INTEGRATED SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM (KBSM):

IMPLEMENTATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ENGLISH SUBJECT AT

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN MALAYSIA

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Abstract

This study was designed to investigate the most recent innovation in the secondary school curriculum in Malaysia known as the KBSM (The Integrated Curriculum for Secondary school), a fundamental change in the curriculum with emphasis on the languages and basic skills.

Teachers teaching English at Form 1 level, principals and personnel were chosen as the subjects of this study. The investigation showed that efforts were made to ensure effective implementation of the new curriculum: Materials for teachers and pupils were produced; training for teachers and other personnel was conducted; on-the-job support for teachers was provided; and the essential administrative, financial and material support was available. However, in certain respects, the adequacy or quality of the provision did not fully meet the standards hoped for, especially in the rural schools. Nonetheless, a number of positive changes had been effected in the classroom, even though the demands on teachers were heavy. The curriculum was considered a 'success' for there was an improvement in pupils' performance and their proficiency in English.

From the findings, it was concluded that a number of issues came to be highlighted. In particular, these relate to the need to take into account variations in interpretation of the proposal, the provision for professional development of teachers and other personnel, the links between administrative and professional matters and the unintended outcomes that a change is likely to bring. It is only through an awareness of such issues and the concerted efforts by all sectors that the success of the KBSM could be assured.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APEID	Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development
ASEAN	Association of South-East Asian Nations
ATEO	Assistant Thana Education Officers
CDC	Curriculum Development Centre
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EPRD	Education Planning and Research Division
ESL	English as a second Language
FMCE	Federation of Malaya Certificate of Education
HSC	Higher School Certificate
IAB	Institut Aminuddin Baki (Aminuddin Baki Institute)
INSET	In-service Education and Training of Teachers
KBSM	Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Menengah (Integrated Secondary School Curriculum)
KP	Key Personnel
L1	Native Language
L2	Second language
LCE	Lower Certificate of Education
LEA	Local Education Authority
MCA	Malaysian Chinese Association
MCE	Malaysian Certificate of Education
NT(E)PS	National Type (English) Primary School
NTPS (C)	National Type Primary School (Chinese)
NTPS(T)	National Type Primary School (Tamil)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PRODED	Programme for Decentralised Educational Development
PTA	Parents-Teachers-Association
RD & D	Research and Development and Diffusion
RUKUNEGARA	National Ideology
SPM	Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (Malaysian Certificate of Education)
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Science
SPVM	Sijil Pelajaran Vokesyenal Malaysia (Malaysian Vocational Certificate of Education)
SRP	Sijil Rendah Pelajaran (Lower Certificate of Education)
STP	Sijil Tinggi Persekutuan (Higher School Certificate)
UMNO	United Malay National Organisation
UNDP	United Nation Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nation Education, Science and Culture Organisation
UPSR	Ujian Penilaian Sekolah Rendah (Primary School Achievement Test)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to the research

This thesis describes the implementation of the Integrated Secondary School Curriculum [generally referred to as the 'Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Menengah (KBSM)] in Malaysia. This study evaluates the process involved in the implementation and the outcomes of the KBSM at Form 1 level. The evaluation examines the efforts that have been made for the effective implementation of the new curriculum. The new curriculum has new emphases in objectives, content, instructional materials and teaching styles aimed at bringing about an improvement in the quality of education.

There are several reasons why the study is focused on the implementation. Firstly we simply do not know what has changed unless we attempt to conceptualise and measure it directly. The assumption is that the move from the drawing board to the school or classroom was unproblematic, that the innovation would be implemented more or less as planned and that the actual use would eventually correspond to planned or intended use.

Secondly, the vast majority of curriculum innovations attempted in both the industrialised and developing countries, have faced difficulties in implementation. In fact experiences in innovation indicate that the critical task is not at design or development stage but rather at its implementation, that is the stage of putting into practice the new ideas, sets of activities or programmes.

Thirdly, innovation is a complex process and numerous factors come into play and a large number of people from different groups are involved in the implementation process, each with a distinct role to play. In addition, other elements such as an administrative machinery which facilitates communication between the different groups, funds for the purchase of materials and equipment and the re-training of teachers, are all necessary for the process. The involvement of a large number of people in the implementation process implies the possibility of variations in the way the intentions of

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the curriculum will be interpreted, hence resulting in the differences in the outcomes of the implementation. But these can only be known when the programmes have been taught in the classrooms. Failure to achieve effective implementation would mean that the resources in terms of time, funds and manpower for developing the programme have been wasted.

Fourthly evaluation is an activity in which everybody engages in all the time. Planners, administrators, teachers, principals, parents and the general public are continually making judgement about innovation. Such judgement are often expressed in the form of comparison between conditions before and after the innovation.

Finally in developing countries, with a high percentage of children already in school, it has been possible to devote greater resources to the more qualitative aspects such as in the re-organisation of the teacher training programmes, the introduction of new curricula for schools, or the use of educational radio and television services to support teaching and learning in the classroom. In this case, we can identify some of the most problematic aspects of bringing about change.

Based on the above reasons, it is felt necessary to focus the study on the implementation of the new curriculum. The implementation stage of a new curriculum such as the KBSM is critical for it determines whether or not the intentions of the innovation would in fact be translated into actuality. The key question is how this gap between proposal and practice may be reduced. This is the question with which this thesis is primarily concerned.

1.2   Background of the Study

In education, innovation is a significant feature in the attempt for improvement: for widening opportunity for learning or equalising the opportunity between the different groups in the society. The complexity of the innovation process takes place over time: it involves individual, organisations and sub-groups and it has 'political' and 'technical' as well as 'organisational' and 'individual' dimensions.

In 1983, the Malaysian Ministry of Education introduced the New Primary School Curriculum [Kurikulum Baru Sekolah Rendah-(KBSR)] to all primary schools in the country. By 1988, all classes in the primary schools throughout the country have been using the new curriculum. The implementation of similar curriculum was expanded to secondary schools through The Integrated Secondary School Curriculum. Thus, 1989 marked the beginning of a nation wide curriculum renewal for all subjects taught in schools. The four languages taught are Bahasa Malaysia, English, Chinese and Tamil. This study will only focus on the English language and will be elaborated in Chapters 4 and 5.

The new curriculum was the result of the Report of Cabinet Committee on Education Policy in 1979. The Committee was established in 1975 which comprised the Deputy Prime Minister (currently the Prime Minister) as its Chairman, Minister of Education and six other ministers and the Deputy Director-General of Education as secretary. It was assisted by a committee of officials, the latter assisted by sub-committees and groups with representatives from a number of ministries, departments and the universities. Over a period of five years (1975-1979) the Cabinet Committee studied the education system, every level of the school-system and all the 302 memoranda received from the public. A total of 173 recommendations were used to strengthen the education system and in turn contributing to national unity and manpower development (Cabinet Committee Report, 1979).

The KBSR is divided into two phases of three years each. In the first phase the concentration will be on the basic skills of reading, writing and mathematics. The second phase will reinforce these basic skills while emphasising the acquisition of knowledge, the use of language for thinking and communication and the utilisation of mathematical skills for solving problems (Ministry of Education, 1981). The implementation of this new primary curriculum was carried out in stages; starting with a limited scale implementation in 1982 and nation-wide implementation in 1983. The

entire curriculum was in use throughout the country by 1988, following which the new curriculum for the secondary level was introduced since 1989.

The KBSM was principally introduced to raise the standard of education in the country where it remedies the flaws in the old curriculum where the subject matter was heavy and there was an over emphasis on higher education. Finally it aims at fulfilling the other needs of the society and country for the present and the future. The KBSM aims at balanced and harmonious education from the intellectual, spiritual, emotional and physical aspects and also at developing the individual as a whole. It has been implemented in 1988 starting with the National language, English language, Chinese language and Tamil language programme. In 1989 the KBSM was implemented fully in the Remove and Form One classes where the core subjects are National language, English language, Mathematics, Islamic Education/ Moral Education, Geography, History, Science, Art and Craft, Physical Education and Living Skills. The additional Islamic Studies, Mandarin and Tamil classes are elective subjects. Thus the programme will be completely realised by the end of 1993 (Ministry of Education,.1987). Since the KBSM was only introduced in 1988, therefore there are virtually no documented studies on the results of its implementation to date that the researcher is aware of. The KBSM is still regarded as relatively new. There have been various articles and write ups on the KBSM informing the public about the development of the new curriculum such as pupils' performance, teachers' workload and budgeting. However, there was practically no detail studies or academic research on the KBSM have been carried out.

In the KBSM programme, integrated education is an important strategy to ensure an integrated knowledge and expertise, language and value in all subjects. Integrated education can be defined as the process involved in developing a student in acquiring knowledge, instilling moral values and balanced physical development which is done as a whole to ensure a well rounded person.

Systematic curriculum development in Malaysia can be said to have begun in the late 1960s. Since then developments have been rapid: a special division has been set up within the Ministry of Education; many projects for introducing new programmes into schools, for improving specific aspects of teaching and learning practices and for experimental purposes have been undertaken; much experience has been accumulated; and a large number of people have been involved in the curriculum change process. This, of course, means that the ideas and materials generated by the planning and development agencies have to reach the classrooms and become translated into appropriate experiences for the pupils.

In any curriculum change the teacher is the key person in its implementation, to a large extent who determines what actually occur in the classroom. His performance is affected by the support (or the lack of support) he receives from principal and professional personnel such as inspectors or advisers, as well as the administrators. A large number of people involved, other elements such as professional and administrative machinery which facilitates communication between different institutions, finacial, materials and other resources, preparation and development of professional, effort and time are all necessary for the process. The involvement of a large number of people, implies the possibility of variation in the way the intentions of the curriculum will be interpreted, hence, differences in the outcome of the implementation. However, it is crucial that the implementation process be undertaken properly.

1.3 Models of planned changed

Interpretation of curriculum and curriculum development, teachers' responsiveness to change and the implementation problem constitute the dominant themes around which curriculum evaluation will be examined in subsequennt chapters. Havelock (1969) concludes that there are three major models or orientations which are used to describe

the utilisation process, these being labelled as the RD & D (Research, Development and Diffusion) Model, the Social-Interaction Model and the Problem-Solving Model.

Havelock (1969) also introduces a linkage strategy, a unifying concept that embraces all three models, drawing upon the strengths and overcoming some of the weaknesses of each of them. Chin and Benne (1976) present another classification of change efforts in the form of three major clusters of strategies:

i) the power-coercive (political-administrative) strategies;

ii) the empirical-rational strategies; and

iii) the normative-re-educational strategies.

Like the models developed by Havelock (1969), each cluster is based on certain assumptions. The power-coercive strategies, for instance, operate on the assumption that the imposition of power (with emphasis on political and economic sanctions in the exercise of power) alters the conditions within which other people act by limiting the alternatives or by shaping the consequences of their acts.

In many ex-colonial countries, it must have seemed that the interest in curriculum reform in the West had come at just the right moment. Many were emerging from colonial rule to become independendent nationns and understandandably wanted to see curricular modified to reflect their new political status. They wanted them to be re-focussed, away from the metropolitan powers towards their own situation and problems: their own histtory, developing a sense of nationhood, fostering their own art and culture. There is no doubt that, in some respects, developing countries have benefited from the ferment of curriculum development in Western countries during the past two decades; and from the technical assistance support provided by multi- and-bi-lateral agencies.

ii) diffusion is the movement of an innovation from a centre out to its eventual users; and

iii) directed diffusion is a centrally managed process of dissemination, training and provision of resources and inventions.

