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**EXAMINING THE ISSUE OF QUALITY IN EDUCATION:
A PAPUA NEW GUINEA CASE STUDY**

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ABSTRACT

The issue of quality in education in Papua New Guinea (PNG) has been around since the 1970s. This paper provides some discussions on attributes that support the notion of quality within the PNG education system. The report is grounded in a qualitative case study that used the constructivism lenses to interpret data drawn from the author's teaching experiences and PhD thesis (Joskin, 2013). Data consisted of: document analysis, structured interviews, focus group discussions, lesson observations, field notes, and post-observation interviews. The content and thematic analysis were applied deductively and inductively to help interpret meanings. Findings revealed that, to evaluate the issue of quality in education; those in educational leadership roles would need to examine the issue from three dimensions: inputs into the system, processes within, and outputs. Consequently, these would have impacts on capacity building of students schooled in the PNG systems.

Keywords: Papua New Guinea; quality in education; education change; capacity building

INTRODUCTION

Papua New Guinea (PNG) is a developing Melanesian country in the Pacific. According to the literature, historical accounts of the past have influenced the development of the PNG education system (Joskin, 2013; Thomas, 1976). That is, prior to the European contact in the 1800s, PNG societies had diverse informal education systems (Narokobi, 1983; Nongkas, 2007). Literature noted that the contents for teaching and learning were needs based according to contexts, and lessons were informally conducted (Joskin, 2013; Smith, 1975). Teaching strategies were derived from stories, life experiences and wisdoms of tribal elders, and specialists of respective indigenous knowledge (McLaughline & O'Donoghue, 1996 cited in Nongkas, 2007). Learning consisted of direct instructions where pupils listened, observed, and did hands on practical activities; and because PNG was traditionally (and still is) an oral society, knowledge was passed through means of stories, and folklores (Narokobi, 1983; Waiko, 1993). Hence, traditional education in PNG

resonated with a teacher-centred approach, whereby village teachers verbally instructed, guided, and mentored youths into learning appropriate skills and knowledge required for survival in traditional PNG contexts (Joskin, 2013; Nongkas, 2007).

Interestingly, traditional pedagogy in PNG was said to be similar to rote learning, an instructional approach used in formal learning systems (Nongkas, 2007). That is, learners kept silent while knowledgeable adults taught them things till they had acquired skills that were being taught. Moreover, traditional assessment tested pupils' replicating works, expertise and methods like weaving mats, hunting, fishing and so forth (Joskin, 2013). Thereon, students practically applied the content of their learning (skills) into daily activities as contributing members of respective societies. Hence, the contention in the 1970s that traditional learning had no failures, because learning of content, skills and knowledge was for survival needs (Nongkas, 2007; Tololo 1975). Additionally, if shortfalls occurred, extended family kinships stepped in, as it was a common PNG societal practice (Narokobi, 1983), or welfare system, and life for many traditional villages in that space and time. Therefore, the argument arising from the 1970s that traditional learning in the PNG contexts resonated with life-long learning (Matane, 1986; Tololo, 1975).

Contrastingly, when formal education was introduced into PNG, learning for indigenous students took a different focus. Thus, formal education has been alluded to as being an introduced concept, because of modernisation (Gunthrie, 2014; Thomas, 1976). Learning in formal contexts began with the arrival of Christian Missionaries (London Missionary Society, Catholic, Lutheran, Anglican, and Seventh Day Adventist etc.), and the colonial administrators in the 1800s. The former commenced formal education in 1874, with goals of converting indigenous people into Christianity, thus, taught reading skills for bible reading purposes, but; was limited in terms of literacy functions (Smith, 1987). Similarly, the colonial administrations of Germany (New Guinea Region), and Great Britain, then Australia (the Papuan Region) also set up formal education to serve their own interests for administrative purposes; that also had limited purposes (Louisson, 1974, cited in Nongkas, 2007; Smith, 1975).

In summary, the differences of goals and types of formal education provided during the 1800s, and later, from the 1940s till the 1970s, would pose challenges for the contemporary PNG Education

System in the post-independence era when reforms were initiated in the 1990s and 2000s as discussions will later show.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This paper discusses the concepts: *input*s, *processes*, and *outputs* to show how the PNG National Department of Education (NDOE) attempted to address - Quality in Education (QIE) when the system implemented education reform in the 1990s and 2000s.

