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Fourth Druk Gyalpo on the occasion
of his 60th birth anniversary**

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Centre for Educational Research & Development
Paro College of Education

RABSEL

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CERD has made a significant move forward by going for a blind peer review process of its manuscripts beginning this issue. We would like to extend our sincere gratitude to the following individuals for helping us blind review the manuscripts for this issue.

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Editorial

The Centre for Educational Research and Development (CERD) is pleased to publish the 15th volume of RABSEL after an absence of almost four years since the 14th volume in 2010. With this volume, we would like to rededicate our energy and determination in bringing educational research to all our readers and researchers on a regular basis.

We are proud to announce that in our effort towards enhancing the quality of RABSEL, we have made a historic move ahead by putting in place a blind peer review process. Therefore, all the articles in the present volume have been peer reviewed by at least one experienced national/international reviewer who has immense experience in the educational research review process. CERD would like to express our deepest gratitude to all the reviewers for their invaluable comments and suggestions for each of the papers. In the future, each article will have two reviewers.

The 15th volume addresses a wide range of educational issues ranging from classroom interaction and early childhood care to the promotion of university research culture. This volume also has two papers in Dzongkha, which looks into reading and writing practices in English and Dzongkha languages and the differences between written and spoken Dzongkha.

The first article by Tshewang Rabgay examines—Patterns of teacher-student verbal interaction in the tenth grade Biology classes in Samtse District using Flanders Interaction Analysis System. The findings generally indicate that Biology teachers dominate the teaching and learning processes with minimal student interaction. Developing and nourishing a research culture at Paro College of Education by Kezang Sherab and Roy Greenwood discusses the potential of evidence-based education. This paper presents some of the strategies that CERD would like to implement at Paro College of Education to support a research culture amongst both faculty and students and build a wider research network. The article also aims to document research activities initiated by CERD.

The third article by Amina Gurung, Kinzang Lhendup and Karma Chewang is based on a sequential mixed methods study conducted to understand if there is a need for an early childhood care and development Centre at the College. The authors argue that the establishment of a child care centre at the College would help narrow the gap between theory and practice by making some of the modules such as child development and psychology more practical oriented for the student teachers.

The fourth article by Ramesh Thapa, on using binary logistic regression to identify the factors inhibiting research culture at the RUB colleges reveals significant

positive relationships between faculty qualifications and their publication as well as presentation of papers in research conferences. This is an indication that in order to increase faculty research output, RUB Colleges need to provide additional attention to up-grade the qualification of all faculty members.

The 5th and the 6th articles are in Dzongkha by Penjor and Samten Tharchen respectively. Penjor's paper is based on a small-scale pilot study to see if there is any difference between reading and writing practices in English and Dzongkha languages under Paro Dzongkhag. The author argues that the prevailing practice among most respondents is that English is more commonly used than Dzongkha in both reading and writing.

The last article by Samten Tharchen is on the differences between reading and writing in Dzongkha language. The author highlights some of the key issues regarding speaking and writing in Dzongkha with some appropriate examples that all Dzongkha users need to keep in mind.

With much indebtedness, we would like to thank all our contributors and readers for their continued interest and support in working towards a common goal - enhancing the quality of education in Bhutan.

We would like to continue to make RABSEL an important forum to share educational research, visions, ideas and convictions.

Tashi Delek

Dean
Research and Industrial Linkages

Table of Content

1.	Patterns of Teacher - Student Verbal Interaction in the Tenth Grade Biology Classes in Samtse District - Tshewang Rabgay	1-23
2.	Developing and Nourishing Research Culture at Paro College of Education - Kezang Sherab and Roy Greenwood	24-40
3.	Exploring the Need for ECCD Centre at Paro College of Education - Amina Gurung, Kinzang Lhendrup and Karma Chewang	41-53
4.	Using Binary Logistic Regression to Identify the Factors Inhibiting Research Culture at the Colleges of Royal University of Bhutan - Ramesh Thapa	54-78
5.	A Comparative Study: Reading and Writing Practices in English and Dzongkha Language under Paro Dongkhag - Penjor and Rinchen Khandu	79-103
6.	Difference between Written and Spoken Dzongkha - Samten Tharchen	104-116
7.	RABSEL - the CERD Educational Journal Guidelines for Manuscript	117-120

Patterns of Teacher-Student Verbal Interaction in the Tenth Grade Biology Classes in Samtse District

*Tshewang Rabgay*¹

Abstract

Grounded in the importance of classroom interaction in teaching and learning, this small scale study examined the pattern of teacher-student verbal interaction in grade ten biology classes using Flanders Interaction Analysis System (FIAS). The sample of the study consisted of 8 teachers and 383 class 10 biology students from three higher secondary schools and a middle secondary school in Samtse district. Seventeen grade 10 biology classes were observed using a coding chart. The data obtained were analyzed using the decoding process prescribed in FIAS. The study was significant because its findings and conclusions may stimulate teachers to improve their interaction practices in order to maximize students' learning.

The findings revealed that 75.71% of the time was used for 'lecturing' making it the most popular approach. The findings also revealed that teacher talk (85.23%) was much more than student talk time (11.38%) which indicated that classroom interaction was dominated by teachers. It was also found that teachers used more direct influence (77.27%) through lecturing and giving directions than indirect influence (7.96%) which include behaviors like accepting student's, feelings, praising, encouraging, accepting or using students ideas and asking questions. By and large the findings indicated that teacher dominated classroom interaction continues to be the dominant teaching trend in teaching tenth grade biology in Samtse district. The study confirmed previous studies done in Bhutan which reported similar findings.

Key words: Classroom Interaction, Flanders Interaction Analysis System (FIAS), Biology Class

1. Teacher, Samtse Higher Secondary School

1.1 Introduction

1.1 Rational

Ever since the inception of modern education in Bhutan teacher-centered teaching was the most common method used by teachers. In teacher-centered teaching, the role of teacher was just to be knowledge transmitters. In doing so they became the dominant figure in the class and students were hardly given opportunity to talk, share ideas and ask questions. There was very little interaction between teachers and students. Such learning environment did not facilitate meaningful learning. Students became passive learners. Students mostly learned by rote memorization and found that the concepts they had learned had no practical value in their lives (Dorji, 2005).

However, later due to changing times and changing need of the country it became necessary for students to enhance the conceptual understanding of the subject content so that they could apply the knowledge in their day to day lives. Further, it was necessary for students to have other skills like communication, creativity, critical thinking, collaboration, problem solving and decision making. Students were also required to be more responsible for their own learning than relying on teachers to decide what and how to learn. This situation signified the importance of shift in teaching trend from being non-interactive teacher-centered to a more interactive and child centered learning. It required the teachers to change their roles from being someone who had authority and a dominant figure in the class to someone who facilitated learning through active interaction; giving more time for students to talk; share ideas and ask questions. In other words, teachers were required to create learning atmosphere that was characterized by active interaction between teacher and student. It was also expected that teachers use more indirect teaching by way of asking questions, accepting students' ideas, feelings, praising and encouraging than direct influence which included verbal behaviors like lecturing, giving direction, criticizing and justifying authority (Dorji, 2005).

Subsequently, in the years that followed efforts had been placed to bring about this change. Several rounds of curriculum

reforms were initiated to make the curriculum congruent with the idea of interactive teaching. One such curriculum review resulted in the launch of a new approach known as NAPE (New Approach to Primary Education) by the erstwhile Department of Education in 1986. The approach framed a new policy that laid emphasis on teaching through interaction and activity (UNESCO, 2000). Several INSET (In-service education and training) programs were conducted at the national level (National Based In-service Program), district level (District Based In-service Program) and school level (School Based In-service Program) to train in-service teachers on the use of interactive teaching techniques (Laird, Maxwell, Tenzin & Jamtsho, 2006). Moreover, the two teacher training colleges of education started training prospective, as well as in-service teachers on the use of various interactive teaching techniques like cooperative learning method, inquiry learning method, questioning method and activity-based learning method (National Institute of Education, 2003).

By now it has been almost over two decades since interactive teaching was given importance in Bhutan. Has there been a change? Do teachers create interactive learning atmosphere? What is the current pattern of teacher-student interaction? What proportion of class-time do teachers devote for their talking? Do teachers give enough time for students to share ideas and ask questions? Do teachers use more indirect teaching or direct teaching? Driven by these questions, this study attempts to examine the pattern of teacher-students interaction with reference to grade ten Biology in Samtse district using an interaction analysis tool called Flanders Interaction Analysis System (FIAS).

1.2 Significance of the study

Given the importance of teachers to constantly reflect and improve their classroom practices, the findings of the study would especially be useful for teachers to understand the current teacher-student interaction pattern; who was talking in the classroom, how much and what kind of talk took place. The results would stimulate teachers to reflect on their current practices and improve their interaction practices by using more interactive teaching approaches in order to maximize students' learning.

1.3 Research Objectives

Broadly, the objectives of this study were to determine the teacher-student verbal interaction patterns in grade ten biology classes. Specifically, this study will explore:

- The mostly used interaction category in Flanders Interaction Analysis System.
- The teacher talk time and student talk time.
- Time for teachers' direct influence and indirect influence.
- Students' response time and students' initiation time.

1.4 Research Questions

What are the patterns of teacher-student verbal interaction in grade ten biology classes in Samtse?

- What is the mostly used interaction category in FIAS?
- What proportion of the class time is teacher talk time and student talk time?
- Do teachers use more direct influence or indirect influence?
- What percentage of time is students' initiation and response?

2. Literature Review

This section presents the review of relevant literatures. It includes the meaning of classroom interaction, theory underlying classroom interaction, significance of classroom interaction and related researches.

2.1 Classroom Interaction

Biddle (1967) defined classroom interaction as an action-reaction or a two-way influence which may be between teacher and students or among students. Odinko and Monican (2011) provided an elaborate definition considering teacher, learners and learning material. They defined it as "behaviors exhibited by

the teacher and learners in the form of communication between teacher and learner in small groups or with the entire class as well as learner-learner, learner-material and teacher-material.” Tuan and Nhu (2010) stated that classroom interaction consists of two types: non-verbal interaction and verbal interaction. Non-verbal interaction is related to behavioral responses in class. It means students interact through their behaviors such as head nodding, hand raising, body gestures, and eye contact. Verbal interaction, on the contrary, contains oral interaction. Oral interaction implies that students interact with others by speaking in class, answering and asking questions, making comments, and taking part in discussions.

In the concept of interaction the idea of two-way effect is essential, as opposed to a one-way causal effect. Interaction does not only occur from one side and it does not only involve the teacher. It involves all the participants, and there must be mutual influence between the teacher and the learner (Wagner, 1994; Rivers, 1987). According to Tsui (1995), classroom interaction is a co-operative effort among participants in which each participant contributes in determining the direction and outcome of the interaction.

2.2 Theory Underlying Classroom Interaction

Classroom interaction is based on social interdependence theory. The social interdependence theory claims that learning should be socially mediated (Ochongor & Daiko.,2011). By implication, the degree of social interaction in any class is assumed to influence learning. The extent of attainment in the class could be dictated by the extent of social cohesion between the teacher and the learners and among the learners. The theory also states that social interaction leads to conceptual growth. This implies that when learners are put in social context, they develop positive and promotive interaction with the teacher or among themselves. Positive and promotive interaction encourages children to share their ideas and points of view, getting feedbacks, give and receive support from friends and dig below the superficial level of understanding of the material they are learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1994).

2.3 Significance of Classroom Interaction

Interaction is viewed significant in learning because it influences students' academic achievement. Several interaction studies have indicated that some relation exists between classroom interaction pattern and student achievement. Okafor (1993) found a positive relationship between classroom interaction and student level of achievement. Udeani (1992) reported that classroom interaction accounted for about 74% of the variation in students' academic achievement.

Besides academic achievement, classroom interaction also leads to gains in social skills. Johnson and Johnson (1989) found that when students were placed in social context such as in cooperative learning where they engaged in active 'face to face interaction' (one of the five principles of cooperative learning), they shared ideas, point of views provided, got positive feedback and reached a common consensus which promoted skills like communication, decision making and leadership. They also found that students learned how to accept differences based on ability, ethnic background and gender.

Interactive classroom also brings about changes in students' behavior and motivation. Sheng and Fui-Hoon. (2006) reported that students in interactive classroom were more motivated to learn, more attentive, more participative and more likely to exchange ideas with instructors and fellow students. Furthermore, positive classroom interaction helps in building positive relationship between teacher and students or among students. Hamre and Pianta (2001) stated that when students had strong and positive relationship with teachers, they were more likely to believe, love the teachers and were more motivated while teachers were more motivated to spend time and energy to improve student success. A negative relationship with the teacher and students would lead to student dropout rates and teachers often handled only student behavior and prevented efforts to promote positive school environment.

2.4 Related Researches

Several studies have been conducted in Bhutan to determine classroom practices and environment. A study conducted by Royal Education Council (2009) to study the classroom practices in school in Bhutan reported the following findings:

- Teaching consisted mostly of one-way talk by the teacher to convey textbook content without being able to get students to comprehend and demonstrate their learning (p.27).
- Classroom instruction showed predominance of one-way talk by teacher and writing on the chalkboard with lesser evidence of student-centric activities (p.28).
- There was little evidence of active dialogue between the students and teachers (p.29).
- Inside the class, students rarely asked questions and were not seen to be participating actively in the teaching process.

In another study by Sherab and Dorji (2013) carried out to determine the types of teaching practices applied by primary school teachers in Bhutan, it was found that teacher dominated teaching prevailed in the Bhutanese classrooms. These studies indicated that non-interactive traditional teacher fronted classrooms is still prevalent in Bhutanese classrooms.

There are numerous studies done in other countries on classroom interaction using FIAS. Kalu (2004) in Nigeria observed and coded interaction pattern using FIAS during Physics lessons in 15 selected secondary schools in Nigeria. The sample included 516 Senior Secondary One (SS1) students and 15 Physics teachers. The results revealed that most of the teachers used direct influence than indirect influence. Most of the class time was dominated by teachers. The study also revealed a strong correlation between classroom interaction and students' attitude towards learning physics and academic achievement. The more teachers used indirect teaching, the more students developed positive attitudes towards physics and achieved higher in academic tasks. In other words, students' development of positive attitude towards physics and achievement in low academic tasks significantly increased with teachers' indirect influence of classroom activities.

Similar results were found in a study conducted by Babelan and Kia (2010) in Ardebil, Iran. The study aimed at finding interaction pattern among teachers and primary school students using FIAS as the research instrument. The sample included 400 teachers and 1083 primary school students. Regression analysis of the data gathered showed that from the total observation time teacher talk time made up 57.77% of which 16.7% was indirect influence, 41.04% was direct influence, while 33% made up student talk time and 10% made up silence time. In another study by Inamullah (2008) the results were along the same line. The study explored the ratio between direct and indirect influence of English teachers teaching college level students of North West Frontier Province of Pakistan using FIAS. It was found that majority of the teachers used more direct influence than indirect influence.

3. Research Methodology

The focus of the study was to examine the patterns of classroom interaction in tenth grade biology in higher and middle secondary schools. The study required observing classes using Flanders Interaction Analysis system (FIAS). Given the observational nature of the study, the study employed observational type of the descriptive method.

3.1 Research Design

The research design adopted for this study was coding and decoding process involved in interaction analysis. The coding process involved assigning numbers as codes for each interaction categories in the FIAS. The result of assigning codes to the categories in the FIAS was the coding chart as shown in Table 3. The coded chart was used to observe seventeen tenth grade biology classes in the sample schools of Samtse district. The classes were observed by a nominated teacher in each sample school. In the decoding process, the coded data were interpreted to get a picture of the interaction patterns in the classroom.

3.2 Population

As the purpose of the study was to explore teacher-student verbal interaction in grade ten biology classes in the light of Flanders' Interaction Analysis the target population comprised all grade ten classes of all the middle and higher secondary schools in Samtse district. The population was selected only from middle and higher secondary levels because only these levels had class ten.

3.3 Sample

Since the researcher could not go to far-flung schools due to lack of motorable road, classes of accessible schools were selected as samples for the study. Therefore, convenience sampling was used to select the samples for the study. The sample included 17 grade ten biology classes of higher secondary and middle secondary schools. The number teachers observed was 8. The number of grade ten students observed was 383. The sample details are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Sample of the study

School	No. of Students	Classes Observed	No. of Biology Teachers
Samtse HSS	123	10A 10B 10C 10D 10E 10F 10G	3
Yoeseltse MSS	99	10A 10B 10C	2
Peljorling HSS	64	10A 10B 10C 10D	2
Tendruk HSS	97	10A 10B 10C	1
Total	383	17	8

3.4 Research Instrument

The research instrument and tool used for the study were Flanders' Interaction Analysis System (FIAS) as shown in Table 2 and coding chart shown in Table 3.

Table 2: Flanders’ Interaction Analysis System (FIAS)

Teacher Talk	Indirect Influence	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Accepts feeling: Accepts and clarifies an attitude or the feeling tone of a pupil in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included. 2. Praises or encourages: Praises or encourages pupil action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual: nodding head, or saying ‘Um hm?’ or ‘Go on’ are included. 3. Accepts or uses ideas of pupils: Clarifying, building or developing ideas suggested by a pupil. Teacher extensions of pupil ideas are included but as the teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category five. 4. Asks questions: Asking a question about content or procedure, based on teacher ideas, with the intent that a pupil will answer.
	Direct Influence	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Lecturing: Giving facts or opinions about content or procedures: expressing his own ideas, giving his own explanation or citing an authority other than a pupil. 6. Giving directions: Directions, commands or orders to which a pupil is expected to comply. 7. Criticizing or justifying authority: Statements intended to change pupil behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-defense..
Pupil Talk		8. Pupil talk – response: Talk by pupils in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits pupil statement or structures the situation. Freedom to express own ideas is limited.
		9. Pupil talk – initiation: Talk by pupils which they initiate. Expressing own ideas; initiating a new topic; freedom to develop opinions and a line of thought, like asking thoughtful questions: going beyond the existing structure.
		10. Silence or confusion: Pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

The items in the Flanders' Interaction Analysis System were converted into an observation sheet called coding chart as illustrated by Gay (2000). The specimen of the observation sheet (coding chart) is given below (see Table 3). Each sheet represented 105 seconds for 10 FIAS categories. Each block in the sheet represented 3 seconds.

Table 3: Coding chart

	3x5=15 Secs	3x10=30 Secs	3x15=45 Secs	3x20=60 Secs	3x25=75 Secs	3x30=90 Secs	3x35=105 Secs
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							
7							
8							
9							
10							

3.5 Observers

From each school, a teacher was appointed as on observers. They were familiarized on how to use the observation forms. Two rounds of pilot testing were conducted to make sure that the observers had clear knowledge about the observation procedures.

3.6 Observation Procedures

The following observation procedures were adopted.

1. Total time for observation comprised 45 minutes (2700 seconds)
2. Each observation sheet represented 105 seconds (1.75 minutes) and was considered as one observation session.
3. In each class of 2700 seconds (45 minutes) 26 observation sheets or sessions were used.
4. Each block in the sheet was considered as an observation period which spanned for 3 seconds duration.
5. The teacher's behavior in each observation period of 3 seconds was observed, classified and recorded in the relevant block of the observation sheet till the termination of observation session of 105 seconds.
6. Stop watch was used to note initiation and expiry of each observation period of 3 seconds.
7. The observer followed the following ground rules.
 - When it is not clear to which category the behavior belongs, the serial number of the farthest category from the 5thcategory should be noted. If there is no decision between 2nd and 3rd category, then category 2 is the farthest category from 5th. Hence, the 2nd category must be recorded.
 - If more than one category occurs during the 3 second interval, then all categories used in that interval are recorded. If no changes occur within 3 seconds, repeat the category numbers.

- When the teacher calls on a child by name, the observer records as 4.
- When the teacher repeats student's answer and if it is a correct answer, this is recorded as 2. This tells the student that he has the right answer and therefore functions as praise.
- A teacher's joke which is not made at the expense of the children is a 2. If the joke makes fun of a child, then it is coded as a 7.
- A 9 is recorded when several students respond in union to a narrow question.

3.7 Data Analysis Procedure

The data secured through above research instrument was analyzed using Microsoft Excel in the following sequence.

3.6.1 Observation Periods for Each Category

An observation period spanned for three seconds. The number of observation periods for each category was recorded by check marks in the observation sheets. At the end of each lesson observation, the checks were added to get the total observation periods for each category.

3.6.2 Percentage of Time for Each Category

The total observation periods for each category were multiplied by 3 to get the time in seconds. The time in seconds were converted to percentage using the following formula.

- $\text{Percentage for each category} = (\text{Time for specific category} / \text{Total observation time}) \times 100$

3.6.3 Teacher Talk Time

Teacher talk time comprised direct and indirect influence. To calculate the percentage of teacher talk time, time for direct and indirect influence was calculated first. They were then added to get the time for teacher talk.

- Time for indirect influence = Time for category 1-4/Total observation time) x100
- Time for direct influence = (Time for category 5-7/Total observation time) x100
- Teacher talk time = Time for indirect influence + Time for direct influence

3.6.4 Student Talk Time

Student talk time had two components- initiation and response. To get the percentage of student talk time, percentage of student initiation and responses was calculated first. Then the time for initiation and response were added to get the student talk time.

- Time for initiation = (Time for category 9/Total observation time) / 100
- Time for response = (Time for category 8/Total observation time) / 100
- Student talk time = Time for initiation + Time for response

3.6.5 Silence Time

The percentage of silence or confusion time was calculated by using the following formula.

- Silence or confusion = (Time for category 10 / Total observation) x 100

4. Results of Data Analysis

The data secured by using FIAS was analyzed using Microsoft excel in the following sequence.

4.1 Time for Each Category

Table 5 shows the time for each category. It was clear from the table that 'Lecturing' category accounted for 75.71 percent of the class time. The times for the rest of the categories were less than 10 percent. 'Pupil talk-response' accounted for 9.93 percent, followed by 'Asked questions' " Silence and Confusion" 'Pupil Talk Initiation' and 'Giving Direction' with 6.67, 2.91,1.45 and 1.12 percent respectively. The lowest times were recorded for 'Criticizing or justifying authority' (0.44 percent), 'Accepts or uses ideas of pupils' (0.48 percent), 'Accepts feeling' (0.74 percent) and 'Praises or encourages' (0.81) of teacher's talk.

Table 5: Time for each category

FIAS Categories	Frequency	Time in Seconds (Frequency x 3)	Percentage
Accepts feelings	120	360 Sec	0.74
Praises or encourages	131	393 Sec	0.81
Accepts or uses ideas of pupils	77	231 Sec	0.48
Asks questions	1080	3240 Sec	6.67
Lecturing	12265	36795 Sec	75.71
Giving directions	182	546 Sec	1.12
Criticizing or justifying authority	71	213 Sec	0.44
Pupil talk – response	1608	4824 Sec	9.93
Pupil talk – initiation	235	705 Sec	1.45
Silence or confusion	471	1413 Sec	2.91

The time for each category is illustrated in Figure 1.

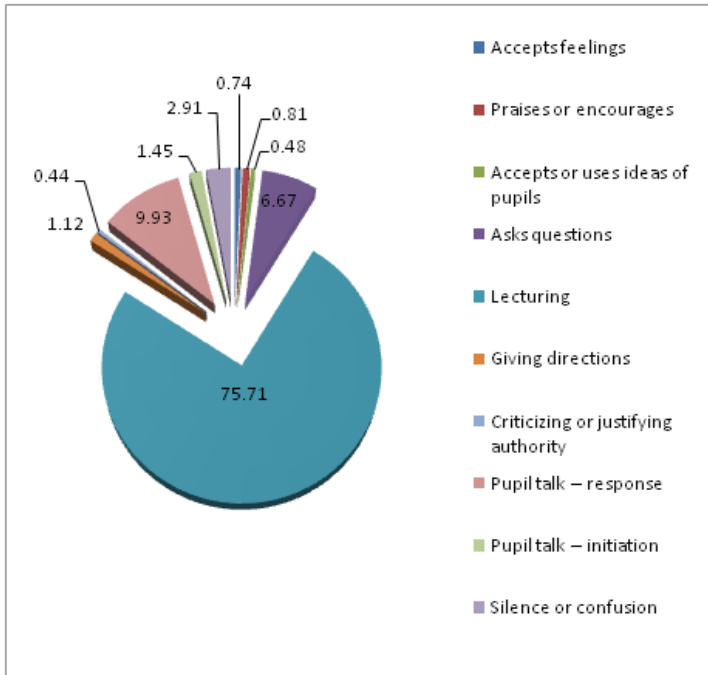


Figure 1: Time in percentage for each category

4.2 Teacher Talk Time

The percentage of time for teachers' indirect influence was 7.96 and direct influence was 77.27 as shown in Table 6. The seven categories of 'Teacher talk' accounted for 85.23 percent of class time. The difference between direct influence and indirect influence was 69.31 percent.

Table 6: Teacher talk time

FIAS Categories		%	% of Time For Direct And Indirect Influence	Teacher Talk Time (%)	
Teacher Talk	Indirect Influence	1. Accepts feelings	0.74	7.96	85.23
		2. Praises or encourages	0.81		
		3. Accepts or uses ideas of pupils	0.48		
		4. Asks questions	6.67		
	Direct Influence	5. Lecturing	75.71	77.27	
		6. Giving directions	1.12		
		7. Criticizing or justifying authority	0.44		

4.3 Student Talk Time

The percentage of time for the pupil talk-response and pupil talk-initiation was 9.93 and 1.45 respectively. Their sum gave the pupil talk time 11.38 percent. The difference between pupil-response and pupil-initiation was 8.48 percent.

Table 7: Student talk time

FIAS Categories		Percentage	Pupil Talk Time (%)
Pupil Talk	Pupil talk-Response	9.93	11.38
	Pupil talk-Initiation	1.45	

4.4 Silence Time

The percentage of time for silence or confusion was 2.91 as shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Silence time

FIAS Categories	Percentage
Silence or confusion	2.91

5. Conclusion, Discussion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

The major conclusions drawn from the study were:

1. Lecturing' was the mostly used teaching method.
2. Teacher talk time was much more than student talk time.
3. Teacher used more direct influence than indirect influence.
4. Students' response time and answering teachers' questions were much more than students' initiation.

5.2 Discussion

The study found that teacher talk time (85.23%) was much more than student talk time (11.38). This indicated that classroom interaction was dominated by teacher talk and students were not given opportunity to initiate questions, share ideas or opinions and respond to questions. This was supported by less time for student initiation (1.43%) and respond (9.93%). This lopsided result of high teacher talk time and meager student talk time indicated that teacher dominated interaction continues to be the predominant interaction trend in the classrooms. As stated by Dorji (2005) such learning atmosphere might not have given opportunity for students to be actively engaged in the learning process.

Even though teacher talk time was more it would have been ideal if teachers used the time for asking questions, accept feelings, using pupils' ideas, praising and encouraging (Flanders,

1963). Unfortunately, very less time was devoted for these categories (Ask questions-6.67%, Accept feelings-0.74%, Praise or encourage-0.81%, Accept or uses ideas of pupils-0.48%) and most of the time was used for lecturing which accounted for 75.71% of the total class time. It indicated that despite of having emphasized on the use of interactive teaching techniques, lecturing is still the popular approach used by teachers.

Another point of discussion was teachers' use of more direct influence than indirect influence. Flanders (1967) claimed that teachers should use more indirect teaching than direct teaching as indirect teaching leads to gains in students' academic achievement and cognitive development. He claimed that for teacher to have indirect influence, teachers should ask questions, accept pupils' ideas, praise and encourage. Science is best learnt in interactive environment, inquiry based, where students get more opportunity to ask questions, exchange opinions and share ideas. Unfortunately, the study showed the opposite. Kalu (2004) explained the implications of more direct influence:

Direct teaching emphasizes control of students and their compliance. It is a situation where the teacher gives out the facts, does not use much (if at all) of students' ideas and students are not encouraged to think deeply about the facts. Consequently, students become passive recipients of facts and knowledge given by the teacher.

Nonetheless, a positive point to note in the findings was the less time for 'Criticizing and justifying authority' which accounted for only 0.44%. This is a good practice which teachers must keep practicing.

The findings of the study confirmed previous study conducted by Royal Education Council (2009) which reported that teaching consisted of one-way talk by the teacher with little evidence of active dialogue between the students and teachers. The study was also congruent with the study done by Sherab and Dorji (2013) where they found teacher dominated classroom to be the most common practice among primary school teachers.

From the foregoing, it can be concluded that little has changed since emphasis was laid on interactive teaching in Bhutan. However, this generalization may not apply to all schools in Bhutan because the study was conducted only in one district. While it was concluded that there has been little change, it would have been interesting to explore the militating factors against teachers' use of interactive teaching. Since the study limited its scope to quantitative analysis the factors could not be elicited.

5.3 Recommendations

Literature suggests that teachers are the single most important factor in improving classroom interaction. Their behaviors in the classroom have been found to determine the classroom environment (Flanders, 1970). Therefore, the study suggests teachers the following recommendations to improve classroom interaction:

5.3.1 Use of Interactive Teaching Techniques

An effective strategy to facilitate interaction in the classroom is questioning technique (Shomoossi, 2004). When students are encouraged to answer questions, it provides stepping stones for continued interaction. Asking question stimulates and provides scaffolding for children who are beginning to build their own understandings. It also helps students connect concepts, make inferences, increase awareness and deepen their level of knowing and understanding.

