



འཕེལ་པེ་འཇུག་

Volume 24, Issue – II
Autumn 2022

Centre for Educational Research and Development
Paro College of Education

CERD

RABSEL

VOLUME - 24 ISSUE - II Autumn 2024



RABSEL

The CERD Educational Journal



रबसेल

Volume – 24, Issue II

Autumn 2022

Centre for Educational Research & Development

Paro College of Education

A Publication of the
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Impact of Teaching Environmental Science On the Knowledge and Attitude of Bhutanese Higher Secondary Students Towards the Environment

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Abstract

Providing individuals with environmental awareness from a young age is important for a livable and sustainable world. The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of teaching Environmental Science (ES) to classes IX-XII students. A mixed method, convergent design, was adopted for the study, guided by the Pragmatism worldview. Quantitative data were gathered from 130 participants and qualitative data were collected from 5 students and 5 teachers from one higher secondary school. A descriptive and inferential statistics were used for quantitative data and the qualitative data were analyzed along the same themes. The results showed that students had a high degree of understanding and a positive attitude in ES and environment. Additionally, it was noted that there is little to no correlation between their knowledge and attitude toward the environment. Thus, it was determined that students, particularly those in high schools, are being encouraged to develop their environmental literacy in order to promote the study of ES. Therefore, the schools in Bhutan need to make more efforts to encourage ES to ensure effective implementation of the curriculum in the nation's sustainable development goals.

Keywords: Environmental Science, Sustainability, Awareness, Effects

Introduction

The advancement and rapid dissemination of science and technology rapidly changed the concept of dominating nature. This change leaves the environmental consciousness in the second place and creates a society that produces and consumes as much as possible (Basuhail, 2019; Marpa, 2020; Cheng, & Monroe; 2010; Purgin, 2018). Therefore, there is a need for individuals who are respectful and sensitive to nature. To meet this need, individuals, who are aware of environmental awareness, protection, and sensitivity, should be trained. According to Robinson (2013), an environmentally sensitive individual can be defined as a human who avoids harming the environment, consciously produces and consciously consumes, is aware of its being a part of this environment and sensitive to environmental problems. Such a human model emerges in cultures that are aware that the environmental problem occurring anywhere in the world affects the whole world equally. Environmental education is important for the formation of this culture.³ Environmental education has an important place in science education. It is also a must for a sustainable environment. In the 1970s, environmental education was first discussed at a higher

education level (Ünal & Dımıřkı, 1999). Environmental education aims to make students aware of environmental problems and to act on the problems (Alagoz & Akman, 2016; Jensen & Schnack, 2006; Özden, 2008). Palmer, (1995) said that there are three different approaches to environmental education. These are in the environment, about the environment, and for the environment. About the environment is giving environmental knowledge to students.

As envisioned in the Bhutan Vision 2020 document, environmental science was introduced in the Bhutanese schools as a subject and formed a major part of the curriculum diversification initiative (Royal Educational Curriculum [REC], 2015). Further, the environment science curriculum was formally launched in 2015 as an optional subject for class IX students with emphasis on raising public awareness and subsequently fostering a favorable attitude and conduct toward the environment. This subject provides opportunities to both teachers and learners to incorporate effective educational approaches such as utilizing current issues, connecting with community resources and engaging themselves in research and project-based learning. One of the challenges of the 21st century is going to be the issue of sustainability of natural resources. Thus, this study aimed to explore the effects of teaching environmental science, with a particular focus on students' knowledge and attitudes towards the environment.

Objectives of the Study

1. To investigate the impacts of teaching environmental science to class IX-XII students.
2. To assess students' level of knowledge on environmental science.
3. To find out students' attitude towards learning environmental science.
4. To draw the essential perceptions and approaches to support students in learning of environment science.

Research questions

1. What are the perspectives of the teachers on the impact of teaching environment science on knowledge and attitude of Bhutanese students towards the environment?
2. What is the environmental science students' level of environment knowledge?
3. What is the attitude of the students towards the environment?
4. What is the relationship between the students' level of knowledge and their attitude towards the environment?

Literature Review

Students Perceptions on the Environment

Environment has become so fragile due to the rapid human development. It has brought

numerous changes to landscape and styles of human living. Students as future leaders need to learn how to balance the varied needs of human population (Mongar, 2022). The goal of Environmental Science is to build a cadre of young people equipped with knowledge, skills and values to engage them in the conversation of natural heritage, promoting sustainable and equitable use of natural resources, preventing all forms of environmental degradation in the pursuit of Gross National Happiness (GNH) (REC, 2018, p. ii). Environmental science, on the other hand, is viewed as a process of incorporating environmental information into the educational system in order to raise public understanding of environmental issues at all educational levels. According to REC (2015, p. vii), environmental Science aims to empower students to make right choice for sustainable future with global perspectives, and transform them to become responsible and productive citizens of the 21st century world

Knowledge on the Environment

Students need to possess adequate knowledge about the environment. According to the study by Erhabor and Don (2015) posited that environment education students have adequate knowledge of the environment. Similarly, another study reveals a project-based learning approach for environmental education. Students should be able to use their knowledge in their daily lives especially for environmental education (Kestin et al., 2020). Further, Erhabor and Don (2015) state that environmental education helps learners learn skills on how to destroy the environment with a mean score of *0.91* which indicates that students acquire knowledge and skills which resulted in optimum utilization of nature. In addition, a study by Mrema (2008) revealed that environmental literacy among students of faculty of social science in the University of Putra Malaysia showed that more than 80% of all students had a high level of knowledge towards ES. Thus, students need to know about the environment and its sustainability.

Attitudes on the Environment

Students' behavior and attitudes on the environment is important. According to Keskin et al. (2020), students who were exposed to specific environmental education programs significantly developed an attitude towards the use of water. This literature shows that providing environmental education mostly gives rise to improvement in students' behavior and attitude towards the environment. Their views show that they were motivated. In other words, project-based learning increases students' motivation (Archie, 2003). Project-based learning was usually found effective especially for high school and university students. Yet, in the current study, we reached that it also works with middle school students. Similarly, Jekayinga and Yusuf (2004) stated that students had a positive attitude towards the teaching of environmental education at all levels of education in Nigeria. The positive attitude and high level of knowledge among the students signifies that environmental education has great prospects in actualizing its goals and objectives in the country. However, a study by Aminrad et al (2013) reported the relationship

between knowledge and attitude towards environmental education among students in Malaysia. In this present study, the little or no relationship observed reveals that the knowledge possessed by the students does not influence their attitude towards the environment. Further, knowing science alone is not enough. The citizens should also know how to use that knowledge in their life. Hence, students having a positive attitude towards the environment have huge benefits in the future.

What is the gap/s in the literature that your study tried to fill in?

There isn't any local literature... without that it is often difficult to contextualize the study...

Methodology

A pragmatic paradigm guided this study on the effect of teaching environmental science (ES) to students of classes IX and XII. Further, this study employed a convergent mixed methods. The use of this design provided an in-depth understanding of the subject matter through personal experiences, interviews and surveys (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). This study also associates with personal experiences and behaviors, and hence this approach guided the collection of data and the process of analysis.

The data were collected through survey questionnaires and semi-structured interview. Based on Cochran (1977) sample size of 384, 130 participants participated in this study. The purposive sampling technique was used since it allowed researcher to describe the major impact findings have on the population. Using a purposive sampling approach, the participants for this study were drawn from students in order to get better information. The sample ensured equal gender representations. Therefore, the study collected questionnaire data from 130 students at Bhutanese Higher Secondary students. Of the total, 80 were male and 50 were female. In one-on-one interview, teachers (n=5) and students (n=5) were included. Each data collection tool complemented the other, which enabled a greater depth of understanding of the issue under study. The survey items were expressed on a six-point Likert scale corresponding to Strongly Agree (6), Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Disagree (3), Somewhat Disagree (2), and Strongly Disagree (1). Further, the scale on the level of the opinion was adapted from Tshering, et al., (2021), guide to interpret the mean score (See Table 1.1). The items were adapted from Erhabor and Don where the study was conducted in Nigeria in 2015 to study the similar topic on environment.

Table 1.1

Scale on level of opinion

Scale	Level of Opinion
-------	------------------

1-1.50	Strongly disagree
1.51-2.50	Disagree
2.151-3.50	Somewhat disagree
3.51-4.50	Somewhat agree
4.51-5.00	Agree
5.51-6.00	Strongly agree

(Scale adapted from Tshering, Tamang and Rinchen, 2021)

Adhering to research ethics, anonymity and confidentiality of participants was maintained by not revealing names and identities in the data collection and while reporting the study findings. All participants were clearly briefed on the purpose of the research and their involvement. The participants signed an informed consent form before the interview to indicate their permission to be part of the study (Arifin, 2018).

Data Analysis Approach

The analysis of data in a mixed methods design involves the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data, which was analyzed using appropriate methods of analysis (Creswell, 2013). The study analyzed the survey questionnaires using descriptive statistics using the statistical package IBM SPSS V24. The data were analyzed through features such as frequencies, mean, standard deviation, and correlation, which were represented in the form of tables. To determine the degree of correlation, the idea of Best and Khan (2006) was adapted (see Table 1.2). Interview data were analyzed thematically as seen useful in investigating the various perspectives of research participants and as seen appropriate to the pragmatism paradigm. The interview data were further developed into categories or themes, which became a unit of discussion.

Table 1.2

Correlation and Coefficient Range

Coefficient Interval	Coefficient level
0.00-0.199	Very low
0.20-0.399	Low
0.40-0.599	Middle
0.60-0.799	Strong

0.80-1.000

Very Strong

Adapted from Best and Khan (2006)

Results**Perceptions on the Environment****First present the text...**

Table 1.3

Mean and standard deviation of students' perceptions on the Environment (n=130)

	Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of opinion
The environment science will equip young people with knowledge, skills and values in environment		4.88	1.05	Agree
Environmental science should focus on the present situations.		4.97	1.002	Agree
Sustainable development is meeting the needs of only the present situation.		5.31	0.042	Agree
Environment science broaden the knowledge and ideas on protection of environment.		4.80	.177	Agree
Environmental science would make the students understand environmental issues at all educational levels.		4.36	1.185	Somewhat Agree
Overall Mean		4.90	0.45	Agree

The analysis of Table 1.3 showed students' perceptions on the environment. The overall mean score of 4.90 which falls in the agree category reveals that students have good perceptions towards the environment. For instance, the item *Sustainable development is meeting the needs of only present situations* with the mean score of 5.31 indicates that students know about the sustainable use of the environment. Similarly, the standard deviation 0.45 indicates that students have similar opinions. However, *environmental science would make the students to understand environmental issues at all educational levels* 4.36 slightly inclined to somewhat agree. This shows that environment education would substantiate other levels of education about the environment. Similarly, in the interview students expressed that environmental science helps them to develop skills, ideas and knowledge towards the environment. For instance, S1 said, "I gain various knowledge about environment after exposing with the ES subject." Further majority

of teachers shared that environmental science had broadened the knowledge and ideas on the environment. This is exemplified in the quote by T3, “majority of the students show interest in environment science because they are eager to learn more about environment.” In addition, S2 stated that this subject teaches us about the real-world situations and its consequences for human development. Overall finding indicates that students hold a high level of perceptions on environmental protections and sustainable usage.

Knowledge on the Environment

Table 1.4

Mean and Standard deviation on knowledge on the environment (???)

	Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Opinion
Environmental education helps learners learn skills on how to destroy the environment.		4.65	.186	Agree
The human disturbance of the natural environment leads to environmental degradation.		4.90	1.122	Agree
Conservation of nature helps to protect the environment from loss, waste and harm.		4.60	1.032	Agree
Gradual increase in the earth's temperature is known as global warming.		4.55	1.066	Somewhat Agree
Overall Mean	130	4.67	0.85	Somewhat Agree

As shown in Table 1.4, the overall mean and standard deviation for the items on students' knowledge on the environment (M=4.67; SD=0.85). This indicates that students agree that they have gained knowledge after learning the environment science. Further, analysis of the item *the human disturbance of the natural environment leads environment degradation*. (M=4.90; SD=1.22) (see Table 1.4). This also indicates that students strengthened love and appreciation for nature. However, the item *gradual increase in the earth temperature is known as global warming* fall in “Somewhat Agree” category. This shows that students do not have much knowledge about global warming and its causes.

Interview data show that students shared that they gain a variety of knowledge and ideas from environment subjects which ultimately helps in problem solving, and take action to improve the environment. For example, S4 elucidates that it helps to establish standards for a safe, clean⁹ and healthy natural ecosystem after knowing the facts about the environment. It is further echoed by T2, “it also develops a deeper understanding or environment issues and have the skills to

make informed and responsible decisions.” In the same vein, S3 said, “it helps me to understand important issues like safe and clean drinking water, hygienic living conditions and clean and fresh air, fertility of land, healthy food and development.” Thus, the majority of participants expressed environmental issues such as global warming, depletion of the ozone layer, and dwindling forest energy resources. Loss of global biodiversity is understood from environmental science subjects.

Attitudes on the Environment

Table 1.5

Mean and standard deviation on attitudes on the environment (???)

	Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Opinion
The course has increased my love and appreciation for nature.		4.73	1.149	Agree
Environmental science helps to produce active and well-informed individuals.		4.45	1.058	Somewhat Agree
Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs.		4.60	1.06	Somewhat Agree
Humans are severely abusing the environment.		5	.184	Agree
The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn to develop them.		4.66	1.142	Somewhat Agree
Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist.		4.68	1.024	Agree
The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of industrial nations.		4.50	0.991	Somewhat Agree
Overall Mean	130	5.03	1.05	Agree

Students need to love and appreciate nature. Overall mean scores of 5.03 revealed that students have the right attitudes towards the environment. The score for the item, *the course has increased my love and appreciation for nature* indicates that students have enhanced their love and appreciation for nature when they studied ES. Similarly, students know importance of nature with the industrial nations as evident from the item *the balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impact's industrial nations* with the mean score of (M=4.50; SD=0.991) The balance of nature is robust enough to cope with the effects of modern industrial nations also 10 demonstrated a positive attitude because the item was negatively structured. Moreover, the standard deviation (SD=1.05) is low, indicating that students have similar feelings towards the

items. Further, interview data revealed that students demonstrate that they have a positive attitude about the environment. For instance, S5 expressed that plants and animals have rights like human beings because non-human animals deserve the ability to live as they wish, without being subjected to the desire of human beings. However, T4 shared that students cannot show their feelings and love for nature the way the Es teaches. A very low positive correlation was found between the knowledge and attitude towards the environment ($r=.131$; $p=0.001$) and knowledge ($r=.131$; $p=0.001$) at $p < 0.01$ (see Table 1.6). This presents an impression that knowledge of environment science doesn't impact attitude of the students towards the environment. Similarly, S3 said, "global environmental change is having a profound impact on ecosystems around the globe, with complex interactions at the interface of global change processes and ecological systems.

Table 1.6

Correlation between the items (Knowledge and Attitude)

		Knowledge	Attitude
Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	1	.131**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	130	130
Attitude	Pearson Correlation	.131**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	130	130

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Discussion

One of the findings of this study is that the students' understanding of the environment with the overall mean score of 4.85 which revealed that students have a good level of understanding on ES. The current findings corroborated with the idea of REC (2015), that the environmental science aims to empower students to make the right choice for a sustainable future with global perspectives, and transform them to become responsible and productive citizens of the 21st century world. Moreover, interview data shows that environment science helps them to develop skills, ideas and knowledge about the environment. According to survey findings environmental science would make students understand environmental issues at all educational levels with a mean score of 4.36. This finding is congruent with the previous literature, that a process of incorporating environmental information into the educational system in order to raise public

understanding of environmental issues at all educational levels (Erhabor & Don, 2015). These findings may help us to understand the students develop skills, ideas and knowledge about the environment after learning the ES.

Students also gain a variety of knowledge about the environment after studying the ES. The findings indicated that students gain a variety of knowledge and ideas from environment subjects, which ultimately helps in problem solving, and take action to improve the environment. The finding aligns with the previous study that revealed that environment education students have adequate knowledge of the environment (Erhabor & Don, 2015). Another study showed that students should be able to use their knowledge in their daily lives especially for environmental education (Kestin et al., 2020). Further the findings are supported by current findings. For instance, T2 said, “it also develops a deeper understanding or environment issues and have the skills to make informed and responsible decisions.” The finding implies that students derive positive knowledge towards the environment after learning ES.

Young people’s environmental attitudes and behaviors are essential for environmental conservation. The previous literature revealed that students who were exposed to specific environmental education programs significantly developed an attitude towards the use of water (Keskin et al., 2020). The previous finding is supported by the current findings, which showed that students have right attitudes towards the environment with the overall mean score of 4.68. Further the interview data showed that students have a positive attitude about the environment. A possible reason for this could be students grasping a wide range of environmental related knowledge and ideas. Additionally, it provides a statistical breakdown of the correlation between students' environmental knowledge and attitudes towards the environment. According to the calculated correlation coefficient, there is little to no association between the students' knowledge and their attitudes toward ES in the school. As "r" is derived to be -0.070, which can be inferred. As a result, it suggests that only 0.1 percent of students' attitude toward the environment and their level of knowledge about the environmental science study do not have affect how they feel about the environment which is similar to a study by Aminrad et al. (2013), who reported a weak relationship between knowledge and attitude towards environmental education by students. Thus, the students' upbeat attitudes and excellent levels of knowledge indicate that environmental science has a great chance of achieving its aims and objectives in the school enabling the development of a favorable environmental attitude among the students.

Recommendations

The findings of this study may be useful in establishing a framework for future ES programs and incorporating nature-based education into the classroom. Similar study can be conducted on

primary school pupils in the younger age groups. Correlation studies involving environmental awareness and other subjects such as geography and biology can be conducted as environmental awareness research is linked to environmental protection and is critical for environmental preservation. Moreover, this study was conducted with students of only one higher secondary school in Bhutan using convergent mixed methods. Future research could explore the topic by employing sequential mixed methods. This method may allow the researcher to provide detailed analysis and in-depth information from interview participants (Creswell, 2018). Thus, the impacts of non-formal education on environment attitudes can be investigated. Longitudinal studies can be desned to observe the changes in behavior and attitudes.

Conclusion

Environmental science as a field of study has become a fundamental learning for students, particularly in higher secondary schools. This study found that classes IX-XII, students studying environmental science have a high level of critical understanding of the environment as well as the components, purposes, and goals. Additionally, they have a favorable outlook on the environment. As a result, this optimistic outlook and high level of knowledge demonstrate how much the students are impacted by the teaching of ES and material resources. They also possess a positive attitude towards the natural environment. Thus, this positive attitude and high level of knowledge reveals that the human and material resources in the institution of study have a great impact on the students. Meanwhile there was little or no relationship between their knowledge and their attitude towards the environment. Thus, this study demonstrates that environmental literacy is being fostered in students to support environmental education in the nation, although more needs to be done to motivate students and advertise the field of study in the school.

