Quality Assurance of Teacher Education in Africa

Bikas C Sanyal
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Quality assurance of teacher education in Africa

Bikas C Sanyal

Addis Ababa, 2013

UNESCO: International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa
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Foreword

Among the three priorities in its Teacher Education Strategy, UNESCO identified one as the improvement of teacher quality. The Director General of UNESCO in her message on the World Teacher’s Day on 5 October 2012 further emphasised quality assurance of teacher education, measurement of teachers’ performance and their professional development. Quality of teacher is very important for quality of education. Moreover, the knowledge base in quality assurance for higher education in general has recently been available. In spite of these factors, the mechanisms for assuring the quality of teachers and teacher education were significantly lacking. The present booklet which is the fifth in the series of the Fundamentals of Teacher Education Development attempts to contribute to reducing the gap.

The vice-chairman of the Governing Board of IICBA, Dr. Bikas C. Sanyal has conceived this series. It was approved at the 2008 Board meeting and launched in 2009 under the coordination of IICBA program staff, Dr. Patience Awopegba. As the honorary technical adviser, Dr. Sanyal also took responsibility as the general editor for the series. The purpose of the series was to bring together the expertise in teacher education in Africa to deal with the complex issues of teacher development and enrich IICBA in its knowledge base for capacity building for teacher education in Africa. The series serves two types of clientele: those engaged in or preparing for teacher education planning and management in Africa and elsewhere, and others less specialized such as senior government officials and civic leaders who seek a more general understanding of teacher education development. The booklets are meant for private study or in formal training programmes. As readers may vary widely in their backgrounds the authors are given the difficult task of introducing their subjects from the beginning and, explaining technical terms that may be known to some but unknown to others. However, they are required to adhere to scholarly standards. It is also to ensure that the booklets are intelligible to general readers. In such an academic exercise, IICBA does not attempt to avoid authors’ difference of opinion or even contradictions in the views expressed by them. The authors are
selected for their professional excellence and experience especially in African contexts. An attempt is made to maintain linguistic balance as much as possible. The booklets go through rigorous peer review before publication.

Dr. Sanyal has had three decades of experience at the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and in capacity building in educational development all over the world. He was also as the guest editor and directed the preparation of the Report on “Higher Education in the World 2007, accreditation for Quality Assurance: What is at stake?” Sponsored by the UNESCO and the Global University Network for Innovation, the report was published by Palgrave Macmillan with contributions from 48 world experts in the subject. IICBA is very happy that he brought his experience on the subject for its benefit and hopes that the world of teacher education will equally benefit from it.

I am also very happy that the Preface of this booklet is written by Professor PAI Obanya known as “the Grand Sage of Education in Africa” and recently, a recipient of the Award of the “Most Outstanding Mentor of Educational Researchers in Africa” for 2011-2012; and the author of the first booklet in the IICBA series entitled: “Bringing back the teacher to the African School.” IICBA is proud of his association.

My thanks go to the reviewers of the booklet: Professor Bob Moon, Professor Emeritus, The Open University, United Kingdom; Professor J. B. Babalola of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria; Professor Kabba E. Elly of Pace University, USA and the well renowned international educational strategist, Professor PAI Obanya. Their comments, I am sure, have enriched the booklet significantly. I am grateful to them.

Finally I would like to thank my colleague Dr. Patience Awopegba, the Assistant Editor of the series, for coordinating the project of the series and all IICBA staff for their contribution to the booklet in their respective capacities.

Arnaldo Nhavoto
Director, IICBA
Preface

Education policies, however well intentioned and official curricula, however well crafted, cannot succeed without the teacher, whose professional management of the teaching-learning process ensures that education really takes place. It is not just any teacher that can make education happen. It has to be the effective teacher, who benefits from quality professional preparation and is systematically supported by quality career-long professional development. How has quality in support of teacher education been promoted in Africa? What lessons can be learnt from experiences over the years in this field for this region? What can be learnt from international best practices to enrich experiences from within? In view of the changing roles of the teacher in the knowledge-propelled world of the current century, what should be the future directions for ensuring that quality pervades teacher education to ensure quality learning in the schools of Africa? These are the key questions to which this booklet seeks to provide answers.

Quality in Education, described by writers of old as an “elusive concept”, is subjected to in-depth analysis in the opening chapters. The author draws from world-wide debates on the subject (mainly from UNESCO sources) and ends up with a comprehensive characterisation of the concept that supports the view, that discourse on quality in education should go beyond school, classroom and teacher issues to embrace contextual (social, political and economic) issues that have an impact on Education.

Why is quality important in teacher education? The booklet looks at this very important question from the universal standpoint that TEACHERS DO MATTER. Traditional gadgets and modern ICTs do certainly play a role in facilitating learning, but these can only be a support to (and not a replacement) for the teacher. Moreover, all the six Dakar Education for all (EFA) goals place due emphasis on quality. This implies that whatever is done to promote EFA must be imbued with quality. The teacher, being the most important input in the education quality equation, should radiate quality. The booklet makes this case with the support of literature from a variety of sources, with due emphasis on global debates on the issue promoted over the years under the aegis of UNESCO.
Africa is not lacking in policies, mechanisms and processes for assuring quality in teacher education. These experiences are discussed in the middle chapters of the booklet. The message here is not simply that something is happening in this direction. It is more about the lessons to be learnt from on-going experiences so that quality assurance initiatives in teacher education can be further enriched. This is also the purpose of the discussion on international best practices discussed in the booklet. The message to the reader (end-user) here is not to ‘adopt’ but rather to ‘adapt’.

The purpose of every effort at situational analysis is to re-think prevailing ideas, to re-conceptualise today’s dominant paradigms, to re-direct existing programmes, to re-focus conventional interventions, and to give birth to a repositioned product. This line of thinking underlies the ‘fruits for action’ presented in the closing chapters of the booklet. With our clearer understanding of the concept of quality in education, an enhanced realisation of the prime importance of quality in teacher education, and an insightful awareness of the ups and downs of our past and on-going initiatives in assuring quality in teacher education. The question is what should be the most appropriate methodologies for the future? The booklet points to methods of working out the way forward and a reflective reader is invited to use these as the basis for further creative thinking and innovative action for enhancing the quality of quality assurance in teacher education programmes in Africa.

This is a work of incisive analysis with rich illustrative examples, ending with a suggested framework for improved policies, programmes and concrete actions to enhance quality assurance in teacher education in the region. It is a distillation of the thinking, experience and reflections of Dr. Sanyal, a man who thoroughly knows his onions on the subject. Researchers, policy-makers, teacher educators and managers of education at both the system and the institutional levels will find in it a rich source of inspiration.

Prof. Pai Obanya
International Education Strategist, Ibadan-Nigeria
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<td>African Virtual University</td>
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<tr>
<td>B.Ed</td>
<td>Bachelor of Education</td>
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<td>BREDA</td>
<td>Regional Office for Education in Africa (Now UNESCO Regional Office in Dakar)</td>
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<td>CAMES</td>
<td>Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l’Enseignement Supérieur</td>
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<td>Classroom Interaction Sheet</td>
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<td>DSE</td>
<td>German Foundation for International Development</td>
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<td>ECOWAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of West African States</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<td>FAAP</td>
<td>Federation of Accrediting Agencies of the Philippines</td>
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<td>GMR</td>
<td>Global Monitoring Report</td>
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<td>IIEP</td>
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<td>ILOs</td>
<td>Intended Learning Outcomes</td>
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<td>International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education</td>
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<td>ISO</td>
<td>International Standard Organization</td>
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<td>MET</td>
<td>Measures of Effective Teaching</td>
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<td>NAAC</td>
<td>National Assessment and Accreditation Council</td>
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NCATE National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
ODeL Open, Distance and e-Learning
ODL Open and Distance Learning
PTTP Pivotal Teacher Training Programme
QA Quality Assurance
QAF The Quality Assurance Framework
QAS Quality Assurance Systems
QATTEI Quality Assurance Toolkit for Teacher Education Institutions
SADC Southern African Development Community
SWOT Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
TEAC Teacher Education Accreditation Council
TLS Teaching Learning Strategy
TTISA Teacher Training Initiative for Sub-Saharan Africa
UBE Universal Basic Education
UIS UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO United Nations Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization
UPE Universal Primary Education
Chapter 1: Introduction

Teacher education refers to the policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school and wider community.

Although ideally it should be conceived of, and organized as a seamless continuum, teacher education is often divided into these stages:

- **Initial teacher training / education** (a pre-service course before entering the classroom as a fully responsible teacher);
- **Induction** (the process of providing training and support during the first few years of teaching or the first year in a particular school);
- **Teacher development or continuing professional development (CPD)** (an in-service process for practicing teachers).

There is a longstanding and ongoing debate about the most appropriate term to describe these activities. The term ‘teacher training’ (which may give the impression that the activity involves training staff to undertake relatively routine tasks) seems to be losing ground, to ‘teacher education’ (with its connotation of preparing staff for a professional role as a reflective practitioner; Cecil, 1940). As the title suggests, the term teacher education will be used throughout this document.

The link between good quality education and socio-economic development is now established beyond doubt (UNESCO, 2004). Although it was generally believed that the quality of teachers and teacher education determine the quality of education however, most of the declarations and commitments to provide free and compulsory education to all children of all nations have remained silent about assuring the quality of teacher
education to be provided to ensure good quality education. These include the World Declaration on Education for All adopted in 1990 at the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand. Emphasis was placed mainly on quantitative aspects of educational development. Education for All (EFA), the flagship UNESCO programme, received explicit mention of quality a decade later in the Dakar Framework for Action, referred to as the EFA Dakar goals, and has its sixth goal as follows:

“Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills”.

Although quality assurance of higher education around the world and quality of education in general in Africa has been a matter of concern for a long time, mechanisms of assuring quality of teacher education in Africa remained out of focus until recently. In addition to UNESCO, several other nongovernmental organizations joined in the effort of improving teacher education in Africa. For example, the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) published its handbook “Teach Your Best” dealing with teacher development in Eastern and Southern Africa countries in 1995. They dealt primarily with development of teachers in teacher education. UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa reoriented its programme of activities focusing on teacher education since 2005. UNESCO took several initiatives by setting up the Teacher Training Initiative for Sub-Saharan Africa (TTISA) in 2006 with teacher education development as one of the objectives. In the same year Eurydice published the report entitled “Quality Assurance in Teacher Education in Europe” giving different mechanisms of assuring and improving teacher education quality. Although based on studies in European countries, the results are applicable to Africa as it will be observed later. In 2007, three important publications were produced; one fully devoted to teacher
education quality and the other two on quality assurance of higher
education which includes teacher education. The first one entitled: 
“Quality Assurance Toolkit for Teacher Education Institutions” 
(QATTEI) was published jointly by National assessment and 
Accreditation Council of India and Commonwealth of Learning, 
Canada. The scope of the publication goes beyond the teacher 
education institutions of African Commonwealth countries and 
is applicable to the institutions of the whole world.