The agenda, QIE has been around since colonialisation. In 1974, at the 'Eight Waigani Seminar', Tololo (1975) argued that formal education in PNG was problematic. Thus, fast forward to the present (2022), and; it is from this background, and, 48 years' after the Eight Waigani Seminar; that I, indigenous female educator reflect on the issue of QIE in the paper.

Defining QIE

This section reviews QIE as cited from a global, regional, and national perspective (this is not exhaustive).

Records, over the last 25 years show that there have been much discussions for countries to provide quality basic education for children as an obligation under the Convention on Children's Rights (UNESCO, 2005; UNICEF, 2000). This links back to the notion that education is a right for all people as aptly captured in 'Article 26' of 'The United Nations (UN) Universal Declaration of Human Rights' (United Nations, 1948). Hence, the idea of Universal Primary Education (UPE) is entwined into - 'Article 26', and, thus; the notion of QIE (UNESCO, 2005). That hindsight was a global direction for countries to follow.

Subsequently, the issue (QIE) got re-ignited by international reforms of the mid-1990s, and, that propelled the matter onto the world stage (Delors Report, 1996; Fullan, 2007). Apparently, Education for All (EFA) was the global agenda reiterating calls for countries to provide QIE. EFA was a treaty signed in 1990 in Jomtien, Thailand, and re-asserted in 2000 in Dakar, Senegal; EFA emphasised Universal Basic Education (UBE); and, it is argued that UBE is a UN indicator for measuring countries' achievements of the Millennium Development Goals (Coxon & Tolley, 2005). Moreover, the concept – QIE also captures issues of education access, and retention (Bentley, 2010). In short, global education agenda guided UN member countries to align their

national education frameworks within international requirements, and so PNG was no exception to that global education agenda (Joskin, 2019).

Interestingly, literature reveals subjective interpretations to the word – quality, and, especially when trying to describe education systems (UNESCO, 2005). For instance, UNICEF (2000) broadly describes QIE as involving:

- Learners who are healthy, well-nourished and ready to participate and learn, and supported in learning by their families and communities;

- Environments that are healthy, safe, protective and gender-sensitive, and provide adequate resources and facilities;

- Content that is reflected in relevant curricula and materials for the acquisition of basic skills, especially in the areas of literacy, numeracy and skills for life, and knowledge in such areas as gender, health, nutrition, HIV/AIDS prevention and peace;

- Processes through which trained teachers use child-centred teaching approaches in well-managed classrooms and schools and skillful assessment to facilitate learning and reduce disparities;

- Outcomes that encompass knowledge, skills and attitudes, and are linked to national goals for education and positive participation in society.

(Source: UNICEF, 2000, p, 3)

UNICEF considers learners to be important in an education system. Arguably teachers' roles are equally significant and that meaning is also captured above in the five listed bullet points. Nevertheless, UNICEF's definition highlights the complexity of trying to de-contextualise the concept, as aspirations for QIE can be deeply embedded into the cultural, social, political, religious, and economic fabrics of society (Kennedy, 1996); thus, making it challenging.

Furthermore, another global view champions education as a tool for achieving life-long learning in the 21st century (Delors Report, 1996). UNESCO commissioned the Delors Report and stressed that education was important as in this quotation: 'Education: the necessary Utopia'. This remark implies that education improves life, so national systems need to aim for social, economic, spiritual, and personal development for their citizens. Moreover, the Report describes education as: Learning to know, learning to do, learning to be, and learning to live together so that children

can reach their fullest potential in terms of "cognitive, emotional, and creative capacities" (UNESCO, 2005, p. 30). Thereby, the Delors Report alluded for changes to teaching approaches, teaching and learning worldviews, curriculum design and implementation as examples of features needed for supporting QIE.

Contrastingly, the Pacific Region has more meanings for describing QIE. Sanga and Taufe'ulungaki (2005) stressed that developmental aid is also entwined into regional educational dialogues. Pacific educators are mindful that those who critique developmental aid may have "benefitted one way or another" (Thaman, 2005, p. 3). Nonetheless, most Pacific Island Countries (PICs) have gained from educational aid because of historical ties to self-government, and colonisation (Sanga, 2005). The PNG curriculum reform is one such example. Interestingly, Sanga reminds us that human capacity building is a related issue under educational developmental aid. That is, "majority of the region's educational leaders went to schools and universities under aid programmes" (2005, p. 19). Therefore, development aid and capacity building of human resource also defines QIE for the PICs.