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མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲྭའི་སློབ་སྦྱོར་གྱི་ལུས་ཀྱི་དག་གཤིས་ལས་བཞེན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་གྱི་བྱུང་པར་
འཚོལ་ཞིབ།

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བསྐྱུ་སྟོན། Abstract

ད་ལྟོ་ཚུན་ཚོད་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་རྫོང་ཁག་དང་ ལུང་ཕྱོགས་ཁག་ལས་པར་ གཡུས་སྐད་མ་འདྲཱ་ ཤར་ཕྱོགས་པ་
སློམ་ཚམས་ ཁེངས་ཁ་ཟེར་ ལེ་ཤར་སྐབ་སྒོལ་ཡོད་པའི་དག་གཤིས་ཚུ་ལས་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་ཁ་སྐད་རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་ སྐབ་
པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་མ་དག་པ་ ག་དེ་སྟེ་ར་འབྲུང་དོ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན་ན་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་ཐོག་ལས་ ཡིག་ཐོག་ལུ་བཀོད་
བཀོད་པ་མི་འདུག། དེ་འབད་མ་ལས་ གཡུས་སྐད་སོ་སོ་ལུ་བཞེན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་གསལ་བྱེད་དང་མགོ་འདོགས། རྫོན་
འབྲུག་ཡོད་པ་དང་མེད་པའི་མིང་ཚིག། རྗེས་འབྲུག་ལུགས་ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་དང་ དམིགས་བསལ་རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་སོ་སོ་
ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་ཚུ་འི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་མ་དག་པ་ ག་དེ་སྟེ་ར་ཡོད་པ་ ཁ་གསལ་སྟེ་ཉ་གོ་ཚུགས་ནི་དོན་ལས་ མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་
གྲྭའི་སློབ་སྦྱོར་གྱི་ལུས་ཀྱི་དག་གཤིས་ལས་བཞེན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་གྱི་བྱུང་པར་ འཚོལ་ཞིབ་
ཟེར་བའི་ དོན་ཚན་ཐོག་ལུ་ གཡུས་སྐད་ཁག་མ་འདྲཱ་བརྒྱུད་ལས་ བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་སློབ་སྦྱོར་ ཐོ་མོ་ཡོངས་
བསྐྱོམས་ ༥༠ ལུ་ རྒྱངས་བཅོན་ཐབས་ལམ་ ལྟོག་དང་ཡིག་ཆ་དབྱེ་དབྱེད་གཉིས་ ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་སྟེ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་
འབད་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ སྤྱིར་བཏང་ སློབ་སྦྱོར་གོ་ར་ལུ་བྱབ་མཉམ་སྟེ་ ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དཀའ་ཅིག་དང་ དམིགས་
བསལ་ གཡུས་སྐད་སོ་སོ་སྐབ་མི་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དཀའ་ངལ་ཅིག་སྟེ་ དཀའ་ངལ་ཁག་གཉིས་ཡོད་པ་སྟེ་ ཐོན་ཏེ་
ཡོད་མི་ཚུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་སྟན་འདི་ནང་ལུ་ ཁ་གསལ་སྟེ་བཀོད་དོ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན།

དོ་སློབ། (Introduction)

དཔལ་ལྷན་འབྲུག་པའི་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་འདི་ ས་རྒྱ་དང་མི་འབོར་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་གཞན་ལས་རྒྱུ་རུང་ ཁ་སྐད་མ་འདྲཱ་ལེ་ཤ་ཅིག་
ཡོད་པ་ལས་ ཁ་སྐད་ཀྱིས་སྦྱོར་བའི་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཅིག་ཨིན། དེ་སྟེ་ཨིན་པའི་འབྲུག་ཡང་ རུབ་ཕྱོགས་རྫོང་ཁག་ཚུ་ནང་ལུ་ སྤྱི་ལོ་པའི་
ཁ་ སྐབས་སྦྱོར་བའི་ཁ་ དྲངས་རྒྱུ་པའི་ཁ་ ཨོ་ལེ་པའི་ཁ་ དབྱས་ཕྱོགས་རྫོང་ཁག་ནང་ལུ་ བུམ་ཐང་པའི་ཁ་དང་ ཁེངས་ཁ། ཤར་
ཕྱོགས་རྫོང་ཁག་ནང་ལུ་ ཤར་ཕྱོགས་པའི་ཁ་(ཚངས་ལ་) ཀྱར་སྟོན་པའི་ཁ་ ཀྱར་སྐད་པའི་ཁ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ཁ་ རྒྱ་མང་པའི་
ཁ་ ཕུ་ལི་པའི་ཁ་ དགོངས་འདུས་པའི་ཁ་ བྱང་ཕྱོགས་རྫོང་ཁ་ནང་ལུ་ ལ་ཡ་པའི་ཁ་དང་ འབྲོག་ཁ། རྫོང་ཕྱོགས་རྫོང་ཁག་ནང་ལུ་
ལྷག་པ་འགྲམ་སྤིང་པའི་ཁ་དང་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ཁ་(ཞེ་པ་ལི) རྫོང་སྐབ་སྒོལ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན། དེ་སྟེ་ཨིན་པའི་འབྲུག་ཡང་ རྫོང་ཁའི་
བདག་ལུང་ གསར་པ་ (༢༠༠༢) དང་ བདག་ལུང་སྤྱི་ལོ་སྟོན་མེ་ (༢༠༡༣) ནང་ལུ་ ཁ་སྐད་མ་འདྲཱ་ཁག་ ༥༠ དེ་ཅིག་ 15
ཡོད་རུང་རྫོང་བསྐྱེ་བ་ཅིན་ རྫོང་ཁ་(སྤྱི་ལོ་པའི་ཁ་) ཤར་ཕྱོགས་པའི་ཁ་ བུམ་ཐང་པའི་ཁ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ཁ་པའི་ཁ་བཞི་ནང་ལུ་བསྐྱེ་

ཨིན་མ་སྐྱེ་འདུག

ལ་སྐད་གཙོ་བོ་བཞིའི་ནང་ལས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་དེ་ལོ་ལ་དེ་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་གཞུང་ལ་སྤྱོད་གནས་འབྲུ་འབད་དེ་ མིང་ཡང་རྫོང་ལ་
 ཟེར་བཏགས་ལུ་གཞི་ དེ་ཡང་ བརྟེན་གཞུང་གསར་པ་ (༢༠༠༢) ནང་ལུ་བཀོད་མི་དང་འབྲེལ་བ་ཅིན་ ཤར་མང་སྤྱོད་གསུམ་ལུ་ སྤྱོད་
 སྤྱོད་ཡོད་པའི་སྤྱི་ལོ་དེ་ལོ་ལ་དེ་ ལུ་རབས་བཟུ་བཟུན་པའི་ནང་ལུ་ དཔལ་ལྷན་འབྲུག་པ་ཞབས་བྱུང་དག་དབང་ནམ་རྒྱལ་ཕྱོགས་
 ཀྱིས་ ཚོས་སྤྱོད་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཕྱག་ལུ་གནང་པའི་སྐབས་ཀྱི་ལ་སྐད་སྤྱོད་ ཆ་འཇོག་མཛད་དེ་ རྫོང་གཞི་ལག་ལུ་སྤྱོད་པའི་ མིང་ཡང་རྫོང་
 ལ་ཟེར་བཏགས་གནང་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ ལག་ལེན་འབྲེལ་བཟུགས་ལུ་ དེ་ལས་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་གསུམ་པ་ འཇིགས་མེད་དོ་རྗེ་དབང་ཕྱག་
 མཚོག་གིས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༡༩༩༡ ལུ་ རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཡར་རྒྱས་ཀྱི་འཆར་གཞི་འགོ་བཙུགས་པ་དང་བསྟུན་ རྫོང་ལ་དེ་རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་ཀྱི་སྐད་
 ཡིག་སྤྱོད་འཛིན་མཛད་གནང་ལུ་གཞི་ (རྫོང་ལ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ ༢༠༡༣)། རྫོང་ལ་ལམ་སྟོན་གྱི་དཔེ་དེབ་ཡང་ སྤྱི་ལོ་
 ༡༩༩༡ ལུ་ པར་ཚོད་དབང་གིས་ རྫོང་ལའི་སྤྱོད་པའི་གསལ་སྤྱོད་ལུ་དང་པ་བཟུམས་ཏེ་ སྤྱོད་གྲུ་ལག་ལུ་བཟུགས་ཞིན་མ་ལས་
 ལྷན་སྟོན་གྱི་ལམ་ལུགས་བཙུགས་ སྤྱི་ལོ་ ༡༩༩༤ ལུ་ རྫོང་ལ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་གསར་བཙུགས་གནང་(རྫོང་ལ་གོང་འཕེལ་
 ལྷན་ཚོགས་ ༢༠༡༣)། སྤྱོད་ རྫོང་ལའི་བརྟེན་གཞུང་གསར་པ་བཟུམས་ཏེ་ ད་ལྟོ་རྫོང་ལ་དེ་གོང་འཕེལ་འབྱོར་བའི་བསྐྱེད་པ་ཡོད་པ་
 ཨིན།

འབྲུག་པའི་ལ་སྐད་རྫོང་ལ་འདི་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཀྱི་དོན་རྒྱལ་གལ་ཅན་ཚུའི་གསལ་ལས་ཅིག་ཨིན། དེ་འབད་མ་ལས་
 འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ཚུ་མོ་ ༢༠༠༥ ཟླ་ཚུན་ ༤ པ་ནང་ལུ་ མི་ལྷངས་ཨིན་པ་ཅིན་ རྫོང་ལ་སྤྱོད་ཤེས་པ་དང་འབྲི་ཤེས་པ་དགོ་པ་སྤྱོད་
 བཀོད་དེ་འདུག། རྫོང་ལ་སྤྱོད་དང་ ལྷག་པ་ད་གི་སྤྱོད་ཚད་ཡོད་མེད་འདི་ ཅིག་རྫོང་སྤྱོད་དག་སྤྱོད་ཅི་ལུ་རག་ལས་པའི་ལར་ དེ་
 ཡང་ གཙོ་བོ་རྒྱལ་ས་ཐེང་ཐིམ་གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྫོང་གཞིས་ནང་ལུ་ སྤྱོད་སྤྱོད་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་ལ་འདི་རྫོང་སྤྱོད་འདི་དག་ཤོས་ཨིན་མ་ལས་ དེ་
 དང་མཐུན་སྤྱོད་དགོ་ཟེར་ རྫོང་ལ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ (༢༠༠༢) དང་ (༢༠༡༣) ནང་བཀོད་དེ་འདུག། ཨིན་རུང་ དེ་ལས་
 བཟུངས་པར་ རྫོང་ལ་འདི་ འབྲུག་མི་མང་ཤོས་ཀྱིས་སྤྱོད་ཚུགས་རུང་ རྫོང་སྤྱོད་རྫོང་གཞིས་ལག་གཉིས་ནང་ལུ་ སྤྱོད་དོ་བཟུམས་སྤྱོད་
 དག་མ་ཚུགས་པའི་རྒྱ་རྒྱུན་ཅིག་ རང་སོའི་གཡུས་སྐད་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ཨིན་མ་སྤྱོད་ ཀྱན་ལེགས་རྒྱལ་མཚན་ (༢༠༠༤) དཔལ་འབྱོར་
 (༢༠༠༩) སྤྱོད་བཟུངས་དོ་རྗེ་དང་བདེ་ཚེན་དབང་ལྷན་ (༢༠༡༤) ཚུ་གིས་བཙུན་པ་ཨིན་མས། དེ་འབད་མ་ལས་བརྟེན་ ད་ལྟོ་གི་
 གནས་ཚད་ནང་ལུ་ རྫོང་ལའི་རྫོང་སྤྱོད་དག་མ་ཚུགས་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་ཡོད་པ་ དེས་གཏུན་ཨིན་མས།

ད་ལྟོ་རྫོང་ལ་ རྫོང་ལའི་རྫོང་སྤྱོད་གི་སྤྱོད་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ལག་གཉིས་འབད་ཡོད་རུང་ འབྲུག་ལུང་པའི་གཡུས་སྐད་སོ་སོ་
 ལུ་བརྟེན་ རྫོང་ལ་དབྱེད་གསལ་དང་ མགོ་འདོགས་ལས་གྲུབ་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་ཚུའི་རྫོང་སྤྱོད་ ག་དེ་སྤྱོད་མ་དག་པ་ཨིན་ན་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་
 འབད་འབད་མ་མི་འདུག དེ་ཡང་ དཔལ་འབྱོར་ (༢༠༠༩) གིས་ ལག་ལེན་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ཅིག་འབད་ཡོད་མི་ནང་ལུ་ རྫོང་སྤྱོད་མ་
 དག་པ་འདི་གཡུས་སྐད་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ཨིན་མ་སྤྱོད་ བཙུན་ཡོད་པའི་ལར་ ལྷན་དང་སྤྱོད་པའི་ ལུང་ཐང་དང་ཤར་ཕྱོགས་པའི་འཛོལ་བ་
 དཔེ་དག་པ་ལེ་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་པ་མ་གཏོགས་ གཡུས་སྐད་ཚུ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ རྫོང་སྤྱོད་ག་ཅིར་ དག་མ་ཚུགས་པ་ཨིན་ན་ མ་བཀོད་པས།
 དེ་བཟུམས་སྤྱོད་ སྤྱོད་བཟུངས་དོ་རྗེ་དང་ བདེ་ཚེན་དབང་ལྷན་ (༢༠༡༤) གིས་ ཐབས་ལམ་བརྟེན་ཞིབ་དང་བྱི་བྱིས་ལན་ལག་ལེན་ 16
 འབྲེལ་སྤྱོད་ ལུ་ཕྱོགས་རྫོང་ལག་བཞིའི་རྫོང་སྤྱོད་ཚུ་གི་ རྫོང་སྤྱོད་གནས་ཚད་བརྟེན་ཞིབ་འབད་ཡོད་མི་ནང་ལུ་ གཡུས་སྐད་ལྷན་

ལྷན་འབྲེལ་གྱི་འགན་ཁུར་ལྟར་ བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་ཅུང་ གཡུས་སྐད་ཚུ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ དབྱངས་གསལ་དང་མགོ་འདོགས་ལས་གྲུབ་པའི་མིང་
 ཚིག་ ག་ཅི་མ་དགལ་ཨིན་ན་ མ་བལྟ་བས། དེ་ལས་ཨིང་སྐད་ནང་ལུ་ཡང་ དོན་ཚན་དེ་གི་ཐོག་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་འབདམ་
 མི་འདུག། དེ་འབདམ་ལས་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་ནང་ལུ་ ཐབས་ལམ་ཡིག་ཆ་དབྱེ་དབྱུད་དང་ལྟོག་གཉིས་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་ཐོག་ལས་
 གཡུས་སྐད་ཁག་བརྒྱད་ལུ་བརྟེན་ དབྱངས་གསལ་སྲོན་ཇེས་དང་མགོ་འདོགས་ལས་གྲུབ་པའི་ མིང་ཚིག་ཚུ་འོ་ཚུ་མ་དགལ་ ག་
 དེ་སྤོ་ར་འཐོན་མ་ཨིན་ན་ གནས་སྤུད་བསྐྱེད་དང་དབྱེ་དབྱུད་འབད་དེ་ བཀོད་ཡོད་པ་ལས་ མ་འོངས་པའི་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་པ། སློབ་གྲྭ་
 ཁག་གི་ཚུང་ཁ་སླབ་དཔོན་དང་སློབ་སྤྲུལ། སློབ་གྲྭའི་འཆར་གཞི་དང་སྲིད་བྱུས་བཟོ་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ བན་ཐོགས་སྲོམ་ར་ འབྲུང་ཚུགས་པའི་
 རེ་བ་བསྐྱེད་པ་ཨིན།

ལས་དོན། (Objectives):

གཡུས་སྐད་ཀྱི་རག་གཤིས་ཁག་བརྒྱད་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ ཚུང་ཁའི་ཚུང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་བྱུང་པར་ ག་དེ་སྤོ་ར་འདུག་ག་ ཞིབ་འཇུག་
 འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་ལས་དོན་ཚུ་ཡང་

- སློབ་སྤྲུལ་ཚུ་ལུ་ གཡུས་ཀྱི་རག་གཤིས་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ སྤྱིར་བཏང་ཚུང་ཁའི་ཚུང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་དཀའ་ངལ་ག་དེ་སྤོ་ར་འདུག་ག་ ཉ་
 གོ་ཚུགས་ནི།
- གཡུས་ཀྱི་རག་གཤིས་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ དབྱངས་གསལ་ཀྱི་ཚུང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་ག་དེ་སྤོ་ར་འདུག་ག་ ཤེས་ཚུགས་ནི།
- གཡུས་ཀྱི་རག་གཤིས་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་དང་ཇེས་འཇུག་ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་ཚུ་འོ་ཚུ་མ་དགལ་མི་ཚུ་ རོས་འཛིན་
 འབད་ཚུགས་ནི།
- གཡུས་ཀྱི་རག་གཤིས་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ མགོ་འདོགས་ལས་གྲུབ་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་ཚུ་འོ་ ཚུང་སྐྱེ་མ་དགལ་ཚུ་ རོས་འཛིན་འབད་
 ཚུགས་ནི།
- སློབ་གྲྭ་ཁག་གི་ཚུང་ཁའི་སློབ་དཔོན་དང་ མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲྭའི་སློབ་སྤྲུལ་ཚུ་ལུ་ ཚུང་ཁའི་ཚུང་སྐྱེ་དགལ་པ་དང་ མ་དགལ་པའི་
 བྱུང་པར་ཕྱེ་སྤོ་ སློབ་སྲོན་འབད་ནི་ལུ་ཡང་ ལམ་སྟོན་དང་ རྒྱབ་སྐྱོར་འབད་ཚུགས་ནི་འོ་དོན་ལུ་ཨིན།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་རྒྱ་བཀོད། Research Questions:

རྒྱ་བཀོད་ལོ། ཤེས་རིག་གཞུག་ལག་གཞི་རིམ་གཞི་འཇུགས་ཚུང་ཁའི་སློབ་སྤྲུལ་ཚུ་ལུ་ གཡུས་སྐད་ཀྱི་རག་གཤིས་ཁག་བརྒྱད་
 ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ ཚུང་ཁའི་ཚུང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ མ་དགལ་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་ ག་དེ་སྤོ་ར་འདུག་གོ་

ཡན་ལག་རྒྱ་བཀོད།

- ༡) གསལ་བྱེད་ ༣༠ རེ་རེ་བཞེན་དང་འབྲེལ་བའི་ཚུང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་ག་དེ་སྤོ་ར་འདུག་གོ་
- ༢) གསལ་བྱེད་ལུ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ལྷན་པ་དགི་མིང་ཚིག་གི་ཚུང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་ག་དེ་སྤོ་ར་འདུག་གོ་

- 3) གསལ་བྱེད་ལུ་ རྗེས་འཇུག་ཞུགས་པ་དག་གི་མིང་ཚིག་གི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་ག་དེ་སྐྱེ་ར་འདུག་གོ་?
- 4) མགོ་འདོགས་ལས་གྲུབ་པའི་ མིང་ཚིག་ཚུའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་ག་དེ་སྐྱེ་ར་འདུག་གོ་?
- 5) དམིགས་བསལ་རྫོང་ཁའི་ངག་གཤིས་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་ག་དེ་སྐྱེ་ར་འདུག་གོ་?

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་ཁེ་ཕན། :

དང་པ་ སློབ་ཕྲུག་ཚུ་ལུ་ རྐྱད་ཡིག་གི་སྐྱ་གདངས་སློབ་སྟོན་འབད་ནི་ལུ་ བན་ཐོགས་འབྱུང་ཚུགས་འོང། དེ་ཡང་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གྱི་གྲུབ་འབྲས་དེ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ སློབ་གྲྭ་ཁག་གི་སློབ་དཔོན་ཚུ་གིས་ སློབ་ཕྲུག་ཚུ་ལུ་ གཡུས་རྐྱད་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་མ་དག་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་རེ་ཡོད་པ་ཅིན་ ཐོགས་རམ་དང་རྒྱབ་སྐྱོར་བྱིན་ནི་ལུ་ ལམ་སྟོན་འབད་ཚུགས་པ་ཨིན།

གཉིས་པ་ རྫོང་ཁ་གཙུག་ལག་མཐོ་རིམ་གྱི་རྐྱད་ཡིག་སློབ་ཚུན་ནང་ལུ་ ལྷག་ཤོག (Reading materials) མ་ལང་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་བསལ་ནི་ལུ་ཡང་ ཐོགས་རམ་འབད་ཚུགས། ད་ལྟོའི་གནས་སྟངས་ནང་ལུ་ རྫོང་ཁ་གཙུག་ལག་གཞི་རིམ་དང་མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་སློབ་ཚུ་ནང་ལུ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་སློབ་སྟོན་འབད་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་དེ་བྱིས་ཡོད་པའི་ལྷག་ཤོག (Reading materials) ཚུ་ མེད་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་དང་གཞོན་ལེན་བྱུང་སྟེ་ཡོད་མི་དེ་ བསལ་ནི་ལུ་ཕན་ཐོགས་འབྱུང་ཚུགས།

གསུམ་པ་ རྒྱལ་ཡོངས་རྐྱད་ཡིག་རྫོང་ཁ་འདི་ གོང་འཕེལ་ལུ་ཡང་ཕན་ཐོགས་འབྱུང་འོང། དེ་ཡང་ རྐྱད་ཡིག་ལེགས་ཤོམ་འོང་དགོ་པ་ཅིན་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་དགོ་པ་གལ་ཚེ། རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་པ་སྐྱེ་སྐབ་ཚུགས་ནིའི་དོན་ལུ་ གཡུས་སྐྱོ་ཁག་གི་རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་ཚུ་རོས་འཛིན་འབད་དེ་ བསལ་དགོ་པ་ལས་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ དཀའ་ངལ་རོས་འཛིན་འབད་དེ་བསལ་ནི་ལུ་ ལམ་སྟོན་འབད་ཚུགས་པའི་རེ་བ་ཨིན།

ཚུམ་བྲིས་བསྐྱར་ཞིབ། Literatures Review:

རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་པ་སྐྱེ་སྐབ་དགོ་པ་ཁག་ཆེམ།

རྫོང་ཁ་ལུ་ཡང་ གཡུས་སྐྱོགས་སོ་སོའི་ངག་གཤིས་དང་ ཁ་ལྷེ་མི་བདེ་བའི་རྒྱུ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་མ་ཚུགས་པ་ཡང་ ཐོན་དོ་ཡོད་པ་ལས་ དཀའ་ངལ་དེ་ཚུ་བསལ་དགོ་པ་འདི་ གལ་ཅན་ཅིག་ཨིན་མས། ཀུན་ལེགས་རྒྱལ་མཚན་ (2006) ཅན་ལུ་ བཀོད་དོ་བཟུམ་སྐྱེ་བ་ཅིན་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་ཟེར་མི་དེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་མིང་ཚིག་བརྫོང་པ་ཚུ་ ལྷག་སྐབ་འབད་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ གོ་བཟང་འཕྲོད་ཚུགས་པ་དང་ མིང་ཚིག་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་དག་ཏོག་ཏོ་སྐྱེ་ སྐབ་ཚུགས་མི་ཅིག་ལུ་ སྐབ་ཨིན་ཟེར་བཤད་དེ་འདུག། བསྐྱེལ་གསལ་ (2007) ཅན་ལུ་ བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་མི་དང་འཁྲུལ་བ་ཅིན་ སྐྱ་ བྱ་ ཕུག་པོ་ ཕུགས་མ་ ལ་སོགས་པ་ཚུ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ངག་གཤིས་དང་འཁྲུལ་སྐབ་དགོ་པ་ཁག་ཆེམ་ཨིན་མས། དེ་བཟུམ་སྐྱེ་ རྫོང་ཁ་གོང་འཕེལ་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ (2009) དང་ (2013) ཚུ་ནང་ལུ་ཡང་ ཡི་གུ་གསལ་བྱེད་རྒྱུ་ལའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ སྟོན་འཇུག་གིས་འཕུལ་བའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ རྗེས་འཇུག་ཞུགས་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ཚུ་ ལྷད་པར་བྱེ་སྟེ་སྐབ་ཤེས་དགོ་པ་འདི་ གལ་ཆེམ་སྐྱེ་འདུག། དཔལ་འབྱོར་ (2008) གིས་ཡང་ དཔེར་ན་ ར་བརྟུང་ཟེར་བའི་ཚིག་གི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་འདི་ ང་བརྟུང་ཟེར་སྐབ་པ་ཅིན་ གོ་དོན་འཛོལ་ནིའི་ཉེན་ཁ་ཡོད་པ་ལས་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་དགོ་པ་འདི་ ཁག་ཆེམ་སྐྱེ་ཨིན་མས།