The second is entitled: “Higher Education in the World 
2007, Accreditation for Quality assurance: What is at Stake?” 
which was published by Palgrave Macmillan and the Global 
University Network for Innovation. This includes a chapter on 
Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education in Sub-
Saharan Africa. The third, “External Quality Assurance in Higher 
Education: Making Choices” was published by UNESCO-IIEP. 
In the same year, the challenges of quality assurance in teacher 
education were discussed at a workshop in the UNESCO Global 
Forum on International Quality Assurance, Accreditation and the 
Recognition of Qualifications held in Tanzania. The International 
Task Force on Teachers for Education for All, an international 
alliance of all EFA partners working together to meet the global 
teacher gap in both quantity and quality was set up in 2008. 
UNESCO-BREDIA published the report entitled “Universal 
Primary Education in Africa: The Teacher Challenge” in 2009, 
pread by Pole de Dakar also dealing with the quality of the 
teachers’ work as a significant determinant of the quality of the 
educational services delivered. In 2010, The Bill-Melinda Gates 
Foundation launched the project on “Measures of Effective 
Teaching” (MET) in American school districts to improve 
teacher education quality. The results have demonstrated that it 
is possible to identify great teaching by combining three types of 
measures: classroom observations, student surveys, and student 
achievement gains. The findings are useful for quality assurance 
of teacher education (Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, 2013) 
(See Chapter 3 for more details).
The concern for teacher quality has been largely due to an accelerating rate of increase in enrolment. It was observed that total enrolment in primary and secondary education worldwide increased from 1073 million in 1999 (646 million in primary and 427 million in secondary) to 1233 million in 2009 (702 million primary and 531 million in secondary), an increase of 14.9 percent. In Sub-Saharan Africa the increase was from 106 million in 1999 (82 million in primary and 24 million in secondary) to 170 million in 2009 (131 million in primary and 39 million secondary), an increase of 60 per cent (UNESCO, 2004, 2010, 2011). According to UIS updated projection in sub-Saharan Africa, where enrolment has soared in the past decade, teachers are in particularly short supply. Approximately 1 million new teaching positions need to be created in the region by 2015. Factoring in attrition, sub-Saharan Africa will need to recruit 350,000 new primary-level teachers per year up to 2015 to ensure that every child has access to quality education. The most critical teacher gaps are found in Burkina Faso, Chad and Niger, which must be more than double the size of their teaching workforces by 2015, while the Central African Republic and Eritrea will need to triple their stocks if they are to achieve UPE. (UNESCO-UIS, UNESCO UIS: Updated projections on the global supply and demand for primary teachers to 2015, UIS 2011).

It has not been possible to supply qualified teachers to cope with this increase especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, which projects a requirement of four million teachers in 2015, up from 2.4 million in 2004. Moreover, a significant proportion of teachers in many countries are untrained or unqualified; for example, in Uganda (63 percent), Nigeria (44 percent) and The Gambia (42 percent). Since existing teacher education institutions do not have the capacity to address these major shortfalls in supply, it becomes necessary to expand the education provided through the open and distance learning (ODL) institutions (Commonwealth Learning, 2009). However, this creates complexity in assuring quality. There are other reasons for the complexity in assuring quality with diversity of providers of teacher education as described below.
Teacher education is provided through different agencies as follows:

- The university system (e.g., faculties/institutes)
- The government, under different names (department of school education, department of public instruction, directorate of school education etc.)
- Independent colleges run by a specific agency
- Institutions run by different denominational agencies (e.g., religious organizations, community organizations, non-governmental organizations, minority groups etc.)

All these agencies work towards preparing effective teachers but each of them has its own definition of quality and the way of operation. The providers are also diversified in providing in-service or pre-service teacher education. They are also diversified in delivery methods: face-to-face, open, distance and e-learning (ODeL) as observed with the emerging innovative methods of teaching/learning strategies. Various qualifications such as the Teaching Certificate, the Associate Degree in Teacher Education, the Teaching Diploma, the Pre-service Bachelor/Masters Education, and the Post-graduate Diploma in Education, are all awarded on completion of a programme of initial professional studies. However, the programmes that lead to these initial professional qualifications differ significantly in content, duration and assessment criteria, and are delivered at different academic levels.

In addition, new types of institutions with an increased role of the private sector have emerged as follows:

- Privatization of non-instructional activities and provision of self-financed ‘private’ students in public institutions of teacher education;
- Establishment of private teacher education institutions with government support;
- Establishment of public teacher education institutions with private support;
- Self-financed private institutions of various types;
- Self-financed students in public institutions.
In short, a complex variety of teacher education is being delivered at the beginning of the twenty-first century. Some of them are consumer/government demand-driven, but some are newly emerging producer supply-driven. Some are commercial entities with little social commitment, whilst others are non-profit and even philanthropic. Some of the questions that arise include: What about their quality? How would the students of teacher education know what they are getting is worthy of the time and money they have invested? How would the governments check if the money they are providing is getting its value and if the institutions are working for public interest? How would the employers in private institutions know what they see in the certificates is what they get in qualification? How would the institutions of teacher education know that their self-presentation can be taken at face value and if they are keeping their edge in respect of quality? In respect of open, distance and e-learning as delivery methods AVU has the following rationale for quality assurance:

“...funders, sceptics, supporters, managers and implementers of ODeL environments are aware of the challenges and await measures of accountability and quality assurance to take teacher education to the next level in Africa” (AVU, 2012).

To meet its social commitment, the teacher education sector has to protect the interest of its consumers (i.e. the students, the employers in government and private sector, the teachers’ unions, the society at large and also the interest of the institutions themselves). This phenomenon has generated worldwide growing concern for the quality of teacher education: inputs, processes and outcomes. New systems of quality assurance to cover all levels of teacher education are now emerging. To assure quality; the meaning of quality must be clarified. This is discussed in the chapter two.
Chapter 2: The concept of quality and associated notions

In this chapter the concept of quality, its evolution as well as the educational traditions and associated notions of quality will be discussed.

The Definition of Quality:

There is no widely agreed definition of quality of education that exists today. It is a multi-dimensional concept, depending upon the stakeholders’ mission and evolves over time as will be observed below.

2.1. The evolution of UNESCO’s conceptualization of quality

Although it has been lamented that quality of teacher education did not receive much attention, the quality of education has been a matter of concern for quite some time. In 1968, the International Institute for Educational Planning of UNESCO organized a symposium on the qualitative aspects of educational planning with particular reference to developing countries. The symposium dealt with the concept of quality both intensively and extensively and most of its deliberations are valid even today (Beeby, 1969). In dealing with the issue of quality, two distinctions have been made. One is the distinction between the product and the process of education and the other is when one looks at the system from within (internal quality) and excellence viewed as the fitness of the system to the society it serves. This means that an institution may be judged to be internally excellent, that is, it attains the objectives it set out to achieve which (will be later referred to as ‘fitness of purpose’) yet be unfit in meeting the needs of the society (‘fitness for purpose’).

A few years later in the early seventies, the UNESCO sponsored report of the International Commission on the Development of Education “Learning To Be: The World
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of Education Today and Tomorrow,” chaired by the French politician and intellectual Edgar Faure dealt with the issue of quality of education. According to the report:

“...the aim and content of education must be recreated, to allow both for the new features of society and the new features of democracy” (Faure et al., 1972).

The report went further to state that good quality education should give emphasis to scientific development and modernization. It should be relevant to evolving societal needs and learning should be ‘life-long’.

Almost two decades later in 1990 the World Declaration on Education for All, made in Jomtien, Thailand, broadened the scope of the definition and

“...identified quality as a prerequisite for achieving the fundamental goal of equity. While the notion of quality was not fully developed, it was recognized that expanding access alone, would be insufficient for education to contribute fully to the development of the individual and society. Emphasis was accordingly placed on assuring an increase in children’s cognitive development by improving the quality of their education” (UNESCO, 2004).

A few years later, the International Commission on Education for the twenty first century, chaired by another French statesman, Jacques Delors, presented the Report on “Learning: The treasure Within” to UNESCO. The Commission provided the conceptualization of education as an integrated and comprehensive view of learning. It gave the constituents of good quality education based on four pillars: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be (Delors, 1996). In the year 2000, the UNESCO sponsored declaration of the Dakar Framework for Action affirmed that ‘quality was at the heart of education’. The ‘Framework’ established six goals
called EFA Dakar Goals. The sixth goal (mentioned in the chapter one), which deals with quality of education, is as follows.

“Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills”. “Its expanded definition of quality set out the desirable characteristics of learners (healthy, motivated students), processes (competent teachers using active pedagogies), content (relevant curricula) and systems (good governance and equitable resource allocation)” (UNESCO, 2004).

Although this established an agenda for achieving good education quality, it did not ascribe any relative weighting to the various dimensions identified. This was of course achieved in the construction of the “Education for All Development Index”, to measure the progress made by different countries in achieving the six goals including good quality education. The annual Education for All Global Monitoring Report was first published by UNESCO in 2002.

In 2003, at a Ministerial Round Table on Quality of Education held in UNESCO Paris, an operational definition for quality education rather than an expanded definition, a users’ guide to quality was developed to enable the quantification of objectives, through legislation, if necessary, was proposed. According to the Round table, “the attributes of a Quality Education are: holistic education with linkages across subsectors; a rights-based approach; a diversified curriculum and an adequate safe environment. Setting targets (and examining outcomes) are more important than rigid prescriptions of content. Developing students’ critical faculties and improving their capacity to dialogue will prepare them for responsible adulthood in society. Filling their heads with facts will not” (UNESCO, 2004b).
The Director-General concluded by announcing that UNESCO would make two contributions to the quality debate: an external evaluation of the “Monitoring Learning Achievement” project and “the 2005 edition of the EFA Global Monitoring Report,” whose focus is the quality of education (UNESCO, 2004). The report dwelt almost exclusively on quality and could not resolve the dilemma, but it gave a useful framework for understanding and assessing quality as given below.

Fig. I: A Framework for Understanding and Assessing Education Quality
However, the definition of quality of education cannot and must not ignore the socio-cultural realities of learners, their aspirations and the wellbeing of the nation. This leads to the argument that major alternative traditions of educational thought are to be taken into consideration in defining quality of education. So, definition of quality will vary according to different traditions. This issue is discussed below.

2.2. **Educational traditions and associated notions of quality**

Following the EFA Global Monitoring Report (2005), five traditions will be considered.

*Quality in humanist tradition*: Education (i) Should be responsive to individual learner’s circumstances and needs (ii) While assessment should be integrated to the learning process, learners should have information and feedback of their learning; self-assessment and peer assessment are welcomed; (iii) Teacher’s role is more of a facilitator than an instructor and (iv) Learning is considered more as a process of social practice than the result of an individual intervention.

*Quality in the behaviourist tradition*: In this tradition: (i) Education is based on prescribed objectives, standardized, externally defined with controlled curricula, (ii) Objectively preset assessment criteria are used to measure learned behaviour (iii) Tests and examinations are the main means of planning and delivering rewards and punishments (iv) Teacher directs learning and controls it and (v) Incremental tasks that reinforce desired associations in the learner’s mind are favoured.

*Quality in the critical tradition*: (i) Education should prompt social change, (ii) Curricula and teaching methods encourage critical analysis of social power relations and ways in which formal knowledge is produced and delivered and (ii) Active participation of learners in the design of their learning experience.
Quality in indigenous tradition: (i) Imported approaches are not necessarily relevant and relevance implies local design of teaching learning strategies (ii) Learners’ prior knowledge accumulated through their own experiences should be identified and nourished (iii) Learners should play a role in defining their own curriculum and (iv) Non-formal and lifelong learning should be an integral part of the teaching/learning strategy.

Quality in adult education approaches: In adult education tradition (i) Experience and critical reflection constitute important aspects of quality and (ii) Learners have the potential to use their experience and learning as a basis for social action and social change. From the above analysis one could observe the complexity and multi-dimensional nature of the quality concept.