There are other classifications of planned change that have been proposed. A more recent review of studies on educational innovation has been undertaken by House (1981), focusing on the perspectives or the underlying image with which events in the innovative process are being interpreted. He concludes that three major perspectives - the technological, the political and the cultural - seem to account for the vast majority of studies that have been conducted. Of the three, the technological perspective is dominant.

From the technological perspective is the image of production. Both teaching and the innovation processes are conceived as technologies. Teaching can be improved by the introduction of new techniques; the emphasis is on finding particular methods of instruction and materials that would better enable students to learn, rather than on improving the teacher. Underlying the political perspective is the image of negotiation. Innovation is the matter of conflicts and compromises among factional groups such as teachers, administrators and parents. Each group would be seen as having its own goals and interests which are often in conflict with the purposes of others, hence, co-operation must result from negotiation and compromises. For the cultural perspective the image is of community. Different participants in the innovation process such as teachers and developers are seen as different cultures or sub-cultures. An innovation developed by a group such as university scholars will reflect the norms and values of that culture. As it is disseminated to teachers, it enters a new culture and will be interpreted differently when used in the new culture (House,1981).

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Berman (1981) identifies three models of implementation as follows:

i) the managerial model: views implementation as a process whereby administrators attempt to overcome resistance to change and take actions such as in providing training to enable implementors to do their job;

ii) the learning model: views implementation as a process whereby individuals attempt to learn new behaviours and the organisation tries to learn how to change its co-ordination, control and information system; and

iii) the bargaining model: views implementation as a conflictual process in which the bargaining among various stakeholders defines what is done and how it is done.

In order to obtain statistically reliable data on curriculum change, large samples have to be used which means that evaluation may have to follow, rather than precede, large scale application. The above models, strategies or perspectives represent different ways that innovation process can be viewed. These are abstractions from reality and no one model can fully describe a specific innovation. Rather, an innovation can be said to be characterised more by a particular model.

Experimental evaluation is largely concerned with learning outcomes rather than the processes of curriculum change. It is product rather than process oriented. While of course the ultimate goal of curriculum projects is to improve learning in pupils, and an educational decision-maker may well wish to know what effect the project has had on pupils' learning, that is by no means the only question to be answered. Berman (1981) sets out to make this emerging view more explicit and to formulate the beginnings of a new paradigm to guide future research and action. The paradigm is characterised by three meta-propositions:

Meta-Proposition 1: Educational Change Typically Involves an Implementation-Dominant Process: Underlying this proposition is the notion that events occurring after the adoption of a technology to a large extent determine outcomes, and these events cannot be accurately forecast from the technology itself.

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Meta-Proposition 2: The Educational Process Consists of Three Complex Organisational sub-processes - Mobilisation, Implementation and Institutionalisation - that are loosely, not linearly, coupled. This proposition conveys the idea that the process of educational change is generally not one of rational planning, but rather a flow of events involving many people and many interactions punctuated by choice opportunities.

Meta-Proposition 3: Outcomes of Educational Change Efforts tend to be Context-dependent and Time-dependent. This refers to how researchers are beginning to -or should - think about explaining variations in outcomes. Review of the literature found no consistent relationship between treatment and outcome. Hence, findings may be better stated conditionally so that results are known to apply to particular situations and in particular organisational settings (Berman, 1981).

Instructional system being introduced does not remain in its original form or operate according to the original intention of its developers. It affects, and is affected by, the situation into which it has been introduced.

Innovation in the KBSM will refer to the planned innovation initiated by the agencies external to the school (i.e. Curriculum Development Centre) in order to bring improvement in teaching and learning in the schools. Many of the measures for improvement would have therefore arisen from the recommendations contained in the Report of the Cabinet Committee to Review the Implementation of the Education Policy (Cabinet Committee Report, 1979). Since the completion of the Report at the end of Report at the end of 1979 the Ministry of Education has geared its activitiies to study and implement 173 recommendations which are expected to brinng abouut significant changes in the curricula of all levels in the school system. Since the curriculum development in Malaysia have been rapid: a special diviision has been set up within the

Ministry of Education; many projects for introducing new programmes into schools, for improving specific aspects of teaching and learning practices and for experimental purposes have been undertaken.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

Once the importance of implementing innovation has been realised, it is then considered necessary to find ways how to evaluate this. The main concern of this study is to look into the process and practices of implementing a new KBSM at secondary school in the northern state and also to look into at classroom level. This represents a particular type of innovation, a fundamental change affecting the entire curriculum at the secondary school level in Malaysia. A central feature of this innovation is emphasised on the pupil's basic skills and the focus of this investigation is on this component for the English language programme at the Form 1 level.

1.5 Objective of the Study

The objective of this study is to take a close look at the implementation of the KBSM. This study emphasised three main aspects i.e. the activities for the preparation and support for implementation, the implementation practices in the classroom, and the degree of success of the programme.

1.6 Methodology

The questionnaire, interview guideline and observation schedule were formulated according to the three aspects involved in the KBSM implementation process. The overall views of teachers, principals and personnel are solicited pertaining to the KBSM as a whole and the English language programme in particular: their role and involvement in the implementation process, how teachers plan their lessons and the problems they encounter. Seventy-one schools (36 rural and 35 urban schools) in four states in the northern part of Malaysia i.e. Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak, were selected for this study. In addition interview was carried out with teachers, principals

and personnel and observation was made in 17 classrooms. Relevant information of the KBSM including the infrastructure, strategies and administrative procedures are also obtained from published and unpublished materials from the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC), Ministry of Education, and to a lesser extent, supplemented with personal communication. The documents about the KBSM included published materials, working papers, minutes of meetings, reports, newsletters, memoranda and circulars. As a staff member of the Ministry of Education, the researcher had access to virtually all the relevant documents.

The methodology covered three main areas as follows: (i) survey of sampled schools using objective type and open-ended type questionnaires which enable the respondents to response freely for items where a specific list of responses was not provided; (ii) interview with teachers, principals and personnel; and (iii) classroom observation. Attempt was made to interview as many of them as possible as more detail information and clearer insights were expected to be obtained compared to the questionnaire survey.

The Questionnaire Survey
The selection of these schools was based on the location, medium of instruction and type of schools as they could provide a holistic view of curriculum evaluation. The purpose of conducting the survey was to gather the following information: background of the respondents; teachers self-perceptions on their role, involvement and adequacy in teaching the various topics in the English language programme; how the teachers plan their individual lessons; the practices and problems encountered in the methods of teaching English language in the KBSM; and the changes the teachers perceive have taken place at school level to accommodate the new curriculum. Details are given in Appendices 6 and 7.

A questionnaire was constructed to collect data from teachers and principals from the selected schools. The themes of the questionnaire covered were shown in detail in Chapter 6 and the results are discussed in Chapters 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11.

Interview with teachers, principals and personnel

The interview was conducted in a semi-structured manner with the respondents from different institutional levels in the Ministry of Education (Appendix 8). Briefly they were asked to comment on the following: their views regarding the KBSM in general; what the teaching-learning process in the class-room is perceived to be like; what are the demands on the teacher in order to implement the new curriculum; the extent to which the preparation and support activities for implementing the KBSM have been useful and sufficient to the teacher; factors at the school level considered important in implementing a new curriculum; and the strategies used by the central agency to facilitate the implementation of the curriculum in schools. The results are discussed in Chapters 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11.

Observation

In evaluation studies it is critically important to examine the extent of implementation at classroom level which could describe clssroom instruction in terms of the type of activities and verbal instruction. The observation instrument is described in Appendix 9 and the results are discussed in Chapter 10. Even though the total sample was 67 schools, for classroom observation purposes only 10 schools were randomly chosen. The total number of classrooms observed were 17 classes in which 8 in rural and 9 in urban areas. These schools represent 5 National, 3 English and 2 Chinese schools.

1.7   Research Questions

The study attempts to answer eight sets of research questions as follows:

I. What materials were produced?

   • What kind of teachers' materials were produced?

- How far were the teachers' materials available in sufficient quantities and at the right time?

- To what extent were the teachers' materials used?

- How far did the teachers' materials meet the requirements of the teachers?

- What pupils' materials were produced and provided?

- Were the pupils' materials available in adequate numbers?

- What use did teachers make of the pupils materials?

- What were the non-centrally produced pupils' materials?

II. Were teachers and other personnel prepared for implementing the curriculum?

- How were the KPs trained?

- How were the teachers trained?

- How were the student teachers trained?

- How were the principals trained?

- How were staff at the various levels trained?

III. What professional support was provided for teachers?

- How was the guidance for teachers provided?

- How far did the guidance meet the requirements of the teachers?

- What were the other forms of professional support provided for teachers?

IV. Was the administrative, financial and material support provided?

V. Was there public support for the curriculum?

VI. Was the curriculum implementation monitored?

- How was the monitoring conducted?

VII. How was KBSM English language programme implemented at classroom level?

- What type of teaching and learning aids provided?

- To what extent teaching aids being utilise in the teaching-learning of English?

- How do teachers plan their individual lesson ?

- What are the problems encountered in the teaching-learning at the classroom level?

- What were the degree of demands on the teachers?

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- What were the nature of demands on the teachers?

- What are other forms of demands?

- What type of seating locations of pupils during the English language lessons?

- What type of activities during the English language lessons?

- What type of grouping during the English language lessons?

- What type of interaction between pupils and teachers during the English

    language lessons?

VIII. What are the outcomes of innovation?

- How do teachers evaluate pupils' performance?

- To what extent pupils' skill in English viewed by the teachers?

- What were the degree of success of the KBSM?

- What were the criteria for success?

- What were the reasons for success?

1.8   Sampling and Data Analysis

The questionnaires were administered to teachers who are involved in the English language programme in Form 1 (Lower Secondary School). The sample included 32 rural schools and 35 urban schools in the northern state of Peninsular Malaysia. Twenty-nine schools were from National, 28 English and 10 Chinese schools which were mostly day schools (62) and the rest were residential schools.

As the exact number of teachers teaching English language in Form 1 was not available from the Ministry of Education, visit was made to the District Education Offices concerned to obtain information directly from the officer incharge regarding the exact number of English language teachers in their own district. The researcher adopted stratified random sampling method in the selection of the sample and details are discussed in Chapter 6.

Frequency counts, percentages, averages, histogram and chi-square are presented in Chapters 7, 8, 9 and 10 to facilitate analysis and descriptions of the implementation of the English language curriculum. The results of the analysis and the recommendations based on the teachers' views could be suggested to the Ministry of Education towards improving the implementation of the KBSM.

1.9 Procedure

The flow-line chart (Figure 1.1) illustrates briefly the study procedure. A letter of approval was obtained from the Director General of Education, Ministry of Education, Malaysia to carry out the survey. The questionnaire, interview and observation schedules were developed by the researcher, and had been pilot tested before the final survey. The questionnaires were delivered to the principals of the 67 schools in the four states for the purpose of the survey. A covering letter was given to the principals requesting them to distribute the questionnaires to all Form 1 English language teachers in their respective school. The questionnaires were returned using the enclosed envelopes. Classroom observation was also carried out by the researcher wherever possible in order to see the process of the implementation of English lesson by the teachers.