Another leading new approach to interactive learning is cooperative learning in which face to face interaction is the key principle. Cooperative learning is opposed to individualistic and competitive learning and has been found to be an effective instructional approach which involves the characteristics of learner-centered approach (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). It requires learners to work in groups, interact with the group members to achieve a common goal. Working together maximizes opportunities for student-student interaction with meaningful input and output in a supportive environment.

5.3.2 Teachers as Facilitators

In a teacher dominated classroom, teachers have been found

to take the center-stage in the classroom. To create interactive learning atmosphere, the study recommends teachers to step out of the limelight and allow learners to speak, share ideas, ask questions, take the least directive role and be a facilitator.

5.3.3 Professional Learning Community

A professional learning community (PLC) is a group of educators, most commonly teachers, who meet regularly, share expertise, and work collaboratively to improve their teaching skills and academic performance of their students (DuFour, 2004). PLC plays an important role in improving classroom practices by enabling teachers to continually inquire into their practice and, as a result, discover, create, and negotiate new meanings that improve their practices. The study recommends teachers to work as professional learning community in schools for professional growth.

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Developing and Nourishing a Research Culture at Paro College of Education

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Abstract

It has been encouraging to observe that there has been a growing number of faculty and students showing interest in research at the Paro College of Education. Over the last couple of months, the Centre for Educational Research and Development has provided assistance to more than ten groups of beginning researchers (both present faculty and students and other faculty pursuing their PhD in other countries) on various research areas. However, there are also many others in the College who lack basic research skills and also have low efficacy for research. This indicates that the past professional development programmes on research offered to the faculty has not been able to make sufficient impact in promoting a research culture at the College. This paper discusses the potential of evidence-based research in education and presents some strategies to promote and nourish research culture at the College.

Key words: Research culture, research skills, professional development, action research, seminar series, mentoring, statistics.

Introduction

It has been encouraging to observe that there has been a growing number of faculty and students showing interest in research at the Paro College of Education. Over the last couple of months, the Centre for Educational Research and Development (CERD) has provided assistance to more than ten groups of beginning researchers (both present faculty and students and other faculty pursuing their PhD in other countries) on various research areas such as writing a proposal, working with literatures, choosing the methodology, data analysis, and designing survey questionnaires.

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However, there are also many others in the College who lack basic research skills and also have low self-efficacy for research. Research (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) has shown that individuals with low self-efficacy for a particular task are less likely to put in required effort and also less likely to persist in times of difficulties. This indicates that the past professional development programmes on research for the entire faculty has not been able to make an impact in terms of raising their self-efficacy for research and promoting overall research culture at the College.

A challenge for many new universities and colleges is how to establish, and nurture a research culture. Today, one of the strengths of any university in the world is its research capacity. Most universities in the world (e.g., University of Leeds, York St John University, University of New England, Macquarie University) provide an emphasis on teaching and learning that is informed by research. Such universities invest huge resources in research and publications and take their distinctive character from the fact that research is a major hallmark of what they do. According to Marginson and Considine (2000, p.145), “research culture takes different meanings in different universities. In institutions where research activity is already widespread, the task is to push it into more productive lines. In some universities the task is to create research from almost nothing.” In the Bhutan context, while there has been some initial effort made to enhance a research culture, the response has been very insubstantial. This is a challenging task for new universities and faculties that are still establishing themselves on many different levels. Pratt, Margaritis and Coy (1999) acknowledge that:

A major challenge for aspiring universities and new departments within existing universities is in raising the research output of the staff. Many of the newly designated universities have their origins in applied and vocational disciplines where there is a stronger focus on teaching than on research. (p. 43)

The Royal University of Bhutan (RUB) and the Paro College of Education (PCE) fit into this category. In 2003 the University was established through the amalgamation of ten colleges spread

across Bhutan (now only eight colleges). Each of the colleges had their own identity and culture and now they are being asked to blend those cultures into the greater culture of RUB. We believe that research culture needs to become more fundamental and imbedded in education.

This paper discusses the potential and importance of evidence-based research in education and presents some of the strategies such as seminar series, collaborative action research, faculty mentoring programme and hands-on sessions on statistics and quantitative data analysis to promote and nourish research culture at the College. Furthermore, this paper intends to document initiatives taken by the CERD to promote research culture at PCE.

Research and Teaching Nexus

Today we live in a world where “our knowledge is incomplete and problems are waiting to be solved” (Leedy, Newby & Ertmer, 1997, p. 1). Albert Einstein once said, “The significant problems we face cannot be solved at the same level of thinking we were at when we created them.” Such assertions indicate that there is an emphasis needed on teaching and learning that is informed by evidence-based research. For instance, Clark (1997) states that:

From high-school diploma to the doctorate, graduates will increasingly need habits of mind necessary for informed and disciplined problem solving. For life in an inquiring society, one where information becomes knowledge and knowledge occasionally becomes wisdom, a sense of inquiry and related research enlightenment may be the best common tools that higher education can offer its graduates. (p. 253)

There is no argument about the potential benefit of teaching and learning informed by research. Much research (e.g., Clark, 1997; Colbeck, 1998; Elen, Lindblom-Ylance & Clementto, 2009) has shown that there is a positive relationship between teaching and research. Elen, Lindblom-Ylance and Clementto (2009, p. 124) argue that teaching based on research provides up-to-date information and contextualises the information. They further stress

that by getting involved in research, researchers “demonstrate that knowledge is continuously evolving, continuously challenged, and changing” and that “by being actively involved, research brings knowledge to life” (p. 135). The Royal Charter and the Statutes of the Royal University of Bhutan (2003, p. 3) acknowledges the importance of research through one of its main objectives, “to promote and conduct research, to contribute to the creation of knowledge in an international context and to promote the transfer of knowledge of relevance to Bhutan.” The university Strategic Plan also provides an emphasis on promoting a research culture in the colleges (Strategic Plan, RUB, 2007).

The positive influence of research on teaching has been summarised by Coate, Barnett and Williams (2001, p. 166) in the following points:

- research-active academics are at the ‘cutting-edge’ of their fields, and therefore have more ‘authority’ to teach their subject (‘students love seeing their lecturers’ books on the library shelves’);
- academics gain enthusiasm from being research active, which ‘rubes off’ on the students;
- research-active academics teach more relevant, up-to-date material;
- research-active academics teach from their immediate research experience rather than reproducing secondhand knowledge from textbooks.

Further, academics need to understand that intuitive knowledge claims based on one’s personal experience or anecdotal evidence would not have the same status as knowledge claim made through substantial body of scrupulously produced empirical data (Mnookin et. al. (2011).

In Bhutan, education historically was within the domain of the Monasteries. It has not been a discipline based on scientific research. The new idea of pedagogy is that it is a science and can be investigated by research to discover what should be used in a classroom. Research in education is something that is new compared to research in other disciplines and practising

teachers presently working in education may not be familiar with this new demand upon their discipline. According to Gemmell, Griffiths and Kibble (2010, p. 161) teachers' "histories and self-image as teachers signalled (to teachers) that our place within education was to use the results of research rather than to make a contribution to them". It has also caused a "tension between an identity as educator with a sense of responsibility to students and that of an active researcher" (Gemmell et al., 2010, p. 161).

Bennett and Rolheiser (2001, p. 3) point out that "teachers must be aware of and act on the science within the art of teaching." They go on to point out that educators must become aware of other methods and incorporate them into their practice. In chapter 12 of their book they point out the need to "focus more on the critical role that specific bodies of knowledge play in assisting educators to make wise decisions concerning the design of learning environments" (Bennett & Rolheiser, 2001, p.339). The specific bodies of knowledge discussed by Bennett and Rolheiser are: Multiple Intelligences, Emotional Intelligences, Learning Styles, the human brain, children at risk and gender, we would add to this list the necessity of understanding the culture in which the learning is taking place. This is important in Bhutan, as the culture in Bhutan is unique and different than it is in the west, and as such strategies and pedagogy that might be applicable in the west may not have the same result in Bhutan. As Bennett and Rolheiser explain these and other areas are just "lenses designed to extend teachers' understanding of how students learn, and from that understanding, to make decisions about how and when to select, integrate, and enact items in the ... list" (2001, p. 340). The more "lenses" or tools that educators can use to evaluate or develop their repertoire the greater their "instructional intelligence" (Bennett & Rolheiser, 2001) will be and the better able they will be to deal with the complexities of their classroom. Research is just another lens for teachers to view their discipline.

If one was ill and went to the Doctor, the Doctor might prescribe a drug or therapy to help you recover. You might ask the Doctor why they are giving you this therapy and they would probably reply that the research shows that this therapy helps people with your symptoms. What if a parent comes to a teacher

and asks why did you teach that way? Educators should be able to respond in a similar manner. That is, that research says that this is the best way to teach that topic. Although there is no research carried out, there is adequate anecdotal evidence to show that most educators in Bhutan at present cannot answer this question

Even a weaver or wood carver who has great innate ability is limited, unless they have some understanding of the “science” of the wool or wood that they use. They may experiment with new ways to work with their wool or wood to discover new and better ways to develop their craft. With this additional “intelligence” they can become better weavers and carvers. Educators have the same opportunity. “Teaching effectively is an art informed by a science ... and personal experience” (Bennett & Rolheiser, 2001, p. 23).

As delineated above, education faculties tend to have a stronger “focus on teaching than on research” (Pratt, Margaritis & Coy, 1999). In the past it indicated that research has fallen into three categories as Arthur Ellis, Professor of Education and Director of the International Centre for Curriculum at Seattle Pacific University, has stated. Level I research refers to “basic research on learning” (Ellis, 2001, p. 21). This research is based on observation, experience or a philosophy. Level II research “involves studies designed to test the efficacy of particular programs or instructional methods in educational settings” (Ellis, 2001, p. 22). Level III research is an evaluation of programmes that have been implemented at the school or district level.

These are the basics and indicate that educators must use these categories and develop new ones to improve their discipline. As the field of education research continues to grow it is important that educators be part of this research. The development of a Research Culture for teachers then is very important so that they can bring their expertise and take an active role in directing the research that may be needed to improve classroom practice and student outcomes. Achieving an active and flourishing research culture cannot be accomplished over night– it takes time, direction and commitment. For PCE, the process has been very slow as is evident from the annual research output. The College’s Centre for Educational Research and Development publishes its biannual

journal– RABSEL, the CERD Educational Journal, which has often lacked empirical research papers.

Research at PCE: Said or Done

At the Paro College of Education (PCE), a college of RUB, there is a desire to establish an active research culture. For example to enable this, a workshop on action research was conducted for the PCE staff in February 2010. At the workshop the basics of how to undertake an action research project was explained and time was given during this week-long workshop for the various departments at the College to establish a research project that they might like to undertake. During the workshop many ideas were discussed about the importance of a research culture and the difficulty of doing research while teaching. The difficulties that were mentioned at the workshop were similar to those concerns mentioned at any University. Time and money needed to undertake a research project being the major obstacles for staff to undertake a research project. We believe that these obstacles are persistent issues commonly mentioned by staff around the world. PCE, like other education faculties may face other unique difficulties in establishing an active research culture. One of these additional obstacles is the shift in an understanding of what is meant by being a College of Education within a University. In previous years, the study of learning was the domain of philosophers such as Socrates, Descartes, Locke, and more recently Dewey who explored learning through observation and discussion.

A recent (Spring Semester 2014) research support needs analysis carried out by the CERD showed that the self-efficacy of faculty at PCE in regard to research is low. This is also evident from the very low annual research output from the faculty. According to Bandura (1997) who is the founder of efficacy theory and other researchers (such as Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Knobeluch, 2004), someone with low self-efficacy for a particular task is not likely to attempt and pursue difficult tasks. This can be attributed to various factors, which amongst others include academics' beliefs about teaching and research, research knowledge, administrative support, research mentoring and supervision, funding, and teaching culture. These are some of the factors that perhaps are playing a hidden role in lowering

the self-efficacy of academics at the college. While much has been achieved in the college's effort to enhance research self-efficacy of academics, we still believe that there is still more that can be done to increase the research output of PCE. For instance, putting in place effective mentoring and research supervision system, introduction of seminar series (to create a forum for sharing completed research work, work in progress, proposal, and perhaps an idea for research), adequate funding and providing incentives would also play a crucial role. Most universities that began their research culture from scratch found that paying attention to these self-efficacy lowering factors pay high dividends. PCE is not unlike many other Universities. Gemmell et al (2010, p. 162) point out "many (teachers) felt they lacked the experience and expertise to do the theoretical, "high quality" research which they saw as characterising university research."

Research Culture at PCE: What is the Way Forward?

There are many factors involved in this change. One of the first to be accomplished, according to Williams, Dobson and Walter (1993), is to change the faculties' beliefs and perceptions about research. Some of the strategies suggested by Pratt et al. (1999, p. 50) are convincing staff that they can be successful in doing research; giving staff the necessary support to do research; making research and having higher degrees necessary to be appointed, to be promoted, and keeping ones job; and that research is "expected of everyone as much as successful teaching." For many faculty members this will be a shift in their understanding of the role of an educator; however, it is not a shift that faculty members cannot accomplish.

Pratt et al. (1999) suggest ways to encourage this shift. Some of these suggestions may not be applicable to Bhutan but others might be modified so that they may have relevance for Bhutan. One suggestion that is worthy of discussion and consideration is that of a points system. Briefly a point system could be established in the college to reward points to a department that had undertaken a research project and /or had published their work. Departments that had earned points were financially rewarded from a Research Fund. For example the points criteria used in the Pratt study were if the department published;

Textbooks, research books	they earned 8 points
Edited books, monographs (< 100 pp.), revised editions	they earned 5 points
Refereed journal articles	they earned 4, 5, 6 points
Book chapter	they earned 1.5 points
Conference proceedings	they earned 1 points
Refereed conference papers	they earned 1 points
Commissioned reports	they earned 1 points
Working papers	they earned 0.5 points

(Pratt, Margaritis & Coy, 1999, p. 52)

At the end of a year all the points earned by all the departments of the college were added up. The points earned by each individual department were added up and converted to a fraction of the college total. The department was then awarded whatever fraction their department had earned of a Research Fund that had been established at the beginning of the year. The department could spend this money on whatever it wanted and this money was above their regular budget. For example, if in total the College had earned 25 points and the Science Department had earned 5 points and the English Department 3 points, the Science Department would be given $5/25$ or 20% of the money in the Research Fund and the English Department would be given $3/25$ or 12% of the money in the Research Fund. Likewise a points system could be introduced for individual faculty to be used for performance evaluation at the end of an academic year and for promotion to the next grade level.

There are many other ways that the points might be awarded that would be more applicable to the research culture in Bhutan. For example in the beginning points might be awarded for starting a research project. Later this might not be enough to qualify for a portion of the research fund but it might be enough to start the development of a research culture. Along with rewarding research, obstacles to research need to be removed to aid the development of a research culture. One obstacle in the development of a research culture at PCE could be attributed to the lack of a data or research base to build upon. Although the situation is improving, academic journals and other resources are not easily available or accessible in Bhutan and as such research is difficult to carry out. A potential

researcher within Bhutan may be unable to consult studies that have already been undertaken or be able to access data that may have already been gathered or researched. This makes it difficult to build upon previous knowledge or not to waste time and or money repeating studies already completed. It is also important to build a research base that is specific to Bhutan, the Bhutan school system and the culture of Bhutan.

One step taken recently to establish a Bhutan-specific research base was placing RABSEL, the CERD Educational Research Journal at PCE online. This now makes research articles more easily accessible to anyone conducting a research project. Another way to build this research/data base would be to insist that all graduate students' thesis/projects at PCE and at the other teacher college in Bhutan (Samtse College) be produced digitally and then placed on the internet, perhaps as a special publication of the RABSEL once a year. Bhutanese postgraduate students studying outside of Bhutan could also have their theses included, thus expanding the research base for future Bhutanese researchers and researchers of Bhutan. Having this journal online and meeting the criteria and configured for inclusion in Google Scholar would make this research not only available to Bhutan researchers but researchers from around the world. These two steps would go a long way in developing a research base for future research in education and other disciplines in Bhutan.

Recently, Paro College of Education has been putting in extra effort to promote research amongst faculty, students and other staff. For instance, the College research fund has been increased from 1% of its annual budget to 2%, which is a significant increase. Faculty involved in research work are provided reduced teaching load as well as flexi-time by setting aside one or two free days every week to enable them to work on their research. Some other intervention strategies that will be implemented at PCE to promote research culture commencing 2014 Autumn Semester are:

Collaborative Action Research as Professional Development for Teacher Educators

Although action research (AR) has become a part of the compulsory course at Paro College of Education since 2010 with the introduction of four year B. Ed programme, not many faculty members have shown interest in conducting action research till date. This is an indication that the past professional developments for faculty on action research, data analysis, proposal writing and designing data collection tools have not made much impact in terms of skill development as well as raising their self-efficacy for action research. Such an inconclusive response is likely to have negative impact on the quality of the courses offered, as not many faculty members would have first-hand experience to share with their students. Theoretical teaching is not enough (as indicated by the needs analysis report 2014) to make such a practical oriented module meaningful and have long-term impact on student teachers. Keeping this in view, a collaborative action research (CAR) project has been initiated in the College for interested faculty members.

CAR is now increasingly used as professional development for teachers (e.g., Jaipal & Figg, 2011; Goodnough, 2011). Most often such research is lead by university researcher/s and is done in collaboration with small groups of school teachers or pre-service teachers. In the context of Paro College of Education, this model of CAR will be followed between CERD and interested groups of teacher educators. So it will be an on-going professional development process for teacher educators instead of focussing on 'one-shot' PD programme. There are adequate evidences (e.g., Ross, 1994; Hunzicker, 2011) to show that such 'one-shot' PD programmes are ineffective. Furthermore, AR is considered to be one of the effective models of PD for teachers (Kennedy, 2005; Timothy & Cooper, 2013).

Therefore, any colleague interested to join the CAR group will be encouraged to form a group of two to three people depending on the area of interest that they would like to pursue as their AR during the Autumn Semester 2014. As most colleagues are aware. Their AR topic must originate out of a genuine concern/interest

for improvement in ones own teaching and student learning. Although each group will work on their own AR topic, all groups will meet on a regular basis to share their AR journey and learn from each other. CERD will facilitate the process and guide all the groups through the entire process of AR.

At the end of the CAR cycle, each group will be able to produce one AR paper for publication. Further, CERD will document the entire process of CAR to produce a paper. So this will be a double-layered research, where CERD will study the AR groups while they conduct AR with their students.

Seminar Series

Given that there is an increasing number of faculty and students engaged in research and many return to the College after completing their postgraduate studies abroad, there is a need to provide an avenue for these researchers to share their research work with other faculty and students at the College (in addition to the online posting discussed previously). The seminar series could be either on completed research work, work in progress, proposal, literature review, methodology, data analysis, and referencing or anything related to research that would help promote research. The Seminar series will be open to interested staff and students and it is intended to have two-way impact- both on the presenter and the audience. While the presenter would benefit from the feedback provided by the audience (especially if it is a research proposal or work in progress), the audience would also benefit in terms of research knowledge and skills. Half of the time will be slotted for presentation and the other half for question-answer session. Any interested faculty and students who wish to share their work or need some feedback and suggestions could register with CERD. If there are not enough entries, CERD will approach appropriate researcher/s with a request to share their work. Efforts will be made to invite guest speaker/s who has passion for research.

Mentoring Beginning Researcher/s.

Mentoring/helping a beginning researcher is one of the important ways of promoting research culture. As discussed above many of our faculties are not able to initiate research journey because

of their low self-efficacy for research. Therefore, to help raise their self-efficacy for research, a mentoring group will be formed consisting of faculties with research experience, especially the PhDs. Research profile of all the mentors will be made available via college website, so that the faculty looking for specific research support could approach the right mentor. All mentors will be provided flexi time as well as considered for lighter workload depending on the overall situation in the College. Mentors will be required to slot a time frame everyday/week for consultation and maintain a diary of support provided using a template specifically designed for this purpose.

Hands-on Sessions on Statistics and Data Analysis

Although PD programmes in the past have not made much impact, there are still faculty members who would like to attend PD sessions on various research related topics. One of the areas that most faculty members desire to learn is about the quantitative data analysis using statistical softwares such as Software Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) as indicated from the research support needs analysis. In response to this, the CERD has planned to offer about fifteen tailor-made hands-on sessions on statistics and data analysis beginning with very basics on statistics such as the nature of probability and statistics, and descriptive analysis to more complicated inferential analysis such as analysis of variance, correlation and regression for interested faculty members. Each session would be roughly about two hours. Based on the number of interested faculty signing up for a particular unit, statistics sessions will be offered either during lunch break, during free periods for a particular groups of faculty members, Wednesday afternoons or after classes in the evening.

Conclusion

Based upon the discussions presented in this paper, it is quite clear that evidence-based teaching has more relevance than teaching-learning process based only on textbooks. To reiterate, it is imperative that both faculty and pre-service teachers understand that knowledge produced through empirical data are

far better than intuitive knowledge claims based on one's personal experience or anecdotal evidence. Although the process is slow, academics and students at the College must be encouraged to learn that the government and its leaders in Bhutan are now signalling their support and interest in research. For example, the then Honourable Prime Minister Jigme Y. Thinley, during the RUB midterm review meeting stated, "we want you to focus more on research" (kuenselonline.com, dt. 11th December, 2010). The Royal University of Bhutan as well as the Ministry of Education have also now started recognising research output of its faculty as a basis for career promotion and further studies.

We hope to see enhanced faculty research output with the successful implementation of intervention strategies identified in this paper. Faculty at PCE are in a position to help establish a research culture and establish a research base for further study and in so doing help in improving the education system of Bhutan.

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Exploring the Need for ECCD Centre at Paro College of Education

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Abstract

Although there is adequate literature on early childcare practices in western context, there is hardly any study being carried out on childcare practices in Bhutan. This study has made an attempt to look at the feasibility of establishing a work-place based ECCD centre at Paro College of Education. A sequential mixed method was deemed appropriate for this study as it enabled the researchers to build an explorative interview questions from the responses gathered through survey questionnaire. The respondents included the administrative staff, the teaching faculty and the final year student teachers of 2010. A 34 item questionnaires were administered amongst 109 participants and four in-depth semi-structured focus group interviews were conducted among the faculty, student teachers, and the administrative staff. The analysis of both the sets of data indicated that there is a need for the College to establish a childcare center. The findings show that establishing a childcare centre at the College would have multifaceted benefits, among which teaching and learning child development and psychology modules would become more practical.

Key words: Early Childcare and Development, Early Childcare Education, Caregivers

1. Lecturer, Paro College of Education

2. Lecturer, Paro College of Education

3. Lecturer, Paro College of Education

Introduction

Bhutan 2020 envisions maximizing the happiness of all Bhutanese so as to enable them to achieve their full and innate potential as human beings. In conformation to this vision the Royal Government of Bhutan has recognized the importance of early childhood care and development as the key to foundation for a happier society. The vital link between Early Childhood Care and Development Services and primary education is highlighted by the Education Sector Review Commission (2006-2007) which concludes that ECCD programmes and services are necessary for Bhutan to achieve the universalization of primary education by 2015. It is evident that a number of initiatives have been taken both at the national and international level on raising awareness on early childcare programme, and it is only appropriate that early interventions are put in place at the local level as well because children are increasingly at risk due to the vanishing traditional child rearing practices as a consequence of aping the western style of nucleus family system. The rapid increase in mothers working outside home and leaving children at the hands of inexperienced and unqualified baby sitters is a huge concern for both the parents and the government.

Context of the study

In the context of the importance of the critical link between early experiences, and achievement of universal primary education, it is important to understand the roles and responsibility of an education college and the positive contribution the college can make, especially Paro College of Education which till date is the only college trying to achieve excellence in primary education. The importance and need of having a childcare facility needs to be understood closely, not just in terms of the need of the population but from the perspective of the institute's specialization in primary curriculum.

Literature Review

The Convention on the Rights of the Child recognizes ECCD as a "right" that has to be bestowed on every child. This is further supported by the EFA- Global Monitoring Report's (2007)

emphasis on the impact of ECCD. Some of the rationales for early childcare programs are brain development, school readiness, school success, better health care for children and families and social impacts including stronger workforce and reduced crime rates. Further, Kagan (1994) supports that children are also looked at as the human capital for the future, and because this human capital will be directly affected by the kind of early experiences they have had, ECCD plays a major role in shaping the future human resource. ECCD programs also increase school preparedness, which results in increased learning and a decrease in grade repetitions and dropout rates. In Bhutan, The Education Sector Strategy: Realizing the Vision 2020 document clearly outlines the importance of supporting children through early childcare programme:

All children aged 0-5 years will be supported to enhance their intellectual, emotional and physical development through a programme that enables them to grow in their familiar and natural environment. Priority will be give to home and family-based approaches, with additional inputs from institutional structures and options, which recognize the increasing diversity of life-styles and settings in which children are now being raised.
(p. 10)

The Education Sector Review Commission's report Education without compromise (2008) confirms that "High-quality ECCD is one of the best investments a nation can make in its young people" (P.7). Realizing the importance ECCD programs have on children, the government has already outlined frameworks and strategies that support and enhance ECCD programs (Tenth Five Year Plan, (2008-2013), p. 91-93).

Description of the research study

This study employed sequential mixed method approach which is "an approach to inquiry that combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms of research. It involves philosophical assumptions, the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches, and the mixing of both approaches in a study "(Creswell, 2009, p. 230). One of the main reasons for

employing mixed methods paradigm is its complementarity- i.e., seeking elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from one method with results from the other method” (p. 22). Accordingly, findings from quantitative data gathered from a larger sample were explored through interviews with a smaller number of informants. This helped the study to explain the results of the quantitative data in greater depth.

In this study, though data obtained quantitatively provided relevant statistical and demographic information on the establishment of a childcare centre at the College, statistical evidence indicated a need to understand better the psychological dimensions and organizational issues of the College. Hence, data gathered in two phases from two groups of samples using both the qualitative and quantitative methods allowed us to corroborate and so also increase the validity and reliability of this study.

Data Gathering Procedures

In the first phase of the study, data were gathered through self-administered survey questionnaires from 109 participants. The participants were randomly selected so as to ensure that each individual had an equal probability of being selected, and the findings could be generalized to the larger population. The questionnaires were distributed to 59 college faculty and to 50 third year student teachers of 2010. The qualitative data in the 2nd phase of our study was gathered through focus group interviews. Twenty-four participants were selected for the interviews using purposive sampling technique. The interviews were conducted in four phases of six members each.

Seeking consent and gaining access

The proposal for the study was presented to the faculty and other staff of the College for their comments and approval. The researchers sought formal consent from the Director and the College faculty prior to the commencement of the study. The interview participants were briefed on the aims and purpose of the study once during the proposal presentation and once again before the interviews. For each of the interviews, participants were

requested to complete the consent form. A detailed explanation was given to all the participants regarding the modality of the interviews.

Data presentation and Discussion

This section presents an in-depth discussion of the themes that emerged from the data. Interpretation and findings are discussed after each analysis supported by relevant literature.

1. The need for an ECCD centre at the college

All categories of participants felt the need for an ECCD centre at the college. Faculty members teaching “Child Development” and “Learning Process” modules were very passionate about establishing such a centre. They thought that the centre would provide care giving experiences by directly “observing and recording” in their “assignments and case studies”. The faculty in general also expressed the existing difficulties in teaching due to the disconnectedness of theory and practice. The availability of an ECCD centre within the college was seen as an opportunity to link theory and practice. The general tone of the discussion from the faculty could be summed up in the words of participant 1:

At the moment ...we don't really get the opportunity. I wanted to but it is very difficult. We don't have children around...So we just discuss in the class through lecture. We just say at this stage the child does this and that ... we couldn't really practice. That's why I m saying that maybe in future if we could have a childcare centre it would be very different. (Interview -16th November, 2010)

The student teachers equally see the opportunity of having a childcare centre in helping them understand the practical aspect of the modules they are learning.

The findings from the quantitative survey revealed that 81.8 % of the staff respondents thought that having a childcare centre would increase their efficiency and 70.5 % thought that the centre could help increase their motivation. It can be safely

said that having an ECCD centre within the College will not only benefit the working community of the College contributing to the general well being, but also greatly enhance the quality of teaching learning at the College.

The Education Sector Review commission (2008) has highlighted the critical function of the ECCD programs and services which is necessary for Bhutan to achieve the universalization of primary education by 2015. The responsibility then, falls directly on Paro College of Education as it is the only college that offers primary curriculum and is to specialize in primary education in the country. Therefore, it is expected that Paro College will have to take the lead role in spearheading, facilitating, and enhancing ECCD programs in the country, and thus it is vital that the College has an ECCD centre. Given this opportunity, the college will benefit from having an ECCD centre. The College already has some contents and components of ECCD, so having an ECCD centre within the College could greatly strengthen the quality of ECCD modules.

