PERCEIVED QUALITY OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN TURKEY: BASIC ISSUES AND THEIR APPLICATION TO TURKISH PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

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The Turkish education system has confronted radical changes over the last few years, as well as problems associated with it. In this context, the Turkish teacher education system attracts a lot of attention due to its role as the main teacher provider. Specifically, the quality of the teachers and the programs used to train them are being questioned. The biggest barrier to resolve these questions is a lack of consensus on the definition of "quality," and the purpose of the general research design is to bring together various perspectives and examine them individually in relation to the quality of Teacher Education Programs (TEPs). Due to time limitations, this dissertation examines only the embedded perceptions of key academic stakeholders regarding academic quality.

A survey was administered to 31 academic administrators, 80 faculty members and 569 students, and 14 follow-up interviews were conducted. The main research method is quantitative, and uses the Multinomial Probit and Ordered Probit models discussed by Long and Freese (2006) for analysis. Qualitative data from the interviews is then used to provide detail. Using Harvey and Green typology (1993), a stakeholder model was created, and perspectives on quality were categorized into three general quality views associated with stakeholder groups: the Public View, the Management View and the Academic View.

In phase 1, findings revealed that while key academic stakeholders generally agreed on the importance of these three perspectives with high ratings, on their number one choice 75% considered the Academic View the most important. There was no significant difference between

administrators and students, or between faculty and students. Phase 2 revealed some statistically significant relationships between the participants' academic positions —academic administrator, faculty member or student — and their level of agreement with the three academic quality components: Student Quality, Faculty Quality, and Curriculum Quality. Findings also revealed some significant reationships between participants' academic positions and their number one choice among the three academic quality components. Follow-up interviews revealed that participants had varying explanations for their number one choices.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ACRONMYS/ABBREVIATIONS

TEPs   Teacher Education Programs

HEIs   Higher Education Institutions

TQM   Total Quality Management

UIS   UNESCO Institute for Statistics

UNESCO   United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

K-12   Kindergarten through 12th grade

PK-12   Pre-kindergarten through 12th grade

TEAC   Teacher Education Accreditation Council

DOL   U.S. Department of Labor

ETS   Educational Testing Service

GPA   Grand Point Average

GTC   General Teaching Council for England

NTE   National Teacher Examinations

NCATE   National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education

CAEP   Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation

MEB   Ministry of National Education (TURKEY)
              [Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı]

ÖYEGM	General Directorate of Teacher Training and Development (TURKEY)
	[Öğretmen Yetiştirme ve Geliştirme Genel Müdürlüğü]
NEDP	The National Education Development Project
YÖK	Council of Higher Education (TURKEY)
	[Yükseköğretim Kurulu]
HEC	Higher Education Council
ÖSYM	Measurement, Selection and Placement Center (TURKEY)
	[Ölçme, Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi]
MNP	Multinomial Probit
OP	Ordered Probit
ENG	Quotation in English
TÜR	Quotation in Turkish
NACIQI	National Advisory Committee on Institutional Quality and Integrity

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my wife, Elif who has demonstrated an endless support, patience, and love, and whose constant encouragement and caring inspired me to finish, and to my newborn daughter, Zeynep Beyza who joined our family after my defense as a priceless gift.

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

Education systems around the world develop and evolve in an environment where technological revolution and social, political and economic changes bring both opportunities and threats to education providers from pre-kindergarten through post-secondary institutions. Educational expenditures are increasing, which in turn increases demand for access and accountability. With more scrutiny and intervention than ever from all aspects of the community, educational institutions need to provide concrete evidence of the quality of their endeavors. In addition, the role granted to educational institutions in relation to the development of human capital and economic growth is changing in many countries based on the needs of society. Because TEPs are the main source for providing teachers to the overall educational system, the quality of these programs receives attention from governments, the general public and the educational community, and also attracts research interest from the academy. The varying perspectives among these groups have created a lack of consensus on the definition of "quality" in relation to TEPs, which in turn creates a significant barrier for the development of TEPs.

Because the quality of the education system, the quality of teachers and the quality of teacher education are key factors in the debate on national development in Turkey today, this dissertation examines the quality of TEPs, with focus on Turkish public Higher Education Institutions (HEIs).

1.1 SUMMARY

This dissertation, which is part of a larger general research design aimed at investigating the perceptions of all "quality" stakeholders, focuses specifically on key academic stakeholders in Turkish public TEPs. In the current political context, the entire Turkish educational system, and in particular the higher education system, is evolving with changing social, political and economic parameters. The goal of this study is to introduce various conceptual perspectives on quality to Turkish education literature, to investigate the perspectives of key academic stakeholders related to the same, and to evaluate their attitudes towards the academic quality of TEPs. While there are plenty of studies available on TEP quality, Turkish literature lacks such comparative studies.

1.2   RESEARCH PROBLEM

The meaning of term *quality* in higher education differs from individual to individual and institution to institution. While similar-sounding concepts exist in different institutional settings, there is no consensus on the definition of quality in terms of what it includes and excludes in the field of higher education. While some researchers focus on the general concept of quality in higher education, others investigate how institutions and stakeholders perceive the general quality of higher education and the quality of the programs and services they provide in an institutional setting. Thus the meaning, perceived value and scope differ based on who defines quality in what context and from which perspective, experience and background. This ambiguity makes it difficult for institutions and academic programs to deal with quality-related issues, such as quality assurance, assessment, enhancement and improvement. In an institutional setting, where the definition of quality is blurred, one needs to realize how impossible it might be to assure, improve or assess something without knowing what it is.

In understanding how quality is redefined and perceived at institutional, school or program levels, the first step is to identify the approaches to the definition of quality in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). In literature, the only almost-consensus is that it is virtually impossible to define what the term "quality" is (Bogue & Saunders, 1992; Bogue & Hall, 2003; Harvey & Green, 1993; Pirsig, 1974; Tang & Wu, 2010; Winn & Cameron, 1998).   In an institution, school or program, or even in a context as small as a class discussion group, it is rare to find consensus, let alone to create a universal definition. This lack of consensus of the definition of quality in higher education then becomes the scapegoat that hinders the development of quality improvement effort in higher education. Moreover, studies that investigate the issue from one perspective while ignoring others cannot help find the solution to a

problem burdened by lack of consensus. The real question is whether consensus is really needed for successful improvement of the quality of higher education. Can HEIs find enough shared ideas and overlapping interests regarding the quality of higher education? Or, can the higher education community create a collective definition in which everyone's interests and concerns are included and addressed to some extent, without violating their rights?

1.3   PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

While the broader research project includes the perceptions of all stakeholder groups, this study examines only the embedded notions/perceptions in regard to the academic quality of TEPs in Turkish public HEIs held by the internal academic community, specifically the academic administrators, faculty members and students. The goal is to begin to explore the general quality image of TEPs in Turkey. The academic community was intentionally targeted as the first group to be investigated because of their core position in the system. Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) created a typology of stakeholders based on the attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency, arguing that "classes of stakeholders can be identified by their possession or attribute possession of one, two or all three of the following attributes: (1) the stakeholder's power to influence the firm, (2) the legitimacy of the stakeholder's relationship with the firm, and (3) the urgency of the stakeholder's claim on the firm" (p. 854). Considering the power, legitimacy and urgency attributes of stakeholders, this study focuses on the internal academic community, partially responding to the general research design. Theal (2002) discusses educational quality and assessment, and puts the academic community at the nucleus of the atomic stakeholder model, suggesting that while these stakeholders are most influential in ongoing practice, they "are most

4

distant from ongoing activity, and whose involvement in decisions, need for information, participation in day to day process, and influence gradually decrease as a result" (p. 230). This underlines the significant importance of this group in higher education, as well as the need for attention to their involvement in the quality definition and assessment process.

1.4   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study focuses on teacher education in Turkey, and will address the following questions:

- How do key academic stakeholders perceive/define academic quality in TEPs in Turkish public HEIs?
  - ➢ How do academic administrators (deans, department chairs and program coordinators) perceive/define the quality of TEPs?
  - ➢ How do faculty members perceive/define the quality of TEPs?
  - ➢ How do teacher education program students (freshman, junior, sophomore and senior) perceive/define the quality of TEPs?
  - ➢ To what extent does the perception of the quality of TEPs differ among administrators, faculty members and students? Also, what are the differences and similarities?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Quality is a term that was born and developed mostly within industry, where the definition is centered on the customer-provider relationship. The higher education sector adopted the term quality, as well as the related issues of quality assurance, control and improvement, after academia's autonomy was shaken by internal and external forces demanding more accountable institutions. Because of this, the definition of higher education quality was impacted by external, industry-based ideologies. However, and as highlighted in literature, the definition of "quality" in relation to HEIs is slippery and virtually impossible to detail because different stakeholder groups hold their own perceptions of quality.

While the general research design aims to investigate the perspectives of all stakeholder groups on the quality of TEPs in Turkey, the purpose of this dissertation was to investigate the perceptions of only key academic stakeholders on the topic. It was expected that this study in particular, and the general research design as a whole, will contribute in different directions. Although problems and concerns regarding the quality of Turkish TEPs have been highlighted many times by key Turkish academicians and politicians, there is very little literature that focusing specifically on these issues. The goal was that the findings of this dissertation bring some responses to quality related issues in the Turkish teacher education system, and also begin to fill the gap in the literature. The findings also provide information to key politicians who are less aware of the perspective of this specific stakeholder group, a group that has been affected directly, but whose voices are mostly ignored.

This dissertation does not define "quality" in relation to Turkish TEPs. Rather, its goal is help understand the perceptions of TEP quality of the specific academic stakeholder groups. In this way, one of the key contributions of this dissertation is to show how key academic

stakeholders define quality and how their perceptions differ from the commonly accepted definitions of quality in the higher education sector adapted from the service industry. It also details how the same "academic" perspective is embraced by this specific stakeholder group, and how the definition emerging from that perspective, academic quality, is formalized differently by the sub-groups of these same academic stakeholders based on their priorities, expectations, needs and experiences.

Another contribution of this dissertation is that it helps understand that quality-related problems in academia, and issues due to the lack of a common definition of quality, cannot be solved by imposing/enforcing a general or commonly accepted definition of quality. In reality, this makes problems chronic and more difficult to handle. It also re-validates how it is impossible to find even a small concencus among a close and strongly related group of participants (key academic stakehlders) in a program, let alone finding a universal definition that will respond to the needs and expectations of every aspect of society. To address this, this dissertation proposes some recommendations for policy makers and future research as a first step in the right direction towards finding solutions to those problems.

2.0   LITERATURE REVIEW

This section is a review of current literature on the quality of American and European academic programs in HEIs. It examines current articles, books, scholarly papers and official documents to identify varying approaches in defining quality in HEIs. It also introduces and explains various terms commonly used in quality-related literature, such as accountability, quality assurance, and quality assessment. In addition, it identifies approaches, methods, and techniques used in quality assessment and measurement. Finally, it narrows its focus to definition and measurement approaches for the TEP quality in the United States and Europe. The strategy is general to specific literature review, first presenting the definition of quality in HEIs in general, and then narrowing the focus to the TEP level.

The selection of American and European higher education systems is not only because of their domination in the global higher education arena, but also due to their historical relationship with the Turkish higher education system. While the roots of the Turkish higher education system can be traced back to the Islamic HEIs (Madrasa schools) during the Seljuk Empires (1071-1299) and Ottoman Empire (1299-1920), today's modern and secular Turkish HEIs were established and developed based on European and Anglo-American university models during the period of the Turkish Republic, or 1920 to the Present (Mizikaci, 2006). For this reason, this section covers only studies and scholarly papers related to American and European HEIs in order

to understand the quality of HEIs and their academic programs in general, and the quality of TEPs in particular.

2.1   DEFINING QUALITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

In a context where the definition of and approaches to quality are blurred, , Harvey and Green (1993) analyze the political and philosophical foundations of the term quality and categorize its conceptual definitions by explaining five distinguished but interrelated approaches: *(a) exceptional, (b) perfection or consistency, (c) fitness for purpose, (d) value for money and (e) transformation.* Besides these approaches, they also introduce Total Quality Management (TQM) as a systematic analysis rather than a conceptual view of quality. TQM is defined as "A philosophy and set of concepts and methods employed throughout an organization by individuals with a view towards continually improving the product or service provided to customers" (Melan, 1995, p. 174). Under this school of thought, TQM embodies both perfection (consistency) and fitness for purpose. "TQM attempts to bring together quality as fitness for purpose and quality as perfection by seeing fitness for purpose in the context of quality culture" (Harvey & Green, 1993, "A Note on TQM," para. 4).

Although it is possible to find a wide variety of conceptual approaches and typology studies that examine the meaning of quality in higher education, Harvey and Green's (2003) typology seems to be one of the broadest, including many of the conceptual approaches and meanings of quality in higher education. Thus, this typology will be helpful but will not limit the discussion query of this literature review: How is quality defined in HEIs in the United States and Europe? In an attempt to cover most of the approaches discussed by Harvey and Green

9

(1993) and others, this dissertation also discusses and claim that the definition of quality changes depending on who defines it. The approaches to the definition of quality in higher education will then be categorized under three generalized views on quality: public, management and academic.

Before moving to discussions on conceptual approaches, it is crucial to understand the basis of the definition each person possesses. To this end, instead of discussing specific conceptions of quality, Filippakou (2011) chooses to explain the roots of the definition of quality and how it is constructed in peoples' minds. She examines the relationship between the concepts of 'ideology', 'discourse' and the idea of 'quality' by arguing that ideology effects discourses, and discourses in return impact and shape people's understanding of quality:

> "Discourses are socially constructed knowledge (of some aspect) of reality. By 'socially constructed' we mean that they have been developed in specific social contexts, and in ways which are appropriate to the interest of social actors in these contexts, whether they are broad contexts ('Western Europe') or not (a particular family). Explicitly institutionalized contexts (newspapers) or not (dinner-table conversations), and so on" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2011, p. 4; The definition adapted and quoted by Filipakou, 2011, p. 18).

Here the definition of ideology is not limited to the idea that it connotes social interest and partial understanding of reality; instead, ideology, as she draws from Eagleton and McLennas, can be seen as "exercising a particular set of effects rather than try to defining it" (Filippakou, 2011, p. 18). She holds that there are five key elements that indicate the presence of ideology in the construction of a discourse of quality: "social struggles, unequal contribution of power, partiality, naturalness and loss of voice" (Filippakou, 2011, p. 20). From this point of view, she claims, "ideology projects a systematic set of values, which has the power to give particular meaning(s) to 'quality'. Thus, it is through the creation of discourse that our idea of quality in higher education is constructed" (Filippakou, 2011, p. 17). She conceptualizes the quality of higher education as a network of discourses that penetrate the whole higher education

system. In this network, 'quality assurance' and 'quality enhancement' are the dominant, or 'parent' discourses. In this network, power has a big impact and influence on discourses. Dominant voices slowly suppress alternative voices in this system, increasing their power and familiarity, while suppressed voices lose their power and become extinct. The resulting repetition of dominant voices tends to be seen as natural, and become ideologies. "Ideology has power to frame discourse and repetition has power to naturalize ideology" (Filippakou, 2011, p. 22). For instance, while higher education institutions are considered autonomous bodies where the quality of higher education is defined from the collection of different perspectives of various stakeholders, in many countries quality assurance and enhancement activities are administered mainly by external quality assurance and accreditation agencies. The naturalized dominance and authority of such agencies in defining and controlling the quality of higher education seem to be accepted by the higher education community with little or no objection. This discussion of discourse, ideology, and quality by Flippakou sheds the light on the further conceptual discussions in this dissertation, where her highlights on the roots of the conceptual perspectives and their links to the related definitions are highly visible.

2.1.1   Public view: Elitism and quality rankings

Returning to the idea of three generalized views on quality, the first to consider is how the *public* views and perceives higher education quality. At this point, it is necessary to remember the first of the five approaches introduced by Harvey and Green (1993): the exceptionality view of quality. This approach sees quality as special, and can emerge in three forms: (a) *distinctiveness*, or "the traditional notion of quality" with no standards); (b) *excellence 1*, or high quality standards, and (c) *checking standards*, or "quality checks" with minimum standards. Of these

11

three forms, the main focus of the public view in which the quality is embedded in the idea of distinctiveness. This form of quality presents an elitist perspective in which reputation, prestige, inaccessibility and unaffordability of HEIs are characteristics of quality. However, in the growth that has stemmed from the "transition from elite to mass higher education" (Trow, 1973), the role of higher education shifts. The mission of elite HEIs is centered on shaping mind and character or what Trow (1976) calls "encouragement of the ambition" of students. The mission of mass higher education, on the other hand, is centered around the transmission of skills and knowledge, taking more of a vocational training role (Trow, 1973, 1976). Trow (1973) argues that problems associated with this transition have impacted not only the quantity, but also the quality of HEIs.

However, the elitist perspective still needs to respond to the dilemma of education as a birth-right or privilege. In this perspective, the history, reputation and institution's elite status are considered determinants that guarantee their quality rather than benchmarks or quality standards that can be evaluated. These are the most prominent aspects of being distinctive, elite and exceptional, which differs from other HEIs. The quality of the institution is determined by its elite status and reputation, as are its academic programs. This perspective is mostly very welcomed by the public. It establishes public perspective on the quality of higher education, meaning that quality in the public view is equal to its prestige and reputation. Iannone (2004) argues that a caste system still exists in today's American higher education. In this discussion, Iannone draws a caste scheme in which Ivy League colleges and universities (e.g., Harvard, Yale, Princeton, etc.) are placed at the top, while the two-year and community colleges are placed at the bottom. In this caste, the top of the system is considered a privilege for some, but inaccessible and unaffordable for many. As argued, the school "choices by parents to send their

children are based mostly on the public perception of the top schools" (Iannone, 2004, p. 9), and "the public's perception of these schools is based on image and not usually on the quality of teaching and curriculum" (p. 10). We can easily imagine what the names Harvard, Princeton, Cambridge or Oxford bring to peoples' minds when they first hear them. However, one needs to question the quality of academic programs, teaching and learning activities in these institutions. This question is overlooked and suppressed by the reputation the names these institutions hold. With this perspective, the name, age, and size become the quality determinants, and quality refers only to reputation or prestige in the mind of the masses.

Volkwein and Sweitzer (2006) developed a model to analyze variables related to institutional reputation and prestige based on data from US News and World Report and other guide books on research universities and liberal art colleges. The findings indicate that for both the research universities and liberal art colleges, "the institutional governance, age, size, and resource variables serve as foundations for faculty and student recruitment, then faculty productivity and student outcomes that come later and combine to produce institutional reputation" (Volkwein & Sweitzer, 2006, p. 142). This means that prestige helps institutions recruit the best faculty and students. However, they further argue that prestige does not guarantee educational quality, emphasizing that what students have experienced in the school is the most important factor in terms of educational outcomes. Pascarella and Terenzini (cited in Volkwein & Sweitzer, 2006) highlight that educational effectiveness [quality] and prestige can be independent of each other.

Some other research studies (Clarke, 2002; Keith, 1999; Morley & Aynsley, 2007) also focus on this elitist perspective where quality is defined by institutional reputation; however, they examine the issue as it relates to annual rankings. Specifically, Keith (1999) examines the

role of rankings in the perceived quality of the HEIs, and highlights the popularity and prevalence of higher education rankings in the United States. In his study, he analyzes departmental prestige and rankings in an institutional context, with focus on doctoral-granting research departments. Findings indicate that there is great similarity among the rankings of doctoral-granting programs in an institution; meaning that departmental rankings are influenced mostly by the institutional reputation rather than their demonstrable quality. In other words, the notion of quality that lies behind the whole ranking phenomenon overlooks programs' accomplishments related to institutional mission and outcome goals, which in turn makes rankings systems a poor measure of departmental quality (Keith, 1999).

Regardless, ranking systems and mechanisms still influence public opinion around the world. For instance, *U.S. News and World Report* has a great influence on how the public views higher education (Gardner, 2010). Clarke (2002), on the other hand, examines the perceived quality of such institutional rankings in terms of the validity and reliability of these annual reports. The author's analysis of the rankings from 1995-2000 *U.S. News and World Report* reveals that four different changes occurred throughout the years: "(a) changes in the weight assigned to an indicator; (b) the removal of an indicator from a formula; (c) the addition of an indicator to a formula; and (d) changes in an indicator's definition or methodology" (p. 4). This makes it impossible to compare one year to another. The findings highlight that definition/methodology and weight changes are common during this six-year period. Comparisons made among the type of schools, based on the top fifty rankings of each school type, revealed that when compared to business, engineering, law, medicine, national universities, national liberal-art colleges and primary care, more movement, i.e. change in rankings from year to year, occurred in school of education rankings. However, the reason behind movement in

14

rankings among schools of education could not be explained by changing formulas or weights and remains unclear.

Morley and Aynsley (2007) discuss the employer perspective of quality and standards of HEIs in England. They argue that employers do not pay attention to the quality and standards of HEIs; rather, the reputation of HEIs based on rankings and classification is the most prominent criteria in recruiting univeristy graduates. Findings reveal that "over 80 percent of employers in…[the] survey reported that the institution's overall reputation was the most important criterion for judging the quality of an HEI" (Morley & Aynsley, 2007, p. 237). From the employer perspective, the quality of HEIs and their academic programs is defined and determined by their reputation and the national or international ranking systems.

Another study by McGuire, Richman, Daly, and Jorjani (1988) focuses on the relationship between the input and output. Input includes Federal obligated funding, number of faculty members, and their salaries, and output is comprised of the *1980's prestige ratings*[1] of 40 research institutions in terms of efficiency. While the study results have different implications in terms of efficiency, the study itself reveals two differing approaches to what quality is. Reputation and prestige through rankings are considered a determinant for the quality of the outcome, which tends to keep exceptionality approach to quality, while the study design seeking the income-outcome correlation via cost-reputation or cost-quality tends to have a value-for money-approach, which will be discussed under management view. As mentioned, these approaches are interrelated, so it is not surprising to find overlap among the definitions.

To summarize, the exceptionality, distinctiveness or elite perspective of the definition of quality is still favorable in the public view. What the public calls *best* or *top* colleges, programs

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[1] In this Study, "the surrogate for the output of a research university will be taken to be its reputation, as measured by the aggregate of the ratings of the scholarly quality of its faculty reported in the national assessments sponsored by the Conference Board of Associated Research Council" (McGuire et al., 1988, p. 365).

and sometimes professors (for instance faculty with Nobel Prizes) are the main determinants of their definition of quality. This interpretation of quality is used and supported by ranking agencies. In addition, HEIs, that want to recruit the best teachers and students, and to get more shares of public and private grants from donors, put enormous effort into increasing their reputation and prestige in order to be called *best* or *top* among their competitors.

2.1.2   Management view: Customer-provider relationship

The second generalized view this paper discusses is how *management* sees the quality of higher education. Included in this discussion are quality assurance and accountability. Specifically, the approaches of *perfection* (zero-defect), *fitness for purpose*, and *value for money* introduced by Harvey and Green (1993) are examined due not only to their close relationship with each other, but also their consensus that management perspectives see HEIs as providers and students as customers. However, these approaches differ from each other in terms of how management sees quality.

2.1.2.1 Perfection (zero-defect)

The first approach by Harvey and Green (1993) explains quality as *perfection* or *consistency* that focuses on process and establishes specifications to meet it perfectly. The approach is explained by two sub-sections: (a) *zero defects*, which means to assure that there is no failure at each level of process instead of relying on an outcome inspection to find defects; and (b) *quality culture*, which requires that every individual unit or person in the organization is responsible for the quality of the organization through the devolution of responsibility. It also highlights the notion that "doing things right the first time" is the key for success.

16

Melan (1995) discusses quality improvement and TQM as an administrative function introducing the zero-defect approach as one feature of TQM and one strategy for quality improvement. Under this approach HEIs need to set up yearly zero-defect targets to be accomplished in their quality improvement activities (Melan, 1995). This type of goal setting provides quantitative objectives for institutional quality improvement teams. However, Harvey (1997) discusses the limited contribution of the zero-defect approach in quality improvement. He argues that a "transformative view" of quality is more of a meta-quality concept in which other concepts such as perfection, fitness for purpose, value for money and exceptionality can be named as possible but inadequate operationalizations of the transformative process. Even though the zero-defect approach, a domain of the perfection, may be significant in reducing the cost of monitoring and production, it has little impact on the transformative function of HEIs in terms of quality improvement (Harvey, 1997).