The fieldwork was carried out over a period of four months from June to October 1991 (i.e. during the summer vacation in the UK), while the third term session for schools in Malaysia. As the schools in Malaysia are in the middle of their third term session (August to mid-October) thus the teachers are busy with the school final year examinations. Nevertheless a manageable number of teachers were determined from the schools involved to enable the researcher to carry out the survey.

Figure 1.1: The flow-line chart illustrates briefly the study procedure.

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┌─────────────────────┐      ┌─────────┐      ┌─────────────────┐
│ CONSTRUCTION OF     │      │ PILOT   │      │ REVISION AND    │
│ QUESTIONNAIRE AND   │─────▶│ TEST    │─────▶│ FINAL VERSION   │
│ INTERVIEW AND       │      │         │      │                 │
│ OBSERVATION         │      └─────────┘      └─────────────────┘
│ SCHEDULE            │                                │
└─────────────────────┘                                │
                                                       ▼
┌─────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐      ┌─────────────────────┐
│ ANALYSIS OF │      │ COLLECTION   │      │ DISPATCH OF         │
│ DATA        │◀─────│ OF DATA      │◀─────│ QUESTIONNAIRES      │
│             │      │              │      │ TO PRINCIPALS,      │
└─────────────┘      └──────────────┘      │ TEACHERS AND        │
      │                                     │ INTERVIEW AND       │
      │                                     │ OBSERVATION BY      │
      ▼                                     │ THE RESEARCHER      │
┌─────────────┐      ┌──────────────────┐  └─────────────────────┘
│ FINDINGS AND│      │ IMPLICATIONS AND │
│ CONCLUSIONS │─────▶│ SUGGESTIONS      │
└─────────────┘      └──────────────────┘
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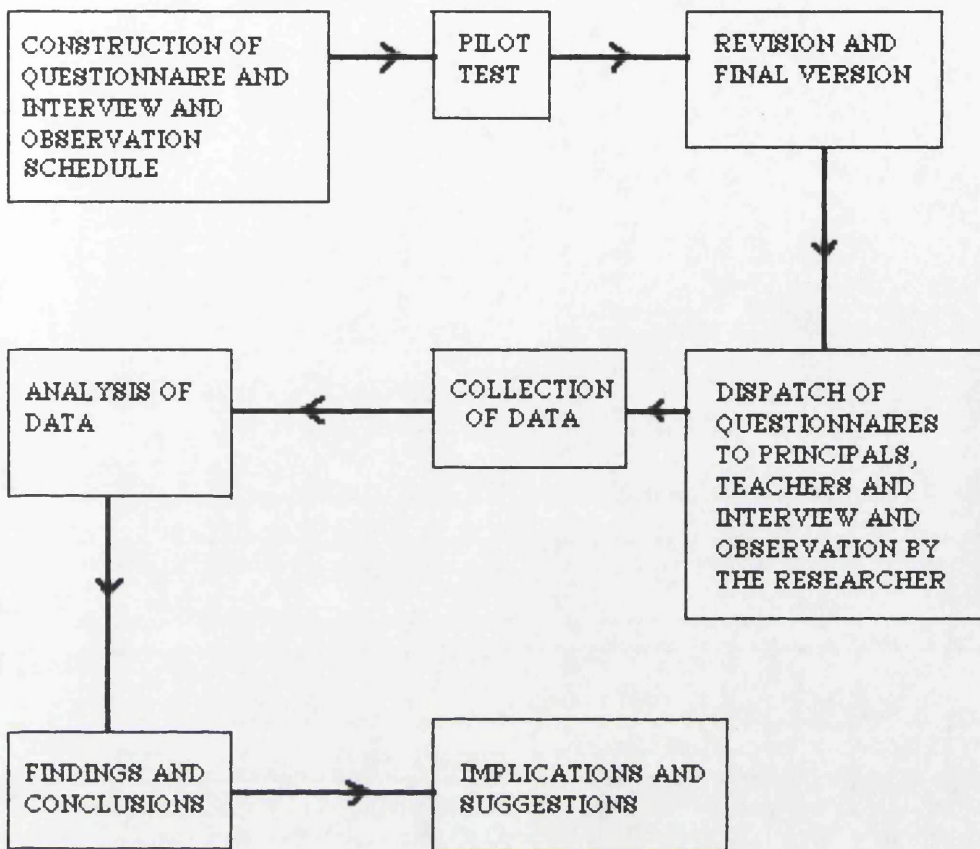
1.10 Significance and limitations of the study

This research has been given a high priority by the Malaysian Ministry of Education as it is essential to assess the achievement of the new curriculum, therefore the Ministry has a lot of interest in the findings of this research. It is hoped that the findings of this research will be useful to the Ministry both for improving the process of current change and for handling future innovation.

What is significant from this study is that it has clearly demonstrated some of the varied facets of curriculum change. This could therefore help in improving teaching and learning practices in the country. These different facets are highly interrelated, such as integration of professional and administrative elements, financial, materials and other resources,

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communication between the different institutions and professional preparation and development. There have been practically no detailed studies or academic research on the KBSM carried out so far.

It is hoped that this study will also contribute to international scholarship, not only because of detailed information it provides, but also because of its insights into the condotions and challenges of curriculum innovation.

There are some limitations of this study as follows:

i. The fieldwork was intensively conducted over only in four months. Field-work carried out over a longer period could have yielded more comprehensive data on evolving attitudes of pupils and parents.

ii. The fieldwork was carried out during the third term session for schools in Malaysia when teachers were busy with the schools' final year examination.

iii. The findings of this study reflect only conditions at the classroom level of the form 1 in the middle of the third year of implementation. The entire curriculum has yet to be introduced into schools and the outcomes from the other forms or in the latter years of implementation are not predictable.

CHAPTER 2

THE MALAYSIAN EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the background for the planning and implementation of the KBSM. The discussion focuses on the salient features in the political socio-economic scene that provides the backdrop for the thrusts and strategies in the development of education in the country. It also examines the structure of the past and present educational policy and the school system in Malaysia.

2.2 An overview of Malaysia

Malaya obtained independence from Great Britain in 1957 and, in 1963, Singapore and two former British Borneo colonies, Sabah and Sarawak merged with her to form the Federation of Malaysia. Two years later Singapore broke off from the Federation because of racial, linguistic and political differences. Malaysia located in South East Asia, consists of Peninsular Malaysia, formerly known as West Malaysia, and the two Borneo States of Sabah and Sarawak as shown in Figure 2.1. These two regions are separated by about 650 km of the South China Sea. Malaysia shares the same border with the kingdom of Thailand to the north and is linked to the island of the Republic of Singapore in the south by the Johore causeway, while across the Straits of Malacca, the Indonesian island of Sumatra covers the length of her western horizon. Besides Sabah and Sarawak, there are twelve other states in Malaysia, all located within the peninsula. They comprise Johore in the south, Malacca, Negeri Sembilan, Selangor and the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur in the west, Perak, Pulau Pinang, Kedah and Perlis in the north, with Pahang, Terengganu and Kelantan making up the east coast states. Malaysia lies between latitude 1 and 7° North and longitude 110 and 115° East, and is greatly influenced by the monsoon wind system. The greater part of the country is covered by dense tropical rain forest.

Figure 2.1: Map of Peninsular Malaysia showing the twelve states.

Notes: 1. Inset map: shows South East Asia
           2. Main map: Shaded area indicates location
              of the study site

The strategic position at the crossroads of Asia, has made Malaysia into the mingling

ground of cultures and people. Malaysia is peopled by three major races: the Malays,

Chinese and Indians, each of which has its own culture and religious beliefs. The

Malays are all Muslims, and the majority of the Chinese are Buddhists, while the

Indians are Hindus. Islam is the state religion but freedom of worship is guaranteed in

the Constitution. The Chinese and Indians came to settle in Malaysia in large numbers

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during colonial times and Malaysia now has population of approximately fifteen million people, of which about 59% are Malays and other indigenous people, 31% are Chinese, and the rest are Indians and other races (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Peninsular Malaysia: Ethnic Composition of the Population, 1989 - 1991 (Sixth Malaysia Plan, 1990).

Population	1989 million (%)	1990 million (%)	1991* million (%)
Malays	8.281 (57.9)	8.508 (58.3)	8.740 (58.5)
Chinese	4.514 (31.6)	4.581 (31.3)	4.650 (31.1)
Indians	1.412 (9.9)	1.436 (9.8)	1.460 (9.8)
Others	0.090 (0.6)	0.092 (0.6)	0.093 (0.6)
Total	14,297 (100.0)	14,617 (100.0)	14,943 (100.0)

* Forecasts

Although East Malaysia accounts for some sixty per cent of the total area of Malaysia (332, 648 km^2), 11.9 million or nearly eighty-three per cent of the total population live in Peninsular Malaysia which contains the seat of the government and dominates the Federation in economic activities. In terms of geographical distribution, 82.6 % of the population are expected to reside in Peninsular Malaysia, 7.9 % in Sabah, and 9.5 % in Sarawak by 1995. The highly uneven pattern of population distribution is not only observed between the two regions, it is also present between the east and west coast of Peninsular Malaysia. The major part of the economic activity occurs on the west coast. The west coast is thus more developed and most of the major towns are found in this region. The majority of the people reside in the rural areas, but continuing urbanisation has increased the proportion of urban residents from 28.8% in 1980 to 35% in 1990 (Government of Malaysia, 1990). This rather rapid rate of urbanisation was primarily attributable to the growth of the construction, manufacturing, utilities and services sector which offered an increasing number of job opportunities. Bahasa Malaysia (Malay Language) is the national and sole official with English as a strong second language. Other languages spoken in Malaysia are Mandarin, Hokkien and Cantonese (used by the Chinese), Tamil, Malayalam and Hindi (used by the Indians).

2.2.1 The Political Socio-Economic Features

Malaysia, which practices constitutional monarchy, inherits from the former colonial master a system of democracy governed by Parliament comprising the 'Dewan Rakyat' (House of Representatives) and 'Dewan Negara' (Senate). While the Government is led by the Prime Minister, Malaysia has, as the Head of State King, elected to throne for a five year term by the other rulers of the states in the peninsula, headed by a 'sultan' or 'raja' (the reference used for the ruler depending on the state, for instance Perlis is headed by a 'raja' and Kelantan by a 'sultan'). Malacca, Pulau Pinang, Sabah and Sarawak each are headed by a 'governor' while Kuala Lumpur by a 'mayor'.

In 1990 manufacturing employed 15.8% of the labour force. A firm strategy for industrialisation which encourages foreign investment and participation has been employed to further strengthen the country's economy. The earlier years of industrial development were characterised by import substitution industries, the major being food manufacturing. The emphasis later shifted to consumer durables such as the manufacturing of household appliances. Lately the shift is towards the development of export oriented industries such as in timber and rubber products (Government of Malaysia, 1990).

However, the agricultural sector is still dominant, employing 40.6% of the labour force in 1990 (Government of Malaysia, 1990). The major agricultural products are rubber, palm oil, rice, coconut and pepper. The expansion, diversification and improvements in various aspects pertaining to agriculture are all pursued as intensely as industrial development. Another important economic activity is mining and quarrying, particularly for tin ore and petroleum. It employed only 1.7% of the labour force but contributed 34.5% of the total merchandise export receipts in 1990 (Governmmment of Malaysia, 1990).