As a part of the quality debate in teacher education, the concept of quality, one may appreciate, is highly disputed. Moreover, stakeholders often use it in order to legitimize their specific vision or interests. There are three reasons for the difficulties that the notion of quality encounters with regard to teacher education.

First, in spite of the definition of teacher education given in the beginning of Chapter One, there is no consensus on the exact objectives of teacher education. Based on the above notions of quality the following objectives can be distinguished, among others:

- Teacher education as the production of qualified teachers in humanist tradition;
- Teacher education as training for producing teachers in behaviourist tradition;
- Teacher education for producing teachers in critical analysts’ tradition.
Second, teacher education, as mentioned before, like any higher education, is a multi-dimensional and complex process based on the interrelationship of both teachers and learners. It is difficult to grasp the interaction of inputs and throughputs, and what exactly determines the outputs.

Third, as teacher education becomes more inclusive and the student population more heterogeneous demand on teacher education and on the provision of courses grows increasingly more diverse. What might seem an adequate definition of quality for one type of course or institution may therefore be quite inadequate for others. Sanyal and Martin (2007) listed ten definitions of quality: providing excellence, being exceptional, providing value for money, conforming to specifications, getting things right the first time, meeting the customers’ needs, having zero defects, providing added value, exhibiting fitness of purpose and exhibiting fitness for purpose. Along with the above, one more definition of quality is added. Following the International Standard Organization (ISO 9000), quality, as applied to teacher education, could be defined according to Gola (2003), as “specifying worthwhile learning goals and enabling student-teachers to achieve them”.

Specifying worthwhile learning goals would involve articulating academic standards to meet: (i) The expectations of the society; (ii) Student-teachers’ aspirations; (iii) Demands of the government and private sector for teachers; and (iv) The requirements of teacher education institutions, etc. Enabling student-teachers to achieve these goals would need a good course design, an effective teaching and learning strategy, competent teachers, and an enabling learning environment. The chapter three will consider the importance of quality in teacher education and factors determining it.
Chapter 3: Importance of quality in teacher education and measures of teacher effectiveness

In the preceding chapter the general aspects of quality in education have been discussed. The present chapter will deal specifically with teachers’ role in improving quality of education and how to measure teacher effectiveness: the role of quality indicators.

3.1. Teacher’s role in improving quality of education

World Teachers’ Day held annually on 5 October celebrates the essential role of teachers in providing quality education at all levels. The Joint Message on the occasion of the World Teachers’ Day in 2008, asserted “the need to ensure that the role of teachers in achieving quality Education for All is clearly articulated and reflected in policies which will foster a motivated, valued and effective teaching force” (UNESCO, 2009). On the occasion of the same event in 2011, Irina Bokova, the Director General of UNESCO made the following statement:

“Teachers... ultimately determine our collective ability to innovate, to invent, to find solutions for tomorrow. Nothing will ever replace a good teacher. Nothing is more important than supporting them” (UNESCO, 2012).

The above reaffirms the perception of the importance of teachers in improving quality of education. Some research evidences are given below to justify that. Since teachers are so important, educational researchers focused extensively on the best ways teachers could improve educational quality measured by student performance. Early research by Medley and Mitzel (1963) and Gage (1965) did not find significant relation between teachers’ personal characteristics, namely warmth and openness, strictness and inflexibility, and student achievement. Later, improved
research methodologies started showing teacher behaviours having significant impact on student performance. Coleman (1966) found teacher variable having the most pronounced effect on school achievement among pupils from modest backgrounds and ethnic minorities. In 1968, Benjamin Bloom hypothesized that, teachers who can help students to master each learning unit before proceeding to a more advanced learning task would reduce the achievement gaps between various groups of students. The technique is called “mastery learning” (Bloom, 1968). Stallings and Mohlman (1981) found that those who devoted time to organization, management and lesson planning, interactive teaching and monitoring pupil’s work had more significant impact on student performance.

Doyle’s research in 1985 identified a list of characteristics that teachers should have for better quality education. These are:

Capacity to formulate teaching goals: To split course material carefully into sequenced learning tasks (see Bloom above); to clearly explain what pupils must learn; to question students regularly to know their progress and understanding of the material taught; to give time to students to practice what has been taught; to test the students regularly and make them feel that they would be accountable for their work. Slavin in 1987 (quoted in UNESCO, 2004), demonstrated that those teachers who could introduce group rewards based on the individual learning of all group members and who could teach how to work together could have better impact on student performance.

A synthesis of 134 meta-analyses, designed to assess the factors that are most likely to help children revealed that educational innovations can be expected to change both average achievement and affective outcomes. Innovation and feedback appear to enhance effects; individualization does not. The studies showed that “even when there are significant differences in learners’ backgrounds, teachers can exert a powerful influence, raising levels of achievement” (UNESCO, 2004, p.152).
While comparing above mentioned highly structured teaching methods where teachers are main actors with constructive approach to teaching where teachers can motivate learners to be the main actors, Scheerens found that students from poor and low resource environments would achieve more from teachers following the structured approach (Scheerens and Hendriks, 2002, quoted in Scheerens, 2004). His research also showed that teachers having subject matter mastery, verbal intelligence with achievement orientation and having a teaching repertoire have better impact on quality. Further research led UNESCO to an additional finding: “Good teachers appear to be effective with learners of all achievement levels no matter how heterogeneous their classrooms” (UNESCO, 2004). In the same context for developing countries, E. A. Hanushek and his associates showed that quality of teacher education measured by subject matter competence has more significant impact on student performance in comparison with teacher’s experience (UNESCO, 2004, p.65).

In respect of the impact of teacher quality on student participation, a study on Kenya showed that those teachers who had substantial training could make up the loss of time in providing school meals while increasing school attendance without any loss on test scores. This would not be the case for teachers without substantial training (Vermeersch, 2002). Identification of teachers’ role in improving quality of teacher education leads us to identify measures of teacher effectiveness. The quality indicators for teachers are discussed below.

3.2. Quality indicators for teachers

There is no widely agreed measure for teacher effectiveness that exists today. As stated before, effectiveness is a multi-dimensional concept, depending upon the stakeholders’ mission and is expressed through quality indicators. However, under any concept, requirements of basic qualities of a teacher
to become effective would remain the same. Since teachers are the key component of the teacher education system, within the framework of their work on Quality Indicators for Teacher Education, National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), India and the Commonwealth of Learning, (COL), Canada have included some measures of effectiveness (quality) of teachers (Lakshmi et al., 2007). One has been able to identify sixteen such measures from that study. These measures are expressed on a five-point scale from “Needs improvement” as 1 to “Outstanding” as 5. These are as follow.

An effective teacher would;

(i) Function as a member of a team of eminent professionals.

(ii) Exhibit qualities of commitment, involvement and competence in professional effort.

(iii) Take initiative to learn the latest pedagogic techniques, to innovate and continuously seek improvement in their work, visualize and carry out curriculum transactions according to the nature of the enrolled student groups.

(iv) Provide a variety of learning experiences including individual, collaborative participatory and action oriented with flexibility in their implementation.

(v) Explore better ways of functioning and build upon their experiences systematically.

(vi) Discern, develop and utilize necessary learning material and organizational arrangements as part of regular practice to achieve the stated objectives of the programme effectively.

(vii) Make the classroom organization and management a joyful experience for the learners.

(viii) Develop strategies that relevantly sensitize students to the diversities in the societal contexts in addition to the instructional strategies.
(ix) Employ mechanisms for gathering, consolidating and disseminating evaluation data that reflect fairness and transparency.

(x) Follow up the learning experiences by monitoring, feedback and reflection and communicate the outcomes to learners leading to corrective measures.

(xi) Provide the various courses of theoretical study to develop an understanding and appreciation of a holistic educational perspective through dynamic learning experiences.

(xii) Employ an “eliciting” stance (developing reflective thinking and practice) rather than an “informing” stance.

(xiii) Make conscious effort to establish interconnectedness among the various components of the curriculum and programme offered.

(xiv) Have access to new technology, information on new contents, better techniques and methodologies on a regular basis and also, to use them regularly.

(xv) Provide adequate preparation for practice of teaching through various in-house hands on experiences including simulated practice.

(xvi) See that school-based experiences for practice teaching are comprehensive and varied to include exposure of students and teachers not only to their instructional but also other roles and functions.

In the African context, Adegbile and Adeyemi (2008) of University of Ibadan, Nigeria discussed the same issues and noted that “observational techniques as a strategy could go a long way in making teacher to be effective” (See Box1).
Box 1

[“There is the tendency to think that factors of teachers’ effectiveness could be defined in terms of teacher characteristics, his experiences, his/her cognitive and affective properties, the conditions to which he/she has to adjust and the characteristics of the school, classroom and student. Although each of these characteristics may contribute to teacher’s success, they are not the substance of effective teaching. A proper conceptualization of teaching and teacher’s effectiveness as a yardstick for quality assurance is necessary for a better understanding of what makes a teacher to be effective. It is believed that observational techniques as a strategy could go a long way in making teacher to be effective. This explains why this paper booklet examined how to enhance quality assurance through teacher’s effectiveness. To achieve this, one hundred primary school teachers were personally observed in their classes for a period of 30 minutes each. The instrument employed was tagged classroom interaction sheet (CIS), which consisted of seven categories (A – G). Two research hypotheses were postulated and t-test and ANOVA statistical analyses were employed. The results indicated variance in the behavioural categories observed. The observational techniques as a means of enhancing quality assurance therefore are advocated for further studies”.

As mentioned earlier teacher effectiveness drew the attention of Bill and Melinda Gates in the context of the American education. The Foundation launched the Measures of Effective Teaching (MET) project in 2010 to test new approaches to effective teaching and identify characteristics of effective
teachers working with 3,000 teacher-volunteers in selected public schools of the United States. Alternative approaches to identifying effective teaching were classroom observations, surveys collecting confidential student feedback, a new assessment of teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge and different measures of student achievement. The classroom observation was considered to be an important instrument for measuring teacher effectiveness. The project, at one stage, collected digital video for 13,000 lessons in the classrooms taught by the teacher volunteers to be eventually scored together with students’ perceptions of each teacher’s classroom. Its findings showed that (as mentioned in Chapter 1) the results have demonstrated that it is possible to measure teacher effectiveness by combining three types of measures: classroom observations, students’ confidential perception of teacher’s pedagogical content knowledge identified through students’ surveys, and students’ achievement gains measured by students’ test scores. A satisfactory aggregate score would make an effective teacher (Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, 2010, 2013).

Although teachers are the most important component determining educational quality, the quality of teacher education as a whole is determined by additional factors based on institutional characteristics. Teachers alone cannot assure good quality teacher education without an effective teacher education institution, which constitutes the teacher education system. The booklet will discuss how the quality of teacher education institution can be assured.
Chapter 4: Quality assurance in teacher education

In Chapter 3, the quality of teacher education has been defined and measures of effectiveness of teacher education have been identified. The following describes the factors determining quality of teacher education. This will be followed by the mechanisms of quality assurance and the role of accreditation in assuring quality of teacher education.

4.1. Factors determining quality in teacher education

- The quality of teacher education at the national context will be determined by the extent of relevance of its mission and objectives based on national goals, priorities and targets, thereby ensuring national relevance for a particular African country. However, in specific contexts, the determining factor is the fitness of purpose. The fitness of purpose will vary with the variation of the stakeholder leading to diversified courses, programmes, institutions and the quality will be determined by the extent of relevance of its mission and objectives based on the goals set by the stakeholder in his or her particular context.