Freed, Klugman, and Fife (1997) embrace the perfection notion of quality by introducing quality principles conceptualized and developed by Deming, Juran and Crosby, which also reflect the TQM approach. They indicate that these principles are fundamental in creating a quality culture in higher education institutions. Creating a quality culture is the second domain under quality as perfection discussed by Harvey and Green (1993). While the idea is to control quality through input-output comparison in every individual unit, things must be done right the first time. Freed et al.'s (1997) nine quality principles are: (a) vision, mission and outcome driven; (b) systems dependent; (c) leadership; (d) systematic individual development; (e) decisions based on fact; (g) delegation of decision making; (h) collaboration; (i) planning for change, and (k) supportive leaders. The authors' more detailed explanation of each quality principle brings them to the conclusion that "the holistic implementation of the quality principles

17

creates a culture for academic excellence" (p. vi). Even though these principles do not limit the definition of quality, they still tend to keep the definition of quality within the boundaries of perfection approach. The definition and principles also have some characteristics of the fitness for purpose approach.

Nightingale and O'Neil (1994), who focus on quality of teaching and learning, criticize quality benchmarking via quality standards and suggest that institutional focus on quality improvement must be through action learning and TQM-type strategies. In order for HEIs to succeed in their quality improvement efforts, they require a "community of quality" where all stakeholders collaborate to achieve *high quality learning* in the institution. While this perspective seems to embrace the *quality culture* domain embedded in the perfection view of quality, it does not: they refuse the marketing view of quality and suggest that students are not consumers but participants, and that teachers are not salespeople but facilitators. They "reject the idea that quality means *getting it right the first time* or *zero defects*. Mistakes are OK; they are to be expected. But they must be a source of a new learning experience and of progress" (Nightingale & O'Neil, 1994, p. 165) and bring a different perspective to the quality culture domain of the perfection approach.

2.1.2.2 Fitness for purpose

Harvey and Green's (1993) second approach, *fitness for purpose* considers the idea of how much the product or service fits its purpose. The purpose is explained by two domains: (a) the *specifications of the customer* (students) and (b) the *mission* of the institution (the stated goals and objectives of a HEI). This type of perspective on quality is categorized by a more functional approach, different from the exceptionality approach where one sees distinctiveness, elitism or

being special (Harvey & Green, 1993). It is mostly embraced by quality agencies in the US (Westerheijden, 2007) and in many of European countries (Kohoutek, Pasackova, & Rendlova, 2009). This approach is not limited to the higher education sector, but also includes other sectors where national governments and public concerns arise in terms of accountability. This perspective is mainly adapted from the service industry where the quality of the product is evaluated against its pre-stated goals. The term *fitness for purpose* is defined as "one of the possible criteria for establishing whether or not a unit meets quality, measured against what is seen to be the goal of the unit" (Campbell & Rozsnyai, 2002, p. 132). Harvey and Green (1993) define this as a perspective that focuses on two different sources for the purpose of the customer: the needs, specifications, and expectations of the students, and the purpose of the provider, which would include the mission and goals of the institution, school or program.

This perspective differs from the elitist perspective discussed earlier not only in terms of what the quality is but also how the quality is related to other types of institutional norms. For instance, from the elitist perspective, Trow (1973) discusses the problems arising from the uncontrollable elite to mass transition and growth in size, namely the number of institutions, faculty and students, while in his book *Quality through access, access with quality: The new imperative for Higher education*, William H. Bergquist (1995) explores and discusses the relationship between access and quality of higher education, indicating that "access is legitimized by enhancing quality, and quality is improved by increasing access" (p. 34). In this perspective, quality has a close relationship with the notion of access. Bergquist (1995) proposes the following definition of what he calls the *multidimensional definition of quality*, which he claims integrate his four quality criteria (input, output, value-added, and process-oriented):

> Quality exists in a college or university to the extent that adequate and appropriate resources are being directed successfully toward the accomplishment of mission-related

institutional outcomes and that programs in the college or university make a significant and positive mission-related difference in the lives of people affiliated with the college or university and are created, conducted and modified in a manner that is consistent with the mission (and value) of the institution (Bergquist, 1995, p. 43).

Since this focuses mostly on the accomplishment of the institutional mission and goals, his definition seems to be articulated from the fitness for purpose approach. However, the definition also touches on the "quality as transformation" approach when he mentions HEIs as making a difference in students' lives.

Bogue and Hall (2003) also focus on the quality of higher education by discussing the relationship between quality and accountability. Their research/discussion helps them conclude that the term quality is complex and philosophically difficult to define. Even though they argue that anyone who dares to define the term quality for post-secondary education should be aware of making themselves an academic target, they present the following definition: "Quality is conformance to mission specification and goal achievement—within publicly accepted standards of accountability and integrity" (Bogue & Hall, 2003, p. 14; Bogue & Saunders, 1992, p. 20). While their definition respects the diversity of the institutions' mission, size, background, type and history, it mainly integrates fitness for purpose where the institutional mission is highly valued. The accountability component is also visible in terms of institutional requirements back to the public, which will be discussed later in more detail under the value for money approach.

The two domains, mission oriented and student oriented, are embedded in the fitness for purpose approach discussed by Ruben (1995) as the old concept of quality, i.e. internal, focuses on products and service characteristics, defined by experts, and the contemporary concepts of quality, i.e. external, focuses on customer needs and expectations, defined by customers. In comparing these domains, the author suggests that the traditional concept of quality fails to

define quality in higher education. Even though he does not clearly propose a definition for the term quality, he suggests that "in the context of this contemporary perspective, with its emphasis on consumer satisfaction, quality quite literally begins and ends with the customer expectations, requirements and values" (Ruben, 1995, p. 158). Even though Ruben (1995) discusses the problem with the traditional, mission-oriented approach, he suggests that neither of the approaches is perfect. Instead, higher education institutions need to integrate both the traditional mission-oriented and contemporary costumer-oriented approaches in their quality definition, assessment and improvement in order to keep the strengths of both approaches. The argument emphasizes the importance of fitness for purpose approach in definition, assessment and improvement.

2.1.2.3 Value for money

The forth approach from Harvey and Green (1993) is *value for money*, which is related to cost. In this approach, quality education should be achieved with lower cost. It also supports the ideas of *efficiency* and *effectiveness*. The main argument is the idea of *accountability*, which is highly embraced by both American and European governments for public services. Value for money has also two domains: (a) *performance indicators* that can monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of HEIs, and (b) *costumer charters* that ask what the expectations of the customers are in return for their payment (Harvey & Green, 1993). In both domains, the idea of accountability is the main concern for HEIs. "Accountability is the obligation to report to others, to explain, to justify, to answer questions about how resources have been used, and to what effect" (Trow, 1996, p. 310). In this context, HEIs are accountable for what governments, tax payers, individual donors, parents and students expect for their investment: money, time or effort. In other words,

HEIs are accountable to their stakeholders for their investments (Hoecht, 2006). As Hoecht (2006) argues, the transition from old political structures to more democratic systems and market economies has resulted in the establishment of accountable governments and more active civil societies that compel public services to be more accountable. The loss of the public's blind trust of public services in these societies hastens the accountability movement and the proliferation of quality assurance mechanisms (Hoecht, 2006). In this regard, "quality management has moved from a trust-based to a control-based mode of operation with one-way accountability" (Hoecht, 2006, p. 551). Thus, the accountability view shows how the quality of HEIs and their academic programs are defined from the value for money approach. However, from the academic perspective, and as suggested by the study findings on academic staff by Hoecht (2006), the majority of participants felt that the current assurance systems operating in their institutions brought some benefits to students, such as formalization and standardization. However, many of them also mentioned that these systems are too bureaucratic and superficial in quality monitoring, and threaten their professional autonomy.

However, the impact of accountability is not limited to academic staff. It also determines and shapes the role and purpose of higher education. McPherson (1983) analyzes and compares economic purpose, e.g. knowledge production, human capital development and contribution to economic growth, with non-economic purpose, e.g. enrichment of individuals, improvement of citizenship, and pursuit of truth, of American higher education in terms of value conflict and accountability. From the accountability perspective, while families and students are anxious about the cost and return benefits of HEIs at a personal level, the HEIs' effort to secure and sustain public funds in the name of non-economic purposes such as quality of life, equity and humanistic values are considered suspicious and not well accepted at the political level

(McPherson, 1983). Accountability of the programs and services HEIs provide, public investment in higher education, and increasing suspicion about the value of the outcomes of HEIs expand and increase the pressure for more accountable and transparent HEI services. This has resulted in the emergence of internal and external quality assurance and *accreditation agencies*[2] in growing numbers around the world. However, it does not really mean that quality agencies ensure all institutional quality, since they only set up basic quality standards for institutions to achieve.

2.1.3   Academic view: Transformation

The third general view this paper discusses is how the *academic perspective* defines quality. In this view, quality is defined from the academic purposes of higher education. This is Harvey and Green's (1993) last approach, and *quality as transformation* is the main focus of this view. The basic idea is to change and transform, and the *value-added* notion of quality is applied in this transformative perspective. HEIs can add value to students by enhancing their abilities, skills and knowledge as well as empowering them by providing the opportunity to play active roles in decision making of their transformation. In this view, education is considered an ongoing process of transformation rather than a service for the customers; and students or researchers are participants in this transformation rather than customers (Harvey & Green, 1993). Thus, in this perspective, the quality of an HEI is defined by the extent to which it has the ability to enhance and empower its participants.

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[2] "Accrediting agencies are organizations (or bodies) that establish basic quality standards for educational or professional institutions and programs, determine the extent to which the standards are met, and publicly announce their findings" (NACIQI, 2011, Glossary, para. 1).

23

In his book *Achieving Educational Excellence: A critical Assessment of Priorities and Practices in Higher Education,* Alexander W. Astin (1985) prefers the term *excellence* in lieu of *quality*. Throughout the book, he introduces, discusses, and criticizes the four traditional ways of defining and measuring excellence: reputation, resources, outcomes and content. His discussion on the limitations of each ends with a definition that is based on the view of what he calls "talent development," or "intellectual and personal development": "true excellence lies in the institution's ability to affect its students and faculty favorably, to enhance their intellectual and scholarly development, and to make positive difference in their lives" (Astin, 1985, p. 61). In this view, Astin also includes faculty as part of the transformation process.

In this transformational perspective, students or participants are at the center of not only the learning process, but also the evaluation of their learning, which leads to the enhancement and empowerment of the student (Harvey & Green, 1993). At this point, students' perceptions and feedback toward the quality of teaching and learning is the key component in the evaluation process. One way of attaining student perceptions of teaching quality is annual faculty evaluations. Student, faculty and course evaluations are common systems in most colleges and universities in North America (McKone, 1999). There are two main purposes for this type of evaluation from two perspectives. The first perspective is concern over the quality of instruction, and the main purpose is to give first-hand, reliable feedback to instructors to improve the quality of teaching and learning. The second perspective, which is more related to administrative purposes, uses student feedback as a source for tenure decisions or faculty promotions. For the first perspective, student feedback is a good source for improving the quality of teaching and learning. Cohen (1981) synthesizes and discusses the literature on the correlation between student achievement and student ratings of instructors through the meta-analysis approach. "The

results of the meta-analysis provide strong support for the validity of student ratings as measures of teaching effectiveness" (Cohen, 1981, p. 281). In addition, faculty members subject to this type of rating tend to have positive attitudes toward the utility of student ratings (Schmelkin, Spencer, & Gellman, 1997). However, counter arguments are also available on the reliability and validity of student feedback. In his book *Grade inflation: A crisis in college education*, Valen Johnson (2003) argues that the higher the grades students receive, the higher the positive feedback faculty or courses receive. Faculty intentionally or unintentionally manipulate the course instruction so that students get high grades and, in return, provide positive feedback. The quality of the instruction, however, may still be low. Thus, student feedback is not always a good measure for the quality of teaching and learning in a higher education setting (Johnson, 2003), because how much the school, program or course add value for students is unclear.

Muller and Funnel (1992), who indicate that quality is a combination of factors embedded in the *value-addedness*, argue that the institutional role in this process is to ensure that "learners fully participate in, and contribute to, the learning process in such a way that they become responsible for creating, delivering and evaluating the product" (Muller & Funnell, 1992, p. 2-175, as quoted in Harvey & Green, 1993, Enhancing the Participant, para. 5). However, the value added for the participant in this context is a measurement issue that depends entirely on the method (Barnett, 1988). Another way of measuring the value added notion of quality is to calculate progress of qualifications between input before entrance to the college and output after exiting the college, with quantifiable results (Barnett, 1988; Harvey & Green, 1993). However, this still produces qualitative transformation (Harvey & Green, 1993).

Another factor that empowers and enhances students in the transformative view is the improvement of students' critical skills, e.g., critical reading, writing, and thinking, not only

during school, but also for after postsecondary education (Harvey & Green, 1993). Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) show that cognitive skills such as critical thinking and reasoning improve between the freshman and senior years for undergraduate students. The importance of this type of improving students' cognitive skills is also highlighted by faculty members. However, the ideal and the reality are different in college settings. "It is impressive to find faculty members agreeing almost unanimously that teaching students to think critically is the principal aim of undergraduate education" (Bok, 2006, p. 109), however, "what is remarkable, then is not that professors place so high value on critical thinking; the wonder…is that they do not do more to act on their [this] belief" (Bok, 2006, p. 110).

2.1.4   Measuring quality in Higher Education

After discussing the definition of quality in higher education in terms of conceptual approaches, the second phase is to examine and understand the more operational aspect of quality and the issues related to its measurement in HEIs. However, given the ambiguity and sometimes contradictory discussions on quality of higher education, it is easy to see that differing perspectives and a lack of consensus on a clear definition of quality in higher education complicates its measurement in terms of what to accomplish (purpose), what to measure (object or unit), who to measure (subject), when to measure (time), and how to measure (method/model/technique). In this context, it is important to understand the meaning and rationale behind the measurement phenomenon.

Quality measurement in higher education can be discussed under a broader term, *quality assessment*, which requires and contains the measurement of quality. While *assessment*, *measurement*, and *evaluation* can be used interchangeably (Vlasceanu, Grunberg, & Parlea,

2007), understanding the distinction among them is necessary to grasp the whole issue. The term *quality assessment* is a broader term that includes not only the measurement of the quality of a unit, but also the examination and discussion of the outcomes of the measurement, which results in assigning a quality value to the unit measured. In other words, measurement connotes the assessment of the quality of the unit to all of the data collection efforts. Thus, the measurement of quality in higher education should not be separately discussed from quality assessment; rather, it should be examined within quality assessment and evaluation procedures in HEIs. However, in comparison to the service industry where goals are clear and money is the primary norm, quality assessment becomes problematic in higher education. There is no set scale or metric that can be used or clear goals that can be evaluated in the higher education sector (Birnbaum, 1988). It is also necessary to recognize that one of the biggest obstacles in the improvement of assessment mechanisms nationally is the lack of a clear definition on what assessment signifies (Terenzini, 1989). In spite of this, Terenzini defines assessment as "the measurement of the educational impact of an institution on its students" (p. 644). He argues that the following three questions are core in understanding the assessment and measurement activities in higher education, as well as related problems: (1) "What is the purpose of assessment?" (i.e. why), (2) "What is to be the level of assessment?" (i.e. who), and (3) "What is to be assessed?" (i.e., what) (pp. 646-647). Answers to these questions are a powerful guide in understanding what type of assessment HEIs implement (Terenzini, 1989). As a result, the purpose, level and object of the measurement/assessment are what differentiate the type of assessment and measurement in higher education at the program, institutional or national-level.

2.1.5   Discussion

In summary, quality is a blurred term. Every stakeholder in higher education tends to have their own perception, understanding and definition of quality. The definition differs depending on who defines quality and from what perspective, taking into consideration needs, expectations and priorities. The definition is also influenced by social norms, values and power dynamics. Thus, it is not an easy task to define and understand the term quality, especially in the higher education system where different stakeholders hold different priorities and definitions of quality. Moreover, differing perspectives on quality results in the emergence of differing assessment and measurement activities in the higher education sector. One important conclusion here is that varying perspectives on the definition of higher education quality come from different groups, individuals or mechanisms with direct or indirect relationships to the higher education sector. Thus, this paper proposes the general stakeholder model in Figure 1 for the general research design. This identifies the different stakeholder[3] groups in a higher education institution, indicates three general perspectives on quality (public, management and academic), and associates these perspectives with the three general definitions of quality to form a general quality picture of an HEI. The rectangular shapes represent the organization-level stakeholders of HEIs, the three circles represent general quality perspectives, and within each circle, people-level individual or group stakeholders are listed. The cylindrical shapes in the middle represent the three different general higher education quality definitions from each of the general quality perspectives. Since this study focuses on the perspectives of people-level stakeholders, the framework only highlights the people-level stakeholder perspectives associated with the three

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[3] "A stakeholder in an organization is (by definition) any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives" (Freeman, 1984, p. 46).

28

quality definitions of the general quality image of HEIs, leaving organizational-level representation unexplained in the model. One important detail is that the general stakeholder model comprises some level of flexibility in that stakeholder groups can/may move from one perspective to another, avoiding direct, firm matching of stakeholders with the general quality perspectives. The dotted lines between the three quality perspective circles in the framework represent this flexibility.

In the model, parents, prospective students, tax payers, alumni, and employers considered as the public group that is expected to have the public view of quality that leads to the definition of reputation. Internal and external non-academic administrators and government officials are considered the administrative group, and are expected to hold the management view of quality that mainly focuses on efficiency and effectiveness. The third group of individuals considered as the key academic stakeholders consists of academic administrators, faculty members, and students, who expected to hold the academic view of quality that has emerged based on the values of academic quality, which is defined as value addedness and academic transformation.
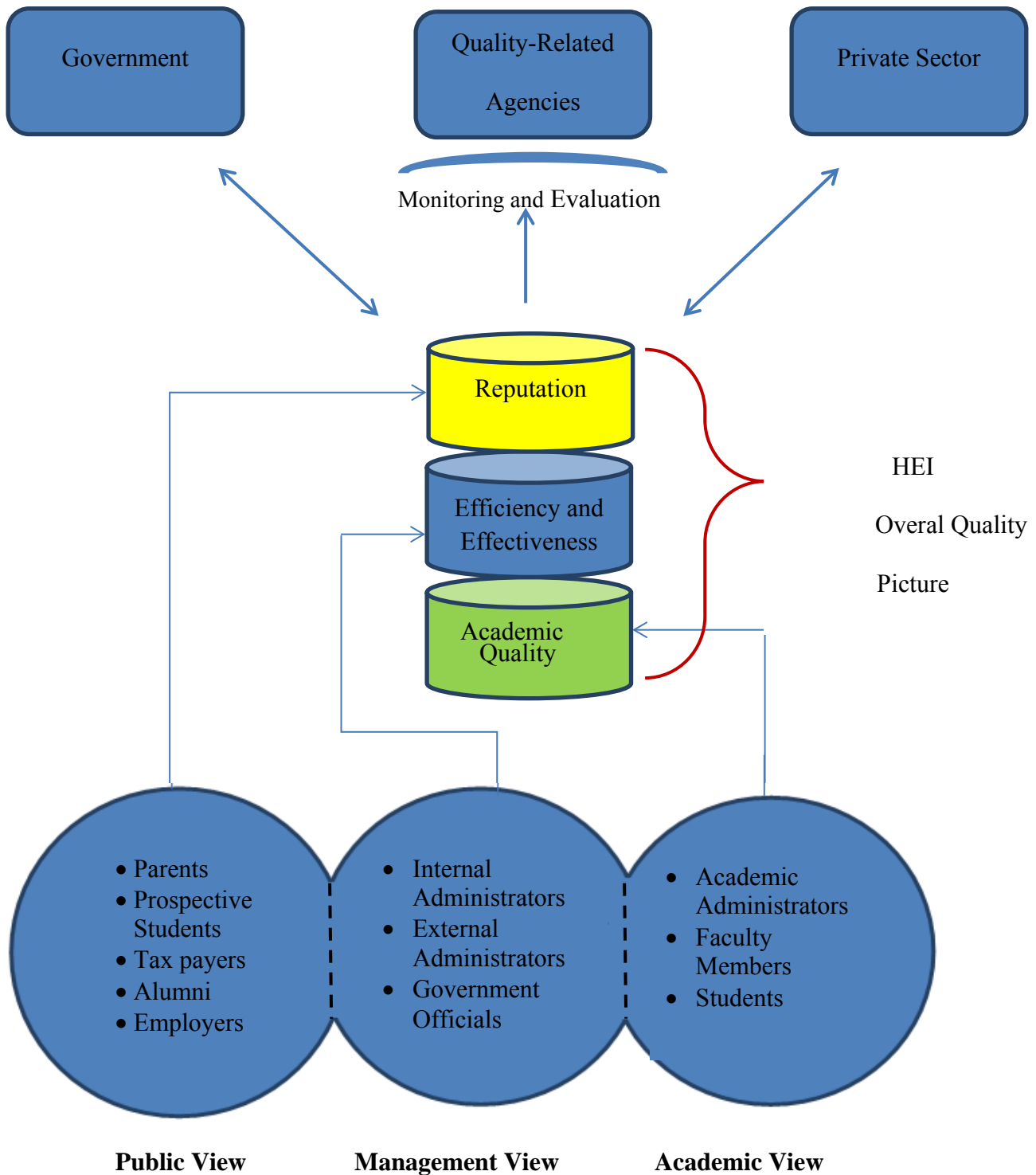
Figure 1: General Stakeholder Model

2.2   DEFINING AND MEASURING QUALITY IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Quality of TEPs is one of the highest priorities in many countries' agendas. While issues around the quality of TEPs do not differ from those of HEIs, the number of stakeholders increases and quality related issues get more complex due to main role of TEPs' in training teachers and their subsequent impact on the quality of whole education system. To complicate further, different and more diverse quality assessment mechanisms emerge to handle this complexity. However, the perspectives on the quality of HEIs discussed earlier are still present in the teacher education sector, and still represent the general views of the public, management and academic community. For this reason, this dissertation adapts and uses the general stakeholder model in Figure 1 for the general quality of TEPs.

2.2.1   Academic quality in Teacher Education

Teacher education, also called *teacher training* and *teacher preparation*, "refers to formal teacher training (pre-service or in-service) designed to equip teachers with the knowledge, attitude, behavior and skills required for teaching at the relevant level" (UIS, 2009, Definition, para. 1). TEPs and their practices, both inside and outside HEIs, differ from country to country based on political context, resulting in different practices defining who is authorized to be a teacher. For instance, public school teachers in the United States need to be licensed, which requires the completion of a bachelor's degree and a post-baccalaureate teacher education program (DOL, 2012). In Germany teachers receive their education in two phases: university training followed by a two-year practical education (Humbold University of Berlin, 2011). Graduates from TEPs in HEIs or from licensure and certificate programs serve as teachers in pre-

31

kindergarten, kindergarten, elementary, middle and secondary schools all around the world. At this point, while different approaches and practices are available for teacher education, such practices are generally categorized into two main groups: pre-service teacher education, which includes educational efforts after high school graduation until recruitment to teach, and in-service teacher education, which consists of all the educational development efforts after being recruited as a teacher. As an attempt to investigate the quality of TEPs, this paper focuses on pre-service teacher education and its quality. The overall purpose of pre-service teacher education is defined as "the preparation of teachers who can help their own students achieve high-quality learning outcomes" (Gore, 2001, p. 127). In order to better understand the quality of TEPs, it is important to discuss how the quality of such programs is perceived in relation to teacher quality, quality teaching and student achievement.

Teacher education quality, *teacher quality* and *quality teaching* are the terms that have been discussed together by many studies that attempt to examine the relationship among them. TEPs designated to prepare a qualified teacher workforce for the schools have been receiving a great deal of attention from their diverse groups of stakeholders. A lot of the attention and demand for change comes from policy-makers with both policy and law-making power (Imig & Imig, 2007). This increasing attention also brings scrutiny and demand for change in fostering the quality of teaching not only in the US, but also all around the world (Imig & Imig, 2007). As discussed, "the desire for change in teacher education is everywhere. There is an almost universal quest for greater teacher quality, and with it, a demand for higher quality teacher education" (Imig & Imig, 2007, p. 95).