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A healthy economic development and the favourable balance of trade has enable the Malaysians to enjoy a fairly high standard of living. The per capita income for 1990 was RM$1,947 (± £500) (Government of Malaysia, 1990). The incidence of 'poverty' has also declined from 49.3% in 1980 to 29.2% in 1990, but this incidence is still prevalent in the rural areas (Government of Malaysia, 1990).

Prior to 1981 the economic development which was concentrated mainly in accelerating growth investment in infrastructure, agriculture and rural development did serve to strengthen considerably the economy of the country. However, it did not deal adequately with the main social and economic imbalance characterising the Malaysian society. The May 13 incident, the outburst of racial conflicts in 1969, showed clearly that economic policies and programmes geared mainly to increasing the growth of the economy would not meet the needs of the nation. It would lead to 'growth without equity and result in a nation divided between those who share in the benefits of the growth and those who do not' (Government of Malaysia, 1986).

The trauma of the incident led to a critical evaluation of the past policies and approaches, out of which the RUKUNEGARA, the national ideology, was formulated as a basis for national unity. The inspirations and priciples embodied in the RUKUNEGARA are shown in Figure 2.2. Since its formulation it has provided the direction for all political, economic, social and cultural activities.

The major instrument towards achieving national unity in the context of the RUKUNEGARA is the development of a socio-economic foundation that would provide for a viable and equitable participation of all races in the development process. Such a framework is enunciated in the New Economic Policy formulated in 1970 which:

Figure 2.2: The aspirations and principles of the RUKUNEGARA (Ministry of Education, 1969b).

RUKUNEGARA

Declaration

OUR NATION, MALAYSIA, being dedicated

> to achieving a greater unity of all her people;

> to maintaining a democratic way of life;

> to creating a just society in which the wealth of the nation shall be equitably shared;

> to ensuring a liberal approach to her rich and diverse cultural traditions;

> to building a progressive society which shall be oriented to modern science and technology;

We, her people, pledge our united efforts to attain these ends guided by these principles:-

> Belief in God

> Loyalty to King and Country

> Upholding the constitution

> Rule of Law

> Good behaviour and Morality

"...committed the nation to reduce and eventually eradicate poverty by raising income levels and increasing employment opportunities for all Malaysians, irrespective of race; and to accelerate the process of restruc-turing society so as to reduce and eventually eliminate the identification of race with economic functions" (Government of Malaysia, 1970, p.2).

All components of national development have to contribute to the achievement of this goal. In this respect education has a very important role to play. A major task entrusted to the school curriculum, which will be examined later is towards promoting national unity. In fact, one of the aims of the KBSM itself is to develop in the students desirable attitudes and behaviours 'as embodied in the RUKUNEGARA' The specific objectives

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for some subjects also make special reference to the ideology. For instance, the first objectives of the Bahasa Malaysia programme specifically mention the language as 'the instrument of national unity in accordance with the spirit and principles of the RUKUNEGARA'

2.3   Historical Perspective on Malaysian Educational System

To understand the main priorities and issues of the present education system one must also understand its history. The present system of Education in Malaysia had its beginnings with the coming of the British in the early 19th century. During British rule vernacular education was of a poor quality (Lee, 1972). Malay and Tamil schools existed only up to the primary level. Chinese schools, on the other hand, continued beyond the primary level mainly through the initiative of the Chinese communities themselves.

The administration of education in the Malay Peninsula during this period was in accordance with the 'colonial policy of divide and rule' (Ministry of Education, 1985b). As a consequence of this policy, education was available in four language media namely Malay, Chinese, Tamil and English, in four somewhat separate school systems. This multi-faceted educational system was in itself a microcosm of the culturally plural character of Malaysian society, which necessitated an accommodation of the divergent demands generated by the various races in the country.

In the pre-independence period the overall educational policy was based on the general objectives of the colonial authorities, i.e. to disturb as little as possible the status quo of the different communities in the country. Therefore, there was no attempt to develop a national policy or system of education. There were separate school systems for the Malays, Chinese and Indians.

i.   The Malay schools

In the early parts of the nineteenth century, Malay schools in Malaya existed in the form of Quranic classes. Malay education was provided for by the government up to only primary level (Ministry of Education, 1985). When secular education in Malay was

first introduced, as a branch of Penang Free School these Malay schools were not well received. Gradually out-look and attitudes changed and more parents began to send their children to these schools.

Initially, the Malay schools were assisted by the British East India Company. In 1858, they were taken over by the British administration and financial aid was provided. By 1938, there were 788 aided Malay schools in the Straits Settlements and the Federated Malay states (Ministry of Education, 1985b). The purpose of Malay education was to preserve the traditional Malay ways of life as mentioned by Sir George Maxwell in Wheeler (1973):

> "Our policy in regard to the Malay peasants is to give them as good an education as can be obtained in their own language. The last thing we want to do is to take them away from the land".

To which he added,

> "The aim of the government is not to turn out a few well-educated youth, nor a number of less-educated boys, rather it is to improve the bulk of the people and to make the son of a fisherman or a peasant a more intelligent fisherman or a peasant than his father had been, and a man whose education will enable to understand how his own lot in life fits in with the schemes of life around him".

What this meant was that Malays' education should be purely for the purposes of preserving the traditional Malay way of life. This indeed was the policy followed throughout the period of British rule. The majority of the Malays lived in the rural areas and thus attended only Malay schools. As English education was the only instrument for social mobility the rural population, mostly Malays, was thus deprived of such opportunities.

ii. The Indian schools

Like Malay vernacular schools, the Indians' schools too started as a branch of the Penang Free School. With the development of estate plantations, more Tamil-medium private schools and few others using different media, e.g. Punjabi, Telegu, and Malayalam, were established. The curriculum of the Indian schools was Indian-

oriented with books imported from India and teachers recruited from India (Chang, 1973).

iii. The Chinese schools

The Chinese, however with their traditional love and respect for learning, took the initiative to set up schools of their own (Chang, 1973). Like the Indian schools, the Chinese schools were Chinese-oriented, using text-books and recruiting teachers from China. The Chinese schools, as commented by Manson (1957):

> "reflected the determination to propagate a Chinese cultural pattern. It included Chinese, Arithmetic, Civics, History, Geography, Art, Singing and Physical Training. Some of these subjects have a different meaning and context from those in English or Malay schools. The most obvious difference in curriculum is that English schools included English Literature, Malayan and World Geography, and Commonwealth History, while a considerable part of the curriculum in the Chinese schools is concerned with the history and culture of the Chinese mainland".

The education-conscious Chinese population had further developed vernacular education in that secondary and tertiary education in Chinese was also available.

iv. The English schools

The early English schools were set up by the Christian missionaries. The first English-medium school, the Penang Free School, was established in 1816 by the Rev. R.S. Hutchings, and this was followed by a few other 'free' schools, among them the Malacca Free School (1826), the Singapore Free School (1834), King Edward VII School in Taiping (1906) and the Victoria Institution in Kuala Lumpur (1906) (Wong and Ee, 1971). By 1938, there were 56 government, 59 assisted and 106 private English schools throughout Peninsula Malaysia (Ministry of Education, 1985b). The curriculum of these schools was patterned after the grammar school curriculum in Great Britain, with the view of producing junior administrative officers to support the British administration. The Malay College at Kuala Kangsar, Perak was established in 1905 to train administrators for the Malayan Civil Service whose members were initially drawn from the aristocratic families (Ministry of Education, 1985b). Only in the 'English

schools' where English was the medium of instruction, that children from all races met on common grounds (Chew, 1979).

2.3.1 Crisis in Malayan Education

Since the end of Second World War, education, language and culture have loomed as causes of racial tensions in Malaysia. This racial problem in the field of education seems to be largely a legacy of the past when the British colonial government chose to operate a communal system of education instead of laying the foundation of an integrated school system for all races, using the English language as the medium of instruction. The increasing inflow of Chinese immigrants and the subsequent economic policy of the British government to import Indian labourers, resulted in a diminishing Malay numerical superiority, which should have made it plain that any racially discriminating education policy was fraught with serious long-term difficulties.

Broadly speaking, there are four streams of education in Malaya. The British provided a limited number of English schools for a minority of children of all races. Help to mission and denominated schools was granted in the form of monetary aid, provided they conformed to the establishment standard of the Education Department (Federation of Malaya, 1957). Ever since the introduction of the Muslim religion, the Malays have been sending their children to the religious schools. As part of its pro-Malay policy the government provided free vernacular education for the Malays (Corry, 1955).

Indian education was closely associated with the rubber estates. Large estate owners were required by the law to produce and staff a vernacular school whenever ten or more of their workers' children were within the school age, i.e between seven and fourteen years (Simandjuntak, 1969). A small per capita grant, based on examination results and attendance, was given annually. But generally these schools were far from satisfactory due to poorly paid teachers and part-time employment of children (Silcock, 1954).

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But the government did not regard it as part of its responsibilities to provide for education for the Chinese, and this was, in Corry's words, "perhaps the most serious sin of omission which can be laid at the door of British administration" (Corry, 1955). Undismayed, the Chinese founded their own vernacular schools with the financial backing of wealthy Chinese towkays and voluntary Chinese subscribers (Simandjuntak, 1969). Conforming largely to the Chinese government's code of education, these school taught the young how to remain a Chinese outside the homeland (Corry, 1955). Trouble started when the teachers who were recruited from China, allowed their zeal of Chinese nationalism and communism to seep into the classroom, causing the schools to become a hotbed for alien politics.

Realising the development of these non-Malayan tendencies, the government passed the Registration of Schools Ordinance in 1920, whereby these schools were brought under close government supervision. In 1935 the government decided to extend the grant-in-aid system to the Chinese vernacular schools which were prepared to conform to the standards set by the Education Department. But accustomed by this time to looking after their own affairs, most of the Chinese schools chose to shoulder their own financial responsibilities themselves rather than to part with their educational independence (Mat Salleh, 1962).

Thus there developed a mosaic of education systems which worked satisfactorily only as long as each community was content to live its own life and to leave the administration of the country to the British. But it was idle to expect this state of affairs to continue indefinitely, and it was futile to ignore the fact to allow alien schools to cater for almost half of population of the country was to create a socio-political problem of the first magnitude.

The High Commissioner appointed in 1950 a Committee to "inquire into the inadequacy or otherwise of the education facilities available for Malays" (Federation of Malaya, 1951). This Committee, chaired by L.J. Barnes, Director of Social Training at the University of Oxford, was a symbol of Malay communalism because all the fourteen members included only Malays and Europeans (Simandjuntak, 1969).

However, the Committee was unable to propose any improvement in the Malay schools. So the Committee went beyond its term of reference, and advocated the establishment of an inter-racial system of National primary schools in which only the two official languages would be used as the medium of instruction. The Committee recommended a bilingual National school system which should employ both Malay and English as the media of instruction (Federation of Malaya, 1951). But the most obvious part of the plan was the suggestion that the Chinese and Indian communities should give up their vernacular schools gradually and send their children to schools where neither Chinese or Tamil was to be taught (Federation of Malaya, 1951). The Committee recommendations were as follows:

> "We have set up bilingualism in Malay and English as its (the National Schools) objective because we believe that all parents who regard Malaya as their permanent home and the object of their undivided loyalty will be happy to have their children educated in those languages (Malay and English). If any parents were not happy about this, their unhappiness would properly be taken as an indication that they did not so regard Malaya."