- The quality of teacher education will also be determined by the extent at which it meets the objectives and the mission of the institution, programme, or course (fitness for purpose) set by the stakeholder. This factor is usually termed as “fitness for purpose”. According to the African Virtual University (AVU), the objectives and the mission in the African context may also consider (i) value for money judged in relation to the full range of teacher education purposes set out in teacher education policies and (ii) transformation, in the sense of developing the capabilities of individual members of staff and students for personal enrichment, as well as the requirements of social development, economic and employment growth (AVU, 2012), (See Box 2).
BOX 2

According to AVU, “a multi-facet description of quality that was used to inform the development of the QAF for the Teacher Education Programme is the following:

- Fitness of purpose based on national goals, priorities and targets, thereby ensuring national relevance for a particular African country.

- Value for money judged in relation to the full range of teacher education purposes set out in teacher education policies.

- Transformation, in the sense of developing the capabilities of individual members of staff and students for personal enrichment, as well as the requirements of social development, economic and employment growth” AVU (2012)

The quality of an institution, programme or course of teacher education will also be judged by the extent to which it satisfies the minimum standard set in respect of inputs, processes and outcomes. This is called the standard-based approach to quality.

As indicated above, the objectives of the stakeholders vary so that there can be many interpretations of quality with political implications. The articulation of standards has to find a common denominator as a basic requirement if it has to consider all the stakeholders while leaving ample room for institutions to fulfil their specific objectives and priorities. The standard-based
approach may not only aim at ensuring the minimum quality standard, but may also indicate standards of good practice that express desirable situations towards which institutions should strive and thus becomes a vehicle for quality improvement. This takes us to quality assurance mechanisms, which are discussed below.

4.2. Mechanism for assuring quality: Quality audit, quality assessment and accreditation

The phenomenon of assuring quality is quality assurance. “Quality assurance is an all-embracing term referring to an ongoing, continuous process of evaluating (assessing, guaranteeing, maintaining and improving the quality of a higher education system, institutions or programmes” (Vlasceanu, et al 2004). There are two types of quality assurance: internal and external. Internal quality assurance ensures an institution’s or a programme’s policies and mechanisms in place for making sure that it is meeting its own objectives and standards. External quality assurance refers to the actions of an external body different from the institution, which assesses its operation or that of its programmes in order to determine whether it is meeting the agreed or the predetermined standards as mentioned in Section 4.1.

Quality assurance exists at three levels: the institutional level, the programme and course level. In all cases, it has to address issues imposed on them by the respective stakeholders.

Quality assurance covers a variety of practices among which three mechanisms can be distinguished. Frequently, quality assurance agencies implement more than one mechanism and apply them to different units of analysis (institutions, programmes, courses). The mechanisms are discussed below (Sanyal and Martin, 2007).
Quality assurance of teacher education in Africa

**Quality audit:**

This examines the existence of a system of quality assurance procedure and its adequacy, adopted by an institution or one of its sub-units, and is realized by individuals not involved in the subjects being examined. In that sense, a quality audit is the first step in the procedure of assuring quality. South Africa uses this approach for quality assurance.

**Quality assessment:**

Quality assessment consists of carrying out the evaluation (reviewing, measuring, and judging) of the quality of teacher education processes, practices, programmes and services through appropriate techniques, mechanisms and activities. In the process of quality assessment, one has to take into account the context (international, national, regional and institutional), the methods used (self-assessment, external peer review, reporting), the levels being assessed (system, institution, programme), areas of assessment (academic, managerial, output and outcome), and the stakeholders’ objectives and priorities. Quality assessment leads to the phenomenon of quality assurance or lack of it for the stakeholders. Indeed, it is the process of establishing confidence among stakeholders (this is more so for accreditation which provides for a quality label, which quality assessment does not do). France provides an example of using this approach, which could easily be adapted for Francophone Africa.

**Accreditation for quality assurance: Definition and its justification:**

The most widely used method of external quality assurance is accreditation. Although its use for teacher education has remained implicit, as a component of higher education, the widespread coverage today of teacher education as described earlier makes its explicit use desirable as described later not only for universities but also for government agencies concerned with improving quality of teacher education.
Accreditation is the outcome of a process by which a governmental, parastatal or private body (the accrediting agency) evaluates the quality of an institution as a whole, of a specific programme or course, in order to formally recognizes it as having met certain predetermined criteria or standards. The consequence is a label for the quality. The impact of accreditation will be to ensure a specific level of quality according to the institutions’ mission, the objectives of the programme(s), and the expectations of different stakeholders including the students, and the employers. The result of this is usually the award of a status of recognition (yes or no, a score on a multi-point scale, or a combination of letter grade and score, a license to operate, deferred recognition under conditions) for a limited period.

The following factors have made the adoption of accreditation desirable for quality assurance today:

First, in a situation of diversified providers of teacher education, the demand for certified education increases. With time, students and their families, but also the education world requests the readability of the teacher education provision, which can be enhanced through a quality label.

Second, since threats to quality may come from different sources including fraudulent providers, the qualification awarded by an institution must come with a guarantee. Accreditation is one way to provide that guarantee.

Third, the multiplication of teacher education providers and the increasing suppliers of fraudulent documents also increase the demand for organization that can accredit institutions to maintain the required standards that qualify the graduates for admission to higher or more specialized institutions or for teaching in educational institutions.

Fourth, institutions of teacher education should have the potential of becoming a learning organization with ever-improving quality.
**Purposes of accreditation for quality assurance:**

Accreditation will ensure: (i) The control of quality (related to minimum standards) in teacher education; (ii) Accountability and transparency; (iii) Quality enhancement; and (iv) The facilitation of student mobility. These are discussed below.

Quality control assures that the provision of teacher education is in line with the minimum requirements of quality in respect of inputs, processes and outcomes. The massive expansion of teacher education with the diversity of providers has raised questions of quality and the need for checking on these minimum requirements has become urgent to protect the interest of the stakeholders including the national developmental objectives.

Accreditation is commissioned by a suitable and recognized agency and encouraged by the stakeholders to ensure ‘value for money’, that is, accountability through evidence of results. The accreditation process provides transparency in the functioning of the system of teacher education. Identifying weaknesses through the accreditation process allows the system to adopt corrective measures and improve upon the quality of the system. The competitive spirit resulting from accreditation also helps quality enhancement. However, it should be remembered that, as the interpretation of quality varies under different contexts, so are purposes of accreditation for quality assurance, leading to considering the different types of accreditation, as they exist today in order to facilitate the study of new types to fit the changing contexts. Types of accreditation for quality assurance:

Five major types of accreditation for quality assurance in teacher education have been identified. These are described as follows:

(i) **Voluntary versus compulsory accreditation for quality assurance**

One of the options in accreditation may be whether it should be compulsory or voluntary. A compulsory accreditation system requires all institutions or programmes to periodically
undergo accreditation. It is generally concerned with checking on minimum standards. Although it is not so common in Africa yet, it is practised in Hungary, Austria and Netherlands among others. They are often established for licensing or for types of programmes where the stakeholders (especially the government) have a special interest for quality assurance. Teacher education or programmes preparing for teaching profession are vital for national development. It should have compulsory accreditation as practiced in higher education in countries, such as Argentina and Colombia.

Voluntary accreditation systems exist in Nigeria in Africa. It also exists in India and the United States of America, among others.

(ii) Fitness for purpose versus standard based approach in accreditation for quality assurance

This type of accreditation can check if the teacher education institution or the programme is achieving the stated purpose (the mission). It also verifies whether the purpose itself is acceptable or not (fitness of purpose). As has been noted above, institutions and programmes cannot be all judged against the same standards since they serve specific clientele and service groups in a diverse system of teacher education. For instance, a traditional university located in a major urban environment training teachers emphasizing the excellence of research may not necessarily be judged against the same set of standards of an institution whose aim is just to train teachers. The ‘fitness for purpose’ approach is considered to be more appropriate for quality improvement as one can find in Norway and the United States of America among others in the field of higher education. It can be argued that all the teacher education institutions must meet the standards (minimum norms) of the accreditation systems. They must be held accountable against them. This leads to the standard-based approach.
In the standard-based approach, very detailed standards are set for the different aspects of quality of an institution or a programme, which all the institutions or programmes should meet. The detailed standards will be discussed later. Evidence gathered is to be assessed in terms of overall patterns, not in terms of each specific standard. This means that an institution or programme could be deficient in one area, but have offsetting strengths in other areas to qualify for accreditation. The standard-based approach assures minimum standards being met, which enforces conformity with standards as well as accountability. In the same context of the standard-based approach, accreditation systems also exist to assure high level or good practice standards, especially in situations where institutions or programmes have relatively even levels of quality and/or where institutions enjoy a high level of autonomy. Accreditation for high quality is based on a number of selected characteristics to be discussed later. Each characteristic includes indicators that allow measuring the degree of compliance in comparison with a benchmark, as is the case in India. According to the subject of accreditation, characteristics may be assigned some weights, and these weights may change depending on the type of institution (for instance, a university or non-university type of institution).

(iii) Accreditation for quality assurance by coverage

This type of accreditation takes into account international, national or regional geographical coverage. Quality assurance and accreditation cannot be discussed independently from the national context of the teacher education system. In the rationale for accreditation, it has been indicated that accreditation has to be contextualized. One needs to consider the accreditation system at different levels of geographical coverage. In the African context national and regional coverage are relevant.
Accreditation at the national level:

In most contexts, national accreditation agencies may operate throughout the country and review in most cases entire institutions. Based on contextual considerations, national agencies can accredit institutions by adjusting the assessment process, the focus of assessment, the linking of the assessment outcome to decision-making, the policy of its role in assessment decisions, the unit of assessment, the assessment outcome, the policy on the disclosure of the assessment outcome, and the period of validity. For each of these options, there are underlying rationales, which could be seen as combinations of the national context and the objectives for which the accreditation mechanism has been established.

The agencies may be state-controlled as in most of higher education in the Central and Eastern European countries. In Hungary, the accreditation bodies give an expert opinion for the government to decide on its accreditation. In many countries, governments have established autonomous or semi-autonomous agencies, which, are charged by laws to carry out accreditation procedures of programmes, and institutions as can be found in Argentina, Finland, and India.

Regional Accreditation:

Quality assurance in general and accreditation in particular, has by now become a global phenomenon and an intense area for international cooperation. In particular, networks of quality assurance agencies have been established in several regions of the world. In the French-speaking African region, a long-standing mechanism exists in the area of regional cooperation and validation of academic decisions. Regional validation of accreditation in higher education is being practiced in the countries belonging to the ‘Conseil africain et malgache pour l’enseignement supérieur’
(CAMES) consisting of 19 Francophone African countries as of 2012, where selected programmes are accredited to facilitate inter-country mobility among students and academic staff. Teacher education can be one of them. Similar programmes may also be designed for ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States) and SADC (Southern African Development Community) countries.

(iv) Accreditation for quality assurance by control of teacher education

This type of accreditation takes into account the type of control of the institution or the programme. The question arises whether accreditation should be applied equally to both public and private sectors since public institutions are mostly financed by the state and there is an inbuilt system of control like Inspectorates. In the United States there were two well-known accreditation agencies for teacher education, namely National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC). Both are private but recognized and supported by the State. On July 1, 2013, the two councils were consolidated to become the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) the new, sole specialized accreditor for educator preparation. There is a growing awareness in many countries that both private and public institutions are expected to contribute to meeting the national development objectives, and accreditation is perceived to be equally important for both.