Given this, it is important to consider the relationship between the quality of teacher education and quality teaching in different contexts. Hollins (2011) proposes a holistic, practice-based approach to teacher education for quality teaching, arguing that epistemic practices, e.g. focused inquiry, directed observation, and guided practice, are opportunities for learning to teach, and that practice-based program qualities, e.g. collaboration, coherence, continuity and consistency, and integrity and trustworthiness, are opportunities for quality teaching for candidates. The experiences and practices of candidates in TEPs influence the quality of their teaching practices in PK-12 schools (Hollins, 2011).

The relationship between quality teaching and teacher education is also discussed in relation to how each term is perceived. As discussed by J. Wang, Lin, Spalding, Klecka, and Odell (2011), there are three common perspectives on quality teaching: cognitive resource, performance and effect. The cognitive resource perspective explains quality teaching in terms of "knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, and dispositions teachers bring into the profession" (p. 331). The performance perspective, which is related to teachers' classroom practices, assumes that "the particular things that teachers do in their classroom teaching contribute to expected student learning" (p. 332). However, as the authors indicate, the empirical research on these two perspectives and their related notions of quality teaching and teacher education are usually weak. They also argue that the third perspective, which defines quality teaching as effect (impacting on teaching outcomes), lacks empirical data to support the perspective. Based on later analyses of six research articles, the authors conclude that the lack of consensus on what quality teaching connotes and how quality teaching is related to teacher education supports the argument that "quality teaching is too complex and too nuanced to be amenable to measurement. On the other hand, perhaps a unified pattern of quality teaching will be deduced ultimately from yet-to-be

described comprehensive theories of teaching and teacher learning" (p. 336). While scholars and policy makers' long standing efforts to create or define common universal patterns and practices for quality teaching and teacher education quality seem to have failed, regardless of differing contexts, it still needs to inspire researchers and policy makers to continue to discuss and investigate this complex relationship among student performance, quality teaching and teacher education (J. Wang et al., 2011).

In discussing this triangular relationship between teacher education quality, teacher quality and student achievement, some studies examining the relationship between student achievement and teacher quality suggest that there is a high correlation between the two (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002; Whitehurst, 2002; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2001). In terms of teaching effectiveness, examinations of previous research studies show that a significant portion of student achievement is explained by the following teacher qualifications: *(1) general academic and verbal ability, (2) subject matter knowledge, (3) knowledge about teaching and learning, (4) teaching experience and (5) certification status* (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002, p. 16). Darling-Hammond's (2000) investigation on a wide range of data including 50 state surveys, case study analyses, and other state and national-level assessment outcomes, reveals that "when aggregated at the state level, teacher quality variables appear to be more strongly related to student achievement than class sizes, overall spending levels, teacher salaries," and some other factors (Darling-Hammond, 2000, p. 32). Moreover, Wilson and associates' review and analysis of 57 current studies from peer reviewed publications reveal the existence of a relationship between teacher qualifications and student achievement even though each study uses different methods, units, and contextual analysis (Wilson et al., 2001). Specifically, the review also

indicates that "the pedagogical aspects of teacher preparation matter, both for effects on teaching practice and for their ultimate impact on student achievement" (Wilson et al., 2001, p. ii), highlighting the aforementioned triangular relationship between teacher education quality, teacher quality and student achievement.

In analyzing the relationship between teacher quality (or effectiveness) and student achievement, Whitehurst (2002) examines the current literature and lists the characteristics of effective teachers as following: (a) certification or licensure, (b) subject matter knowledge, (c) general knowledge and ability, (d) experience, (e) master's degrees, (f) intensive and focused in-service training. The author's conclusion on the research correleates to the aforementioned teacher qualifications related to student achievement, from high correlated to low correlated, as the following: cognitive ability, focused training, experience, content knowledge, certification, master's degree and workshops.

2.2.2   Quality of teacher education programs

There are two general TEP perspectives on the quality of teacher education. The first is that the quality of TEPs can be sustained through attracting strong candidates into a program, while the second indicates that the best way to prepare teachers is to invest in high quality TEPs (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2009). However, a lack of consensus and clarity on the "best" or "ideal" way to prepare/educate teachers (Boyd et al., 2009) and the varying perspectives held by policy makers and scholars in different countries and school systems results in differing mechanisms, practices and strategies espoused in TEPs around the world. However, this situation does not undermine the significance of the tree major components of TEPs that play crucial role in sustaining its quality: student, faculty and curriculum qualities. These

components are also important in defining TEP quality, and their impact builds on each other, meaning that a shortage of quality of any of these components may deteriorate the others' power, and hence the quality of TEPs.

2.2.2.1 The Quality of Curriculum (what to teach)

One of the discussions surrounding the quality of TEPs concerns the curriculum these programs implement and the teaching practices that teacher educators (i.e. faculty members) administer in their teacher education courses. As discussed by Evertson, Hawley, and Zlotnik (1985), the demand for change in TEPs comes in three forms: the demand for more focus on content base knowledge, more courses related to liberal arts and more emphasis on pedagogy. Underlying these same notions, the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) lists quality principles related to student learning in TEPs and suggests that TEPs need to ensure that their students (i.e. teacher candidates) should have adequate subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and caring teaching skills[4], as well as the cross-cutting skills highlighted by liberal arts education, such as learning how to learn, learning multicultural perspectives (e.g. issues related to gender, race, culture and individualism) and learning appropriate technology (Teac, 2010). Parallel to these notions, Feiman-Nemser (2001) argues that the central tasks of TEPs is to help students (a) develop new visions on teaching independent of their personal background and beliefs, (b) learn subject knowledge, (c) understand pedagogy of learning, the learner and diversity, (d) develop personal repertoires of skills and techniques in such core education dimensions as instruction, curriculum development and student assessment, and (e) gain skills necessary to study teaching,

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[4] "Caring is a particular kind of relationship between the teacher and the student that is defined by the teacher's unconditional acceptance of the student, the teacher's intention to address the student's educational needs, the teacher's competence to meet those needs, and the student's recognition that the teacher cares" (TEAC, 2010).

such as interpretation, observation and analysis. However, the lack of coherence among the TEP activities is one major barrier to the success of TEPs (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

While the above studies focus on what to teach in TEP classrooms, other studies focus on classroom practices as an important component of the quality and effectiveness of TEPs. Gore (2001) proposes a framework that identifies classroom practices in four main dimensions: (a) intellectual quality, or the students' engagement with higher order thinking, (b) relevance, or the establishment of links to students' prior knowledge and real word experience, (c) environment, which supports students' learning, and (d) recognizing difference, or the recognition that cultural, socio-economic, and ethnic differences should be valued. These practices are essential not only for the learning of teacher candidates, but also for the learning of their future students (Gore, 2001). However, as Gore discusses, these dimensions are treated unevenly or ignored by teacher educators (i.e., faculty members) based on what they value most and which of the following approaches they embrace: (a) subject matter knowledge (disciplinary approach), research-based technical teaching skills (scientific approach), (c) experiment based learning or apprenticeship (experimental approach), and (d) awareness of the differing impact of schooling on the learning of children who have different backgrounds (critical approach). Such differences among the teacher educators lead to decreasing program quality and coherence. Gore (2001) concludes that instead of focusing on *getting-nowhere* discussions regarding TEPs, learning, curriculum and pedagogy should be emphasized; "what matters would then center on how we can enhance these dimensions of classroom practice in our programs in terms of both how we teach and how we prepare our students to teach" (p. 133).

The quality of practice education

As part of the learning process for candidates, practice education plays an important role in the effectiveness of TEPs. Although all TEPs incorporate practice education into their curriculum, the way each program handles such training varies (P. Grossman, 2010). Practice education, also called clinical education/training or field-based education/training, is one part of the teacher education process, and it varies in type, duration and application. For instance, as highlighted by Grossman, such clinical experiences are not limited only to student experiences in authentic school settings. Professional development schools, laboratory settings, teaching simulations, visual classrooms, videotapes of successful teaching experiences and related websites are also available for fostering practical learning for prospective teachers. Additionally, the quality of such practice depends on the extent to which it is integrated with the professional education. As P. Grossman (2010) states

> Designing high quality clinical experiences for prospective teachers requires bridging a number of divides: between professional knowledge and skilled practice; between universities and PK-12 schools; and between settings in which prospective teachers learn and the contexts of their early years of teaching. (p. 1)

Feiman-Nemser (2001), who also discusses coherence among educational activities in TEPs, states that student field-based experiences, including professional development schools, class visits, internships or other types of clinical training, are also critical in linking theory to practice. This crucial role of linking theory to practice is explained well by the following statement:

> Observation, apprenticeship, guided practice, knowledge application, and inquiry all have a place in field-based learning. Teacher candidates need opportunities to test the theories, use the knowledge, see and try out the practices advocated by the academy. They also

38

need opportunities to investigate problems and analyze situations that arise in the field. (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1024)

As part of the learning process, both in the classroom and in clinical (field-based) settings, reflection as a personal tool for deep thinking and understanding is the heart of TEPs (Scherff & Singer, 2012). Scherff and Singer conduct a study to employ Sizers' (1999) school/classroom-based observation lenses, namely grappling, modeling, sorting, bluffing, shoving and fearing, on student field experiences. The study's findings indicate that among these lenses, grappling and modeling are the most prominent. Grappling emerges primarily when students try to understand and link theory and practice, i.e. what they learn at the university and what they observe in clinical settings (Scherff & Singer, 2012).

In summary, practice education plays a crucial role in fostering the quality of TEPs, and its impact on program effectiveness depends on its integration with professional education, where the theory and practice components of the learning process are linked.

2.2.2.2 Student quality (best candidates)

Besides focus on curriculum and clinical training, the quality of teacher education is also attached to a TEP's ability to attract wise and strong candidates into the profession (Boyd et al., 2009; Young, 1995). In this perspective, the acceptance mechanisms and techniques adopted by TEPs are important components in assuring and sustaining the quality of these programs. In return, they are expected to produce high quality teachers. In other words, the quality of TEPs, which is considered the main requirement for producing quality teachers, depends on the recruitment and selection of quality candidates into these programs. While criticism from both lawmakers and educators regarding low teacher quality turn into local- or national-level

mandates for TEPs and HEIs to increase their efforts and set high standards for admission into such programs (Allen & Education Commission of the States, 2003; Laman & Reeves, 1983), a lack of common requirements and differing admission practices render the efforts ineffective (Laman & Reeves, 1983).

Demetrulias, Diekman, and Chiodo (1990) also discuss this widely accepted notion that raising admission standards for students who seek to attend TEPs will result in the training of more competent and qualified teachers for the schools. Their empirical study, in which they compare the entrance and exit characteristics of TEP students, revealed that there is no significant difference between students in the exceptional group (who did not meet all the admission requirements) and students in the regular group (who meet all the admission requirements) in terms of teaching competence and program completion requirements, even though those in the exceptional group had lower scores on GPA, National Teachers Examinations (NTE) and subject tests compared to their counterparts (Demetrulias et al., 1990, p. 66).

Under national systems and policies, national or local examinations are one part of the admission process, and in some cases are even considered the only standard for admission into higher education. This differs from country to country. In these systems, TEPs are impacted by these movements. In the United States, for example, some states require general, nationally recognized tests for admission to teacher education (Evertson et al., 1985; Williams & Wakeford, 1993). This practice is also common in many countries around the world (A. H. Wang, Coleman, Coley, & Phelps, 2003), though different practices are available in different national contexts. For instance, national teacher examinations, which are usually used for licensure or certification in the United States, are also used as admission criteria for some American TEPs. Williams and

Wakeford (1993) examine the degree to which national teacher examinations on communication skills and general knowledge predict student success in TEPs. Considering college GPAs, their findings reveal that national teacher examinations that program candidates are required to take do not predict student performance in TEPs, and that these examinations should not be considered a valid requirement for admission into TEPs (Williams & Wakeford, 1993).

However, using such test scores and national examinations for student selection and admission is common around the world. Goodlad (1991), who defines nineteen postulates crucial for TEPs to reach to quality and excellence in the profession, criticizes TEPs for habitually using standardized tests for judging candidates instead of considering the personality and competencies of individual candidates. In his sixth postulate, he argues that

> The responsible group of academic and clinical faculty members must seek out and select for predetermined number of student places in the program those candidates who reveal an initial commitment to the moral, ethical, and enculturating responsibilities to be assumed. (p. 282)

From this perspective, TEPs fail in their student selection practices. A lack of clear professional selection criteria and the absence of well-defined institutional missions and goals are the main barrier for the success of TEPs (Goodlad, 1991). While this discussion focuses on the link between the institutional mission of training prospective teachers with moral responsibilities and TEP student selection practices, the underlying notion is that student selection is a crucial component in achieving the proposed goals of these programs, and should be treated as such. Thus, Goodlad's (1991) approach emphasizes the mission achievement perspective of the quality of TEPs and the role student selection plays in this context. In summary, while the student

selection criteria TEPs employ is a crucial factor for the success of such programs, negligent practices in student selection compromise TEP efforts for improving quality.

2.2.2.3 Faculty quality

Pulling from the earlier discussion, the complex relationship among teacher quality, quality teaching, and teacher education quality is an important source for explaining the quality of schools. As the teacher educators, the quality of TEP faculty members is also an important component for the quality of these programs. In general, at the institutional level, faculty quality is widely accepted to be the main source of quality of HEIs (Volkwein, 1986), and this is also valid for TEPs around the world. Watts (1984), who criticizes the lack of certification requirements for TEP faculty, argues that "It is ironic that so much attention is directed toward establishing and maintaining the competence of public school teachers and so little to college and university educators responsible for their professional preparation" (p. 30).

Faculty quality and its contribution to the quality of TEPs are also the focus of professional accreditation agencies such as National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), which proposes and establishes policies, procedures and quality standards for the teacher education community. NCATE unit standards particular to "faculty qualifications, performance and development" (NCATE, 2008, p. 38) focus on three general contributions of faculty: teaching, scholarship and service. Specifically to ensure their faculty quality and performance, NCATE proposes and sets standards on the following dimensions for TEPs: faculty education level (certificate, graduate degree), faculty content knowledge, faculty participation in education related services (in and outside of the program), and program level faculty evaluation on the quality of faculty teaching, research and service. These standards and guidelines provide

an idea of how faculty quality is perceived and operationalized at the national level by these accreditation agencies and their participatory institutions.

This type of operationalization is also visible when administrators hire candidates into TEPs as teacher educators. Moore (1987) criticizes accreditation agencies for proposing faculty quality standards that are too broad and lack of quality indicators. He argues the need for quality descriptors that define what high quality faculty possess. Moore's interviews with a group of faculty, higher education administrators and staff from accreditation agencies resulted in the creation of a research instrument that consists of 56 faculty quality factors in the following eight general categories: "academic preparation, professional experience, personal qualities, documentation of teaching effectiveness, evidence of scholarship, service activities, candidate's personal and professional development, and leadership qualities" (p. 43). He administered this instrument to investigate what quality factors are focused on by deans of schools of education when hiring faculty into profession. Findings revealed that the following 10 quality factors are highly ranked by deans as the most important indicators of faculty quality for initial employment: "Preparation in area of specialization, (2) unquestionable integrity, (3) Specificity as to teaching assignment and type of institution in which occurred, (5) supervisor reports, (6) emotional stability, (7) formal presentation in seminar during interview, (8) high energy/motivational level, (9) compatibility with colleagues, and (10) institution granting terminal degree" (p. 46). Moore's study is significant in highlighting how academic administrators perceive faculty quality, as well as what they consider the most important criterion to represent faculty quality from their perspective.

Like Moore, Zeichner (2006) also criticizes state and national-level accreditation efforts, but in a different way. He argues that for a long time, TEPs have been asked to devote a

substantial portion of their time and resources to establish institution-level assessment mechanisms and to respond via portfolios and reports to state and national-level accreditation and approval procedures, and that this keeps them from fulfilling their ultimate goal of preparing quality teachers. He argues that there is a need for more faculty member effort and contribution to clinical experiences for prospective teachers, as well as more contribution of tenure-track faculty members in the field of teacher education. Considering the significance of the quality of TEP faculty, he states that although many exceptions are available, "there is still much work to be done within research universities in the preparation of teacher educators [faculty] and with regard to rewarding faculty in higher education institutions generally for doing high quality work in educating teachers and in working with schools" (p. 335).

While the significance of the quality of TEP faculty has been argued and discussed by different groups, including students, the faculty itself, politicians, administrators, and academic and professional education communities, the definition of what needs to be standardized and what qualifications TEP faculty possess is indefinite, resulting in the emergence of different standardizations and quality criteria claimed to be the guarantor of faculty quality. Murray (2001), who discusses quality standardization efforts for TEP faculty, summarizes the whole issue by suggesting that there is a significant overreliance on quality standards for faculty when in fact there is little consensus on what these faculty quality standards are or should be.

2.2.3   Assessment

Assessment of the quality of TEPs does not generally differ from the higher education assessment mechanisms previously introduced in this paper; however, the aforementioned relationship between TEPs, teacher quality and student achievement attributed by the public,

policy makers and educators results in more complicated and multidimensional assessment mechanisms in TEPs when compared to other fields. This is because TEPs impact not only their student learners, but also society as a whole given their potential impact on schools, and consequently student learning and achievement, in PK-12 schools. From this standpoint, it is expected that the number of stakeholder groups who have direct interest in the quality of TEPs will be doubled by the additional stakeholders who, while they do not have direct interest, are impacted by the quality of these programs. To complicate further, quality assessment mechanisms vary, and their results can be handled and implemented differently based on whose priorities are considered. This notion is well explained by Cochran-Smith (2001), who discusses outcomes assessment in TEPs:

> In a certain sense, every discussion related to the outcomes question assumes that the ultimate goal of teacher education is student learning and also assumes that there are certain measures which, depending on the unit of analysis, can be used to indicate the degree to which this outcome is or is not being achieved for teacher candidates, K-12 students, teacher education programs and institutions, and the education profession itself. (p. 530)

As mentioned, while quality assessment mechanisms vary based on whose interests are on the table, these mechanisms can be discussed based on the subject of the assessment, or the question of what is assessed. In this regard, quality assessment and measurement mechanisms and techniques can be categorized under two main groups: (1) program level assessment, and (2) individual level assessment. While program level mechanisms consider the overall provider quality of the program, individual level assessment is more interested in the quality of the individual, whether the student as the outcome quality or individual faculty member as the provider quality.

2.2.3.1 Program level assessment

Accreditation

Accreditation, defined as the model of evaluation/assessment (Ayers, Gephart, & Clark, 1988), and as in other programs and sectors of higher education, is the process responsible for the assessment of the TEP quality at the program level. The need for and reliance on accreditation agencies depends on two domains. First, government efforts in teacher education policy reforms are affected by public interest, and TEPs need to respond to governmental requirements and procedures for accountability (Pullin, 2004). Second, these programs need to maintain their autonomy and academic freedom of faculty without direct governmental scrutiny. Accreditation agencies play an important role in this regard as the pressure relief valve between these two tensions by both responding to accountability demands and securing the academic freedom and autonomy of TEPs.

In the United States, while there are many national and regional accreditation agencies, The *National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE)* and *Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC)* are the two leading national-level accreditation agencies for teacher education (Ingvarson, Elliot, Kleinhenz, & McKenzie, 2006). NCATE proposes six unit standards. Two of these, *candidate knowledge, skills and professional dispositions* and *faculty qualifications, performance and development*, focus on quality at the individual level. The rest of the standards are more related to quality at tha program level: *assessment system and unit evaluation, field experiences and clinical practice, diversity, governance and resources* (NCATE, 2010). TEAC, even though it differs from NCATE in terms of structure and philosophy, has similar quality standards for TEPs: *evidence of candidate learning, evidence of faculty learning and inquiry, and evidence of institutional commitment and capacity for program*

quality (Teac, 2010, Quality Principals). In 2010, NCATE and TEAC announced a commitment to establish a single unified accreditation body for teacher education called the *Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP),* which is currently under development.

On the European side, while some countries already have their own quality assurance and accreditation structures, quality efforts are tied to the principles highlighted by the Bologna Process and the European Higher Education Arena. Programs and schools in HEIs, including professional schools such as TEPs, are encouraged to revise their governance and structures in order to create more comparable program qualifications across Europe (Ingvarson et al., 2006). In this regard, the European higher education system as a whole, and TEPs in particular, seem to focus more on European level centralization and standardization. Thus, the current focus on teacher education is more related to restructuring TEPs than to their accreditation (Ingvarson et al., 2006).

Program evaluation

As in other fields of higher education, program evaluation is described as another mechanism for quality assessment and improvement of TEPs. While practices and applications of program assessment differ across countries from program to program and institution to institution, the main purpose of program evaluation is to assess accountability or improvement. Giving the diversity in practice, different participants are involved in the assessment process based on the purpose of the assessment and who is being assessed. While in some cases internal mechanisms conduct program assessment for improvement purposes, external constituencies such as quality agencies, peer programs or government higher education bodies are involved in other cases when the purpose for the assessment is more accountability-based.

A model for program assessment proposed by Pettus and Smith (1991) indicates that TEPs can implement a model that includes the following five steps for their program evaluations:

> (1) Identifying general objectives and competencies, (2) specifying measurable outcomes and behavioral indicators, (3) identifying and applying valid evaluation strategies and instruments for collection pertinent information, (4) making judgments and conclusions based on results of analyses of the information, and (5) making decisions about program effectiveness and needed changes. (Summary, para. 1)

In this model, program assessment is considered a combination of processes that provide powerful implications rather than a single assessment action. However, like other models, this model also has some drawbacks due to difficulties related to identifying appropriate measurement tools, faculty perceptions of the assessment process and regular institutional operations (Pettus & Smith, 1991). In terms of the quality approach, this model is fitness-for-purpose oriented in that the quality and effectiveness of programs are connected to their ability to meet the program- or institution-level mission and goals.

However, instead of focusing on the general program objectives, program assessment can also be handled by dividing the program activities into manageable pieces. In this type of design, program curricula, student selection mechanisms, student clinical experiences, assessment practices in individual courses, student performance outcomes and faculty evaluations are assessed separately. For instance, student clinical experiences are assessed through differing models. While model one focuses on student ability to attain program directives in clinical preparation, model two focuses on student competencies related to teaching practice, and model three utilizes follow-up studies for the assessment of student clinical practices (Zimpher, 1989). On the other hand, assessment of faculty members focuses on their performance in teaching, research and service activities in the program (Centra, 1989), which will be discussed in more detail under the "individual level assessment" section below.

In this paper, program evaluation should be divided into pieces and handled separately. Results of individual assessment practices should then be reviewed and analyzed together for an overall picture of program quality due to the interconnectivity of each unit and the unity in the overall purpose of teacher education.

2.2.3.2 Individual level assessment

While program level assessment focuses on the overall quality of the program or the teacher education unit, individual level assessment mechanisms focus more on either the quality of students/alumni as program participants or the quality of faculty members as providers in TEPs.

Student/alumni assessment

Student assessment has two phases that promote the quality of TEPs. The first is student evaluation mechanisms in TEPs that investigate the quality and competency of current students and their gains throughout their education on a regular basis, such as course evaluations, exams, project reports, teaching experience reports, and student evaluations by faculty and mentor teachers. Then, after graduation, licensure or certification processes, national teacher examinations and teacher recruitment activities examine the quality and competency of individual graduates as teacher candidates. The results of both of these assessment groups are also considered evidence of the degree of quality a TEP possesses. For example, high student scores on a national examination or high recruitment rates as teachers are a reflection of program quality from a reputational perspective, while student success in courses and field experience based on regular evaluations reflect the quality of teaching and learning these programs provide from a transformational perspective.