While the intention of the Barnes Committee of establishing the system of education to include all races was unquestionably sound in principle, nevertheless the report, could only kindle the resentment of the non-Malay communities. Moreover, not only were the Chinese and the Indians not represented in the Committee, but they were not consulted at any time during the inquiry involving the future of their education, language and culture (Simandjuntak, 1969).

As a consequence of the amount of criticism by the Chinese against the features of the Barnes Committee, the High Commissioner in early January, 1951 invited Dr. William P. Fenn, Associate Executive Secretary of the Board of Trustees of a dozen institutions

of higher learning in China and Dr. Wu Teh-Yao, an official of the United Nations, to come to Malaya to investigate Chinese education. Unlike the Barnes Committee, the Fenn- Wu mission sought the opinion of representatives of the various communities. The Fenn-Wu Report, published in June 1951, was on the whole sympathetic towards Chinese education. It was warned against turning Malaya into a cockpit for aggressive cultures and declared that any restrictive imposition of one language or two languages upon the people of Malaya was inimical to community understanding and national unity, since the unity of a nation "depends not upon the singleness of the tongue of simplicity of cultures" but upon "hearts of its citizen" (Federation of Malaya, 1951).

While the report deplored the Chinese-consciousness of the Chinese schools, it did not throw the blame entirely on the Chinese for this non-Malay outlook. It argued that insufficient government schools and sustained government neglect of Chinese education had forced the Chinese to establish their own schools, and just as English schools were replicas of schools in England, so were the Chinese schools in Malaya copies of those in China (Simandjuntak, 1969). The report agreed to the necessity of including Malay and English in the curriculum of all schools, but added that as one of the great languages of the world the Chinese language was there to stay. On the future of the Chinese schools in Malaya it went on to say "They cannot be eliminated until the Chinese themselves decide that they are not needed. That day may never come, for it is possible that the Chinese schools should form an integral part of any education programme of the future Malaya" (Federation of Malaya, 1951).

By implication the report censured the Barnes bilingual National school plan, but at the same time it was not unmindful of the danger of any excessive Chineseness in Chinese schools. It advised that the ideal education programme for the Malayan Chinese was to give adequate attention to Chinese language and culture, but which was free from any of the characteristics of education in China. Foreign politics should not be mixed up with education, because such a combination would tend to create misunderstanding. While

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textbooks were not necessarily the ultimate determinants of political views, the Fenn-Wu report agreed that these could lead to divided Malayan orientation (Federation of Malaya, 1951).

2.3.2 Basis of the Education System

The need for integrating the various ethnic groups had been felt even in the late 1940s. In 1956 a Special Committee under the chairmanship of Tun Abdul Razak (later to become the first Minister of Education and the second Prime Minister of the country) was set up to review the existing education policy and to make recommendations with a view:

> "...to establish a national system of education acceptable to the people of the Federal as a whole which will satisfy their needs and promote their cultural, social, economic and political development as a nation, having regard to the intention to make Malay the national language of the country whilst preserving and sustaining the growth of the language and culture of other communities living in the country" (Federation of Malaya, 1956).

The Report of the Committee popularly known as the Razak Report became the fundamental educational policy document of the country. It emphasises that:

> "...the ultimate objective of education policy in this country must be to bring together the children of all races under a national education system in which the national language is the main medium of instruction though we recognise that progress towards this goal cannot be rushed and must be gradual"

With regards to educational content, the Report recommends a radical departure from existing practice. It states that:

> "One of the fundamental requirements of the educational policy...is to orientate all schools, primary and secondary, to a Malayan outlook. We consider that the way to do this is to ensure a common content in the syllabus of all schools".
> (Federation of Malaya, 1956).

The recommendations of the Razak Report became the basis of the education system. It provided a 6-year primary education for all children between the ages 6 and 11 in one of the four media of instruction: Malay, Chinese, Tamil and English; a 3-year lower secondary education for those who were successful in the Malayan Secondary School

Examination; and a further 2-year upper secondary education for those who performed well in the Lower Certificate of Education Examination.

In 1960 a Review Committee was set up to review the progress of the implementation of the national education policy. It concluded that the fundamentals of the new policy have been accomplished. It also made a number of recommendations including the raising of the school leaving age to 15, made possible through automatic promotion throughout the primary and lower secondary levels and the abolition of the selection examination for entry into the lower secondary level. The recommendations of the Committee became the basis of the Education Act 1961, which established the features of the present education system (Education Review Committee, 1960).

The Razak Report, which was published in May, 1956 abandoned the idea of a National school system, and children would continue to receive their primary education in separate vernacular schools. At the same time, however, the Committee endeavoured to elevate the Malay language in the education system. In order to achieve this goal the primary schools were divided into two broad categories, i.e. (i) the standard primary schools with Malay as the medium of instruction, and (ii) the standard-type primary schools with Kuo-Yu, Tamil or English as the media of instruction and Malay as a compulsory subject of study (Simandjuntak, 1969). Where English was not the medium of instruction, that language would be taught, whenever there were fifteen or more pupils whose parents wanted them to learn the language (Federation of Malaya, 1956). The effect of this proposals was that Malay pupils would be bilingual, and non-Malay pupils trilingual.

To ensure that Malay was taught in primary schools, a knowledge of Malay was to be compulsory requirement for admission into secondary schools which were wholly or partly run by public funds. In contrast with the primary school system, there was to be only one type of secondary school, i.e. the National Secondary School, where the pupils would receive instruction based on a common syllabus, but where there would

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be sufficient flexibility in the curriculum for the study of other languages and cultures. To make certain that the teaching of Malay was continued in the secondary schools, Malay was made a compulsory subject of examination for the Lower Certificate of Education (LCE) and for the National Certificate of Education, which was later known as the Federation of Malaya Certificate of Education (FMCE). These two public examinations were to come at the end of third year and at the conclusion of the five to six year secondary school course respectively (Federation of Malaya, 1956). Because of the utilitarian value of English, the study of this language was required in all National secondary schools.

The Razak plan won the goodwill of the non-Malay communities because it did not seek to alter the practice of Chinese secondary schools of using Kuo-Yu as a general medium of instruction. The content of education was considered to be more important than the medium of instruction, and the promotion of Malay to the position of the national language was to be achieved, not by its use as the medium of instruction, but as a compulsory subject in all schools. By making this approach the Razak Committee skirted the explosive language conflicts of the past, and allayed the non-Malay fears of the ultimate extinction of their education, language and culture.

The only opposition came from the Malays. Five UMNO (United Malay National Organisation) elected Councillors and one nominated Malay members were dissatisfied because Malay was not made the sole medium of instruction in all schools. Answering these critics, the Minister of Commerce and Industry, Dr. Ismail Dato' Abdul Rahman, said that "such ambition was tantamount to posing as imperialist with no considerations for the Chinese and Indians who are already in this country" (Federation of Malaya, 1956). Fourteen other Councillors spoke in support of the report, describing it as "a shining example of Malay liberalism", and as "a pattern for the weaving of what may in time truly become a virile Malayan culture" (Federation of Malaya, 1956). The critics

having been silenced, the Council unanimously approved the "ten-year school blueprint", which was subsequently embodied as the Education Ordnance, 1957.

The subject of education became part of controversy on account of the ambition of certain Malay conservative opinion to restrict the language medium at the LCE examinations to Malay, and to prevent Chinese from being used as a medium of examination at the secondary level so as to ensure the supremacy of the Malay language (Lowe, 1960). This prompted Dr. Lim Chong Eu, the then President of the MCA (Malayan Chinese Association) to communicate with Tunku Abdul Rahman, the Prime Minister and the leader of the Alliance, in a "secret" letter urging that until the Malay language was sufficiently developed, Kuo-Yu should continue to function as a medium of instruction and examination in Chinese schools, and that the results of such examinations should be recognised by the government as equivalent to those of the National Secondary school examinations (Straits Budget, 1959). The Alliance yielded to sustain pressure from the MCA, and promised to encourage and to sustain the growth of the languages and cultures of the non-Malay races, and to recognise Chinese Secondary school examinations results as equivalent to the LCE (Straits Budget, 1957).

Pursuant to its election promises, the Alliance government appointed in February, 1960 an Education Review Committee under the chairmanship of the Minister of Education, Abdul Rahman Haji Talib, to review the Razak policy and the extent of its implementation. In June, 1960 the Review Committee reported that the Razak policy had been "faithfully and successfully carried out within the limits imposed by financial stringency in 1958 and 1959 and by the sheer magnitude of the many sided task" (Federation of Malaya, 1960). Apart from having to review the Razak policy, this Committee also made some recommendations where its main recommendations was incorporated into the Education Act, 1961. The recommendations of the committee had an important bearing on educational development in the 1960s. Among the important recommendations are (Ministry of Education, 1985b):

a. Universal free primary education;

b. Automatic promotion to Form III;

c. Assessment Examination at Standard V;

d. Improvement of Vernacular Primary Schools;

e. Enhancement of Technical and Vocational Education;

f. Control of Primary Education;

g. Setting up the Federal Inspectorate;

h. Introduction of Bahasa Malaysia as the medium of instruction;

i. Official language medium for Public Examination;

j. Expansion of Teacher Training Programme; and

k. Provision of Religious and Moral Education.

While allowing the system of multilingualism to continue in the primary schools, it was considered incompatible with an education policy, designed to create a national consciousness and to establish Malay as a national language, to make the racial and linguistic diversities permanent features to the publicly financed secondary schools. So it was recommended that Malay or English should be used exclusively as the medium of instruction in these schools and as the medium of examinations at the LCE and FMCE. Describing the LCE and FMCE as the 'lynchpins in our national secondary system of education, the Committee went on to say that the most unsatisfactory aspect of the existing system would be eliminated, if the Ministry of Education scrapped examinations in the Chinese language" (Federation of Malaya, 1960).

To the government-assisted Chinese Secondary schools all this meant a reorganisation of their school system. In fact, the Committee had proposed a change from the Chinese 3-3 system, i.e. three years of Senior Middle School, into the Federation 3-2 secondary system, i.e. three years of National secondary school course followed by two more years of upper secondary. The first year of the Chinese secondary school course, which the Committee proposed to call "Remove Class", could be utilised to provide extra extensive instruction in one or both of the official languages, preparatory to the first year of the 3-2 Malay or English-Medium school course. Simultaneously the

Chinese secondary school examinations would be replaced by the LCE and the FMCE examinations (Federation of Malaya, 1960). The most serious impediment to this grandiose scheme, however was the severe shortage of suitably trained teachers.

Opponents of these proposals denounced the scheme as a calculated onslaught against the non-Malay languages and rejected them as a break of the promises made by the Alliance on the eve of the 1959 general elections (Federation of Malaya, 1960). During the debate on the new Education Bill Too Joon Hing, the rebel MCA Secretary-General in the 1959 crisis, called for the withdrawal of the bill and for the appointment of an all-party committee to undertake a fresh review of the Razak Report. But in spite of solid assaults according to the non-Malays the controversial Bill was passed.

Although the issue of reforming education was taken up immediately following independence, the use of one language as the medium of instruction was implemented in stages over a planned period of fourteen years, beginning with the enrolment of pupils into Malay medium classes for Standard One in 1970 (Haji Omar, 1976). This initial phase of conversion at the first level of primary education signified the start of a period when the instruction of all school subjects would ultimately be in the national language, except for the learning of English, conforming to the National Educational Policy which aims to establish English as an effective second language in schools throughout the country.