ཡིང་རྐྱད་ནང་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་མི་ཚུ་དང་འཁྲུལ་རུང་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་འདི་ལུ་རྒྱལ་དགོ་པ་འདི་ གལ་ཆེམ་སྐྱེ་འདུག།

Rajadurai (2016) གིས་ཡང་ རྫོང་སྐྱེའི་རིག་ཚུལ་ལེགས་ཤོམ་མེད་པ་ཅིན་ སྐབ་ཐངས་ཀྱི་རིག་ཚུལ་ནང་ལུ་ སློན་སློམ་ཤོས་ ཅིག་ཨིན་ཟེར་ བཤད་དེ་འདུག། Zhang དང་ Yin (2002) གིས་ སློབ་སྦྱོལ་གི་སློབ་སྦྱོར་ལུ་གཞན་པའི་ཁར་ ལྷན་སྦྱང་ གི་གྲུབ་འབྲས་ལུ་ཡང་གཞན་པ་སླེ་ཨིན་མས། དེ་ཡང་ དང་པར་ གཞན་གྱིས་སྐབ་མི་འདི་ཉ་གོ་མི་ཚུགས་ གཉིས་པར་ ཉ་གོ་རུང་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་པ་ཚུགས་པའི་འདྲོགས་མཚར་ལུ་བརྟེན་ སྐབ་ཞིའི་སློབ་སྦྱོར་པ་མི་ཐོབ་ཟེར་བཀོད་དེ་འདུག། བཅུད་བསྟུ་བ་ཅིན་ རྫོང་ཁ་ སྐབ་ཞི་དང་ ལྷན་གཞི་གཉིས་ཀྱི་སྐབས་ལུ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་ཉོག་ཉོ་སླེ་སྐབ་དགོཔ་འདི་ གཙོ་ཆེས་སླེ་བཤད་པ་ཨིན་མས།

རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་མ་ཚུགས་པའི་རྒྱ་རྒྱུ་

ཉེ་མའི་ཞིབ་འཇུག་རྒྱ་དང་འབྲེལ་བ་ཅིན་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་མ་ཚུགས་པའི་རྒྱ་རྒྱུ་ཅིག་ གཡུས་སྐད་ཀྱི་སྐྱེ་གངས་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཉེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་སྐྱེ་གངས་ལུ་གཞན་པ་སླེ་ཨིན་མས། དེ་ཡང་ དཔལ་འབྱོར་ (2002); Wei and Zhou (2002); Gilbert (2012) ཚུ་གིས་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་མ་དག་པའི་ཁྲམས་དེ་ གཡུས་སྐད་ལས་རྟེན་ཨིན་མས་སླེ་བཤད་པའི་ཁར་ སྐལ་བཟང་དོ་རྗེ་དང་བདེ་ཆེན་ དབང་ཅན་ (2006) གིས་ རྫོང་ཁག་ 3 བཤེན་ རྫོང་སློབ་ཚུ་གིས་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་གཡུས་སྐད་ ལྷན་ཞུགས་ཉེ་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ 42.2 དང་ སྐབ་མ་ཤེས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ 30.64 ཡོད་པ་སླེ་བཀོད་དེ་འདུག། དེ་འབད་མ་ལས་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་པ་སླེ་ སྐབ་ཞི་ལུ་ རང་སོའི་ཁ་སྐད་དང་པ་ གཡུས་སྐད་ཀྱིས་གཞན་པ་ཡོད་པ་སླེ་ཨིན་མས།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་དང་འབྲེལ་མ་ད་ སྐད་ཡིག་ལྟ་བུ་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་པ་སླེ་སྐབ་ཞིའི་ཕྱོགས་གྲུབ་མེད་པ་ཅིན་ གཞན་པ་ལེ་ ཤ་ར་ཡོད་པ་སླེ་ཨིན་མས། Zhang དང་ Yin (2002) གིས་ རྒྱ་ནག་གི་ཨིང་སྐད་ལྷན་མིའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེའི་དཀའ་ངལ་ལུ་ ཞིབ་ འཚོལ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་མི་དང་འབྲེལ་བ་ཅིན་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་མ་ཚུགས་པའི་རྒྱ་རྒྱུ་ལེ་ཤ་འདུག། དང་པར་ སྐད་ཡིག་དང་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ དང་ གངས་ མེད་མེད་ཀྱི་ཤོམས་གཤིས་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཉེ་ སྐད་ཡིག་གཉིས་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་གཞན་པ་སླེ་ཨིན་མས། གཉིས་པར་ རྫོང་ སྐྱེ་ལྷན་ཞི་འདི་ ལོ་ན་རྒྱུ་དང་འབྲུད་པ་ད་ཀས་ཤོས་རྒྱ་ ལཱ་ཁག་ཡོད་པ་སླེ་ཨིན་མས། གསུམ་པར་ སློབ་སྦྱོལ་གི་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལྷན་ འདོད་ཀྱི་ཀུན་སློང་དང་སེམས་ཤུགས་ཡོད་མེད་ལུ་ཡང་ རག་ལས་པ་སླེ་ཨིན་མས། བཞི་པར་ སློབ་སྦྱོལ་སླེ་སྦྱོད་པའི་སྐབས་ཀྱི་སློབ་ སློན་པ་འདི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་མ་ཚུགས་མི་ཅིག་ཨིན་པ་ཅིན་ ཤུལ་ལས་ ཁོ་གི་སློབ་སྦྱོལ་ཚུ་གིས་ཡང་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་མ་ཚུགས་པ་སླེ་ཨིན་ མས། བོང་གི་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་རྒྱའི་བཅུད་དང་འབྲེལ་མ་ད་ སྐད་ཡིག་དང་པ་གཡུས་སྐད་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཉེ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་མ་དག་པ་ ཨིན་མ་ དེས་བདེན་ཨིན་པའི་ཁར་ ལོ་ན་རྒྱ་གཞོན་ སེམས་ཤུགས་ སློབ་སློན་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཉེ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་མ་ཚུགས་སླེ་ ཨིན་མས། དེ་འབད་མ་ལས་ གཡུས་སྐད་མ་འདྲམ་སྐབ་མི་རེ་རེ་བཞིན་གྱིས་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ག་ཅི་མ་དག་པ་ཨིན་ན་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ འབད་དེ་ མ་འོངས་སློབ་དཔོན་རྒྱའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ བཙོ་ཁ་རྒྱབ་དགོཔ་གལ་ཆེ་བས།

རྫོང་སྐྱེ་དག་པ་སླེ་སྐབ་ཚུགས་ཞིའི་ཐབས་ཤེས།

སློབ་སྦྱོལ་ཚུ་ལུ་ གསལ་བྱེད་རྒྱུ་དང་ སློན་འཇུག་དང་རྗེས་འཇུག་ མགོ་འདྲོགས་ཞུགས་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་རྒྱ་ རེ་རེ་བཞིན་ 19 རྒྱུད་པར་སླེ་སློབ་སློན་དང་སྦྱང་བ་ བྱིན་དགོཔ་ཨིན་མས། ཐབས་ལམ་དེ་རྒྱ་ཡང་ ཀུན་བཟང་དོ་རྗེ་ (2002) བཤེན་ལུ་བཀོད་དེ་

ཡོད་དོ་བཟུམ་ དང་པར་ ཡི་གུ་རེ་རེ་བཞིན་གྱི་སྐྱེ་གནས་དང་སྐྱེ་ཚུ་ རོས་འཛིན་དང་སྐྱེ་བ་འབད་བཟུག་དགོཔ་མ་ཚད་ གསལ་
 བྱེད་ཀྱང་པའི་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་ གསལ་བྱེད་ལུ་སྤོམ་འཇུག་དང་ཚུམ་འཇུག་ལུ་གསལ་པའི་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་ མགོ་ཚན་དང་འདོགས་ཚན་གྱི་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་ཚུ་ རེ་
 རེ་བཞིན་སྐྱེ་བ་འབད་བཟུག་དགོཔ་ཨིན། དེའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ཡང་ སྤྱིར་བཏང་སྤྱོད་གྲོག་གི་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་དང་དམིགས་བསལ་ ཚུང་ཁའི་དག་
 གཤེས་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར་ དཔེར་ན་ ལཱ་དང་བྱ་བ་གི་བྱ་དང་ གནམ་ལས་འཕུར་བའི་བྱ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་འི་
 ཁྱད་ཚུ་ཡང་ཕྱེ་སྟེ་ སྐྱེ་བ་བྱིན་དགོཔ་ཨིན་མས། དེ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ ཐབས་ལམ་ཅིག་ ཀྱན་ལེགས་རྒྱལ་མཚན་ (༢༠༠༤) ཅན་ལུ་
 བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་དོ་བཟུམ་ གསལ་བྱེད་ག་དང་དགའ་ བ་འབའ་གི་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་ལ་སོགས་པ་ཚུ་ མང་ཤོས་ཀྱིས་ དག་མ་ཚུགས་པ་ལས་
 ཚུང་ཚིག་བཟོ་སྟེ་ལྷག་བཟུག་སྟེ་ སྐྱེ་བ་བྱིན་ཚུགས་པ་ཅིན་དྲག་ཅི་མས། དཔེར་ན་ ངག་ལུ་ཡང་ མི་དགའ། བ་འབའི་རྩ་བར་
 སྤོད་ལུ་ག་ ཟེར་དོ་བཟུམ་གྱི་ཚུང་ཚིག་ཡང་ཡང་སྐྱེ་བ་བྱིན་དགོཔ་ཨིན་མས། དཔལ་འབྱོར་ (༢༠༠༩) ཅན་ལུ་ བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་དོ་
 བཟུམ་ སྤོམ་འཇུག་དང་ མགོ་འདོགས་ཀྱིས་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་འཇུར་བའི་མིང་ཚིག་ཚུའི་ཐོ་བཟོ་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ དཔེ་སྟོན་དང་སྐྱེ་བ་འབད་
 བཟུག་སྟེ་དག་རྒྱགས་ལེན་པ་ཅིན་དེ་གིས་ཡང་ བན་ཐོགས་བྱུང་ཅི་མས། དེ་དང་འབྲམ་སྟེ་ ཚུང་སྐྱེ་དག་ཏོག་ཏོ་གི་ཐོག་ལས་ མིང་
 ཚིག་གི་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་ སྐྱེ་བཟུང་འབད་དེ་ (Mp3)བཟོ་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ ཉན་བཟུག་པ་ཅིན་ དེ་གིས་ཡང་ཕན་ཐོགས་འབྱུང་ཅི་ཨིན་མས།

སློབ་ཕྲུག་ཨ་ལོ་ཚུ་དང་འབྲུད་པ་ད་ གན་ཤོས་ཚུ་ལུ་ སྐྱེ་བ་མང་སུ་འབད་བཟུག་དགོཔ་མ་ཚད་ སེམས་བྲུགས་དང་བཙོན་
 པ་ཡང་མང་སུ་བསྐྱེད་བཟུག་དགོཔ་ཨིན་མས། Zhang དང་ Yin (༢༠༠༩) གིས་ ལོ་ན་གན་ཤོས་ཚུ་ལུ་ སེམས་བྲུགས་དང་
 བཙོན་པ་མང་སུ་འབད་དགོཔ་པའི་བསྐྱབ་བྱ་དང་ སྐྱེ་བ་མང་སུ་འབད་བཟུག་པ་ཅིན་ ཚུང་སྐྱེ་དག་ཅི་ལུ་ཕན་པའི་ཁར་ སྐྱེ་ག་དང་ས་
 ཀྱི་ཁྱད་པར་ཚུ་ ལེགས་ཤོམ་སྟོན་དགོཔ་སྟེ་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་ཁར་ Wei དང་ Zhou (2002), Murphy དང་ Baker
 (2015) ཚུ་གིས་ སློབ་བཟུར་ དཔེ་སྟོན་ སྐྱེ་བ་ཚུ་མང་སུ་འབད་བཟུག་སྟེ་ ལད་སྲོལ་རྒྱབ་བཟུག་དགོཔ་སྟེ་ཨིན་མས། དེ་
 བཟུམ་སྟེ་ Huang (2018) མིང་ཚིག་རེ་རེ་བཞིན་གྱི་སྐྱེ་ག་དང་ས་ལུ་ དམིགས་གཏང་འབད་དེ་ སློབ་སྟོན་དང་སྐྱེ་བ་འབད་
 བཟུག་དགོཔ་མ་ཚད་ ཚུང་སྐྱེ་དག་ཏོག་ཏོ་ཡོད་པའི་གསལ་བཤད་ཚུ་མང་སུ་ ཉན་བཟུག་པ་ཅིན་ ཚུང་སྐྱེ་དག་ཅི་ལུ་ཕན་ཐོགས་ཡོད་
 ཟེར་བཤད་དེ་འདུག མཁས་མཚོག་ Gilbert (2008) དང་འབྲེལ་བ་ཅིན་ སློབ་ཕྲུག་ཨ་ལོ་ཚུ་ལུ་ སྐྱེ་ཚིག་དང་ཞབས་ཁ་
 གི་ཐོག་ལས་སྟོན་ནི། པར་ལུ་ཚོས་གཞི་བཏང་སྟེ་ཚིག་ལུ་དམིགས་གཏང་འབད་སྟོན་ནི། སྐྱེ་ག་དང་ས་ལུ་ཞབས་ཁ་དཔེ་དང་ནམ་འཇུར་
 ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལས་སྟོན་ནི། བསྐྱར་བཅུང་འབད་དེ་ཉན་བཟུག་ཅིའི་ཐབས་ལམ་ཚུ་ ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་བཏུབ་ཟེར་བཀོད་དེ་འདུག གོང་ལུ་
 བཀོད་མི་ ཨིང་སྐད་ཀྱི་ཐོག་ལུ་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་ཐབས་ལམ་ཚུ་ ཚུང་ཁའི་ཚུ་སྐྱེ་སྟོབ་སྟོན་ནང་ལུ་ཡང་ ལག་ལེན་
 འཐབ་བཏུབ་ལས་ དེ་ཚུ་ལག་ལེན་འཐབ་དགོཔ་འདི་ གལ་ཆེ་ཏོག་ཏོ་ཨིན་མས། དེ་ལས་ ང་རང་གི་ཉམས་སྦྱོང་དང་འབྲེལ་བ་ཅིན་
 ཚུང་སྐྱེ་སྟོབ་སྟོན་འབད་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ སློབ་ཕྲུག་ཚུ་ལུ་ ལ་དང་སྟེ་ཚུ་ ག་དེ་སྟེ་སྐྱེ་དགོཔ་ཨིན་ན་ བཟུ་ཏོག་འབད་དེ་ སྐྱེ་བ་
 འབད་བཟུག་པ་ཅིན་ ཕན་ཐོགས་ཡོད་པ་སྟེ་མཐོང་ཅི།

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ཐབས་ལམ། Methods:

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ལྟ་ལུགས་ལས་ མི་སྡེའི་ཉམས་སྦྱོང་ལས་གྲུབ་པའི་ལྟ་བ་ Social constructivist (Creswel, 2009, p. 8) གི་

ཐོག་ལུ་ ལུངས་བཅའ་ཐབས་ལས་Qualitative (Creswel, 2009, p. 13) གྱི་ཐོག་ལས་འབད་ཡི། དེ་སྤྱོད་འབད་དགོ་མི་དེ་
 ཡང་ འབྲུག་རྒྱལ་ཁབ་ནང་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་ གཡུས་སྐད་ཚུ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱོ་ག་ཅི་དང་ག་ཅི་ མ་དག་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་ཚུ་
 ག་དེ་སྤྱོད་འབྲུག་ག་ གཏིང་དཔུང་འབད་ནི་ཨིན་མ་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ཨིན། མཁོ་ཆས་ཡང་ ལུངས་བཅའ་གི་མཁོ་ཆས་ལྟ་རྟོག་དང་
 མཐོང་ཐོས་ཅ་ཆས་ལས་ སྐྱ་བཟུང་གཉིས་ལག་ལེན་འབབ་ཅི་(Creswel, 2009, p. 15)། དེ་ཡང་ གོ་རིམ་དང་པར་ བཅའ་
 མར་གཏོགས་མི་ཚུ་མིང་ཚིག་ཚུ་ ལྷག་བཟུག་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ཉམ་ཏེ་ཐོ་བཀོད་ཅི། གོ་རིམ་གཉིས་པ་ནང་ལུ་ སྐྱ་བཟུང་འབད་བཞག་
 ཞིན་མ་ལས་ རྩལ་ལས་སྐྱ་བཟུང་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་མི་ཚུ་ ཡོག་ཅི་ཡོག་ཅི་ཉམ་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ རྫོང་སྐྱོ་དག་མ་ཚུ་གསལ་མི་ཚུ་ ཐོ་བཀོད་རྒྱབ་
 ཐོག་ལས་ གནས་སྤྱད་བསྐྱེལ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན།

དཔེ་ཚད། Sampling:

དཔེ་ཚད་ (Sample) འདི་ ལྟ་རྟོག་དང་ཡིག་ཆ་དབྱེ་དཔུང་གི་དོན་ལུ་ དམིགས་གཏང་དཔེ་ཚད་Purposeful
 sampling (Ary et al., 2019, p. 177) སྤྱོད་ གནས་འབྲུ་འབད་ཡི། དཔེ་ཚད་གི་དོན་ལུ་ མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲྭ་འབྲུག་
 ལོ་ངོ་དང་པར་དང་གཉིས་པ་ཚུ་ལས་ སྤྱོད་ཚན་ལག་བརྒྱུད་སྤྱོད་བཀོ་སྤྱོད་ གནས་འབྲུ་འབད་ཡི། དེ་ཚུ་ཡང་ སྤྱོད་ཚན་དང་པར་ ཤར་ཚུ་གསལ་
 པའི་ལ་སྐབ་མི། སྤྱོད་ཚན་གཉིས་པ་ ལྷོ་མཚམས་པའི་ལ་སྐབ་མི། སྤྱོད་ཚན་གསལ་པར་ ལངས་ལ་སྐབ་མི། སྤྱོད་ཚན་བཞི་པ་ མང་སྤྱོད་
 པའི་ལ་སྐབ་མི། སྤྱོད་ཚན་ལྔ་པ་ བུམ་ཐང་པའི་ལ་སྐབ་མི། སྤྱོད་ཚན་དུ་ག་པ་ མེ་རག་སག་སྤྱོད་པའི་ལ་སྐབ་མི། སྤྱོད་ཚན་བདུན་པ་
 ཀུར་སྐད་པའི་ལ་ རྩོད་རྒྱུང་རྒྱུང་སྐབ་མི། སྤྱོད་ཚན་བརྒྱུད་པ་ སྤྱོད་ཚན་པའི་ལ་སྐབ་མི་ཚུ་ཨིན། སྤྱོད་ཚན་ལེ་ནང་ལུ་ མིང་ ཐོ་ལྡོ་དང་
 མོ་ལྡོ་ ༡༠ རེ་ འབྲུ་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ ལྷག་བཟུག་ཡི། ཡོངས་བསྐྱོམས་དཔེ་ཚད་མི་གྲངས་ ༥༠ ལས་ གནས་སྤྱད་ཚུ་ སྐྱ་བཟུང་གི་
 ཐོག་ལས་ བསྐྱེལ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན། དཔེ་ཚད་གི་དོན་ལུ་ གཡུས་སྐད་མ་འབྲུ་སྐབ་མི་སྤྱོད་ཚན་ ༥ སྤྱོད་ བཅོ་དགོ་མི་དེ་
 ཡང་ ལ་སྐད་གཞན་ཚུ་འབྲུ་གཏངས་ཚུ་ ཉམ་ལམ་དེ་ཚུ་དང་ཆ་འབྲུ་བའི་ལར་ གནས་སྤྱད་དབྱེ་ཞིབ་འབད་ནི་ལུ་ཡང་ ལྷབས་བཅའ་
 ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ཨིན། ལྷོ་མཚམས་པ་ལུ་ཡང་ རང་གསལ་གི་དབྱེ་བ་ལེ་ཤ་ཡོད་དེ་འབད་རུང་ དག་གཞིས་གི་རྫོང་སྐྱོ་ཚུ་ གཙོ་བོ་
 དབྱུངས་གསལ་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་གྲུབ་དོ་ཡོད་པ་དང་ དབྱུངས་གསལ་ཚུ་ལྷོ་མཚམས་པ་གེ་ར་ ཉམ་ལམ་འབྲུ་ཡོད་པ་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་
 ཨིན། དེ་ལས་བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་ ཐོ་ལྡོ་དང་མོ་ལྡོ་སྤྱོད་ གནས་འབྲུ་འབད་དགོ་མི་དེ་ཡང་ ཐོ་དང་མོ་ལྡོ་ལྷོ་གསལ་རིས་དང་ དཔེ་
 ཚད་གི་སྐྱེལ་ལག་ཚང་ཚུ་གསལ་ནི་དོན་ཨིན། ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གི་དམིགས་ལུ་འདི་ རང་སོའི་གཡུས་སྐད་མ་འབྲུ་སྐབ་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ རྫོང་
 སྐྱོ་དཀའ་ངལ་ ག་དེ་སྤྱོད་འབྲུག་ག་ བརྟེན་ཏེ་ཨིན་མ་ལས་ རྫོང་ཁག་དང་ས་གོ་ལུ་གཞི་མ་བཞག་པར་ ལ་སྐད་སྐྱོ་གཏངས་ཆ་
 འབྲུ་ཚུ་ སྤྱོད་ཚན་སྤྱོད་ བསྐྱོམས་བསྐྱོམས་པ་ཨིན།