As an additional example, most states in the United States require prospective teachers to pass a standardized test, such as Praxis tests[5], in order to grant licensure and certification for public school teaching (Angrist & Guryan, 2008; ETS, 2012). In Europe, on the other hand, even though different TEPs exist, some national-level examinations are available. While the teacher recruitment practices of some countries, such as Germany, France and Turkey, are based on national exams or standard tests (Kilimci, 2009), others have different practices, such as the "Qualified Teacher Status"[6] that is required in England and Wales for teaching in the public and special education sector.

Faculty assessment

Faculty assessment in TEPs is similar to practices conducted in other fields of higher education. Generally, faculty evaluations in a teacher education program consist of three components—teaching, research and service—and the assessment of each faculty member is based on their performance in each unit (Centra, 1989). However, the relative importance and weight of each item of the overall faculty assessment differs from program to program based on the type of institution, as well as the priorities and objectives of the program. Centra (1989) states that faculty member teaching quality is examined based on their performance in "student learning, student evaluations of faculty, self-evaluations, colleague or peer ratings, and evaluations by committees and administrators" (p. 9), and that the research dimension of faculty quality should not be limited to the quantity of publications, but should also be supported by peer judgment of the faculty member's continuing interest and effort in research (Centra, 1989). In addition,

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[5] "*The Praxis Series*™ tests are taken by individuals entering the teaching profession as part of the certification process required by many states and professional licensing organizations" (ETS, 2012Praxis Series, para. 1)
[6] QTS is granted by the General Teaching Council for England. A professional body for teachers responsible for teacher registration, developing professional standards and proposing policy suggestions to the government (GTC, 2011).

service performance of faculty members is assessed based on their performance in both public and professional services and activities. What services should be considered as faculty performance again depends on the type of the program, and should be determined by aligning services with program objectives (Centra, 1989).

NCATE's fifth unit (program) standard related to faculty qualifications highlights the same three components of faculty assessment, stating that

> Faculty are qualified and model best professional practices in scholarship, service and teaching, including the assessment of their own effectiveness as related to candidate performance; they also collaborate with the colleagues in the disciplines and schools. The unit systematically evaluates faculty performance and facilitates professional development. (NCATE, 2010Unit Standards, #5, para. 1)

As explained by the NCATE, faculty members need to have a deep understanding of the content they teach and should show evidence of scholarly work in their field of specialization, which in turn should be parallel to the mission of the institution and program. When participating in regional or national service activities, faculty members not only need to engage with service activities in their institution, schools and community, but also collaborate with their peers in other institutions and participate in professional associations (NCATE, 2010).

2.2.4 Conceptual Framework

In a TEP, students, faculty members and the curriculum they implement are the three essential components of the program, and their individual and shared qualities have enormous impact on the overall academic program quality. Although the significant roles these three components play in sustaining the academic quality of a TEP are not denied by anyone, the value assigned to each of these components, as well as their priority and relative significance to each other, may vary

depending on who defines and assesses them, from what perspective, and for what purpose. Given the argument that there is no consensus on the ideal definition and assessment mechanism for the quality of a TEP due to varying stakeholder perspectives on the topic, this dissertation proposes the *Relative Scale Model* as a conceptual framework to express the three components of academic quality, as well as the varying yet often overlapping perspectives of key academic stakeholders: academic administrators, faculty members, and students (Figure 2). This model is designed to reflect how much value key academic stakeholders assign to the each quality component as part of academic quality, and also their priority in the definition of academic quality of TEPs. It is assumed that each academic stakeholder group gives some value to each one of the three quality components in describing academic quality; however, how much value they assign to each component, and which one is ranked most important, may change from individual to individual and from group to group. The Relative Scale Model argues that academic quality consists of three components: student, faculty and curriculum qualities.The cylindrical shape on the bottom of the model represents the academic quality of a program, while the three cylindrical shapes positioned above academic quality represent the weight pans assigned to each academic quality components. The top three circles represent the key academic stakeholder groups: academic administrators, faculty members and students. Dotted-arrows directed from circles to the cylindrical shapes represent the values each group assigned to each academic quality component. The value of each arrow and how much value they put on the weight-pans are determined by two factors: the academic position of the participant and the type of academic quality component. In this model, gender, school type and location are assumed to be controlled.
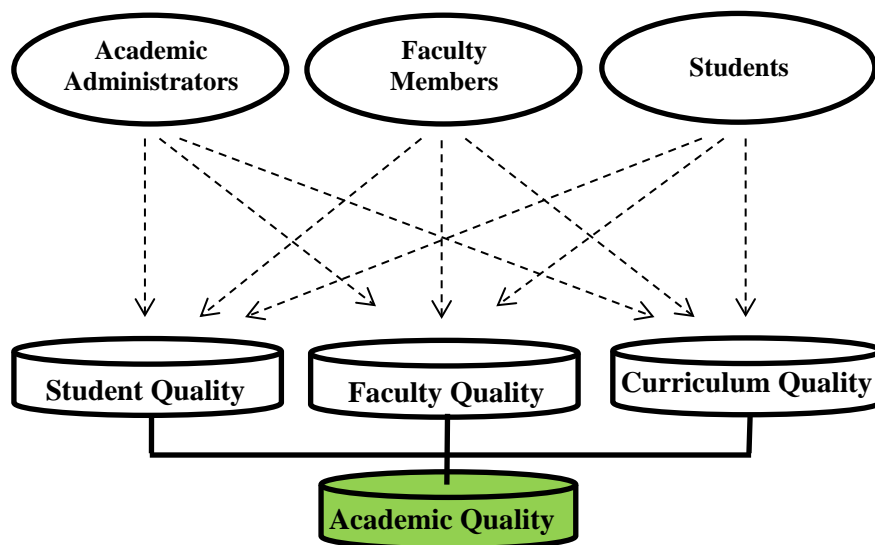
Figure 2: The Relative Scale Model for the academic quality of TEPs

3.0   RESEARCH DESIGN

This study examines the perceptions of key academic stakeholders of the quality of TEPs in Turkey. The first section of this chapter describes the context of teacher education in Turkey. The remainder describes the study design and methodology.

3.1   TURKISH CONTEXT: TEACHER EDUCATION IN TURKEY

Turkey, which is a signatory country of the Bologna Process and a candidate for the European Union since 1963, has been struggling with issues related to the quality of its education system at all levels, from kindergarten through higher education. As a part of Europeanization and integration process, Turkey's education system has been focusing on its problems in order to reach the quality norms and standards at the level of European education (Gediklioglu, 2005). As a natural consequence, each education level seeks to find solutions to its problems. Although each level of education has its own unique issues, they are not independent from others at different education levels. Problems, quality issues and solutions carried out at one education level are influenced by other education levels, and likewise impact different levels of education (Pehlivanoglu, 2007). In this context, faculties of education, the main institutions that train teachers in Turkey, require special attention to the quality they possess and their potential impact on the quality of other levels of education. In recent years, paralleling Turkey's increasing

Europeanization efforts, faculties of education, especially those in public HEIs, have begun to increase their focus on the quality of the services they provide.

3.1.1   History of Turkish Teacher Education

The roots of teacher education in Turkey can be traced back to the foundation of "Darul-Muallimin," the first teacher training institution established in 1848. While there were some developments and implementations of different models in the teacher education system throughout history, the crucial change came after 1981 (Akyuz, 2004). According to the higher education law 2547 enacted in 1981, all teacher education colleges, institutes, academies and faculties previously controlled by the Ministry of National Education (MONE), as well as universities, were transferred to the control of universities (OYEGM-MONE, 2012). The National Education Development Project (NEDP), which was funded by a loan agreement between the Turkish council of higher education (YÖK) and the Wold Bank and technically assisted by Biritish Council and Arizona State University, took place in Turkey between 1994 and 1999 (Gary M. Grossman, Onkol, & Sands, 2007). The project included study abroad opportunities for academic staff and researchers in faculties of education, activities for curriculum reform and improvement, and support for material development and research in the field (Guven, 2008). In parallel with this project, a restructuring movement in teacher education took place in Turkey between 1998 and 1999. In this restructuring, all TEPs were grouped under the control of the "Education Faculty", "Vocational Education Faculty", "Technical Education Faculty", "Arts and Science Faculty" and "High Institute of Physical Education and Sport" (OYEGM-MONE, 2012). In the current structure, TEPs in HEIs and the degrees they offer differ based on school, program and teaching level (see Table 1).

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Table 1. Teacher education programs in Turkish HEIs

School	Program	Elementary Education (Degree)	Secondary Education (Degree)
Faculty of education	Primary school teaching programs	4 year undergraduate degree	--
	Branch teacher programs	4 year undergraduate degree	--
	Shared branch teacher programs (art, music, physical education, and language)	4 year undergraduate degree	4 year undergraduate degree
	Field TEPs	--	3,5+1,5=5 year non-thesis master's degree
Faculty of technical education Faculty of vocational education	Vocational TEPs (teachers serve in vocational and technical high schools)	--	4 year undergraduate degree
Faculty of Languages, History And Geography Faculty of Arts and Sciences Faculty of Arts Faculty of Sciences Faculty of Theology High Institute of Physical Education and Sport	Field TEPs	--	4+1,5= 5,5 year non-thesis master's degree

Note. Adapted from "Teacher Training system in Turkey" by *General Directorate of Teacher Training and Development. Ministry of National Education, 2012.*

3.1.2   Current status

All restructuring movements that took place in the Turkish teacher education system since the foundation of Turkish Republic aimed to increase the quality of these programs and its sustainability. However, these changes, which occurred in parallel with governmental policies,

"were temporal and conducted to just save the day. Moreover, they were limited to alter the teacher education program and inadequate in terms of sustainability" (Yuksel & Adiguzel, 2011, p. 39). Additionally, policies and teacher education models adapted from developed countries' teacher education experiences either failed or did not last long due to misinterpretation and misunderstanding of foreign contexts that resulted in deficient approaches that lacked focus on cultural, social, political and economic differences in their implementation.

Although, problems and issues in the Turkish education system have been attributed/related to a lack of quality for a very long time, not much has been done in terms of quality improvement. The Turkish National Committee for Teacher Education, which was established by the General Assembly of the Council of Higher Education in 1997, began its operation with the main purpose of improving the quality of teacher education by cooperating and coordinating with the faculties of education (YOK, 2012). Akcamete (2007) indicates that even though this committee has carried out the role of accreditation in quality control and improvement in developed countries, and has began to conduct pilot studies and develop quality standards, its efforts have not gone beyond these operations and remained limited.

Problems in the Turkish teacher education system were also attributed to the centralized structure of the Turkish higher education system, where all of the activities of the higher education sector are controlled, monitored, and, in most of the cases, ruined. As part of the higher education system, TEPs in public institutions operate based on national regulations and curriculum. In this system, "Teacher education departments have no power to change a course name or content of a course without taking HEC [YÖK]'s permissions" (Guven, 2008, p. 16).

This centrality is seen as one of the main barriers to the change and development in the teacher education sector. Guven (2008) summarizes the problems derived from the centralized

system and highlights the need for an academic inquiry into such significant problems by indicating that:

> The substantive changes in teacher education cannot be instituted through processes that are exclusively driven by external standards, claimed to be national in scope, that deny professional judgment and intellectual inquiry for teacher educators at more local levels. There is a superficial and somewhat skewed sense of the social and economic purposes of teacher education as these are being advocated. This is accompanied by a lack of sustained analysis into the causes of those purposes and who benefits, and the avenues through which they might be addressed. In addition the fact that the political underpinnings of the direction being chartered are not always openly discussed or that there are alternative political perspectives that could be incorporated into approaches to teacher education, creates a vacuum that requires more sustained conceptual analysis, philosophical refection, and concrete action. (p. 14)

While quality movements, policy changes and restructuring efforts have been taking place in the Turkish teacher education system for a very long time, it is not clear how much progress has been made by these quality and improvement efforts. Ziya Selcuk, a professor of the faculty of education at Gazi University and the former president of the Head Council of Education and Morality[7], claimed in a national newspaper that universities have not been training quality teachers for the last thirty years (Ozay, 2011), questioning the quality of TEPs in today's Turkish HEIs. Additionally, the Ministry of National Education and the General Assembly of The Council of Higher Education (YOK) had a meeting under the presidency of Omer Dincer, the former minister of national education, on February 9, 2012. During the meeting, participants agreed on a national teacher strategy workshop. As Dincer indicated, one of the main discussions of the meeting was how faculties of education can be converted to more effective and successful processes in terms of education and training (MONE, 2012, News), highlighting the need for change and the important role of TEPs in the education system. In the

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[7] A central government body under the control of Ministry of National Education, responsible for the all efforts in national curriculum development and implementation in primary and secondary schools as well as the research, development and approval of all educational materials, including course books and classroom materials.

current atmosphere, the vision of the Turkish teacher education system is far from clear; however, there are signs of efforts to change the current situation.

In this political context, where education quality in general is questioned, and where the quality of faculties of education and TEPs in particular are questioned, most of the studies investigate the issue from the quality standards and Total Quality Management viewpoint, which is defined by Harvey and Green (1993) as a system analysis rather than a conceptual perspective, as stated previously. TQM, adapted from the service industry, is a system analysis that covers Harvey and Green's concepts of "fitness for purpose" and "perfection," which in turn represent the management viewpoint discussed and categorized under the management view of quality in this dissertation. At this point, in the Turkish teacher education context, while there are plenty of studies related to the quality of teacher education and the faculty of education that focus on Total Quality Management (Ay, 2001; Erişen, 2003; Güngör, 2002; Özdemir, 2007), quality standards and accreditation (Adigüzel & Sağlam, 2009; Baltacı, 2002; Erişen, 2003; Erkuş, 2009; G. M. Grossman, Sands, & Brittingham, 2010; Kavak, 1999; Yanpar-Yelken, Çelikkaleli, & Çapri, 2007), higher education quality (Meraler, 2011; Yüksel, 2011), quality improvement (Eldem, 2011), and service quality (Eroğlu, 2001), there is a lack of studies that investigate varying conceptual approaches to teacher education program quality, as wel as studies that examine varying stakeholder perspectives on the comparative quality of TEPs. Even though there are some studies (Karaca, 2008) that investigate the compatibility of TQM practices with the teacher education system, Turkish teacher education literature is limited to addressing varying perspectives on quality that limit the definition of higher education quality to the boundaries of TQM and the service industry perspective, which was categorized by this dissertation under the management view of quality.

Specifically, Karaca (2008) discusses the practices and the reasons that lie behind the reconstruction process in the Turkish teacher education system, discussing Turkish teacher education reconstruction practices implemented around standard development and accreditation following the principals of TQM. However, he argues that the way the service industry handles quality-related practices does not bring explanations to the education sector, especially for the issues of defining quality, defining the education product, difficulty in the development and implementation of quality standards, measurements and techniques, and the impact of education practices on the quality of the education product.

In short, attempts to develop the national education system attract the attention of both policy makers and academicians regarding the quality of Turkish TEPs, and their efficiency and effectiveness are always questioned. The issues of the quality of the Turkish teacher education system vary based on the priorities and perspectives of different groups. In this situation, there is a need for understanding the quality of the Turkish teacher education system, in which everybody's concerns and notions are included. While issues in the Turkish teacher education system are attributed to different aspects by different groups, all concerns seem to be centered on the quality of TEPs in terms of teacher quality, quality teaching and the role of TEPs in the whole education system. A lack of research examining different stakeholder perspectives in order address each individual voice results in a loss of power and voice in quality seeking efforts and renders them useless. This dissertation aims to begin to fill that gap in the literature and propose some agendas for policy makers and future research.

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study uses multiple research models that integrate both qualitative and quantitative research components. While the main method of this study is primarily quantitative, qualitative research findings are integrated in the discussions section for the explanatory purposes. The main rationale behind using multiple models is that while it allows researchers to benefit from the advantages of both qualitative and quantitative designs, it also eliminates problems that could emerge from using either method alone.

3.3 SAMPLING AND DATA COLLECTION

The data for this study comes from the statistical analysis of quantitative surveys and the analysis of qualitative follow-up interviews. This study focuses on 4-year undergraduate degree programs in faculties of education in Turkish public HEIs, excluding 5-year non-thesis master programs in faculties of education and all other teacher education degree programs in other faculties. According to the Measurement, Selection and Placement Center of Turkey (OSYM)—the central unit responsible for the national student selection and placement—there were approximately 187,724 students and 5,390 faculty members in TEPs in the 67 faculties of education in Turkish public HEIs in 2010 (OSYM, 2010).

This study utilizes multi-stage sampling, a combination of random, cluster and stratified sampling methods, to target its sample. In Turkey, there are seven geographical regions and 67 faculties of education in public HEIs in these regions. According to the 2010 student placement

statistics of OSYM, the distribution of the number of freshman students placed in one of the faculties of education in public higher education institutions in 2010 is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The distribution of freshman students in Turkish public faculties of education, 2010.

Geographic Region	City	Faculty of Education/Public Universities	# of Freshmen Students: 2010
Marmara Region	Balikesir	BALIKESİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1049
	Istanbul	BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	478
	Canakkale	ÇANAKKALE 18 MART ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1054
	Istanbul	İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	773
	Kocaeli	KOCAELİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	601
	Istanbul	MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1946
	Sakarya	SAKARYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1245
	Edirne	TRAKYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	974
	Bursa	ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1330
Aegean Region	Aydin	ADNAN MENDERES ÜNİVERSİTESİ	443
	Afyon	AFYON KOCATEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	540
	Manisa	CELAL BAYAR ÜNİVERSİTESİ	780
	Izmir	DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1908
	Kutahya	DUMLUPINAR ÜNİVERSİTESİ	519
	Izmir	EGE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	391
	Muğla	MUĞLA ÜNİVERSİTESİ [Mugla S.K. Universitesi]	599
	Denizli	PAMUKKALE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1402
	Uşak	UŞAK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	525
Mediterranean Region	Antalya	AKDENİZ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	913
	Adana	ÇUKUROVA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1282
	Kahramanmaras	K. SÜTÇÜ İMAM ÜNİVERSİTESİ	97
	Kilis	KİLİS 7 ARALIK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	521
	Burdur	MEHMET AKİF ERSOY ÜNİVERSİTESİ	926
	Mersin	MERSİN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	564
	Hatay	MUSTAFA KEMAL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	689
	Isparta	SÜLEYMAN DEMİREL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	31
Central Anatolia Region	Kirsehir	AHİ EVRAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	854
	Aksaray	AKSARAY ÜNİVERSİTESİ	361
	Eskisehir	ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ	864
	Ankara	ANKARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	462
	Sivas	CUMHURİYET ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1346
	Kayseri	ERCİYES ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1084
	Eskisehir	ESKİŞEHİR OSMANGAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	497
	Ankara	GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	2200

	Ankara	HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	868
	Kirikkale	KIRIKKALE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	475
	Nigde	NİĞDE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	594
	Ankara	ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	418
	Konya	SELÇUK ÜNİVERSİTESİ [shifted to Necmettin E. U.]	2285
Black Sea Region	Bolu	ABANT İZZET BAYSAL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1057
	Amasya	AMASYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	884
	Bayburt	BAYBURT ÜNİVERSİTESİ	479
	Duzce	DÜZCE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	0
	Tokat	GAZİOSMANPAŞA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	564
	Giresun	GİRESUN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	901
	Trabzon	KARADENİZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1972
	Kastamonu	KASTAMONU ÜNİVERSİTESİ	543
	Samsun	ONDOKUZ MAYIS ÜNİVERSİTESİ	2130
	Rize	RİZE ÜNİVERSİTESİ [Rece T. Erdogan Universitesi]	819
	Sinop	SİNOP ÜNİVERSİTESİ	411
	Zonguldak	ZONGULDAK K. Ü. [Bulent E. Universitesi]	653
Eastern Anatolia Region	Agri	AĞRI İBRAHİM ÇEÇEN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1172
	Erzurum	ATATÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	2161
	Erzincan	ERZİNCAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1254
	Elazig	FIRAT ÜNİVERSİTESİ	905
	Hakkari	HAKKARİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	269
	Malatya	İNÖNÜ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1209
	Kars	KAFKAS ÜNİVERSİTESİ	623
	Muş	MUŞ ALPARSLAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	613
	Van	YÜZÜNCÜ YIL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	878
Southeastern Anatolia Region	Adiyaman	ADIYAMAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	778
	Diyarbakir	DİCLE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	1333
	Gaziantep	GAZİANTEP ÜNİVERSİTESİ	423
	Urfa	HARRAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	83
	Siirt	SİİRT ÜNİVERSİTESİ	583

During stage 1, two of the regions were selected as the focus of this dissertation. The first is the "Marmara region," which comprises the 30% of the total population of Turkey, including the city of Istanbul and representing the cultural, ethnic and religious diversities of the whole country, as well as the third largest student population of the faculties of education. The second is the "Central Anatolia Region," which comprises the largest student population in its public

faculties of education with 22%, including capital city of Ankara. These two regions in total include almost 40 % of the student population of Turkish public faculties of education.

During stage 2, faculties of education in each region were divided into two groups: large and small faculties, based on their student population size, and then one large and one small faculty of education were randomly selected from each region. During stage 3, all of the faculty members (Full Professors, Associate Professors, Assistant Professors and others including full time teachers and lecturers with at least doctorate) and academic administrators (deans, associate deans, department chairs and program coordinators) in the 4-year undergraduate degree programs of these 4 faculties of education were defined as the target population.

In the initial phase of the study, the researcher applied to the deans' offices of each targeted institution, requesting permission to conduct research in their schools. After permissions were granted via emails, official letters or phone calls, 60 academic administrators, and 222 faculty members whose contact information is publicly available, excluding some part of the outnumbered faculty members in some specific programs, were invited to participate in an online format of the survey via Qualtrics online survey software as the first step. This online invitation was sent to the targeted administrators and faculty members three times a month. In total, 42 participants responded to the invitation. 23 participants completed the survey, and 19 started to participate but withdrew from the study at different stages, mostly at the beginning of the study. This low response rate from the online survey was explained by many of the faculty members during office visits: they intentionally disregard or often refuse surveys because they receive such online survey requests very often. As one of them noted, " I personally do not fill in online surveys since I receive 5 to 10 survey requests each week, so I just send them to my email trash box" (A faculty member from the 1st institution, C. Anatolia Large). In the second phase, faculty

64

members and academic administrators were visited in their offices for their participation during the first two months of the Fall 2012 academic semester. During these visits, the researcher used his personal communications for reaching out to the participants. The researcher was able meet or communicate with a total of 90 faculty members and 35 administrators during his two-month period of site visits in Turkey via email, phone call and office visits. By the end, a total of 31 academic administrators and 80 faculty members (including online participants) participated in the study. During office visits to the academic administrators and faculty members, their permission for survey administration in their classrooms was also requested, since the list of students and their contact information are not publically available. Among those classrooms where permission was granted, one classroom from each education level (freshmen, sophomore, junior and senior) at each institution was randomly selected and visited. In these classroom visits, students' voluntary participation was requested. Virtually all of the students accepted, except for the one or two students from each classroom refused to participate. The survey instrument was administered face to face with all of the students in these 16 classrooms (four freshmen, four sophomore, four junior, and four senior classrooms). Those 19 administrators and faculty members who withdrew from online survey, and those 5 students who did not respond to any of the questions 6A, 6B, 7A or 7B (the focus of this dissertation), are excluded from the analysis. The final participant statistics are summarized in Table 3 based on academic position and school location.

During the survey administration process, participants' participation in a follow-up interview was also requested. In the qualitative research section of the dissertation, 4 groups of a total of 20 students (5 students from each faculty of education), 3 faculty members, and 3 administrators were targeted for the follow-up interview. While 5 administrators and 20 faculty

members were willing to participate in a follow-up interview, students were not interested, with only 6 students from the first institution joining a group discussion session, and two students from the fourth institution preferring to participate in an individualized form of the follow-up interview. There was no student participation from the second or third institution in the follow-up interview. Among those 20 faculty members and 5 academic administrators, 3 faculty members and 3 administrators were selected and participated in an individualized form of the follow-up interview. Since the main research design of this study is quantitative, the researcher spent most of his time on quantitative data collection because of the time and money limitations.