2. ECCD as a Childcare Lab School

The findings from the study also show that there is potential for the ECCD centre to function as an excellent early childcare lab school. Quantitative data below show that 77.2% of the faculty participants feel that having the centre within the college premise will allow the student teachers to carry out practical observation on childcare and development.

I think having the centre within the college premise will allow the trainees to carry out practical observation on childcare development in particular and other studies in general

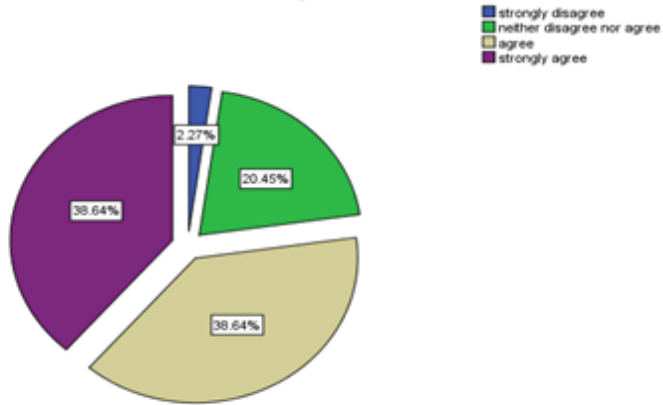


Fig 1: The Faculty view on using the centre as a lab school

This is substantiated by qualitative finding where the faculty seems to be the most resonating in having the centre and the benefits of using it as a lab school. A tutor presently teaching Child Development module in the College expressed the benefits of the childcare centre in his module which aligns well with the student teachers' perspective on the point where 84.6 % of the student participants agree on the benefits of the centre .



Fig 2: The student teachers' view on using the centre as a lab school

Qualitative findings suggest that the student teachers in general feel that there is a wide gap that exists between theoretical lessons they learn in the classroom and the lack of practice. Student participants felt that having the centre within the premises would give them opportunity in experiencing childcare practices and what they learn in the class. Participants expressed that at the moment modules like Learning Process and Child Development have been mostly theoretical. They said that having the centre would give them opportunity to come to the centre and observe children and their development. The childcare facility as bridging the gap between theory and practice in primary curriculum comes out clear in the lines of one of the participants:

Learning just theoretically is not important- not enough for us. One way or the other we will become teachers ... so having the centre will be very beneficial to the primary teachers. (P6, Interview, 7th Nov. 2010)

Further, quantitative data also suggest that it is not only the tutors teaching modules related to child development who finds the centre useful but 58.94% tutors who teach modules other than Child Development also find that it will be helpful and they see opportunities to link their courses with the centre.

as a lecturer in the college i see the opportunity to link my course/courses with the program in the childcare centre

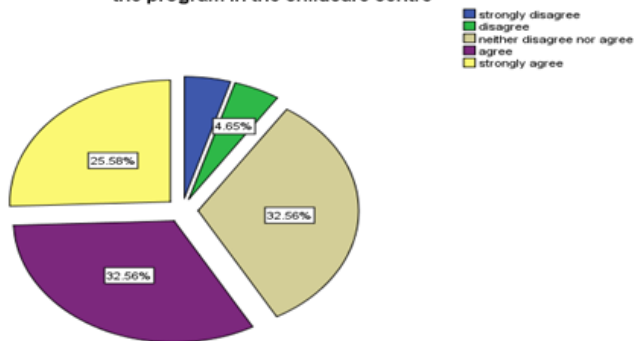


Fig 3: As a lecturer in the college I see the opportunity to link my course/ courses with the program in the childcare centre.

A faculty member felt that the present teaching learning in the College is, “fairly restricted to classroom” and that having a Childcare learning centre “will, in fact, open new opportunity” for our students to explore. (P6, Interview, 7th Nov. 2010).

Linking theory and practice through ECCD lab school.

The study clearly finds a detachment in the theory they learn in the classrooms and the practice they lack as a result of not being able to observe in real situation. In an era when the quality of education in Bhutan is a major concern at all levels and teacher education colleges are looked upon as the main contributors to the quality of teachers, there is responsibility on the part of the College to address this issue by making classrooms more learner-centred. In light of this issue VanBalkom and Sherman (2010) warn that “Bhutanese schools will improve only if there is a shift to a culture of engagement in classrooms” and that the lecturers in the Colleges of Education play a vital role in creating such a culture. They also suggest that unless the experiences provided to students are authentic, practical and relevant, quality will be compromised. Therefore, it is recommended that the childcare centre we open in our college be used as a childcare lab school for the student teachers and the faculty. Student teachers will not feel that the theory that they learn is “divorced from reality.” The childcare centre could give our student teachers and lecturers an opportunity to engage meaningfully in hands on research, practical observation, and other innovative and creative ideas that they will discover along the journey.

3. Quality of ECCD centre:

Participants from all categories had concerns on several issues related to the functioning of the centre. All these concerns raised connected to the quality of the centre, which is perhaps the most interesting finding of this research. Participants’ concern for the quality of the centre was quite inspiring. Initially, the quality of childcare was not a part of our original investigation, but it emerged as one of the most prominent themes through qualitative data. This issue directly relates to what kind of ECCD centre we might have in the College. The participants expressed that if the College opened a childcare centre they should not replicate

the existing centres that private organizations have established. They are of the view that the centre at the College should serve with the quality of international standard. For some participants, quality meant the experiences provided by the teachers and the caregivers, while for others it meant the empowerment of the parents and community by the centre in childcare and support. Quality also meant the availability of adequate resources and infrastructure as well as the curriculum we implement at the centre. The two issues that repeatedly came up were:

- a) The quality of the management of the centre and
- b) The necessity for employing a full-time supervisor.

The survey showed that 86.4% of the staff respondents wanted a full-time supervisor at the centre.

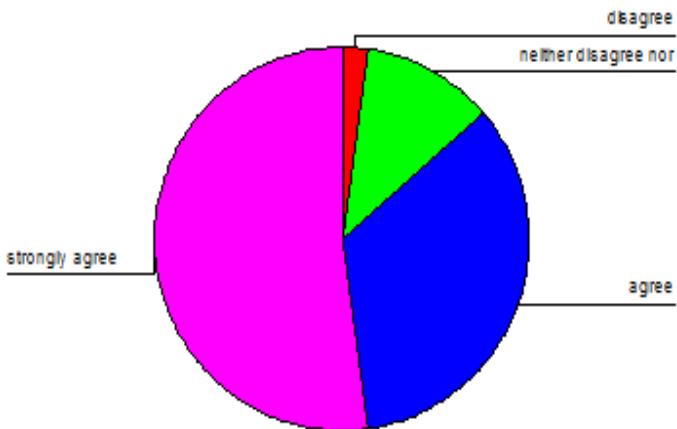


Fig 4: The faculty's view

The survey also showed that 82.5% of the student teachers thought that a full-time supervisor at the centre is necessary even though the parents could be involved.



Fig: 5 Student teachers' view on having a full time supervisor

In addition, having someone at the centre with adequate knowledge and experience in early childcare was very strongly voiced by majority of respondents from all categories. It is, therefore, recommended that the college form a committee who will start working on establishing a centre that is fitting for all children.

It is not without reason that ECCD has been called the “Missing Link” by the ESRC (2008) report. It reminds us of ECCD’s untapped potential and unrecognized strength. The PCE ECCD centre could provide the highest quality because of the fact that the College has experts and professionals in early childcare. The untrained and uninformed manner in which the present childcare centres around the country function should inform the College ECCD committee to focus on quality and enhance quality services. Rather than replicating what exists in the present daycare centres, Paro College should situate itself in a position to lead the development of quality centre.

Summary of recommendations

1. Form a committee to do the ground work in exploring for fund, planning infrastructure and identifying human resources to man the centre.
2. Before the centre opens, the committee should have at least identified a competent full-time supervisor and well trained caregivers willing to work full time.

Conclusion:

In Bhutan the global transmission of urbanization has touched every section of the society, directly affecting social and cultural lifestyle. Home-life in Bhutan is becoming increasingly diversified as more people move towards the urban centres and an increasing number of women join the workforce outside their homes. These changes directly affect family structures and child rearing practices, creating new demands for childcare and education services. According to a GNH report, "In urban centres, the emerging trend of working parents, and extended family system gradually shifting to nuclear families, pose serious challenge to childcare. Under this circumstances the traditional childcare support system is fast disappearing, causing a serious imbalance in the Bhutanese family and child rearing system. Childcare centres thus, are increasingly becoming an answer to address these increasing challenges, with the government taking swift actions in their plans to give importance to Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) (Tenth Five Year Plan, 2008-2013, Early Childhood Care and Education in Bhutan, Situational Analysis, 2008, Education Sector Strategy, Realizing Vision 2020). Hence, a quality childcare centre at the College is an integral part of providing holistic primary curriculum education to our student teachers.

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Using Binary Logistic Regression to Identify the Factors Inhibiting Research Culture at the Colleges of Royal University of Bhutan

Ramesh Thapa¹

Abstract

Universities play a very significant role in any society. They are the main source of wisdom and knowledge production. Its role has been changing rapidly from mere knowledge dissemination to knowledge production. It helps to strengthen the country's economy and develop nation as a whole. The Royal University of Bhutan has been attempting to develop research in its member colleges since its inception but the take up by the academics has been very slow. This study was mainly geared towards finding out the key factors that influenced the development of university research culture. A survey data of 228 faculty members from all colleges under the university was used for the study. Two different binary logistic regressions for response variables; 1) Published papers in research journals 2) Presented papers in research conferences and seminars, which measured university's research productivity was modeled with a set of 12 selected predictor explanatory variables. Results revealed that two explanatory variables; qualification of the faculty members and participation in research conferences and seminars was statistically significant for response variable published papers in research journals. Similarly, three explanatory variables; qualification of the faculty members, attending research trainings and workshops and participation in research conferences and seminars was statistically significant to the response variable presented papers in research conferences and seminars. Thus, this study revealed that there is still a need for the Royal University of Bhutan to address such urgencies towards building a strong research culture at the university. The university should continue to reinforce greater support in encouraging faculty members to upgrade their qualifications besides providing necessary support in relevant research trainings as well as participation in the research programmes.

Keywords: Research culture, logistic regression, significant variables, stepwise selection

1. Research Officer, Centre for Educational Research & Development

Rationale of the Study

Universities anywhere in the world place much of its strength in research capacities. They put lot of importance on research based curriculum or teaching and learning informed by research. Universities also spend lot of resources on research and publication activities. In fact, universities acquire their unique popularity because of their greater focus on research as major activities. Universities are the crucial hubs for producing knowledge. Besides these, universities also play a crucial role in the society. Margison and Considine (2000) while trying to discuss the role of the university has rightly stressed that “there can be little dispute about the need for universities to play an active and constructive role in the economic and social renewal of their communities” (p.5). To fulfill such a significant role in the society, universities need to build strong research cultures.

Research in Bhutan, in the Western sense, is relatively new. The recent establishment of the Royal University of Bhutan (RUB) provides the opportunity for research in Bhutan to be led by the RUB. The advent of the RUB means that the role of academics in the previous colleges now forming part of RUB needs to change to encompass research (Strategic Plan, RUB, 2007). Implied here is a change from a culture of teaching to a culture of teaching and research in the constituent RUB colleges and institutes. The importance of these developments has been foreshadowed in the development of the Research Department in the Office of the Vice Chancellor, RUB.

The Royal Charter and the Statutes of the Royal University of Bhutan (2003, p. 3) emphasizes that one of the core objectives of the university is to “promote and conduct research, to contribute to the creation of knowledge in an international context and to promote the transfer of knowledge of relevance to Bhutan.” Similarly, the university’s Strategic Plan also give much importance on promoting research culture in the constituent member colleges (Strategic Plan, RUB, 2007). According to Sherab (2009, p.1) RUB like other universities elsewhere, “is also giving more emphasis and encouragement on research activities for the enhancement of the quality of courses offered”. Various research training programmes and professional development workshops

are being organised to equip the faculty with research skills. These programme are training for research but the numbers are still very few. Likewise, if we look at the list of the faculties within RUB, not even 10% of our faculty has doctorate degrees. On the other hand, any university in the west would have more than 90% of their faculty with doctorate degrees. However, within its limited capacity RUB has also been providing generous support with research funding and supply of research materials to its member colleges. RUB has launched its own annual publication journal entitled the Bhutan Journal of Research and Development to provide the platform for the researchers to publish their research work. The RUB has been also able to institute research and publication as one of the key criteria for selection to higher posts and further studies. Such developments clearly indicate the significance of research and publication.

In spite of all these efforts, we do not see many faculty members taking up research, and surprisingly the only university journal often does not have adequate research papers to be published. The calls for the submission of research proposals for funding have not been successful either. All these are indicators that show research at the colleges of RUB is not a priority at the moment. We can conclude that a research culture has not been developed in each of the colleges and institutes of RUB.

As implied above, there are a range of reasons why this might be the case. Is it because faculty members are not skilled enough to carry out research? Is it because research funds are not readily available? Is it because our faculty members are heavily loaded with teaching? Is it because our faculty members do not get sufficient administrative and research support? Is it because research materials are not easily accessible? Is the past practice of only teaching and no research by the RUB academics difficult to change? Is it because the RUB academics are not mandated to carry out research? There could be many reasons and the likely cause is in fact a combination of these. However, no research has been carried out to find out possible reasons for the lack of research productivity at RUB. In the RUB colleges, lots of effort has been made to enhance research culture, however, the response by the faculty members has been very slow. Therefore,

the main purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of the research culture, research planning and priorities of each of the RUB member colleges.

Main Research Question

How well do the explanatory variables concerning research culture explain the over all RUB faculty's research experiences and productivity?

Research Objectives

1. Identify significant explanatory variables that influence the university research experiences and productivity.
2. Examine the direction of the relationship between the explanatory variables and the university research experiences and productivities based on sign (+ and -) of the regression coefficients.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Researching the research culture at the Royal University of Bhutan presents two broad associated areas in the Bhutanese context; the research itself and the concept of culture that has to be understood. The recently established Royal University of Bhutan (RUB) has been providing much emphasis on enhancing the research culture in the member colleges. According to Sherab (2009), RUB like other universities elsewhere, "is also giving more emphasis and encouragement on research activities for the enhancement of the quality of courses offered" (p. 1). However, RUB is a recently established, and the first, university in Bhutan. Bhutan as a country itself does not have a tradition of research in the Western sense of that term. It is therefore attempting to develop research without a history of research to support it, and that means that research capacity is being developed from a low base. Moreover, the colleges, prior to amalgamation into the RUB, were closely affiliated with government Ministries and their primary task was to produce graduates that could work in the Ministries. College staffs were, therefore, teachers and not

researchers. The focus has been on teaching since the inception of the colleges from about the 1970s onwards. A culture, ‘the way we do things around here’; that has been built up in each college that revolves around teaching and does not include research. Moving from a culture of no research to one which centrally includes research involves going through a process of change. To provide a clear picture of the factors that support and inhibit research at RUB colleges one needs to understand the history and current practices and policies surrounding research and its production at each of the RUB colleges. Therefore, the literature analysis that follows presents a detailed discussion on the importance of research grounded in the concept of culture and change.

Concept of the Research

The word research has been very loosely used in our everyday life to convey different meanings. Today we live in a world where “our knowledge is incomplete and problems are waiting to be solved” (Leedy, Newby & Ertmer, 1997, p. 1). The general understanding is that these problems can be resolved through research by asking significant questions and seeking authentic answers. Tan (2002, p. 2), defines research as “a careful and systematic process of inquiry to find answers to problems of interest”. In a similar tone, Kothari (2004, p. 1) defines research as “a scientific and systematic search for pertinent information on a specific topic”. We can say then that research in the context of a university means undertaking a systematic process of enquiry to find answers to significant questions. In brief, research refers to a search for knowledge.

According to Bernard (2006), research is like a craft which requires practice to perfect it. Researchers require skills. Researchers need a range of technical and ethical skills to undertake the rigorous processes of identifying a problem for study, asking questions, formulating hypothesis or specific research questions, conducting literature reviews, designing the study and identifying relevant methodologies, developing data collection tools, identifying sources of data, selecting participants, collecting data, analysing the data, writing to particular audiences and sharing the findings with others and finally publishing the

results. The search for knowledge demands highly developed skills that vary across disciplines and professions and takes time.

Importance of Research

The 21st century landscape is changing at a rapid pace. What is relevant today becomes obsolete tomorrow. New knowledge is being generated at an alarming rate. Universities which are the learning hub of any society struggle to excel in discovering and producing knowledge through research. Today one of the strengths of any university is its research capacity. Most universities in the world provide much emphasis on research as an end in itself as well as teaching and learning that is informed by research. A careful study of the strategic plans of universities abroad will show that a research agenda is always at the top of priorities. For instance, according to the University of Leeds (2006) in the United Kingdom, they have a “world-class ambition” which is expressed in the following words:

Our world-class ambition is a standard of excellence to which we aspire. It means, firstly, that our learning and teaching takes place in a research-intensive environment, that our programmes and courses are constantly refreshed by new research findings, that our students are taken to the cutting-edge of knowledge and that they learn about the research process, how new knowledge is created and are given opportunities to contribute to that knowledge base. (p. 4)

Another relevant example is the mission of the Macquarie University in Australia for 2009-2011, which states that the university aims:

to establish a pervasive research culture across all areas of the University, and in particular to achieve internationally and nationally leading research in selected concentrations of research excellence, by maximizing the institution’s intellectual and physical resources and by maintaining a continuous improvement framework (p. 1)

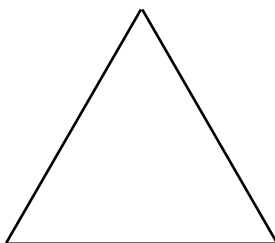
Looking at the vision and mission statement of these universities we understand that universities use research and its output to strengthen their status as leading universities. These universities invest huge amount of time and resources in research. This demands investments not only in research capacity building of staff but also in other areas such as research infrastructure e.g. libraries. In Bhutan too the Royal University of Bhutan has recognised the importance of research in its mission statement (2007, p. 3), which states that, “the Royal University of Bhutan will continue to enhance access to tertiary education and its quality through advancement of research, ...” (The Royal University of Bhutan: Strategic Plan 2004-2012). Discussing the role of research in the university, the RUB strategic plan also states that, “research is a crucial element of any institution of higher education and without the active involvement of staff in research, no institution can justifiably be recognised as a university” (p. 33)

Examining the mission statement of RUB, several questions immediately arise. Do member colleges under the Royal University of Bhutan invest their time and resources in the research capacity building? What is their vision? What are their missions? What is the annual research product in these colleges? Are their teaching-learning processes based on research findings? What are the priorities of the Royal University of Bhutan and its member colleges? Is there any gap between the existing literature and the actual practices at these member colleges? If there is any gap, what immediate and long term measures should we employ to reduce the gap? These are some of the concerns that this research would addresses

Much of the practices in the developed countries and even many developing countries are based on evidence. For instance, implementation of any new change in teaching and learning, or the introduction of new policies in the system is all evidence based as against ideology based. Research is considered to be the driving force for policies and it helps in the development of inquiring minds to inspire students to be innovative and creative through critical thinking. Until recently in Bhutan research was not very much a part of the teaching learning process or for that matter the introduction of any new changes in the system were not based on evidence. One’s ideology played important role in the

Bhutanese society. Such practices have resulted in the failure of the programmes and policies that were implemented. This clearly indicates the importance of introduction of programmes, policies, and teaching learning practices that is underpinned by research. Discussing the importance of research, Thailand has integrated into their developmental activities a philosophy of “Triangle that moves the mountain” propagated by Professor Prawase Wasi in 2000 as shown in figure 1 below;

1. Creation of relevant knowledge



2. Social movement

3. Political involvement

Figure 1 Triangle that Moves the Mountain (Wasi, 2000)

According to this triangle there should be three things working in close collaboration to make anything possible in this world. First and the most important thing is to create relevant knowledge through research which has to interact with social movement or social learning. Wasi (2000) states that, “without relevant knowledge, social movement cannot go very strong or may deviate to something else” (p.4). He further claims that to complete a working structure political involvement is a must. He also warns that without knowledge production and social movement politics cannot do much. So this philosophy is imperative to solve difficult problems. In fact, Thailand has moved a few mountains using this philosophy. For instance, through research, social movement and political involvement they have rewritten “the Constitution which led to political reform, developed 8th National Economic and Social Developmental Plan, and the National Education Act for education reform was issued” (Wasi, 2000, p. 5). Ever since then this philosophy has been applied to formulate policies, design and implement programmes, and initiate major reforms.

Thus it is time now that faculties under the Royal University of Bhutan as academics show and prove to the outside world that we are also capable to carrying out research works which can support the overall development of the country.

Culture and Change

It is essential that this study consider culture and change to understand fully the research culture of the colleges of RUB. As stated above, research is a fairly new concept in Bhutan. It was only after the establishment of RUB in 2003 that research has gained some importance. Prior to this there was little research produced at the colleges who are now members of RUB. After the establishment of RUB much emphasis has been provided to encourage and build research capacity at the member colleges. Some generous funding has been provided, capacity building such as refresher courses and professional development programmes have been initiated, and seminars and conferences have been organized. When such innovations are introduced it is likely that there will be demands on the change in culture of those affected. In fact such innovations are part of a process to effect change at RUB to influence the development of research at RUB.

According to Schein (2004, p. 1), “culture is both a dynamic phenomenon that surrounds us at all times, being constantly enacted and created by our interactions with others and shaped by leadership behaviour, and a set of structures, routines, rules and norms that guide and constrain behavior”. For instance, it is imperative that first we understand the kind of leadership our colleges have. Are our leaders supportive to the changing culture? Are our leaders able to visualize the potential of research and its products? On the other hand, it is also equally important to understand the work culture of our faculties and the colleges to change the culture of research amongst the faculties of the Royal University of Bhutan. What is the work load of each lecturer? Do they have adequate time to take up research? Do they have adequate research skills? How comfortable are they taking up new responsibilities? Bridges (1991, as cited in Sherab, 2001, p. 19) shares that, “Inevitably accepting something new often means letting go of something old”. So how are the faculties of RUB responding to this culture change? Are they receptive? Are they

adequately prepared to undergo change? What arrangements are made to support the faculties so that they undergo a smooth transition? Are these arrangements adequate? These are some of the issues addressed in this study.

However, change in culture requires time and often it is met with resistance from the change practitioners. O’Niel (2006) states that, “all cultures are inherently predisposed to change and at the same time, to resist change” (p. 1). Educational theorists such as Fullan (1999) and Lieberman (1995) highlight the significance of resistance as a natural phenomenon in the process of implementing a change initiative. Change in culture means changing ones beliefs and ways of doing things. Change can be painful causing stress and discomfort for some and liberation for others.

Factors that Support Research Culture

One needs to acquire the skills of researching through university training and adequate experiences. Existing literature (e.g., Robinson, 2005) indicate that there are various factors such as training, administrative support, funding sources, infrastructure and resources, mentoring, the role of colleagues and collaborators, research conferences and faculty meetings, and recognition of research efforts of the faculty that support research culture in an institution or a university. Each of these areas is discussed below

Training and Experience

One requires adequate training and experience to be able to conduct research. Specialist skills are necessary and these vary depending upon the demands of each discipline or profession.

Administrative Support

Adequate training and experiences are not just enough for someone to take up research. According to Robinson (2005) administrators need to understand the importance of the potential of research and support research activities. This can be achieved through administrative guidelines including ethical procedures to follow in undertaking research.

Funding Sources

Research usually involves money. In other developed countries there are various private and non-governmental organisations funding research activities besides government funds. Do we have such funding sources in Bhutan? Are funds adequately available for our researchers?

Infrastructure and Resources

Infrastructural support for carrying out research is crucial. Do our colleges have facilities and resources such as digital recorders, adequate working space, support staff and library facilities, etc. to encourage faculties to take up research?

Mentors

Existing literature indicates that mentors play a crucial role in building up the confidence level of these academics. Many academics at the colleges of the Royal University of Bhutan have just started taking up research. Confidence level has been very low due to lack of experience. Do we have mentoring process established in our colleges to support novice researchers? What systems are in place to support the new researchers? Are international partnerships in research another way forward? While research is a new development in our colleges, we do have some experienced researchers. It is important that these experienced researchers work in close collaborations with novice researchers.

Research Conferences and Faculty Meetings

Research conferences and faculty meetings are often considered to be good ways of promoting research in the established universities. They provide platforms for researchers to share their work where novice researchers could learn. They are the bottom rung for research presentation that can lead to refereed publications (Maxwell, 2006).

Recognition of Research Efforts of the Faculty

It is significant that research efforts of the faculty are recognized through various mechanisms. For instance, promotions are based on the number of papers published, reduce number of teaching hours, opportunities to attend the international conferences, seminars, trainings and workshops and provide incentives for taking initiatives.

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The methodology applied in this study is quantitative. This study involved the primary survey data collected from faculty members of all the colleges of RUB on research culture. The survey instrument was pre-tested using reliability test involving the samples size of 25 faculty members. The Cronbach's alphas for the 6 research output and 12 perception and research experiences items were .894 and .807 respectively which indicated high level of internal consistency of the scale in the instrument. The questionnaire consisted of 25 items on demographic information and faculty member's perception and experiences about the overall research culture at the RUB. The response (outcome) variables were measured on binary categorical - 'Yes' and 'No'. The explanatory (predictor) variables included 12 items that were dichotomous and ordinal measured on five-point Likert scale related to demographic, responsibilities of the faculty member, training and experiences, research and publication services, research knowledge, facilities and resources, perception of research and research policies. The binary variables were coded as 0=No, 1=Yes. The variables which used five-point Likert scale was coded as 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree.

An attempt was made to collect data from every faculty member in all the colleges; however, the data was collected from those faculty members who were present at the colleges during the time of the survey administration. A census (enumeration of all the faculty members of each college) method was applied as every faculty members who were present on the day of the survey

administration were included in the sample. The sample size was estimated based on the following statistical formulation.

$$n = \frac{Z^2 * p * q + ME^2}{ME^2 + Z^2 * p * \frac{q}{N}}$$

n=required sample size, $Z^2=Z^2$ is the abscissa of the normal curve that cuts off an area α at the tails ($1 - \alpha$ equals the desired confidence level, e.g., 95%), N =the population size, p =the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size), ME =Margin of Error (Sample Size: SRS, n.d). From the total faculty members of 485 in all the colleges, with 5% margin of errors, 95% confidence interval and 50% response distribution, the recommended sample size was estimated to be 215. However, the data collected from a total of 228 faculty members were used for this study. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 16 was extensively used to analyze the data. In this study, the researcher was interested to see the effect of explanatory variables to response variables which were among others the core research objectives of the university. A binary logistic regression method was used to model the relationship between the variables to see the extent of the effect. While developing the model, some of the cases with high missing values were removed as it was highly sensitive to chi-square test and goodness of fit in the model building process.

In order to suitably select factors or variables that are believed to have significant effect on the research experiences and productivity, a careful judgment of each factor on the basis of cause and effect relationship was first established. A univariate regression analysis was then carried out to select the covariables (with p -value <0.25) to enter into the model. The use of more traditional level ($p < 0.05$) often fails to identify the variables known to be of importance (Bendel & Afifi, 1977, Mickey & Greenland, 1989 as cited in Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000). After the factors have been identified for the model, the logistic regression procedure was used in combination with stepwise method for binary response variables. The stepwise method enables to select those significant variables which are most effective in predicting

response variables while at the same time removes those variables which are of lesser effect.

Description of the Variables Specified in the Model

In this study of research culture and productivity, two different response variables were selected which measured the research performances and productivity of faculty members at the university. It comprised of two variables; published papers in research journals and presented papers in research conferences and seminars. These variables among others were considered as the central objectives of research and development initiatives carried out at the university. Thus, two models were developed to find out the effect of explanatory variables on each of the response variables. For each of the model, only those significant explanatory variables were entered which were identified by the univariate regression analysis.

The explanatory variables included all those variables that explained the response variables; qualification, attended research trainings and workshops, attended research conferences and seminars, research discussed in faculty meetings, received fund for conducting research, aware of the procedures for application of research grants, receive support for research from the Office of Vice Chancellor, aware of existing RUB research policies and guidelines, RUB researchers are rewarded for their research contribution through promotion, RUB researchers are rewarded for their research contribution through both in-country and ex-country trainings, and RUB researchers are rewarded for their research contribution through leadership positions.

In an effort to build the most effective logistic regression model, the following variables were discarded from the analysis; teaching hours, number of students teaching, research discussed in department meetings, library has materials and references to support research, access to online database (eg. E-journals like AGROBA, HINARI, PROQUEST, JSTOR, ERIC, etc.), office space to facilitate research study, access to reprographic facilities that support research study, receive support from College Research Committee, receive support for research from colleagues, There

are mentors/senior researchers to support and guide beginning researchers, RUB should provide research grants for researchers, incentives in place for the beginning researchers. These variables were either statistically non-significant or $p > 0.25$ of the univariate analysis of variable selection.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Background

A total of 228 faculty members from all 10 colleges completed and returned the questionnaires with a response rate of 47% (228/485). Table 1 shows the percentage distribution of respondents for all the colleges. Of the total respondents, male accounted for 77.2% where as women accounted for 22.4% and missing values 0.4%

Table 1 Frequency distribution of college respondents

Sl. No	College	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative
1	SCE	32	14	14
2	SC	44	19	33
3	RIHS	13	6	39
4	NITM	6	3	42
5	ILCS	7	3	45
6	GCBS	45	20	65
7	JNP	12	5	70
8	CST	18	8	78
9	CNR	13	6	83
10	PCE	38	17	100
	Total	228	100	

Majority of the faculty members had qualification of master's degree which constituted 69.7%, followed by bachelor's degree 19.3% and only 9.2% with doctorate degree as shown in table 2.