(v) Accreditation for quality assurance by the type of teacher education (university and non-university institutions of teacher education and distance learning mode)

In some countries, accreditation is practiced in both the university sector and non-university tertiary institutions. Since their objectives are different; one academic and the other teacher
training-oriented, the accreditation procedures and criteria may be different, thus calling for different agencies of accreditation. Among the pre-service and in-service teacher-training group the varieties also call for different types of accreditation.

Accreditation or quality assurance by unit of analysis:

Accreditation may be applied to the whole institution, programmes, or a selected set of programmes or courses. The areas of focus for institutional accreditation are on the appropriateness of the mission, the adequacy of its resources and its managerial capability to achieve the required standards of academic quality. Institutional accreditation is preferred where quality varies between institutions and when managerial effectiveness becomes a concern. Programmatic and course accreditation would focus on individual study programmes, preparing students for teaching profession. This becomes necessary because each study programme may have its own requirement for admission, teaching or learning strategy and evaluation as well as requirements from national qualification frameworks. Programmatic and course accreditation assure meeting the professional expectations of a teacher. This may also assure the improvement decision of a programme or course of deficient quality.

However, for institutional accreditation to be effective, it cannot ignore academic programmes in the same way as programme accreditation cannot ignore the broader institutional environment to meet its objectives. Both are complementary. Some countries use both institutional and programmatic accreditation in one single process.

Accreditation for quality assurance of distance learning teacher education:

Distance learning is increasing its share of teacher education around the world and its quality has been questioned. These types of teacher education cut across national borders,
which call for a special type of accreditation procedure to protect the interest of the students and the countries. The procedures would include verification of the credibility of the providers through critical analysis of the content, method of delivery, assessment of the students and the learning outcome. The implementation of the process of accreditation is the topic discussed in the next chapter.
Chapter 5: Implementing the process of accreditation for quality assurance

This chapter considers the implementing process, as well as the setting up of a quality assurance agency, its mission and strategic goals, the process of accreditation, management as well as the issues at stake.

5.1. Setting up a quality assurance agency

According to the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE, 2005), the process of accreditation would start with the setting up of an accreditation agency citing nine principles of its operation. These are: (i) Focus on the customer; (ii) Good leadership; (iii) Stakeholders’ involvement; (iv) Focus on indicators of inputs, processes and outcomes; (v) Adopting evidence-based decision; (vi) Recognizing continuous improvement; (vii) Allowing institutional autonomy in academic matters; (viii) optimizing benefits to stakeholders; and (ix) Ensuring follow-up actions for improvement.

INQAAHE also stipulates that the mission of the QA agency is to ensure quality, continuous development, and the efficient performance of teacher education institutions, their systems, and of their programmes in accordance with their mission statements and desired goals so as to gain confidence among their relevant stakeholders based on recognized evaluation mechanisms through an independent, neutral and transparent framework.

The strategic goals of the QA agency are: (i) Raising the confidence of the stakeholders in the outcomes of teacher education; (ii) Supporting the accreditation process for quality assurance in accordance with the internal requirements of the institutions and their programmes; (iii) Assisting the institutions
of teacher education to establish their internal quality assurance system through self-study; (iv) Enhancing capacity building in quality assurance for accreditation; (v) Facilitating the development and application of relevant reference standards (benchmarks) for academic programmes; (vi) Integrating a sustainable process combining the institutions’ systems for quality assurance and external processes for review and accreditation; (vii) to support continuing quality improvement; and (viii) to co-operate with other accreditation agencies. There will be a transition period when institutions will be supported in the development of quality assurance systems and the improvement of academic standards while looking into the establishment and development of the agency. The following section gives the steps in setting up a quality assurance agency.

5.2. Steps to set up a quality assurance agency

In many countries around the world, teacher education as a component of higher education offered in faculties of education and other teacher education institutions (such as college of education of universities) use quality indicators within the framework of quality assurance in higher education. With suitable adaptations these quality indicators are also applicable for different types and levels of teacher education discussed in Chapter 1. It is expected that the institution is generally regarded in the academic community and the other stakeholders as a well founded, cohesive, self-critical and worthy organization that demonstrates guardianship of its mission, academic standards and commitment to the range of stakeholders’ interests. Some of the voluntary accreditation systems have established a precondition that teacher education institutions undergo an eligibility phase which successful completion makes them eligible for accreditation. Sanyal and Martin (2007) have classified these indicators in two parts: general and specific. The following are some general generic criteria for the eligibility of an institution to apply for
accreditation: (i) An established institution of teacher education already offering educational programmes to be accredited, or a new institution recognized by the relevant authorities offering educational programmes for a certain specified period in the past; (ii) An institution applying for accreditation should be able to demonstrate that it has considered all strategic options open to it for its own academic development and is committed to continuing improvement in its academic activities; and (iii) It should also demonstrate that it meets the requirements of quality audit. That is, it has established systems for internal review and for reporting its academic activities, which includes the means to self-evaluate and commit effective improvement plans (self-study) and is ready to be evaluated by external reviewers consisting of relevant experts in the area (peer review).

The specific indicators are related to the existence of (i) Clearly defined mission; (ii) Effective governance and administration; (iii) Competent human resources; (iv) A mechanism for designing, developing and monitoring effective programmes; (v) A mechanism for maintaining and improving academic standards; (vi) Adequate learning opportunities; (vii) well defined policies for promoting research and involvement in community services among the teaching staff and (viii) A consolidated development plan integrating the use of all the above indicators. The following steps based mainly on the national guidelines for developing reference standards for higher education in Egypt (cited above) give the details of the above indicators.

1. Articulate the mission of the Agency;
2. Identify its strategic goals (e.g. achieve and maintain minimum standards, enhance quality etc.);
3. Decide on the options for and select the affiliation of the agency;
4. Prepare the statutes, rules and regulations governing the agency;
5. Appoint the governing board;

6. Describe the main features of the quality assurance and accreditation process;

7. Recruit the core staff to undertake the tasks related to the main features of the process and provide the resources including infrastructure facilities;

8. Prepare guidelines for institutions to develop their internal quality assurance system; that is, conducting a ‘self study’. There may be four types: course quality, programme quality, institutional quality and periodic overall strategic review of the institution. Some details are given below.

8.1. Guidelines for course quality assurance:

It may have three components; a brief introduction, course quality specification and course quality report. The brief introduction will advise the institution to prepare a ‘course file’ containing the course quality assurance specification, course quality assurance report, course evaluation system and the authorization from the relevant authority of carrying out the course with the prescribed specification. The course quality specification may include the following basic information on the details of the course description in accordance with faculty by-laws.

Professional information would include:

(a) Course aims with intended learning outcomes (ILOs) including entrepreneurship skills;

(b) Teaching learning strategy (TLS), including self-learning;

(c) Course content with number of contact hours allocated for instruction of each topic through each learning method following faculty or department by-laws;
(d) Assessment of students to match ILOs and methods of assessment;

(e) List of learning materials including lecture notes, textbooks and references given in standard format;

(f) Facilities required for teaching and learning of the course including physical and infrastructural facilities.

The course quality report will have three items: basic information, statistical information and professional information.

Basic information: This is the same as in the course quality specification.

Statistical information would include:

(a) Number of students starting the course;

(b) Results of students’ assessments, including percentage of those who passed or failed;

(c) The distribution of passed candidates by grades or scores.

Professional information would include:

(a) Course topics actually covered and number of hours taught compared with specifications and explanation of discrepancies;

(b) TLS actually adopted with comments of their rationale and discrepancies;

(c) Students’ assessment providing the methods actually used, rules and criteria for measuring the achievement of ILOs preferably involving external evaluators;

(d) Facilities and teaching materials, their adequacy;

(e) Administrative constraints in following the TLS to achieve the ILOs;
(f) Results of course evaluation by students, responses from the instructor for any criticism if any, together with proposed improvement;

(g) External evaluators’ comments and the responses of the instructor together with proposals for improvements if necessary;

(h) Course quality enhancement proposals with an action plan including time schedule, person(s) responsible and resource needs with possible sources of the resources.

8.2. Guidelines for Programme Quality Assurance:

As in the case of the course quality assurance, this will also have three components: a brief introduction, programme quality assurance specification and programme quality assurance report. The brief introduction should cover the assurance from the institution that all its departments have internal mechanisms for periodic review and reporting for programmes to assure and enhance quality matched with its mission and based on acceptable academic standards.

The programme quality assurance specification may include the following items:

Basic information giving all programme details, including the name of programme co-ordinator and external evaluator, if any, and date of programme approval by the appropriate authority.

Professional information would include:

(a) Programme aims including intended learning outcomes (ILOs);

(b) Academic standards to be achieved by the graduates on programme completion preferably based on external references/benchmarks and teaching learning strategy (TLS) including methods used in delivering the course;
(c) Programme structure, content, minimum duration needed for completion following the faculty by-laws, ILOs to be covered, TLS adopted etc.;

(d) Programme admission requirements giving the criteria, rules for the admission and the level from which the programme starts;

(e) Regulation for progression (from one year or level to next year or level), completion of programme and inter-programme or faculty mobility;

(f) Programme evaluation giving the evaluation mechanism, stakeholder and external evaluator involvement.

The programme quality report will also have three items: basic information, statistical information and professional information.

Basic information: This is the same as in the programme quality specification.

Statistical information would include:

(a) The number of students starting the programme. If the programme is a specialization starting at a later year, the number of students in that year;

(b) Results of students’ assessments including percentage of passed and failed for each year, level, or semester as a percentage of those starting;

(c) The distribution of passed candidates by grades or scores.

Professional information would deal with the extent to which the programme specifications given above have been achieved, how the programme quality can be assured and enhanced and would include:
(a) Academic standards in achieving ILOs, relevance of the subject matter, assessment methods and student achievements;

(b) Quality of learning opportunities comparing the: (i) TLS executed with the planned; (ii) Student support actually available with those planned; and (iii) Learning resources actually available with those planned, suggesting corrective measures for deficiencies and further improvements;

(c) Quality management commenting on: (i) The existence of periodical quality evaluation of the programme; (ii) The effectiveness of the system management in meeting the ILOs and steps taken to correct them including identification of good practices; (iii) The extent of complying with faculty by laws and institution regulations by responsible staff; (iv) Method of involvement of external evaluator(s); (v) summary of stake holders’ evaluations; and (vi) Response of faculty and / or institution administration to external evaluators’ reports and stakeholders’ evaluations;

(d) Proposals of programme development including programme structure, courses, staff development based on course and programme specifications, academic standards, benchmarks, external evaluators’ and stakeholders’ evaluations;

(e) Proposal for an action plan incorporating all the corrective actions based on the above analysis, time frame of their implementation, individuals responsible, resource needs and possible sources of resource.

8.3. Guidelines for Institutional Quality Assurance:

This part of the “self-study” may have ten components: the institution’s mission, governance and administration, human resources, educational programmes, academic standards, quality of learning opportunities, quality management, research
and other scholarly activities, community services and action plan. These are described below.

Each one of the above will have a section on general precepts for the institution followed by the following details:

The mission: the general precept, the mission statement, the definition of programme aims and precision of ILOs, dissemination of the mission statement, and updating the mission.