ཀུན་སྤྱོད་ནཱ་མ་གཞག། Ethical Considerations:

ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འདི་ འབད་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ཡང་ འགོ་ལས་མཚུག་ཚུན་ སྤྱིར་བཏང་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་གི་ཀུན་སྤྱོད་ནཱ་མ་གཞག་དང་འབྲེལ་ཏེ་ 21
 འབད་ཡི། དེ་ཡང་ དང་པར་ མཐོ་རིམ་སློབ་གྲྭ་འབྲུ་ཞིབ་འཚོལ་ཚོགས་རྒྱུང་ལས་ ཉམ་ལམ་མེད་ཀྱི་གནང་བ་ལེན་ཡི། གཉིས་པ་

འབྲེལ་ཡོད་ལྟན་ལག་གི་འགོ་དཔོན་ཚུ་ལས་ ཞིབ་འཇོལ་འབད་ཚོག་པའི་གནང་བ་ལུ་ཡི། གསུམ་པ་ འབྲེལ་ཡོད་ལས་སྡེའི་འགོ་
དཔོན་ཚུ་ལས་ཡང་ གནང་བ་ལེན་ཡི། མཇུག་ར་ བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་ཚུ་ལས་ གནད་སྲུང་བསྐྱེལ་འཛུགས་ལུ་གནང་བ་ལེན་ཏེ་
ཡོད་པ་དང་ བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ དཔེ་ཚད་ནང་ལས་ ཕྱིར་འཐོན་སློབ་འདོད་བཤད་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ཡང་ ཀུན་སྲོད་རྣམ་གཞག་གི་
ལམ་ལུགས་ལྟར་ ཕྱིར་འཐོན་འབད་བཅུག་ཡི། བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་འི་མིང་དང་ གནད་སྲུང་ཚུ་གསང་བའི་ཐོག་ལུ་བཞག་སྟེ་
ཡོད། བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་ལས་ཐོབ་པའི་གནད་སྲུང་ཚུ་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཇོལ་པ་རང་གིས་ བཟོ་བཅོས་མ་འབད་བར་ དང་བདེན་སྟེ་
བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན།

གནས་སྲུང་བསྐྱེལ་དང་དབྱེ་དབྱུང་འབད་ཐངས། Data Collection & Analysis Procedures:

དང་པར་ ལྷག་ཤོག་བཟོ་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ མི་ངོ་ལཱ་ལས་ གནས་སྲུང་ལེན་དང་དབྱེ་དབྱུང་གི་མོ་བཏབ་འབད་ཡོད་པ་མ་ཚད་
མོ་བཏབ་འབད་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ བྱུང་ཡོད་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་ཚུ་ལུ་གཞི་བཞག་སྟེ་ ལྷག་ཤོག་ཚུ་ལོག་སྟེ་ ལུག་དག་འབད་ཡི། དཔེ་
ཚད་གདམ་འབྲུ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ ལྷག་ཤོག་བཟུགས་སྟེ་ལྷག་བཅུག་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ རྫོང་སྐྱེལ་དག་མི་ཚུ་ཐོ་བཀོད་འབད་ཡི། དེ་
དང་གཅིག་ཁར་ འུལ་ལས་ལོག་ཉན་ཏེ་དབྱེ་ཞིབ་ཐིལ་ཕྱིན་འབད་ནིའི་དོན་ལས་ སྐྱབ་བཟུང་ཡང་འབད་ཡི།

དབྱེ་དབྱུང་གོ་རིམ་དང་པ་ནང་ལུ་ ལྷག་ཤོག་ལྷག་བཅུག་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ ཟིན་ཐོ་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་མི་ཚུ་ རེ་རེ་བཞིན་ལོག་ཅི་
ར་ལྷག་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ བརྗོད་དོན་ཕྱོགས་སྟེབ་Thematic coding (Ary et al., 2019, p. 461) གི་ཐོག་ལས་ དབྱེ་
ཞིབ་འབད་ཡི། གོ་རིམ་གཉིས་པར་ སྟེ་ཚན་སོ་སོ་སྟེ་ སྐྱབ་བཟུང་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་མི་ཚུ་ རེ་རེ་བཞིན་ཉན་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ བརྗོད་དོན་
ཕྱོགས་སྟེབ་(Thematic coding) གི་ཐོག་ལས་དབྱེ་ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་ གྲུབ་འབྲས་ཚུ་ བརྒྱུ་ཚུ་ལུ་ཕབ་སྟེ་ འབྲེལ་བཤད་ཁ་
གསལ་ ཐིག་ཁྲམ་དང་བཅས་ཏེ་ གསལ་བཏོན་འབད་ཡི།

གྲུབ་འབྲས་གསལ་བཤད། Result

བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་ ཕོ་ ༤༠ དང་ མོ་ ༤༠ ཡོངས་བསྟོམས་ ༨༠ ལས་ གནད་སྲུང་སྐྱབ་བཟུང་གི་ཐོག་ལས་
བསྐྱེལ་འབད་ཞིན་མ་ལས་ དབྱེ་དབྱུང་འབད་ཡོད་པའི་གྲུབ་འབྲས་ཚུ་འོག་ལས་མར་ ཁ་གསལ་སྟེ་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད། གྲུབ་འབྲས་ཚུ་
ཡང་ སྟེ་ཚན་བརྒྱུད་རེ་རེ་བཞིན་ སོ་སོ་སྟེ་ བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་པ་ཨིན།

༡) གཡུམ་སྐད་ཤར་ཕྱོགས་སྐྱབ་མི་ལུ་ ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེལ་དཀའ་ངལ།

ཤར་ཕྱོགས་རྫོང་ཁག་ བཟུ་གིས་སྐད་ མོང་སྐད་ པདྨ་དགའ་ཚལ་ བསམ་གྲུབ་སྡེའི་ཁར་ བཞིན་པལས་ བཅའ་
མར་གཏོགས་མི་སློབ་ཕྱོག་ ཕོ་ ༥ མོ་ ༥ བསྟོམས་ ༡༠ ལས་ གནས་སྲུང་ཚུ་ སྐྱབ་བཟུང་གི་ཐོག་ལས་ བསྐྱེལ་འབད་ དབྱེ་
ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་གྲུབ་འབྲས་ཚུ་ འོག་ལས་མར་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད།

གསལ་བྱེད་ ༣༠ ལས་ ཡི་གུ་ (གཞི་རྒྱ་དབང་ལོ་ལྷན་པུ་) བདུན་ལུ་སྟོན་འཇུག་མེད་པ་དགི་རྫོང་སྐྱེལ་ཚུ་ སྟོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་ 22
བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐྱབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུ་ལས་ 100% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉན་མ་ཡ) ལུ་སྟོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པའི་སྐབས་

མེད་པ་བརྒྱུ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༩༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལྷ་ལུ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་མེད་པའི་སྐབས་ ཡོད་པ་བརྒྱུ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% | ཡི་གུ་ ཉ་ལུ་ ན་ཟེར་ རྫོང་སྐབ་མ་དག་པར་ སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ལས་ ༩༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ བྱ་བུ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐབ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བརྒྱུ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༡༠༠% | ར་བཏགས་བརྒྱ་བཞི་ལས་ བྱ་བུ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐབ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བརྒྱུ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༡༠༠% | ར་བཏགས་བརྒྱ་བཞི་ལས་ (མ་) ལུ་ (མ་ར་) ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༩༠% | འདོགས་ཅན་ (ལྷ་སྐབ་ ལྷ་སྐབ་) ལུ་ ལ་ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༩༠% | མགོ་ཅན་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ་སྲ་སྲ་སྲ་སྲ་) ལུ་ མགོ་ཅན་ མེད་པ་བརྒྱུ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༩༠% |

རྫོང་ཁའི་དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐབ་ལས་ རྫོང་འཇུག་ (ག་ར་ར་ལ་) བཞི་འོ་རྫོང་སྐབ་ལུ་གས་བཏོན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་དག་ གཞིས་དང་མ་མཐུན་མ་སྟེ་ སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༩༠% | མིང་ཚིག་ (སྐབ་ བྱགས་མ་ བུ་ བྱག་)ཚུ་ མ་དག་པར་ (ཅ་ ཚའམ་ ར་ རའ) ཟེར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༩༠% | དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐབ་སྐབ་མ་དགོ་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་ (སྐབ་ལྷ་ བྱག་འཚལ་ བུ་སྐྱོད། བུ་བ། སྐབ་ལྷ་ སྐབ་མི) ཚུ་ལུ་ དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐབ་བཏོན་ཏེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༩༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ བྱ་བུ་གཉིས་ལུ་ རྫོང་འཇུག་ ད་ན་ལ་ས་བཞི་ ལུ་གས་ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་གི་རྫོང་སྐབ་ དཔེར་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ རྫོང་ཟེར་མེན་པ་ རྫོང་ཟེར་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༩༠% ཡོད་པའི་མངོན་གསལ་བྱུང་ཡི། ལ་ གསལ་ ཐིག་ལྷ་མ་ལང་ , ནང་ལུ་གཟིགས་ཚུ་གསལ།

ཐིག་ལྷ་མ་ལང་ , ལ། གཡུས་སྐད་ཤར་ཕྱོགས་པའི་ལ་སྐབ་མི་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐབ་འདྲ་ལའ་

འཛོལ་གཞི་ཡི་གུ་དང་མིང་ཚིག་	རྫོང་སྐབ་འཛོལ་བ།	འཛོལ་བའི་བརྒྱ་ཆ།
ག་ར་ད་བ་ཚ་ཞ་ཟ།	དགལ། མཇལ། མདལ། འབལ། མཇལ། གཞལ། བཟལ།	༡༠༠%
མཉམ། གནས། གནང། དམར། དབང། གཡོན།	ཉམ། ཉས། ཉང། མར། མང། ཡོན།	༩༠%
ཉིམ། ཉངས། ཡངས། དལ།	གཉིམ། གནང། གཡང། མངས།	༡༠%
ཉོ་ཚོང།	ནོ་ཚོང།	༩༠%
བྱ་བུ།	འབྱ་བུ། འབྱ་སྐབ།	༡༠༠%
བྱ་བུ་བ།	འབྱ། འབ། འབ།	༡༠༠%
མ།	མ་ར།	༩༠%
ལ། ལང། ལམ། ལབ།	ལ། ལང། ལམ། ལབ།	༩༠%
ཅ། ཅ། ཅ།	ཅ། ཅ།	༩༠%
ཉལ། ཉལ། ཉལ། ཉལ། ཉལ། ཉལ། ཉལ།	ཉལ། ཉལ། ཉལ། ཉལ། ཉལ། ཉལ། (རྫོང་འཇུག་གི་སྐབ་ལུ་གས་ཡོད་པ་སྟེ་)	༩༠%
ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ།	ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ།	༩༠%
བུ་བུ་བུ་ རྫོང་ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ།	བུ་ ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ།	༩༠%
བརྒྱ།	རྫོང།	༩༠%

གཏོགས་མི་སྒོའི་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ མོ་ ༥ མོ་ ༥ བསྐྱོད་མཁུ་ ༡༠ ལས་ གནས་སྤྱད་ཚུ་ སྐྱབ་བཟུང་གི་ཐོག་ལས་ བསྐྱེད་ལོན་དང་ དབྱེ་ཞིབ་ འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་སྐབས་ལྷན་ཚོགས་ཚུ་ འོག་ལས་མར་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད།

གསལ་བྱེད་ ༣༠ ལས་ ཡི་གུ་ (ག་ཇ་ད་བ་ཇ་ཞ་ཟ) བདུན་ལུ་སྤོན་འཇུག་མེད་པ་དགི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ཚུ་ སྤོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་ བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༡༠༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ང་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལཱ་ལུ་ སྤོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པའི་སྐབས་ མེད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༡༠༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ང་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལཱ་ལུ་ སྤོན་འཇུག་མེད་པའི་ སྐབས་ ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༤༠% | ཡི་གུ་ ཉ་ལུ་ ན་ཟེར་ རྫོང་སྐྱེ་མ་དག་པར་ སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༩༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ བྱ་བྱ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ སྤོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ ༡༠༠% | ར་བཏགས་བཅུ་བཞི་ལས་ བྱ་བྱ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ སྤོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ ༡༠༠% | འདོགས་ཅན་ (སྐ་སྐ་སྐ་སྐ་སྐ) ལུ་ ལ་ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༧༠% | མགོ་ཅན་ (རྩ་ ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ་སྐ་སྐ་སྐ་སྐ) ལུ་ མགོ་ཅན་མེད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༧༠% | མགོ་ཅན་ ལཱ་ལུ་ ཉ་ ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༣༠% | ཡི་གུ་ ཅ་ཚ་ཇ་ཞ་ཞ་ལུ་ ཅ་ཚ་ཇ་ཟེར་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ ལས་ ༥༠%།

རྫོང་ཁའི་དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལས་ རྩེ་མེད་འཇུག་ (ག་ང་ར་ལ་) བཞི་འི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ལུ་གསལ་བཏོན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་དག་ གཞིས་དང་མ་མཐུན་མ་སྟེ་ སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༡༠༠% | མིང་ཚོགས་ (སྐྱ་ ལུ་གསལ་ ལུ་ ལུག་)ཚུ་ མ་དག་པར་ (ཅ་ ཚ་ལས་ཚ་ལས་ རྩ་ རྩ) ཟེར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༡༠༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ བྱ་བྱ་གཉིས་ལུ་ རྩེ་མེད་འཇུག་ ད་ ན་ལ་ས་ བཞི་ལུ་གསལ་ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚོགས་གི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ དཔེར་ན་ བརྒྱད་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་ རྫོང་ཟེར་མེན་པ་ རྫོང་ཟེར་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབས་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚེ་ལས་ ༧༠% ཡོད་པའི་མངོན་གསལ་བྱུང་ཡི། ལ་གསལ་ ཐིག་ལྷན་ལང་ ༩ ནང་ལུ་གཟིགས་ཚུ་གསལ།

ཐིག་ལྷན་ལང་ ༩ པ། གཡུས་སྐད་ལྟོ་མཚམས་པའི་ལ་སྐབས་མི་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེ་འཇུག་ལང་ལ།

འཇོལ་གཞི་ཡི་གུ་དང་མིང་ཚོགས་	རྫོང་སྐྱེ་འཇོལ་བ།	འཇོལ་བའི་བརྒྱ་ཚེ།
ག་ཇ་ད་བ་ཇ་ཞ་ཟ།	དགའ། མཇའ། མདའ། འབའ། མཇའ། གཞའ། བཟའ།	༡༠༠%
དུལ། གཉིས། དབང། གནང། དམར། སྐན། གཡོན་	དུལ། ཉིས། བང། ནང། མར། མོན།	༡༠༠%
ངན། ཉེན། ནངས། མོན། ལམ། ལུབ། བང། ནམ།	ལུན། གཉེན། གནངས། མོན། ལམ། བསྐབ། དབང། གནམ།	༤༠%
ཉོ་ཚོང་རྒྱུ།	ཉོ་ཚོང་རྒྱུ།	༩༠%
བྱ་བྱ།	འབྱ་བྱ། འབྱ་བྱ།	༡༠༠%
བྱ་བྱ།	འབྱ། འབྱ། འབྱ།	༡༠༠%
སྐ། སྐ། སྐ། སྐ།	ལ། ལ། ལ། ལ།	༧༠%
ར། ལ། མ།	ར། ལ།	༧༠%
ཉལ། ཉལ་ལག	ཉལ། ཉལ་ལག	༩༠%
ཅ་ལ། འཚོལ། རྩ། ར། ཞག ཞིམ། ལུ། བཤལ། གཤམ།	ཅ་ལ། འཚོལ། རྩ། ར། ཞག ཞིམ། ལུ། བཤལ། གཤམ།	༥༠%
ཅིབ། འཚོལ། རྫོང། ཟིམ། ཟིམ། གཟིགས་ ཟིབ།	ཅིབ། འཚོལ། རྫོང། ཞིམ། གཟིགས། གཟིགས། ཟིབ།	༡༠%
བཀག ཞག དཀར། དར། བསལ། བཤལ། དབང། ཚང།	ཀག དར། བསལ། ཚང། (རྩེ་མེད་འཇུག་གི་སྐྱེ་ལུ་གསལ་ཡོད་པ་སྟེ་)	༡༠༠%
སྐ། ལུ། ལུ། ལུ། ལུ། ལུ། ལུ། ལུ། ལུ།	ཅལ། ར། ར། ཚལ། ཚལ།	༡༠༠%

༣) གཡུས་སྐད་ཁེངས་ཁ་སྐབ་མི་ལུ་ ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱའི་དཀའ་ངལ།

གཞུང་སྐད་རྫོང་ཁག་གི་གཡུས་ ཁོམ་ཤར་ ཁྲི་ས་ སྐོང་ཕུ་ སྐུ་ལི་ གཞོབ་ལིང། རྫོང་གསར་རྫོང་ཁག་གི་གཡུས་ སྐེ་
སྐྱིང་ བཅས་ ཁེངས་ཁ་སྐབ་མི་གཡུས་སྐོ་ ༤ རྣམ་ལས་ བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་སྲོབ་ཕུག་ སོ་ ༥ མོ་ ༥ བསྐྱེམས་ ༡༠
ལས་ གནས་སྤྱད་ཚུ་ སྐྱ་བཟུང་གི་ཐོག་ལས་ བསྐྱེམ་ནང་ དབྱེ་ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་གྲུབ་འབྲས་ཚུ་ འོག་ལས་མར་བཀོད་དེ་
ཡོད།

གསལ་བྱེད་ ༣༠ ལས་ ཡི་གུ་ (ག་ར་ད་བ་ཇ་ཉ་བ) བདུན་ལུ་སྲོན་འཇུག་མེད་པ་དགི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ཚུ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་
བཟུམ་སྐེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལུ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པའི་སྐབས་
མེད་པ་བཟུམ་སྐེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༧༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལུ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་མེད་པའི་སྐབས་
ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྐེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༩༠% | ཡི་གུ་ ༩་ལུ་ བ་ཟེར་ རྫོང་སྐྱ་མ་དག་པར་ སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་
ལས་ ༤༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ གྲུ་གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྐེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་
༡༠༠% | ར་བཏགས་བཅུ་བཞི་ལས་ ག་ཏ་བ་ གསུམ་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྐེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་
༡༠༠% | ར་བཏགས་བཅུ་བཞི་ལས་ (མ་) ལུ་ (མ་ར་) ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༥༠% | ར་མགོ་ ༡༢ ལས་
གྲུབ་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་ (རྫོང་) ལུ་ (བྱོང་) ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༤༠% | མིང་གཞི་ཞ་ལས་གྲུབ་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་
(གཞན་ ཞག) ཟེར་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ བའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་བཏོན་ཏེ་ (ཤན་ ཤག) ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༤༠% | འདོགས་ཅན་
(ལྷ་སྐྱ་ལྷ་སྐྱ)༥ ལུ་ ཡ་ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༤༠% | མགོ་ཅན་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ་ལྷ་སྐྱ་སྐྱ)༧ ལུ་ མགོ་
ཅན་མེད་པ་བཟུམ་སྐེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༧༠% | མིང་གཞི་ཅ་དང་ཆ་ལས་གྲུབ་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་ (ཕྱིབ་ བཙོང་
ཚུ་) ཟེར་མི་ཚུ་ལུ་ བའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་བཏོན་ཏེ་ (སིབ་ སོང་ སུ) ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༥༠% | དེ་བཟུམ་སྐེ་ཡི་གུ་ས་
ལུ་ (ཙ) ཟེར་ ཅའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་བཏོན་ཏེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༤༠% |

རྫོང་ཁའི་དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ལས་ རྗེས་འཇུག་ (ག་ང་ར་ལ) བཞིའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ལུ་གསར་བཏོན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་ངག་
གཤེས་དང་མ་མཐུན་མ་སྐེ་ སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༧༠% | མིང་ཚིག་ (སྐྱ་ ཕུགས་མ་ བྱ་ བྱག་)ཚུ་ མ་དག་པར་ (ཅ
ཆའམ་ རྗེ་ རྗེ) ཟེར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ གྲུ་གཉིས་ལུ་ རྗེས་འཇུག་ དན་ལ་ས་
བཞི་ཞུགས་ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་གི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ དཔེར་ན་ བརྒྱད་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ རྒྱུད་ཟེར་མེན་པ་ རྒྱུད་ཟེར་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་
ལས་ ༤༠% ཡོད་པའི་མཛོན་གསལ་བྱུང་ཡི། ཁ་གསལ་ ཐིག་ལམ་ཨང་ ༣ རྣམ་ལུ་གཟིགས་ཚུགས།

ཐིག་ལམ་ཨང་ ༣ པ། གཡུས་སྐད་ཁེངས་ཁ་སྐབ་མི་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱའི་དཀའ་ངལ།

འཛོལ་གཞིའི་ཡི་གུ་དང་མིང་ཚིག་	རྫོང་སྐྱ་འཛོལ་བ།	འཛོལ་བའི་བརྒྱ་ཆ།
ག་ར་ད་བ་ཇ་ཉ་བ།	དགའ། མཇའ། མདའ། འབའ། མཛའ། གཞའ། བཟའ།	༡༠༠%
མཉམ། གནས། གནང། དམར། དབང། གཡོན།	ཉམ། ནས། ནང། མར། མང། ཡོན།	༧༠%
ཉིམ། ནངས། ཡངས། དམ།	གཉིམ། གནང། གཡང། མངས།	༩༠%