Furthermore, another regional observation noted teachers' roles as important for QIE discussions (Daudau, 2010). Teachers' roles refer to worldviews and knowledge on teaching and learning. For instance, Thaman (2013) believes teachers need to be well-grounded in respective PICs cultural frameworks for QIE to be realised in the 21st century. That point is important, but, also raises other related issues like teacher trainings, and pedagogical knowledge for those in decision making positions to take into consideration when initiating, implementing, and managing educational changes (Joskin, 2013; Sanga, 2009). Similarly, qualifications, resources, technology savvy, curriculum design, employment terms and conditions are other factors related to QIE, and, those may also impact teachers' reactions to educational reforms (Markee, 1997). For example, some PICs studies noted that educational changes at different levels, did not achieve intended results because teachers roles in the change processes were not managed accordingly. Those were: Solomon Islands, (Daudau, 2010), PNG (Joskin, 2013), and Fiji (Ruru, 2010). Hence, teachers' roles are crucial as that either enhances or hinders PICs striving for QIE.

Nationally, the notion of QIE in PNG dates back to colonialisation (Guthrie, 2014). The NDOE was established in the early 1970s, and according to Bray (1984), the NDOE is a highly

decentralised system. Since the inception was during pre-independence, critiques argued that the then NDOE was modelled on a foreign framework, inherited from the colonial legacy (Tololo, 1975). Tololo asserted that formal schooling during the pre - to post - independence period (1975), was seen to be preparing citizens for white collar employment; and was not preparing indigenous students with appropriate skills and knowledge to sustain themselves back in their villages. Similarly, other PNG studies conducted after Tololo were of the same view (Solon & Solon, 2006).

Consequently, after Tololo (1975), a Ministerial Committee was established to review QIE issues prevalent in the NDOE (Franken & August, 2011). The committee termed the Matane Report (1986) was considered the Policy that chartered PNG's educational reforms in the 1990s (Department of Education, 2001; Nongkas, 2007). Subsequently, other studies also called for systemic changes to be made to the NDOE (Department of Education, 2001; Kenehe, 1981). Thus, Integral human development, elicited from the National Constitution, was the vision envisaged for the PNG education system (Matane, 1986). Hence, in 1991, a systems review was done, and reforms were recommended for addressing QIE (Department of Education, 1991). Arguably, the reform proposal was concurrent with the global educational agenda of the 1990s (Fullan, 2007). Hence, the NDOE's visions were seen to be meeting national and international goals.

In summary, the notion of QIE has subjective interpretations; but, needs to be aligned within national and global requirements.

DISCUSSIONS
The terms: Inputs, processes, and outputs are discussed to show how the NDOE addressed QIE through those three concepts.

Inputs
Inputs refer to structural and curriculum changes (Joskin, 2013).

Structural changes
The structural reform of the 1990s was the first input on a large scale for the NDOE to address QIE (Department of Education, 1991). Fullan (2007) describes structural changes happening for purposes of improvement. The prior model was a 6-2-2-2 structure covering different stages, within and across community, high school, and senior secondary. Previously, students started

community school at seven or eight years old in grade one to grade six (personal observation). Then, students had to sit national grade six examinations for placements into high schools for grades seven and eight. Students who did not make it to high schools were left to their parents to find alternate schools for them (Joskin, 2013). Similarly, at the end of grade eight, students sat internal examinations for placements into grades nine and ten (Ibid). At the end of year ten, students sat national examinations again for grades eleven and, then, finally, at the end of grade twelve, there were national examinations for tertiary enrolments. Overall, the former 6-2-2-2 structure was examination oriented, with three nationals, and one internal; but, gave children six years of basic community school education (Department of Education, 1991).

Contrastingly, the reform structure is a 9-2-2 model. The framework gives emphasis to early childhood learning at six or seven years of age; with basic education to grade eight learning (Joskin, 2013). This model resonates with global discussions on EFA and UBE on addressing QIE issues (UNESCO, 2005). Hence, students do first three years of elementary learning, then do bridging from elementary three to primary grades four (lower) through to eight (upper primary). Then, national grade eight examinations are done for placements into secondary education. At the secondary levels, grades nine and ten are lower secondary, while grades eleven and twelve are upper secondary. Repeatedly, there are two national examinations at the secondary level: grade ten and grade twelve (Ibid). Hence, the reform structure of 9-2-2 is also examination oriented with three national examinations (similar to the 6-2-2-2). In summary, national examination practices remains imbedded within the NDOE and the 9-2-2 model is consistent with global discussions on EFA and UBE as means of achieving QIE.