The underlying purpose of learning English is to create a society that is able to utilise the language for effective communication as need arises, and as a key to wider experiences (Ministry of Education, 1973). In a way, the implementation of the National Education Policy, with particular respect to the use of the national language as the medium of instruction in the schools caused the racial riots of May 13, 1969, which many saw as the culmination of pent-up emotional upheavals - the result of religious, cultural and language differences between the country's multi-ethnic components. One of the issues

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that led to the racial clash following the general election in 1969 was the status of Malay as the national language. Many among the non-Malays challenged the right of the government to impose upon them a language which they claimed to belong to only the Malays. Hence, it was after the riot that the terms 'Malay language' or Bahasa Melayu was changed to Bahasa Malaysia or the 'Malaysian language'. Possibly free from any racial overtone, Bahasa Malaysia could then be looked upon as the key belonging to every Malaysian (Federation of Malaya, 1956). However, although the use of Bahasa Malaysia as the primary medium of instruction in the country's educational establishment has been fully implemented, there is also provision for the teaching of the pupils' mother tongues under the Educational Act, 1961 as long as fifteen or more pupils in a particular school request such a class.

Undoubtedly, in order to unite the different races in Malaysia it is essential to introduce a common curriculum for schools throughout the country to ensure that pupils would be aware of similar issues pertaining to the nation through learning identical subjects in spite of the different language of instruction. All schools, including those at the primary level where education is offered in three languages, have to follow a common-content curriculum.

The first Education Committee of Independent Malaysia states:

> "We cannot over-emphasise our conviction that the introduction of syllabuses common to all schools in the Federation is the crucial requirement of educational policy in Malaya. It is an essential element in the development of a united Malayan nation. It is the key which unlocks the gates hitherto standing locked and barred against the establishment of an educational system 'acceptable to the people of Malaya as a whole'. Once all schools are working to a common content syllabus, irrespective of the language medium of instruction, we consider the country will have taken the most important step towards establishing a national system of education which will satisfy the need of the people and promote their cultural, social, economic and political development as a nation. We do not consider that the order in which the material is treated is of major importance but priority should be given to the Malayan aspects of each subject and non-Malayan elements in the syllabus should only be admitted either if they are of international value, or if they provide the necessary background". (Federation of Malaya, Malaya, 1956)

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Hence, from the day Malaysia got independence, the National Education Policy - based on the report by the Government Committee on Education in 1956 - began to take shape through the implementation of a co-ordinated curriculum, first in primary schools and over the years encompassing the secondary level. It was not until 1983, however, that the national language began to prevail as the medium of instruction right up to the tertiary level when all the first year courses at the universities began conducting lectures in Malay.

2.4   The Development of Education

The development of Education in Malaysia reflects the multi-faceted role it has to play in creating a united, democratic, just, liberal and progressive society. The overriding objective of education is national unity. It has been firmly believed from pre-independence days that through a unified national education system, the foundation of a united and harmonious nation will be laid. Education also aims to enable all Malaysians to participate fully in the process of national development, to produce the skilled manpower needs of the country, to provide for greater opportunity for those in the lower income groups and regions of the country and to inculcate discipline and social responsibility in the future citizens.

The importance attached to education can be seen in the high proportion of the country's budget allocated to it. For the period 1981-90 between 16 to 20 percent of the total national expenditure was on education (Ministry of Education, 1983a). The expansion of educational facilities for all levels has been rapid. A stable economy and a fairly small population has enabled most children to be in school. There is now a near universal enrolment at the primary level and a high enrolment at the lower secondary level. The percentage for the different age groups enrolled in 1987 are shown in Figure 2.3, and expansion in term of actual enrolment in Table 2.2. A number of

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developments in terms of policies, infrastructure, programmes and projects have been undertaken since independence. The major ones are highlighted below.

2.4.1 Structure of the Formal Education System

Malaysian has a 6-3-2-2 school system. The schematic layout of this system is illustrated in Figure 2.4. There are a six year of elementary/primary education, from Standard I to Standard VI (equivalent to U.K primary 1 to 7, or to U.S grades I to 6), a three years of lower secondary education, from Form I to Form III (equivalent to U.K secondary I to 3, to U.S grades 7 to 9), a two years of upper secondary education, Form IV and V (equivalent to U.K secondary 4 and 5, to U.S grades 10 and 11), and a two years of post secondary education, Lower Form VI and Upper Form VI (equivalent to U.K O Level/A level, to U.S grade 12 and 13). The Form VI level is followed by the Higher Education level which consists of two types of institutions, that is the colleges and universities.

The school year is from the beginning of January to the middle of November with two-week breaks in between. At all levels, and for every subject, there is a National curriculum that has been prescribed by Malaysian Ministry of Education. This is in line with the basis of a national learning system that was specified in the Report of the

Figure 2.3: Population enrolled in schools, colleges and universities by age in 1987 (Ministry of Education, 1987).

Level	Age	Male	Female	% enrolled
University, College	23 22 21 20 19	2.3%	1.3%	1.8%
Post-Secondary	18 17	10.6%	8.8%	9.7%
Upper Secondary	16 15 14	42.2%	39.9%	40.9%
Lower Secondary	13 12	90.9%	87.6%	89.2%
Primary	11 10 9 8 7 6	95.9%	95.1%	95.1%

Unit: 10 000   16 12 8 4 0 4 8 12 16
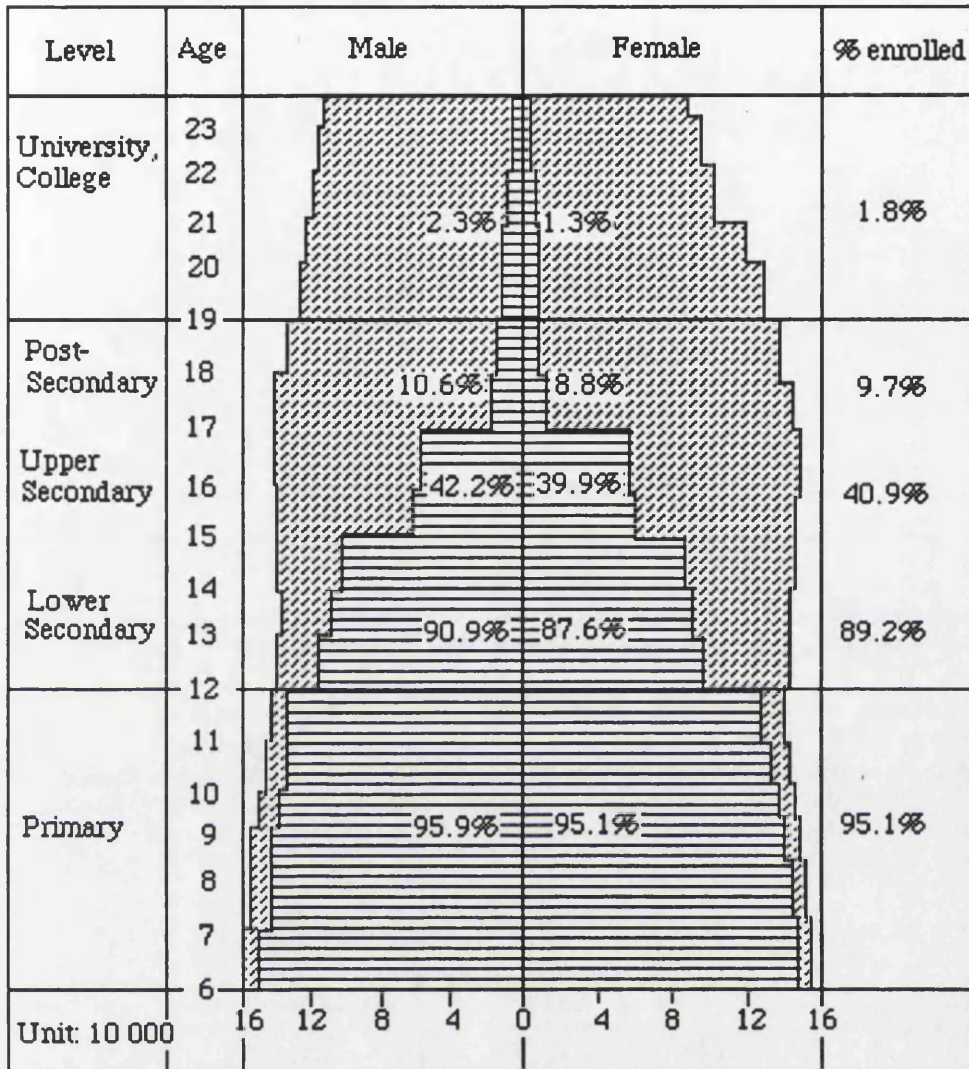
▤ Population enrolled

▨ Population not enrolled

Table 2.2: Student enrolment by levels of education, 1990 - 95 (Government of Malaysia, 1990).

Level	1980	1990	1995
Primary	1 679 798	2 006 760	2 260 366
Lower secondary	432 703	812 105	61 374
Upper secondary	99 637	248 543	409 259
Post secondary and certificate level courses	14 004	35 830	50 667
Teacher training (for primary and lower secondary teachers	2 927	13 311	21 330
Diploma courses	3 318	14 776	23 737
Degree courses	7 677	20 764	29 540

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Figure 2.4:Structure of the formal education system in Malaysia(Ministry of Education,1989b)

AGE

| 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | | 12 | 13 | 14 | | 15 | 16 | | 17 | 18 | 19 | |
| 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | | 12 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 16 | 17 | | 18 | 19 | 20 | & ABOVE |

PRIMARY   LOWER   UPPER   FORM   HIGHER
                 SECONDARY   SECONDARY SIX   EDUCATION

[IV] [V] ■ > Matriculation/ Foreign Universities
Technical

[1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] >   > [I] [II] [III] ● > [IV] [V] ■ — [VI] [VI] > Universities/ Colleges/ Employment
National School   Academic   Academic   Academic

Colleges/
[IV] [V] ◨ > Polytechnic/ Employment
Vocational

[1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] >
National Type
Chinese School   > [R]

[1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] >
National Type
Tamil School

KEY:

[R]   Remove class

●   Lower Certificate of Education

■   Malaysian Certificate of Education

◨   Malaysian Certificate of Vocational Education

➡   Malaysian Higher School Certificate

Education Committee in 1956. This statement is based on the announcement made by the then Minister of Education, Y.B Dato' Musa Hitam on 8th. Dec.1980. He stated that a new curriculum had been planned in order that students would achieve skills in the three basic fields (Ministry of Education, 1979a), namely in;

1. communication;
2. man and his environment;
3. individual self development .

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i. Primary Education (Standard 1 to VI)

Schools at the primary education level are divided into three types:
a. National Schools;
b. National Primary Schools; and
c. National Type Primary Schools (NTPS).

Primary education, though free, is not ccompulsory. The medium of instruction in the National School throughout Malaysia is Bahasa Malaysia. However, the medium of instruction in the National Type Primary School (Chinese) [NTPS(C)] is the Chinese Language while the Tamil language is the medium of instruction in the National Type Primary School (Tamil)[NTPS(T)] (Ministry of Education, Malaysia, 1985b). In Peninsular Malaysia and Sabah the National Type Primary Schools (English) [NT(E)PS] have been using Bahasa Malaysia as their medium of instruction since 1975. All primary schools national, Chinese and Tamil - use a common content syllabus which reflects a Malaysian outlook. Pupils enter the system at the age of 6 years or above on the first Monday of January. Enrolment at this age is almost universal now, with more than 90% entering standard one of primary schooling. About 85% of the pupils enrolled in standard one complete their primary education.