ཉ། ཉོ། ཉམ། ཉེན། ཉམས།	ན། ནོ། ནམ། ནེན། ནམས།	༤༠%
ལྷ་བྱ།	ལྷ་བྱ། ལྷ་བྱ།	༡༠༠%
ལྷ་བྱ།	ལྷ་བྱ། ལྷ་བྱ།	༡༠༠%
ལྷ།	ལྷ་བྱ།	༡༠%
ལྷོ།	ལྷོ།	༤༠%
གཞན། ཞག	གན། གག	༤༠%
ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ།	ལ། ལམ། ལབ།	༤༠%
ལ། ལ། ལ།	ལ། ལ།	༡༠%
ལ་ཙ། ལ་བར། ལ་ཚོང། ལྷ། ལྷ་ཚོགས། ལྷ་ཚོང།	ལ་ས། ལ་བར། ལ་ཚོང། ལྷ། ལྷ་ཚོགས། ལྷ་ཚོང།	༡༠%
ས།	ས།	༤༠%
སྐྱུག ཞག དཀར། དམ། དམལ། དབང།	སྐྱུག ཞག ཀར། དམ། དམལ། དབང། (རྗེས་འཇུག་གི་སྐྱུ་ལྷགས་ཡོད་པ་སྟེ།)	༡༠%
སྐྱ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ།	སྐྱ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ། ལྷ།	༡༠༠%
བརྒྱ།	རྒྱ།	༤༠%

༤) གཡུས་སྐྱད་ མང་སྡེ་པའི་ལ་སྐྱབ་མི་ལུ་ ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱའི་དཀའ་ངལ།

དབང་འདུས་དང་ ཀྲོང་སར་རྫོང་ལག་ ༡ རྒྱུ་ལས་ བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་སྲོབ་སྐྱུག་ མོ་ ༥ མོ་ ༥ བསྐྱོམས་ ༡༠ ལས་ གནས་སྐྱུད་ཚུ་ སྐྱ་བཟུང་གི་ཐོག་ལས་ བསྐྱུ་ལེན་དང་ དབྱེ་ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་སྐྱབ་འབྲས་ཚུ་ འོག་ལས་མར་བཀོད་དེ་ ཡོད།

གསལ་བྱེད་ ༣༠ ལས་ ཡི་གུ་ (ག་ར་ད་བ་ཇ་ཉ་ཐ) བདུན་ལུ་སྐྱོན་འཇུག་མེད་པ་དགིས་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ཚུ་ སྐྱོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་ བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐྱབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལུ་སྐྱོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པའི་སྐྱབས་ མེད་པ་ བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐྱབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༣༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལུ་སྐྱོན་འཇུག་མེད་པའི་སྐྱབས་ ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐྱབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༣༠% | ཡ་བརྟགས་བདུན་ལས་ ལྷ་བྱ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ སྐྱོན་འཇུག་ ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐྱབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༡༠% | ར་བརྟགས་བཅུ་བཞི་ལས་ ལྷ་བྱ་བྱ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ སྐྱོན་འཇུག་ ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐྱབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༡༠% | ར་བརྟགས་བཅུ་བཞི་ལས་ (སྐྱ) ལུ་ (མ་ར) ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐྱབ་ མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༣༠% |

རྫོང་ལའི་དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ལས་ རྗེས་འཇུག་ (ག་ར་ར་ལ) བཞི་འི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ལྷགས་བཏོན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ལའི་ངག་ གཉིས་དང་མ་མཐུན་སྟེ་ སྐྱབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% | མིང་ཚིག་ (སྐྱ) ལྷགས་མ་ ལྷ་ ལྷ།)ཚུ་ མ་དག་པར་ (ཅ ཆའམ་ ཇ་ ཇའ) ཟེར་སྐྱབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% | ཡ་བརྟགས་བདུན་ལས་ ལྷ་བྱ་གཉིས་ལུ་ རྗེས་འཇུག་ དན་ལ་ས་ བཞི་ལྷགས་ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་གི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ དཔེར་ན་ བརྒྱད་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ ལྷ་བྱ་ཟེར་མེན་པ་ ལྷ་བྱ་ཟེར་ མ་དག་པར་སྐྱབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ལས་ ༡༠% ཡོད་པའི་མངོན་གསལ་བྱུང་ཡི། ལ་གསལ་ ཐིག་ལྷམ་ཨང་ ༤ རྒྱུ་གཟིགས་ཚུགས།

ཐིག་ལྷམ་ཨང་ ༤ ལ། གཡུས་སྐྱད་མང་སྡེ་པའི་ལ་སྐྱབ་མི་ལུ་ ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱའི་དཀའ་ངལ།

ཕྱ	མ་དུ	༤༠%
སྟག ཞག དཀར། པར། བཤལ། དབང།	ཉག ཞག། ཀར། པར། ཤལ། དབང། (རྗེས་འཇུག་གི་སྐྱོ་ལུགས་ཡོད་པ་སྟེ)	༤༠%
སྟུ། ལ། ལྷག ལྷགས་མ།	ཅ། ཇ། ཇལ། ཆའམ།	༡༠%
བརྒྱུད།	རྒྱུད།	༤༠%

6) གཡུས་སྐད་ མེ་རག་སག་སྟེང་ཁ་སྐབ་མི་ལུ་ ཡོད་པའི་རྗོད་སྐད་འཁུངས་ལ།

བཟུང་གིས་སྐད་རྗོད་ཁག་ མེ་རག་དང་སག་སྟེང་ ༡ རྟེན་ལས་ བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་སྟོབ་སྟུག་ མོ་ ༥ མོ་ ༥ བསྟོན་མས་ ༡༠ ལས་ གནས་སྟུང་ཚུ་ སྐྱོ་བརྩུང་གི་སྟོག་ལས་ བསྟུ་ལེན་དང་ དཔྱེ་ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་སྟུབ་འབྲས་ཚུ་ འོག་ལས་མར་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད།

གསལ་བྱེད་ ༣༠ ལས་ ཡི་གུ་ (ག་ཇ་ད་བ་ཇ་ཞ་ཟ) བདུན་ལུ་སྟོན་འཇུག་མེད་པ་དགི་རྗོད་སྐད་ཚུ་ སྟོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལུ་སྟེན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པའི་སྐབས་མེད་པ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༤༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལུ་སྟེན་འཇུག་མེད་པའི་སྐབས་ཡོད་པ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ ལྷ་ལྷ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྗོད་སྐད་ སྟོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༡༠༠% | ར་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ ལྷ་ལྷ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྗོད་སྐད་ སྟོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བརྩམ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༡༠༠% | ར་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ (མ་) ལུ་ (མ་ར་) ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༤༠% |

རྗོད་ཁའི་དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་རྗོད་སྐད་ལས་ རྗོད་སྐད་ (ག་ར་ར་ལ་) བཞི་འཇུག་སྟེ་ལུགས་བཏོན་ཏེ་ རྗོད་ཁའི་རག་གཞིས་དང་མ་མཐུན་མ་སྟེ་ སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% | མིང་ཚོགས་ (སྟུ་ ལྷགས་མ་ ལྷ་ ལྷག་)ཚུ་ མ་དག་པར་ (ཅ་ ཆའམ་ ཇ་ ཇལ) ཟེར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༤༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ ལྷ་ལྷ་གཉིས་ལུ་ རྗོད་སྐད་ དཀ་ལ་ས་ བཞི་ལུགས་ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚོགས་གི་རྗོད་སྐད་ དཔེར་ན་ བརྒྱུད་ཀྱི་རྗོད་སྐད་ ལྷུང་ཟེར་མེན་པ་ ལྷུང་ཟེར་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༤༠% ཡོད་པའི་མཛོད་གསལ་བྱུང་ཡི། ཁ་གསལ་ ཐིག་ལྷམ་ཨང་ ༤ རྟེན་ལུ་གཟིགས་ཚུགས།

ཐིག་ལྷམ་ཨང་ ༤ ལ། གཡུས་སྐད་མེ་རག་སག་སྟེང་ཁ་སྐབ་མི་ལུ་ ཡོད་པའི་རྗོད་སྐད་འཁུངས་ལ།

འཛོལ་གཞི་འཇུག་ཡོད་པའི་རྗོད་སྐད་ཚོགས་	རྗོད་སྐད་འཛོལ་ག་	འཛོལ་བའི་བརྒྱ་ཆ།
ག་ཇ་ད་བ་ཇ་ཞ་ཟ།	དགལ། མཇལ། མདལ། འབལ། མཇལ། གཞལ། བཟལ།	༡༠༠%
དུལ། དམར། གཡོན་ གཡང། གནང།	དུལ། མར། ཡོན། ཡང། རང།	༤༠%
ཡོན། མོན།	གཡོན། མོན།	༡༠%
ལྷ་ལྷ།	འལ།/ལྷ། འལ།/ལྷ།	༡༠༠%
ལྷ་ལྷ་ལྷ།	འལ། འལ། འལ།	༡༠༠%
ཕྱ	མ་དུ།	༤༠%
སྟག ཞག དཀར། པར། བཤལ། དབང།	ཉག ཞག། ཀར། པར། ཤལ། དབང། (རྗེས་འཇུག་གི་སྐྱོ་ལུགས་ཡོད་པ་སྟེ)	༡༠%
སྟུ། ལ། ལྷག ལྷགས་མ།	ཅ། ཇ། ཇལ། ཆའམ།	༤༠%
བརྒྱུད།	རྒྱུད།	༤༠%

ཤ) གཡུས་སྐད་ ཀུར་སྐད་ལ་ (ཚྱོད་རྒྱུ་རྒྱུ་ལུ་) སྐབ་མི་ལུ་ ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱའི་དཀའ་ངལ།

སྐྱེན་ཅེ་དང་ མོང་སྐར་ དབྱེངས་ཅེ་ རྫོང་ལག་གསུམ་ནང་ལས་ བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་སློབ་ཕྲུག་ མོ་ ༥ མོ་ ༥ བསྐྱེམས་ ༡༠ ལས་ གནས་སྐད་ཚུ་ སྐྱ་བཟུང་གི་ཐོག་ལས་ བསྐྱེལ་ནང་ དབྱེ་ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་གྲུབ་འབྲས་ཚུ་ འོག་ལས་མར་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད།

གསལ་བྱེད་ ༣༠ ལས་ ཡི་གུ་ (ག་ཇ་ད་བ་ཇ་ཞ་ཟ) བདུན་ལུ་སྲོན་འཇུག་མེད་པ་དགི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ཚུ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལཱ་ལུ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པའི་སྐབས་ མེད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༤༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ར་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལཱ་ལུ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་མེད་པའི་སྐབས་ ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༤༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ གྲུ་བྱ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༡༠% | ར་བཏགས་བཅུ་བཞི་ལས་ གྲུ་བྱ་ གསུམ་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ སྲོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༡༠% | ར་བཏགས་བཅུ་བཞི་ལས་ (སྐ) ལུ་ (མར) ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ ༡༠% |

རྫོང་ལའི་དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ལས་ རྫོང་འཇུག་ (ག་ངར་ལ) བཞིའི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ལུ་གསུམ་བཏོན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ལའི་དག་གཉིས་དང་མ་མཐུན་མ་སྟེ་ སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% | མིང་ཚིག་ (སྐྱ་ ཕུགས་མ་ བྱ་ བྱག་)ཚུ་ མ་དག་པར་ (ཅ་ ཆའམ་ རྫ་ རྫའ) ཟེར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ གྲུ་བྱ་གཉིས་ལུ་ རྫོང་འཇུག་ དན་ལ་ས་ བཞི་ཞུགས་ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་གི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ དཔེར་ན་ བརྒྱུད་ཀྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱ་ རྒྱུད་ཟེར་མེན་པ་ རྒྱུད་ཟེར་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཆ་ལས་ ༡༠% ཡོད་པའི་མངོན་གསལ་བྱུང་ཡི། ལ་གསལ་ ཐིག་ལྷམ་ཨང་ ༡ ནང་ལུ་གཟིགས་ཚུགས།

ཐིག་ལྷམ་ཨང་ ༡ ཡ། གཡུས་སྐད་ ཀུར་སྐད་ལ་ ཚྱོད་རྒྱུ་རྒྱུ་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱའི་དཀའ་ངལ།

འཛོལ་གཞིའི་ཡི་གུ་དང་མིང་ཚིག་	རྫོང་སྐྱ་འཛོལ་བ།	འཛོལ་བའི་བརྒྱ་ཆ།
ག་ཇ་ད་བ་ཇ་ཞ་ཟ།	དགའ། མཇའ། མདའ། འབའ། མཇའ། གཞའ། བཟའ།	༡༠%
དདུལ། དམར། གཡོན་ གཡང། གནང།	དུལ། མར། ཡོན། ཡང། ནང།	༤༠%
ཡོན། མོན།	གཡོན། མོན།	༤༠%
གྲུ་བྱ།	འགྲུ་བྱ། འབྲུ་བྱ།	༡༠%
གྲུ་བྱ།	འགྲུ། འབྲུ།	༡༠%
སྐ།	མར།	༡༠%
སྐྱག་ ཞག་ དཀར། པར། བཤལ། དབང།	ཏག་ ཞག་ ཀར། པར། ཤལ། དབང། (རྫོང་འཇུག་གི་སྐྱ་ལུ་གསུམ་ཡོད་པ་སྟེ་)	༡༠%
སྐྱ། བྱ། བྱག་ ཕུགས་མ།	ཕ། ར། རྫ། ཆའམ།	༡༠%
བརྒྱུད།	རྒྱུད།	༡༠%

༡) གཡུས་སྐད་རྫོང་ལ་སྐབ་མི་ལུ་ ཡོད་པའི་རྫོང་སྐྱའི་དཀའ་ངལ།

ལུ་བཟོ་གསལ་རྫོང་ལག་ ཐིག་ལུ་ སྐྱུངས་ཐང་ལ་ དབང་འདུས་ སྐར་ རྫ་ བཞི་ནང་ལས་ བཅའ་མར་གཏོགས་མི་སློབ་

ལྷན་ མོ་ ༥ མོ་ ༥ བསྐྱོམས་ ༡༠ ལས་ གནས་སྤྱད་ཚུ་ སྐྱོ་བཟུང་གི་ཐོག་ལས་ བསྐྱོམ་ལེན་དང་ དབྱེ་ཞིབ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་པའི་ ལྷན་འབྲེལ་ཚུ་ འོག་ལས་མར་བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད།

གསལ་བྱེད་ ༣༠ ལས་ ཡི་གུ་ (ག་ཇ་ད་བ་ཇ་ཞ་ཟ) བདུན་ལུ་སྤོན་འཇུག་མེད་པ་དགོས་ཚེད་སྐྱོ་ཚུ་ སྤོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་ བཟུམ་སྤེལ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༡༠% | མིང་གཞི་ (ད་ཉ་ན་མ་ཡ) ལཱ་ལུ་ སྤོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པའི་སྐབས་ མེད་པ་ བཟུམ་སྤེལ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༣༠% | ཡི་གུ་ ཉ་ལུ་ བ་ཟེར་ ཚེད་སྐྱོ་མ་དག་པར་ སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༣༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ ལྷ་བྱ་ གཉིས་ཀྱི་ཚེད་སྐྱོ་ སྤོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྤེལ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༡༠% | ར་བཏགས་བཅུ་བཞི་ལས་ ལྷ་ཅ་བྱ་ གསུམ་གྱི་ཚེད་སྐྱོ་ སྤོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་པ་བཟུམ་སྤེལ་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༡༠% | མགོ་ཅན་ལས་ ལཱ་ལུ་ཉའི་སྐྱོ་སྤེལ་ (ལྷ་ ལྷག ལྷན་ཚོགས་ ལཱ་ལུ་ ཉ། ཉག་ ཉན་ཚོགས) ཟེར་མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༣༠% |

ཚེད་ཁའི་དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་ཚེད་སྐྱོ་ལས་ རེས་འཇུག་ (ག་ང་ར་ལ་) བཞིའི་ཚེད་སྐྱོ་ལུ་གསལ་བཏོན་ཏེ་ ཚེད་ཁའི་དག་ གཞིས་དང་མ་མཐུན་མ་སྤེལ་ སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༤༠% | མིང་ཚིག་ (སྤུ་ བྱགས་མ་ བྱ་ བྱག)ཚུ་ མ་དག་པར་ (ཅ་ ཚའམ་ ཇ་ ཇའ) ཟེར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༣༠% | དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་ཚེད་སྐྱོ་སྤེལ་མ་དག་པར་མིང་ཚིག་གི་ (སྐྱོ་བྱེ་ བྱག་འཚལ། བྱ་སྤོད། བྱ་བ། སྤྱི་བྱ་བ། སྤྱི་མི་) ལཱ་ལུ་ དམིགས་བསལ་གྱི་ཚེད་སྐྱོ་བཏོན་ཏེ་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༡༠% | ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ ལྷ་བྱ་གཉིས་ལུ་ རེས་འཇུག་ ད་ན་ལ་ས་ བཞི་ལུ་གསལ་ཡོད་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་གི་ཚེད་སྐྱོ་ དཔེར་ན་ བརྒྱད་ཀྱི་ཚེད་སྐྱོ་ ལྷན་ཟེར་མེན་པ་ ལྷན་ཟེར་ མ་དག་པར་སྐབ་མི་ བརྒྱ་ཚུལ་ས་ ༡༠% ཡོད་པའི་མངོན་གསལ་བྱུང་ཡི། ལ་ གསལ་ ཐིག་ལྷན་ལང་ ༢ ནང་ལུ་གཟིགས་ཚུགས།

ཐིག་ལྷན་ལང་ ༢ ལ། གཡུས་སྐད་ཚེད་ཁ་སྐབ་མི་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་ཚེད་སྐྱོའི་དཀའ་ངལ།

འཛོལ་གཞིའི་ཡི་གུ་དང་མིང་ཚིག་	ཚེད་སྐྱོ་འཛོལ་བ།	འཛོལ་བའི་བརྒྱ་ཚུལ།
ག་ཇ་ད་བ་ཇ་ཞ་ཟ།	དགའ། མཇའ། མདའ། འབའ། མཇའ། གཞའ། བཟའ།	༡༠%
གཡང། གཡོན། གནས་ལུན།	ཡང། ཡོན། གས་ལུན།	༣༠%
ཉ། ཉོ། ཉན། ཉིནམ། ཉམས།	ན། ཉོ། ཉན། ཉིན། ཉམས།	༣༠%
ལྷ་བྱ།	འལྷ། ལྷ། འལྷ།	༡༠%
ལྷ་ཅ་བྱ།	འལྷ། འལ། འལ།	༡༠%
ལྷ། ལྷག ལྷན་ཚོགས།	ཉ། ཉན་འཛིན།	༣༠%
དཀར། བཤལ།	ཀར། ཤལ། (རེས་འཇུག་གི་སྐྱོ་བྱགས་ཡོད་པ་སྤེལ་)	༤༠%
སྤུ། བྱ། བྱག བྱགས་མ།	ཅ། ཇ། ཇའ། ཚའམ།	༣༠%
བྱ་བྱ་བྱ། སྐྱོ་བྱེ། སྤྱི་བྱ་བ། བྱག་འཚལ། བྱ་སྤོད། བྱ་བ།	བྱའ་ བྱའ་ བྱའ། སྐྱོ་བྱེའ། བྱ་འཚལ། བྱིར་ཚབ།	༡༠%
བརྒྱད།	རྒྱད།	༡༠%

ཚུ་གིས་ དཀའ་ངལ་དེ་ཚུ་སེལ་ཐབས་ལུ་ དམིགས་གཏང་བསྐྱེད་དེ་ སློབ་སྟོན་འབད་དགོས་འདུག།

གོང་ལུ་ཁ་གསལ་སྟེ་ བཀོད་དེ་ཡོད་དོ་བཟུམ་ དམིགས་བསལ་གཡུས་སྐད་སོ་སོ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེལ་དག་
པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་ཚུ་ ཡོད་པ་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ སློབ་དཔོན་ཚུ་གིས་ སློབ་སྟོན་འབད་བའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ དེ་ཚུ་དགལ་སྟེ་སློབ་ཚུགས་ནིའི་
ཐབས་ཤེས་བརྟོན་དགོས་འདུག།

སློབ་ཕྱག་གི་རྫོང་སྐྱེལ་དག་པའི་རྒྱ་རྒྱུན་ཅིག་ སློབ་སྟོན་འབད་མི་ སློབ་དཔོན་གྱི་རྫོང་སྐྱེལ་ལུ་བརྟེན་ཏེ་བྱུང་མ་ལས་ སློབ་
ལྷན་ལུ་ཡོད་པའི་ གཞི་རིམ་རྫོང་ཁའི་སློབ་དཔོན་ཚུ་ལུ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེལ་དགལ་སྟེ་ སློབ་ཚུགས་ནིའི་སློབ་བཅར་བྱིན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་སྐྱེལ་སྟོན་
འབད་ནི་ལུ་ རྩོགས་གྲུབ་ཡོད་པ་བཟོ་ཚུགས་པ་ཅིན་ དག་ནི་མས།