Table 3. Key academic stakeholders by their positions and school locations

KEY ACADEMIC STAKEHOLDERS	SCHOOL LOCATION				
	Central Anatolia Large	Central Anatolia Small	Marmara Large	Marmara Small	**Total**
A. Administrators	17	6	6	2	**31**
	%55	%19	%19	%7	**%100**
Faculty Members	36	9	27	8	**80**
	%45	%11	%34	%10	**%100**
Students	196	139	111	123	**569**
	%34	%24	%20	%22	**%100**
Total	249	154	144	133	**680**
	%37	%23	%21	%19	**%100**

See **Appendix A** for more detailed information on the sample characteristics

4.0   DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1   EMPIRICAL MODEL

The purpose of this study is to understand how key academic stakeholders perceive the academic quality of TEPs in Turkish public HEIs, and to investigate whether they differ in their perspective based on their academic position, i.e. academic administrator, faculty or student. For this, the researcher focused only on the data from the questions 6A, 6B, 7A and 7B of the survey instrument, and reported findings only from these questions that he believes are adequate to respond to the main research question this dissertation proposes.

Data analysis in this study has two components: the main quantitative data analysis section and the qualitative data analysis section integrated for explanatory purposes. The quantitative section also has two phases. The first phase focuses on the analysis of general quality, while the second phase focuses on the academic quality of TEPs. For both quantitative analyses, the researcher administered STATA data analysis software. While descriptive statistics were helpful in identifying key academic stakeholder perceptions on the general and academic quality of TEPs, perceptional similarities and differences across positions (administrators, faculty members, students) were analyzed by the utilization of multivariate analysis, which revealed patterns in how academic quality is defined by the key academic stakeholders in TEPs.

Qualitative data gathered from the group and individual interviews was analyzed manually by the researcher in order to bring explanations to the patterns emerging from the analysis of the quantitative data, and is reported in the discussion section of this dissertation.

4.1.1   Operationalizing independent and control variables

While the academic position of the participant is the explanatory variable of this analysis since this dissertation focuses on stakeholder perspectives, the participants' gender and school location serve as the control variables in the analysis.

Whether the participant is an academic administrator, faculty member or student, "position," is a categorical explanatory variable, coded as 0= academic administrator, 1= faculty member, and 2= student. Around four percent of the participants are academic administrators (31/680), eleven percent are faculty members (80/680) and eighty-four percent are students (574/680).

Participant gender is a dichotomous control variable, coded as 1=female and 0=male. Around seventy-one percent of the participants (483 out of 677) are female. Participants are selected from four higher education institutions in two geographic regions of Turkey: Central Anatolia Region (one large and one small institution) and Marmara Region (one large and one small institution). Thus, the school location is the categorical control variable, coded as 1=C. Anatolia Large, 2=C. Anatolia Small, 3=Marmara Large, and 4=Marmara Small. As Table 3 shows, 249 respondents from the first institution, 154 from the second, 149 from the third, and 133 from the fourth institution participated.

The explanatory and control variables introduced above are consistent for all of the multivariate models and estimations analyzed throughout this dissertation, while dependent variables change from estimation to estimation depending on the varying focuses of each section.

4.2   PHASE 1: THE ANALYSIS OF PARTICIPANT PERSPECTIVES ON GENERAL QUALITY

The purpose of this phase is to check the accuracy of the assumption outlined by the general research design of this dissertation: that key academic stakeholders of TEPs, including academic administrators, faculty members, and students, regardless of their position, tend to have academic quality perspectives regarding the general quality of TEPs rather than public or management views on quality. In order to investigate this, cross tabulations of participants and their level of agreement on each general quality perspective were generated and reported on a four-point ordered scale. For an easier interpretation, the numerical values assigned to each general quality perspective during the data collection process were reversed, with SD=1 corresponding to "strongly disagree," D=2 corresponding to "disagree," A=3 corresponding to "agree," and SA=4 corresponding to "strongly agree." This first step analysis ends with the examination of how key academic stakeholders express their preference toward the general quality perspectives of public view, management view and academic view on a ranking table where 1 corresponds to the most important, and 4 corresponds to the least important. Only the participants' number one choices for the most important general quality perspective are considered for this analysis. This analysis is reported on a three-point categorical scale where 1 corresponds to public view as the most important, 2 corresponds to management view as the most important and 3 corresponds to

academic view as the most important. Participants' preferences are analyzed with a multinomial probit model because of the scale's categorical structure.

4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

In this section, key academic stakeholder attitudes toward the three general quality perspectives - public view, management view and academic view - were analyzed. Table 4 presents the participants' level of agreement with a set of statements on these three general quality perspectives.

The researcher expected participants to moderately support the public view of general quality because of their background and previous roles in the community as the citizens of the country, such as being a high school graduate, parent, tax payer, alumni, etc. A total of 68 percent of administrators, 71 percent of faculty members and 83 percent of the students agree or strongly agree with the statement, indicating increasing support when moving down from academic administrators to students in the hierarchical structure of these TEPs (see Table 4).

Participants were also asked to express their attitudes toward the management view of the general quality of TEPs. Here, though the researcher expected academic administrators to favor management view more than the rest of the participants due to their position as academic managers, the findings revealed the opposite. In total, 89 percent of the faculty members and 87 percent of the students favored the management view of general quality, while only 81 percent of the academic administrators agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

Table 4. Participants' level of agreement on each general quality statement

PERSPECTIVES ON GENERAL QUALITY	Key Academic Stakeholders	SD (f&%)	D (f&%)	A (f&%)	SA (f&%)	Total (f&%)
PUBLIC VIEW **Statement A:** The main determinant of the quality of a TEP is the program's position on national or international ranking tables.	Administrators	0 %0	10 %32	13 %42	8 %26	31 %100
	Faculty	4 %5	19 %24	41 %51	16 %20	80 %100
	Students	7 %1	90 %16	332 %58	139 %25	568 %100
	Total[8]	**11** **%2**	**119** **%17**	**386** **%57**	**163** **%24**	**679** **%100**
Grand Mean[9] percentages for Total		**%2**	**%24**	**%50**	**%23**	**%100**
MANAGEMENT VIEW **Statement B:** The quality of a TEP depends on the extent to which its resources (money and infrastructure) are used effectively.	Administrators	0 %0	6 %19	18 %58	7 %23	31 %100
	Faculty	0 %0	9 %11	41 %51	30 %38	80 %10
	Students	9 %1	66 %12	311 %55	182 %32	568 %100
	Total	**9** **%1**	**81** **%12**	**370** **%55**	**219** **%32**	**679** **%100**
Grand Mean percentages for Total		**%0**	**%14**	**%55**	**%31**	**%100**
ACADEMIC VIEW **Statement C:** The quality of a TEP depends on its capacity to enhance students' abilities, skills and knowledge.	Administrators	0 %0	5 %16	8 %26	18 %58	31 %100
	Faculty	0 %0	2 %2	22 %28	56 %70	80 %100
	Students	4 %1	24 %4	166 %29	374 %66	568 %100
	Total	**4** **%1**	**31** **%5**	**196** **%28**	**448** **%66**	**679** **%100**
Grand Mean percentages for Total		**%0**	**%7**	**%28**	**%65**	**%100**
ACADEMIC VIEW **Statement D:** The quality of a TEP depends on its capacity to empower students through giving them the opportunity to play active roles in decision making in their own academic development.	Administrators	0 %0	2 %6	13 %42	16 %52	31 %100
	Faculty	0 %0	5 %6	29 %36	46 %58	80 %100
	Students	3 %1	19 %3	198 %35	349 %61	569 %100
	Total	**3** **%0**	**26** **%4**	**240** **%35**	**411** **%61**	**680** **%100**
Grand Mean percentages for Total		**%0**	**%5**	**%38**	**%57**	**%100**

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[8] **Total** percentages for each statement (A, B, C, D) and value category (SD, D, A, SA) are calculated by substituting the following equation: $Total_{xy} = \frac{fy_{adm} + fy_{fac} + fy_{sut}}{N}$ where "x" is one of the statements (A, B, C, D), "y" is one of the value categories (SD, D, A, SA), "fy" is the frequency of the participants in each participant group who falls within that specific value category of "y", and "N" is the total number of participants. For example, for statement A and value category D : $Total_{AD} = \frac{10+19+90}{679} = \frac{119}{679} = 17\%$

[9] **Grand mean percentage** here represents the average of the percentages for participant groups. The grand mean percentage for the overall Total participant group is calculated by substituting in the following equation: $Grand\ Mean\ Total_{xy} = \frac{\frac{fy_{adm}}{f_{adm}} + \frac{fy_{fac}}{f_{fac}} + \frac{fy_{sut}}{f_{sut}}}{z}$ where "x" is one of the statements (A, B, C, D), "y" is one of the value categories (SD, D, A, SA), "fy" is the frequency of the participants in each participant group who falls within that specific value category of "y", and "z" is the number of participant groups. For example, for statement A and value category D: $Grand\ Mean\ Total_{xy} = \frac{\frac{10}{31} + \frac{19}{80} + \frac{90}{568}}{3} = 24\%$

The researcher tested participant perspectives on the academic view of general quality with the two statements, each covering one aspect of the view. Not surprisingly, and as illustrated in table 4, academic administrators agree or strongly agree with the statements C and D at rates as high as 84 percent and 94 percent, while faculty members with rates rates as high as 98 percent and 94 percent, and students with rates as high as 95 percent and 96 percent.

Considering that administrators, faculty members, and students are the key academic stakeholders of TEPs, it is expected, as well as supported by the general stakeholder model of this dissertation, that they hold more positive attitudes toward the academic view of the general quality of TEPs than towards the public or management views. Likewise, a comparison of the average rating scores of the participants reveals that they favored the academic view of the general quality of TEPs with rates as high as 93 percent (Academic view 1) and 95 percent (academic view 2), both of which were more than their support of management view (86 percent) and public view (73 percent). It is important to note here that, in order to give equal representation to each participant group in the overall group statistics, grand mean percentages were reported instead of the Average Percentage Total for the participants due to the unequal number of participants in each group. It also helps reader determine the distance of each group from the overall participant characteristics.

This assumption was also examined by asking participants to rank statements A, B, C, and D above from the most important to the least important in terms of each statement's power in explaining the general quality of TEPs. In this analysis, only the number-one statement choice of each participant was considered. As expected, 77 percent of academic administrators indicated that the academic view (Statement C or statement D) is the most important view on the general quality, while only 10 percent choose the management view, and 13 percent choose the public

view. These proportions did not change significantly with the other participant groups. Faculty member rankings reveal that 71 percent consider the academic view as the most important in defining the general quality of TEPs, while 14 percent favor the management view, and 15 percent consider the public view the most important. Student rates were 78 percent for the academic view, 7 percent for the management view and 15 percent for the public view (Table 5).

Table 5. Participant #1-ranked perspectives in defining the general quality of TEPs

Statements on the General Quality of TEPs	Key Academic Stakeholders	A is 1st	B is 1st	C is 1st	D is 1st	Total
	Administrators	4	3	15	9	31
		%13	%10	%48	%29	%100
A: Public view (Statement A)	Faculty	12	11	38	19	80
B: Management view (Statement B)		%15	%14	%47	%24	%100
C: Academic view 1 (Statement C)	Students	85	40	249	191	565
D: Academic view 2 (Statement D)		%15	%7	%44	%34	%100
	Total	**101**	**54**	**302**	**219**	**676**
		%15	**%8**	**%45**	**%32**	**%100**
Grand Mean percentages for Total		**%14**	**%10**	**%46**	**%29**	**%100**

4.2.2   Multinomial Probit Analysis

Descriptive statistics revealed that majority of the participants favored the academic view as the most important perspective in explaining the general quality of TEPs, though with quite a few differences in percentages among participants groups. While the differences among the groups do not seem to be significant, it is still noteworthy to check if the academic position of key academic stakeholders, i.e. being an academic administrator, faculty member, or student, have any influence on their opinion of the most important view for general quality of TEPs, as well as whether the assumption highlighted by the general stakeholder model is met, namely, that key academic stakeholders (regardless of their position) favor academic view over other views on the general quality of TEPs. For this purpose, a Multinomial Probit (MNP) Model was administered.

For the model, participant ratings on the most important (1.) view of general TEP quality, "general_1", is the dependent variable, recoded as 1=P1st (public view is first), 2=M1st (management view is first), and 3=A1st (academic view is first, combining the two academic view statements).

The MNP model in this study was adapted from Long and Freese (2006). In the model, participant number-one views on the general quality of TEPs can be written as:

$$u_{it} = x_i \beta_t + \varepsilon_{it}$$

where:

u_{it} = The utility (preference) of the person i's choice as the most important view t among the three alternatives.

x_i = Vector of explanatory variable that describes participant i's academic position

β_t = Vector parameter of the alternative t to be estimated

ε_{it} = Random error term for the alternative t (assumed to be normally distributed).

In this model there are three alternatives participants can choose, coded as public view "p", management view "m" and academic view "a" in the estimation model. Since a participant's choice depends on his/her preference toward one alternative over other alternatives, the latent variable model is written as follows, with the academic view alternative as the base outcome to which the other alternatives (p and m) are compared:

Public vs. Academic view $\quad u_{ip} - u_{ia} = x_i (\beta_p - \beta_a) + (\varepsilon_p - \varepsilon_a)$

Management vs. Academic view $\quad u_{im} - u_{ia} = x_i (\beta_m - \beta_a) + (\varepsilon_m - \varepsilon_a)$

Academic vs. Academic view $\quad u_{ia} - u_{ia} = 0$

From this, the latent variable model is written as:

74

$$u_{ip}^* = x_i \beta_{p|a} + \varepsilon_{ip}^*$$

$$u_{im}^* = x_i \beta_{m|a} + \varepsilon_{im}^*$$

Table 6 presents the estimation results of participant preference toward the most important perspective defining the general quality of TEPs. Results suggest that there is no statistically significant evidence that the academic position of the participants influences their preference for the most important view on the general quality of TEPs. In comparing administrators to students, there was an insignificant coefficient in participant preference toward public view versus academic view, and also insignificant coefficients in their number-one choice between the management and academic views, holding other participant characteristics constant. The coefficients are also insignificant in the comparison of faculty members and students in their number-one choices for both the analysis of public view versus academic view and the analysis of management view versus academic view, after controlling all other variables. The statistical insignificance of these small percentage differences among participant group number-one preferences suggests that they are not a result of participant academic positions. Rather, the small differences are explained by the size and location of the respondent institution. These findings also suggest that all three key academic stakeholder groups, regardless of their academic position, are inclined to favor the academic view over the public or management view in defining the general quality of TEPs. All of these findings are consistent with the hypothesis proposed by the researcher in the general stakeholder model.

However, some significant coefficients did emerge from the control variables. After controlling other factors, findings suggest that participants from the third institution (Marmara Large) are 6 percent more likely than the participants from the first institution (C. Anatolia Large) to choose the public view over the academic view. Results were insignificant for

management versus academic views, holding other factors constant. On the other hand, participants from the fourth institution (Marmara Small) are 9.52 percent less likely than participants from the first institution (C. Anatolia Large) to choose public view over the academic view. Results for management versus academic views for these participants were again insignificant. It is important to note here that there was not any significant result within the Central Anatolia Region (between two instituions C. Anatolia Large and C. Anatolia Small) in either public versus academic or management versus academic. However, the significant results emerged between Marmara Region and Central Anatolia Region (Marmara Large versus C. Anatolia Large and Marmara Small versus C. Anatolia Large) in public versus academic, but not in management versus academic. Thus, the significant impact of the school location and size is valid only in the public versus academic view comparison. The impact of regional differences on participant perspectives should be investigated in a separate more-detailed study.

Table 6. MNP estimation results on participants' #1 choice among the three general quality perspectives

Variables	Public view (vs. Academic view)		Management view (vs. Academic view)	
	Coefficients	Marginal Effects (%)	Coefficients	Marginal Effects (%)
Administrators	-0.2893 (0.4167)	-4.39	0.0384 (0.4452)	1.15
faculty	-0.0628 (0.2651)	-2.04	0.3588 (0.2778)	4.75
Students	Base		Base	
Control variables				
female	-0.3243 (0.1851)	-4.60	-0.3522 (0.2124)	-3.18
male	Base		Base	
C. Anatolia Small	0.3549 (0.2153)	5.64	0.2252 (0.2593)	1.55
Marmara Large	0.4273*	6.46	0.4003	3.50

	(0.2175)		(0.2519)	
Marmara Small	-0.7392*	-9.52	-0.3569	-2.08
	(0.2896)		(0.3128)	
C. Anatolia Large	Base		Base	
Constant	-1.1845***		-1.6519***	
	(0.1977)		(0.2299)	
Predictions	0.1398		0.0769	
Log likelihood	-447.721			
# of observations	676			

Notes: Standards errors in parentheses. **Base categories:** students, male, C. Anatolia Large. **Significance levels:** * is significant at α=0.05; ** is significant at α=0.01; *** is significant at α=0.001.

4.3   PHASE 2: THE ANALYSIS OF PARTICIPANT PERSPECTIVES ON ACADEMIC QUALITY

In this phase, the main focus of this dissertation, participant attitudes (level of agreement) toward the three key components of student quality, faculty quality and curriculum quality as attributed to the academic quality of HEIs in general and TEPs in particular, are analyzed independently along with the concluding analysis of participant rankings of the importance levels of these three key factors. Cross tabulations of participants and their level of agreement on each statement representing each academic quality factor were reported on a four-point ordered scale. The numerical values were again reversed for easier interpretation, with SD=1 corresponding to "strongly disagree," D=2 corresponding to "disagree," A=3 corresponding to "agree," and SA=4 corresponding to "strongly agree."   An ordered probit model was also administered independently on each academic quality factors. As the last part of the analysis, participant ratings on these three quality factors were analyzed by focusing on only their number-one choice, where 1 corresponds to the most important and 4 corresponds to the least important. The multinomial probit model is applied because of the scales' categorical structure, where 1

corresponds to student quality is the most important, 2 corresponds to faculty quality is the most important, and 3 corresponds to curriculum quality is the most important.

4.3.1   Ordered Probit Model

In this section, the attitudes of key academic stakeholders toward student quality, faculty quality, and curriculum quality were analyzed. The descriptive statistics were introduced first, and then the ordered probit analysis results were reported.

4.3.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

This section summarizes participant levels of agreemet regarding the components of student quality, faculty quality and curriculum quality that were reported in Table 7.

Participants revealed their perspectives on how the quality of students impacts the academic quality of TEPs by ranking Statement A in Table 7, which is attributed to student quality. Their perspectives on student quality and how it impacts academic quality of TEPs vary. While 81 percent of academic administrators agree or strongly agree with the statement, 78 percent of faculty members and only 60 percent of students share the same perspective.

Participants were also asked for their perspective on how the quality of faculty members impacts on the academic quality of TEPs. As presented in table 7, the majority of participants agreed or strongly agreed with the statement B. While there was no academic administrators opposed to the statement, a small portion of the faculty members (10%) and students (8%) disagree or strongly disagree with the statement that the quality of a TEP depends mainly on the quality of its faculty.

Participants also presented their perspective on the relationship between curriculum quality and TEP academic quality. The majority of the participants agreed with the statement, with only 3 percent of academic administrators, 14 percent of faculty members and 6 percent of students disregard the relationship between curriculum quality and academic quality of TEPs.

Table 7. Participants' level of agreement on each academic quality statement

PERSPECTIVES ON ACADEMIC QUALITY	Key Academic Stakeholders	SD (f&%)	D (f&%)	A (f&%)	SA (f&%)	Total (f&%)
STUDENT QUALITY **Statement A:** The quality of a TEP depends mainly on the quality of its students.	Administrators	0	6	17	8	31
		%0	%19	%55	%26	%100
	Faculty	1	17	42	20	80
		%1	%21	%53	%25	%100
	Students	19	206	279	64	568
		%4	%36	%49	%11	%100
	Total	**20**	**229**	**338**	**92**	**679**
		%3	**%34**	**%50**	**%13**	**%100**
Grand Mean percentages for Total		**%2**	**%25**	**%52**	**%21**	**%100**
FACULTY QUALITY **Statement B:** The quality of a TEP depends mainly on the quality of its faculty.	Administrators	0	0	16	15	31
		%0	%0	%52	%48	%100
	Faculty	0	8	35	37	80
		%0	%10	%44	%46	%100
	Students	5	42	314	208	569
		%1	%7	%55	%37	%100
	Total	**5**	**50**	**365**	**260**	**680**
		%1	**%7**	**%54**	**%38**	**%100**
Grand Mean percentages for Total		**%0**	**%6**	**%50**	**%44**	**%100**
CURRICULUM QUALITY **Statement C:** The quality of a TEP depends mainly on the quality of its curriculum.	Administrators	0	1	17	13	31
		%0	%3	%55	%42	%100
	Faculty	1	10	40	29	80
		%1	%13	%50	%36	%100
	Students	4	29	274	260	567
		%1	%5	%48	%46	%100
	Total	**5**	**40**	**331**	**302**	**678**
		%1	**%6**	**%49**	**%44**	**%100**
Grand Mean percentages for Total		**%1**	**%7**	**%51**	**%41**	**%100**

4.3.1.2 Ordered Probit (OP) Analysis

In this model, the three academic quality components are the dependent variables for each individual ordered probit analysis, and were rated by the participants on a four-point ordered scale where SD=1 corresponds to "strongly disagree", D=2 corresponds to "disagree", A=3 corresponds to "agree", and SA=4 corresponds to "strongly agree". As before, the explanatory and control variables of position, gender, and location are consistent. The ordered probit model is

mostly written as a latent variable model in which the latent variable y^* is assumed to be ranging from $-\infty$ to ∞ (Long & Freese, 2006).

Since the ordered probit model is same for all three quality components analyzed here, The model written only once here as:

$$y_i^* = \beta x_i + \varepsilon_i$$

where

y_i^* = Continuous latent measure of person i's agreement level on the academic quality component

x_i = Vector of explanatory variable that describes participant i's academic position

β_t = Vector parameters to be estimated

ε_{it} =Random error term (assumed to be normally distributed).

Since the latent variable y_i^* is continuous and the four-point scale used by the researcher is subjective, it is not assumed that distances among response categories (SD, D, A, SA) are constant. From this, "the observed response categories are tied to the latent variable by the measurement model" introduced by Long and Freese (2006, p. 185):

$$y_i = \begin{cases} 1 \Rightarrow SD & if & \tau_0 = -\infty \leq y_i^* < \tau_1 \\ 2 \Rightarrow D & if & \tau_1 \leq y_i^* < \tau_2 \\ 3 \Rightarrow A & if & \tau_2 \leq y_i^* < \tau_3 \\ 4 \Rightarrow SA & if & \tau_3 \leq y_i^* < \tau_4 = -\infty \end{cases}$$

where,

y_i is the observed value of person i's agreement, τ's are the cut-point parameters to be estimated. Therefore, y_i becomes one of the values (of SD, D, A, and SD) depending on the position of y_i^*.

Table 9 summarizes the estimated results for each academic quality component of TEPs. The ordered probit model for student quality indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between participant academic position and their attitudes toward student quality as a mean of academic quality of TEPs holding all the other factors constant. As findings reval, academic administrators and faculty members have more positive support than students toward student quality as an indicator of academic quality of TEPs. The motivations for student participants supporting student quality as an indicator of the academic quality of a program less than faculty members and academic administrators requires further research.

Table 9 also shows that, after controlling other variables, being a faculty member has no statistically significant evidence for support for faculty quality compared to student quality, while administrators favor faculty quality more than student quality in defining the academic quality of TEPs. It seems that while faculty members and students have similar levels of agreement on the contributions of faculty quality to the academic quality of TEPs, academic administrator agreement might be beyond that level; descriptive statistics already indicated that while 90 % of the faculty and 92 % of the students agree or strongly agree with the faculty quality, all of the academic adminsitrators (100%) present their agreement.

Findings also indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between participant academic positions and their support of curriculum quality as a part of academic quality of TEPs. However, it is possible that is some statistical difference between academic administrators and faculty members on their support of curriculum quality since descriptive statistics indicate that while 14% of the faculty members disagree or strongly disagree with curriculum quality, only 3 % of the academic administrators share the same perspective. Since this study uses students as the base group throughout, only administrator versus student and

faculty versus student comparions were conducted. Thus, academic administrator versus faculty comparison was left uninvestigated and requires further research.