Table 2 Highest qualifications

	Bachelors	Masters	PhD	Total	Missing	Total
Frequency	44	159	21	224	4	228
Percent	19.3	69.7	9.2	98.2	1.8	100.0
Valid Percent	19.6	71.0	9.4	100		
Cumulative %	19.6	90.6	100.0			

Majority of the faculty members (36.4%) just had the teaching experience of less than 5 years, 28.1% between 6-10 years and 15.4% with experiences of 11-15 years. Less than 6% constituted above 16 years of teaching experiences.

Most of the faculty members (44.3%) in all the colleges taught about 11-15 hours per week followed by 34.2% who thought around 6-10 hours (Table 3). Similarly, most (41.7%) of the faculty members in all colleges taught around 51-100 students, 21.5% taught 21-50 students and 20.2% taught about 101-150 students.

Model 1: Published Papers in Research Journals

A stepwise logistic regression was performed to find the most parsimonious set of predictors that are most effective in predicting the response variable with 'published papers in research journals' as response variable. The response variable published paper in research journals was binary; Yes coded as 1 if the faculty members have published, and No coded 0 if otherwise. Explanatory variables included both dichotomous as well as ordinal which are qualification, attended research trainings and workshops, attended research conferences and seminars, research discussed in faculty meetings, received fund for conducting research, aware of the procedures for application of research grants, receive support for research from the Office of Vice Chancellor, aware of existing RUB research policies and guidelines, and RUB researchers are rewarded for their research contribution through promotion, RUB researchers are rewarded for their research contribution through both in-country and ex-country trainings, RUB researchers are rewarded for their research contribution through leadership positions.

Table 3 Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Model	43.149	3	.000

Table: 4 Model SAummary

step	-2 log likelihood	Cox & Snell R	Nagelkerke R Square
2	167.073	.225	.317

A test of full model against the constant only model was statistically significant and reliable ($\chi^2(3, N=228) = 43.149, p < .001$). This model accounted for between 22.5% and 31.7% of the variance in published papers in research journals. The prediction overall success was 79.8% (89.7% for No and 57.7% for Yes). The Wald statistics demonstrated that two variables; qualification ($p = .001$) and attended research conferences and seminars ($p = .004$) made significant contribution to prediction. All others were not significant predictors. There were two steps in the process and all other variables were removed from the model in which the step selection was terminated at step two.

Table 5 Classification table

Observed			Predicted		
			published papers in research journals	percentage Correct	
Step	published papers in	no	104	12	89.7
2	research journals	yes	22	30	57.7
Overall Percentage					79.8

In table 6, the sign of the coefficient for Qualif(1) is negative (doctorate degree as reference category) which implies that the probability of faculty members with bachelor degree to publish papers in research journals is lower than the faculty members with doctorate degree. The EXP(B) value of Qualif (1) was 0.14 which means that the probability of the faculty members with

bachelor`s degree to publish papers in research journals was 0.14 times lower than the faculty members with doctorate degree. If we calculate the inverse of EXP(B) here, i.e. $1/0.14 = 7.14$, we can say that a faculty who has doctorate degree is 7.14 times more likely to publish than faculty members who just have bachelor degree.

The value of EXP(B) of Qualif (2) was 0.209 meaning that faculty members with master`s degree have probability of 0.209 times lower than of faculty members with doctorate degree to publish papers in research journals. The inverse of EXP (B) i.e $1/0.209$ is 4.78 which we can say that a faculty who has doctorate degree is 4.78 times more likely to publish papers than the faculty with masters.

Similarly, the probability of publishing papers for faculty members who attend research conferences and seminars is 3 times larger than those who did not attend. The EXP(B) showed positive sign indicating positive relationship between the papers being published in research journals and attended research seminars and conference.

Table 6 Variables in the Equation

Step2	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
qualif			13.835	2	.001	
Qualif(1)	-4.246	1.179	12.977	1	.000	.014
Qualif(2)	-1.566	.621	6.363	1	.012	.209
iv3new	1.158	.404	8.212	1	.004	3.184
Con-stant	-.969	.942	1.059	1	.304	.379

The two significant variables; qualifications of the faculty members and their lack of participation in research seminars and conference were therefore the two major contributing factors for lesser research papers being published in research journals. Improving the qualification level of the faculty members and allowing them to attend more seminars and conferences would let them carry out more research and publish papers in research journals.

The qualification is integral for any academic successes and in the RUB, not even 10 percent of faculty members have doctorate degree. The achievement of high academic qualifications and vigorous research involvement would stimulate greater influence on research contributions as well as production in the universities.

The existing literature suggests that research conference and faculty meetings among others are the important factors that support research culture. Participating in the research conferences and faculty meetings are often considered to be great ways of promoting research in the established universities. They provide platforms for researchers to share their work where novice researchers could learn. They are the bottom rung for research presentation that can lead to refereed publications (Maxwell, 2006). In the RUB and its member colleges, an effort has been made to organize the research conferences and seminars both at the international and national level, however, the regularity of organizing such events are still minimal. The university and its colleges also lack the capacity to allow its faculty members to participate in the research forums outside of the country. Thus, higher the opportunities to participate in the research forums and meetings; there could be higher probability of presenting their research productivities.

Model 2: Presented Papers in Research Conferences and Seminars

The response variable for this model is papers presented in research conferences and seminars. It is a binary variable coded Yes=1 if faculty members have presented papers and No=0 if they have not. Thus, binary logistic regression with stepwise method was used to model this response variable. The explanatory variables are binary as well as ordinal which includes qualification, attended research conferences and seminars, attended research trainings and workshops, received fund for conducting research, and aware of the procedures for application of research grants. All other variables were found insignificant while analyzing univariate analysis and were discarded from the model. There were three steps in the process and two variables were removed from the model in which the step selection was terminated at step three.

Table 7 Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Model	79.547	4	.000

Table 8 Model Summary

step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
3	163.895 ^b	.354	.480

A full model was considered to be statistically significant and reliable (χ^2 (4, N=228) =79.547, $p < .001$). The model accounted for between 35.4% and 48.0% of the variance. The prediction overall success was 79.1%. For the papers presented 81.7% were predicted. However, 77.5% of the predictions for the non-presenter were accurate. The Wald statistics showed that three variables; qualification ($p = .010$), attended research conferences and seminars ($p = .001$), and attended research trainings and workshops ($p = 0.20$) made significant contribution to prediction. All others are not significant predictors.

Table 9 Classification table

Observed			Predicted		
			presented papers in conferences and seminars		Percentage Correct
Step 3	presented papers in conferences and seminars	no	86	25	77.5
		yes	13	58	81.7
Overall Percentage					79.1

In table 10, the sign of the coefficient of Qualif(1) is negative (doctorate degree as reference category) which implies that the probability of faculty members with bachelor's degree to present papers in conferences and seminars is lower than faculty members with doctorate degree. The EXP value of Qualif (1) was 0.024, implying that faculty members with bachelor's degree

had probability to present papers in conferences and seminars 0.024 times lower as compared to faculty members with doctorate degree. If we calculate the inverse of EXP (B) here, i.e. $1/0.024 = 41.6$, we can say that a faculty who has doctorate degree is 41.6 times more likely to present papers than faculty members who just has bachelor degree. The EXP (B) value of Qualif (2) was 0.035 implying that faculty members with master’s degree had probability to present papers in conferences and seminars 0.035 times lower than faculty members with doctorate degree. The inverse of EXP (B) i.e $1/0.035$ is 28.57 which we can say that a faculty who has doctorate degree is 28.57 times more likely to present papers than the faculty with masters.

When faculty members attend research conferences and seminars, the probability to present papers in conferences and seminars is 8 times greater than the faculty members who did not attend. When they also attend research trainings and workshop, the probability to present papers is 3 times greater than the faculty members who did not attend research trainings and workshops.

Table 10 Variables in the Equation

Step2	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
qualif			9.303	2	.010	
qualif(1)	-3.729	1.229	9.210	1	.002	.024
qualif(2)	-3.361	1.165	8.322	1	.004	.035
iv3new	2.097	.456	21.144	1	.000	8.141
iv5new	1.045	.450	5.400	1	.020	2.843
Constant	-2.396	1.369	3.062	1	.080	.091

Thus, to encourage the participation of the faculty members to present their papers in research conferences and seminars, besides improving their education level, they should also improve their participation not only in attending research conferences and seminars but also in attending research trainings and workshops.

Describing the factors that support research culture, Robinson (2005) has stated that an adequate training and experience is necessary to be able to conduct research. He has

also pointed out that specialist skills are necessary and these vary depending upon the demands of each discipline or profession. For most of the faculty members at RUB, research has been a new phenomenon and lacked necessary skills and trainings to carry out research. This indicates that RUB requires to conduct regular trainings to develop research skills of the faculty members.

Conclusion

From the analysis of the above two model, it is clear that qualifications and research education were highly significant to both the response variables (published papers in research journals and presented papers in research conferences and seminars). It showed that majority of the faculty members who had qualification of bachelors or master's degree did not have much research experiences. While the faculty members who obtained doctorate degree on the other hand was very minimal. The university should continue to expand the qualification of faculty members so that they are fully exposed to the intellectual as well as research environment. For faculty members with doctorate degree, opportunities must be created to revitalize their knowledge and skills so that there is a continuous generation of research output. It would build their confidence and enthusiasm for renewed involvement in research activities.

The faculty members in the university also lacked opportunities to participate in research conferences and seminars as well as the trainings and workshops which are the important avenues required for enhancing and exchanging research know how. Faculty members must be encouraged to participate more often in attending such forums. The university should also hold more professional conferences and meetings so that the space for faculty members to bring up their research works is being created. The study showed that low research productivity at the university was not because of heavy teaching hours of the faculty members, large numbers of modules handled or large numbers of students taught but it was other infrastructure and support factors which were causing greater effect. However, all these supports alone are not enough if RUB wishes to excel in research and development attempt, RUB should strive forward to both internalize as well as pressurize its faculty members to take up research.

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སྤྱི་ཚོལ་ལག་གི་མངའ་ཁོངས་ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁ་དང་ཡིན་སྐད་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལུ་ འབྲི་ལྷག་ལག་
ལེན་གྱི་གནས་ཚད་ ག་བསྟུང།

དཔལ་འབྱོར།¹
རིན་ཆེན་མཁའ་འགོ།²

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་བརྒྱུད་དོན། (Abstract)

རྒྱལ་ཁབ་རང་དབང་རང་བཙན་གྱི་དོན་རྒྱལ་ལོ་ཅིག་ སྐད་ཡིག་འདི་འབད་མ་ལས་ དེ་དང་འབྲེལ་
བའི་དཀའ་ངལ་དང་གཞི་ལེན་ཚུ་ རོས་འཛིན་འབད་དེ་ སྐད་ཡིག་ཡར་རྒྱས་ཀྱི་ཐབས་ལམ་སྟོན་
ཤེས་ནི་དོན་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་འགོ་འདྲེན་འཐབ་འཐབ་ཨིན།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་ནང་གཙོ་བོ་ར་ སྐད་ཡིག་ལུ་རིག་ཙམ་བཞི་ཡོད་པའི་ནང་ལས་ འབྲི་ལྷག་ལག་
ལེན་གྱི་གནས་ཚད་འདི་ག་དེ་ཅིག་གུ་སྟོན་དེ་འདུག་ག་ གངས་འབྲེལ་ཐབས་ཤེས་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་
ཐོག་ལས་ དབྱེ་དབྱུང་འབད་དེ་ཡོད། དེ་མ་ཚད་འབྲུག་མི་ཆེ་འབྲིང་རྒྱུ་གུ་གུ་ལུ་ རྫོང་
ཁ་འདི་འབྲུག་པའི་དོན་རྒྱལ་ལོ་ཅིག་འབད་མ་ལས་ བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོ་པ་གལ་ཆེ་བའི་ ཁ་ལས་
དེ་སྟེ་བཤད་སྟོལ་འདུག། ཡིན་རུང་ཁ་དང་ལག་ལེན་གཉིས་ རྒྱལ་མ་མཐུན་པར་ཡོད་པའི་རྒྱུ་བ་
བྱེད་ཡང་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་གིས་བྱིན་ཚུགས།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་མ་འོངས་པ་ལུ་ གནད་དོན་འདི་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་རྒྱ་སྟོལ་སྟེ་འབད་ནི་དོན་
ལུ་ མོ་བཏབ་ཀྱི་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་བརྒྱུ་ཅིག་འབད་མ་ལས་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གནས་སྟུང་ས་ཁོང་ཡང་ སྤྱི་ཚོལ་
རྫོང་ཁག་གཅིག་ལུ་གཞི་བཞག་སྟེ་འབད་ཡོད་པའི་ཁར་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ཐབས་ལམ་ཚུ་ལས་ གངས་
འབྲེལ་ཐབས་ཤེས་རྒྱུ་མ་ཅིག་ལུ་གཙོ་བོ་བརྒྱུད་སྟེ་ གནས་སྟུང་བསྟུ་ལེན་འབད་འབད་མ་ཨིན།

1. ལེགས་བཤད་པ། སྤྱི་ཚོལ་རིག་མཚོ་རིམ་སྟོལ་གྱ།
2. ཞིབ་རོགས་ལེགས་བཤད་པ། སྤྱི་ཚོལ་རིག་མཚོ་རིམ་སྟོལ་གྱ།

དོ་སྤྱོད། (Introduction)

༡. རྒྱུ་ལུངས།

ཚོང་ཁའི་བརྗེ་གཞུང་གསར་པ། (༡༠༠༢) རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་སྐད་ཡིག་ཚོང་ཁའི་ དུས་དང་ཕུགས་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་འདི་ནང་ མིའི་འགྲོ་བ་ཆགས་པའི་དུས་སྐབས་ལས་ཡོད་པའི་ ལ་སྐད་ཅིག་ཡིན་པའི་རྒྱལ་མཚན་ཡང་ སངས་རྒྱལ་བཙུག་ལྷན་འདས་དང་དུས་མཉམ་ལུ་ ཞབ་ཞུང་གི་གཡུས་ཁར་བྱོན་མི་ བོན་གྱི་སྟོན་པ་གཤེན་རབ་མི་བོ་ཆེད་དུས་སྐབས་ལས་ཚུར་དར་བའི་ ལྷ་གསོལ་བོན་གསོལ་གྱི་ཚོག་ཚུ་ནང་ ཚོང་ཁའི་ཚོག་ཚུ་དེ་འདུག། (ཤོག་གྲངས་ ༠༡-༠༢) དེ་མ་ཚད་ཞབས་དུང་དག་དབང་རྣམ་རྒྱལ་གྱིས་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་འདི་ནང་ཚོས་སྲིད་གཉེས་ལྷན་གྱི་གཞུང་འགོ་བཙུགས་གནང་བའི་སྐབས་ལས་རང་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་གཞུང་ཁ་འབད་ཆ་འཛོག་མཛོད་གནང་ཡོད་པའི་ཁར་ ལྷག་པར་དུ་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༡༩༩༡ ལས་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་གོང་འཕེལ་གྱི་འཆར་གཞི་འགོ་བཙུགས་པ་ད་ མི་དབང་འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་རབས་གསུམ་པ་ མངའ་བདག་འཛིན་མེད་རྗེ་དབང་ཕུག་མཚོག་གིས་ཚོང་ཁའི་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་སྐད་ཡིག་འབད་ཅོས་འཛོན་དང་ རྒྱལ་བསྐྱེད་གནང་ལུག། (ཤོག་གྲངས་-༩)

དེ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མི་དབང་འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་བཞི་པ་ འཛིན་མེད་སྐྱོད་དབང་ཕུག་(རང་ལུགས་གནམ་ལོ་ ཚུ་མོ་བྱ་ལོ་ ལྷ་བ་ ལ་པའི་ཚོས་ ༡༠) འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་དོན་རྒྱལ་ཅོམ་གཅིག་ཡིན་པའི་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་སྐད་ཡིག་འདི་ལུ་ འབྲུག་པའི་མི་ལྷངས་གེ་ར་གིས་བརྩི་བཀུར་དང་དང་འདོད་བསྐྱེད་དེ་ལག་ལེན་འབབ་དགོ་པའི་བཀའ་རྒྱ་གནང་སྟེ་འདུག།

འདི་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་སྲིད་བྱུས་ཚུ་ནང་ ཚོང་ཁའི་ལག་ལེན་འབབ་དགོས་འབད་འཁོད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་ཁར་ ཤེས་རིག་གི་སློབ་གྲྭའི་རྩ་གཞུང་ནང་ཡང་ཚོང་ཁའི་ཚོས་ཚན་འདི་ལྷབ་སྟོན་གྱི་ལས་རིམ་ཅིག་འབད་ཚུད་དེ་འདུག། གནད་དོན་འདི་ལས་བརྟེན་ དེ་རེས་ཚོང་ཁའི་མཁས་མཚོག་ཚུ་གི་བར་ན་ གོས་འཛོམས་ཚོགས་དགོ་མི་འདི་ཡང་གཙོ་བོ་རང་ ཚོང་ཁའི་ དར་བུ་དང་གོང་འཕེལ་གཏང་དགོས་ཅིན་ཐབས་ལམ་ཚུ་ག་ཅི་བཟུམ་རང་སྟོན་དགོས་ཡིན་ནུ་ ཚོང་ཁའི་གནས་ཚད་འདི་ག་དེ་ཅིག་ལུ་ཐུག་སྟེ་ཡོད་པ་ཡིན་ནུ་ འབྲུག་མི་སྤྱིར་བཏང་གིས་མཁྱེན་དགོས་འདི་ གལ་ཆེན་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ཡིན་མས།

འདི་འབད་མ་ལས་ང་བཅས་ཀྱི་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་ཡང་ གནད་དོན་དེ་ལུ་གཞི་བཞག་སྟེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་
སྐད་ཡིག་གི་རིག་ཚུལ་བཞི་ལས་ འབྲི་ལྷག་གི་རིག་ཚུལ་གཉིས་པོ་དེ་ སྤྱི་ཚུངས་ལག་གི་མངའ་
ཁོངས་ལུ་ ལག་ལེན་འབབ་མི་ག་དེ་སྟེ་འདུག་ག་ལྟ་ནི་དང་ རྫོང་ཁ་དང་ཡིང་སྐད་ཀྱི་བར་ན་ལག་
ལེན་གནས་ཚད་ ག་འདི་མཐོ་བས་ག་ལྟ་སྟེ་ དེ་དང་བསྟུན་པའི་གྲོས་འཆར་ཚུ་ལུ་ཚུགས་ནིའི་
དོན་ལུ་ཨིན།

༢. ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གི་དམིགས་ཡུལ། (Research objective)

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་འབད་དགོ་པའི་ དམིགས་ཡུལ་གཙོ་བོ་རང་ ང་བཅས་རའི་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་ ཉེ་
མ་ལས་དར་ཉེ་ཡོད་པའི་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་སྐད་ཡིག་རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་ མི་ཆེ་འབྲིང་ཚུངས་ལུ་གོ་ར་
གིས་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་དོན་ལུ་བཟང་པོ་ཅིག་ཨིན་མ་ལས་ བདག་འཛིན་འབབ་དགོ་པ་གལ་ཆེ་མ་
འབད་བཤད་སྟོལ་ཡོད་རུང་ ཁ་དང་ལག་ལེན་གཉིས་རྟེན་མཐུན་མི་མཐུན་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གི་
ཐོག་ལས་དབྱེ་དབྱེ་འབད་དེ་ དེ་དང་བསྟུན་པའི་གྲོས་འཆར་ཚུ་བཀོད་ནི་དང་ གཤམ་འཁོད་ཀྱི་
དམིགས་ཡུལ་ཚུ་འགྲུབ་ཐབས་ལུ་ཨིན།

༡. ག་ཚོད་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ལས་ཀྱི་ལས་ཀྱི་ཚུ་ཚོད་ཀྱི་བར་ན་ འབྲི་ལྷག་གི་རིག་ཚུལ་གཉིས་པོ་
འདི་ རྫོང་ཁ་དང་ཡིང་སྐད་གཉིས་ལས་ ག་དེ་མངའ་ལག་ལེན་འབབ་ཨིན་ལྟ་ནི།
༢. སྤྱི་ཚུངས་དང་ལག་ལེན་གི་བར་ན་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་ཉེ་ཡོད་མེད་ལྟ་ནི།
༣. ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ གྲུབ་འབྲས་དང་བསྟུན་པའི་གནད་དོན་ཚུ་ འོས་འབབ་ཅན་གི་ཡིག་ཚང་
ཚུ་ལུ་ གྲོས་བསྟུན་གི་གྲོས་གཞི་འབད་ཐུལ་ནི།
༤. མ་འོངས་པ་ལུ་གནད་དོན་འདི་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ ལམ་སྟོན་གི་
གནས་སྐབས་བྱིན་ཐབས་ལུ་ཨིན།

དམིགས་ཡུལ་དེ་ཚུ་འགྲུབ་ནིའི་དོན་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གི་གཙོ་དོན་དེ་བ་ སྤྱི་ཚུངས་ལག་གི་མངའ་
ཁོངས་ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁ་དང་ཡིང་སྐད་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལུ་ འབྲི་ལྷག་ལག་ལེན་གི་གནས་ཚད་ ག་འདི་
མཐོ་བས་? ཟེར་བའི་དེ་བ་ དེ་ལས་ ཡན་ལག་གི་དེ་བ།

ཀ རྫོང་ཁའི་སྐད་ཡིག་བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོས་འདུག་ག?

ཁ རྫོང་ཁ་ནང་ལྷག་ནི་དང་འབྲི་ནི་ལུ་སློབ་འདུག་ག?

ག དུས་རྒྱུན་དུ་འབྲི་ལྷག་ནང་རྫོང་ཁ་དང་ཨིན་སྐད་གཉིས་ལས་ལག་ལེན་མངམ་ག་འདི་
འཐབ་སློབ་?

ཟེར་བའི་བྲི་བ་རྒྱ་བཀོད་དེ་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་ཡི།

ཚུམ་རིག་བསྐྱར་ཞིབ། (Literature review)

ཚུམ་རིག་བསྐྱར་ཞིབ་ཀྱི་དོ་སློབ།

ཚུམ་རིག་བསྐྱར་ཞིབ་འདི་ ད་བཅས་རའི་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་སྐད་ཡིག་རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་ དར་ཁྱབ་དང་གོང་
འཕེལ་ག་དེ་འབད་འགྲོ་ཡི་ག་ དེ་གི་རྒྱབ་ཁུངས་དང་ རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་འཕེལ་གྱི་དོན་ལུ་ གཞུང་གི་
སྲིད་བྱུས་དང་ཐབས་ལམ་ག་ཅི་ར་བརྩམས་ཅུག་ག་ དེ་བརྩམ་སྡེ་ སྐད་ཡིག་གོང་འཕེལ་གྱི་དོན་
ལུ་ ལཱ་སླའི་བྱུང་རིམ་རྒྱ་ག་ཅི་ར་མཛད་ཅུག་ག་ དེ་རྒྱ་ལུ་གཞི་བཞག་སྟེ་ བསྐྱར་ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་
ཡོད་པ་ཨིན། ཨིན་རུང་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་དོན་ཚན་དེ་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་ ཉེ་མ་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་དེ་མེད་པ་
ལས་ དེ་དང་འབྲེལ་བའི་ཚུམ་རིག་རྒྱ་ ག་ཅི་ཡང་ཐོབ་མ་རྒྱུགས།

1.འབྲུག་ལུ་རྫོང་ཁ་ལག་ལེན་གྱི་རྒྱབ་ཁུངས།

ད་བཅས་རའི་ དཔལ་ལུན་འབྲུག་པའི་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་ རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་དུས་རབས་༡༩པའི་ནང་ མཐུ་
ཚེན་ཚོས་ཀྱི་རྒྱལ་པོ་ཞབས་རྒྱུང་དག་དབང་རྣམ་རྒྱལ་མཚོག་ ཞལ་བཞུགས་པའི་བསྐྱང་ལས་རང་
རྫོང་གཞི་ཁག་རྒྱ་ནང་ལྷག་ལཱ་གནང་མི་རྒྱ་གིས་ གཞུང་སྐད་འབད་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་སྟེ་སྲིད་ཡོད་པ་
ཨིན་མས། ཨིན་རུང་སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༧༡ལྷོན་ ཚོས་སྐད་ནང་མ་གཏོགས་ རྫོང་ཁ་ཉམ་རྒྱུང་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་
འབྲི་ནི་མེད་པ་ཨིན་མས། (www.dzongkha.gov.bt).