The governance and administration will have the following sections:

(a) The general precepts;
(b) Organizational structure defining academic duties and responsibilities;
(c) Method of selection of academic leadership;
(d) Effectiveness of policies, systems and practices to ensure their adequacy in achieving the ILOs, in enhancing quality improvement and dealing with student and staff problems;
(e) Responsiveness to changing priorities and emerging needs including methods used: (i) to disseminate the vision for development, (ii) to ensure availability of a priority identification system to respond to change and review policies, and (iii) to ensure mechanism used by the top management to cope with and respond to changes and manage resistance to change;
(f) Contribution of any recent quality improvement or enhancement activities and their types to achieve the mission of the institution.

Human resources will have the following sections:

(a) General precepts including the staff needs for the future and their development;
(b) Statistics including the number of academic and non-academic staff by type, grade and qualification;
(c) Adequacy of the profile of staff members;
(d) Staff development programme, its adequacy and corrective measures.

Educational programmes will have the following sections:

(a) General precepts: the rules and regulations governing the educational programmes, defining academic standards and the quality of learning opportunities, TLS adopted, and their adequacy in achieving the ILOs;
(b) Statistics: this should provide overall statistics for the institution (the programme report will provide programme details) including number of available educational programmes, number of students registering in each programme, indicators for admission in each programme, number of graduates for current academic year and percentage of graduates in each grade. This section will also include corrective measures for deficiencies in statistics;
(c) Educational programmes framework: this will provide number of credit hours or courses per programme and percentage of courses forming the different components of the academic structure of the programmes synthesised from the programme reports. This may also include whether any programme exists for outstanding students on the one hand and challenged students on the other, details of their admission requirements, contents and the demand for such programmes.

Academic standards will have the following sections based on the programme reports, identifying good practices to replicate in other programmes and suggesting corrective measures for those failing to achieve expected standards.
(a) Academic standards compared with reference or benchmarks;

(b) Student assessment sections will: (i) Examine if different methods of assessment are effective; (ii) Check if the language used in assessment is the same as the medium of instruction; (iii) Verify if students are informed of the grading criteria for assessment; (iv) check if the grading system is appropriate; (v) Examine if the students are given feedback on their assessment in order for them to take corrective measures; (vi) Check if the institution has policies and procedures for the constitution of examining boards including external examiners; and (vii) Provide comments on the appropriateness of the assessment methods used with reference to the ILOs and external references or benchmarks;

(c) Student retention and progression section, based on the programme reports, will: (i) Comment on the retention and progression rates for all levels; (ii) Identify the programmes where retention and progression rates are high, the reasons and any elements of good practice for replication in other programmes; and (iii) Identify programmes where retention and progression rates are low, their reasons and the suggestions for corrective measures;

(d) Student achievement including employment opportunities section will: (i) Comment on the achievements of students in respect of the number of passed graduates; (ii) Identify programmes where the percentage is high, the reasons and the elements of good practice for replication and those where the percentage is low, the reasons and corrective measures to be taken; and (iii) Describe the vision of the institution with respect to the employment of graduates including the availability of jobs, appropriateness of the academic qualifications for employment, emerging needs of
qualification for the employment market, over and under supply of graduates if any and remedial measures with special reference to adjustment mechanism of TLS for better match between education and employment;

(e) External evaluation of the performance of students and the academic standards achieved including opinions of the external evaluators, stakeholders, employers and industrial representatives.

Quality of learning opportunities may have the following sections:

(a) General precepts for the institutions to ensure the adequacy of the facilities and resources to achieve the ILOs;

(b) Student support giving details of academic and pastoral support, special provision for outstanding students and for challenged students, health and other useful services, availability of financial services for students and a handbook giving the details of all academic and non-academic support services available for the students;

(c) Learning resources and their adequacy in respect of academic and non-academic staff and all infrastructure facilities;

(d) Student feedback on courses: availability of mechanism, faculty response, compliance of the institution in the evaluation system and use of evaluation in academic development.

Quality management and enhancement will have the following sections:

(a) General precepts;

(b) An institution’s vision for quality enhancement: the strategy, its mechanism, procedures, means to monitor
its effectiveness, and mechanisms for disseminating and implementing policies;

(c) The extent of implementing the institution’s policies and regulations;

(d) The extent of the engagement with the stakeholders to gain the community’s trust in the academic programmes, extent of response to the stakeholders’ views;

(e) The extent of the effectiveness of the internal review system for quality assurance;

(f) The impact of review reports (peer review, external evaluators’, stakeholders’ and students’ reviews and other evaluation reports) on the overall student performance;

(g) Action plan for improving the quality of education including specific actions, their time frame, persons responsible, resource needs and origin of resources.

Research and other scholastic activities will have the following sections:

(a) General precepts;

(b) Research plans, their basis, conformity with national and institutional goals and mechanism for review of plans;

(c) Participation of faculty members in research, percentage of research- active faculty members by department, match with research plans, and research capacity building among staff;

(d) Awards/motivation provided by the institution to researchers;

(e) Sources and amounts of research funds, share of total budget, share of different sources, cost sharing in research among stakeholders, and role of the private sector;

(f) Research output;
(g) An action plan for research plan with actions, timeframe for execution, responsibility, resource needs and origin of resources.

Community development will have the following sections:
(a) General precepts;
(b) Contribution of the institution to the community, society and environmental affairs including the number of community service units in the institution, different types of community service activities (training programmes, workshops, conferences technical services etc.) at the national and international levels and mechanism to evaluate the impact of community services;
(c) An action plan for community development with the list of actions, executing agencies, timeframe, resource needs and origin of resources and expected outcomes.

The institutional action plan will integrate the action plans of all the above components, prioritise them, identify the executing agencies, provide the timeframe of execution, set up indicators for monitoring, identify the resource needs, the origin of resources and the expected outcome of each programme activity. This leads to the last component of the self-study part of the accreditation process: the overall strategic review of the institution. This is discussed below.

8.4. Guidelines for the periodic overall strategic review of the institution.

This will have an introductory part giving the objectives, preparatory tasks and sources of evidence as described below.

Objectives:
The review allows the institution: (i) Assess changing needs and priorities; (ii) Identify emerging priorities; (iii) Articulate
the strategic aims; (iv) Secure the means to achieve them; and (v) Commit the faculty and associated organizations to a realistic plan.

Preparatory tasks:

The review needs the following preparatory tasks: designation of a responsible person, preparation of a timetable (not more than a year), defining the scope, preparing the team including if necessary an external reviewer, creating the capacity, carrying people along (involvement of stakeholders) and recording key steps of the review exercise for future use.

Sources of evidence:

The review will have most of the evidence from the above described reports and will take a full critical account and a strategic view of the performance, the effectiveness of the systems and processes in place and the direction the institution needs to take in the foreseeable future through a SWOT analysis. An additional useful source of evidence is benchmarks from comparable institutions, professional organizations, national and international organizations’ publishing standards and procedures of good practice.

The text of the review will have the following sections:

(a) Institution’s mission, its relevance and adaptation;
(b) Academic programmes, their adequacy and an action plan;
(c) Research and scholarly activities, their adequacy and an action plan;
(d) Community involvement and an action plan;
(e) Quality Assurance Systems (QAS), their adequacy and an action plan for QAS;
(f) Governance and leadership examining (i) the adequacy of the governance, leadership and management to be conducive to the full achievement of the institution’s mission, arranging existing academic activities with the involvement of relevant stakeholders, (ii) the capacity to encourage proactive approaches to respond to development and change, and provide a sound and sustainable basis for academic activities to flourish in an atmosphere conducive to promote learning, (iii) the competence to identify any aspects that can be improved to optimise the strategic position of the institution and the priorities based on sound interpretation of facts and make plans happen and (iv) the capacity to prepare an action plan for improving governance and leadership;

(g) Overall action plan including an introduction, summary of key strengths, issues that need to be addressed, external factors that need to be taken into account, priorities at each level of the actions for the above components expressed in realistic terms of timing, resources required, possible origin of resources, responsible agencies, key monitoring indicators and expected outcome.

The report should include as annexes, summaries of the reports of course quality assurance, programme quality assurance and institutional quality assurance and any other sources used with a bibliography.

After the guidelines for the self-study have been prepared, the agency should focus on the following tasks:

1. Establish the principles that underpin the quality assurance and accreditation process to ensure its national and international credibility;

2. Establish criteria and procedures for accreditation including national reference standards;
3. Establish eligibility criteria for application of institutions for accreditation (e.g. demonstration of established systems for internal review and reporting on its academic activities that include the means to self-evaluate and commit effective improvement plans);

4. Establish the specification and criteria for the appointment of peer reviewers with their essential and desirable skills, and those of the review chairs and the criteria for the composition of a review team;

5. Prepare the code of conduct for peer reviewers and the system of orientation of the reviewers;

6. Specify the roles of institutional representatives or facilitators in internal reporting, the self-study and the overall accreditation process and arrange for suitable briefing according to schedule of the accreditation process;

7. Prepare instructions for reviewers on how to analyse and discuss during site-visit with the staff and students of the institution, the self-evaluation reports (course, programme and institution) and check on the academic standards, quality of learning opportunities, research and other scholarly activity, community involvement and effectiveness of quality management and enhancement;

8. Prepare instructions for studying and discussing with staff and students during site-visits, students’ assessed work to check on their adequacy to achieve intended learning outcomes and quality of learning opportunities, effective quality management and quality enhancement;

9. Prepare instructions for class observation during site-visits to check on the clarity of learning objectives and meeting them, appropriateness of the TLS and contribution to the programme and course specifications;
10. Sketch the outline of an accreditation report with an introduction;

11. Invite applications from institutions for accreditation;

12. The review team, agreeing on logistics needed, brief the facilitator about the method. If the institution is eligible for application following item (3) mentioned above, the agency will advise the institution to prepare the self-study component following the guidelines given in section 8 and constitute the review team following item (4) above and select the review chair who will arrange with the institution for a preliminary visit to provide initial feedback on the available documentation including the self-study, request for additional documents if any, discuss the time schedule (for a duration of usually three days) for meetings with relevant stakeholders, among the reviewers themselves and individual work, accept the agreement of the institution of the composition of work following item (6) above and distribute among the team members the specific areas for review;

13. The agency will orientate the reviewers, following items (5), (7) and (8) mentioned above

14. Organization of the accreditation: site visit.

This will include:

(a) Collecting on arrival the following documents: programme validation, programme handbook, student handbooks, sample of learner support material, records of staff-student interaction, students’ assessment criteria and related guide for students, representative samples of students’ assessed work, a sample of programmes, internal reviews of assessed work if available, examination board proceedings, external evaluators’ reports if
applicable, student feedback summaries, outcomes of consultations, surveys and other engagements with students, admission and progression data including employment, staff bio-data including sample of publications, examples of output from community involvement, staff development programme and reports, professional, statutory and regulatory body reports and proceedings of meetings among faculty and students;

(b) Scrutiny of the sample of students’ assessed work, the questions or assignments set, the marking scheme, the marks awarded and the written comments including feedback to students following the instructions given in (9) above;

(c) Observing a sample of classes following the instructions given in (9) above;

(d) Satisfying itself that the enquiries address the criteria of accreditation given in item (2) above;

(e) Satisfying that the conditions given above are met to maintain and enhance quality of education offered by the institution;

(f) Meeting of the review team regularly as a team at least once a day to check on the progress and identify further enquiries;

(g) Preparation by each peer reviewer of his or her part of the review for the accreditation process;

(h) Co-ordination of the report by the review chair, sharing the information with the team and preparation of the first draft of the report.