The six year primary course consists of the following subjects;
a) Malay language
b) English language
c) Chinese language
d) Tamil language
e) Science
f) Mathematic
g) Islamic Religious Knowledge
h) Geography
i) History
j) Physical Education
k) Health Education
l) Civics

Pupils at the primary school level that is from Standard 1 to Standard VI, are automatically promoted. And since 1965, there was automatic promotion of pupils from Standard VI in the primary schools to Form 1 or Remove Class secondary school.

National examination is held at Standard VI. The Standard VI assessment was originally designed to assess the national norm of pupil performance and to identify areas of weaknesses in pupils so that remedial activities could be undertaken. However, as will be examined later, these activities have not materialised and the examination results have served more as a convenient instrument in selecting pupils for the residential schools. The examinations at the other levels serve both for certification and for selection of pupils into the subsequent levels.

ii. Lower Secondary Education (Form I-III)

On completion of six years of primary education at the age of 11+, pupils automatically enter Form One or remove classes in the lower secondary schools. At lower secondary level the medium of instruction used is either Bahasa Malaysia or English. Education at this level is of three years duration except for pupils from NTPS(T) or NTPS(C) who are required to go through Remove Class before entering Form 1 in Malay or English medium. Remove Classes are specially conducted with the aim of upgrading the language proficiency of pupils, either in Bahasa Malaysia or English Language in accordance with the media of instruction available at the lower secondary level. However, since 1975, that it is as a consequence of the language conversion programme which was introduced in NT(E)PS in the Peninsula in 1970, Remove Classes are only conducted in Bahasa Malaysia to cater for pupils from NTPS(C) and NTPS(T) (Ministry of Education, 1985b). The pupils from the Malay-medium schools enter form one directly (Figure 2.5).

In order to implement Bahasa Malaysia as the national language, all English medium schools have been replaced by the Malay medium (Figure 2.6), which is referred as the

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language conversion programme. At the lower secondary level, the language conversion programme in Form I was fully implemented in 1976, followed by Form II in 1977 and subsequently Form III in 1978 (Ministry of Education, 1985)

All pupils at lower secondary education level are automatically promoted from Form I to Form III and at the end of Form III they sit for a public examination, that is the Lower Certificate of Education. It is held to select pupils who are qualified to enter Form IV. For the years of 1971 to 1978, it was found that between 39.6% to 45.0% of Form III pupils did not succeed in continuing their education (Ministry of Education,1985).

Lower secondary education is of three years duration and academic subjects, together with those of a pre-vocational nature, are included in the curriculum. In this comprehensive type of education, each pupil is required to opt for one pre-vocational subject - industrial arts, home science, agriculture science or commercial studies. The main aim is to expose pupils to practical subjects. The curriculum at this stage is more diversified, and the course provides subjects in;

a) Mathematics
b) Science
c) Islamic Knowledge
d) Arts and Crafts
e) Music
f) Health Education
g) History
h) Geography
i) Social Studies
j) Chinese Language

k) Tamil Language.

Figure 2.5: Structure of the formal education system in Malaysia (Ministry of Education, 1989).

CHINESE/
TAMIL

ENGLISH

BAHASA ⟵ MEDIUM OF
MALAYSIA INSTRUCTION
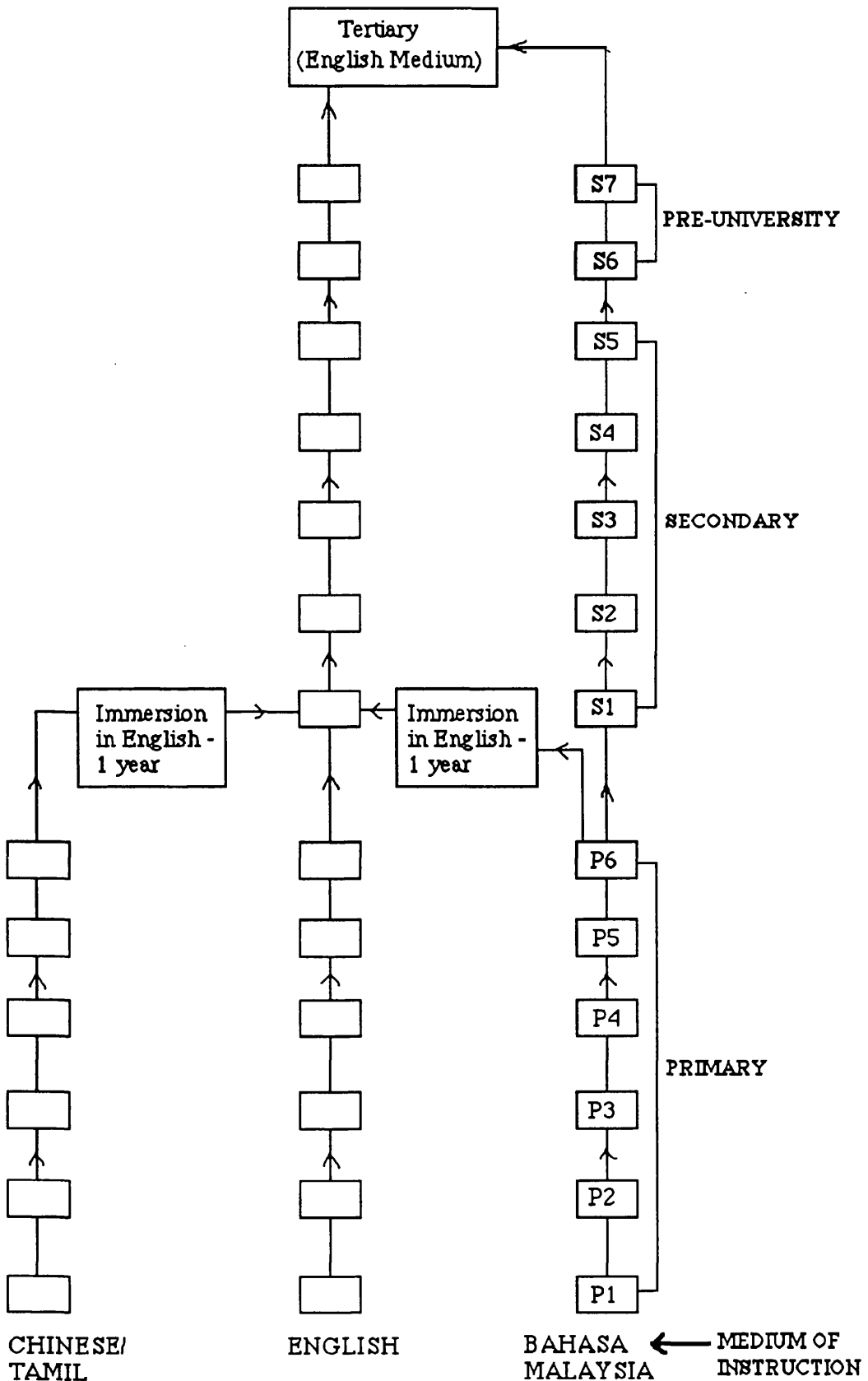
Figure 2.6: The status of the English Language in the Malaysian government school system (Ministry of Education, 1989). {Note: P = Primary; S = Secondary}.

Tertiary
(Bahasa Malaysia)

S7
S6

PRE-UNIVERSITY - no provision
for the compulsary teaching of the
English Language

S5
S4
S3

SECONDARY

S2

Immersion
Bahasa
Malaysia
1 year

S1

P6

PRIMARY

P5
P4

English taught
as a subject
from 3rd. year
onwards

P3

English language is taught as a
subject from first year onwards

P2

P1

CHINESE/
TAMIL

BAHASA
MALAYSIA

MEDIUM OF
INSTRUCTION
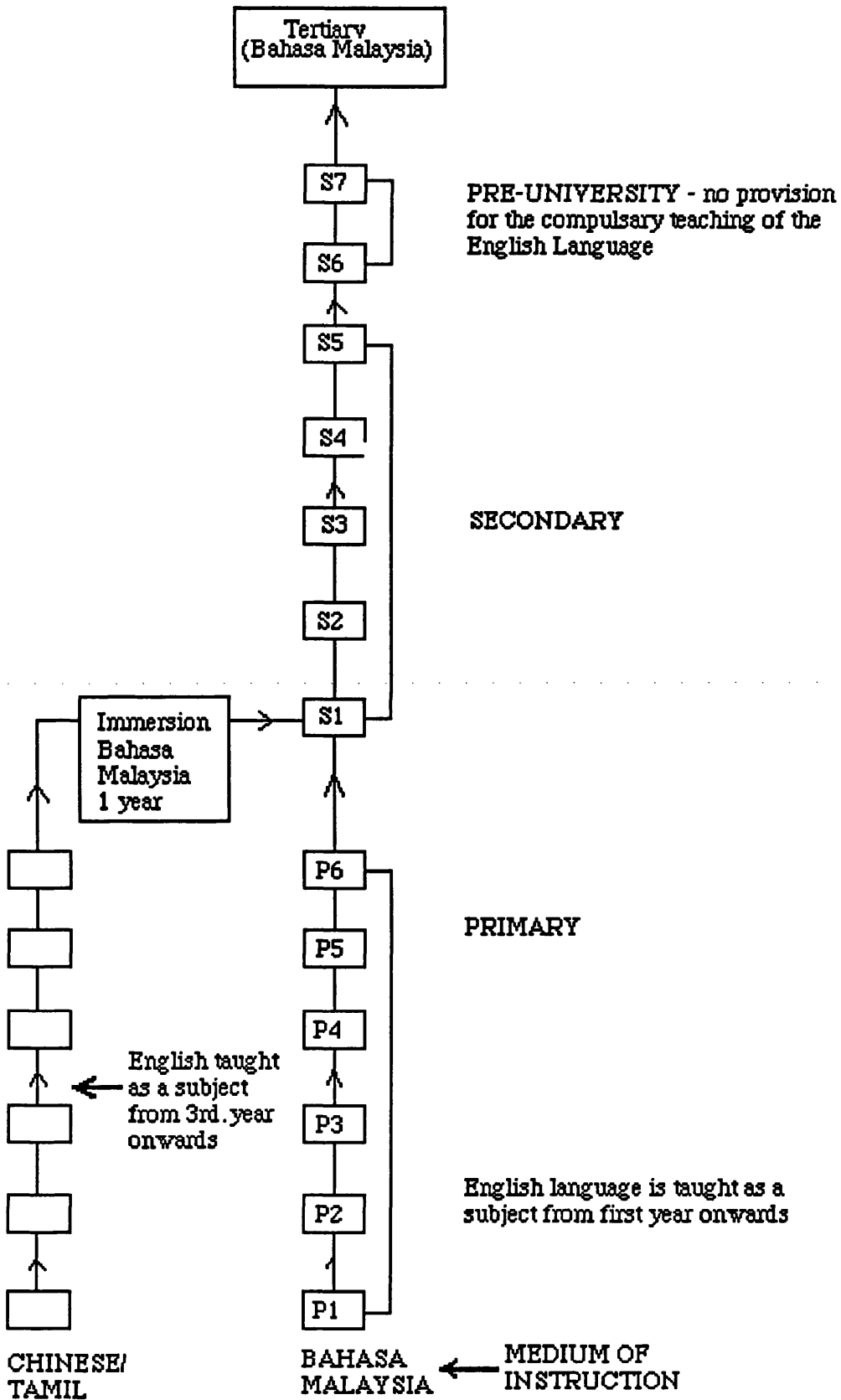
Those who are awarded the SRP proceed to upper secondary classes and, based on their results, they are channelled into Science, Arts, Technical or Vocational streams.

iii. Upper Secondary Education (Form IV-V)

Schools at this level, like those at the lower secondary level, use two media of instruction that is Bahasa Malaysia and English. Based on the language conversion programme, education at this level, is fully conducted using Bahasa Malaysia as the medium of instruction from Form IV to Form V in 1980. Students promoted to Form IV are channelled into three types of school:

(i) Academic Secondary Schools; including residential schools with arts or science stream.