Curriculum Change

The curriculum reform of the 2000s was the second input for the NDOE to address QIE (Department of Education, 2003). Curricula changes occur to improve teaching and learning situations (Bentley, 2010; Fullan, 2007). The NDOE adopted Outcomes-Based Education (OBE), and, an Australian Development Aid Project (CRIP) funded the PNG curriculum reform (Joskin, 2013). Interestingly, due to a recent political decision, OBE was later abandoned in 2013. Nevertheless, Spady (1994; 1998), asserted that OBE as a model has three applications: A systemic structure, a theory, and, an instructional strategy. Arguably, all three features were adopted into the PNG context for addressing QIE (Joskin, 2013).

As a systemic structure, OBE requires a comprehensive approach to organising education systems, and, Spady (1994) clearly stated that governments are responsible for that. As a theory and instructional strategy, OBE requires significant changes to teachers' pedagogical worldviews within education systems. For instance, OBE emphasises a student-centred learning philosophy. Similarly, students need to demonstrate learning of required skills / content as learning outcomes. Spady (1994) theorises that the Outcomes-Based Curriculum (OBC) is based on constructivist thinking, asserting that students are not independent from their learning environments; learners create knowledge and meanings from interactions between their experiences, or from their social contexts (Creswell, 2009).

However, evidence showed that OBE as a theory, and instructional strategy, differed from the teacher-centred approach to which most PNG teachers trained in before the 1990s education reform (Joskin, 2013; Nongkas, 2007). Furthermore, a teacher-centred approach also resonated with the informal way of learning in traditional PNG contexts; which were cultural practices embedded in indigenous societies. Seemingly OBE discourages traditional teaching based on direct instruction of facts and standard methods (Spady, 1994). Consequently, the OBC was not harmonised with the previous objective based curriculum philosophy (Joskin, 2012; 2013). Similarly, other evidence also reported that ownership of the OBC was problematic (Joskin, 2011) because observed practices (see chapters 5 and 6 of Joskin, 2013) were not according to policy intentions (Department of Education, 2003; 2006).

Interestingly, literature also revealed that OBE was a systemic UN model for alleviating education issues globally (Cobb, Fa'avae, & Joskin, 2022; Coxon & Tolley, 2005). Hence, this can be problematic as the notion of, *'One shoe size cannot fit all'* (Joskin, 2019). Ultimately, OBE as a means for achieving EFA and UBE in PNG did not get desired results as reported in the recent 2013 NRI Education Conference (Kaman, 2013; Kukari, 2013; Webster, 2013). Therefore, it was not surprising that OBE was abandoned recently without empirical evidence, but consequently from public emotions (Joskin, 2013). In closing, the structural and curriculum changes were *inputs* for addressing QIE in PNG; that had both positive and negative experiences.

Processes

Processes refer to Professional development (PD) and resources.

Professional development
According to the PNG literature, PD is a significant process needed for assisting teachers implement curriculum changes (Joskin, 2011). PD is a purposeful intervention strategy comprising training and learning obtained from in-service sessions, involving both theoretical and practical concepts. Consequently, PD enhances, empowers, and enriches teachers' worldviews for teaching, learning, research, and assessment (Hall & Irving, 2010).

Arguably, during the OBC implementation process, there was more general education training and informative workshops, but little subject specific PD sessions (see Table 1). That gap resulted in a need for PD to be purposefully conducted to help sustain teachers' knowledge base. For instance, participants in Joskin's study (2013) felt that there should have been more PD sessions for English subject specific teachings than general education workshops. That meaning was consistently elicited from data as this example highlights the dilema: "There's no in-service given in our department" (FGT2-S1) [Source: Joskin 2013, p.209]. Alternatively, the citation also raises issues of schools taking ownership of the curriculum reform. Supporting this, literature stresses that PD helps embed large scale education changes (Irving & Hall, 2010). Moreover, evidence also revealed teachers' uncertainty about theory and practice for the classroom implementation. For instance, "it was a new approach and teachers were not able to get to the bottom of it" (P2 – S2) [Source: Joskin 2013, p.210]. That citation summarises the point that PD is a necessary intervention process for assisting implementation, management and sustaining curriculum changes that would impact systems aiming for QIE.