དེ་ལས་ སྐད་ཡིག་དར་ཁྱབ་གཏང་ནི་དོན་ལུ་ ནང་པའི་རིག་གཞུང་ལྟེ་བ་ཅིག་ སེམས་རྟོགས་ཁ་
རྫོང་ནང་ལུ་ གཞི་བརྩུགས་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་མི་འདི་ བྱལ་ལས་རྒྱ་བསྐྱེད་འབད་དེ་ མིང་ཡང་ སེམས་
རྟོགས་ཁ་རིག་གཞུང་མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་ལྷན་ ཟེར་བཏགས་གནང་ཅུག། དེ་ལས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༧༡ལུ་ རྒྱལ་

ལབ་ནང་སློབ་གྲྭ་ཡོངས་བསྐྱོམས་ལྟ་ཡོད་པ་ལས་ སློབ་གྲྭ་ག་རེའི་ནང་རྫོང་ཁའི་ཚོས་ཚན་ལྟར་ཞི་ཚུ་
འགོ་བརྩམས་ལུགས་ལ་གཞི་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་ཤེས་ཡོན་ལྟར་ཞི་འདི་ སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༧༩ལས་འགོ་
བརྩམས་ཡོད་ཅུང་ འབྲི་ཞི་དང་ལྷག་ཞི་ ཚུ་ཡིང་སྐད་དང་ ཉིན་དེའི་ཐོག་ལུ་མ་གཏོགས་ རྫོང་ཁ་
དང་ཚོས་སྐད་ཐོག་ལུ་ ལྟར་ཞི་མེན་འདུག། སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༦༡ལོ་ལུ་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ རྐང་ཡིག་འབད་
ངོས་ལེན་བྱུང་ཞིན་མ་ལས་རྒྱུང་མ་ཅིག་ འབྲི་ལྷག་གི་ཤེས་བྱ་ཚུ་ག་ར་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ཐོག་ལུ་འབྲི་ཞི་
འཆར་གཞི་ཚུ་ འགོ་བརྩམས་ཏེ་ སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༧༡ལུ་ ཤེས་རིག་གི་འོག་ལུ་རྫོང་ཁའི་སྤེ་ཚན་ཅིག་
ཡང་ རྫོང་ཁ་དང་འབྲེལ་བ་ཡོད་པའི་ལས་སྣ་དང་ འཆར་གཞི་ཚུ་བརྩམས་ཞི་དོན་ལུ་ ཡིག་ཚང་
གསར་པ་ཅིག་ གཞི་བརྩམས་འབད་ལུགས། འདི་གི་འབྲེལ་ལས་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་ ལོ་གཅིག་བཟོ་
གཅིག་རྫོང་ཁའི་ལག་ལེན་འདི་ ཡར་རྒྱས་ཀྱི་གོམ་པ་མདུན་དུ་སློབ་ཅུང་ ཡིང་སྐད་བརྒྱུམ་སྤྱོད་
མ་བརྟུབ་ལས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༤༦ལུ་ མི་དབང་འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་བཞི་པ་ འཛིགས་མེད་མེད་གོ་དབང་ལྷག་
མཚོག་གིས་ རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་འཕེལ་གཏང་ཞི་དོན་ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ཀྱི་ཡིག་ཚང་
ཅིག་ རང་སྐྱོངས་ལས་སྤེ་འབད་གཞི་བརྩམས་མཛེད་གཏང་ལུགས།(www.dzongkha.gov.bt)

2.རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་སྤྱི་དབྱུག

Driem (1994) མི་དབང་འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་གསུམ་པ་མཚོག་གིས་ སྤར་བ་ལྷག་པ་འབད་ ཡར་
རྒྱས་གཏང་ཐབས་ལུ་དམིགས་ཏེ་ སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༦༡ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་སྐད་ཡིག་འབད་ ངོས་
འཛིན་འབད་གནང་ལུགས། རྫོང་ཁའི་བརྗེ་གཞུང་གསར་པ། (༡༩༩༠)འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་ ལ་སྐད་
དང་སྐད་རིགས་ལེ་ཤ་ཡོད་པའི་གྲུལ་ལས་ རྫོང་ཁ་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་སྐད་ཡིག་འབད་ ངོས་འཛིན་
འབད་དགོ་མི་དེ་ཡང་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་གཞུང་ཁ་རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་ ད་རེས་ བངས་པ་བརྩམས་
བརྩམས་མེན་པར་ ཏུས་དང་སྤྲུག་ལས་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་འདི་ནང་ མིའི་འགྲོ་བ་ཆགས་པའི་ནམ་ཏུས་
ལས་རང་ འགྲོ་བ་མིའི་རང་གཤིས་རང་ཆས་ཀྱི་ རྒྱུ་མཚན་དང་འབྲེལ་བར་འབྲུང་བའི་ ཤེས་
བརྗོད་འཇུག་པའི་ མཚན་ཉིད་དང་ལྷན་པའི་ ཡུལ་སྐད་རྫིང་མ་ཅིག་འབད་མ་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ཡིན་
པས། (ཤོག་གྲངས་༥༥)

བསོད་ནམས་ཚོས་གྲགས་(2010) འབྲུག་གཞུང་གི་ རྫོང་ཁའི་སྐད་ཡིག་གོང་འཕེལ་དང་ དར་
ལྷབ་གཏང་ཞི་དོན་ལུ་ སྤྱི་དབྱུག་དང་ཐབས་ལམ་ཚུ་ཡང་ འཛུམ་སྤྱིང་གཅིག་སྤྱོད་ཀྱི་གནས་
སྤངས་དང་འབྲེལ་ཏེ་ གོང་འཕེལ་གྱི་ལས་སྣ་ཚུ་རིམ་པ་བཞིན་དུ་ སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༦༡ལོ་གྲངས་ལས་

འགོ་བརྩམས་གནང་ཅུག། དེ་ཡང་ རྫོང་ཁའི་འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་གི་ རྐང་རིགས་མི་འབྲེ་བ་
གར་གི་གཙོ་བོ་སྡེ་ རྫོང་ཁབ་མཐའ་དབུས་ཀྱི་ མི་སེར་གར་ལུ་བརྟེན་འཕྲོད་ཚུགས་པའི་ ཁ་ཅིག་
ཨིན་པའི་ཁར་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་རྐང་ཡིག་རྫོང་ཁའི་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་རྟོགས་བྱུང་མོངས་མ་ཡིན་པ་
ཅིག་ཨིན་པའི་ཁར་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་རྟོགས་ཚུ་མི་ཉམས་གོང་འཕེལ་ བཟོ་དགོ་པའི་སྲིད་བྱུས་ནང་
ལས་ གལ་ཆེ་ཤོས་ཅིག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་རྟོགས་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་རྐང་ཡིག་འདི་གཅེས་འཛིན་འབད་
དགོ་པ་ ཨིན་མ་འབད་བཀོད་ཅུག། (ཤོག་གངས་༤༡)

3. རྐང་ཡིག་གོང་འཕེལ་ཀྱི་དོན་ལུ་ལྷ་སྐྱའི་བྱུང་རིམ།

Driem (1994) གཉིས་ཀྱི་བྲིས་མི་གི་དེབ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་སྟུན་ལུ་དང་འབྲེལ་བ་ཅིན་ རྒྱུ་ལོ་
༡༩༡༡་ལོ་ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ཤེས་རིག་སྡེ་ཚོན་ནང་ལས་ རྫོབ་དཔོན་གནག་མདོག། རྫོབ་དཔོན་པར་
ལ། རྫོབ་དཔོན་ སངས་རྒྱལ་བསྟན་འཛིན་གསུམ་གྱིས་ མི་དབང་འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་བཞི་པའི་བཀའ་
རྒྱུ་ལྟར་དུ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ལག་དེབ་ ཐབས་ཤེས་གསར་པ་ཟེར་མི་ཅིག་བརྩམས་མི་འདི་ གསར་
བཏོན་འབད་ཡོད་པ་
འབད་བཀོད་ཅུག། (ཤོག་གངས་༤༥)

རྫོང་ཁའི་བརྟེན་གཞུང་གསར་པ།(༢༠༠༠)རྫོང་ཁའི་རྐང་ཡིག་འབྲི་ནིའི་ལམ་སྟོན་འདི་ ཉེ་མ་ལས་ཡོད་
དུང་ འབྲི་ཐངས་ཀྱི་ལམ་ལུགས་བརྟེན་འབྲེལ་ཡི་གུའི་སྐྱོར་བསྟོན་པའི་ གཞུང་ཅིག་མེད་པ་ལས་
༡༩༡༡་ལུ་ དཔེ་མཛོད་མདོ་ཆེན་ རྫོབ་དཔོན་པར་ཚོ་དབང་མཚོག་གིས་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྒྱ་བཤད་རབ་
གསལ་སྐུ་རེངས་དང་པོ་ཟེར་མི་གི་ ཡི་གུ་སྐྱོར་བའི་གཞུང་ གསར་བརྩམས་མཛད་གནང་མ་ལས་
ཚུར་ རྫོང་ཁ་ལག་ལེན་ཀྱི་དོན་ལུ་ བན་པ་སྟོན་འབད་བྱུང་ཅུག། (ཤོག་གངས་༥༥)

Driem (1994) དེ་ལས་ ཕྱི་འབྲེལ་སྟོན་པོ་ལྷ་བཙུན་དང་ འབྲུག་གི་དམག་སྡེའི་དག་ཤོས་
རིན་ཆེན་ཚོ་རིང་། རྒྱ་གར་གྱི་ དམག་སྡེའི་འགོ་དཔོན་ དག་ཤོས་མེ་བུར་ཚུ་གིས་ འབྲུག་ལུ་རྒྱ་
འབྲུག་གི་དམག་སྡེའི་འབད་མི་ཚུ་གི་དོན་ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ལམ་སྟོན་གི་དེབ་ཟེར་མི་ཅིག་ བརྩམས་
ཅུག། དེ་ལས་ཚུར་རིམ་པ་བཞིན་དུ་ རྒྱུ་ལོ་༡༩༡༡་ལོ་ལུ་དགོས་རིག་འཛིན་རྟོག་ བོའི་པ་ཤིག་འི་
ལོ་བསི་གི་མར་གུན་མ་ལུ་དོན་ཟེར་མི་ཚུ་གིས་ རྫོབ་དཔོན་གནག་མདོག་གི་གྲོགས་རམ་ཐོག་ལུ་

ཕན་དེ་བརྗོད་ཁོའི་དོ་སྤྱོད་ཟེར་མི་ཅིག་ དེལ་ལི་ལུ་འབད་གསར་བཏོན་འབད་གནང་ཅུག། སྤྱི་ལོ་
༡༩༥༧ལོ་ལུ་ ཚུམ་པ་པོ་དོ་རྗེ་ཚོས་སྒྲིན་ཟེར་མི་འདི་གིས་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་དོ་སྤྱོད་ཕན་ཕྱུར་ཐོག་
ལུ་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་ཕན་དེ་བལག་དེ་བ་ ཟེར་མི་ཅིག་ གསར་བཏོན་འབད་ཅུག། (ཤོག་གྲངས་༡༥)

Thinley (2002) དེལ་ས་ སློབ་དཔོན་ཀུན་བཟང་ཕྱིན་ལས་དང་ཚེས་སྤྱིད་དོན་གྲུབ་གཉིས་
ཀྱི་ བརྒྱུ་མཚན་ཡོད་མི་རྗོད་ཁོའི་ཚིག་མཚན་འདི་ཡང་ ཤེས་རིག་ལྷན་ཁག་གིས་འབད་ གསར་བསྐྱུན་
འབད་ཡོད་པ་འབད་བཀོད་ཅུག། སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༥༧ལོ་ལུ་ ཧེ་མ་ཡོད་མི་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་སློབ་ཐོག་ཚོགས་སྡེ་དང་
ཤེས་རིག་ལྷན་ཁག་ནང་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་སྡེ་ཚོན་ཟེར་ཡོད་མི་འདི་ ལོ་གྲངས་འདི་ནང་ མི་དབང་འབྲུག་
རྒྱལ་བཞི་པ་ འཛིགས་མེད་སེང་གོ་དབང་ལྷུག་མཚོག་གིས་ བཀའ་རྒྱ་དང་འཁྲིལ་ དངུལ་རྩིས་
སློབ་པོ་ དོ་རྗེ་ཚོ་རིང་གི་ཁྲི་འཛིན་ཐོག་ལུ་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་འདི་རང་སྤྱོད་ལས་སྡེ་
ཡིག་ཚང་འབད་ གསར་བསྐྱུགས་གནང་ཅུག། སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༧༠ལོ་ལུ་ གནམ་ལོ་༡༩༧༧ལོ་ལུ་བརྒྱུ་མཚན་
ཡོད་མི་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་ དོ་སྤྱོད་ལག་དེ་བ་ཟེར་ཡོད་མི་འདི་ ལུན་དག་དང་ལེགས་བཅོས་འབད་ཐོག་ལས་
རྗོད་ཁོའི་ རབ་གསལ་ལས་བཟང་ཟེར་མི་འདི་ གསར་བཏོན་འབད་གནང་ཅུག། (ཤོག་གྲངས་༤༥)

དེ་བརྒྱུ་སྡེ་ ལོ་འདི་ནང་རང་ དུ་ཤོས་ སངས་རྒྱལ་དོ་རྗེ་ཚོ་ཚོག་གིས་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་བརྗོད་གཞུང་
གསར་བ་ ཟེར་མི་འདི་བརྒྱུ་མཚན་གནང་ཅུག། སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༧༡ལོ་ལུ་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་
ཡིག་ཚང་གི་འབད་ དགོ་བཤེས་འཇམ་དབྱངས་འོད་ཟེར་གྱི་ རྒྱབ་སྐྱོར་ཐོག་ལས་རྗོད་ཁོའི་ རོ་མ་
ནའི་ཟེ་ཤེས་ན་ཟེར་མི་འདི་ གསར་བཏོན་འབད་གནང་ཅུག། དེལ་ས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༧༣ལོ་ལུ་ རྗོད་
ཁོའི་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ཀྱིས་འབད་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་བརྗོད་གཞུང་དང་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་སྤྱོད་ཡིག་ལག་དེ་བ་
ཟེར་མི་གཉིས་ གསར་བཏོན་འབད་གནང་ཅུག། གནམ་ལོ་༡༩༧༠ལོ་གྲངས་ལས་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་
ལེགས་ཉེས་ཀྱི་བསྐྱུར་བ་ མཚུགས་དུགས་འབད་ཐོན་མི་དང་འབྲེལ་ གཞུང་གི་ ཁ་སྐྱུག་ལས་
རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་སྐད་ཡིག་གི་ཐབས་ལམ་རྒྱ་ཡང་ གནས་སྤངས་དང་འཁྲིལ་ཏེ་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་གོང་འཕེལ་
གཏང་ནི་ལུ་ དམིགས་གཏང་བསྐྱེད་དེ་ སློབ་གྲུའི་ཤེས་རིག་རྩ་གཞུང་རྒྱ་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་ཉུག་རྒྱུད་ཐོག་
ལུ་འབྲི་སྡེ་ སློབ་གྲུ་ཁག་ནང་སློབ་སྦྱོར་འབད་ནི་འི་ འགོ་བཙུགས་ཡོད་པ་མ་ཚང་ཡིག་ཚང་ཁག་
རྒྱ་ནང་ གཞུང་གི་ཕྱག་ལུ་གནང་མི་རྒྱ་ ཡིག་འབྲུལ་འབད་བའི་སྐབས་ ག་ར་ རྗོད་ཁོའི་ཐོག་ལུ་
གནང་དགོ་པ་འབད་མང་འབད་ག་རྒྱལ་པོ་མཚོག་ལས་ ཡིག་ཚང་བཀའ་རྒྱ་གནང་ཅུག།
འདི་མ་ཚང་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་གོང་འཕེལ་གྱི་བསྐྱུར་བ་དང་འཁྲིལ་ སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༩༧༧ལོ་ལུ་ མི་མང་ལུ་གནས་

ཚུལ་དང་ལྷན་བསྐྱེད་ཚུ་ བྱིན་མི་དོན་ལུ་ འབྲུག་རྒྱུ་བསྐྱེད་ལས་འཛིན་ཡིག་ཚང་འདི་ གཞི་
 བཟུགས་འབད་ཅུག། དེ་ལས་ གནམ་ལོ་ ༢༠༠༠ལས་ཚུར་ མི་མང་ཕན་ཐབས་དང་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་
 རྐྱན་ཡིག་ ཡར་རྒྱས་གཏང་མི་དོན་ལུ་གསར་ཤོག་ དཔེར་ན་ ཀུན་གསལ་ལ། འབྲུག་གི་གནས་
 ལུགས་ འབྲུག་འོད་ཟེར། ལ་སོགས་པའི་གསར་ཤོག་ཚུ་ཡང་ གསལ་བཏོན་འབད་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན་
 མས། བྱི་གིས་ཡང་མ་དོ་བར་ རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ཡིག་ཚང་ཁ་ཐུག་ལས་ གནམ་ལོ་
 ༢༠༡༡ལས་འགོ་བཟུགས་ཏེ་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་རྐྱན་ཡིག་ཡར་རྒྱས་གཏང་མི་ཐབས་ལམ་ དཔེར་ན་
 ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ཚུ་འབད་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ ཀེ་དེབ་མང་རབ་ཅིག་བརྩམས་ཡོད་པ་མ་ཚད་ དུས་ཀྱི་བསྐྱར་
 བ་བསྐྱེད་པ་ དེང་སང་འབྲུལ་རིག་གི་ཐབས་ལམ་ཚུ་བཏོན་ཐོག་ལས་ མི་མང་ཉ་མོམ་བཟོ་ཐབས་
 ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་གཞུང་གསར་པ་དང་ ཨིང་རྒྱུ་དང་རྫོང་ཁ་སྐྱོ་བསྐྱེད་ཀྱི་ཚོགས་མཛེས། ཚོས་རྒྱད་
 ཀྱི་ཚོགས་མཛེས། ཀེ་དེབ་དང་ཚོགས་མཛེས་ཀྱི་དོན་དག་ཚུ་ སློག་རིག་ཡོངས་འབྲེལ་ནང་ལས་ ཕབས་
 ལེན་འབད་ཚུགས་ནི་དང་ རྫོང་ཁ་ཡུ་ཅི་ཀོ་ཏེ་གི་མཐུན་རྐྱེན་ཚུ་ཡང་ འབྲུལ་རིག་གི་ཐོག་ལས་ཐོབ་
 ཚུགས་པ་བཟོ་སྤེལ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན་མས། (www.dzongkha.gov.bt).

སེང་གོ་ནམ་རྒྱལ་(༢༠༠༣)འབྲུག་གི་ རྐྱན་ཡིག་འཁོར་ལོ་ཟེར་བའི་ ཀེ་དེབ་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་སྐྱེན་ལུ་
 དང་འཁྲིལ་བ་ཅིན་ གནམ་ལོ་ ༢༠༠༣ ཀྱི་ནང་འཁོར་ རྫོང་ཁ་ཁྱེད་ ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་མི་འདི་
 ༡,༤༠,༠༠༠ དེ་ཅིག་ ཡོད་པ་བཀོད་ཅུག། འདི་འབད་མ་ད་ ད་རེས་ནངས་པ་འབད་བ་ཅིན་ རྫོང་
 ཁ་ཁྱེད་རྐྱན་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ནི་འདི་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་མཐའ་དབུས་མེད་པའི་ མི་སེང་ཚུ་གིས་དེང་སང་
 རྒྱུང་མཐོང་གནས་ཚུལ་དང་ ལས་རིམ་ཚུ་ལས་བཏོན་ བརྒྱ་ཚ་ ༧༠% དེ་ཅིག་ ཡར་དྲགས་སོང་
 རུང་ འབྲི་ནི་དང་ལྷན་ཞི་གཉིས་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་འབྱུང་སྤེལ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན་མས།(ཤོག་གྲངས་
 ༤༥) དེ་འབད་མ་ལས་ ཀུན་གསལ་(གནམ་ལོ་ ༡༩༩༠ དེ་བྱིན་ལྷ་ ༡ པའི་དེ་བྱིན་ ༡༠)འཆར་
 གཞི་ ༥ པ་ནང་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཚོགས་འདུའི་ འབྲུས་མི་ཚུ་གིས་ རྫོང་ཁ་ གོང་འཕེལ་གཏང་དགོ་
 པའི་རྐྱར་ལས་ གོས་བསྐྱེད་ལོག་ཅི་ལོག་ཅི་བྱུང་པའི་ཁར་ འབྲུས་མི་ལ་ལུ་གིས་ རྫོང་ཁ་ལག་
 ལེན་གྱི་རྐྱར་ལས་ སྲིད་བྱུས་དང་ལམ་ལུགས་ཚུ་ཡང་ ཚུལ་མཐུན་པ་འབད་བཀོད་དགོ་པ་སྤེལ་
 ཅུག།(ཤོག་གྲངས་ ༥) ཨིན་རུང་ ད་ལྟོ་བར་ན་ཡང་ འགན་ཁི་ཅན་གྱི་ཡིག་ཚང་དང་ མི་རིམ་
 ཚུ་གིས་མ་གཏོགས་ གཞན་མི་ཚུ་གི་ཉོང་ལས་ ལག་ལེན་ནང་ལུ་རྒྱབ་སྐྱོར་དང་ སེམས་བྱུགས་
 སློམ་མི་བསྐྱེད་དོ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན་པས།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ཐབས་ལམ།(Methodology)

གཙོ་བོ་གྲངས་འབྲེལ་ཐབས་ཤེས་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་སྟེ་ གནས་སྤྱད་ཚུ་བསྟུ་ལེན་འབད་ཡི། དེ་སྟེ་
གྲངས་འབྲེལ་ཐབས་ཤེས་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལས་གནས་སྤྱད་བསྟུ་ལེན་འབད་དགོ་མི་དེ་ཡང་ Creswell
(2009) གྲངས་འབྲེལ་གྱི་ཐབས་ཤེས་ཟེར་མི་འདི་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་གྲུབ་འབྲས་དང་བཅུད་ཚུ་
གཙོ་བོ་གྲངས་ཁ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ གསལ་སྟོན་འབད་ནི་དེ་གིས་ གྲངས་འབྲེལ་ཐབས་ཤེས་ཟེར་སྐབ་
ཨིན་པས།(ཤོག་གྲངས་༤) ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་གི་དམིགས་ལུ་ཡང་ ཨིང་སྐད་དང་ཚུང་ཁ་གཉིས་
ལས་ ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་མིའི་གྲངས་ཁ་མང་ཉུང་གི་བྱད་པར་ལྟ་ནི་འབད་མ་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ཨིན།
གནས་སྤྱད་བསྟུ་ལེན་འབད་མི་ཚུ་དབྱེ་དབྱུད་འབད་དེ་ཅི་ཐིག་(graph)ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལས་བཀོད་དེ་
འབྲེལ་བཤད་བརྒྱབས་ཏེ་ཡོད།

གནས་སྤྱད་བསྟུ་ལེན་གྱི་མཁོ་ཆས། (Data Collection Tools)

གྲངས་འབྲེལ་ཐབས་ཤེས་དེ་ལུ་མཁོ་ཆས་བརྟེན་དཔུད་མཁོ་ཆས་དང་ བརྟེན་ཞིབ་མཁོ་ཆས་ཟེར་
དབྱེ་བ་གཉིས་ཡོད་པའི་ནང་ལས་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་ནང་གཙོ་བོ་གྲངས་ཁ་གི་ཐོག་ལས་ གནས་
ཚུལ་བསྟུ་ལེན་འབད་དགོ་པ་ལས་བརྟེན་ བརྟེན་ཞིབ་མཁོ་ཆས་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཅི།བརྟེན་ཞིབ་
མཁོ་ཆས་ཟེར་མི་འདི་ ཅི་བ་ཚུ་བཅའ་སྤྲིག་རྒྱབ་སྟེ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ནང་བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་ཚུ་
ལས་ བསྟུ་ལེན་འབད་མིའི་གནས་ཐོ་དེ་ལུ་སྐབ་ཨིན།

དཔེ་ཚད་ལེན་ཐབས། (Sampling)

སྤྱི་རྒྱུ་ཁག་གི་མངའ་ཁོངས་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་ ཨིན་སྐད་ཡོན་ཏན་གྱི་གཞི་རྟེན་འབད་མི་སློབ་དཔོན།
སློབ་ཕྲུག། ཚོང་པ། གཞུང་སྐོར་གྱི་ཡིག་ཚང་ནང་ཕྱག་ལུ་གནང་མི་ ཡོངས་བསྟོན་ལས་༤༥དེ་ཅིག་
ལས་གནས་སྤྱད་བསྟུ་ལེན་འབད་ཡི། དེ་ཚུ་ཡང་ དམིགས་བསལ་དོས་བབས་ལེན་པར་ གཙུང་
གནས་འཐུ་(random picking)འབད་དེ་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ནང་བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་བཅུག་ཅི།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་ཐབས་ཀྱི་ཤོ་རྩམ། (Procedure)

བདག་སྐྱོད་དང་མི་དོམ་རང་ར་སོ་སོ་ལས་གནང་བ་ལུ་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ ཨིང་སྐད་ཤེས་ཡོན་གྱི་གཞི་

ཉེན་འབད་མི་ལཱ་མཐོ་ལཱ་གནས་སྤྱད་ཚུ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་བཀའ་བཅུག་པ་དེ་ཚོ་ལཱ་ཚོག་གཞི་དེ་
ཚུ་ ཉམ་གོ་མི་ཚུ་ལཱ་ གོ་བ་བཤད་ནི་འོག་གསལ་རམ་ཡང་འབད་བྱིན་ཡི།

གནས་སྤྱད་བསྐྱེལ་ལཱ་འབད་ཚར་ཞིན་མ་དེ་ཅི་ཐིག་ནང་བཅུག་པ་ཏེ་ གནས་སྤྱད་དབྱེ་དབྱུང་འབད་ཡི།
དབྱེ་དབྱུང་སྒྲུབ་ལཱ་ཉེ་དང་འཁྲིལ་ཏེ་ གྲུབ་འབྲས་བཏོན་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ དེ་དང་འཁྲིལ་བའི་གྲོས་འཆར་
ཚུ་ཡང་བཀོད་དེ་སྒྲུབ་ལཱ་འབད་ཡི།

དེ་མ་ཚད་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་འབད་བའི་སྐབས་སུ་སྐབས་མ་བདེམ་ཚུ་ག་ཅི་རང་བྱུང་ཡི་ག་ ཞིབ་
འཚོལ་གྱི་ཚད་འཛིན་ནང་ལཱ་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་ཁར་ མ་འོངས་པ་ལཱ་ དོན་ཚན་འདི་གི་ཐོག་ལཱ་ཞིབ་
འཚོལ་འབད་མི་ཡོད་པ་ཅིག་ དེ་ཚུ་གི་ཕན་ཐབས་ལཱ་དམིགས་ཏེ་ གྲོས་འཆར་ཚུ་ཡང་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་སློབ་གཏན་དང་ཚབ་ཞུགས། (Research reliability and validity)

གནས་སྤྱད་བསྐྱེལ་ལཱ་གྱི་དོན་ལཱ་བཅོ་མི་འདི་དེ་ཤོག་འདི་ དུས་ཚོད་མ་ཐོབ་མི་ལཱ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ མོ་བཏབ་
འབད་མ་ཚུགས། ཨིན་རུང་དེ་ཤོག་ཚུ་ སྤྱི་ཤེས་རིག་མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲུའི་ མཉམ་རྟེན་ལཱ་གསལ་
བཤད་པ་གཅིག་ལཱ་ ལྷག་བཅུག་སྟེ་ སྤྱི་བཙུན་འབད་དགོ་པའི་རིགས་ཚུ་ དག་བཙུན་འབད་
ཚར་ཞིན་མ་ལས་རྒྱུང་མ་ཅིག་ དེ་ཤོག་ཚུ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་འབད་ཡི།

གནས་སྤྱད་ནང་ལས་ཐོབ་པའི་གནས་ཚུལ་ཚུ་ཡང་ཨེས་པི་ཨེསི་ཨེསི་(spss) ལག་ལེན་འབབ་
སྟེ་འདི་ནང་ལས་ཐོབ་པའི་གནད་དོན་ཚུ་ལཱ་ རྩོགས་ལཱ་གི་ལྷན་མ་ལཱ་གསལ་པར་ རང་བཞིན་ག་
ཨིན་མི་དེ་རང་ གྲུབ་འབྲས་ནང་བཅུག་པ་ཏེ་ཡོད།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་ཀུན་སྲོད་རྣམ་གཞག། (Research Ethics)

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་གནས་སྤྱད་བསྐྱེལ་ལཱ་འབད་བར་འགྱུ་ཞི་དེ་དོན་ལཱ་ སྤྱི་ཤེས་རིག་མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲུའི་ཡོངས་
ཁབ་མངོན་ཚེད་ལས་ གནང་བ་ཡིག་ཐོག་ལས་ལཱ་ལཱ་ལཱ་ལཱ་ལཱ་ལཱ་ལཱ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ནང་ལཱ་བཅའ་མར་
གཏོགས་མི་ཚུ་ལཱ་ སྤྱི་གོང་ལས་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་སློབ་གཞི་དང་གསལ་བ་བཞག་ཐངས་ཚུ་ལ་
གསལ་འབད་བཤད་དེ་བྱིན་མ་ཡོད་པ་མ་ཚད་ སློབ་དཔོན་དང་སློབ་སྐྱེལ་ཚུ་གི་དོན་ལཱ་ ས་གནས་
གྱི་སློབ་གྲུའི་དབུ་འཛིན་དང་ མི་རོམ་རང་སོ་ལས་གནང་བ་ཐོབ་ཞིན་མ་དེ་རྒྱུང་མ་ཅིག་ གནས་
སྤྱད་བསྐྱེལ་ལཱ་འབད་ཡི།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་ཚད་འཛིན། (Limitations)

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་མ་འོངས་པ་ལུ་ གནད་དོན་འདི་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་རྒྱ་སྤོངས་སྤེལ་བའད་ནི་འདི་དོན་ ལུ་ མོ་བཏབ་གྱི་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་བརྩམ་ཅིག་འབད་མ་ལས་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གནས་སྤྱད་སུ་ཁོང་ཡང་ སྤ་ རོ་རྫོང་ཁག་ག་ཅིག་ལུ་གཞི་བཞག་སྟེ་འབད་ཡི། སྤ་རོ་རྫོང་ཁག་གི་མངའ་ཁོངས་ལས་ཡང་ ཞིབ་ འཚོལ་ནང་བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་ཕོ་མོ་བསྐྱེམས་ཏེ་ཡེ་འདེ་ཅིག་ལས་མ་ཐོབ་ལས་ ད་སྟོའི་གྲུབ་ འབྲས་དེ་གིས་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ལུ་འགབ་མི་རྒྱལ་མི་ཡིན་པས།དེ་འབད་ནི་དེ་གིས་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་ གི་ཉམས་སྦྱོང་དང་འཁྲིལ་མ་ད་ མ་འོངས་པ་ལུ་དོན་ཚན་འདི་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་དགོ་པ་ ཅིན་ གནས་སྤྱད་གྱི་དམིགས་གཏང་དེ་ རྫོང་ཁག་ཆམ་ཉམ་ལུ་བསྐྱེད་རྒྱལ་མི་ཅིན་ འོས་འབབ་ ཆེ་ནི་ཡིན་པས། ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་དོན་ཚན་འདི་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་ ཏེ་མ་ལས་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་འབད་མ་ མེད་པ་ལས་ ཚུ་མ་རིག་བསྐྱར་ཞིབ་ནང་ལུ་ སྤྱིར་བཏང་གཞུང་གི་སྲིད་བྱས་དང་འབྲེལ་བའི་དོན་ཚན་ རྒྱ་མ་གཏོགས་ཐོབ་མ་རྒྱལ་ལ། ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ཐབས་ལམ་རྒྱ་ལས་གྲངས་འབྲེལ་ཐབས་ཤེས་རྒྱུང་མ་ ཅིག་ལུ་གཙོ་བོ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་གནས་སྤྱད་འབད་འབད་མ་ཡིན། ཡིན་རུང་ཤུལ་མ་ ཐབས་ལམ་ཡང་སྤེལ་ མ་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་པ་ཅིན་ སྤྱབ་འབྲས་ལེགས་ཤོམ་འབད་འཐོན་རྒྱལ་པའི་ཁེ་ཕན་འོང་ནི་མས།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་དམིགས་ལུལ་ཁྲི་བ།

- ༡ རྫོང་ཁའི་སྐད་ཡིག་བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོ་པ་འདུག་ག་?
- ༢ རྫོང་ཁ་ནང་ལྷག་ནི་དང་འབྲི་ནི་ལུ་སྤོ་བ་འདུག་ག་?
- ༣ དུས་རྒྱུན་དུ་འབྲི་ལྷག་ནང་ རྫོང་ཁ་དང་ཡིང་སྐད་གཉིས་ལས་ ལག་ལེན་མངམ་ ག་འདི་འཐབ་སྟོན་?
- ༤ སྲིད་བྱས་དང་ལག་ལེན་གྱི་བར་ན་རྒྱལ་མཐུན་པས་ག་?