མཇུག་བསྟུ། Conclusion

མཐོང་མཐོབ་སློབ་གྲིའི་སློབ་ཕྱག་ཚུ་ལུ་ གཡུས་གྱི་དག་གཤིས་ལས་བརྟེན་ཏེ་ རྫོང་ཁའི་རྫོང་སྐྱེལ་ལུ་ དཀའ་ངལ་གྱི་ཁྱད་པར་
འཚོལ་ཞིབ་ ཟེར་བའི་དོན་ཚན་གྱི་ཐོག་ལུ་ ཞིབ་འཚོལ་འབད་དེ་ཡོད་མི་དང་འཁྲིལ་མ་ད་ སྤྱིར་བཏང་ གཡུས་སྐད་སོ་སོ་སློབ་མི་
སློབ་ཕྱག་གེ་ར་ལུ་ གསལ་བྱེད་ཀྱི་ཡི་གུ་ ག་ར་ད་བ་ཇ་ཞ་ཟ་ བདུན། གཉིས་པར་ ཡ་བཏགས་བདུན་ལས་ བྱ་བྱ་ གཉིས། ར་
བཏགས་བཅུ་བཞི་ལས་ བྱ་ད་ཟ་ གསུམ་ལུ་ སྟོན་འཇུག་མེད་པའི་སྐབས་ སྟོན་འཇུག་ཡོད་དོ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ ལྷག་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ་
བརྒྱ་ཚེལ་ས་ ༥.༥% འདུག།

དེ་བཟུམ་སྟེ་ རྫོང་ཁ་སྐྱེལ་པའི་སྐབས་ལུ་ རྗེས་འཇུག་ ག་ད་ངར་ལ་ ལཱ་ལྷགས་པའི་མིང་ཚིག་ཚུ་ལུ་ རྗེས་འཇུག་གི་སྐྱེ་
མིལ་བུ་མ་བརྟོན་པར་ སློབ་དགོས་ཡིན་རུང་ སློབ་ཕྱག་ཚུ་གིས་ རྗེས་འཇུག་གི་སྐྱེ་ལྷགས་སྟེ་བརྟོན་ཏེ་ སློབ་པའི་དཀའ་ངལ། ལྷ་
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Impacts of Facebook on Reading Habits of Higher Secondary Students: Stakeholders' Perspectives

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Abstract

Facebook is the most popular network site among young Bhutanese people. Students spend a substantial amount of time checking Facebook and chatting with friends, which could be detrimental to their reading habits. The aim of this study was to investigate the impacts of Facebook on the reading habits of a higher secondary school students in Bhutan. A mixed methods, specifically a convergent design, was adopted for the study, and it was guided by the Pragmatism worldview. Quantitative data were gathered from 274 participants and qualitative data were collected from 10 interviewees and one focus group discussion. Participants included teachers, parents, and students from a higher secondary school in Thimphu Thromde. A descriptive and inferential statistical following thematic analysis was used for quantitative data and the qualitative data were analyzed along the same themes. The findings of the study revealed that use of Facebook positively affected students' reading habits. Students developed positive attitudes towards reading, after they were exposed to inspiring and interesting articles. However, the study also highlighted the negative impacts of Facebook on students' reading habits. Further, the study revealed that students have become complacent in reading owing to Facebook activities. The findings of the study may help different stakeholders understand the importance of creating awareness about media literacy to enable students to choose authentic reading materials on Facebook. This study recommends the Ministry of Education to develop policy and provide media literacy education to students to ensure they consume media information judiciously.

keywords: Facebook, Reading habits, Detrimental, Impacts, Media literacy

INTRODUCTION

The notion of reading in 21st century networked society has changed recently. Students are no longer confined only to print reading, but its spread has expanded to Facebook. The widespread usage of Facebook tools has changed traditional reading culture for many readers. Previous research has found that as the amount of digital information available grows, young adults spend more time reading electronics (Ramirez, 2003; Liu, 2005). While the education system in Bhutan mainly focused on its tradition and culture prior to the 1950s, Conversely, the arrival of the contemporary western education system has changed the education system in Bhutan. With the implementation of the First Five Year Plan in 1961, the education system began to move at a faster pace to meet students' educational needs. Since then, writing and reading in the education system have been necessary to refine intellectual and competent students. The Internet was introduced in Bhutan on June 2, 1999 with the aim of providing citizens access to information and allowing them to interact with the world (Thinley, 2015). The Internet brought Facebook, the most popular network in the world (Albloly & Mohammed, 2013). Facebook was launched on February 24, 2004 by Mark Zuckerberg, Dustin Moskovitz, and Chris Hughes. There are over 2.89 billion active Facebook users monthly, and more than one billion people interact on Facebook every day (Statista Research Department [SRD], 2021).

Most of the students use Facebook as an entertainment medium, which reduces their focus on reading time (Anderson, n.d.). Further, another study demonstrated that students spend more time on online games and Facebook, which reduces time for reading (Sharma & Shukla, 2016; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). However, Dogoriti et al. (2017) suggest that Facebook generally helps to improve students' reading and learning habits. Additionally, Bedassa (2014) and Ekahitanond (2018) reported that students read news, stories, histories, and other interesting articles on Facebook besides printed books. Nevertheless, another study stated that students feel positive, fun, and motivated to use Facebook (Krasnova et al., 2013; Karakose et al., 2016). In the same vein, literature found that Facebook introduces students to new vocabulary and sentence structures and boosts their confidence in reading English language materials (Cong-Lem, 2018; Kasuma & Tan, 2019; Yuksel & Tanriverdi, 2009).

Since the advent of Facebook in Bhutan in 2004, it has gained popularity among the Bhutanese people due to its enabling services such as sharing of communication, creative expression, and social interaction around the world (Hamidi, 2014). According to the Asian Pacific Digital Overview (2020), there are about 442600 Facebook users in Bhutan, which translates to 52.4 percent of internet users with access to Facebook. Bhutanese youth aged 13 to 24 make up the majority of Facebook users in Bhutan. According to MacEntee (2012) the study revealed that students acquire slang words or shortened forms of words from Facebook, which affects their language and reading skills. On the contrary, students acquire writing skills, communicative abilities, and vocabulary learning when students engage with and read the content on social media (Kasuma & Tan, 2019; Obaidullah & Rahman, 2018; Samdrup, 2014; Yuksel & Tanriverdi, 2009). Thus, students learn news words and content from Facebook.

This study also offers important insights into the impacts of Facebook on students' reading habits. Moreover, this study aims to contribute to this growing area of research by exploring various strategies to use Facebook appropriately and enhance students' reading habits. Additionally, the easy availability and accessibility of reading materials on Facebook is considered advantageous for reading culture. However, Facebook services such as online videos and games are considered a threat to print reading (Dealeal & Tasir, 2017). Moreover, students spend less time reading since they are exposed to inaccurate information, which might lead or tempt students into unlawful or disruptive behavior (Oni et al., 2017). Further, students are addicted to Facebook rather than academic reading and study (Karakose et al., 2016). Therefore, there is a need to assess the impact of Facebook on reading habits.

Statement of the Problem

Facebook is currently the most popular website on the internet. There are over 2.7 billion monthly active users worldwide, with 45.5 percent between the ages of 13 and 24 (Clement, 2020). There were 373.2 thousand internet users in Bhutan as of January 2021 (Kemp, 2021). According to NapoleonCat (2020), the number of Facebook users in Bhutan increased from 418100 to 522900 in 2019 and 2020. There is a gradual increase in the number of Facebook users annually in Bhutan. Bhutanese youth between the age group of 13-24 make up the most significant group using Facebook (Samdrup, 2014).

Currently, Facebook is used by students to connect with their friends and relatives around the globe (Brydolf, 2007; Ellison & Stelinfeld, 2007). Further, students read articles and news on Facebook (Bedassa, 2014) In the contrast, it is also observed that most high school students spend time surfing Facebook rather than reading. Similarly, another study showed that most high school students never finish reading a fiction book from cover to cover after leaving school (Brydolf, 2007). Furthermore, Facebook not only influences students' learning and studying in the classroom, it affects their reading behaviors at home (Shen, 2006). Therefore, it is becoming difficult to ignore the fact that there is a direct relationship between Facebook usage and students' reading habits in higher secondary schools. While there are international studies conducted on the impacts of social media on students' reading habits, there is a dearth of literature on this topic in Bhutan. Thus far, there is only one study by Samdrup (2014) which examined the impact of Facebook on academic performance. Therefore, the primary purpose of the study is to explore the impact of Facebook on reading habits of higher secondary school students in Bhutan.

Purpose of the study

The study aims to explore students', parents' and teachers' perceptions on the impact of Facebook on students' reading habits. It also aims to identify the relationship between Facebook usage and reading habits of Bhutanese higher secondary school students.

Significance of the study

The research findings provide insights into the impacts of Facebook on students' reading habits. This knowledge might help different stakeholders to design strategies to use Facebook appropriately, and promote reading. Moreover, the study is intended to contribute to the body of literature and knowledge on the impacts of Facebook on students' reading habits. Moreover, this study would help teachers and parents select valid reading materials and Facebook pages for their children and students. Lastly, this study would provide scope for future researchers to conduct further research in this area.

Research Question

The following main and sub research questions guided the study.

Primary Question

What are the perspectives of stakeholders on the impacts of Facebook on students' reading habits?

Sub-questions

- 1) What are the perspectives of students on the impacts of Facebook in students' reading

habits?

- 2) What are the perspectives of teachers on the impacts of Facebook on students' reading habits?
- 3) What are the perspectives of parents on the impacts of Facebook on students' reading habits?

METHODOLOGY

Research Paradigm, Design and Approach

A pragmatic paradigm is guided the study. This paradigm allows exploration of complex phenomena and is the philosophical framework for mixed methods (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). A pragmatic paradigm supports the use of both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies to collect information and make inquiry into complex phenomena of social and natural context (Morgan, 2007). It focuses on the problems and tries to find practical solutions with the use of mixed methods (Ihuah & Eaton, 2013). Since the aim of the study was to explore the perceptions of the impact of students 'reading habits on academic performance in English, a pragmatic framework offered the researcher a means of gaining in - depth and diverse knowledge on the research question. Thus, the practicality of pragmatism allowed the researcher to gather data by using relevant methods when addressing the research problem.

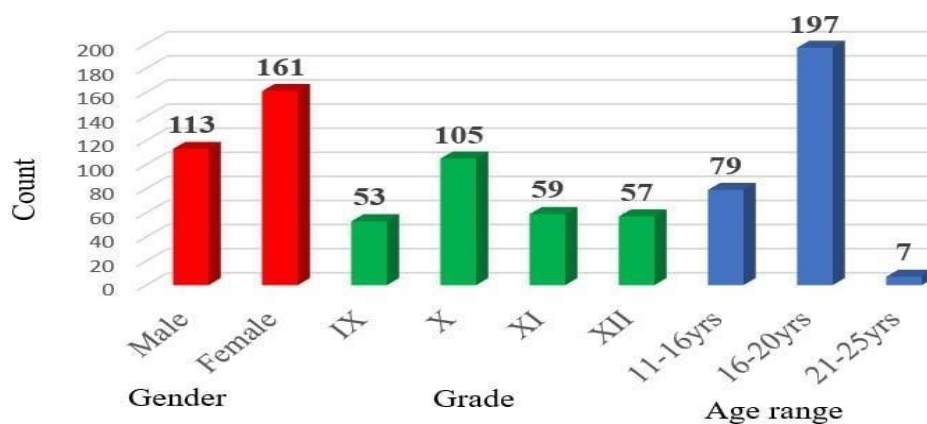
This study adopted a mixed methods research approach. The use of this design provided an in-depth understanding of the subject matter through personal experiences, interviews and surveys (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). This study also associates with personal experiences and behaviors, and hence this approach guided in the collection of data and the process of analysis. Trustworthiness of qualitative data is ensured by using such as credibility, dependability, conformability and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Of the different types of research designs, this study employed a convergent mixed methods design. It further allowed to understand the lived experiences of individuals on the impacts of reading habits on academic performance in English of Bhutanese secondary students. In addition, this design provided greater understanding of the research problem by obtaining different complementary data (Creswell, 2013).

Sampling strategies and Sample process

Sampling plays a very important role in mixed methods research (Creswell, 2013). After confirming the population, Cochran's (1977) method of sample size determination was used at a 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error. A total of 274 participants participated in this study. A random sampling technique was used in order to get better information. The sample ensured equal gender representation. Therefore, the study collected questionnaire data from 274 students at a Bhutanese higher secondary school. Out of 274 students, 113 were male and 161 were female. There were 53 students from Class IX, 105 from X, 59 from XI and 57 from XII. There were 70 participants under the age of 11-15, 179 falling under the age of 16-20, and 7 falling under the age of 21-25 (see Figure 3.1).

Fig 3. 1

Background Demographic and Research Participants

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with participants from a higher secondary school. This study used purposeful sampling techniques since the researcher was interested in participants who had the best knowledge concerning the research topic. One-on-one interview was conducted as one of the data collection techniques in this study with the aim to acquire in-depth understanding of students, teachers and parents on the impacts of Facebook on reading habits of higher secondary students. In this interview, parents and teachers were included (see Table 3.1). Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was included as one of the data collection techniques with the aim to acquire an in-depth understanding of students' perceptions (see Table 3.1). Further, data collected through survey and interviews had helped in the triangulation of the data.

Table 3. 1

Number of Focus Group Discussions and One-on-One interviews

Interviewees	Number of Interviewees	Male	Female
Focus Group Discussion	1	2	4
One-on-one interview with teachers	5	2	3
One-on-one Interviews with parents	5	3	2

Data gathering tools

Data collection is the process of gathering and measuring information on variables of interest in an established systematic fashion that enables one to answer mentioned research questions and analyze new insights to great effect (Creswell, 2013). The data had collected through survey, semi-structured interview and document analysis. Each data collection tool complemented the other, which enabled a greater depth of understanding of the issue under study. The discussion of tools is provided in the following sections.

Survey

The aim of the survey is to gather objective data on respondents' perceptions on the impacts of students' reading habits on academic performance of higher secondary school students. Further, this method of collecting data provides insights into participants' opinions on how reading habits impacts academic performance in English. Survey questionnaire consists of 2 sections: broadly positive impacts and negative impacts. The survey items had been expressed on a six-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree (6), Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Disagree (3), Somewhat Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1). Further, the scale on the level of the opinion was adapted from Tshering, Tamang and Rinchen, 2021, guide to interpret the mean score (see Table 3.2). Prior to the administration of the survey questionnaire, pilot test was conducted. Pilot test is important to establish the content validity of scores on an instrument. Pilot testing all study materials provides an opportunity to assess how long the study takes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The reliability of students' survey questionnaire was verified through a pilot test study of 24 students from Samtse Higher Secondary School. Thus, the reliability of the items was measured through Cronbach's Alpha of 0.92.

Table 3. 2

Scale of Level of Opinion

Scale	Level of Opinion
1-1.50	Strongly disagree
1.51-2.50	Disagree

2.151-3.50	Somewhat disagree
3.51-4.50	Somewhat agree
4.51-5.00	Agree
5.51-6.00	Strongly agree

(Scale adapted from Tshering, Tamang and Rinchen, 2021)

Semi-structured Interview

For qualitative data collection, the study employed a semi-structured interview tool. This tool provides a framework for respondents to express their own understanding in their own words (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). This method of collecting data enabled the researcher to understand the impact of students' reading habits on academic performance in English. The study used guiding interview questions for both one-on-one interview and focus group discussion.

Interview questions seek to gain deeper insights into the research question. To ensure methodological soundness, the interview questions were pilot tested with 2 teachers, 2 parents and 4 students outside of the study sample. The pilot test was necessary to establish the effectiveness of the instrument in terms of both the content and process of administration.

Focus Group Discussion is an efficient way of gaining large amount of information from the participants (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Focus Group Discussion was used in order to gather information from similar group of students having same experiences, back group and knowledge on the subject. This study included six participants from Classes IX to XII. Each participant was provided the information sheet, the consent form, and interview guiding questions. Thus, Focus Group Discussion provided in-depth insights into the impacts of Facebook on reading.

Data Analysis Methods

The analysis of data in a mixed methods design involves the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data, which was analyzed using appropriate methods of analysis (Creswell, 2013). The study analyzed the survey questionnaire using the statistical package for Social Science (SPSS) 22. The data were analyzed through features such as frequencies, mean, standard deviation one-way Anova and correlation, which were represented in the forms of tables. To determine the degree of correlation, the idea of Best and Khan (2006) was adapted (see Table 3.3). Interview data were analyzed thematically following procedures of Braun and Clarke (2018). Audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim and coded using descriptive and In Vivo coding.

The codes were further developed into categories or themes, which became the units of discussion.

In order to safeguard the identity of participants, pseudonyms such as FGA, FGB, FGC, FGD, FGE, and FGF, P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, T1, T2, T3, T4 and T5 were used to represent Focus Group Discussion, Parents, and Teachers.

Table 3. 3

Correlation and Coefficient Range

Coefficient Interval	Coefficient level
0.00-0.199	Very low
0.20-0.399	Low
0.40-0.599	Middle
0.60-0.799	Strong
0.80-1.000	Very Strong

Adapted from Best and Khan (2006)

Ethical consideration

All ethical issues that need to be addressed in the whole process of the study was dealt and adhered to strictly as per the ethical or research code of conduct and regulations of the Royal University of Bhutan, 2014 and ethics clearance was also obtained from relevant authorities in the schools. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), protection of the privacy of research participants has to be ensured. Moreover, anonymity and confidentiality of participants was maintained by not revealing names and identities in the data collection and while reporting the study findings. All participants were clearly briefed on the purpose of the research and their involvement. The participants signed an informed consent form before the interview to indicate their permission to be part of the study (Arifin, 2018). Further, the researcher sought consent from the participants to voice record interviews. All the collected data were compiled and protected for 5 years.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Positive Impacts

In the context of this study, positive impacts include students' development and enhancement of reading habits from Facebook reading materials. The analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data showed that Facebook has positive impacts on students' reading habits. These positive impacts translate into enhancement of reading habits, diversity of reading and enhancement of language and perceptions of Challenges is emergent theme. Each of these sub-themes is discussed in the following section.

Enhancement of Reading Habits

Table 4. 1

Mean and Standard Deviation on Enhancement of Reading Habits

Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Opinion
Facebook motivates me to read other books and articles.	4.65	1.186	Agree
Facebook makes reading more fun and enjoyable.	4.89	1.122	Agree
Reading on Facebook enhances my reading habits.	4.55	1.082	Agree
Reading on Facebook cultivates my reading habits.	4.45	1.099	Somewhat Agree
Overall Mean	274 4.65	1.099	Agree

As shown in Table 4.1, the overall mean and standard deviation for the items on enhancement of reading habits is (M=4.65; SD=1.099). This indicates that students agree that Facebook enhances their reading habits. The current findings corroborated the idea of Dogoriti., et al (2017) who suggested that Facebook generally helps to improve students' reading and learning habits. Further, statistical analysis of the item *Facebook makes reading more fun and enjoyable* (M=4.89;SD=1.22) (see Table 4.1). Facebook is identified as a catalyst in adding joy to reading. In the similar vein, FGF said, "Whenever the writers provide us with links and suggestions about books... I feel an interest in reading those books and articles."

This finding aligns with previous studies that revealed that students feel positive, fun and motivated to use Facebook (Krasnova et al., 2013; Karakose et al., 2016). The finding implies that students derive happiness and enjoyment when they read on Facebook. A possible reason for this could be that most articles on Facebook are succinct and visuals accompany them. It is also easier to access articles on Facebook using technological gadgets, which reduces the burden of having to carry a book.

Diversity in Reading

Table 4.2

Mean and Standard Deviation on Diversity in Reading

	Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of opinion
I read comments on Facebook.		4.88	1.05	Agree
I read news on Facebook.		4.97	1.014	Agree
I read inspirational quotes on Facebook.		5.31	0.042	Agree
I prefer reading short stories on Facebook.		4.76	1.177	Agree
I read history on Facebook.		4.36	1.185	Somewhat Agree
Overall Mean	274	4.85	0.89	Agree

The analysis of Table 4.2 showed that students read various genres on Facebook. Students reading comments (M=4.88), news (M=4.97), inspirational quotes (M=5.31), short stores (M=4.76) and history (M= 4.36) fall in the agree category. They agree that they read different genres to enhance their reading habits. Similarly, the standard deviation 0.893 indicates that students have similar opinions. In the same way, majority of the students shared that they read different materials on Facebook, which enhanced their interest in reading. This echoes the findings of Bedassa (2014) and Ekahitanond (2018) who reported that students read news, stories, histories, and other interesting articles on Facebook besides printed books. However, a few students stated that they love to read printed books as they are well organized and one can keep track of reading. This finding agrees with the previous literature. Literature states that students generally had positive perceptions towards printed books and articles (Makwanya, & Oni, 2013). On the other hand, Survey data regarding the item *I read for more than one hour on Facebook in a day*" is more slightly inclined to the Agree category with a mean score of (M=4.08; SD=1.340). Similarly, in the interview almost all students agreed that they spend more than an hour on Facebook reading news and other articles. In line with this study, previous studies indicated that with the growing amount of digital information available, young adults spend more time reading electronics (Ramirez, 2003; Liu, 2005). This finding is further supported by Loan (2011) who contended that improved access to relevant articles through social media has increased students' time on reading. The finding also does not confirm students' use of Facebook in the development of their reading habits. It is difficult to explain this result, however, it might be related to the context of usage and availability of technologies. It might also depend on their existing reading habits.