The site visit ends with a feedback meeting chaired by the review chairperson and attended by the head
of the institution or his or her representative and other invited stakeholders including students. The agenda of the meeting should include: (i) statements on the centrality of the institution’s responsibility for quality assurance and the development of systems that include quality specifications and systematic reviews and reports and (ii) comments on academic standards in educational programmes, quality of learning opportunities, research and other scholarly activities, community involvement, the effectiveness of quality management and enhancement prevailing in the institution. The chairperson will recognise the strengths, alert on the weaknesses and any other issues identified during the review. He or she may also announce orally the judgements made on each of the above. There may be no discussions on the judgements but clarification of the main issues reported may be given. The chairperson will also give the timetable for the written report.

(i) Judgements:

Based on the results of the site visit following the criteria for accreditation given in item (10), the self-study prepared following the guidelines given in item (8), and additional information from the site visit (list should be included), the reviewers will recommend to the agency that the institution should be accredited or not or should be accredited on condition. In the last case the institution will have to meet the requirements satisfactorily within a given period after which the accreditation will be definitive usually for a given period. In case of rejection, areas requiring further improvement in order to meet the
criteria should be clearly described if the institution intends to renew its application. If it asks for an appeal on the decision, hearing should be arranged with appropriate institutional mechanism.

15. The accreditation report:

The team will produce the accreditation report and submit it to the agency, which, after necessary editorial revisions, will publish the report and include the institution in the list of accredited institutions.

(a) Arrangements for further improvements:

The accredited institutions are expected to continue to improve based on the action plans for further improvement.

Arrangements for re-accreditation:

(b) The agency will invite accredited institutions to prepare for re-accreditation at an interval usually of five years.

(b) Monitoring and evaluation of the accreditation process:

As a learning organization, the quality assurance agency will remain alert to improving the process, and be vigilant to retain its integrity and credibility. As has been noted by Hernes (2005), “the problem is only that some organizations that say that they accredit are bogus themselves…. So we are up against the classical problem posed by the Roman Senator Juventus: “Quid custodit ipsos custodit”— who shall guard the guardians?” (Hernes, 2005).

Once the quality assurance agency has been set up, the next step will be to ensure its management. This is discussed below.
5.3. The management of the quality assurance agency

The management of the agency will be discussed in respect to its affiliation and accountability. They are discussed below.

Affiliation of the quality assurance agency: The role of the state

Accreditation agencies for quality assurance in the current setup started initially with private, voluntary and institutional initiatives as in the United States in the industrialized world, and in the Philippines in the developing world. Although they worked closely with governments and served national interests, they remained independent of the government. With time the situation changed. Today, most of the accreditation systems are initiated by the government and serve governmental functions of quality control. For the teaching profession in Africa, government and the institutions need to have a role in accreditation because of its national importance today. But in all cases, the accreditation procedures should remain objective, conducted with autonomy if not independence, without interference from the government, the academic institutions or the teachers’ union. Although the different types of accreditation described above call for different types of affiliation mechanisms, one could classify them into four groups:

1) It can be a government agency, as a unit of the Ministry with the responsibility of part of the country’s teacher education sector;

2) It can be an entity fully independent of the government in its establishment and to a large extent in its functioning as in the case of the Federation of Accrediting Agencies in the Philippines (FAAP), the coordinating body of four private accrediting agencies, or the Council of Higher education Accreditation in the United States covering eight sub-regional accrediting organizations;

3) The agency may be a buffer body or established under a local buffer organization where the government may have
a role in its initiation to serve governmental functions, but it will be governed independently (India and Egypt);

4) It can be an established teachers’ association without any role of the government or the institutions of teacher education.

Several points are to be noted here.

First, quality of teacher education is a national concern and the government has to have a role in the way it is assured by any agency; the degree of the role may differ for types of accreditation.

Second, while teacher education cuts across national borders, it is the government in most cases that would have the organizational and logistical capability for quality assurance through accreditation. This should happen especially in Africa e.g. CAMES, ECOWAS and SADC.

When the purpose of accreditation is an academic or a professional requirement, the government’s role should remain only regulatory, with the institutions and the agencies playing the dominant role.

Accountability of the agency:

Effective management of the accreditation agency calls for the demonstration of its accountability to its stakeholders. The European Association for Quality Assurance in higher education recommends the following accountability procedures:

• A published policy for the assurance of the quality of the agency made easily available to the stakeholders;

• Demonstration of evidence that: (i) The agency’s activities and results reflect its mission and goals of quality assurance; (ii) The agency enforces a ‘no-conflict-of-interest’ mechanism in the work of its external reviewers; (iii) If the agency subcontracts any part of its accreditation work especially the production of materials, it has the mechanism to ensure the quality; and (iv) The agency has in place internal quality assurance procedures which include an internal feedback
mechanism (which is the means to collect feedback from its own staff and governing board); an internal reflection mechanism (which represent the means to react to internal and external recommendations for improvement); and an external feedback mechanism (i.e. means to collect feedback from experts and reviewed institutions for future development) in order to inform and underpin its own development and improvement;

- A mandatory periodical external review of the agency's activities conducted by the appropriate authority.

Quality assurance of teacher education faces a lot of challenges. These are discussed in 5.4.

5.4 Challenges facing quality assurance of teacher education (Sanyal and Martin, 2007)

The following gives a checklist:

- The first challenge in accreditation is the definition and measurement of quality. Quality means different things to different stakeholders. It is difficult to reconcile them all, so the very definition of quality represents in itself a political process.

- Whatever the quality model adopted, there are also many methodological problems related to the measurement of quality. Many characteristics of quality are not measurable and need to be assessed through proxy variables. Scores on ordinal scales are imprecise, so are the opinionated judgments. Under these circumstances, it may become unfair to tie accreditation with financial rewards.

- Data on learning outcomes of students are often not available. Statistics on employability and information on the usefulness of the learning for the society are difficult to collect and compare them with the intended learning outcomes. Similar problems are encountered
with research and other scholastic activities and community involvement. Providing accurate information to the stakeholders about the accredited status and the quality of the institutions and programmes is a serious methodological challenge.

- The self-assessment component of the accreditation process is liable to be biased and uncritical in a competitive world.
- The institutions to be accredited may manipulate the selection of ‘peers’ as external reviewers.
- In spite of best efforts, corruption in commercial teacher education may not be controlled by accreditation procedures. In the most effective accreditation system of the world, in the United States of America, the Inspector General of the Department of Education testified in May 2005 that 74 per cent of his fraud cases involved ‘for-profit’ schools. Accreditation services may themselves be conducted in a fraudulent fashion. In some countries, it is more cost-effective to ’buy’ an accreditation decision than to undergo a cumbersome and sometimes bureaucratic process.
- African countries face serious problems in setting up effective accreditation mechanisms because of limited qualified hands and adequate financial resources. Setting up an accreditation mechanism for cross-border teacher education may be almost an impossible task for the poor African countries because of the shrewd negotiating capacity of the rich providers.
- Although it is imperative to maintain the autonomy of the accrediting agency from the government for its credibility, it is not always easy. Frequently, governments try to control agencies formally (by their own accrediting agency e.g. inspectorate or sitting on their governing bodies) or informally.
In spite of these difficulties, institutions of some African countries have made path-breaking efforts for assuring quality in teacher education. They may not have been able to set up an accreditation agency yet, but they do have quality assessment procedures, which could give the foundation of the institutional framework for setting up an accreditation agency. The National Assessment and Accreditation Council, India and the Commonwealth of Learning, Canada (referred in Chapter 1) has published “An Anthology of `Best Practices’ in Teacher Education as a part of the “Quality Assurance Toolkit for Teacher Education”. In the next chapter, some of these experiences, which have been called “practices”, will be explained.
Chapter 6: Examples of best practices in quality assessment in Africa

In Africa examples of quality assurance for accreditation rarely exist. The examples given below deal with only quality assessment that is, quality assurance without accreditation and all of them deal with the mode of distance education useful to increase access and reach the traditionally “unreached,” in order to achieve ten EFA and Millennium goals.

Example 1

Quality Assessment of Teacher Capacity Building through Distance Education in the Unit for Distance Education of the Faculty of Education of the University of Pretoria in South Africa.

The objective of the programme

This was derived from the mission of the University of Pretoria, which was to provide quality teachers for the schools of South Africa. The existence of thousands of poorly or under qualified teachers in schools required the traditional face-to-face university to establish a Distance Education Unit in its Faculty of Education to rectify the situation. A business plan with ten-year prediction capability was developed in 2001 to ensure effective governance and administration.

The programmes

Three programmes for teachers were chosen; two undergraduate and one postgraduate based on the University’s capacity and the demand. The delivery of the programme was designed to be mainly through print materials with face-to-face contact sessions, to suit the reality of teachers in rural communities in Africa, which suffered the lack of Internet access.
Implementation of the programme

The programme started in 2002 with the Distance Education Unit as an integral part of the Faculty to take advantage of the existing infrastructure and expertise in respect of competent human resources. Seventeen academic staff of the Faculty of Education and approximately 170 tutors were involved in the programme of 2006. An innovation was practiced in outsourcing for economic and infrastructural reasons, the marketing and logistical management of examinations and contact sessions. The University required the outsourced providers to conform to its quality criteria. The business plan did ensure adequate financial resources through tuition and government subsidy to provide suitable learning opportunities including competent human resources. It also included a mechanism for maintaining and improving academic standards.

Outcome

Within four years the University enrolled more than 13,000 student teachers and more than 3,800 successfully completed their studies. Great care went into applying the University’s quality criteria in both academic and managerial aspects of the programme to provide a role model for institutions of teacher education, and also to provide teachers of assured quality not only in Africa but also for all the developing countries of the world (Hendrikz, 2007).

The Internal Quality Assurance

The example given above uses the following indicators for internal quality assurance mentioned in Chapter 5, which are related to the existence of (i) clearly defined mission, (ii) effective governance and administration, (iii) competent human resources, (iv) a mechanism for designing, developing and monitoring effective programmes, (v) a mechanism for
maintaining and improving academic standards, (vi) adequate learning opportunities and (viii) a consolidated development (business) plan integrating the use of all the above indicators.

Example 2

The Use of Mobile Phone Technology for Student Support in upgrading teachers’ qualification through in-service Teacher Education of the Faculty of Education in the University of Pretoria. This is indeed a component of the above quality improving measures through student support with the help of mobile phone technology.

The objective of the programme

Keeping in view that 98 per cent of the students had access to mobile phones and as at 2006 the three GSM networks of South Africa covered more than 71 per cent of the urban and rural population, the University of Pretoria launched the programme of the phone technology with the objective of optimizing the possibilities of text messaging (SMSs) to enhance the quality of administrative and academic support to the student teachers.

The programme and its implementation

The institution used three approaches to enhance quality: “push”, “pull” and “interactive”. Through the “push” approach in 2003, the Distance Education Unit started sending general administrative messages, in bulk, to students addressing such issues as due dates for submission of assignments, announcement regarding examinations and the dispatch of learning materials. A system had been introduced in 2004 by which students could send messages on select issues to the Unit, which could be responded to immediately through the “pull” approach. In 2006 registration for contact sessions via SMS started using the “pull” approach.
The cooperation of the Mainframe Computer of the University was received to develop a programme for the Unit to facilitate interaction between the students and the Unit using the “interactive” approach.

The Unit identified possible SMS interventions that included: (i) SMSs that could direct students to specific parts of their learning materials to support them in the completion of their assignments and in achieving outcome; (ii) SMS of multiple choice quizzes and interactive voice response audio messages on specific topics that could be listened over the phone as mini lectures thus enhancing the quality of academic support.