གྲུབ་འབྲས་སྒྲུབ་ཀྱི་ (Findings)

གནས་སྐབས་བརྒྱུད་དོན་གྱི་ཐོག་ལྷོད་ (overview)

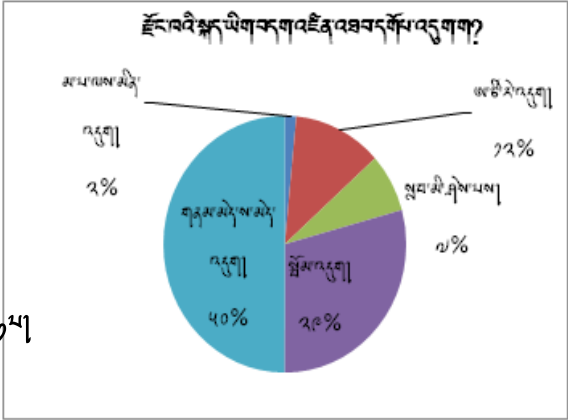
འོག་གི་ཐོག་ལྷོད་འདི་ གནས་སྐབས་བརྒྱུད་ལཱ་ལ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་ ཅི་བ་རེ་རེ་བཞེན་ཏུ་ལཱ་ཚུ་
མཉམ་བསྐྱོམས་འབད་དེ་ བརྒྱ་ཚན་ཙམ་ཉེ་ཡོད་པའི་གནས་སྐབས་བརྒྱུད་དོན་གྱི་ཐོག་ལྷོད་ཡིན།

ཐོག་ལྷོད་༠༡།

གནས་སྐབས་བརྒྱུད་ཀྱི་ཅི་བ།	བརྒྱ་ཚན།	བརྒྱུ་ཚན།
1. རྫོང་ཁའི་སྐད་ཡིག་བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོས་འདུག།	87.2%	12.8% བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོས་མེད་མི།
2. རྫོང་ཁའི་ནི་ལུ་སློབ་འདུག།	51.3%	48.7% རྫོང་ཁའི་ལུ་སློབ་མེད་མི།
3. རྫོང་ཁའི་ལྷན་ཞུ་ལུ་སློབ་འདུག།	56.4%	43.6% ལྷན་ཞུ་ལུ་སློབ་མེད་མི།
4. ལཱ་འཛོམས་ནང་ལ་སྐད་རྫོང་ཁའི་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཡོད་པ།	28.2%	71.8% ལག་ལེན་མ་འཐབ་མི།
5. ལཱ་འཛོམས་ནང་ལ་སྐད་ཡིག་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཡོད་པ།	61.5%	38.5% ལག་ལེན་མ་འཐབ་མི།
6. གཞུང་འབྲེལ་ཡིག་ཚང་གི་ཡིག་འགྲུལ་ཚུ་རྫོང་ཁའི་ནང་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཡོད་པ།	20.5%	79.5% ལག་ལེན་མ་འཐབ་མི།
7. གཞུང་འབྲེལ་ཡིག་ཚང་གི་ཡིག་འགྲུལ་ཚུ་ཡིང་སྐད་ནང་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཡོད་པ།	74.4%	25.6% ལག་ལེན་མ་འཐབ་མི།
8. སྤྱི་ལཱ་ཉལ་ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་རྫོང་ཁའི་གསར་ཤོག་ཚུ་ལྷན་ཞུ་ཡོད་པ།	56.4%	43.6% མ་ལྷན་ཞུ་མི།
9. སྤྱི་ལཱ་ཉལ་ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ཡིང་སྐད་ཀྱི་གསར་ཤོག་ཚུ་ལྷན་ཞུ་ཡོད་པ།	92.3%	7.7% མ་ལྷན་ཞུ་མི།
10. སྤྱི་ལཱ་ཉལ་ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་རྫོང་ཁའི་ཀི་དེ་བ་ཚུ་ལྷན་ཞུ་ཡོད་པ།	61.5%	38.5% མ་ལྷན་ཞུ་མི།

11. སྤྱི་ཁྱོད་ཉལ་ལས་དམྱོལ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ཡིང་སྐད་ཀྱི་དེབ་ཚུ་ལྷག་ཡོད་པ།	89.7%	10.3%མ་ལྷག་མི།
12. སྤྱི་ཁྱོད་ཉལ་ལས་དམྱོལ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ཡིང་ཁའི་ནང་གཞུང་འབྲེལ་གྱི་ཡི་གུ་འབྲི་དགོས་ཐོན་ཡོད་པ།	20.5%	79.5%མ་ལས་འབྲི་དགོས་མ་བྱུང།
13. སྤྱི་ཁྱོད་ཉལ་ལས་དམྱོལ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ཡིང་སྐད་ནང་གཞུང་འབྲེལ་གྱི་ཡི་གུ་འབྲི་དགོས་ཐོན་ཡི།	71.8%	28.2%མ་ལས་འབྲི་དགོས་མ་བྱུང།

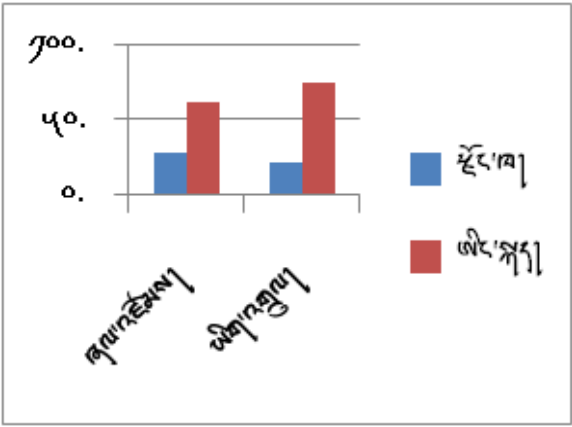
འབྲུག་གི་སྤྱི་ཚོར་དམ་པ་མི་དབང་མངའ་བདག་རིན་པོ་ཆེའི་ཞབས་ལས་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་སྐད་ཡིག་འདི་བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོས་འབད་བཀའ་རྒྱ་གནང་མི་དང་འཁྲིལ་ཏེ་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་སྤྱི་དབུས་ཚུ་ནང་ཡང་ཚོང་ཁ་འདི་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་དགོས་སྤེ་ཚུད་དེ་འདུག། དེ་བཟུམ་སྤེ་འབྲུག་མི་ཚུ་གིས་ར་འབད་རུང་བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༥༠.༢% ཀྱིས་བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོས་འབད་བཀའ་དེ་ཡོད་པ་མ་ཚད་ ལྷག་པར་དུ་བརྒྱ་ཆ་༥༠% (ཡང་གཞུགས་ཉལ) གིས་ཚོང་ཁའི་སྐད་ཡིག་འདི་ བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོས་ གནམ་མེད་ས་མེད་གལ་ཆེས་འབད་བཀའ་དེ་འདུག། དེ་ལྷན་དུ་ཚོང་ཁའི་སྐད་ཡིག་འདི་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་རྟེན་གས་ཅིག་འབད་མ་ལས་ མི་ཚུ་གིས་ངེས་པར་དུ་བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོས་ཡིན་མ་ཚད་ ཆ་བཞག་ཡང་བསྐྱེད་པ་ཡིན་པས།



མི་དབང་མངའ་བདག་རིན་པོ་ཆེའི་བཀའ་རྒྱ་གི་དགོངས་དོན་དང་འཁྲིལ་མ་ད་ གནང་དོན་ག་ཅི་

གི་སྐོར་ལས་འབད་རུང་ ཞལ་འཛོམས་དང་མི་མང་འཛོམས་སར་ གསལ་བཤད་དང་གྲོས་བསྟུར་
 ཚུ་ རྫོང་ཁ་ནང་སྐབ་དགོ་པའི་ཁར་ ཕྱི་མི་རེ་ཡོད་པ་ཅིན་ དེ་གི་འབྲལ་ལས་དོར་ཁ་སྐྱར་ཏེ་ སྐབ་
 དགོ་པ་འབད་འཁོད་དེ་ཡོད་རུང་ གནད་བསྟུན་དང་འཁྲིལ་མ་ད་ ཞལ་འཛོམས་རྫོང་ཁ་ནང་ལག་
 ལེན་འཐབ་མི་དེ་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༢༡.༢% ལས་མེད་རུང་ ཨིང་སྐད་ནང་བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༤༡.༥% (ཨང་
 གཞུགས་ ༢༥) གིས་རྫོང་ཁ་ལས་མཐོམ་འབད་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ལུག།

དེ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་གཞུང་འབྲེལ་གྱི་ཡི་གུ་གཏོང་ལེན་ཚུ་བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༢༠.༥% མ་གཏོགས་རྫོང་ཁ་ནང་
 ལག་ལེན་མ་འཐབ་རུང་ ཨིང་སྐད་ནང་བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༡༤.༤% (ཨང་གཞུགས་ ༢༥) གིས་ལག་
 ལེན་འཐབ་ལུག།



གནད་དོན་འདི་ལུ་དབྱེད་དེ་ལྟ་བུ་ཅིན་ སྲིད་བྱུས་དང་ལག་ལེན་གཉིས་ཏུགས་མ་མཐུན་མ་ཚད་
 མི་དབང་མངའ་བདག་རྒྱལ་པོ་གི་བཀའ་དགོངས་དང་ཡང་འགལ་མཁུ་ལས་ འབྲུག་མི་ཚུ་གི་སྐྱུགས་
 ཁར་ གནད་དོན་དེ་ལུ་ཚང་ཁྲུང་ལངས་དགོ་པའི་གཞི་ཅིག་ལུ་སྐྱུགས་སྟེ་འདུག།

ང་བཅས་རའི་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་སྐད་ཡིག་འདི་ དར་བྱུང་གི་དོན་ལུ་གསར་ཤོག་ལས་འཛོམ་ཚུ་གིས་ རྫོང་
 ཁ་ལེ་ཐོག་ལུ་གསར་ཤོག་ལག་ ༥ འདེ་ཅིག་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ལུ་བཀའ་བཞེན་དུ་ཡོད་རུང་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་
 ༥༤.༤% (ཐིག་ཁམ་ ༡.༢) གིས་མ་གཏོགས་ལྷག་མི་མེད་པའི་ཁར་ དེ་འི་ནང་ལས་ཡང་ ༤༣.༡% གིས་
 སྤྱི་ཚུ་ ༡༥ ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུ་ཚོང་གི་བར་ན་ ཚར་གཅིག་རང་མ་ལྷག་པས། འདི་དང་འཕྱད་པ་ད་ཨིང་
 སྐད་ཀྱི་གསར་ཤོག་འདི་བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༡༡% རྒྱུང་མ་ཅིག་གིས་མ་ལྷག་པ་གཏོགས་གཞན་ ༡༢.༣%

(ཐོག་ཁྲམ་ ༡.༧)གིས་ལྷག་སྟེ་འདུག།

དེ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་རྫོང་ཁའི་ཀི་དེ་བ་མ་ལྷག་མི་བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༣༤.༥%འདུག། རྫོང་ཁའི་ཀི་དེ་བ་ལྷག་མི་བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༤༡.༥% ཐོན་མི་ཚུ་ཡང་སྟོབ་སྲུག་ཚུ་གིས་ ཚོས་ཚན་ཅུ་ག་ལུང་ནང་ཚུད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་ལྷག་དེ་བ་ཚུ་བཅུས་ཏེ་ཡིན། (ཐོག་ཁྲམ་ ༡.༡༠) ཡིང་སྐད་ཀྱི་ཀི་དེ་བ་མ་ལྷག་མི་འདི་ ༡༠.༣% (ཐོག་ཁྲམ་ ༡.༡༡)རྒྱུ་མ་ཚིག་རང་ཡིན་པས།

སྤྱི་ཚེ་ ༡པ་ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུད་ཚོད་ཀྱི་བར་ན་ སྐར་དོན་གྱི་ཡི་གུ་ཚུ་ག་ལུང་སྐད་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལས་བྲིས་མི་བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༣༠.༥% (ཐོག་ཁྲམ་ ༡.༡༢)རྒྱུ་མ་ཚིག་ལས་མ་ཐོན་རུང་ ཡིང་སྐད་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལས་བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༢༡.༤% (ཐོག་ཁྲམ་ ༡.༡༣)གིས་བྲིས་མི་ཐོན་ཅུག།

དེ་ཚུ་ལུ་ལྷན་ད་ འབྲུག་མི་ཚུ་གིས་ རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་བདག་འཛིན་འབད་དགོ་པ་ལག་ཆེ་བེར་སྲབ་མི་དེ་དང་ ལག་ལེན་དངོས་འབབ་གཉིས་ ཕྱི་འགྲུར་འབད་འགྱེ་སྟེ་ ཁ་དང་ལག་ལེན་གཉིས་མ་མཐུན་པའི་ ཉགས་མཚན་མངོན་སུམ་སྟེ་ཐོན་ཏེ་འདུག།

དེ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་སྟོབ་གྲ་ཚུ་ནང་ རྫོང་ཁའི་སྟོབ་དཔོན་ཚུ་གིས་ སྟོབ་སྟོན་ཐབས་ལམ་ག་ཅི་བརྩམ་ལག་ལེན་འབབ་སྟེ་འབད་རུང་ སྟོབ་སྲུག་ཚུ་གིས་ རྫོང་ཁ་ལྷག་ནི་ལུ་སྟོབ་བསྐྱེད་མི་ གནམ་མེད་ས་མེད་མི་འོང་དོ་ཡོད་པའི་ཁར་ ཡིང་སྐད་ཡོན་ཏན་གྱི་གཞི་རྟེན་ཡོད་པའི་ ཨ་ལོའི་མཚན་ཚུ་གིས་ ཡང་ ཨ་ལོ་ཚུ་རྫོང་ཁ་ལྷག་ནི་ལུ་སེམས་ཤུགས་བསྐྱེད་མི་བརྩུག་དོ་ཡོད་པ་ལས་ ཨ་ལོ་ཚུ་གིས་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ཡི་གུ་བྱང་ཀྱ་ཅིག་འབྲི་ནི་ལུ་ཡང་ ཚོག་དང་སྦྱོར་བ་ཚང་མ་ཚུ་གསུམ་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་སྟོམ་བྱུང་སྟེ་ཡོད་མི་དེ་ རྒྱ་མཚན་འདི་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ཡིན་མ་འབད་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་པ་གིས་ཚོར་ཡི། ཡིན་རུང་ གནད་དོན་འདི་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ལོགས་སུ་སྟེ་མ་འབད་མ་ལས་ དཔུང་དགོ་པ་ཡོད།

གོས་འཆར། (Recommendations)

གནས་སུང་ཚུ་ནང་དབྱེ་ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་ལྷན་ད་ རྫོང་ཁ་འབྲི་ལྷག་ལག་ལེན་གྱི་གནས་ཚད་འདི་ མར་ཉམས་འགྱུ་ཡོད་པ་འབད་གསལ་སྟོན་འབད་མ་ལས་ ད་ལྟོ་མ་ཕྱི་མ་ཏ་བར་ཉམས་ལ་སྲབ་ཀྱིས་སྦྱར་བའི་དུས་ཚོད་འདི་ནང་ འབྲུག་པའི་མི་བྲངས་སྤྱི་དང་སྟོན་སྲུ་ དབང་ཚད་དང་གོ་གནས་ཁར་བཞུགས་པའི་འགན་ཁི་ཅན་ཚུ་གིས་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་སྐད་ཡིག་རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་ བདག་འཛིན་འབབ་དགོ་པ་ལག་ཆེ་མ་ཡིན་མ་ ཞལ་ལས་གསུངས་མི་འདི་རྒྱུ་མ་ཚིག་གིས་ བཟུབ་འབད་མ་བཞུགས་པར་ མི་ཉམས་གོང་འཕེལ་གཏང་ནི་དང་ ཉམས་པ་སོར་རྒྱུད་འབད་ནིའི་ཐབས་ཤེས་རྣམ་པ་སྐྱོ་ཚོགས་སྟོན་

ཉེ་ལུག་ལཱ་མཚན་དགོས་འདུག། ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་གྲུབ་འབྲས་དང་འཕྲིལ་ཕྱ་དྲ་ འབྲུག་མི་ཚུ་གིས་ ལ་ལས་བཤད་མི་དེ་དང་ ལག་ལེན་གཉིས་རྟགས་མ་མཐུན་མ་འབད་ཡོད་པའི་སྐབ་བྱེད་ཡང་ རྫོང་ ལའི་སྐད་ཡིག་བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་དགོས་ལག་ཆེ་བེར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་87.2%(ཐིག་ཁྲམ་ ༡.༡)ཀྱིས་སྐབ་ཡོད་ཅུང་ གཞུང་སྐད་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལས་བྲིས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་༢༠.༤%(ཨང་ག་རྩུགས་༢༥) རྒྱུ་མ་ཅིག་མ་གཏོགས་ མ་ཐོན་པས། དེ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་རྫོང་ལ་ནང་ལྷག་མི་དང་ ཞལ་འཛེམས་རྫོང་ ལའི་ཐོག་ལས་ཚོགས་མི་འདི་ ཨིང་སྐད་དང་འཕྱད་པ་དྲ་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ག་དེ་ཅིག་གིས་དམའ་བྲག་ཡོད་པ་ ཨིན་ན་ གོང་ལུ་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་གནས་སྡེ་དང་བཅུད་དོན་ལེ་ལུ་མིག་དེ་གིས་སྟོན་ཚུགས།

མ་གཞི་གོང་གི་ཚུ་མ་རིག་ཚུ་ནང་ལྷ་བ་ཅིན་ རྫོང་ལ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་དང་ སྐེར་གྱི་ཚུ་མ་བྲིས་ ལས་ཁང་ཚུ་གི་ལ་ཐུག་ལས་ དེ་བ་གསར་བཅུམ་དང་རྫོང་ལ་གོང་འཕེལ་གྱི་ཐབས་ཤེས་ཚུ་ བཏོན་ དང་བཏོན་བཞིན་དུ་འདུག།ཨིན་ཅུང་རྫོང་ལ་ཡར་རྒྱས་འགྲོ་མ་ཚུགས་པའི་གནད་དོན་འདི་ག་ཅི་ལུ་ བརྟེན་ཉེ་ཨིན་ན་ ག་ཤམ་གསལ་གྱི་དྲི་བ་ཚུ་གུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་ཐོག་ལས་ལན་འཚོལ་ནིའི་དུས་ ཚོད་ ལ་འཐབ་ར་ལྟོད་ཆི་རུག། མི་དབང་མང་འབད་ག་རིན་པོ་ཆེའི་ཐུགས་ཀྱི་དགོངས་བཞེད་དང་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་དགའ་སྦྱིད་དཔལ་འཛེམས་ཀྱི་དམིགས་གཏང་དང་འཕྲིལ་ཉེ་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་སྐད་ཡིག་ འདི་བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་ནི་གི་དོན་ལུ་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་འཁོད་ཀྱི་ཡིག་འབྲུལ་གཏོང་ལེན་ཚུ་ རེས་ པར་དུ་རྫོང་ལའི་ནང་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་དགོས་འདུག། དེ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ འབྲུག་མི་སྤྱི་ཚོགས་ཀྱི་ཞལ་ འཛེམས་གནང་སར་ ལ་སྐད་རྫོང་ལ་འདི་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་དགོས་འདུག། དེ་མ་ཚད་ རྫོང་ལ་ ལག་ལེན་གྱི་སྲིད་བྱས་ཚུ་ ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་མ་བཞག་པར་ ཆེ་མི་གོ་གནས་འཆང་མི་ཚུ་ལས་འགོ་ བཅུགས་ འབྲུག་མི་སྤྱིར་བཏང་གིས་ ལག་ལེན་དངོས་འཐབ་འབད་བ་ཅིན་ རྫོང་ལ་ཡར་བྲག་ འགྲོ་མ་ཚུགས་པའི་དབྱེ་མི་འོང་ནི་ཨིན་པས།

དེ་འབད་ནི་དེ་གིས་འབྲུག་མི་སྤྱི་དང་ ལྷག་པར་དུ་འགན་ཁི་ཅན་ཚུ་དང་ ཤེས་རིག་མཁས་མཚོག་ ཚུ་གིས་ འོག་གི་དྲི་བ་དེ་ཚུ་གི་ལན་འཚོལ་ཞིན་མ་ལས་དེ་དང་བསྟུན་པའི་ ཐབས་ལམ་ཚུ་སྟོན་ བཞེད་འགན་ཁུར་འབག་དགོས་འདུག།

བྲན་གསལ་དྲི་བ།

- ༡. རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་ལུ་རྫོང་ལའི་ཐོག་ལུ་འབྲི་ལྷག་ལག་ལེན་ཡར་རྒྱས་འགྲོ་མ་ཚུགས་ པའི་རྒྱ་རྒྱུན་གཙོ་བོ་ག་ཅི་ཨིན་ན་?

੧. རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་ག་ཅི་འབད་མི་ཚུ་གིས་ལག་ལེན་མ་འཐབ་ཡིན་ནེ་?
੨. མི་སྡེ་ནང་རྫོང་ཁ་ཤེས་རུང་ཡིན་སྐད་མ་ཤེས་པ་ཅིན་མི་གིས་བརྩེ་མཐོང་ག་ཅི་འབད་མ་
བསྐྱེད་པ་ཡིན་ནེ།
੩. འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་སློབ་ཕྲུག་ཚུ་སློབ་གསར་ལས་འགོ་བརྩུགས་ཏེ་མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲྭ་ཚུ་ན་
ཚོང་རྫོང་ཁའི་ཚེས་ཚན་ལྟམ་ནི་ཡོད་རུང་མང་ཆེ་ཤོས་ཀྱིས་ཡི་གུ་ཐུང་ཀྱུ་ཅིག་ཡང་ཚིག་
སློབ་ཚང་མ་འབད་འབྲེམ་ཚུ་གས་མི་འདི་ཚུ་ཁིམས་ཀྱི་སློབ་ཡིན་ནེ་སློབ་སློབ་པའི་སློབ་
ཡིན་ནེ་སློབ་ཕྲུག་ཀྱི་སློབ་ཡིན་ནེ་?
੪. མི་དབང་མང་བདག་རིན་པོ་ཆའི་ཐུགས་ཀྱི་དགོངས་བཞེད་ལྟར་དུ་སློབ་ཕྲུག་དང་ལག་
ལེན་ཉུགས་མཐུན་མ་བཟོ་དགོ་པ་ཅིན་ཐབས་ཤེས་སློབ་དགོ་པ་ག་ཅི་འབྲུག་ག

མཇུག་བསྟུ། (Conclusion)

རྫོང་ཁའི་འབྲེམ་ལཱ་གཤེས་ཚང་གི་ལག་ལེན་འདི་ ད་ལྟོའི་གནས་སྟངས་ནང་འབད་བ་ཅིན་ འགན་
ཁིམ་ཡོད་པའི་ཡིག་ཚང་ཚུ་མ་གཏོགས་ མང་ཆེ་ཤོས་ཀྱིས་ འབྲེམ་ལཱ་གཉིས་ཡིང་སྐད་གཙོ་བོ་བརྩུང་
སྟེ་ ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་དོ་ཡོད་པ་ཡིན་པས།

དེ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ Namgay Thinley ཀྱི་ལོ་ལུ་ཡང་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་མི་ རྣམ་རྒྱལ་ཐིན་ལས་
ཀྱིས་བྲིས་མི་ འབྲུག་དང་ཐའེ་ལན་གི་ཁ་སྐད་ལག་ལེན་ཟེར་བའི་ ཀེ་དེ་བ་སྟུན་ལུ་དང་འཁྲིལ་བ་
ཅིན་ ར་བཅས་རའི་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་ ཡིང་སྐད་དང་རྫོང་ཁ་གཉིས་འབད་མ་ད་ ཡིང་སྐད་ནང་ཚུ་མ་
བྲིས་དང་པར་བསྐྱེད་འབད་འབད་མ་ བརྒྱ་ཚད་ ੨੧.੫% དང་རྫོང་ཁའི་ནང་བརྒྱ་ཚད་ ੧੭.੫% མ་གཏོགས་
མེད་པ་འབད་བཀོད་དེ་འབྲུག། (ཤོག་གར་ས་ ੧੫) གོང་གི་གནད་དོན་ཚུ་ལུ་དབྱེ་ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་ལྟུམ་ད་
ཡིག་ཚང་ཚུ་གི་བར་ན་གཞུང་སྐྱེར་གི་ཡིག་འགྲུལ་ཚུ་གཏོང་ལེན་དང་ ཞལ་འཛོམས་ཚུ་ཚོགས་པ་ད་
མང་ཤོས་རང་ཁ་སྐད་འདི་ཡིང་སྐད་ཀྱི་ཤོག་ལས་ ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་དོ་ཡོད་པ་འབད་ རོས་འཛིན་
བྱུང་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ སློབ་ཕྲུག་བརྩམ་མི་དང་སློབ་ཕྲུག་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་མི་ འབྲུག་པའི་མི་རིགས་
ཚུ་གིས་ ཐུགས་ལུ་ཚ་གུང་ཐེབས་བཞེས་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་སྐད་ཡིག་བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་ནིའི་ཕྱག་
ལུ་ཚུ་ ད་ལྟོ་ལས་འགོ་མ་བརྩུགས་པ་ཅིན་ མ་འོངས་པ་ལུ་རྫོང་ཁའི་འབྲེམ་ལཱ་གི་ལག་ལེན་འདི་
མིང་ཚམ་ཅིག་གུ་ལུས་མིའི་ཉེན་ཁ་ཡོད་པ་མ་ཚད་ རྣམ་མཇུག་ལུ་འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་ འབྲུག་
པའི་མི་ཚུ་གིས་འབྲུག་པའི་སྐད་ཡིག་ལུ་ དང་འདོད་བསྐྱེད་ནི་མར་བཞག་ ཐ་ན་རྫོང་ཁ་ཡི་གུའི་

ངོས་འཛིན་ཙམ་ཅིག་ཡང་ འབད་མ་ཚུགས་པའི་དུས་ཚོད་གུ་ལྟོད་ནིའི་ཉེན་འགྲོམ་འབད་རའོང་
ནི་ཨིན་པས། འདི་འབད་མ་ལས་ འབྲུག་མི་ཚུ་གིས་རྫོང་ཁའི་སྐད་ཡིག་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ནི་ནང་
ཁ་དང་ལག་ལེན་རྟགས་མཐུན་མ་འབད་མཛེད་དགོ་པ་འདུག་ཟེར་བུ་ལྟོ་ཞེ་ཨིན།

རྒྱབ་རྟེན་དཔེ་ཆ། (Reference)

རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས། (༢༠༠༢) རྫོང་ཁའི་བདེ་གཞུང་གསར་པ། ཀེ་ཨེམ་གྱི་དཔེ་སྐྱུན་
ཁང། ཐིམ་ཕུ།

Thinley, N (2002). *Language use in Thailand: A comparative study to the case of Bhutan*, online Retrieved May 13, 2013, from: www.dzongkha.gov.bt/research/.../Language_use_Thailand-Bhutan.pdf

བསོད་ནམས་ཚེས་གཉེན་(༢༠༡༠) སློབ་གྲུའི་ཚོགས་བཤད། ཀེ་ཨེམ་གྱི་དཔེ་སྐྱུན་ཁང། ཐིམ་ཕུ།

Namgay. S (2003). *The Language Web of Bhutan*. Thimphu: KMT Publisher

མངའ་བདག་རྒྱལ་པོ་ (རང་ལྷུགས་གནམ་ལོ་ཚུམ་བྱ་ལོ་ལྷ་བ་ལ་འཕའི་ཚེས་༡༠) བཀའ་ཤོག།
ཀུན་གསལ་(གནམ་ལོ་༡༩༩༠དབྱིན་ལྷོ་ཡུལ་འདི་དབྱིན་ཚེས་༡༠)རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས།
www.dzongkha.gov.btནང་ལས་ སྤྱི་ཚེས་༡༣སྤྱི་ལོ་༢༠༡༣ལུ།

Van Driem, G. (1994.) Language policy in Bhutan. In Michael Aris and Michael Hutt, eds., *Bhutan: Aspects of Culture and Development*. Gartmore: Kiscadale Publications.

Van Driem, G. (1998.) *Languages of the Greater Himalayan Region: Dzongkha*. Leiden: CNWS Publications.