Enhancement of Language

Table 4. 3

Mean and Standard Deviation on Enhancement of Language

Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Opinion	
Reading on Facebook improves my language.	4.73	1.149	Agree	
Reading on Facebook enhances my knowledge on reading comprehension.	4.47	1.063	Somewhat Agree	
Reading on Facebook helps me to improve my grammar.	4.42	1.184	Somewhat Agree	
Reading on Facebook enhances my reading skills.	4.45	1.154	Somewhat Agree	
Reading on Facebook enhances my vocabulary.	4.50	0.991	Agree	
Overall Mean	274	4.51	1.09	Agree

Reading different genres on Facebook not only contributes to reading enhancement but also provides knowledge on language and other skills to students. The survey data revealed that reading articles on Facebook helps students to learn new words, improve grammar, enhance vocabulary, enhance reading skills and comprehensions, as shown by the overall mean score ($M=4.51$; $SD=1.09$), which is in the Agree category (see Table 4.4). This shows students are passionate about reading on Facebook. For instance, students acquire new words as evident from the item *reading on Facebook enhances my vocabulary* mean score of ($M=4.50$; $SD=0.99$). In the same vein, interview data shows that almost all the students shared reading on Facebook enhances reading habits and acquire their reading ability, reading comprehension and improve language by reading materials on Facebook. Further, this view is echoed by P3 “Whenever my child visits Facebook, she usually learns some words and usage of grammar. Consistent with this finding, studies have found that Facebook introduces students to new vocabulary and sentence structures and boosts their confidence in reading English language materials (Cong-Lem, 2018, Kasuma & Tan, 2019; Yuksel & Tanriverdi, 2009). However, majority of the participants expressed that students are exposed to articles strewn with grammatical errors, spelling and invalid information. For instance, FGF and FGA said that reading on Facebook does not improve language since articles are posted without proper edition. This finding is in line with the study results of study Kasuma and Tan (2019) show that Facebook negatively affects grammar, spelling and academic achievement. In the same way, the quantitative data also showed that students read for tests and assignments as evident from the overall mean score

of (M=3.79). Interview data findings validated that student's search information related to their assignments and tests on Facebook pages. This is supported by Bana (2020) and Dheleal and Tasir (2017) revealed that Facebook helps in discussion of assignments and clarification, posting information and supporting each other. It is, therefore, assumed that students only read when an assignment has been assigned or during examination.

Negative Impacts

Negative impacts in this context are described as the deterioration of students' reading habits by spending time on diverse activities on Facebook. The mean of (M=3.81) for the item *I spend more than three hours a day on Facebook* falls into the Somewhat Agree category (see Table 4.7). This indicates that excessive use of Facebook by students has a statistically significant effect on their reading habits. This finding corroborates with the previous literature. Literature states that students spend a considerable amount of time actively on Facebook (Dealeal & Tasir, 2017). Similarly, the interview data revealed that majority of the students spend more than 2 to 3 hours on Facebook. This view is represented in the quote by T3, "Students are negatively affected by constant access to Facebook activities."

Deterioration of Reading Habits

Table 4.4

Mean and Standard Deviation on Deterioration of Reading Habits

	Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	Level of Opinion
I love updating profiles on Facebook instead of reading.		3.46	1.432	Somewhat Disagree
I prefer chatting with friends instead of reading.		3.98	1.287	Somewhat Agree
I prefer playing games on Facebook instead of reading.		3.35	1.418	Somewhat Disagree
I watch videos on Facebook rather than reading.		4.06	1.34	Somewhat Agree
I do other activities on Facebook rather than reading.		4.13	1.22	Somewhat Agree
Overall Mean	274	3.80	1.34	Somewhat Agree

One of the findings confirms that students spend their time chatting, watching videos, and engaging in other activities, with an overall mean of ($M=3.80$; $SD=1.34$). In accordance with the present results, previous studies have demonstrated that students use Facebook to connect with friends and relatives, watch videos, and comment. This practice, however, affects good reading habits among students (Bayucan, 2017; Rafiq, 2020). Further, another study pointed out that most students use Facebook as an entertainment media, which reduces their focus on reading time (Anderson, n.d.). Similarly, parent participants said, “Facebook activities such as games, videos, chats, updating profiles and other entertaining items do not affect students’ reading habits as long as they know how to choose good sites and materials from Facebook.” The results of this study indicate that students are inquisitive about utilizing Facebook and are enthusiastic about exploring the different features of Facebook, especially games and chat facilities. However, they lose their focus on academic activities and reading.

For instance, P1 said, “My children are addicted to Korean advertisements and other unwanted pictures and videos. Which not only affects their reading passion but also their emotions.” This finding confirms with the findings of other studies which elucidated that the majority of students spend less time reading since they are exposed to inaccurate information, information that might lead or tempt students into unlawful or disrupted behavior (Oni et al., 2017). This might be due to lack of media literacy and parents’ monitoring. The results of this research support the idea that students need to receive media literacy education before they explore reading materials on Facebook.

Moreover, a low positive correlation was found between the items *I spent more than 3 hours on Facebook in a day* ($r=231$; $p=0.000$) and *Facebook reduces my reading passion* ($r=231$; $p=0.000$) at $p < 0.01$. This presents an impression that the use of Facebook affects reading negatively. Further, interview data shows that students spend their time watching videos, chatting, commenting, and viewing profiles on Facebook, which affects their reading passion. In accordance with the present findings, previous studies have demonstrated that students spend more time on online games and Facebook which reduces time for reading (Sharma & Shukla, 2016; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). Further, students are addicted to Facebook rather than academic reading and study (Karakose, et al., 2016). This finding implies that our students are affected by the ills of Facebook, however, with the right kind of education and guidance, this can be remediated. This finding may help us to understand the value of time and social life.

Challenges

The study showed that students do not read when they are assigned with assignments, homework, and other academic-related activities. This view is exemplified by FGD: “Right after school I do homework, project work, and other academic activities. I do not get time to read on Facebook.” The findings of the current study do not support previous research. Literature stated that students normally read Facebook’s articles when they are assigned with assignments or during examinations as most of them do not read other books such as novels, newspapers and magazines (Babalola, 2020). In the same way, T1, P2 & T3 expressed that students read notes or articles related to topics when they share through messenger and post on the school Facebook page. This finding may be explained by the fact that students focus more on academic materials than other articles. Therefore, this finding suggests that teachers should post more articles related to their assignments and subjects. The interview findings revealed that students do not have sound knowledge to evaluate the validity of articles on Facebook, and thus they end up choosing

articles that are strewn with grammatical errors and false information. The current finding is congruent with the previous study. The study revealed that students acquire slang words or shortened forms of words from Facebook which affects their language and reading skills (MacEntee,2012). In the same way, T1, T3 & T5 shared that students use colloquial, abbreviations and jargon in their formal writing and speaking. It seems possible that these results are due to lack of guidance and support from parents and teachers. An important issue emerging from these findings is a needfor media literacy education.

One of the findings revealed that there was a lack of monitoring from parents and teachers. For instance, P1 said, "My children read whatever post is seen on Facebook." Literature emphasized that encouragement from parents and teachers plays a vital role in infusing reading habits into students (Taha, 2021). This finding has important implications for parents and teachers to establish reading time once in a day.

CONCLUSION

Reading on Facebook enhances students' reading habits. Students are exposed to diverse reading materials on Facebook, such as news, comments, stories, book reviews, quotations, and histories. In addition, students also explore academic-related materials on Facebook, which encourages them to read more articles on Facebook. Furthermore, it also helps improve their grammar and vocabulary. On the other hand, students are exposed to slang, colloquial and abbreviations, which deteriorate their language. This finding is noteworthy because Facebook is not only used for social purposes but is also a source for nurturing students' reading habits. This finding implies that Facebook has the potential to boost students' reading habits. Therefore, it is necessary to capitalize on Facebook and use it for academic purposes such as reading. In the 21st century world, apps are becoming a dispensable tool for learning.

The findings also demonstrated that excessive use of Facebook by students has a statistically significant impact on their reading habits. Students do not use Facebook for reading purposes; rather, they use it for social networking and engaging in other entertainment activities. Additionally, inappropriate videos are easily accessible to children, which can affect their attitude toward reading habits. The significance of this finding is that Facebook is not only a source of positive influence but also a breeding ground of negative influence. Relevant stakeholders, such as parents and teachers, must guide the students to select useful materials and use Facebook to their advantage to grow and advance both professionally and personally. If students do not receive timely guidance and support, they may be easily swayed by the multitude of options on Facebook. This could have a detrimental effect on their studies and health.

This study also highlights one of the challenges as a lack of media literacy among students. This finding suggests that stakeholders need to provide education on media literacy to students. Parents and teachers could guide students in learning how to think deliberately about their use of Facebook, and ask them to consider the outcomes of proper use of social media sites. This goal can be appropriately reached when parents and teachers receive appropriate training on the use of social media.

Overall, Facebook enhances students' reading habits and language skills by exploring and reading various articles on it. However, students spend their quality time surfing for entertaining activities, which hinders their reading habits. Further, students' lack of social media education and proper guidance from parents and teachers hinder the development of reading habits.

Acknowledgement

I would like to thank my family for their sacrifices and encouragement. Moreover, I am indebted to the esteemed lecturers, Dr. Yangdon, and Dr. Tashi Gyeltshen, for their endless encouragement, erudite suggestions, generous and friendly nature, critical evaluation, and counsel during the whole course of this project. Thus, I would like to thank all my friends for boosting my energy and confidence and walking the journey with me!

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Enabling environment and support as determinant of quality in ECCD centres in Bhutan: An analysis of the findings of quality monitoring of ECCD centres in Bhutan

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Abstract

Quality in Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) centres is central to the effectiveness of programmes they provide but it is not limited to what early educators do with children on a daily basis (Britto, Yoshikawa, & Boller. 2011). Taguma, M. et al (2012) emphasize that quality in early childhood education encompasses such facets as how engaging and safe the centre is, if there is a range of strategies and activities employed to make learning experiences meaningful, whether families and communities engage in the educational process and if there is a systemic support from the larger community for the effective functioning of the centre. Recognizing the centrality of a holistic definition of early childhood education, the design of centres in Bhutan is founded on internationally accepted concepts and approaches that integrate critical aspects of quality learning environment. The Bhutan Quality Framework, with four specific domains and 29 indicators, define quality in terms of not just focusing on learning activities and strategies, but also encompassing child safety and well being, quality of interaction and communication, and family and community involvement.

This paper is essentially a report on the state of ECCD centres across the country, generated on the basis of assessment carried out using the quality monitoring tool for ECCD centres. The paper highlights the status of ECCD centres in terms of quality of learning in general and analyzes the levels of attainment in each of the four domains of quality. The paper further specifies the state of quality in ECCD centres by districts and types of centres to illustrate their strengths and weaknesses of ECCD centres in varying situations and environments. The paper analyses the key findings of the survey and summarizes a number of recommendations that could contribute to heightening quality of ECCD programmes by addressing shortfalls in the different aspects of quality in ECCD centres.

1. Introduction

ECCD centres provide early education and stimulation in organized settings with professionally trained educators during the most critical period of development. Disruption and lapses in the continuum of

children's development often set in during this phase of life between the transition from home and school as children are most vulnerable to exposure to negative stimulation and neglect (Yoshikawa et al., 2013). McCoy et al.(2017) assert that ECCD centres play an important role in laying strong foundations for lifelong learning in all aspects of education including literacy, numeracy, creativity, science, arts, movement, moral, spiritual, social, cultural, and livelihood skills development through formally organized settings and developmentally appropriate approaches to education. Shonkoff (2010) also posits that there is increasing evidence that children starting strong in their learning and well being have better outcomes when they grow older.

According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), quality in ECCD centres constitute two key aspects; structural quality and process quality. Structural quality includes learning materials, curriculum, facilitator education, and facilitator-child ratio, while process quality emphasize the more dynamic aspects of early childhood education, including human interactions occurring in the centres such as facilitator-child and child-to-child interactions. The definition of quality in ECCD centres is founded on the goal of holistic development and encompasses four specific domains including, child safety and well being; addressing developmental needs of children; encouragement and support for active engagement of children; and engagement of parents and communities in the programme.

The holistic assessment of ECCD centres in line with the quality framework is critical to obtaining explicit evidence on the state of ECCD centres and to provide practical feedback to Dzongkhags and ECCD centres as well as to incorporate critical interventions in the design of programmes at various levels. The assessment was therefore designed and carried out to address the following research questions:

- i. To what extent are ECCD centres in Bhutan meeting the requirements for quality centres?
- ii. How are ECCD centres faring in fostering quality learning environment?
- iii. What are the key determinants of quality in ECCD centres?

2. Objectives

Based on the research question, the objectives have been framed:

- to assess the quality of ECCD centres using the lenses of the holistic quality framework
- to assess the extent to which ECCD centres in Bhutan are achieving quality in their programmes
- to generate evidences on the strengths and weaknesses of ECCD centre programmes

3. Methodology

The study has employed a mixed research method involving both qualitative and quantitative design and data collection. The quantitative aspect was conducted making use of the existing quantitative instrument called the quality monitoring tool for ECCD centres (QMTEC), which has a detailed questionnaire with data generated using an excel sheet.

The questionnaire is divided into four areas of the ECCD centre quality framework which is further specified into 29 indicators. The scoring for each of the indicators is done within a scale of one to four and descriptions provided for each score for clarity of rating. For example, the score of 1 Indicates not at all achieved, which means that there is no evidence that any effort has been made to achieve the monitoring indicator. The score of 2 Indicates almost achieved, which means some efforts to achieve the monitoring indicator are observed, although not yet enough to achieve the indicator and some additional work is required to ensure the indicator is achieved. The score of 3 indicates that the minimum requirement for quality is achieved which indicates that there is consistent evidence indicator has been successfully reached in the learning environment. The score of 4 indicates that the centre has exceeded the minimum requirement, which means that there is evidence that the centre has consistently worked to achieve excellence.

Apart from the quantitative aspect, the qualitative approach is utilized to gather data through interviews with parents and children, as well as focus group discussions with parents and members of the centre management committee. The qualitative approach provides insights into the processes, mechanisms and challenges related to the practical implementation of the programmes.

4. Analysis and Findings of the Assessment

4.1. ECCD Demography and Enrolment

A total of 408 ECCD centres in 20 Dzongkhags were assessed using the quality monitoring tool, out of which 379 were community ECCD centres, 1 NGO centre, 10 private centres and 15 work place-based centres. The data generated through the analysis contributes to identifying strengths, weaknesses or gaps in learning environment across the different types of ECCD centres by four quality guiding principles and their corresponding indicators in enhancing holistic approach to quality education. Across 408 ECCD centres the enrollment figure of children between the ages of 3-5 years stands at 8329 in absolute numbers. Of the total number, 4248 were girls and 4081 were boys.

4.2. Learning Environment and Support System

In examining the context of the learning environments across the ECCD centres, data was not only collected on the four quality areas but also on the types of interventions that exist and is currently accessible to the ECCD centres. These include some of the core components of child protection, health and nutrition, access to trained facilitators, the level of community support and engagement.

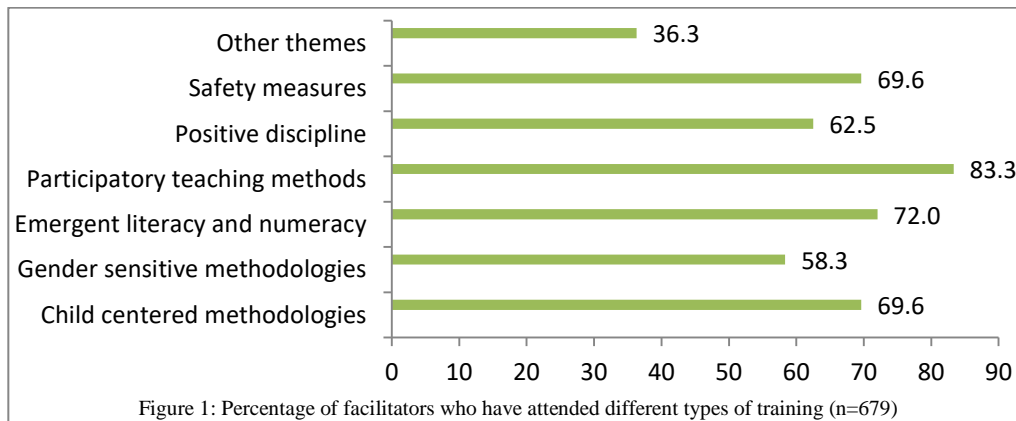
4.2.1. Learning Materials:

Learning materials are critical to quality in ECCD centres and the performance of children in ECCD centres (Monda, 2012). According to the operational guidelines for ECCD centres, materials should include commercially acquired toys, books and materials, as well as locally produced resources produced using low cost and no cost environmentally friendly materials. It was found in this assessment that 96% of the centres have adequate learning materials while only 15 ECCD centres did not have sufficient learning materials. The lack of materials in old centres according to the facilitators interviewed was because of the fact that a material package was supplied at the inception of the centre and no replenishments were made thereafter or no initiatives taken to produce materials locally, with parents' involvement.

4.2.2. Professional capacity of ECCD facilitators

Professional capacity of ECCD facilitators is an important aspect of quality and lack of trained facilitators could impede the quality of learning experiences for children and the management of the centres. The data on basic ECCD training as shown in figure 3 highlights the capacity and training of ECCD facilitators in the different components of their professional areas and competencies.

While most of the facilitators are trained in the two-week intensive basic training and some amount of refresher training in specific subject areas, some facilitators would not have had such opportunities, which is why there are gaps in their capacity as indicated in the chart. Besides, many facilitators have undergone the ECCD Diploma programme in Paro College of Education. Figure 1 presents the overview and diversity of knowledge and skills the ECCD centre facilitators in these centres bring in delivering quality ECCD programme for children. More than 80% of the facilitators have been trained in delivering participatory teaching methods while only 58% have been trained in gender sensitive teaching methodologies.



4.2.3. Parent and Community Involvement in ECCD Centres

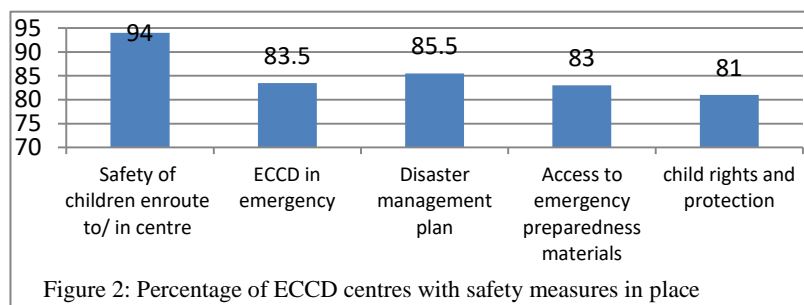
Even though ECCD centres are professionally supervised by parent schools under the administrative control of local governments, the centres are managed collectively by centre management committees that comprises of members such as the Gup, Tshogpa, Parent School Principal, Health Worker, ECCD Facilitator and Parents. Furthermore, ECCD centres are also mandated to carry out regular parenting education sessions and material development workshops involving the community. Therefore, community and parent involvement in ECCD centres is mandatory.

In the analysis on parents and community engagement in different activities and the role ECCD centres play in making programmes more participatory and responsive in support of children's learning, currently more than 90% of the ECCD centres have centre management committees and implement parenting education programmes. Community participation takes place through active engagement of community leaders and parents in various activities and events in the ECCD centre.

4.2.4. Child Safety and Wellbeing

Safety and protection of children enrolled in the centres is central to their well-being. If children do not feel safe and protected, their ability to engage in learning and interaction is compromised (Gillham & Thompson, 2005). Therefore, ECCD centres have the responsibility of ensuring that children are safe both in the centres and en route to the centres. Considering the threat of imminent disasters such as earthquakes and fire, measures should be in place to ensure adequate preparation and risk reduction. Another important aspect of safety is ensuring that children are protected from abuse and exploitation.

Figure 2 presents the percentage of ECCD centres with the level of safety measures in place enabling not only a safe physical environment but also ensuring a



learning environment that meets children’s emotional and psychosocial needs. While more than 94% of the centres ensure protection of children to and from the ECCD centre, only about 80% of the centres are equipped with safety measures that protect children from natural disasters and other forms of exploitation.

4.2.5. Health and Nutrition

Health and nutrition are central to children’s well-being and healthy development (Underdown, 2006). Quality ECCD centre must have adequate health and sanitation facilities as well as linkage with local health facilities for support services such as vaccination, health monitoring, micro-nutrient intervention and health education. The data from the monitoring of ECCD centres show that more than 85% of the ECCD centres have established linkages with a local health facility, indicating the existence of consistent health services. It is evident that 85.5% of the centres have WASH (Water, sanitation and hygiene) programmes, which is also indication that there are proper WASH facilities in these centres and WASH education and utilization are in place.

4.3. Four Areas of ECCD Quality Framework

As articulated in the quality framework, the principal aim is to support a holistic approach to deliver quality education by promoting high quality learning environment. The assessment of existing learning environments across the ECCD centres corresponding to the four guiding principles or the quality criteria is presented in the subsequent figures below.

