledge base. What is it that teachers need to know? They need to be equipped with knowledge of content, pedagogy, pedagogical content, the curriculum and knowledge of the environment in which they are working. This knowledge base ensures that high quality teachers are produced. The VASK model will guide curriculum development and teacher education programme implementation. The model could also guide the teacher education as they plan and implement teacher education programmes.
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APPENDIX A

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent

I am Cuthbert Majoni a Doctor of Philosophy student at the Zimbabwe Open University. The title of the thesis is “Critical Evaluation of Teacher Education Quality and its Implications on Teacher Quality in Zimbabwe”.

I am asking you to assist me in carrying out this research by participating in data collection. You can do so by responding to the questions presented below. Your response will be of great value to this research. If you decide not to continue participating in this research you have the right to withdraw any time. Thank you for your willingness to participate in this research. Please indicate by a tick your responses (√).

SECTION A

1. Gender       Male □      Female □

2. Age
   Below 25 □       26 – 30 □         31 – 35 □      Above36 □

3. ‘O’ level passes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘A’ level</td>
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4. Year of training

   First □       Second □       Third □
SECTION B

5. How were you recruited into your college?

6. What are the guiding principles of the teacher training programme in which you are enrolled?

Support your answer.

7. Do the institutional practices ensure high quality teacher training?

Yes ☐ No ☐

8. How do you rate the quality of your lecturers?

Very high ☐ high ☐ low ☐ Very low ☐

Explain the method of delivery they usually use?

9. How do you rate the quality of the teacher education curriculum?

Very high ☐ high ☐ low ☐ Very low ☐

Support your answer.

SECTION C

10. To be a high quality teacher you need subject matter knowledge which level of education can make you a high quality teacher.

‘O’ level ☐ ‘A” Level ☐ Degree ☐

Support your answer.

11. How do you rate the quality of subject matter you have received from your College?

Very high ☐ high ☐ low ☐ Very low ☐
12. Which subject areas do you need more content to ensure quality teaching?

Specify:

13. How do you rate the quality of preparation for classroom teaching?

Very high □ high □ low □ Very low □

Specify areas you think you have high quality teacher preparation in terms of classroom teaching:

14. How do you rate the quality of your teaching practice?

Very high □ high □ low □ Very low □

Explain your answer:

15. How do you rate the quality of your mentors?

Very high □ high □ low □ Very low □

16. In your opinion how do mentors contribute to quality of teacher training?

17. Which areas of classroom teaching do you feel not well trained to ensure high quality teaching?

18. In your opinion does your college produce high quality teachers?

YES □ NO □

Support your answer:
APPENDIX B

STUDENT INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How were you recruited into your college?

2. What are the guiding principles of the teacher training programme in which you are enrolled?

3. How do you rate the quality of your lecturers?

4. What is the method of teaching usually used by lecturers?

5. How do you rate the quality of the teacher education curriculum?

6. To be a high quality teacher you need subject matter knowledge which level of education can make you a high quality teachers.

7. How do you rate the quality of subject matter you received from your college?

8. Which subject areas do you need more content to ensure quality teaching?

9. How do you rate the quality of preparation for classroom teaching?

10. How do you rate the quality of your teaching practice?

11. How do you rate the quality of your mentors?

12. In your opinion how do mentors contribute to qualify of teacher training?
APPENDIX C

LECTURERS INTERVIEW GUIDE

Background Information

1. Gender               Male □       Female □
2. Age
   □ Below 25       □ 25 – 30       □ 31 – 35
   □ 36 – 40       □ 41 – 45       □ 45 and above

3. Qualification
   BSC □       BED □       MED □       MSC □
   Teacher □       Other please specify………………………………………………..

4. Experience
   □ Below 2 years   □ 2 – 3 years   □ 3 – 4 years   □ Above 4 years

5. Lecturers’ Views on Quality of Programme
   • Does your institution have a conceptual framework to guide teacher training?
     Yes □       No □

   • Do you have quality policies guiding practices in the college?
     Yes□       No □
     If yes what are these ...........................................................

     How do you rate the quality of external assessment?

   • How do you ensure high quality candidates are recruited for teacher training?
   • How do you ensure that interviews are of high quality?
   • Which level of education for entry into the teacher training programme can ensure
     production of high quality graduates?
     ‘O’ Level □       ‘A’ Level □       Degree □
• What is your rating of the quality of subject matter knowledge offered by your college? ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

• How much content does a primary school teacher require?

• How do you ensure candidates are equipped with high quality pedagogical knowledge? How do you ensure students are ready to teach a class?

• How much pedagogical knowledge ensures high quality teaching?

• How does the college ensure micro teaching is of quality? How long should it be?

• How does the college ensure teaching practice is of quality? How long should it be?

• Which aspects can ensure teaching practice is of high quality?

• What are your views on the quality of the teacher education curriculum in preparing high quality teachers? …………………………………………………………………………. 

• How does the college evaluate the performance of lecturers?

• In your opinion what are the quality implications of the 2-5-2 model?

• What are your suggestions on improving the quality of teacher training?
APPENDIX D

QUESTIONS TO TEACHER EDUCATION GRADUATES

1. Can you tell us about your background – college, year graduating?

2. How do you rate the quality of content you acquired from college to teach different subjects?

3. How do you rate quality of teaching knowledge you acquire during training?

4. How do you rate the quality of teaching practice and which practices done during training are no longer applicable to you as a qualified teacher?

5. What values as a teacher do you possess as a result of teacher training?

6. Your comment on the quality of the teacher training programme?

7. Your overall rating of the quality of graduates produced by your farmer college?

8. Can you comment on areas of improvement?
## APPENDIX E

### Participants Background Information for Lecturers

#### Background Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Experience</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>M</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Above 45 yrs</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>Experience</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>M</td>
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<tr>
<td>40 – 45 yrs</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 45 yrs</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
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#### Mentors

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#### Students

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APPENDIX F

A LETTER OF PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH AT TEACHERS COLLEGES FROM THE PERMANENT SECRETARY MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY EDUCATION

Reference: E/7/5

SECRETARY FOR HIGHER AND TERTIARY EDUCATION
P.O. Box CY 7732
Causeway
HARARE

14th June 2013

Mr. C. Majoni
Zimbabwe Open University
P. Bag 984
Bindura

Dear Mr. C. Majoni

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH ON “A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF QUALITY SYSTEMS IN TEACHER EDUCATION AND IMPLICATIONS ON TEACHER QUALITY IN ZIMBABWE”

Reference is made to your letter, in which you request for permission to carry out an educational research on “A Critical Evaluation of Quality Systems in Teacher Education and Implications on Teacher Quality in Zimbabwe”.

Accordingly, be advised that the Head of Ministry has granted permission for you to carry out the research in Primary Teachers’ Colleges in Zimbabwe.

It is hoped that once completed your research will benefit the Ministry. Accordingly, it would be appreciated if you could supply the Office of the Permanent Secretary with a final copy of your study, as the findings would be relevant to the Ministry’s strategic planning process.

MJ Chirapa
for: PERMANENT SECRETARY