ཟུར་སྐྱུགས།(Appendix)

གནས་སྤྱད་ངི་ཤོག།

འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་འཛིན་གཙུག་ལག་སློབ་གྲྭ།

སྤྱི་ཚུལ་རིག་མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲྭ།

སྤྱི་ཚུལ་ཁག་གི་མངའ་ཁོངས་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་འབྲུག་མི་ཚུ་གིས་བཀའ་ནིའི་འབྲི་ཤོག།

བཀོད་རྒྱ། སྤྱི་ཚུལ་རིག་མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲྭའི་ཤེས་རིག་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་དང་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྟེ་བ་གིས་
འབྲུག་གི་ཤེས་རིག་ལམ་ལུགས་ནང་རྫོང་ཁའི་ཚོས་ཚན་དང་འབྲེལ་བའི་དཀའ་ངལ་དང་གདོང་
ལེན་གྱི་སྐོར་ལས་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་གོས་བསྐྱར་ཞལ་འཛོམས་ཅིག་སྤྱི་ལོ་༢༠༡༩ཟ࿳་བཟླ་པའི་སྤྱི་ཚེས་
༡༢ལས་༡༤ཚུན་ཉིན་མ་ཕྱེད་དང་གཉིས་ཀྱི་རིང་ལུ་འགོ་འདྲེན་འཐབ་ནི་ཨིན་མི་འདི་ནང་རྫོང་ཁའི་
སྐད་ཡིག་གོང་འཕེལ་གྱི་དོན་ལུ་སྲིད་བྱས་དང་ལེགས་བཅོས་ཐབས་ཤེས། ཟེར་བའི་ནང་གསེས་དོན་
ཚན་འདི་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་གསལ་ཞུ་འབད་ནིའི་དོན་ལུ་གནད་ཐོབ་སྤུ་ལེན་འབད་འབད་ནི་ཨིན་མ་ལས་
བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་ག་ར་ཨིན་རུང་སློབ་སྦྱོར་གསང་དང་སེམས་ལུ་འཚོར་སྤང་ལ་སོགས་པ་
ག་ནི་ཡང་མེད་པར་རྫོང་ཁའི་སྤུས་ཚད་འདི་ཡར་དྲགས་བཟོ་ཐབས་ལུ་དམིགས་ཏེ་ངེས་བདེན་
ག་ཨིན་མི་འདི་བཀོད་གནང་ཟེར་ཞུ་ནི་ཨིན། རྩོད་ཀྱིས་བཀོད་མའི་གསང་བའི་གནས་ཚུལ་ཚུ་
གསང་བའི་ཐོག་ལུ་རང་བཞག་ནི་ཨིན།

༡/ སྤྱིར་བཏང་གནས་ཚུལ།

འོག་གི་སློམ་ཚུང་ཚུ་ནང་ རྩོད་ར་ག་ཨིན་མི་འདི་གུ་ ཉགས་འདི་བཀལ་ (×)

༡.༡ བོ་མོ་འདི་དབྱེ་བ།

(ཀ) མོ་

(ཁ) བོ་

༡.༢ ལོ་ཚད།

(ཀ)སྤྱི་ལོ་༡༠མན་ཆད

(ཁ)སྤྱི་ལོ་༢༠མན་ཆད

(ག)སྤྱི་ལོ་༣༠མན་ཆད

(ང)སྤྱི་ལོ་༤༠ཡན་ཆད

༡.༣ ལཱ་འགན།

(ཀ) སློབ་སྦྱོང་གི་ལཱ་

(ཁ) སློབ་དཔོན་གི་ལཱ་

(ག) ཞིང་པ།

(ང) གཞན་གྱི་ལཱ་ཚང་། མཉམ་སྦྲེལ་ལང་། ཚོང་ལང་།

༢/ རྒྱ་དམིགས་ལཱ་རང་སོའི་བསམ་འཆར།

འོག་ལཱ་བཀོད་མའི་གནད་དོན་ཚུ་ ཡང་ ༡ ལས་ ༥ གྱི་བར་ན་ ག་ཨིན་མི་གཅིག་ལཱ་ཉགས་བཀལ།

१.१

རྫོང་ཁའི་སྐད་ཡིག་ བདག་འཛིན་འཐབ་ དགོས་	མ་པ་ལས་ མིན་འདུག།	ཨ་ཙི་རེ་ འདུག།	སྐབ་མི་ ཤོས་པས།	སྐྱོམ་ འདུག།	གནམ་མེད་ས་ མེད་འདུག།
	१	२	३	༤	༥

१.२

རྫོང་ཁ་ནང་འབྲི་ ནི་ལུ་སྐྱོ་བ་	མ་པ་ལས་ མིན་ འདུག།	ཨ་ཙི་རེ་ འདུག།	སྐབ་མི་ ཤོས་པས།	སྐྱོམ་ འདུག།	གནམ་ མེད་ས་ མེད་ འདུག།
	१	२	३	༤	༥

१.३

རྫོང་ཁ་ནང་སྐྱག་ ནི་ལུ་སྐྱོ་བ་	མ་པ་ལས་ མིན་འདུག།	ཨ་ཙི་རེ་ འདུག།	སྐབ་མི་ ཤོས་པས།	སྐྱོམ་ འདུག།	གནམ་མེད་ས་མེད་ འདུག།
	१	२	३	༤	༥

३/ སྐད་ཡིག་གི་ལག་ལེན།

३.१ ཞལ་འཛོམས་ཚུ་ནང་ཁ་སྐད་

(ཀ) རྫོང་ཁ་ཉམ་རྒྱུང་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཡིན།

(ཁ) ཡིང་སྐད་ཉམ་རྒྱུང་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཡིན།

(ག) མང་ཤོས་རྫོང་ཁ་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཡིན།

(ང) མང་ཤོས་ཡིན་སྐད་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཡིན།

3.3 གཞུང་འབྲེལ་ཡིག་ཚང་གི་ཡིག་འགྲུལ་ཚུ་

(ཀ) རྫོང་ཁའི་ཐོག་ལས་འབད་མ་ཨིན།

(ཁ) ཨིང་སྐད་ཐོག་ལས་འབད་མ་ཨིན།

(ག) མང་ཤོས་རྫོང་ཁའི་ཐོག་ལས་འབད་མ་ཨིན།

(ག) མང་ཤོས་ཨིན་སྐད་ཐོག་ལས་འབད་མ་ཨིན།

3.3 རྩི་ཟླ་ཉལ་ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ རྫོང་ཁའི་གསར་ཤོག་ཚུ་

(ཀ) ཉག་བྱ་རང་ལྷག་ཅི།

(ཁ) འཕྲལ་འཕྲལ་སྐབས་ལྷག་ཅི།

(ག) ཚར་གཅིག་ལྷག་ཅི།

(ང) ཚར་གཅིག་ཡང་མ་ལྷག།

3.4 རྩི་ཟླ་ཉལ་ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ ཨིང་སྐད་ཀྱི་གསར་ཤོག་ཚུ་

(ཀ) ཉག་བྱ་རང་ལྷག་ཅི།

(ཁ) འཕྲལ་འཕྲལ་སྐབས་ལྷག་ཅི།

(ག) ཚར་གཅིག་ལྷག་ཅི།

(ང) ཚར་གཅིག་ཡང་མ་ལྷག།

3.5 རྩི་ཟླ་ཉལ་ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ཀི་དེབ་

(ཀ) གཅིག་ཡང་མ་ལྷག།

(ཁ) གཅིག་ལྟག་ཅི།

(ག) གཉིས་ལྟག་ཅི།

(ང) གསུམ་ལས་མངམ་ལྟག་ཅི།

3.6 སྤྱི་ཟླ་༡༥ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ ཡིང་སྐད་གྱི་ཀི་དེབ་

(ཀ) གཅིག་ཡངམ་ལྟག།

(ཁ) གཅིག་ལྟག་ཅི།

(ག) གཉིས་ལྟག་ཅི།

(ང) གསུམ་ལས་མངམ་ལྟག་ཅི།

3.7 སྤྱི་ཟླ་༡༥ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ ཚོང་ཁ་ནང་གཞུང་འབྲེལ་གྱི་ཡི་གུ་

(ཀ) འབྲི་དགོས་ཚར་གཅིག་ཡངམ་ཐོན།

(ཁ) ཚར་གཅིག་ཐོན་ཡི།

(ག) ཚར་གཉིས་ཐོན་ཡི།

(ང) ཚར་གསུམ་ལས་མངམ་ཐོན་ཡི།

3.8 སྤྱི་ཟླ་༡༥ལས་ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ ཡིན་སྐད་ནང་གཞུང་འབྲེལ་གྱི་ཡི་གུ་

(ཀ) འབྲི་དགོས་ཚར་གཅིག་ཡངམ་ཐོན།

(ཁ) ཚར་གཅིག་ཐོན་ཡི།

(ག) ཚར་གཉིས་ཐོན་ཡི།

(ང) ཚར་གསུམ་ལས་མངམ་ཐོན་ཡི།

༤/ རྣམ་ཡིག་གི་གཞི་འགྲུམ།

༤.༡ རྣམ་འཁོར་ཐོག་ལས་ ག་ཅི་འབྲི་དགོས་འཐོན་རུང་

(ཀ) འབྲི་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་གྲུབ་སློམ་ཡོད།

(ཁ) ལྷོགས་གྲུབ་ཨ་ཅི་རེ་ཡོད།

(ག) ལྷོགས་གྲུབ་མ་པ་ལས་མེད།

(ང) རྣམ་བུ་ར་གཞན་ལུ་རེགས་དགོ།

༤.༢ ཞིན་རྣམ་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལས་ ག་ཅི་འབྲི་དགོས་འཐོན་རུང་

(ཀ) འབྲི་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་གྲུབ་སློམ་ཡོད།

(ཁ) འབྲི་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་གྲུབ་ཨ་ཅི་རེ་ཡོད།

(ག) འབྲི་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་གྲུབ་མ་པ་ལས་མེད།

(ང) འབྲི་དགོས་ཚུ་རྣམ་བུ་ར་གཞན་ལུ་རེགས་དགོ།

༤.༣ རྣམ་འཁོར་ཐོག་ལས་ ག་ཅི་ལྷག་དགོས་འཐོན་རུང་

(ཀ) ལྷག་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་གྲུབ་སློམ་ཡོད།

(ཁ) ལྷག་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་གྲུབ་ཨ་ཅི་རེ་ཡོད།

(ག) ལྷག་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་གྲུབ་མ་པ་ལས་མེད།

(ང) ལྷག་དགོས་ཚུ་རྣམ་བུ་ར་གཞན་ལུ་རེགས་དགོ།

༤.༤ ཡིན་སྐད་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལས་ ག་ཅི་ལྷག་དགོས་འཕྲོད་རུང་

- (༡) ལྷག་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་སྲུབ་སློམ་ཡོད།
- (༢) ལྷག་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་སྲུབ་ཨ་ཅི་རེ་ཡོད།
- (༣) ལྷག་ཚུགས་པའི་ལྷོགས་སྲུབ་མ་པ་ལས་མེད།
- (༤) ལྷག་དགོས་ཚུ་རྟག་བྱ་ར་གཞན་ལུ་རེགས་དགོ།

བཀྲིན་དགའ་ཚོར།(Acknowledgement)

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་འབད་མ་ད་སྐད་ལོ་ཤེས་རིག་མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲིའི་འབྲུང་རབས་ལེགས་བཤད་པ་བསོད་
 བློ་མཁས་ལྷོ་གིས་གནས་སྡུང་བཟོ་ནིའི་ནང་ཆ་རོགས་འབད་ཡོད་པའི་ཁར་ཡིན་པའི་ཡིད་སྐྱོད་ཀྱི་ལེགས་བཤད་པ་
 མཁས་དབང་ཀུན་ལེགས་ལྷོ་གིས་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་དབྱེ་དཔྱད་འབད་ནིའི་ནང་གོ་གསལ་རམ་འབད་ཡི།དེ་
 བཟུམ་སྡེ་ཨང་ཕྱིས་ཀྱི་ལེགས་བཤད་པ་ཚོ་དབང་གིས་ཕྱིས་ཐིག་བཟོ་ནི་ལུ་གོ་གསལ་རམ་འབད་ཡོད་
 པའི་ཁར་བདག་སྐྱོད་གིས་གནས་སྡུང་བསྐྱུ་བར་འགྲོ་ནིའི་གནང་བ་དང་ཚོས་ལེན་གོ་གསལ་རམ་ཡི་
 གུ་ཚུ་གནང་མ་ལས་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་མཐའ་འཁྲོལ་ཅན་ཅིག་ལུ་སྲུང་ཚུགས་ཅི་དེ་འབད་ནི་འདི་གིས་
 ཞིབ་འཚོལ་པ་དཔལ་འབྱོར་དང་རིན་ཆེན་མཁའ་འགྲོ་གཉིས་ཀྱིས་གོ་གསལ་རམ་དང་ལམ་སྟོན་གནང་
 མི་གེ་ར་ལུ་བཀྲིན་དགའ་ཚོར་ཉིང་ལས་རང་

རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་ཅི་དང་ འབྲི་ཞི་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར་ལུ་ ཟུར་ཙམ་དཔུང་པ།

བསམ་གཏམ་མཐར་ཕྱིན།¹

དོ་སྦྱོང།

དེའི་ཁ་སྐབ་ལས་ དོན་ཚན་འདིའི་ཐོག་ལུ་ དབྱེ་ཞིབ་ཀྱི་བསམ་འཆར་འབྲི་དགོ་པའི་
ཁྱད་པར་ཡང་ ད་ལྟོ་དུས་རབས་ ༡༡ པའི་ན་གཞོན་རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་ དང་འདྲོད་དང་ཡིད་ཚེས་
ཡོད་མི་རྒྱ་ རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་ རྒྱུ་བ་རྒྱུ་འབབ་བའི་སྐབས་དང་། ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་པའི་སྐབས་
ལུ་ མི་ལ་ལུ་གིས་ ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་འབྲི་ཅི་དང་དག་ཐོག་ལུ་ རྐབ་ཅི་གཉིས་ལུ་ ཁྱད་པར་
ཕྱེ་དགོས་འབད་སྐབ་ ལ་ལུ་གིས་ ཁ་ལས་སྐབ་ཅི་དང་ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་འབྲི་ཅི་གཉིས་ལུ་
ཁྱད་པར་མེད་ཟེར་སྐབ་སྟེ་ ལམ་སྟོན་གཏམ་གཏམ་ཅིག་མེད་པའས་ མག་འཐོམས་ཏེ་
ལུས་སར་མཐོང་པའི་རྒྱུ་དང་།

ལ་ལུ་གིས་ ཁ་ལས་ག་སྐབ་དོ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་ འབྲི་དགོས་ཨིན་མ་འབད་ཏེ་
གོ་སྟེ་ བྲིས་ཡོད་མི་རྒྱ་ནང་ལུ་ལྟུམ་ད་ འབྲི་མི་དང་ལྷག་མི་གཉིས་ཀྱི་བར་ན་ གོ་བ་བར་
ལོག་འབད་ ཏེ་གོ་ཅིའི་ཉེན་ཁ་སྐབ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་ཚོག་ ལེ་ག་ར་འདུག། དཔེར་ན། ང་
སྐབ་ད་ མོ་ཉན་བརྟུབ། མར་སྟོད་ ཟ། ཟེར་མ་ལ་སོགས་པའི་རྫོང་ཁའི་བརྫོད་པ་ འབྲ་
མིན་སྐྱ་ཚོགས་མཐོང་མི་རྒྱ་ལུ་ མཐོ་བསམ་ཅིག་ལེགས་ཤོམ་འབད་བཏང་ དབྱེ་བ་དཔུང་
ལྟུམ་ད་ དཔྱེ་རྒྱུ་ཚོད་ རྫོང་ཁ་འབྲི་སྐབ་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར་ལུ་ དབྱེ་བ་དཔུང་དེ་ཙོམ་
འབྲི་འབད་འབད་བའི་དབེ་དབེ་དང་ ལམ་སྟོན་ཅིག་མིན་འདུག།

འདི་འབད་མ་ལས་ དོན་ཚན་འདིའི་ཐོག་ལུ་ རང་གིས་ཅི་ཤེས་ག་ཤེས་ཅིག་ དབྱེ་བ་ཕྱེ་
སྟེ་བཀོད་རྒྱུགས་པ་ཅིན་ དཔྱེ་རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་ཅི་ལུ་ རྒྱུ་བ་ཡོད་མི་ མ་འོངས་འབྲུག་གི་སྟོག་
ཤིང་ ན་གཞོན་རྒྱུ་ལུ་ ལམ་སྟོན་བཟུམ་ཅིག་འོང་ནི་དང་། དེ་མ་ཚད་རྫོང་ཁ་ཡར་རྒྱས་ཀྱི་
དོན་ལུ་ ཕྱག་ལུ་གཞུང་མི་ མཁས་མཚོག་རྒྱུ་ཡང་ མ་འོངས་རྫོང་ཁ་ཡར་རྒྱས་དང་
ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ལུ་ ཐོས་འདེབས་རྒྱུ་ཀུ་འེ་ ཕུལ་མི་རྒྱུགས་ག་ མཐོ་བའི་རེ་བ་བསྐྱེད་དེ་
དོན་ཚན་ རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་ཅི་དང་འབྲི་ཅི་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར་ལུ་ དབྱེ་བ་དུམ་འབྲ་ཅིག་དཔུང་

1. ལེགས་བཤད་པ། སྤོ་ཤེས་ཅིག་མཐོ་ཤིམ་སྟོམ་གྱ།

དེ་གི་མི་འབྲི་ཡིན།

ལས་དོན།

- རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་ནི་དང་འབྲི་ནི་གཉིས་ལུ་ ལྷན་པར་ག་ཅི་ཡོད་པ་ཡིན་ན་ རོས་འཛོན་ ཚུགས་ནི།
- འབྲི་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ལྷག་མི་ལུ་ གོ་དོན་མ་འཛོལ་བར་སྒྲོད་ཚུགས་ནི།
- སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ སྤང་གི་བསྐྱེད་ཐངས་དང་ བརྗོད་སྒྲུའི་ལྷན་པར་ བྱེ་སྤྲེ་ སྐབ་ཚུགས་ནི།

གཞུང་དོན།

༡. རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་སྐབ་གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྒྱབ་ཁུངས་མདོར་བསྟུན།

རྒྱ་གར་དང་རྒྱ་ནག་གཉིས་ཀྱི་བར་ན་ གངས་རིའི་སྐྱུག་ལུ་ ལོ་སྤྱོད་ཐུག་ལེ་ཤ་ཅིག་གི་ཉེ་ མ་ལས་ ཆགས་པའི་འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་འདི་ སའི་རྒྱ་ཁོན་རྒྱུད་ཀྱི་དང་ མི་སྲོལ་ཡང་ཉུང་ སུ་ཅིག་ལས་མེད། ཡིན་རུང་ ཕྱིའི་བཀོད་པ་ གངས་རིའི་སྐྱུག་ལུ་ ཤིང་དང་མེ་ཉོག་ བྱ་དང་རི་དྲགས་ འབྲུ་སྐྱ་དང་སྐྱ་ལོ་སྐྱ་ཚོགས་ཀྱིས་གང་བ། ཚ་དྲོད་སྤོམ་པའི་ཁར་ བྱ་དང་མུ་གེ་ ས་རྒྱུ་མེ་རྒྱུང་སོགས་ འབྲུང་བའི་འཛིགས་པ་ཉུང་བའི་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་འདི་ནང་ ལུ་ བྱ་གི་འགོ་བ་མིའི་རིགས་འདི་ སྤོན་དང་ཕུ་ལས་ ཆགས་ཏེ་ཡོད་པ་ཡིན། མི་རིགས་ ཆགས་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ གཅིག་གིས་གཅིག་ལུ་ ཕྱིའི་ཡུལ་གི་མཐོང་སྣང་དང་ བྱང་སེམས་ཀྱི་ བདེ་སྐྱུག་ཚུ་ སར་རྒྱུར་བརྗོད་དོན་སྤོད་ལེན་འབད་ནིའི་དོན་ལས་ ཁ་སྐད་བྱུང་ཡོད་མི་འདི་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་གཞན་དང་ ལུང་པ་སྤྱིའི་ལམ་ལུགས་བརྩམ་སྤེ་ཡིན།

སྐྱུན་སྤྱོད་ས་འབྲུག་ཡུལ་འདིའི་མི་སྤྲེ་དང་སྤྱི་ཚོགས་འདི་ དུས་རབས་ལས་དུས་རབས་ མི་རབས་ལས་མི་རབས་རིམ་པ་བཞིན་ ཡར་རྒྱས་འགྲེལ་དང་བསྐྱུན་ ཁ་སྐད་འབྲེ་མིན་ སྐྱ་ཚོགས་དར་ཡོད་མི་ཚུ་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༢༠༠༣ ལུ་ པར་བསྐྱུན་འབད་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་ཁའི་བརྗོད་ གཞུང་གསར་པ་ནང་ལས་ ཤར་ཕྱོགས་འཁོར་ལོ་རྩིབ་བརྒྱུད། བུམ་ཐང་སྤེ་བཞི། ཤར་

མངས་སྲ་གསུམ་སོགས་ འབྲུག་གི་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་ཤར་ ལྷོ་ ལུབ་ བྱང་ དབུས་ཀྱི་ས་ཕྱོགས་
སོ་སོ་ལུ་ ལ་སྐད་མ་འབྲམ་ ཡོངས་བསྐྱོམས་ ༡༠ དེ་ཅིག་དར་ཏེ་ཡོད་པ་འབད་ གྲིས་
ཡོད་དོ་བཟུམ་ཨིན། (DDC, 2002, p. 2)

སྟོན་དང་ཕུ་ གཅིག་གིས་གཅིག་ལུ་ རང་སོའི་ལྷུང་པའི་ལ་སྐད་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལས་ བརྟེན་
སྟོན་ལེན་འབད་ནི་མ་གཏོགས་ ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་འབྲི་སྲོལ་མེད་རུང་ ཅུས་རབས་བརྒྱུད་པའི་
ནང་ ཞུན་རིན་པོ་ཆེ་བུམ་ཐང་ལུ་ ཕྱོན་པའི་སྐབས་ ཕྱག་ལུ་སྟེ་ ཞུན་རྒྱན་རིན་པོ་ཆེ་
རང་གི་སྟོབ་མ་ ལོ་རྩ་བ་ལྷན་མ་རྩེ་མང་ཟེར་ ཡི་གུ་འབྲི་ནི་ལུ་མཁས་པ་ཅིག་ཕྱོན་ཡོད་
མི་དེ་གིས་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་འདྲིའི་མིང་ཚིག་བརྗོད་པ་ཚུ་ གསལ་བའི་གཞི་ འབྲུག་ཡིག་འདྲི་
བརྩམས་གནང་ལུག། (DDC, 2002, p. 5) | དེ་ལུ་མིང་གཞན་ མགྲོགས་ཡིག་
དང་ བཟོ་རྩམ་བོད་ཡིག་དང་མ་འདྲ་བའི་རྒྱན་གྱིས་ བོད་མི་ཚུ་གིས་ལྷག་མ་ཚུགས་པ་ལས་
ལྷོ་ཕྱོགས་སྐར་གྱི་སྡེ་ངས་འདྲིའི་ཡི་གུ་འབད་ཅིས་ཏེ་ ལྷོ་ཡིག་ཟེར་ཡང་སྐབ་སྲོལ་ཡོད་མི་
འདྲི་དར་ཏེ་ ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་འབྲི་ནིའི་སྲོལ་དར་མི་འདྲི་གིས་ ཡར་རྒྱས་ཀྱི་འཇུར་བ་འབྱུང་
བའི་རྟགས་དང་ རྟེན་འབྲེལ་འགྲིགས་ལུག། ཨིན་རུང་ ལ་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ གཡུས་
སྐོ་སོ་སོ་ལུ་ དར་བྱབ་འབད་སྐབ་སྲོལ་ཡོད་པའི་ལ་སྐད་འདྲི་ར་སྐབ་དོ་ཡོད་པ་དང་ འབྲི་
བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ རྐྱད་ཡིག་འདྲི་ རྗོང་ལ་མེན་པར་ ཚོས་སྐད་ཉལ་རྒྱུད་གི་ཐོག་ལས་གྲིས་
ཏེ་སྟོན་ལུག། (Pema, 1971)| དེ་འབད་མ་ལས་ དག་ཐོག་ལས་སྐབ་ནི་དང་ ཡིག་
ཐོག་ལུ་འབྲི་ནི་གཉིས་ཀྱི་བར་ན་བྱང་པར་སྟེ་དགོ་པ་འདྲི་ འགོ་དང་པ་ ཅུས་དེ་ལས་ཚུར་
བྱུང་བྱང་མ་འོང་ནི་ཨིན་མས།

(Pema, 1971) ཅུས་རབས་ ༡༧ པ་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༡༩༧༩ གི་ལོ་ལུ་ འབྲུག་མི་ཡོངས་
ལུ་ བཀའ་བྲིན་གསུམ་ལྷན་གྱི་སྒྲུ་མ་ ཞབས་རྒྱུད་རིན་པོ་ཆེ་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་འདྲི་ནང་
ལུ་ཕྱོན་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ རྗོང་གཞི་ཁག་མང་རབ་ཅིག་བཞེངས། ཚོས་སྟོན་ལུགས་གཉིས་ཀྱི་
སྲོལ་བརྩུགས་ཏེ་ ཕྱག་ལུ་གནང་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ལུང་པའི་ལ་སྐད་ལེ་ཤ་ཅིག་ཡོད་མི་ཚུའི་
གལ་ལས་ རྗོང་ལ་འདྲི་ ཚོས་སྟོན་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཕྱག་ལུ་གནང་པའི་སྐབས་ཀྱི་ ལ་སྐད་འབད་
གནམ་འབྲུ་མཛོད་དེ་ རྗོང་གཞི་ཁག་ལུ་ ལག་ལེན་འབྲམ་ལས་ རྗོང་ལ་སྐབ་ནི་འདྲི་དར་
བྱབ་སོང་ཡོད་རུང་ འབྲི་ནི་འདྲི་དར་བྱབ་བྱང་མ་ཚུགས་པས།

དེལས་ (Rinzin, 1985) སྤྱིལོ་ ༡༩༤༡ ལས་ཚུར་ འབྲུག་གི་ལེགས་བསྐྱར་གྱི་
 ཕ་མཚོག་ མི་དབང་འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་གསུམ་པ་མཚོག་གིས་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་རང་དབང་རང་བཅོལ་
 ལུ་ རྒྱལ་ས་བཞེད་རྒྱ་ཚེས་ལས་གནང་སྟེ་ རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་སྐད་ཡིག་
 འབད་ ཆ་འཛིན་གནང་སྟེ་ ཡར་རྒྱས་འཆར་གཞིའི་ལས་རིམ་ནང་ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁ་ཡིག་ཐོག་
 ལུ་འབྲི་དགོ་པའི་སྤྱིད་བྱས་བཅུམས། (DDC, 2002) སྤྱིལོ་ ༡༩༧༡ ལས་ འགོ་
 བཟུང་སྟེ་ རྫོང་ཁ་ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་ཡང་འབྲི་ནི་ འགོ་བཙུགས་ཞིན་ལས་ ད་ལྟོ་རྩུལ་ཚོད་
 མིལོ་ ༤༩ དེ་ཅིག་གི་རིང་ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁ་འབྲི་སྐབ་གཉིས་པོ་འདི་ ཚེས་གཅིག་ལས་ པཅོ་
 ལཱའི་རྒྱ་བ་ ཉ་གང་དོ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ གོང་ནས་གོང་འཕེལ་ འབྱོ་དང་འབྱོ་བཞིན་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན་
 རུང་ འབྲི་སྐབ་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར་ལུ་ མཁུ་འཕྱོམས་ཏེ་དཀའ་ངལ་རེ་ཡང་ འཕྱོན་དོ་
 ཡོད་མི་རྒྱ་ བསལ་དགོ་པ་གལ་ཆེས་ལས་ འོག་ལས་མར་འབྲི་སྐབ་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར་
 མདོར་བསྐྱུས་ཅིག་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད།

2. རྫོང་ཁ་ ཁ་ལས་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ཚང་དགོ་པའི་ཁྱད་ཚོས།

རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་དག་ཐོག་ལས་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ རྒྱུན་མེད་པ་འབད་ཆ་བཞག་ནིའི་དོན་ལས་
 ཁྱད་ཚོས་ལེ་ག་རང་ཚང་དགོ་པ་ཨིན། དེ་རྩུལ་གྲུལ་ལས་ དང་པ་ ཡི་གཱའི་སྐྱེ་གནས་དང་
 བསྐྱུན་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་དགོ་པ་འདི་གལ་ཆེ། དེ་ཡང་ དག་ཡིག་སྐྱོ་སྐོ་མཚོན་ཆ་ལས།
 ཁོག་པ་མགྱིན་པ་རྟན་དང་སྟེ། །སྐྱེ་དང་སྐྱེ་པོ་མོ་དང་མཚུ། །སྐྱི་ཉི་ (n.d.) ཟེར་གསུངས་
 བཞག་ཡོད་དོ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་འདི་ཡང་ སྤྱིར་བཏོན་སྤྱོད་རིག་པའི་གཞུང་ལས་
 བཤད་པའི་ཡི་གཱ་རེ་རེ་བཞིན་གྱི་སྐྱེ་གནས་ རྒྱ་གདངས་ བྱེད་ཚུལ་ཚུ་དང་མཐུན་མ་ཅིག་
 དགོ་པ་ཨིན། དེ་མེན་པ་ཅིན་ རང་གིས་སྐབ་མི་དེ་ ཉུན་མི་རྩུ་གིས་གོ་དོན་ འཛོལ་ཏེ་
 ཉུ་གོ་ནིའི་ཉེན་ཁ་ཡོད་པ་མ་ཚང་ གཞན་གྱིས་རང་གི་སྤོལ་ དགོ་དུ་སྟེ་བག་འཛི་དང་
 རང་ལུ་བརྟུས་བཅོས་འབད་ནི་རྩུ་འབྱུང་མ་ཨིན། དེ་འབད་མ་ལས་ དག་གཞིས་དག་པའི་
 སྤོབ་དཔོན་ཅིག་བསྟེན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་སྐྱེད་དགོ་པ་མ་ཚང་ རྫོང་སྐྱེའི་དཔེ་དེབ་ཁྱད་ལུ་
 རྩུ་མཇལ་ཞིན་ལས་ དེ་བྱེ་བ་དཔུང་དོ་ ག་དེ་དག་དག་བཅོད་དགོ་པ་ཨིན།