Table 1: Types of interventions used

- National Curriculum Statement (NDOE, 2003)
- English Syllabus, Lower Secondary School (NDOE, 2006)
- Official notification
- Secondary school inspector's visits
- Train of trainers' workshop
- Curriculum personnel school visits

Source: (Joskin, 2013, p. 210)

Evidence also revealed that PD will help teachers overcome doubts about policy intentions (Joskin, 2013). Teachers felt that the OBC had little change in content matter. The meaning is heard here: "We are still using the old content of the subject" (P2-S2) [Source: Joskin 2013, p.232]. That commentary from the second school principal indicated no change to curriculum, teaching approaches or learning styles. Moreover, it could mean lack of resources, knowledge and so on. Furthermore, it could also infer resistance of change, despite OBE being a policy at that time, because the principal of the first case study school knew that. For example: "It is a policy [OBE] so whether we like it or not, we need to implement it" (P1-S1) [Source: Joskin 2013, p.273]. Interestingly, S1 and staff adopted the change to be in line with policy requirements of taking ownership of the OBC change, as this citation shows: "The National Curriculum will encourage teachers to use different ways of teaching" (Department of Education, 2003, p. 18). Thus, there were contrasting issues of curriculum ownership in the two case studies (Joskin, 2013).

The discussions here show PD as important for teachers to assist implementation processes of curriculum changes aiming to achieve QIE (Joskin, 2013). That evidence was also triangulated from policy documents [National Curriculum Statement, the English Syllabus for Lower Secondary School] (Department of Education, 2003; 2006), and, from eight participating English teachers through focus group discussions, and, on one to one post-observation interviews (Joskin, 2013). Similarly, literature also confirms that PD is an appropriate intervention strategy for embedding education reforms (Hall & Kidman, 2004; Joskin, 2012). Hence, this paper stresses that PD is a vital process for sustaining QIE in national systems.

Resources

Moreover, literature showed that resources were necessary processes for any changes aiming for QIE (Joskin, 2013). Resources refer to things facilitating teaching, learning, assessment, and research activities in schools. Examples are: curriculum materials, teachers' skills and knowledge, understandings of curriculum content, methodological skills and pedagogical values (Ibid). The citation below summarises the thoughts of resources being important for sustaining QIE.

"The blind leading the blind" (FGT2-S1; FGT3-S2)

[Source: Joskin 2013, p.240]

Arguably, availability of resources as an important process was limited during the OBE curriculum change in PNG (Joskin, 2019). The citation above was elicited from both case study sites, and captured frustrations of teachers who implemented the OBC, without having adequate resources for supporting their classroom activities. Thus, lack of teaching resources characterise poor systemic infrastructure which includes planning for, initiating, managing, and implementing change processes. The meaning is best captured in: "Preparation was inadequate (FGT1-S2) [Source: Joskin, 2013, p, 241]. Thus, teachers' negative reactions to the curriculum change when there were little supporting resources for classroom implementation. Seemingly the word 'preparation' refers to the organisations and management issues sighted within change processes. In this discussion, it refers to the NDOE, and the secondary schools involved (Joskin, 2013).

Accordingly, as claimed, resources provided to schools were insufficient; hence, suggesting poor management as revealed here: "Teaching guide and all, there's nothing" (FGT3-S1) [Source: Joskin, 2013, p, 241]. Participants believed teaching guides had to be circulated, as were practices for the previous curriculum (objective based). Apparently, teachers were used to old practices of having teacher guides provided, and were not ready to embrace the idea of curriculum ownership during the change process. Therefore, it is important to consider worldviews of teachers, as that impacts their responses to implementing educational changes. Hence, differences in theoretical worldviews between policy intentions and teachers were noted as factors contributing to a weak measurement of QIE for that context.

Furthermore, findings revealed that participants perceived that the policy directives for supporting the curriculum change were rushed. Consequently, teachers who were already overloaded by classroom duties would continue to maintain old teaching practices, and forgo policy curriculum intentions. For instance: "The new curriculum hasn't got enough information for me to use so I go back to the old text book (FGT3-S2) [Source: Joskin, 2013, p, 242]. That commentary indicated how the secondary school English teachers implemented the OBC. Thus, showing possibility that policy intentions were not fully being realised in classrooms as chapter five from Joskin (2013) pointed out in detail. Therefore, that finding supports the argument presented here that a lack of teaching and learning resources identifies the need for that support to be readily available, so as to cater for curriculum change during implementation processes. Additionally, due to the consequences of inappropriate resources, teachers were stretched in their implementation attempts.