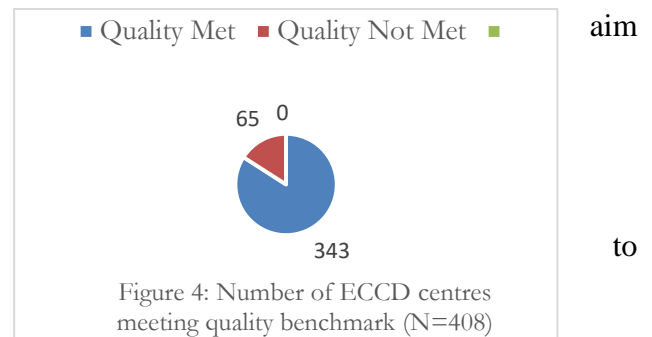
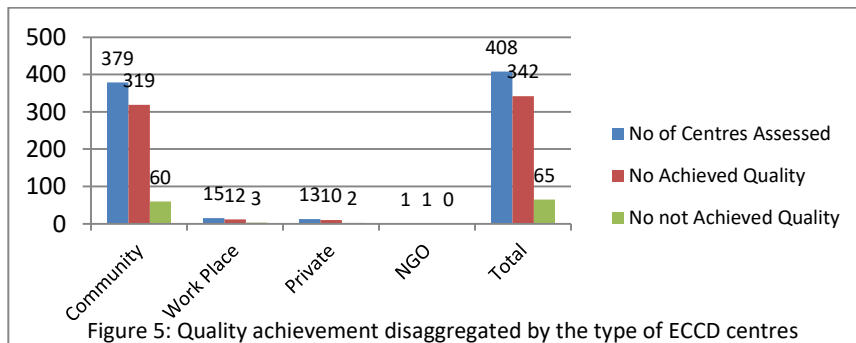


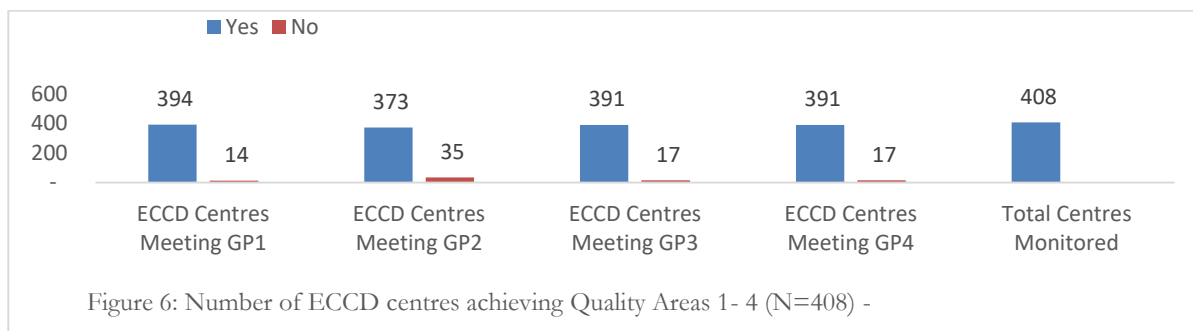
Figure 3: Percentage of centres with Health Linkages

Figure 4 shows only 84% of the total ECCD centres monitored have met the quality benchmark. An ECCD centre meets the quality criteria if it meets all the four guiding principles or quality criteria. A guiding principle is met if an ECCD centre meets 50% of the indicators corresponding to each guiding principle. Further figure 4 shows that 16% of the ECCD centres demonstrate structural weaknesses or quality gaps in one or more of the four or all the guiding principles.

Figure 5 highlights the analysis of quality benchmark achievement disaggregated by type of ECCD centres. Of the 408 ECCD centres monitored, 343 ECCD centres have achieved quality threshold results and 65 have not achieved quality benchmark, including 319 community ECCD centres, 12 work place based centres, 10 private centres only one NGO ECCD centre.



The breakdown by each of the four areas or guiding principles is presented in Figure 6. All of the centres assessed did reasonably well in all the four areas and there is also consistency in the achievement levels in the four areas.



The results indicate that corresponding to guiding principle or quality area one, 96.5% of ECCD centres assessed, created safe and protective environments for young children thereby ensuring wellbeing of the children through safe and protective learning environment (e.g. play and learning area is safe for all children; the environment is free of abuse or humiliating punishment; safe drinking water is accessible for all).

With regard to guiding principle 2, 91.4% of the ECCD centres assessed demonstrate that the centres meet the physical, social-emotional, linguistic and cognitive developmental needs of young children (e.g. children are active and engage in gross motor activities; facilitators are trained in child rights; ECCD facilitators/ caregivers use home language of the majority of children; activities and routines promote child's development of skills such as reasoning, higher order thinking, and problem solving skills).

Similarly, 95.8 % of the ECCD centres assessed achieved guiding principle or quality area 3. This demonstrates that these centres created enabling environment for children through supporting and encouraging active engagement, implemented child centred teaching-learning that improved learning outcomes of all children (e.g. ECCD facilitators are present for their sessions; facilitator develops age appropriate schedule of activities and routines and follows this routine; ethical guidelines or "code of conduct" for appropriate behavior are in place for ECCD facilitators).

The 95.8% of ECCD centres assessed indicates that centres actively collaborate with parents and local community members in planning, managing, decision making and improving early education for their children (e.g. ECCD Management Committee exists and represents a cross-section of the community; parenting education sessions are regularly conducted; facilitators actively engage parents in ongoing communication and collaboration to assess, plan, and implement activities with children).

The distribution of the achievement of quality in all the four areas or guiding principles disaggregated by Dzongkhags is as presented in gure 7 below. The analysis indicates that all of the 20 Dzongkhags have fared well in terms of maintaining quality in all respects. The weakest area (GP 2) which scored 91.4%, indicates that the support for children’s development in all of the domains is deficient and inconsistent, thereby indicating lack of facilitators’ capacity and need for further professional development in these areas.

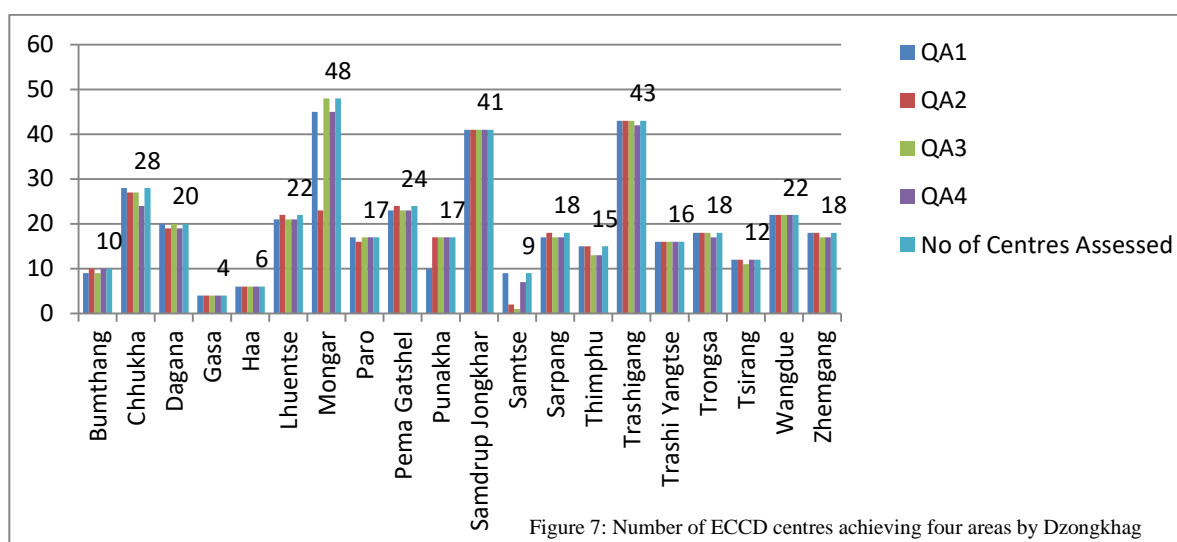


Figure 8 highlights the analysis of the ECCD centres that have achieved each of the four areas or the guiding principles disaggregated by type of ECCD centre. All other types of centres achieved quality area one, except community ECCD centres, where only 4% of the centres have not achieved quality benchmark. Private and work place based ECCD centres fared well in area one and three while they are weaker in areas two and four, which are concerned with support for developmental needs and parent involvement. On the whole, achievement in all the four areas across all types of ECCD centres is above par, with all scores above 80%.

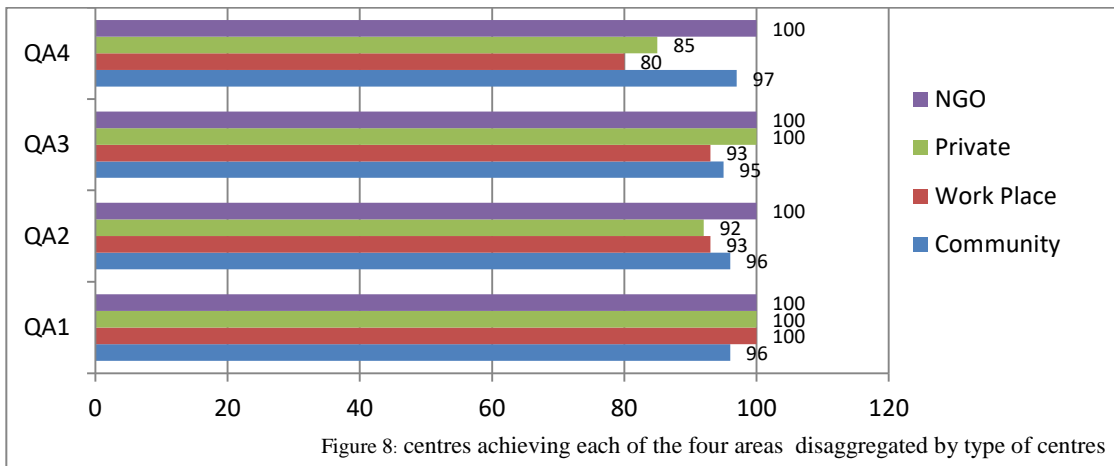


Figure 8: centres achieving each of the four areas disaggregated by type of centres

Figure 9 below features the analysis of quality area one by specific indicators. Area one has five indicators of which 76% of the centres assessed have achieved indicator 1.1, 94% achieved indicator 1.2 and 1.3, while 89% achieved indicator 1.4 and 97% achieved indicator 1.5.

As shown in figure 9, with only 76% of centres achieving indicator 1.1 as compared to the other indicators, the suggestion is that not all ECCD centres have adequate space or area for learning activities that are safe and comfortable. Indicator 1.2 which concerns availability of safe drinking water scoring 89% indicates that the majority of the centres provide safe drinking water for children. Similarly, indicator 1.3 which also scored 89% indicate that only about 27 of the 208 ECCD centres have issues with availability of toilets. Indicator 1.4 concerns distance to ECCD centres, where 44 of the 208 ECCD centres assessed have issues. The fact that 12 ECCD centres have issues with abusive behaviours as indicated in indicator 1.5, suggest that unacceptable behaviour management practices exist in some centres.

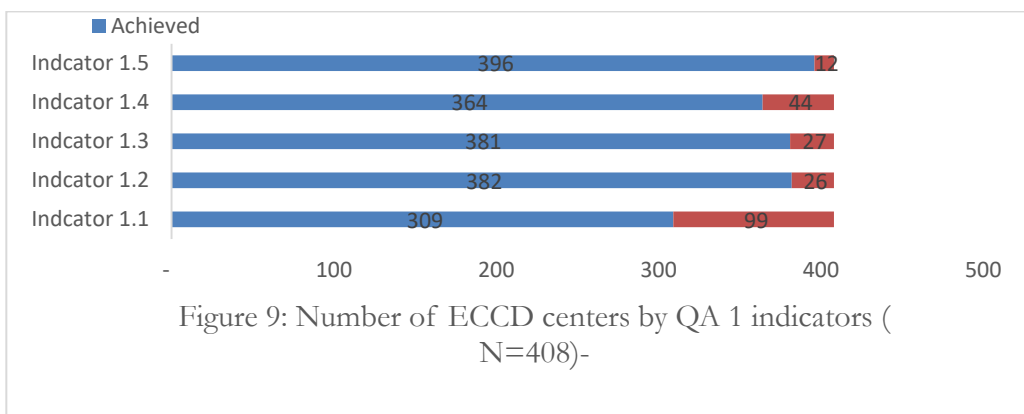


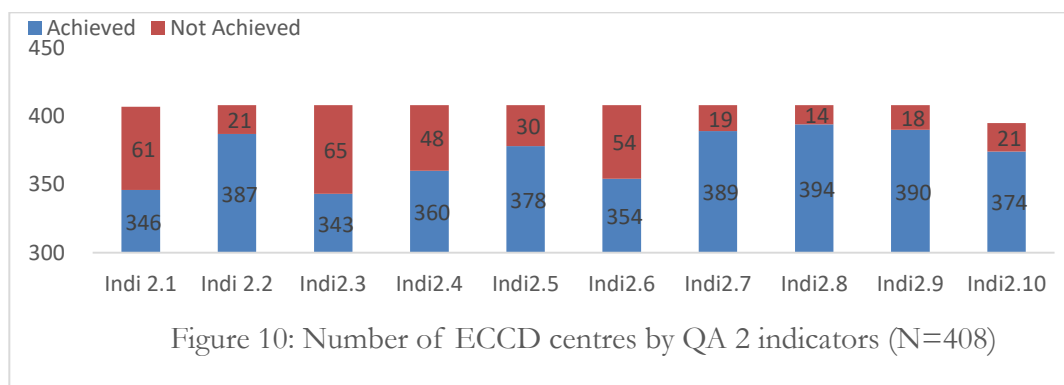
Figure 9: Number of ECCD centers by QA 1 indicators (N=408)-

Figure 10 below illustrates the analysis of quality area 2 by specific indicators. Quality Area 2 has ten indicators. 85 percent of the centres assessed have achieved indicator 2.1; 95% achieved indicator 2.2; 84% achieved indicator 2.3; 88% achieved indicator 2.4; 93% achieved indicator 2.5; 87% achieved indicator 2.6; 95% achieved indicator 2.7; 97% achieved indicator 2.8; 96% achieved indicator 2.9 and

92% achieved indicator 2.10.

As elaborated in figure 10, with only 85% of centres achieving indicator 2.1 as compared to the other indicators, the suggestion is that children in about 61 centres do not have adequate opportunity to engage in diverse gross motor physical activities such as running, climbing and crawling which are critical to physical development. Indicator 2.2 which relates to opportunities for engagement in fine motor development activities suggests that about 21 ECCD centres do not have sufficient time and resources allocated for fine motor activities. Data on indicator 2.3, there suggests that 65 ECCD centres do not have proper linkage with health services and therefore do not have regular health services provided for children. The fact that 48 centres have not fulfilled indicator 2.4 validates that children do not engage in skills-based health education in these centres. Indicator 2.5 concerns emotional development, where about 30 centres have not met the quality requirement. This suggests that there are not many opportunities for children to engage in regular interactions with peers and facilitators to develop their ability to express and regulate emotions and behaviour. The fact that 54 centres have not met indicator 2.6 suggests that these many facilitators do not have knowledge or training on child rights and protection. Indicator 2.7 relates to use of home language in ECCD centres to boost children's motivation and confidence to open up, express and communicate, where 19 centres have not met the requirement. Similarly, indicator 2.8 concerns creating a language rich environment in the centre and stimulating oral language development, where 14 centres have not met the standard.

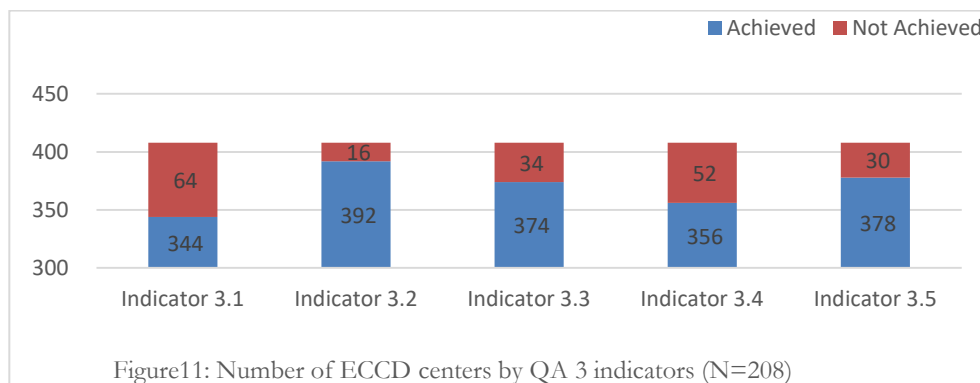
Indicator 2.9 concerns promoting cognitive stimulation and development of skills such as reasoning and problem solving through consistent schedules and opportunities for active learning. 18 centres have not met this indicator suggesting that there are no opportunities for such stimulating activities and experiences. Indicator 2.10 relates to promotion of emergent literacy and numeracy, where 21 centres have not met the benchmark. This suggests that activities and learning experiences that develop literacy and numeracy are either not practiced at all or not adequate.



The findings of quality area 3 by specific indicators are highlighted in figure 11 below. This quality area has five indicators that aim at enhancing active engagement of children, child centred teaching and

improving learning outcomes of children. The data show that 84% of the centres assessed have achieved indicator 3.1 while 96% achieved indicator 3.2; 92% achieved indicator 3.3; 87% achieved indicator 3.4 and 93% achieved indicator 3.5.

While the majority of the ECCD centres assessed have achieved these indicators, it is also evident that some centres have not achieved all of the indicators. The fact that 64 ECCD centres have not achieved indicator 3.1 demonstrates that ECCD facilitators are not regularly in ECCD centres for various reasons or that there are not enough facilitators in centres as per existing ratios. The issue could be attributed to a shortage of ECCD facilitators in many centres considering rigid recruitment policies and Dzongkhag Education Offices challenged with deployment of facilitators as acknowledged by the Ministry of Education. The indicator 3.2 examines if ECCD Facilitators have developed plans and routines for effective operation of the centres. The fact that only 16 centres have failed to meet this requirement indicates that there are proper plans and schedules prepared and that plans are effectively implemented by the facilitators in majority of the centres. Indicator 3.3 scrutinizes practices related to assessment of learning outcomes to ensure that children progress in their development. In this regard, only 34 centres have not met the standard, indicating lack of developmentally appropriate assessment and documentation practices. The indicator 3.4 looks at if ECCD facilitators are provided with support to enhance their professional capacity and practice, where it has been found that such support is lacking in about 54 centres. The indicator 3.5 examines if there is a code of conduct for ECCD facilitators and if it is effectively implemented. The data shows that 30 ECCD centres have not met the requirement, indicating that the requirement to sign the code of conduct made in these centres.



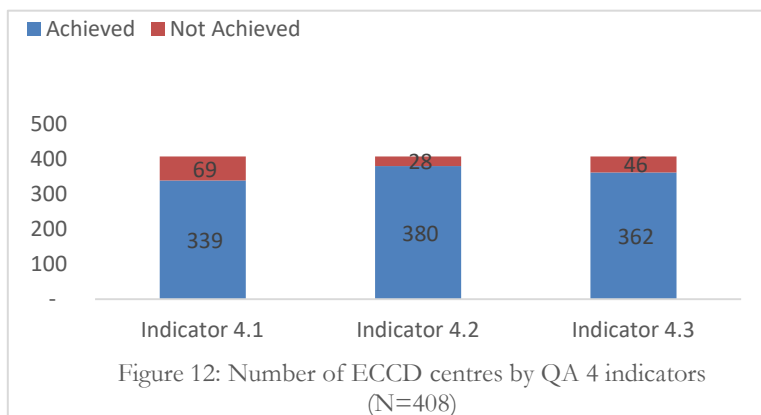
The figure 12 below examines the quality area four by indicators. This particular area focuses on how effectively ECCD centres collaborate with parents and local communities and how their active involvement in planning and decision-making helps improve ECCD centre programme. The data show 83% of the centres assessed have achieved indicator 4.1 while 93% achieved indicator 4.2 and 89% achieved indicator 4.3.

While the majority of the ECCD centres assessed have achieved the indicators it is also evident that

some centres have not achieved all of the indicators. The fact that 69 ECCD centres have not achieved indicator 4.1 validates that ECCD centres are not engaging communities and families effectively in the ECCD programmes in the centres, even as parents' involvement is central to the quality of programmes. Lack of communication and engagement with parents could impede support for centres as well as learning outcomes of children as the gap between centre and home could lead to lack of understanding of the ECCD programme on the part of the parents and a lack of awareness of the social and cultural environment of children on the part of the facilitators.

The indicator 4.2 emphasizes need for parenting education as an import aspect of the ECCD centre programme and 28 centres have not met the quality standard in this context. The fact that these centres did not meet the requirement indicates the lack of consistent efforts to promote parenting education. Parenting education interventions have multidimensional benefits for parents not just in improving their own parenting skills and child care practices, but also in enhancing their own knowledge and skills related to health, nutrition, protection of children, well-being, and responsibilities.

The indicator 4.3 examines if ECCD centres have centre management committees instituted to support the management, operation and sustainability of centres. The fact that 46 centres failed to meet this indicator validates that centre management committees are either not existent or not effective in these



centres. The centre management committee is pivotal in enhancing the management of centres whereby the committees contribute significantly to mobilizing parents' participation in the centre and exploring resources, as much as helping in the planning, implementation and review of programmes in the ECCD centres.

5. Conclusion

Considering that 105 of the existing 513 ECCD centres, particularly in the four Thromdes, were not assessed for quality, there is a need to strengthen coordination for consistent monitoring of ECCD centres and strategies to improve the monitoring mechanism by way of capacity building of field monitors and DEOs, and digitizing the data entry and compilation system.

As quality of ECCD centres is dependent largely on the capacity of ECCD Facilitators, there is a need to strengthen support for professional development of ECCD Facilitators through refreshers trainings and in-service trainings such as diploma in ECCD.

Furthermore, given that support for ECCD centres by local governments, parent schools and Dzongkhag

Education are not consistent across the 20 Dzongkhags and four Thromdes, there is a need to strengthen accountability for all stakeholders towards ECCD Centres, with clarity of roles and responsibilities in the operational guidelines and assessment tools. Furthermore, the accountability of ECCD Facilitators and parent schools need to be clearly defined and strengthened.

As close to 15 percent of community ECCD centres do not have proper WASH facilities, as evident from the assessment, there is a need to provide proper toilets and sanitation facilities in these centres.

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