གཉིས་པར་ རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ མིང་ཚིག་དང་བརྗོད་པ་ རེ་རེ་བཞིན་གྱི་ནང་
 དོན་དང་འཁྲུལ་ཏེ་ སྐད་ཀྱི་སེང་ཕབ་དང་ བར་མཚམས་ཀྱི་ངལ་གསོ་མུང་ཀུ་རེ་བཞག་སྟེ་

སྐབ་དགོཔ་ཡིན། ལ་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ཚོས་འབྲུམ་དང་མདོ་མང་ལྷག་དོ་བཟུམ་སྐྱེ་མེན་
པར་ གནད་དོན་དང་འབྲེལ་ འཕྲལ་འཕྲལ་སྐད་ཡར་སང་ནི་དང་ འཕྲལ་འཕྲལ་མར་ཕབ་
ནི། དེ་ལས་ ག་ཅིག་ལུལ་གཉིས་ལུལ་ མཚོགས་དྲག་འབད་སྐབ་ནི་མེན་པར་ གནད་
དོན་དང་འབྲེལ་རྗེད་ཚོག་གི་བར་ན་ ས་སྤོང་བུང་ཀྱུ་རེ་ བཞག་སྤྱི་སྐབ་པ་ཅིན་ རང་གིས་
ག་ཅི་སྐབ་ནི་ཡིན་ན་ དཔུང་རིག་གཏང་ཚུགས་པ་མ་ཚད་ གཞན་གྱི་གདོང་ལར་ དཔལ་
ལུམ་ལུམ་བཟུམ་སྐྱེ་མི་མཐོང་མ་ཡིན།

གསུམ་པར་ རྒོ་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ རྒོ་གི་ནང་དོན་དང་བསྐྱེད་པའི་ལུས་དང་ གདོང་གི་
རྣམ་འགྲུར་ དེ་ལས་མིག་ཏེ་གི་འབྲེལ་བ་རྒྱ་ ལག་ལེན་འབབ་དགོཔ་གལ་ཆེ། གཟུགས་
དང་གདོང་གི་རྣམ་འགྲུར་ དེ་ལས་མིག་ཏེ་གི་འབྲེལ་བ་རྒྱ་ལག་ལེན་འབབ་པ་ཅིན་ རང་
གིས་སྐབ་པའི་རྒོ་གི་ནང་དོན་རྒྱ་ ཕར་ལོགས་མ་གིས་ ལོགས་ཤོམ་འབད་ཏེ་གོ་ནི་ལུ་
ཕན་ཐོགས་སྤོམ་ཡོད་པ་ཡིན།

བཞི་པར་ རང་སེམས་ཀྱི་རྗེར་ལུགས་དང་འབྲེལ་བའི་ཉམས་རྒྱུ་ཚང་དགོཔ་ཚད་ ཚོག་
དང་རྗེད་པ་ལུ་བསྐྱར་བ་རྗེད་རྒྱ་ཡང་ མེད་པའི་རག་གཤིས་ གཙང་ཏོག་ཏེ་ཅིག་དགོཔ་ཡིན།
རང་གིས་ག་ཅི་སྐབ་རུང་ རྗེད་ཚོག་གི་ནང་དོན་དང་འབྲེལ་བའི་ཉམས་དང་ལྷན་མ་འབད་
སྐབ་པ་ཅིན་ ཉན་མི་ལུ་ རྒྱ་སྤྱང་སྤོམ་འབྱུང་ཚུགས་པ་མ་ཚད་ གཞན་གྱིས་རང་གི་རྒྱའི་
བཟུང་ལོགས་ཤོམ་འབད་ ཏེ་གོ་མ་ཚུགས་པར་ མཁྱེན་འཐོམས་ལུས་དོ་ཡོད་པ་ལས་ དེ་
རྒྱ་སྤྱང་དགོཔ་གལ་ཆེམ་ཡིན།

3. རྗེད་ལ་ ལོག་ཐོག་ལུ་ འབྲི་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ཚང་དགོཔ་པའི་ཁྱད་ཚོས།

རྗེད་ལ་འདི་འབྲི་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ཡང་ ལྷག་མི་རྒྱ་ལུ་ རང་གིས་བྲིས་ཡོད་མི་འདི་གིས་
དགའ་བ་དང་རལ་རངས་ འབྱུང་ཚུགས་ནིའི་དོན་ལས་ ཁྱད་ཚོས་ལེ་ཤ་རང་ཚང་དགོཔ་
ཡིན། དེ་རྒྱ་ལས་དང་པར་ ལོག་བཟོ་འདི་ ལོགས་ཤོམ་ཅིག་དགོཔ་ཡིན། དེ་ཡང་

མཁམ་དབང་དགོ་འདུན་རིན་ཆེན་ཞབས་ཀྱིས། ཡིག་གཟུགས་ལེགས་ཤིང་མགྲོགས་པ་
དང། །ལྷག་ཆད་མེད་ཅིང་དག་པ་སྟེ། །ལེགས་མགྲོགས་དག་གསུམ་ཚང་འགྱུར་ན། །དྲི་
ལ་མཁམ་པའི་གྲགས་པ་ཐོབ། ། (n.d. p. 352) ཟེར་གསུངས་ཏེ་ཡོད་དོ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་
གཞན་ལྷག་མི་ཚུ་གིས་ལེགས་ཤོམ་འབད་ ལྷག་ཚུགས་ནི་དང་ ངལ་རངས་འབྱུང་ཚུགས་
ནིའི་དོན་ལས་ དང་པར་ཡིག་བཟོ་འདི་ ལེགས་ཤོམ་འབད་སྐྱུང་བ་འབད་དགོ་པ་ཨིན།

གཉིས་པར་ སྟེབ་དང་སྦྱོར་བ་དག་ཏོག་ཏོ་དགོ་པ་ཨིན། དེ་ཡང་ མཁམ་དབང་དགོ་འདུན་
རིན་ཆེན་ཞབས་ཀྱིས། འདི་ལ་ལེགས་པར་མ་བྱང་བར། །འབྲི་དང་ཚུམ་པར་ཁས་འཆེས་
ན། །རང་གི་ནང་ཆུམིར་འགྲེམས་པའི། །ཚོང་དཔོན་དེ་ལས་གཞན་ཅི་ཡོད། ། (n.d. pp.
355) ཟེར་གསུང་དོ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་ རང་གིས་བྲིས་ཡོད་པའི་དོན་བརྟུན་འདི་ ལྷག་མི་ཚུ་གིས་
ལེགས་ཤོམ་འབད་ཏེ་གོ་ཚུགས་ནི་དང། རང་སྟོ་རང་གིས་མི་བཅོང་བར་ གཞན་གྱི་རྒྱུད་
ལུ་ དགའ་བ་བསྐྱེད་ཚུགས་པའི་ཐབས་ལམ་ཅིག་ སྟེབ་དང་སྦྱོར་བ་དག་ཏོག་ཏོ་འབད་
འབྲི་ནི་འདི་ཨིན་མ་ལས་ སྟེབ་སྦྱོར་དག་ཏོག་ཏོ་འབད་འབྲི་ནི་ལུ་གཙུག་ཅོ་བོ་བཏོན་དགོ་པ་ཨིན།

གསུམ་པར་ བརྟུ་གཞུང་གི་ཕྱད་འདི་ཚུ་ ལ་ལས་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་ བསྟུ་སྟེ་
མེན་པར་ ཐོབ་ལམ་ག་ཨིན་མ་དང་ཚང་མ་འབད་འབྲི་དགོ། དེ་ཡང་ ལ་ལས་སྐབ་པའི་
སྐབས་ལུ་ ཕྱད་བསྟུ་སྟེ་སྐབ་རུང་སྟོན་མེད་མི་འདི་ ཕྱད་བསྟུ་སྟེ་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ཕྱད་
བསྟུ་ཡོད་པའི་ཚོང་སྐྱེ་འདི་ ཚོག་གཞན་ལས་བྱུད་པར་ཡོད་པ་སྟེ་སྐབ་ལས་ དོན་བརྟུན་གོ་
ཚུགས། ཨིན་རུང་འབྲི་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ཕྱད་ཚུ་ཚང་མ་འབད་མེད་པ་ཅིན་ ཚོང་སྐྱེ་མེད་པ་
ལས་ དོན་བརྟུན་འགྱུར་འབད་ཏེ་གོ་ནིའི་ཉེན་ལ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན།

བཞི་པར་ ཚོག་ག་ར་ཚང་མ་དང་ ཡང་ན་ཚོག་འདི་གིས་ལྷག་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ འབྲི་མི་རང་གིས་
མནོ་བའི་དོན་དེ་ལས་ གཞན་ཅིག་ལུ་ཏེ་གོ་འགྲོ་ནིའི་ཉེན་ལ་མེད་པའི་ཚོག་ཚུ་ ལག་ལེན་
འཐབ་དགོ་པ་ཨིན། དེ་མེན་པ་ཅིན་ འབྲི་མི་དང་ལྷག་མི་གཉིས་ཀྱི་བར་ན་ གོ་དོན་སོ་སོར་
འབད་ལེན་ཏེ་ གནས་ཚུལ་བརྟེན་ལོག་འགྲོ་ནིའི་ཉེན་ལ་ཡོད། ཨིན་རུང་ལ་ལས་སྐབ་པའི་
སྐབས་ལུ་ཨིན་པ་ཅིན་ ལུས་ཀྱི་རྣམ་འགྱུར་དང་ ལོག་སྟེ་དོགས་སེལ་གྱི་དྲི་བ་ཚུ་དྲི་ནི་

ཡོད་པ་ལས་ འབྲི་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་བརྩམ་ཅིག་སྒྲིན་མི་འབྲུང་མ་ཡིན།

4. ཁ་ལས་སླབ་ནི་དང་ ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་འབྲི་བའི་ཚོང་ཁ་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར།

སྲིར་བཏང་འཇོམ་གྱི་ནང་གི་སྐད་ཡིག་མང་ཤོས་ལུ་རང་ ཁ་ལས་སླབ་ནི་དང་ ཡིག་ཐོག་ ལུ་འབྲི་ནི་གཉིས་ལུ་ ཁྱད་པར་ཕྱེ་དགོས་ཡིན། དེ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་ ཚོང་ཁ་ལུ་ཡང་ སླབ་ནི་དང་ འབྲི་ནི་གཉིས་ལུ་ ཁྱད་པར་ལེ་ག་རང་ཕྱེ་བཏུབ་རུང་ ད་ལྟོ་རྒྱ་ལུ་ ཉེ་མ་ལས་དཔེ་དེབ་ དང་ཚིག་མཛོད་ཚུ་ནང་ལུ་ ཁ་གསལ་མེད་པའི་ཁྱད་པར་གཙོ་བོ་ 1. མིང་ཚིག་གི་ཚོང་ སླའི་ཁྱད་པར། 2. སྤང་དང་ནམ་དབྱེ་བསྟུ་མ་བསྟུ་བའི་ཁྱད་པར། 3. བར་མཚམས་ ཀྱི་ས་སྟོང་དང་གད་ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར་ གསུམ་འབད་ཕྱེ་ནི་ཡིན།

4.1 མིང་ཚིག་གི་ཚོང་སླའི་ཁྱད་པར་ནི།

མིང་ཚིག་གི་ཚོང་སླའི་ཁྱད་པར་ལུ་དབྱེད་པ་ཅིན་ མིང་ཚིག་ལ་ལུ་ཅིག་ མི་སྡེ་ནང་ལུ་ལག་ ལེན་འཐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ཚོང་སླའ་ལག་གཉིས་འེ་ སླབ་སྟོལ་དར་ཁབ་སོང་ཡོད་མི་གཉིས་ ལས་ ག་འདི་ག་ལེན་འཐབ་རུང་ སྒྲིན་སྟོམ་འབད་མ་ཚོར་བའི་རིགས་ཚུ་ འབྲི་སྐབས་ ཀྱི་སྟེབ་དང་མཐུན་པའི་ཚོང་སླའ་འདི་ར་ ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་པ་ཅིན་ སྐབས་བདེ་ཏོག་ཏོ་འོང་ བྱི་མས། དཔེར་ན་

ཡིག་སྐྱེབ་དང་མཐུན་མི་འབད་ དར་བྱབ་སོང་ཡོད་མི།	ཡིག་སྐྱེབ་དང་མ་མཐུན་འབད་དར་བྱབ་སོང་ ཡོད་མི།
ཚོས།	ཚོའོ།
མི་ངོ།	མི་ངོམ།
ཕྱག་མདའ།	ཕྱག་ན་མདའ།
ཉི་ཟླ།	ཉིན་ཟླ།
དཔལ་འབྱོར།	དཔལ་ན་འབྱོར།
ལྷ་འབད་དེ་སྐྱ་ལེན།	ལྷ་འབད་འདི་ སྐྱ་ལེན།
གོ་ལ་གྱོན་ཏེ་ ཤོག།	གོ་ལ་གྱོན་འདི་ ཤོག།

མིང་ཚིག་ལ་ལུ་ཅིག་ གཡུས་སྒོ་སོ་སོའི་ངག་གཤིས་དང་ མི་རང་སོའི་ལྗེའི་དབང་པོ་བདེ་མི་
བདེའི་བྱང་པར་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ མིང་ཚིག་གཅིག་ཡིན་རུང་ ཟུར་ཆག་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ གཉིས་
གཉིས་གསུམ་གསུམ་རེ་ སྐབ་ཕྱོལ་དར་ཏེ་ཡོད་མི་ཚུ་ཡིན་པ་ཅིན་ སྤྱིར་བཏང་རང་སོའི་
གཡུས་སྒོ་ལས་པར་ དར་བའི་སྐྱོ་བྱེད་ ཁ་བཤད་ཚུ་ནང་ལུ་ ལྷང་པ་སོ་སོའི་གཡུས་
སྐད་ཡིན་མ་ལས་ རང་སོའི་གཡུས་སྒོ་ནང་ལུ་ ག་དར་ཏེ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་འདི་སྐབ་རུང་
སྐྱོན་མེད། ཡིན་རུང་ མི་དམངས་འཛོམས་པའི་སྐྱག་ལུ་ སྐབ་དགོ་པའི་རྫོང་ཁ་ནང་ལུ་
ཡིན་པ་ཅིན་ ག་འོས་འབབ་དང་ཆ་གནས་ཡོད་མི་དང་ སྐབ་དང་མཐུན་མི་འདི་ར་ ལག་
ལེན་འཐབ་དགོ་པ་ཡིན། དཔེར་ན་

ཡིག་སྐྱེབ།	འོས་བབས་ཡོད་ པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ།	ལང་པའི་ངག་གཤིས་ཀྱིས་དབང་ བའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ།
ལ་ལ།	ལ་ལ།	ལ་ལ།
བྱི་ལྷི།	བྱི་ལྷི།	ཇི་ལྷི། བྱི་ལ།
ཤ་མ།	ཤ་མ།	ཤོ་མ། ཤི་མོ། ཤ་མོང།
ཕག་པ།	ཕག་པ།	ཕོ་པ། ཕག

མིང་ཚིག་ལ་ལུ་ཅིག་ ཡིག་སྟེབ་དང་འབྲེལ་བའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་འདྲི་མེན་པར་ རྫོང་ཁའི་དག་གཤིས་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་བྱུང་པར་ཅན་ཅིག་ ཡོད་མི་འདྲི་ལག་ལེན་མ་འཐབ་ད་ རྫོན་འབད་ཚེར་བའི་རིགས་ཚུ་ཨིན་པ་ཅིན་ ཡིག་སྟེབ་ག་ཨིན་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་འདྲི་མེན་པར་ རྫོང་ཁའི་དག་གཤིས་དང་མཐུན་པའི་ རྫོང་སྐྱ་འདྲི་ར་ ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་དགོཔ་ཨིན། དཔེར་ན་

ཡིག་སྟེབ།	རྫིར་བཏང་ཡིག་སྟེབ་རང་གི་རྫོང་སྐྱ།	རྫོང་སྐྱ།
བ།	ཅ'	བཱ།
ལ།	ཆ'	ལཱ།
སྟོང་དཔོན།	སྟོང་པོན།	སྟོས་སྟེ།
བཙོ་ལ།	ཙོ་ལ།	བཙེ་ལ།
ག།	ག།	གའི།
དུག་ཤོས།	དུག་ཤོས།	དུག་ཤོ།

4.2 མད་དང་ནམ་དབྱེ་ བསྐྱུ་མ་བསྐྱུ་བའི་བྱུང་པར་ནི།

ས་སྐྱ་རྗེ་བཙུན་ བསོད་ནམས་ཚེ་མོ་མཚོག་གིས། གང་གིས་ཡི་གེའི་བྱེ་བྲག་དང། །དབྱེ་བསྐྱུ་འབྱུང་གནས་མི་ཤེས་པར། །སྐྱོག་རྫོང་པ་མཁས་མ་ཡིན། །དོན་ཀྱང་ནམ་པར་འབྲུལ་བར་འགྱུར། ། (n.d. p. 5) ཟེར་གསུང་དོ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ རྫིར་བཏང་རྫོང་ཁ་འདྲི་སྟེབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ མད་དང་ནམ་དབྱེ་ཚུ་ བསྐྱུ་སྟེ་སྐབ་རུང་སྐྱེན་མེད་པ་ཨིན། ཨིན་རུང་ ཡིག་སྟེབ་ལུ་འབྲི་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ མད་ཚུ་ཚང་མ་འབད་མ་འབྲི་བ་ཅིན་ དོན་བརྟེན་འགྱུར་འབད་ ཏ་གོ་ནིའི་རྫོན་ རྫོང་རང་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན།

དཔེར་ན་

ངག་ཐོག་ལས་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལྟ།	ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་འབྲི་བའི་སྐབས་ལྟ།	ཕྱད་ག་ཅི་བསྟུན་ཞིབ་ན།
<p>ཚོད་ ག་དེ་སྡེ་སྡོེ?</p> <p>ཁྱིམ་མེ་ ཚོག་སོང་རུག</p> <p>མི་ཅིག་ཚུ་ འབག་ཚི་རུག</p> <p>མི་ཅིག་དོམ་མ་ ཟ་ད་རུག</p>	<p>ཚོད་ཀྱིས་ ག་དེ་སྡེ་སྡོེ?</p> <p>ཁྱིམ་མེས་ ཚོག་སོང་རུག</p> <p>མི་ཅིག་ཚུས་ འབག་ཚི་རུག</p> <p>མི་ཅིག་དོམ་མ་གིས་ ཟ་ད་རུག</p>	<p>ཕྱད་སྐྱ་བསྟུན་བ།</p>
<p>ཡར་ལོང་ བལྟ།</p> <p>ཁྱིམ་ནང་ལུ་འགྱུ་ ལྟོ་ཟ་ཤོག</p> <p>ལཱ་འབད་ ལྟོ་ཟམ་དག</p>	<p>ཡར་ལོང་སྟེ་ བལྟ།</p> <p>ཁྱིམ་ནང་ལུ་འགྱུ་སྟེ་ ལྟོ་ཟ་སྟེ་ཤོག</p> <p>ལཱ་འབད་དེ་ ལྟོ་ཟམ་དག</p>	<p>ལྟག་བཅས་བསྟུན་བ།</p>
<p>ཁོ་དཔེ་ཆ་ཡིན།</p> <p>མོ་མིང་ཐོ་ཁར་ཡོད།</p>	<p>ཁོ་ (འི་གི)དཔེ་ཆ་ཡིན།</p> <p>མོ་ (འི་གི) མིང་ཐོ་ཁར་ཡོད།</p>	<p>འབྲེལ་སྐྱ་བསྟུན་བ།</p>
<p>གྱི་ཚུང་འདི་ ངག་ནང།</p> <p>ཁོ་ ལྟོད་ད།</p> <p>མོ་ སྐབ། ང་མི་ཤེས།</p>	<p>གྱི་ཚུང་འདི་ ང་ (ར/ལུ)</p> <p>ག་ནང།</p> <p>ཁོ་ (ར/ལུ) ལྟོད་ད།</p> <p>མོ་ (ར/ལུ) སྐབ། ང་མི་ཤེས།</p>	<p>ལ་དོན་བསྟུན་བ།</p>

ལ་ལས་སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ཡང་ ཕྱད་དང་ནམ་དབྱེ་ག་ཉེ་ལུ་ བསྟུས་ཉེ་ཡོད་སའི་རྫོད་སྐྱ་འདི་ ཨ་ཅི་ཕར་བསྐར་སུ་ཅིག་འབད་ སྐབ་དགོང་ཡིན། དེ་མེན་པ་ཅིན་ ཕར་ལོག་སམ་ ཉན་མི་འདི་གིས་ རང་གིས་སྐབ་མི་དོན་བད་འདི་མེན་པར་ ཕྱི་འགྲུང་སྡེ་ཉེ་གོ་ནིའི་ཉེན་ལ་ཡོད་པ་ཡིན།

དཔེ་ན

སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ བརྗོད་སྐབས་ཨ་ཙི་རེ་ པར་བསྐྱར་དགོངས།	ཕྱད་ག་ཙི་བསྐྱུལ་ཨིན་ན།
ཁྱོད་འོས་ ག་དེ་སྐྱོ་སྐྱོ་? ཁྱིམ་མེ་འོས་ ཚིག་སོང་ཅུག། མི་ཅིག་ཚུའུམ་ འབག་ཚིཅུག། མི་ཅིག་དོམ་མའ་ ཟ་ད་ཅུག།	ཕྱེད་སྐྱུ་བསྐྱུ་བ།
ཡར་ལོང་འོ་ བཟུ། ཁྱིམ་ནང་ལུ་འགྱུའོ་ ལྷོ་ཟའ་ཤོག། ལུ་འབད་འོ་ ལྷོ་ཟམ་ཅུག།	ལྷུག་བཅས་བསྐྱུ་བ།
ཁོ་འོ་ དཔེ་ཚུ་ཨིན། མོ་འོ་ མིང་ཐོ་ཁར་ཡོད།	འབྲེལ་སྐྱུ་བསྐྱུ་བ།
གྱི་ཅུང་འདི་ དའ་ གནང། ཁོ་འོ་ སྤོད་ད། མོ་འོ་ སྐབ། ད་མི་ཤེས།	ལ་དོན་བསྐྱུ་བ།

4.3 བར་མཚམས་གྱི་ས་སྤོང་དང་ ཤད་གྱི་ཁྱུང་པར།

འབྲེལ་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ཚིག་གི་བར་ན་ས་སྤོང་དང་ རྗོད་ཚིག་གི་མཚུགས་ལུ་ ཤད་ཚུ་མ་འབྲི་
བ་ཅིན་ ཚིག་དང་རྗོད་པ་གོང་འོག་གཉིས་མཐུན་དེ་ ལྷུག་མི་གིས་ གོ་དོན་ཕྱི་འགྱུར་འབད་
ལེན་ནི་ཨིན་པ་ལས་ སྤོན་དོམ་ཅིག་འབད་ཚུམ་སོལ་ཡོད་ཅུང་། སྐབ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ བར་
མཚམས་ལུ་ དབུགས་གྱི་བར་ཐེམ་ཐུང་གུ་རེ་ བཞག་པ་ཙམ་གྱིས་ ཉན་མི་ཚུ་གིས་ དོན་
བདེ་གསལ་ཏྲོག་ཏྲོ་འབད་ ཉ་གོ་ཚུ་གསལ་པ་ལས་ སྤོན་ལུ་མི་འགྲོལ་ཨིན།

མཇུག་བསྟུ།

གོང་ལུ་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་ནི་དང་ འབྲི་ནི་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར་ མདོར་བསྟུས་
ཅིག་ འབྲི་དགོ་མི་འདི་ཡང་ ད་ལྟོ་རྒྱ་ཆུན་ཚོད་ལུ་ དཔེ་ཆ་ག་ཅི་ནང་ལུ་ཡང་ དེ་གཉིས་ཀྱི་
ཁྱད་པར་ ཉིང་སངས་སངས་ཅིག་འབད་བུམ་འབྲི་ལྷ་མ་མཐོང་བའི་རྒྱ་མཚན་དང་། ངར་ང་
ལུ་ཤ་ཚའི་ཆ་རོགས་ལ་ལུ་ཅིག་གིས་ དོན་ཚན་འདི་འོ་ཐོག་ལུ་ དུམ་བྲ་ཅིག་དབྱེ་བ་དཔུང་
དེ་ འབྲི་རྒྱ་གསལ་པ་ཅིན་ སྤྱིར་བཏང་རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་དག་སྤང་དང་ སྤོ་བ་ཡོད་པའི་ན་གཞོན་རྒྱ་ལུ་
ཕན་ཐོགས་ཡོད་པའི་གོས་འདེབས་གནང་མི་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ ངར་ང་ལུ་ སྐྱེས་སྤོབས་ཀྱི་ཤེས་
རབ་མེད་པའི་ཁར་ ཐོས་བསམ་ཤེས་རབ་ཀྱི་མིག་ཏེ་ཁབ་ལུང་ལས་རྒྱུད་། ལྷ་རྒྱ་མཐོང་རྒྱ་
གི་གདན་ལང་ སྤོམ་མེད་དེ་འབད་རུང་ རང་གིས་ག་ཤེས་ཤེས་པ་ཅིག་ མདོར་བསྟུས་ཏེ་
བུམ་ཡོད་མི་འདི་གིས་ རྫོང་ཁ་སྐབ་རྒྱུས་དང་ གོང་འཕེལ་ལུ་ ཕན་པའི་རྒྱུར་གྱུར་ཅིག།

རྒྱབ་རྟེན་གྱི་ཐོ།

མཁས་དབང་དགེ་འདུན་རིན་ཆེན་གྱིས་མཛད་པ་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༡༩༩༡ ལུ་ པར་བསྐྱུན་འབད་
ཡོད་པའི་ ཐ་སྐད་བརྟན་དག་གི་བསྟན་བཅོས་རོམ་ཚར་འཕུལ་གྱི་ལྟེ་མིག། ས་གནས་དང་
པར་བསྐྱུན་ཁང་ ཁ་གསལ་མིན་འདུག།

རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ཀྱིས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༢༠༠༣ ལུ་ པར་བསྐྱུན་འབད་ཡོད་པའི་
རྫོང་ཁའི་བརྟན་གཞུང་གསལ་པ། ས་གནས་དང་པར་བསྐྱུན་ཁང་ ཁ་གསལ་མིན་འདུག།

རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ཀྱིས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༢༠༡༣ ལུ་ པར་བསྐྱུན་འབད་ཡོད་པའི་
རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱོང་ལྷན་རྒྱུན་དག་པའི་ལུས་རྒྱ།

ས་སྐྱེ་རྩེ་བཙུན་བསོད་ནམས་ཚུ་མོས་མཛད་པའི་ (n.d) ཡི་གེའི་བཞག་ཐབས་བྱིས་པ་
བདེ་བླག་འཇུག་པ་ཞེས་བྱ་བ། ས་གནས་དང་པར་བསྐྱུན་ཁང་ ཁ་གསལ་མིན་འདུག།

པར་རྒྱུ་ཚོད་བར་གིས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༡༩༤༠ ལུ་ བུམ་ཡོད་པའི་ འབྲུག་གི་ཡིག་རིགས་དང་ རྒྱ་
ཡིག་འབྲུང་ཁུངས་གསལ་བཤད། རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་དཔེ་མཛོད་ཁང་། ཐིམ་ཕུག།

རིན་འཛིན་རྒྱལ་མཚན་གྱིས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༡༩85 ལུ་བྲིས་ཡོད་པའི་ འབྲུག་གི་ལམ་སྲོལ་གྱི་
འབྲུང་རབས། ཐར་པ་གླིང་དགོན་སྡེ། ཡིན་དེ་པར་བསྐྱུན་ཁང། རྒྱ་གར་དེལི།

པརྒྱུ་ཏ་སྤྲི་ཏིས་མཛད་པའི་ (n.d) སྤྲོ་མཚོན་ཆ། ས་གནས་དང་ པར་བསྐྱུན་ཁང་
ལ་གསལ་མིན་འདུག།

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RABSEL – the CERD Educational Journal Guidelines for Manuscript

RABSEL – the CERD educational journal

The CERD Educational Journal is published twice a year in spring and autumn by the Centre for Educational Research and Development, Paro College of Education, Royal University of Bhutan. The Journal welcomes contributors which promote the exchange of ideas and rational discourse between practicing educators, researchers, planners, administrators, educational thinkers and practitioners, learners and policy makers from Bhutan and abroad. To this end the Journal publishes articles on empirical and theoretical studies, research reports, commentaries and scholarly reviews that attempt a systematic analysis or synthesis of educational processes and systems from different viewpoints and approaches.

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