This dilemma was noted in: "We are struggling here" (FGT1-S1) [Source: Joskin, 2013, p, 242]. In closing, resources are important processes for embedding systems aiming for QIE.

Outputs

Outputs refer to graduate profiles that policy envisages for graduates in the different PNG educational levels. Thus, Integral human development (IHD) is the vision intended for PNG graduate profiles. That vision is drawn from the National Constitution, and, got coined into the Matane Report (1986), and more recently into the Vision 2050 Policy Document (National Strategic Plan Task Force, 2009). Interestingly, the PNG vision of 'IHD' resonates with the global education aspirations such as the Delors Report (1996), advocating for education as a means for achieving life-long learning. Hence, an alignment of national goals with global requirements, as PNG is part of the global village.

Nevertheless, the directive for the vision, 'IHD' was also clearly seen in the National Curriculum Statement, and the English Syllabus under the OBE curriculum reforms (Department of Education, 2003; 2006). Those noted education frameworks showed policy intentions for the type of education envisaged for PNG. For instance: "The English Syllabus places emphasis on teaching ethics, morals and values and the integration of subjects to enable students to experience real-life situations" (Department of Education, 2006, p. 5). Hence, the PNG education vision is seen as a tool for meeting the country's needs, as deduced from the above citation; and additionally, also resonates with global requirements of EFA and UBE (UNESCO, 2005). Moreover, the words 'ethics', 'morals', and 'values', contain the meaning of the intended output for 'IHD'. Thereby, it is possible to conclude from those words that developing acceptable behavioural practices for PNG citizens is a current goal of education. Thus, that supports the assumption that education is a tool for meeting the country's developmental needs reiterated by the country's Vision 2050 Statement (National Strategic Plan Task Force, 2009); that is, to educate students to be functional and productive members of society; also a noted learning outcome in the OBC. Therefore, the vision of 'IHD' would equip graduates for purposes of nation building, as having a system that strived for QIE.

Furthermore, "ethics", "morals", and "values" infer the significance of civic education for PNG. The phrase, 'to enable students to experience real-life situations indicates' expectations for the types of graduates envisaged for PNG. Hence, there is a call that changing the teaching content and pedagogical approaches would benefit students in the long term. For example, as students learn issues, they self-discover ("experience") knowledge, which becomes meaningful and relevant ("real-life") to them based on contextual learning. This thought is also captured in one of the curriculum learning aims for students to, "value education as a continuing lifelong process" (Department of Education, 2003, p. 4). Hence, the aim is for the NDOE to educate students about social issues prevalent in society, and to equip learners with appropriate strategies to deal with social issues for the betterment of themselves as individuals, in PNG, and globally. In summary, 'IHD 'is the vision intended as outputs for graduates in the PNG context; that would give a measurement to the concept, QIE. However, classroom practices and teachers' worldviews did impact alignment of policy intentions with classroom realities for satisfactorily achieving QIE with the OBE model (Joskin, 2013).

CONCLUSION

This paper showed that the PNG in her attempts to address the issue of – quality in education, adapted an OBE model during the reform periods of the 1990s – 2000s. The experience was challenging because the model got discarded in 2013 due to a political decision. Nonetheless, the National Department of Education applied structural and curriculum changes as 'inputs'; but the 'processes' of having little subject specific professional development sessions, and little resources impacted classroom practices not to be aligned with policy intentions. Consequently, those may affect outputs of graduate profiles from the national education system aspiring for 'Integral human development'.

In closing, quality in education describes features that need to go into the PNG education system so as to fit the national purpose, goals, or visions for the education system. Furthermore, those goals would have to be aligned with international requirements, as PNG has global affiliations. The features would need to enhance purposes of teaching, learning, research, and reflective interactions between all stakeholders involved either directly or indirectly in the business of teaching and learning. Ultimately, that would mean that policy makers and practitioners have the same vision so as to equip students with appropriate learning outcomes deemed necessary not only

for academic achievement, but also for students' holistic self-development. Consequently, meeting the aspired visions for nation building as descriptively stipulated in the country's 'Vision 2050' Policy (National Strategic Plan Task Force, 2009).

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