Table 8. OP estimation results on participant ratings of the three academic quality components

Variables	Ordered Probit: Perspectives on **student quality**		Ordered Probit: Perspectives on **faculty quality**		Ordered Probit: Perspectives on **curriculum quality**	
	Coef.	Std. Error	Coef.	Std. Error	Coef.	Std. Error
Administrators	0.6140**	(0.2117)	0.4578*	(0.2282)	0.1039	(0.2207)
Faculty	0.4760**	(0.1377)	0.1164	(0.1437)	-0.2664	(0.1411)
Students	Base		Base		Base	
Control variables						
Female	-0.0513	(0.0984)	0.0865	(0.1028)	0.1632	(0.1029)
Male	Base		Base		Base	
C. Anatolia Small	0.1010	(0.1136)	-0.0530	(0.1175)	0.1032	(0.1191)
Marmara Large	0.4343***	(0.1164)	0.5290***	(0.1245)	0.2850*	(0.1224)
Marmara Small	0.2018	(0.1201)	0.0154	(0.1246)	0.2560*	(0.1272)
C. Anatolia Large	Base		Base		Base	
τ_1	-1.7412	(0.1349)	-2.3030	(0.1887)	-2.2709	(0.1882)
τ_2	-0.1522	(0.1067)	-1.2413	(0.1203)	-1.3069	(0.1220)
τ_3	1.3395	(0.1158)	0.5050	(0.1120)	0.3637	(0.1116)
Pseudo R^2	0.0246		0.0227		0.0128	
N	679		680		678	

Notes: Standards errors in parentheses. **Base categories:** students, male, C. Anatolia Large. **Significance levels:** * is significant at α=0.05; ** is significant at α=0.01; *** is significant at α=0.001.

4.3.2 Multinomial Probit Model

In this section, participant ratigns of the most important factor in the academic quality of TEPs were analyzed. First descriptive statistics were presented, and then multinomial probit analysis results were reported.

4.3.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

Participants were asked to rank the three academic quality components, student quality, faculty quality, and curriculum quality, from the most important factor to the least important factor in relation to the academic quality of TEPs. In order to investigate which component participants considered the most influential, only their number 1 choices was included in this analysis. Participant number-one choices are presented in Table 8. The highest percent of each participant group agreed that faculty quality is the main determinant of the academic quality, with 55 percent of academic administrators, 51 percent of faculty members and 44 percent of students. This finding is consistant with earlier studies that investigate the relationship between teacher quality and student achievement. Specifically, Wilson and associates' (2001) findings on the review of 57 research studies suggest that there is a relationship between teacher [in this context faculty] qualifications and student achievement. As also indicated, teacher quality is more strongly related to student achievement than any other factors, including as expenditures, class size, salaries and some others (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

However, opinions on the importance of the remaining TEP quality factors differed. The second largest student group (40 percent) considered curriculum quality the most important factor, while only 16 percent stated that student quality is the most important. On the contrary, the second largest groups of academic administrators (35 percent) and faculty members (28

percent) attached more value to student quality, with only 10 percent of the academic administrators and 21 percent of the faculty members support curriculum quality as the most important quality determinant.

Table 9. Participant #1 choice components in defining the academic quality of TEPs.

Statements on the Academic Quality of TEPs	Key Academic Stakeholders	A is 1st	B is 1st	C is 1st	Total
	Administrators	11	17	3	31
		%35	%55	%10	%100
A: Student Quality (Statement A)	Faculty	22	41	17	80
B: Faculty Quality (Statement B)		%28	%51	%21	%100
C: Curriculum Quality (Statement C)	Students	90	248	227	565
		%16	%44	%40	%100
	Total	**123**	**306**	**247**	**676**
		%18	**%45**	**%37**	**%100**
Grand Mean percentages for Total		**%26**	**%50**	**%24**	**%100**

4.3.2.2 Multinomial Probit Analysis

The same multinomial probit model introduced for the analysis of general quality rankings in phase oneis also used for the estimation analysis of participant number-one choices of quality components affecting the academic quality of TEPs. Student is coded as "s," faculty as "f," and curriculum as "c" in the model. The latent variable model is written as:

Student quality vs. Curriculum Quality $\quad u_{is} - u_{ic} = x_i\,(\beta_s - \beta_c) + (\varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_c)$

Faculty quality vs. Curriculum Quality $\quad u_{if} - u_{ic} = x_i\,(\beta_f - \beta_c) + (\varepsilon_f - \varepsilon_c)$

Curriculum quality vs. Curriculum Quality $\;u_{ic} - u_{ic} = 0$

From this, the latent variable model is written as:

$$u_{is}^* = x_i \beta_{s|c} + \varepsilon_{is}^*$$

$$u_{if}^* = x_i \beta_{f|c} + \varepsilon_{if}^*$$

Table 10 illustrates the estimation results for participant number-one choices among academic quality components. The estimation results suggest that there are statistically significant relationships between participant academic position and their number one choices among the three academic quality components.

The findings reveal that an academic administrator is 18.08 % more likely than students to choose student quality over curriculum quality as the most important component, and 9.65 % more likely to choose faculty quality over curriculum quality, holding other participant characteristics constant. The comparisions between academic administrators and students on student quality versus curriculum quality and faculty quality versus curriculum quality indicate that, when compared to academic administrators, students favor curriculum quality more than both student and faculty quality. These large differences (18 % and 10%) between administrators and students are good examples of how different stakeholder groups define academic quality differently, even if they are both considered part of the internal academic community and are assumed (and also evidenced in phase 1) to have the same perception on the definition of general quality; defining TEP quality from the academic perspective. However, how they define academic perspective differs among the sub groups, as shown.

The faculty variable revealed similarly significant results: a faculty member is 11.91 % more likely than a student to choose student quality over curriculum quality, and 4.7% more likely to choose faculty quality over curriculum quality as the most important component in defining the academic quality of TEPs, after controlling other variables.

Given the findings from phase 1 of this dissertation, it is indicated that key academic stakeholders, regardless of their position, tend to hold the academic view over the public and

management perspectives. However, when it comes to the key academic stakeholders' understanding of this academic perspective, and as a result the definition of academic quality, key academic stakeholders show some differences in their interpretation. These findings suggest that, even though academic stakeholders favor all three academic quality components with high ratings, priorities differ among academic administrators, faculty members and students when it comes to their choice as the most important component. The impossibleness of finding a concensus among all stakeholder groups for a universal definition of quality in higher education as highlighted by the literature is tested and validated with this small number of participants, regardless that they are assumed to be in the same academic community and therefore hold similar perceptions of quality. However, the more crucial lesson from this dissertation comes for policy makers, government officials, and higher education councils and units. There is an urgent need to recognize the existence of differing perspectives and perceptions of stakeholders on quality, even how easy it is to find two students sitting next to each that hold totally different perspectives regarding their academic life and have totally different priorities and expectations regarding their universities. Structuring the entire higher education system on the values of the service industry, which limits the definition quality to the boundaries of the customer-provider relationship and the values of economic development and national growth that voew higher education as the engine of national economy, results the emergence of one type of accreditation, quality assurance, and a monitoring system that suppresses others' voices and leaves alternative models and mechanisms for dead.

Table 10. MNP estimation results on participant #1 choices among the three academic quality components

Variables	Student quality (vs. Curriculum quality)		Faculty quality (vs. Curriculum quality)	
	Coefficients	Marginal Effects (%)	Coefficients	Marginal Effects (%)
Administrators	1.4828**	18.08	1.1174*	9.65
	(0.4574)		(0.4415)	
Faculty	0.8282**	11.91	0.5219*	4.70
	(0.2636)		(0.2429)	
Students	Base		Base	
Control variables				
Female	-0.3278	-5.23	-0.1435	-0.57
	(0.1898)		(0.1683)	
Male	Base		Base	
C. Anatolia Small	0.3295	7.95	-0.0679	-5.93
	(0.2174)		(0.1934)	
Marmara Large	-0.0810	-2.51	0.0837	3.43
	(0.1967)		(0.1967)	
Marmara Small	-0.0786	1.02	-0.2429	-6.50
	(0.2370)		(0.2008)	
C. Anatolia Large	Base		Base	
Constant	-0.5019*		0.2390	
	(0.2012)		(0.1767)	
Predictions	0.1781			
Log likelihood	-681.283			
# of observations	676			

Notes: Standards errors in parentheses. **Base categories:** students, male, C. Anatolia Large. **Significance levels:** * is significant at α=0.05; ** is significant at α=0.01; *** is significant at α=0.001.

5.0   DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

For the purpose of developing a deeper understanding of the topic, this chapter summarizes the findings from the quantitative data and integrates the discussions of the findings from the follow-up interviews with a small number of participants.

The participants of this dissertation were not representative of all TEPs of Turkish public HEIs, and the purpose was not to generalize findings of the whole population. Instead, it is geared at creating some ground for future research, as well as offering some rich, research-based insights that can be taken advantage of from a political context by both researchers and professionals in the higher education sector.

5.1   GENERAL QUALITY OF TEPs

In reviewing the literature on quality, Harvey and Green's (1993) conceptual typology integrating five perspectives on the quality of HEIs was introduced. Based on this, a general stakeholder model was then developed, which included three general quality perspectives associated with internal and external HEI stakeholders: public view, management view and academic view. The model was then adapted and used for TEPs.Since this dissertation focuses only on key academic stakeholders in the academic quality of TEPs, the first phase of the dissertation investigated whether the proposed link between key academic stakeholders and the

three general quality perspectives is real. In other words, phase 1 presents the analysis of the findings based on the pre-stated assumption that key academic stakeholders, regardless of their position, tend to favor the academic perspective over the public and management perspectives.

Although the general stakeholder model claimed a strong link between key academic stakeholders and their support for the academic view of general program quality, findings indicate that the majority of key academic stakeholders tend to favor not only the academic view, but also the public and management views in defining the general TEP quality, though with some percentile differences. On average, there was 73% support for the public view, 86% for the management view, and 94% for the academic view. These high participant agreements with the all three perspectives can be explained by the fact that these different perspectives, even though each highlights a different standpoint, are not contrary to each other at all. Instead, they are complementary in building the overall quality of a TEP, as shown by the model. Moreover, the general stakeholder model does not claim any strict association between general quality perspectives and stakeholder groups, meaning that favoring one perspective does not prohibit support of other perspectives. Additionally, the associations between perspectives and stakeholder groups have some flexibility. This is represented in the model in that participants can move from one perspective to the other due to their differing stakeholder roles at the institution and in the community. Thus, their level of agreement with the three general quality perspectives, even though there are some differences in percentages, is not enough to understand participant tendency.

However, further analysis that focuses on participant number-one choices as the most important perspective among public, management and academic views in explaining the general quality of TEPs responds to this question. The findings indicate that majority of the key

academic stakeholders (75%) considers the academic view the most important perspective, while only 14 percent consider the public view the most important, and just 10 percent consider the management view as the most important perspective.

The findings from the follow-up interviews also support this tendency toward the academic view in defining general quality of a TEP. Interview participants were asked to explain why they considered their choice as the most important perspective. Coincidently, all of the interview participants are those who claim the academic view is the most important perspective on general program quality. In their discussion, most of the attention is on the first academic quality perspective:

> ***Academic view 1:*** *The quality of a TEP depends on its capacity to enhance students' abilities, skills and knowledge.*

In evaluating this statement, almost all of the interview participants argue that enhancing student abilities, skills and knowledge is pivotal, and in fact is already the main mission and the ultimate goal of these programs. Their points are centered on the value-added notion of quality introduced by Harvey and Green (1993). Specifically, an associate dean of a faculty of education indicates that

> ENG: Considering the goal of the education is to make intended changes in student lives, if the program has some related capacity to this, in other words, from the standpoint of pre- and post-test, if a student has developed in terms of his/her knowledge, ability and skills from the time he enrolled to the time he graduates, it may help the student to advance, so the program has the quality on this. (A1)

> *TÜR: Egitimin amaci olarak da ogrencilerin hayatinda istenilen degisiklikleri yapmak olarak elealdigimizda bu program eger bunla ilgili bir kapasiteye sahipse, yani on test son test mantigindan hareket ederek ogrenci buraya geldigindeki bilgileri ve ogrenci burden mezun oldugu donemdeki bilgi, beceri ve yetenekleri acisindan bir gelisme kaydetmislerse, belki de sosyal bir sinif atlamasina da sebep olmuslarsa bu acidan kalitelidir.*

90

Highlighting the value-addedness in the definition, this administrator argues that the value added to student abilities, skills and knowledge is visible between the input (enrollment) and output (graduation) format. This type of perspective is introduced by Barnett (1988) in the literature. Almost revealing the same notion, one department chair also states that

> ENG: I definitely agree with this [statement]. Since the main goal is already to prepare them [students] for the teaching profession and to increase their knowledge, ability, and skills on this, I think the capacity of the program is directly related to this. (A2)

> TÜR: Buna kesinlikle katiliyorum. Yani temeldeki amac zaten onlari ogretmenlik meslegine hazirlamak, onlarin bu konudaki yeteneklerini, becerilerini, bilgilerini arttirmak oldugu icin, programin kapasitesi direk bunlarla birebir alakali diye dusunuyorum.

Claiming the same statement as the most important view of the general quality of TEPs, one faculty member reveals his perspective paralleling the arguments above:

> ENG: This is the most important one for me. Because, you will achieve the goal of your job to the extent to which you add to the background of the student, and to the extent to which you advance your student's skills, interests and performance to the upper level in your program. Besides, when evidence-based evaluations were done, the important thing is the observable changes in the student or his/her performance. Therefore, changes in students are the evidence for the program's achieving the pre-stated goals. So, the quality should be checked by how much change occurred on student's personal skills. (F1)

> TÜR: Benim icin birinci sirada onemli olan bu. Cunku vermis oldugunuz programda eger ogrencinin sahip oldugu alt yapi uzerine ne kadar cok gelistirirseniz, sahip oldugu becerilerini, ilgilerini, performansini bir ust citaya ne kadar cok cikartirsaniz, aslinda yapmis oldugunuz isin amacina da bence bir o kadar cok olcude ulasmis olursunuz. Hem de kanita dayali bir degerlendirme yapildiginda onemli olan ogrencinin performansinda ya da ogrencide gozmlemlenen degisikliklerdir. Dolayisiyla ogrencide degisiklik meydana geldigi zaman, programin hedefledigi seye ulasmasinin da kaniti olur bence. O nedenle bence birinci olcude ogrencinin bireysel ozelliklerinin ne kadar degisiklige ugradigina bakilmasi gerekiyor, kalite icin.

One student, as the subject of the statement that abilities, skills, knowledge and their development are considered to be the main quality determinant in this perspective, indicates that:

91

ENG: Since the things that support my abilities and skills more, and the jobs that support my abilities more in the program will increase my interest, I think skills-oriented teaching and education are more useful (S4).

TÜR: Programda benim yetenegime becerime daha fazla katki saglayanlar, daha cok yetenegimi destekleyen meslekler, zaten benim ilgimi arttiracagi icin, yeteneklere yonelik ogretimin egitimin daha faydali olacagini dusunuyorum ben.

Another student, who also supports the academic view, explains her choice around TEP student characteristics and argues that students come to these programs with some familiarity and interest:

ENG: You know, on this, I think other choices are also important, but the academic view is the most important one because students who are coming to faculties of education already have some familiarity and interest to the field, but it should be important duty of faculty members to develop these student abilities and skills. Otherwise, there is a risk at the end that students' present knowledge and skills can even lie fallow…

TÜR: Yani aslinda bu konuyla ilgili diger siklarin da onemli oldugunu dusunuyorum ama en onemlisinin bu olduguna karar verdim, cunku ogrencinin sonucta, egitim fakultelerine gelen ogrencinin halihazirda bu alana bir yatkinligi ve ilgisi mevcuttur ve ancak ogrenciye bu yetenek ve becerilerini gelistirecek firsatlarin sunulmasi ogretim gorevlileri icin onemli bir unsur olmalidir. Yani ogrencinin mevcut bilgi ve becerisi korele de bilir sonucta...

The last student participant also discusses her point of view and argues that TEPs should have the capacity to enhance its student knowledge, skills and abilities, particularly given the role they will be playing as teachers in K-12 schools:

ENG: As I already mentioned and marked, this [academic view] is important…First of all, I think being a teacher actually does not mean selling the knowledge, or giving it directly to the students only—contrary to the common belief now. It really requires a skill, ability, requires changing, renewing and increasing the knowledge consistently. Because I think it is the way…

TÜR: Digerleriyle olctugumde yine dedigim gibi, isaretledigim gibi o onemli geldi. ...Bir defa ogretmen olmak demek aslinda yani surda su an algilandigi gibi iste bilgiyi sadece satmak degildir, bilgiyi sadece ogrenciye direk vermek degildir bence. Bu gercekten bir yetenek ister, beceri ister, mutemadiyen bilgiyi degistirmek, yenilemek ve arttirmak ister. Boyle dusundugum icin...

This student in her reasoning refuses the management perspective to some extent when she argues that being a teacher is not selling the knowledge to students, contrary to common perception.

Interestingly, these participants and many more whose wordings are not listed here give most of the credit and attention to the academic view as the most important perspective, especially the one that focuses on enhancing student skills, abilities and knowledge. However, one important nuance that needs to be highlighted here is that these participants also consider this student enhancement process the main mission and goal of the program in their arguments. This mission- and goal-oriented approach is also discussed in the literature section of this dissertation as the fitness for purpose approach introduced, discussed and mentioned by many scholars (Bergquist, 1995; Bogue & Hall, 2003; Bogue & Saunders, 1992; Campbell & Rozsnyai, 2002; Harvey & Green, 1993; Kohoutek et al., 2009; Ruben, 1995; Westerheijden, 2007), and categorized by the researcher as a part of the management perspective in his general stakeholder model. This type of finding is important to show how one's perspective can be shaped and influenced by other value norms, and how competing arguments can intertwine in people's choices and perspectives.

In arguing the academic view as the most important perspective, some of the participants also revealed their opinion on the second statement:

Academic view 2: The quality of a TEP depends on its capacity to empower students through giving them the opportunity to play active roles in decision making in their own academic development.

Some of the interview participants, while still favoring the academic view on general quality, consider the second statement of the academic view more important than the first. For instance, one student states that

> ENG: I also agree that a teacher education program should prioritize its students and act on student decisions and expectations. Students should be given more opportunities [on this] (S3).

> *TÜR: Ben de bir ogretmen yetistirme programinin ogrenciye dha fazla oncelik verilmesi, onun kararlari, hani onun istekleri dogrultusunda hareket edilmesine katiliyorum. Onlara daha fazla firsat verilmeli.*

One academic administrator, who considered the first statement of the academic view as her number one choice, also spoke about the second academic view statement. She indicates

> ENG: I definitely agree with this statement and it is very reasonable in theory. Yet, things do not happen like this in practice, that is, when you leave things to students, for instance their academic development, taking upper level courses, or choosing their electives, and building their program of study (curriculum), finishing and leaving the school as soon as possible becomes students' most significant goal. Students do not hold the desire to develop themselves academically. I agree with this statement, as I mentioned this is a true sentence in theory, but I think it is not applicable in practice (A2).

> *TÜR: Teoride cok mantikli bir ifade ve kesinlikle katildigim bir ifade. Ama uygulamada isler boyle gitmiyor yani ogrenciye biraktigin zaman akademik gelisimi, ve onlara iste usten ders alma olabilir, secmeli ders olabilir, o ders paylasimini onlara verdigin zaman ogrencinin tek amaci bir an once okuldan gitmek oluyor yani. Kendimi akademik olarak yetistireyim kaygisi tasimiyor ogrenci. Ben buna katildigimi ifade ediyorum ama dedigim gibi teoride uygun bir cumle olsa da pratikte boyle olmuyor diye dusunuyorum.*

She also explains why she does not consider the public and management perspectives as her number one choice:

> ENG: These indicators [rankings] can be important for other programs, but there are some other factors that especially impact on the quality of teacher education programs, such as teacher candidate scores on Personal Selection Examination (KPSS), or their

placement status, that are more effective in showing the quality of these programs. That is why I do not agree with this (A2).

TÜR: Diger programlar icin bu gostegeler onemli olsa da, simdi ozellikle Turkiyede bence ogretmen yetistirme programinin kalitesini etkileyen baska faktorler var. Mesela ogrecilerinin KPSS de aldigi notlar. Onlarin atanma durumlari, o programin kalitesini veya seyini daha iyi gosteriyor diye dusunuyorum ben. O yuzden buna katilmiyorum ben.

Questioning the validity of the national ranking systems, one student presents her disagreement with the public view by an example:

ENG: For instance, Universities X and Y are considered to be the best schools [in Turkey], but [faculties of education in] these schools direct their students more to an academic track than to a teaching profession. Meaning that teaching [in these faculties] is based on this academic orientation. So, teachers [graduating from these faculties] can neither transfer their knowledge to their students, nor start a communication with them (S1).

TÜR: Mesela en guzel okul ODTU veya Bogazici oldugu soyleniyor ama mesela orda daha cok akademiye yonlendiriliyor ogrencier. Yani ogretim daha dogrusu ona yonelik olarak veriliyor.OGretmen yani milli egitim okullarinda ogrenciyle karsilastigi zaman ya bilgilerini aktaramiyor, ya da ogrenciyle iletisime gecemiyor.

One faculty member, who also disagrees with the public view of general quality, expresses his suspicion on the argument:

ENG: It depends on who creates those rankings, and how. How are they ranked? Is it, for instance, based on publications, or is it based on the success of graduates? I do not agree with this [public view]. For instance, I know that TEPs of the universities in those rankings are very unsuccessful (F2).

TÜR: O siralamalarin nasil yapildigina bagli tabi, kimin yaptigina da bagli. Yani mesela ordaki uretilen yayina gore mi, mezun basarisina gore mi? mesela neye gore siralaniyor acaba?[example US news&world report] Buna katilmiyorum. Mesela o siralamalarda olan universitelerde ogretmen yetistirme programlarinin cok basarisiz oldugunu biliyorum.

One administrator also expresses her disagreement with the management view, which focuses on the effective use of resources (money and infrastructure), by indicating that:

> ENG: I do not agree also with this one much, because, unfortunately, faculties of education in Turkey scrape a living, and there is not too much…A couple of chairs and a blackboard for students is enough to open a teacher education program, since there is not too much money already. Comparing the programs, I do not think their success and quality is related to this money. I think things in Turkey works on people's devotion (A2).

> *TÜR: Ben buna da cok katilmiyorum. Cunku maalesef egitim fakulteleri, cok kit kanaat geciniyor ve cok fazla bir sey yok…Iste bir ogretmen yetistirme programinin acilabilmesi icin bir tahta iki uc tane sandalye ogrencilere yetecek kadar olsa yeterli oluyor. Zaten cok fazla bir para yok. Programlari da karsilastirdigimizda onlarin hani basarili olmasi kaliteli olmasini cok bu paraya baglamiyorum. Biraz Turkiyede isler fedakarlikla yuruyor diye dusunuyorum.*

5.2   ACADEMIC QUALITY OF TEPS

Discussions in the literature suggest mainly that each perspective proposes its own definition of quality. The academic view of quality, which focuses on the transformation of students through the development of their abilities, skills, and knowledge, as well as student integration into their academic transformation, is highly linked with the definition of academic quality that highlights the three academic quality components that foster this transformation: faculty quality, student quality and curriculum quality. After investigating and confirming key academic stakeholder prioritization of the academic perspective among the three general quality approaches in phase I, in the second phase, the researcher investigates participants' perspectives on and the level of agreement with the each three academic quality components.