Progress in implementation and extent of achievement of students are monitored, discussed and weaknesses identified for remedy. Feedback is used for development of the programme.

The University has adequate resources for implementation of the programme and also a functional mechanism to ensure efficient use of available resources as stated by the authors (Hendrikz and Viljoen, 2007).

**Outcome**

Twice a year, students evaluate the programme via questionnaire and they have found the use of the technology valuable and helpful, which has contributed to the supply of good quality teachers as noted in the first example. The Unit for Distance Education is performing above average in both areas of output and dropout rate. The success is largely due to improved learning support system through the mobile phone technology and the flexible academic model. The programme has also contributed to the increased participation of disadvantaged students in remote, rural and marginalized communities of South Africa. The traditional use of print and the postal service to distribute to the learner’s necessary information contained in the SMSs would have been 20 times more expensive than “bulk SMSs” used in the programme.
**Internal Quality Assurance**

Quality is assured by the existence of assessment procedures given in Example 1. In addition, the programme is appraised through in-house research and through undertaking of formally sponsored relevant research projects.

*Example 3*

Quality Assurance Framework for the pivotal teacher-training programme of the National Teachers’ Institute of Nigeria. This programme involves stakeholders, both external and internal. In that sense, it is an external quality assurance procedure without accreditations.

*The objective of the programme*

The objective is derived from the mission of the Institute, which is to supply good quality teachers for effective implementation of Universal Basic Education (UBE). The main objective of the Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) is to address the current and projected shortfalls in teacher supply by producing teachers of good quality through distance education mode (ODL) based on the same set of performance indicators as in formal conventional institutions. More specifically launched in the year 2000, PTTP’ expected outcome was to produce 300,000 good quality teachers for the UBE during the period 2001-2006. The characteristics of good quality have been given in an earlier chapter.

*The programme and its implementation*

PTTP is aimed at encouraging the increasing number of secondary school graduates to enter primary teacher education in an innovative programme of a mixture of distance learning and school-based experience for their in-service training. School-
based experiences are comprehensive and varied to include exposure to not only instructional role of teachers, but also their other roles and functions. For distance learning, printed self-instructional text, organized in the form of modules is the main mode of delivery. There are eight months of weekend and holiday contact sessions organized at designated study centres located in 36 out of 37 states of the country and the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja. In addition, students must undergo eight weeks of supervised teaching practice and three months of internship. Audio and video recordings are also provided to enrich the students’ understanding of the subject matter.

The Quality Assurance Framework (QAF) is a multi-stage evaluation procedure using quantitative and qualitative information involving all stakeholders: Local Government Education Authorities, State Primary Education Boards, State Ministries of Education, The Universal Basic Education Commission, school teachers and headmasters, students, community and the National Teachers’ Institute. Consultants drawn from twelve Institutes of Education of Nigerian Universities lead the process. A Technical Working Committee was established for programme appraisal to meet once a quarter to assess the programme with twenty-five instruments covering all the quality indicators mentioned in Chapter 5. To ascertain effectiveness of day-to-day administration of the programme, three types of monitoring systems are applied: subject monitoring, teaching practice monitoring and routine monitoring. Initially the programme was adequately funded but subsequently funding became irregular and the project had to be scaled down.

**Outcome**

The programme enabled the Institute to generate reliable and useful data for decision-making aimed at improving the quality of the programme. However, as mentioned above,
financial difficulty in addition to the failure of many research coordinators to meet deadlines of submission of data to the Institute’s headquarters added to the failure of achieving the target set at the beginning. However, the detailed methodology of the QAF as it was developed remains an important tool for others to adapt and adopt.

**Quality assurance**

As has been mentioned above, all the indicators for internal and external quality assurance are provided in the design and implementation of the programme for its proper assessment, which could bring out the problems faced in its implementation and for affordable corrective measures (Umar, 2007).

**Example 4**

Teacher Capacity Building through Distance Education in the Makerere University of Uganda.

The objective of the programme:

The following objectives motivated the launch of the programme:

**First**, to increase access to university education for those working in the education service

**Second**, to meet the demand for upgrading the qualifications of Grade V teachers graduating with Diploma certificates in Education who could only teach in primary and lower secondary schools and in a few Teacher Training Colleges who needed career paths in universities.

**Third**, to promote the practice of distance education so that the teachers could continue teaching while they studied, and improve their skills in different (including handling) of primary schools, upper secondary schools, teacher training colleges as well as work as educational administrators in various units.
The programme and its implementation

Makerere University launched its interdisciplinary Bachelor of Education external degree programme through distance mode in 1997. The course planning, the Department of Distance Education, the Institute of Adult and Continuing Education and the School of Education, the Senate and the University Council approved design and development. The curriculum design was discussed in the committees where all the stakeholders were represented. Once the curriculum was approved the Department of Distance Education coordinated the development of the learning materials drawing resources from relevant faculties and departments within and outside the university. The students have to take two teaching subjects in addition to core subjects. The department uses an integration of media to reach out to students and to support them to study during their courses. The main medium of study being the print supported by organized contact sessions and self-directed reading. Communication with the students is ensured through circulars sent to the study centres, radio, cell phone e-mail and face-to-face contacts.

The programme has to be of the same quality as the regular face to face programmes of the university. The students have to appear in the same type of examinations. The programme is reviewed regularly any time between 1-3 years. The programme is mostly funded by tuition fees.

Outcome

The B.Ed external degree programme has to follow same evaluation procedures for quality assessment as in other regular programmes of the university thereby acceptability by the public of its quality has been assured.

Collaboration with other faculties and experts from outside has enabled DDE to get the most competent staff. Incorporation of ideas from the students and employers has enriched the curriculum.
Training given to learning material developers and tutors has improved their competence in course development and delivery in both internal and external programmes. These course materials developed by the B.Ed external programme are now being used in other departments.

In a period of nine years, the small Department of Distance Education graduated over 4,000 students who would not have had such opportunities in life.

Quality Assurance:

The built in mechanism of planning, design, implementation and monitoring of the programme meets all the criteria for quality assurance. The role of accreditation remains in the hands of the university (Olal-Odur and Aguti, 2007). The above examples demonstrate that quality assurance for teacher education in Africa has very limited coverage and remains in the hands of the institution without any formal institutional framework for accreditation. The practice has to go further to include all types of teacher education beyond distance mode with institutional framework for accreditation to derive all the benefits mentioned earlier.
Chapter 7: Conclusions: Strategies for quality assurance of teacher education in Africa

The strategies will be discussed at three levels: (a) at the national level (including the government), (b) at the agency level and (c) at the institutional level.

7.1. National strategies for accreditation for quality assurance of teacher education

- The government should facilitate the establishment of accreditation mechanisms for quality assurance of their teacher education systems in the context of: (i) massive expansion; (ii) globalization; (iii) diversified teacher education providers, contents and methods of delivery; and (iv) portability of credits and credentials.

- While governments should share the responsibility of accreditation with the voluntary and private entities by overseeing the regulatory aspects, it should not interfere with academic matters. Public and private institutions, onsite and online teacher education should have the same standards for accreditation focusing on the learning outcomes. While standards should remain the same, the criteria and methods of assessment may vary depending upon the type of accreditation described above.

- Governments should play a role in the formulation of clear and robust polices or legislation to facilitate and support the establishment of accreditation agencies for quality assurance.

- Governments should establish an umbrella agency to oversee the functioning of the accreditation agencies.
7.2. Strategies for quality assurance agencies

- Agencies should have clearly-defined goals and objectives;
- They should have an established legal basis, receive recognition from competent public authorities, and ensure adequate resources;
- They should maintain autonomous responsibility for their operation as well as for their conclusions and recommendations so that they are not influenced by any third party such as institutions of teacher education, other stakeholders and the government if they themselves are not accrediting agencies;
- Agencies should have clearly-defined and transparent accountability procedures as described in Chapter 5
- Their design criteria should: (i) Re-define institutions comprising all kinds of providers; (ii) Emphasize on course and programme certification to facilitate portability of credits and credentials (iii) Incorporate transnational requirements; (iv) Emphasize on evidence of results; (v) Be capable of developing alternative accreditation reviews, e.g. electronic review and rapid response review for rapidly emerging providers; and (vi) Address maintaining quality assurance in the period of massive expansion;
- The agencies should redefine the assessment criteria for the faculty with their changing roles, e.g. preparing internet courseware, shared decision-making within and across institutions and employment across institutions;
- The agencies’ criteria for design should ensure needed personal contact between faculty and students in the emerging electronic communities for sharing of ideas through real support centres and real counsellors for virtual courses;
• The criteria for design should also include assessment of affective as well as cognitive learning;
• The agencies should establish effective linkages with the relevant government authorities and the institutions;
• It should have an effective public information policy for the stakeholders.

7.3. Institutional strategies

• In the context of increasing complexity of different providers and accreditation being an increasingly popular means of quality assurance, institutions of teacher education should develop a policy for quality assurance of their programmes and of themselves. As long as an accreditation agency is not set up, the quality assurance framework given in the examples in Chapter 6 should be built up.

• They should establish assessment mechanisms of their programmes and related activities following the criteria established by the agency, especially in respect of: (i) Their mission, goals and objectives; (ii) Quantity and quality of educational programmes; (iii) Academic standards; (iv) Quality of learning opportunities including staff quality; (v) Managerial effectiveness; (vi) Quality enhancement; (vii) Research and other scholarly activities; (viii) Community involvement including co-operation with industry; and (ix) Future plans.

• They should lend full co-operation with the accreditation agency if one exists, providing all the facilities needed for a transparent and fair evaluation of their activities for accreditation.

• They should develop an appropriate information system for their own use and for the accreditors.
They should have a public information policy to keep the stakeholders, especially the potential students to provide correct and verifiable information.

They should ensure adequate human and financial resources to prepare the self-assessment report for the purpose of accreditation satisfactorily.

When they are involved in twinning or franchising arrangements with transnational teacher education institutions, they must look critically into the quality of the partner organization so that the programmes meet the national accreditation criteria.
References


The UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA)

The UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA) is an international centre for building capacities of member states in Africa with specific emphasis on strengthening the capacities of teacher education institutions, focusing on research and training on teacher education and development, cost-effective uses of ICT for education, education policy and management, school leadership and supervision.

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The booklet

Although quality assurance for higher education has been a matter of concern for a long time and quality of teacher education in Africa has been a matter of concern for many development agencies recently, mechanisms of quality assurance of teacher education requires more focussed attention. The booklet attempts to contribute to bridging the existing knowledge gap.

This booklet starts with the evolution of the concept of quality of education in general and goes on to discuss the teachers’ role in improving the quality. It highlights indicators for identifying effective teachers and the factors that determine the quality in teacher education so that the appropriate mechanisms of assurance could be derived to from these factors. The booklet identifies three mechanisms for quality assurance of a teacher education institution in terms of programme or as a course. It discusses in details, the implementation of the process of accreditation in the context of teacher education at different levels specifying the criteria of accreditation, giving the steps to set up a quality assurance agency and its management including the challenges of the accreditation process. It has also collected few available examples of quality assurance of teacher education in Africa, which are limited to quality audit and quality assessment. These form a part of the initial process of accreditation. The booklet attempts to improve upon the mechanisms of quality assurance through accreditation to derive the benefits it could provide.

It concludes by recommending a set of strategies for the government, the accreditation agency and the teacher educational institutions for successful implementation of the accreditation process for quality assurance of teacher education in Africa.

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