96

Findings from the quantitative section indicate that even though key academic stakeholders as a whole have positive attitudes toward the impact each quality component has on the academic quality of TEPs, participant groups show some differences in their level of agreement on individual quality components. Utilizing the students as the base group, to which other participant groups were compared, comparison results reveal that there is no statistically significant difference between administrators and students, or between faculty members and students, as to what extent curriculum quality impacts the academic quality of TEPs. While administrators have more positive attitudes than students toward faculty quality, there is no statistical evidence for differences between faculty and student participants on faculty quality as part of the academic quality. Findings surprisingly also revealed that both academic administrators and faculty members have more positive attitudes than students toward student quality in defining the academic quality of TEPs. This interesting finding may be due to student self-efficacy and their attribution of success and failure to some external factors, such as faculty and curriculum quality giving fewer credentials to student quality in defining academic quality. This is not the focus of this dissertation, and it requires further research and needs broader validation, but it shows some similarities with the findings by Meraler and Adiguzel (2012) who investigate the perceptions of the students in faculties of education on the quality of higher education. They analyze how students perceive the quality of higher education in the following areas: (a) students, (b) faculty members, (c) teaching-learning process, (d) facilities, libraries and technology centers, (e) management, and (f) academic and social activities. Findings indicate that while students agree somewhat with the 9 statements related to the student factor, they mostly agree with the 8 statements related to faculty factor and mostly agree with the 7 statements related to teaching and learning factor as the indicator of the higher education quality.

97

It also shows that student participants had less support toward the student role as an indicator of higher education quality, as similar findings presented here on TEP quality.

In the following section participant number one choices among the three quality components are analyzed. As Table 8 indicates, the largest groups in each academic position consider faculty quality as the most important component in defining the academic quality of a TEP. One important reason for all three participant groups' shared tendency toward faculty quality as the number one factor can be understood from the educational context, and might be teacher/faculty driven, or as what some call "teacher-centered" education system, which the whole Turkish education system has been struggling with for decades. This issue, the need for a shift from teacher-centered to more student-centered learning in universities, was also highlighted and listed as an agenda for all higher education institutions under the umbrella of the European Higher education Arena-Bologna Process, in the "Trend Report V" prepared by Crosier, Purser, and Smidt (2007) through the European University Association. However, the main reasons for this type of tendency require further, more detailed research and analysis.

The second largest groups from each participant group differ in their number one choice. While student quality considered the number one choice by the second largest groups of both administrators and faculty members, the second largest group of student participants considers curriculum quality instead as their number one choice. The researcher's multinomial probit analysis followed, where the student group is used as the base group and curriculum quality is considered the base component, suggests that there is statistically significant evidence to support the relationship between participant academic position and their number-one choices among the three academic quality components. The researcher compares administrators to students and faculty members to students on their preference between student quality versus curriculum

quality and faculty quality versus curriculum quality. Findings reveal that academic administrators and faculty members are more likely than students to choose student quality over curriculum quality, and faculty quality over curriculum quality. It can be argued that students have more support than administrators, and that faculty members tend toward curriculum quality in defining the academic quality of TEPs.

Follow-up interviews, asking participants the ultimate question of why they consider their number one choice as the most important component in defining the academic quality of TEPs brought some crucial information to the findings of the quantitative data. One faculty member who chose faculty quality as the number one choice, indicated that

> ENG: First of all, I placed student quality at the end of my ranking list. Because, I believe that how much a student processed [assuming students as raw materials] totally depends on the faculty member who gives a course to the student and spends most of his time with him/her. In other words, a student may come to school with a high potential, however, if his/her professor does not create an environment for students to use his/her potential, student's potential begins to decrease overtime. Or, how much a student can develop his/her potential and use that potential totally depends on his/her professor in their class (F1).

> *TÜR: Bir kere, degerlendirmeye baktiginda ogrenciyi en sona koymusum. Cunku bize gelen ogrenciyi, ogrencinin ne kadar islendigi, tamamen onun dersine giren ve surekli onunla birlikte olan ogretim uyesine bagli oldugunu dusunuyorum. Yani ogrenci cok ust bir potansiyelle gelmis olabilir, bu potansiyeli kullanacagi firsatlari yaratmazsa eger derse giren hocasi, cocugun o potansiyeli bir sure sonra korelmeye baslar. Veya varolan elindeki potansiyeli ne kadar gelistirecegi, ne kadar kullanacagi, tamamen onun dersine giren hocayla dogrudan iliskili oldugunu dusunuyorum.*

Another faculty member, who also considers faculty quality as the most important component, argues that faculty qualifications play significant role. As he states

ENG: …yes, I definitely agree with this [faculty quality]. It is because they need to be from the field and well-educated. In other words, similarly to how much a teacher impact on his/her students in elementary education, it is almost doubled here [in TEPs] (F2).

TÜR: ...evet buna kesinlikle katiliyorum. Cunku alanindan insanlar olmali, ve hakikaten iyi yetismis olmali. Yani nasilki ogretmen ogrenci uzerinde bir ilkokul ogretmeni nasil etkiliyse ogretmenin etkisi ne kadarsa burdaki belki onun iki kati,

On the contrary, the third faculty member instead considers student quality as the most important quality factor. He explains in detail how student quality impacts the academic quality of TEPs:

ENG: Student quality means students are more eager, having outstanding students. Students with desire to do their job come to school. They are motivated more, do not challenge/constrain professors, programs, but motivate professors and push them to work. A quality student with a strong background who knows what he/she wants pushes professors, willy-nilly, to come prepared. Therefore, student quality is the most important factor that impacts and triggers these three components (F3).

TÜR: Ogrenci kalitesi demek, ilgili hevesli ogrenciler daha cok. Seckin ogrencilerin gelmesi. Meslegini yapmak uzere hedeflemis olan ogrenciler geliyor. Bunlar daha motive edilmis, hocayi fazla zorlamayan, bolumu fazla zorlamayan; zorlamadigi kadar da motive eden hocayi da calistiran...Kaliteli bir ogrenci, lat yapisi iyi bir ogrenci, ne istedigini bilen bir ogrencinin olmasi hocayi ister istemez hazirlikli getirmeye mecbur kiliyor. Dolayisiyla ucunu de etkileyen tetikleyen en onemli unsur ogrenci kalitesi.

However, one academic administrator opposes to the proposed statement that highlights the impact student quality has on academic quality of TEPs:

ENG: Of course [student quality] is related [to the academic quality], but it is not determinant. Thus, I do not agree with this that much. As an example from my own school [here], we accept students with very low scores [from National Entrance Exam]. Since it is faculty of education, students come with some level. But, we also have some students who cannot even write their names correctly [metaphor for low quality]. So, I believe faculty is more important here. [Curriculum] quality is also related. Nevertheless, our program curriculums are developed and standardized by the council of higher education [throughout the country—national-level curriculum]. I do not believe they are effective (A2).

TÜR: Tabiki bagli da, beliryeci sey degil. Yani hoca orda cok daha onemli bir unsur. O yuzden ben buna pek katilmiyorum diycem. Mesela bizden ornek vereyim, Aksaray univesitesine ogrenciler cok dusuk puanla geliyorlar. Ve egitim fakultesi oldugu icin belirli bir seviyenin ustunde ogrenciler geliyor. Ama gercekten matematigi bilmeyen, iste kendi adini soyadini yazamayan ogrenciler bile geliyor. Bence orda hoca cok daha onemli. [Curriculum] Evet bunla da alakali. Yine de bizim programlarimiz standart biliyorsun Turkiyede, YOK tarafindan belirlendi. Cok da etkili olmadigini dusunuyorum.

Another academic administrator expresses his opinion through discussing the relationship among the three components. Agreeing with the faculty quality as the most important component in academic quality, he indicates that:

ENG: Although student quality and curriculum quality are main factors, faculty is the one who implement them. If a faculty member has low quality and does not take the necessary measures for their implementation, the curriculum cannot be implemented, even if students have high potential and curriculum are well-prepared. Students will not be given the education for the desired education level. Thus, faculty quality is a crucial component (A1).

TÜR: Tabi ana unsur olarak her ne kadar ogrenci kalitesi olsa da, mufredat kaliteli olsa da bunu uygulayan ogretim uyesidir. Bir ogretim uyesi kaliteli olmazsa ve bunlarin uygulanmasinda gerekli tedbirleri almazsa, ogrecnilerin potansiyeli ne kadar yuksek olursa olsun, mufredat ne kadar iyi hazirlanmis olursa olsun, bu mufredat uygulanmayacaktir. Bu ogrencilere de istenen egitim duzeyine getirecek bir egitim verilemeyecektir. O yuzden ogretim uyesinin kalitesi onemli bir unsurdur.

The third academic administrator uses a metaphor that considers students as a raw material, and states that:

ENG: As I mentioned earlier, we receive a raw material. How do we process this material: with tools and human resources. If your human resources [faculty members] are not equipped well, we cannot produce a new human product, a new human by adding new materials. Therefore, they [faculty members] need to be equipped with knowledge, skills and strategies to lead and guide them [students] (A3).

TÜR: Elimize, biraz once ifade ettigim uzere, bir hammadde geliyor. Bu hammaddeyi neyle isleyecegiz, alet edevatla ve yine insan kaynagiyla isleyecegiz. Insan kaynaginiz yeterince donanimli degilse, bu hammaddeye yeni maddeler koyup ortaya yeni bir insan

urunu, urun olarak yeni bir insan cikaramayiz. O sebeple onlara yol gosterecek, klavuzluk edecek olanlarin bilgi, beceri ve stratejiler acisindan donanimli olmasi gerekiyor.

Academic administrators and faculty members mainly consider faculty quality as the most important factor impacting the academic quality of TEPs. Individual and focus group follow-up interviews with student participants reveal more diverse perspectives. A focus group interview with students from the first institution is the following, where one student starts the discussion with a metaphor:

ENG: Student 1: In my opinion, if we consider curriculum as the soil or the roots of a plant [student], [the quality of the program] depends on the plant's [students] nourishment. It means, the efficiency of the student and faculty member depends on the fertility of the soil [curriculum]. Thus, the most important thing is curriculum (S1).

TÜR: Bence mufredati bitkinin kokleri ya da toprak olarak dusunursek, yani o topraktan beslenmesine bagli. Yani toprak ne kadar verimli olursa ogretmen de ogrenci de o derecede verimli olacaktir…En onemli sey mufredat yani.

In responding to the first students' metaphor, the second student states that:

ENG: Student 2: Here is what I am thinking. For the fertility of the soil, I think it is first needs to be benefited from faculty members. It is because; in my opinion soil is faculty member. When topics are given to a faculty member, if the faculty member does not formalize them to the level that students understand, to the level of the class since each class has different levels, it is not going to be useful. That is why fertility [efficiency] comes from faculty (S2).

TÜR: Ben de surda sunu dusunuyorum. Hani topragin verimli olabilmesi icin once ogretmenlerden yararlanilmasi gerekiyor. Cunku toprak aslinda ogretmen…Bu konular verildiginde ogretmen bunu ogrencinin anlayabilecegi, sonucta her sinif farkli, her siniftaki durum farkli o duruma gore sekillendirmedigi surece mufredat yine hani bir ise yaramamis oluyor, o yuzden verim ogretmenden kaynaklaniyor.

The third student responses:

102

ENG: Student 3: I think it is curriculum, because varying curriculums for each class level build on each other in order students to reach to the sufficient level. At the end of the senior year, [students] need to reach to a sufficient level, I am thinking from that point. Of course, student and faculty as well are in the same direction, but I think curriculum is more important (S3).

TÜR: Bence mufredat, cunku universitede belli bir birikim olabilmesi icin farkli farkli mufredatlardan konu birikmeli yani yeterli seye ulasmali ogrenci 4. yilin sonunda mufredat acisindan gerekli [seviyeye] ulasmali o acidan ben oyle dusunuyorum. Tabiki ogretmen de ogrenci de dogru orantili olarak olacaktir ama yani bence C[mufredat] daha onemli.

The fourth student disagrees with that:

ENG: Student 4: I do not think it is like that, I think, from my friend's [student 1] example, if soil is the curriculum, a flower will be the student and the gardener will be the faculty member. Soil and flower together is nothing without the gardener. If the gardener does not give enough water and let the flower get enough sun according to its specifications, neither soil nor the flower does not work that way (S4).

TÜR: Bence oyle degil, cunku topragi, hani arkadasimin ornegine gore toprak mufredatsa, cicek ogrenci olur, ona bakan bahcivan da ogretmendir. Eger toprak olsun ogrenci olsun ikisi bir arada hani bahcivan olmadan hicbir ise yaramaz. Bahcivan yeterli suyunu, yeterli gunesini verebilecegi bir yerde tutmazsa, ondan sonra cicegin ozelligine gore davranmazsa ikisi de bir ise yaramaz.

The last student in group discussion summarizes the topic by equally highlighting two of the components:

ENG: Student 5: Yes, everything is on faculty and curriculum.

TÜR: Evet ogretmen ve mufredatta bitiyor ikisi de onemli.

It is obvious that student group discussions revolve around the curriculum and faculty quality, ignoring the student quality to some extent. The metaphor example—where curriculum, student, and faculty are represented by soil, plant/flower, and gardener respectively—well presents the student perspectives on their number one factor for academic quality.

Another student from an individual interview proposes some similar arguments by considering the faculty quality as her number one choice. She indicates that:

ENG: Student 6: Here, curriculum is of course important as well. They [faculty and curriculum quality] are related responses, but I think the quality of TEP depends on the faculty who teach there. It is because, I believe, freethinking is an important factor to be a teacher, so faculty members' [in TEPs] mind opening approaches will increase the success and [quality] more.

TÜR: Burda tabiki de mufredat da cok onemli. Yani aslinda birbiriyle iliskili olan cevaplardi ama ogretmen yetistirme programinin kalitesinin orda ders veren ogretim uyeleri ile de iliskili oldugunu dusunuyorum. Cunku ozgur dusunme ortaminin iyi bir ogretmen olma konusunda cok onemli bir etken uldugunu dusunuyorum o yuzden ordaki hocalarin zihinleri acacak bir yaklasim icinde olmasi bu basariyi ve seyi daha cok artiracagini dusunuyorum.

This student also points to faculty quality along with appointing an equivalent value to curriculum quality as the earlier students. But, interestingly, she assigns a different role to a faculty member in her discussion.

The last student, who considers curriculum quality, instead argues that:

ENG: Because, I think, the performance of both student and faculty member is around the curriculum, it means, they increase or decrease depending on the way curriculum shapes; it is efficient or not. Curriculum is very important, definitely very important. Especially in Turkey, curriculum related, curriculum development related programs and experts are inadequate, for that reason, we have been experiencing a lot of problems in education. As I said, curriculum is very important, because what student receives and what faculty members give totally depends on this [curriculum].

TÜR: Cunku bence ogrencinin de ogretmenin de performansi daha cok mufredat etrafinda, yani mufredatin belirledigi sekilde artar azalir. Verimlidir ya da degildir. Yani mufredat cok onemli, kesinlikle cok onemli. Ozellikle Turkiyede de mufredatla ilgili, mufredat gelistirme ile ilgili program yetersizligi, uzman yetersizligi noktasinda gercekten yine eksiklikler var ve bu nedenle yine egitimle ilgili cok sorun yasiyoruz. Dedigim gibi mufredat cok onemli cunku ogrencinin aldigi sey, ogretmenin de verdigi sey tamamen buna bagli.

She summarizes the point of those who argue the curriculum quality has the most impact on the academic quality of TEPs.

Given the student interviews and group discussions that lie between curriculum and faculty quality, the qualitative section is quite explanatory and represent the student findings from the quantitative section very well.

5.3   CONCLUSIONS

Higher education institutions around the world are under a big pressure and scrutiny from every corner of society and government, given that colleges and universities are assigned crucial roles in national development and economic growth. In this challenging environment, teacher education programs attract special attention from the public and government due to TEPs' role in providing teachers for the nations' schools. Much of the scrutiny comes from the accountability perspective, questioning these programs' failure to produce quality teachers while spending a huge portion of public money, especially the ones that are classified as public.

In the Turkish context, most of the attention is on the quality of these programs and the quality of teachers who graduated from these institutions. Given the strong, complex relationship between teacher quality, quality teaching and teacher education quality, all of the discussions around the lack quality of teaching and learning in PK-12 schools, low student performances in national-level exams, and criticisms of unqualified teachers in the education system direct most of the attention to the quality of TEPs in Turkey. While, everybody in the community has something to say about the quality of the education system in general and the quality of the TEPs in particular, there is no clear, robust definition of the term "quality" that every individual can

agree with, as highlighted by the literature. The lack of consensus on definition renders efforts to respond to varying stakeholder groups' request for quality improvement, accountability and assurance nonfunctional.

At this point, and as suggested by the general research design proposed here, different stakeholder groups may have different perceptions, and depending on that perspective, their own definitions of quality need to be voiced in the discussion. From this perspective, this dissertation, fulfills only one part of that process: raising the voice of key academic stakeholders, who are considered the most urgent group by the researcher, as they are also placed in the center of the stakeholder model as a nucleus by Theall (2002).

It is important to note here that key academic stakeholders, regardless of their position, tend to have more of an academic perspective in their definition of general TEP quality. However, how they embrace that academic perspective differs to some extent since participants show both similarities and differences in their tendencies toward the three academic quality components, student quality, faculty quality and curriculum quality, and the impacts these components have on the academic quality of TEPs.

5.3.1 Recommendations for Policy and Future Research

This dissertation looks at key academic stakeholder perspectives on TEP quality and generates findings that can be useful to both teacher education policy and literature. In the following sections, recommendations for higher education and teacher education policy are discussed, as well as suggestions for future research.

5.3.1.1 Higher Education and Teacher Education Policy

This dissertation was an initial step to bring to the attention of both policy makers and national level higher education bodies in Turkey that fact of how heterogenous the stakeholder groups are in terms of their priorities, expectations and needs regarding higher education, as well as their perception of the definition of higher education quality. Key academic stakeholders, considered to be the most important group and also the most influential in the ongoing TEP practices, are distant from the decision making (Theall, 2002). In this situation, research was urgent and needed in order to initiate the process of informing and educating key politicians and literature about the perceptions of this specific group of stakeholders, whose voices were ignored for so long in policy making.

As findings indicate, the majority of the key academic stakeholders consider academic quality the most important perspective in defining the quality of Turkish public TEPs, almost contrary to the current practice and definition adapted/influenced by the service industry practices. Policymakers and TEP administrators need to give more attention to different perspectives and the voices of different stakeholder groups. Higher education institutions need to incorporate more academic stakeholders in decision making for their daily operations. In responding to calls for creating accreditation and quality assurance mechanisms for higher education, as well as efforts for aligning the higher education system with the European allies, the Turkish council of higher education and policymakers also need to consider more perspectives on these quality related efforts, especially those from key academic stakeholder groups whose influence in daily operations are enormous, and rescue these quality improvement and assurance mechanisms that are stuck within the boundaries of the service industry perspective spread widely across the country.

Findings also indicate that faculty quality is considered the most crucial component in defining academic quality by majority of the participant groups, and its significance is already highlighted by the literature (Volkwein, 1986; Watts, 1984), yet the Turkish higher education system has no mechanism for the assurance of faculty quality, and there is no tenure-type promotion mechanism in Turkey. Given this important role, both the council of higher education and HEIs need to establish such mechanisms to ensure quality of their faculty resource. However, in doing this, it is also important to follow the advice and stay away from the pitfalls outlined in the first policy recommendation by the researcher and in the discussions of scholars (Moore, 1987; Murray, 2001; Zeichner, 2006) in the literature.

While all three stakeholder groups agree that the academic perspective was the most important in defining the quality of a TEP/HEI, they differ in terms of which component was most crucial in their definition of academic quality. Findings indicate that students credit curriculum quality as a crucial component of the academic quality of a TEP. However, faculty members and academic administrators show less interest in curriculum quality, which was well-explained by an academic administrator during a follow-up interview when he noted that TEP curriculum in Turkey is ineffective and useless since it is created and mandated by the national higher education structure. It is also criticized in literature that faculty members have no power to change even a course name, let alone the content of a course (Guven, 2008). It is crucial to suggest here that there should be some level of flexibility in the design of teacher education curriculum so that faculty members can create new courses, and so that students can participate in their own academic development with more flexible course options instead of national-level mandated TEP curriculum. This suggestion is valid and crucial for all other fields in higher education.

In analyzing participant perspectives on academic quality components, it is also found that faculty members and academic administrators consider student quality one of the most important components of academic quality. However, it is a reality in Turkey that student admission to higher education (selection and placement) are administered by the central body in the higher education system based on their national-level exam scores, with no exception for TEPs. There is no specific standard for students entering the teaching profession, which is also criticized by Goodlad (1991) in the literature. Boyd et al. (2009) and Young (1995) also suggest that attracting more qualified candidates into the profession is a crucial component for sustaining the quality of TEPs. At this point, the Turkish teacher education system needs at least some additional mechanisms that give TEPs the ability to choose their students, since access to higher education in Turkey is still an issue, and removing the central student selection and placement mechanism without bringing alternatives can paralyze the whole higher education system. However, this study will not avoid informing policy makers about the need for change to the current student selection and placement mechanism, the effectiveness of which is questioned by every segment of society, with an effective alternative that will respond to various stakeholder expectations. This is requested not only for the teacher education profession, but also for the other fields of higher education.

In sum, one of the main findings this dissertation highlights is that there is a tendency among the key academic stakeholders, who are the nucleus of the higher education system, towards the academic perspective on the definition of general quality of TEPs in particular, and the general quality of higher education as a whole. It also shows that the academic perspective defines quality in terms of the ideas of value addedness and student transformation that are built on the enrichment and empowerment of students through knowledge and skill development, as

well as student participation in their academic development in higher education. This runs contrary to common beliefs and understanding that stem from quality practices adapted from industry and embraced by key administrators, policy makers, and government officials in the higher education arena. Another very crucial finding that needs to be carefully reviewed by the policy makers, administrators, and government officials is that finding a concensus on the definition of such a slippery term like "quality" is almost impossible, as highlighted by the literature and re-validated by the findings of this dissertation, even within groups of participants who are close in their environment and therefore assumed to have same perception of quality. Findings indicated that stakeholder definitions of quality are very specific and personal, and it changes even among sub-groups, although they agree on the perception of academic quality. In other words, while all participant groups preferred academic perspective over other two perspectives, student participants differ from their facuty members and academic administrators in terms of what factors have the most crucial impact on academic quality of a program, which is curriculum.

5.3.1.2 Future Research

Since Turkish literature lacks comparative studies that examine similarities and differences among stakeholder groups in their definition of quality, this dissertation, as one of the first studies attempting to fill that gap in the literature, proposes some recommendations and suggests different directions for future research.

This dissertation proposes a general stakeholder model specifically designed for higher education institutions that can be used by every program and field in the higher education system in their efforts in the search for a definition of quality. It is suggested here is that this model will

be significant in providing a general framework for the definition of quality for the higher education sector. Since this framework is developed based only on individual-level stakeholder groups, integration of the organizational-level stakeholders will be another direction for future research.

In examing individual-level stakeholder perceptins, only key academic stakeholder perspectives on general quality and academic quality are discussed in this dissertation, along with the similarities and differences between the groups. There are two suggestions that come out from this standpoint. First, the perceptions of other individual-level stakeholder groups also need to be examined. Second, group member characteristics may influence participant perspectives, so it is suggested here that in-depth group analysis be conducted with each participant group. Specifically, faculty member academic position (full professor, associate professor, assistant professor, or other), academic administrator years of experience, student class level (freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior), and their perspectives on general and academic quality should be examined.

The findings reported the analysis of participant academic positons and the three components of academic quality: student, faculty, and curriculum qualities. However, participant perspectives on the details (indicators) of each quality component were not reported. Inter- and intra-group analyses of these details would also be helpful in filling the gap in the literature.

This dissertation also integrated a qualitative data analysis section. As quantitative findings indicate and qualitative findings support, faculty quality is considered one of the most important components in defining the academic quality of TEPs. In other words, faculty has enormous impact on the quality these programs possess, which was also investigated and

highlighted in literature over time (Moore, 1987; Murray, 2001; Watts, 1984; Volksvein, 1986; Zeichner, 2006). The researcher's only attempt to explain this tendency is teacher/faculty driven education, also called teacher-centered education, is still the most common practice in Turkish HEIs. This argument may also explain students' lack of interest in the impact student quality has on academic quality. In the current political context, where the shift from teacher-centered to more student-centered education practices for all HEIs in Europe, including Turkish universities, is highly recommended by the European Higher Education Arena officials for the development of European higher education system, the relationship between teacher-centered education and the role and quality attributed to faculty members on academic program quality should be investigated. On the other hand, while faculty quality is attributed a great deal of importance by the participants, the issue of ambiguity of faculty quality indicators, certification requirements and standards pointed out in the literature (Moore, 1987; Murray, 2001; Watts, 1984) is still valid and needs to be investigated from the stakeholder perspectives in a comparative way in order to find what faculty quality indicators are stakeholders value.

Findings also indicate that academic administrators and faculty members have more positive attitudes than students regarding the effects of student quality in defining the academic quality of TEPs. The reasons and motivations that lie behind student lack interest in the impact student quality can have on academic TEP quality in comparison to faculty and academic administrators is not analyzed here, and requires further research to investigate the causes and consequences of this student tendency.

Overall, this study does not represent the entirety of Turkish public TEPs due to its sampling. More detailed study with larger representative group of participants is recommended for future research in order to make generalizations.

5.3.2 Concluding Thoughts

The term quality is slippery and difficult to define, especially in the sector of higher education, where every individual stakeholder group holds their own perception and definition of quality based on their needs, expectations and priorities. In such a system, attempts to find a concensus on the definition are a useless waste of time, and enforcing/compelling the system with a single definition adapted from an irrelevant system is even more hazardous. This is also one of the main sources of the problems in today's higher education systems. One reasonable attempt to solve quality related issues in higher education can be operationalizing sub-level quality definitions rather than an overall definition for a system, which could both respond to the needs, expectations and priorities of stakeholders at their levels, and cooperate with the other definitions with different levels of daily operation. However, this strategy is in need of comprehensive, well-designed research to investigate the feasibility, applicability and efficiency of such a mechanism in today's higher education system.

QUESTIONNAIRE

ENG

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Demographic information

1) A) Class Year (**Students Only**): Freshman___ Sophomore___ Junior___ Senior___

   B) Position (**Faculty Only**): Full Prof.___ Associate Prof.___ Assistant Prof.___

   Others___

   C) Number of years in your current position (**A. Administrators Only**): ___

2) Gender: M___ F___

3) Field Preference on national placement exam (**Students only**): Was this program your

   first, second, third, or more than third major in your national exam placement election

   list.

   1.__ 2.__ 3.__ 4.≤ __

4) School location (city)_____

5) (**Students only**): Where did you spend most of your life, before entering the university:

   Village ___Town ___ City ___ Province ___

General Questions

- **Question 6a:** In these items, statements refer to attributes that influence the general quality of a teacher education program (TEP). Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about the **general quality** of a TEP.

	GENERAL QUALITY OF TEPs	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A	The main determinant of the quality of a TEP is the program's position on national or international ranking tables.				
B	The quality of a TEP depends on the extent to which its resources (money and infrastructure) are used effectively.				
C	The quality of a TEP depends on its capacity to enhance students' abilities, skills and knowledge.				
D	The quality of a TEP depends on its capacity to empower students through giving them the opportunity to play active roles in decision making in their own academic development.				

- **Question 6b:** Please rank the statements above (A, B, C, D) based on their importance level from 1 to 4, where 1 is most important and 3 is least important.

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	

- **Question 7a:** In this question, statements indicate what attributes influence academic quality of a TEP. Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on the **academic quality** of a TEP.

	ACADEMIC QUALITY OF TEPs	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A	The quality of a TEP depends mainly on the quality of its students.				
B	The quality of a TEP depends mainly on the quality of its faculty.				
C	The quality of a TEP depends mainly on the quality of its curriculum.				

- **Question 7b:** Please rank the statements above (A, B, C) based on their importance level from 1 to 3, where 1 is most important and 3 is least important.

1.	
2.	
3.	

- **Question 8a:** In this question, statements indicate attributes that influence Student Quality. Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on the student quality in a TEP.

	STUDENT QUALITY	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A	TEPs with a large proportion of students who graduate from teacher high schools are of higher quality than those with a large proportion of students who graduated from a regular, vocational, Anatolian or science high school.				
B	TEPs with a large proportion of students who graduated from private high schools have a higher quality than those with large proportions of students who graduated from public high schools.				
C	The higher the average student scores are on the national entrance exam, the higher the quality of the TEP.				
D	Quality of a TEP is determined by students' ability to earn basic and advanced teaching skills.				

- **Question 8b:** Please rank the statements above (A, B, C, D) based on their importance level from 1 to 4, where 1 is most important and 4 is least important.

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	

- **Question 9a:** In this question, statements indicate what attributes are most influential on Faculty Quality. Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on the faculty quality in a TEP.

	FACULTY QUALITY	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A	Faculty members' content knowledge has a positive impact on the quality of their teaching.				
B	Faculty members' research experiences have a positive impact on the quality of their teaching.				
C	Faculty members' years of experience in teaching have a positive influence on the quality of their teaching (i.e., more years of experience means more faculty quality).				
D	Faculty members' communication skills have a positive impact on the quality of their teaching.				
E	Faculty members' familiarity with technology has a positive impact on their teaching.				
F	The more integrated faculty members are in students' field experiences, the better the quality of the experience students get from their field-based education.				

- **Question 9b:** Please rank the statements above (A, B, C, D, E, F) based on their importance level from 1 to 6, where 1 is most important and 6 is least important.

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	

- **Question 10a:** In this question, statements indicate what attributes are most influential on curriculum quality. Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on the curriculum quality in a TEP.

	CURRICULUM QUALITY	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A	Program curricula should include sufficient number of **subject matter knowledge** courses.				
B	Program curricula should include sufficient number of courses that focus on **pedagogical knowledge** (including pedagogic content knowledge).				
C	Program curricula should include sufficient number of **field experience** credits and activities in order for students to link theory and practice.				

- **Question 10b:** Please rank the statements above (A, B, C) based on their importance level from 1 to 3, where 1 is most important and 3 is least important.

1.	
2.	
3.	

TÜR

<div align="center">**ANKET**</div>

Genel Bilgiler:

1)   **A)** Bulunduğunuz Sınıf (**Sadece öğrenciler**): 1.Sınıf ___ 2.Sınıf___ 3.Sınıf___ 4.Sınıf___

   B) Bulunduğunuz kadro (**Sadece öğretim üyeleri**):Profesör___ Doçent___ Yard.Doç.___

   Diğer___

   C) Şu anki aktif görevinizde kaçıncı yılınızdasınız (**Sadece Akademik yöneticiler**): Yil___

   Ay___

2)   Cinsiyetiniz: Bay___ Bayan___

3) Öğrenci yerleştirme sistemindeki alan tercihiniz (**Sadece öğrenciler**): Üniversite sınavından

   sonra, yaptığınız tercihleri göz önünde bulundurduğunuzda, öğretmenlik mesleği, seçtiğiniz

   alanlar içinde kaçıncı sıradaydı 1.__ 2.__ 3.__ 4.≤ __

4) Okulunuzun bulunduğu şehir_____

5) (**Sadece öğrenciler**): Üniversite öncesi hayatınızı göz önüne aldığınızda, yaşamınızın büyük bir

   bölümünü   daha   çok   aşağıdaki   yerleşim   yerlerinden   hangisinde   geçirdiniz?

   Köy___Kasaba___İlçe___İl___

Genel sorular

- **Soru 6a:** Bu soruda, aşağıdaki ifadelerden (bakış açılarından) her biri, öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının **genel kalitesine** etki eden özelliklerden bir tanesine vurgu yapmaktadır. Lütfen, A,B,C,D ifadelerinden her birisi için, 1,2,3, veya 4 seçeneklerinden size uygun olanını "X" ile işaretleyiniz.

	ÖĞRETMEN YETİŞTİRME PROGRAMLARININ GENEL KALİTESİ	1 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	2 Katılıyorum	3 Katılmıyorum	4 Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
A	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının kalitesinin en önemli göstergesi, o programın ulusal veya uluslararası sıralamalardaki yeridir.				
B	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının kalitesi, o programın kaynaklarını (para ve altyapısını) ne ölçüde etkili ve verimli kullandığına bağlıdır.				
C	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının kalitesi, öğrencilerin yetenek, beceri ve bilgilerini arttırma ve geliştirme konusunda o programın ne kadar kapasitesi olduğuna bağlıdır.				
D	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının kalitesi, öğrencilerine, kendi akademik gelişimleri ile ilgili kararlarda etkin rol alma firsati vererek onlarin güçlenmesini saglama konusunda, o programın ne kadar kapasitesi olduğuna bağlıdır.				

- **Soru 6b:** Lütfen, yukarıdaki ifadeleri (A, B, C, D) önem sırasına göre, en çok önemli (1.) den en az önemliye (4.) doğru aşağıdaki kutulara sıralayınız.

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	

- **Soru 7a:** Bu soruda, aşağıdaki ifadelerden (bakış açılarından) her biri, öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının **akademik kalitesine** etki eden özelliklerden bir tanesine vurgu yapmaktadır. Lütfen, A,B,C ifadelerinden her birisi için, 1,2,3, veya 4 seçeneklerinden size uygun olanını "X" ile işaretleyiniz.

	ÖĞRETMEN YETİŞTİRME PROGRAMLARININ AKADEMİK KALİTESİ	1 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	2 Katılıyorum	3 Katıl<u>mı</u>yorum	4 Kesinlikle Katıl<u>mı</u>yorum
A	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının kalitesi, daha çok o programda okuyan öğrencilerin kalitesine bağlıdır.				
B	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının kalitesi, daha çok o programda ders veren öğretim üyelerinin kalitesine bağlıdır.				
C	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının kalitesi, daha çok o programın öğrencilerine sunduğu öğretim (müfredat) programının kalitesine bağlıdır.				

- **Soru 7b:** Lütfen, yukarıdaki ifadeleri (A, B, C) önem sırasına göre, en çok önemli (1.) den en az önemliye (3.) doğru aşağıdaki kutulara sıralayınız.

1.	
2.	
3.	

- **Soru 8a:** Bu soruda, aşağıdaki ifadelerden (bakış açılarından) her biri, **öğrenci kalitesine** etki eden özelliklerden bir tanesine vurgu yapmaktadır. Lütfen, A,B,C,D ifadelerinden her birisi için, 1,2,3, veya 4 seçeneklerinden size uygun olanını "X" ile işaretleyiniz.

	ÖĞRENCİ KALİTESİ	1 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	2 Katılıyorum	3 Katıl<u>mı</u>yorum	4 Kesinlikle Katıl<u>mı</u>yorum
A	Öğrencilerinin büyük bir kısmı "anadolu öğretmen lisesi" mezunu olan öğretmen yetiştirme programları, öğrencilerinin büyük bir kısmı diğer lise (fen, anadolu, düz, teknik ve meslek) mezunu olan programlara göre daha kalitelidir.				
B	Öğrencilerinin büyük bir kısmı özel okul mezunu olan öğretmen yetiştirme programları, öğrencilerinin büyük bir kısmı devlet okulu mezunu olan programlara göre daha kalitelidir.				
C	Öğrencilerin üniversite giriş sınavındaki puanları ile öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının kalitesi arasında doğru orantı vardır.Bir programın öğrencilerinin ortalama üniversite giriş sınavı puanları ne kadar yüksekse, o programın kalitesi de o oranda yüksektir.				
D	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının kalitesi, o programın öğrencilerinin temel ve gelişmiş öğretme becerilerini kazanma yeteneğine bağlıdır.				

- **Soru 8b:** Lütfen, yukarıdaki ifadeleri (A, B, C, D) önem sırasına göre, en çok önemli (1) den en az önemliye (4) doğru aşağıdaki kutulara sıralayınız.

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	

- **Soru 9a:** Bu soruda, aşağıdaki ifadelerden (bakış açılarından) her biri, **öğretim üyelerinin kalitesine** etki eden özelliklerden bir tanesine vurgu yapmaktadır. Lütfen, A,B,C,D,E,F ifadelerinden her birisi için, 1,2,3, veya 4 seçeneklerinden size uygun olanını "X" ile işaretleyiniz.

	ÖĞRETİM ÜYESİ KALİTESİ	1 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	2 Katılıyorum	3 Katılmıyorum	4 Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
A	Öğretim üyelerinin "içerik bilgisi", onların ders öğretim kalitesine pozitif yönde etki eder. ***İçerik bilgisi:*** *Genel anlamla anlatılan konuyu bilme olarak tanımlanabilir.*				
B	Öğretim üyelerinin "bilimsel araştırma tecrübesi", onların ders öğretim kalitesine pozitif yönde etki eder.				
C	Öğretim üyelerinin "ders öğretim faaliyetlerindeki tecrübesi", onların ders öğretim kalitesine pozitif yönde etki eder. Bu görüşe göre, öğretim faaliyetlerinde daha fazla harcanan yıl, daha çok kalite demektir.				
D	Öğretim üyelerinin "iletişim berecileri", onların ders öğretim kalitesine pozitif yönde etki eder.				
E	Öğretim üyelerinin "teknolojiye olan yakınlığı (bilgisi)", onların ders öğretim kalitesine pozitif yönde etki eder.				
F	Öğretim üyelerinin "öğrencilerin okul deneyimi (staj) faaliyetlerindeki etkin katılımı" ile, öğrencilerin o deneyimden kazanacağı tecrübelerin kalitesi arasında doğru orantı vardır. Öğretim üyeleri okul deneyimi faaliyetlerine ne kadar çok katilirsa, öğrencilerin o deneyimden kazanımlarının kalitesi o oranda artar.				

- **Soru 9b:** Lütfen, yukarıdaki ifadeleri (A, B, C, D, E, F) önem sırasına göre, en çok önemli (1.) den en az önemliye (6.) doğru aşağıdaki kutulara sıralayınız.

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	

- **Soru 10a:** Bu soruda, aşağıdaki ifadelerden (bakış açılarından) her biri, **öğretim (müfredat) programı** kalitesine etki eden özelliklerden bir tanesine vurgu yapmaktadır. Lütfen, A,B,C ifadelerinden her birisi için, 1,2,3, veya 4 seçeneklerinden size uygun olanını "X" ile işaretleyiniz.

	ÖĞRETİM (MÜFREDAT) PROGRAMI KALİTESİ	1 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	2 Katılıyorum	3 Katılmıyorum	4 Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
A	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının öğretim (müfredat) programı, yeterli miktarda **konu alan bilgisi** dersleri içermelidir.				
B	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının öğretim müfredatı, yeterli miktarda **pedagojik (alan) bilgi** dersleri içermelidir.				
C	Bir öğretmen yetiştirme programının öğretim müfredatı, öğrencilerin teori ile pratiği birleştirmelerine fırsat vermek için, yeterli miktarda **okul deneyimi (staj) kredisi ve aktivitesi** içermelidir.				

- **Soru 10b:** Lütfen, yukarıdaki ifadeleri (A, B, C) önem sırasına göre, en çok önemli (1.) den en az önemliye (3.) doğru aşağıdaki kutulara sıralayınız.

1.	
2.	
3.	

PARTICIPANT CHARACTERISTICS

1. Academic Administrators

SCHOOL LOCATION	YEARS OF EXPERIENCE (in Months)				
	0-36	37-72	73-108	109 AND ABOVE	TOTAL
C. Anatolia Large	5 29.41%	5 29.41%	4 23.53%	3 17.65%	17 100.00%
C. Anatolia Small	3 50.00%	3 50.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	6 100.00%
Marmara Large	2 33.33%	1 16.67%	1 16.67%	2 33.33%	6 100.00%
Marmara Small	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	2 100.00%	2 100.00%
TOTAL	10 32.26%	9 29.03%	5 16.13%	7 22.58%	31 100.00%

	YEARS OF EXPERIENCE (in Months)				
GENDER	0-36	37-72	73-108	109 & above	**TOTAL**
Male	7 31.82%	5 22.73%	4 18.18%	6 27.27%	22 100.00%
Female	3 33.33%	4 44.44%	1 11.11%	1 11.11%	9 100.00%
TOTAL	10 32.26%	9 29.03%	5 16.13%	7 22.58%	31 100.00%

	SCHOOL LOCATION				
GENDER	C. Anatolia Large	C. Anatolia Small	Marmara Large	Marmara Small	**TOTAL**
Male	14 63.64%	4 18.18%	3 13.64%	2 4.55%	22 100.00%
Female	3 33.33%	2 22.22%	3 33.33%	1 11.11%	9 100.00%
TOTAL	17 54.84%	6 19.35%	6 19.35%	2 6.45%	31 100.00%

2. Faculty Members

SCHOOL LOCATION	ACADEMIC POSITION				
	Full Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Others (Dr.)	TOTAL
C. Anatolia Large	8 22.22%	11 30.56%	13 36.11%	4 11.11%	36 100.00%
C. Anatolia Small	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	6 66.67%	3 33.33%	9 100.00%
Marmara Large	1 3.70%	4 14.81%	14 51.85%	8 29.63%	27 100.00%
Marmara Small	0 0.00%	1 12.50%	5 62.50%	2 25.00%	8 100.00%
TOTAL	9 11.25%	16 20.00%	38 47.50%	17 21.25%	80 100.00%

GENDER	ACADEMIC POSITION				
	Full Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Others (Dr.)	TOTAL
Male	4 9.30%	8 18.60%	24 55.81%	7 16.28%	43 100.00%
Female	5 13.51%	8 21.62%	14 37.84%	10 27.03%	37 100.00%
TOTAL	9 11.25%	16 20.00%	38 47.50%	17 21.25%	80 100.00%

| GENDER | SCHOOL LOCATION | | | | |
	C. Anatolia Large	C. Anatolia Small	Marmara Large	Marmara Small	TOTAL
Male	20 46.51%	5 11.63%	15 34.88%	3 6.98%	43 100.00%
Female	16 43.24%	4 10.81%	12 32.43%	5 13.51%	37 100.00%
TOTAL	36 45.00%	9 11.25%	27 33.75%	8 10.00%	80 100.00%

3. Students

| SCHOOL LOCATION | CLASS LEVEL | | | | |
	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	TOTAL
C. Anatolia Large	50 25.51%	43 21.94%	36 18.37%	67 34.18%	196 100.00%
C. Anatolia Small	52 37.41%	25 17.99%	25 17.99%	37 26.62%	139 100.00%
Marmara Large	27 24.32%	37 33.33%	15 13.51%	32 28.83%	111 100.00%
Marmara Small	37 30.08%	31 25.20%	33 26.83%	22 17.89%	123 100.00%
TOTAL	166 29.17%	136 23.90%	109 19.16%	158 27.77%	569 100.00%

	ACADEMIC POSITION				
GENDER	Freshman	Freshman	Freshman	Freshman	Freshman
Male	40 31.01%	25 19.38%	21 16.28%	43 33.33%	129 100.00%
Female	126 28.83%	111 25.40%	88 20.14%	112 25.63%	437 100.00%
TOTAL	166 29.33%	136 24.03%	109 19.26%	155 27.39%	566 100.00%

	SCHOOL LOCATION				
GENDER	C. Anatolia Large	C. Anatolia Small	Marmara Large	Marmara Small	**TOTAL**
Male	45 34.88%	42 32.56%	27 20.93%	15 11.63%	129 100.00%
Female	148 33.87%	97 22.20%	84 19.22%	108 24.71%	437 100.00%
TOTAL	193 34.10%	139 24.56%	111 19.61%	123 21.73%	566 100.00%

APPENDIX C

IRB EXEMPT APPROVAL LETTER

3500 Fifth Avenue

Pittsburgh, PA 15213

(412) 383-1480

(412) 383-1508 (fax)

http://www.irb.pitt.edu

University of Pittsburgh
Institutional Review Board

<u>Memorandum</u>

To: Enes GOK

From: Christopher Ryan PhD, Vice Chair

Date: 6/4/2012

IRB#:   PRO12030540

Subject: PERCEIVED QUALITY OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN TURKEY: BASIC ISSUES AND THEIR APPLICATION TO TURKISH PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

The above-referenced project has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board. Based on the information provided, this project meets all the necessary criteria for an exemption, and is hereby designated as "exempt" under section
45 CFR 46.101(b)(2).

APPENDIX D

CONSENT SCRIPT

ENG

Dear Administrators, faculty members and students,

This research study is designated to collect data for a doctoral dissertation. Quality and quality in education are the subjects of discussions in different places and research studies lately. Current literature suggests that the definition of the term quality may differ from individual to individual and from institution to institution. Specifically, considering the important role of faculties of education in training teachers for all education systems, one can understand the significance of the perceived definition of quality in faculties of education. Therefore, this study focuses on 4-year teacher education programs in faculties of education in Turkish public higher education institutions.

For that reason, I will be surveying (approximately 10 minutes) and interviewing (approximately 30 minutes) with the key academic stakeholders in teacher education programs in Turkish public higher education institutions. If you are willing to participate, my questionnaire will ask about your background (e.g., gender, class year/years of experience/academic title), as well as about your perception on the quality of teacher education programs. The study is voluntary and there is no any compensation for your participation. This study is entirely anonymous and your responses will not be identifiable. All of your information including your responses is confidential, and your data will be kept in a locked cabinet. Again your participation is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study any time. This research study is being conducted by Enes Gok, who can be reached at eng13@pitt.edu, if you have any questions.

NOTE: The purpose of this study is to seek a response to the following general research question: How do key academic stakeholders define/perceive the quality of a teacher education program. This questionnaire **does not** ask you to rate the quality of your current program, school or institution; rather it **seeks** your opinion on "how do you describe a quality teacher education program in general".

TÜR

Değerli yöneticiler, öğretim üyeleri ve öğrenciler,

Bu anket, doktora tezi çalışmalarına veri toplama amacı ile hazırlanmıştır. Kalite ve eğitimde kalite anlayışı son zamanlarda farklı ortam ve çalışmalarda sıkça gündeme gelmektedir. Bu çalışmalar göstermiştir ki, kalitenin tanımı kişiden kişiye ve kurumdan kuruma farklılıklar gösterebilmektedir. Özellikle eğitim fakültelerinin öğretmen yetiştirme misyonu dolayısıyla bütün eğitim sitemini etkileme gücü göz önüne alındığında, eğitim fakültelerindeki kalite anlayışının önemi daha iyi anlaşılabilir. Eğitim fakültelerinin öğretmen yetiştiren programlarında "**Temel Akademik Paydaşlar**" diye tanımladığımız (akademik yöneticiler, öğretim üyeleri ve öğrencilerden oluşan) gruplar, bu programlarda verilen hizmetlerden en çok etkilenen ve bu hizmetlere en çok etki eden gruplar olmalarına rağmen, bu gruplar, genelde görüşleri en çok göz ardı edilen gruplar arasında yer almaktadır. Dolayısıyla bu çalışma, Türkiye'deki devlet üniversiteleri bünyesidenki eğitim fakültelerinin 4 yıllık öğretmen yetiştirme programlarına odaklanmıştır ve **temel akademik paydaşların** görüşlerini hedeflemektedir.

Bu amaçla, bu anket uygulaması , her biri ortalama 1 dakika sürecek toplam 10 sorudan oluşmaktadır (toplam 10 dk). Araştırmaya katılım tamamen **gönüllülük** esasına dayanmaktadır ve herhangibir ücret önerilmemektedir. <u>Bu ankette, sizin kimliğinizi ortaya çıkaracak herhangi bir öğe</u> **bulunmamaktadır** (isim, soyisim, okul, iletişim bilgileri etc.). Anketten elde edilecek veriler, çalışma süresince kilitli bir dolapta muhafaza edilecektir. Çalışmaya katılmama veya herhangi bir anda çalışmadan çıkma hakkına sahipsiniz. Bu çalışma Enes Gök tarafından yapılmaktadır. Sorularınız için kendisine eng13@pitt.edu adresi aracılığı ile ulaşabilirsiniz.

NOT: Bu ankette size yöneltilen soruların amacı, *"Akademik yöneticiler, öğretim üyeleri ve öğrenciler genel anlamda kaliteli bir öğretmen yetiştirme programını nasıl tanımlar?"* sorusuna cevap aramaktadır. Bu anket, şu anda bulunduğunuz program/bölüm/fakülte veya üniversiteyi kalite açısından değerlendirmenizle **kesinlikle ilgilenmemektedir. Aksine**, sizin "genel anlamda kaliteli bir öğretmen yetiştirme programı nasıl olmalıdır" görüşünüzü amaçlamaktadır.

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