(ii) Technical Secondary Schools; At the end of two years, pupils in the Academic and Technical streams sit for the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM or Malaysian Certificate of Education) which serves as an entry qualification in the public and private sectors. The certificate is also used as a basis for selection into post-secondary level (Form VI) or entry certificate and diploma courses.

(iii) Vocational Secondary schools; take the Sijil Pelajaran Vokasional Malaysia examination (SPVM or the Malaysian Vocational Certificate of Education).

In the Peninsula in 1988, 61.8% of the pupils in Form IV and V were in the arts stream, 31.2% in the science stream, 2.4% in the technical stream and 4.6% in the vocational stream (Ministry of Education, 1990b). The number of pupils going to the different types of schools is based on an estimation of the kinds of manpower required and the availability of places. In 1987, 92.8% of pupils went to the academic schools, 5.0% to the vocational schools and 2.2% to the technical schools (Ministry of Education, 1988d).

iv. Post-secondary education (Form VI; lower and upper)

Post-secondary education consists of two years and selection to the Arts, Science or Technical stream, is based on the SPM results. The average percentage of pupils

selected to Form Six annually for the years 1981 to 1988 was approximately 33% of the total numbers of pupils in Form V (Ministry of Education, 1990a). At the end of two years, pupils sit for the Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran (STP or the Higher School Certificate) examination for entrance to universities. The certificate also serves as an entry qualification for appointment to posts in the government service and private sector. Among this group of pupils, about 35% of them are eventually admitted to pursue courses in the local universities. Tertiary education, provided in colleges and universities, range from two to six years. At present, there are three colleges and seven universities in Malaysia.

2.4.2 Language policy

In the early nineteenth century the English school curriculum emphasised language more than any other single skills. A competent command of English was required in order to gain employment in commercial firms and in the administrative service, and for admission into any professional courses. The subjects offered in nearly every school were:
1. Oral English
2. English Language
3. English Literature
4. History
5. Geography
6. Elementary Mathematics
7. Hygiene with Physiology

Since 1957 a number of steps have been taken to implement the national language policy in the education system. These include:

(i) making the national language a compulsory subject at all levels in the primary and secondary schools and in all teacher training institutions;

(ii) setting up secondary schools or classes to be taught in the national language; and

(iii) a pass in the national language being made compulsory for the award of certificates for examinations at the end of the lower and upper secondary levels.

A more drastic measure was taken after the fourth general election held in May 1969 which was followed by a racial conflict (known as the 13 th. May Tragedy). The conflict forced the government to review the objective of the national education of the country with the hope that this would overcome some of the weaknesses in the education system which might - directly or indirectly - have triggered the tragedy. A new policy was implemented by which the English school system was gradually phased out to become completely Malay (Abu Bakar 1984; Kee and Hong 1971). So long as the English school system remained, polarisation in society between the well-to-do English educated and the unfortunate non-English educated was inevitable. Omar (1976;3) points out:

> " The majority of the rural people were Malays while the urban people were mostly Chinese. A greater part of the Indian population was found in rubber plantations where they were employed as estate workers. The existence of the English medium schools proved to be a divisive factor which engendered a social cleavage between the urban and the rural people. This cleavage was not only interracial in the sense of a split between the Malays and the Chinese, but was also intra-racial as a socio-educational gap was formed between the urban and the rural Malays".

The national policy was essentially aimed at accelerating the pace of national integration and unity. It was the introduction of Malay (the name changed to Bahasa Malaysia in 1969) as the main medium of instruction, with English as the second language, at all levels in the educational system. This meant that schools using English as the medium of instruction had to change to Bahasa Malaysia. The policy was implemented gradually beginning at Standard 1 in 1970 and moving up the educational ladder each succeeding year (Ministry of Education, 1981a).

The gradual phasing out of the English school system was started in January 1970 with the beginning of school year, as from Standard One. Hence, from that date, English came to occupy its rightful position as an L2 in the Malaysian school system (Ya'kub

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1969). As from 1978, the Lower Certificate Examination was wholly conducted in Malay, in 1980 the school certificate, and in 1982 the higher certificate. Therefore, by 1982 the English school system ceased to exist and by 1985 most of the final year first degree courses in local university were conducted in Malay. English was taught merely as a subject systems were, however, maintained. Figure 2.6 indicates the current educational pattern in Malaysia as a result of the change.

Sabah followed the same step starting the change concomitantly with Peninsular Malaysia. However, in Sarawak, the process was begun only in 1976 due to lack of resources and manpower trained in the Malay-medium. The process is expected to be complete by 1988 by which time at the end of the year all pupils will sit for the higher school certificate examination, i.e. the Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran (STP) through the medium of Malay.

In any case, to the Malaysians at large, the pressure of prestige and importance of English is still felt even today. The language continues to function as the language of science and technology since most reference materials in local tertiary institutions are still in English. It is a world language by means of which contacts with other countries - especially in the diplomatic and commercial fields- are conducted. English is still used as a means of communication among the English-educated and a first language for those who have discarded their mother-tongue. It also serves as a social identification and a symbol of urbanisation.

> "There is no denying that amongst the legacies of the British colonial government in Malaysia, the most valuable is the English language"(Omar, 1982).

Although there was a certain degree of antagonism towards the former British rulers, this does not involve antagonism towards the English language; and the abolition of the English school system was for the sake of national unity.

Primary education is now provided in three languages: Bahasa Malaysia, Chinese and Tamil. At the secondary level Bahasa Malaysia has become the main medium of

instruction since 1980. By the end of the 80s Bahasa Malaysia will also become the main medium of instruction at the post-secondary and tertiary levels.

Bahasa Malaysia as the national language and the main medium of instruction has implications on the school curriculum. At the primary level, apart from being the medium of instruction in the national schools, it is also taught in the other schools from the first year (Curriculum Development Centre, 1983). And, as already mentioned, one of the objectives of the Bahasa Malaysia programme is for promoting the language as the national language of the country and as an instruction of national unity.

2.4.3   Substitution of Bahasa Malaysia for English

When the country gained independence in 1957, a distinct national character needed to be implemented. This process, Fishman (1968) points out, is characteristic and therefore not unexpected of newly-independent nations. Nationalistic sentiments were soon translated into a policy to substitute Bahasa Malaysia for English.

While Tamil and Chinese-medium schools were allowed to retain their vernacular character at primary levels, English was to be completely phased out as a medium of Education . With these changes at the elementary level, English has lost its ground as a medium of instruction and as a separate subject. Figure 2.6 shows the status of English in the Malaysian government school system.

The Constitutional provisions for safeguarding the interests of the ethnic groups in the country ensured the retention of the vernacular as a medium of education (albeit at a reduced scale), but no similar entitlements could be extended to English schools. This stemmed from the fact that English was not recognised as the language of any of the major ethnic groups in the country.

English then, will have to be viewed in the light of Kehoe's (1972) assertion that in the determination of language policy, decisions are more likely to reflect political realities rather than either linguistic assumptions or pedagogical advantages. The decision to support Bahasa Malaysia as the national language was underpinned by strong socio-political variables (Strevens, 1976), as was the case with the other vernacular languages too.

English, however, had evolved more out of utilitarian values rather than political realities. The political neutrality of the English language in Malaysia (Judd,1978; Omar, 1979) considerably weakened its basis to support in a language policy founded more on factors of a socio-political rather than economic or linguistic nature. In 1970, the vigorous implementation in Malaysia of the "clearly-defined policy of promoting Bahasa Malaysia as the one and only national, official and instructional language of the country" (Llamzon, 1976) resulted in a significant attrition in the importance of English with far-reaching repercussions on the teaching and learning of English.

Just as independence in 1957 had necessitated the replacement of the British colonial administration, the eventual displacement of English in favour of Bahasa Malaysia was seen as equally necessary if political independence was to have any real meaning (Chai, 1977). From a language which had the status of being a medium of instruction in the educational system, it was relegated to the status of a subject in the school curriculum. The changed status of English meant a fundamental change in the role of English and the context in which it now has to operate in Malaysia.

The dual effect of the policy was to reduce and ultimately dispense completely with the teaching of English as a first language, while simultaneously stepping up the teaching of English as a second language (Lee,1974). The vastly-altered status of the English language has important implications for the school curriculum. At secondary level, "in terms of operational English study time, this meant a reduction from 1,780 minutes to

merely 200 minutes per week" (Samah, 1979). Realising its importance, the Education

Minister, Datuk Musa Hitam, during the parlimentary debate stated that:

> "...the English language was an important second language in schools and institutions of higher learning. The Ministry would see to it that the standards were maintained and improved. He agreed that the teaching of English should be given serious attention not only by the Ministry but the teachers and parents as well. His Ministry, Datuk Musa said, was actively studying the various ways to improve the teaching of the language both from the short and long term view"(New Strait Times, 7 April,1978).

Replying to a question put to him in the Dewan Rakyat (Malaysian Lower House of

Parliment), Haji Salleh Jafaruddin, Deputy Education Minister, outlined steps to be

taken to improve the standard of English. In addition to a research project on the

standard of English required (New Straits Times, 6 April, 1978), other measures were

taken as follows:

i.   increasing the reading materials in English for primary schools and launch supplement reading programmes for secondary schools;

ii. review and update the English language syllabus for primary and secondary schools; and

iii. intensify the in-service training for English teachers to expose them to latest teaching techniques of the language.

Later, Datuk Musa Hitam (New Straits Times, 27 April, 1978) told the Dewan Negara

(Malaysian Upper House of Parliment) that:

> "...he had directed his officers to draw short and long term programmes to improve the standard of English among pupils. He said the short term plan-comprising immediate steps to overcome the problem- might be carried out next year. The long term programmes would include a careful review of all aspects of the teaching of English, including the training of teachers, facilities and other related matters"

Despite all the efforts made by the Ministry of Education, the standard of English

among the pupils is still relatively poor. This can be seen from the UPSR (Primary

School Achievement Test) in 1988 showed that a large number of children, especially

those from the rural schools, needed remedial teaching in subjects such as English and

Mathematic (Government of Malaysia, 1990).

The formal status of English within the education system has been clearly spelled out. Actually, however, it is a genuine L2 only to a handful of English-educated urbanites. To them, the deteriorating standard of English as a result of its changing role is very distressing.

Nonetheless, the decline in the qualitative aspect of English proficiency is evidently inevitable because the present education system is not anymore producing English-educated learners of English as a second language (ESL). The English-medium pupils of the pre-1970s were extensively exposed to English both within and outside schools. On rare occasions, some schools even forbade the use of language other than English when in school premises to the extent of imposing some sort of punishment on any pupils who spoke them.

Conversely, the majority of Malay-educated learners of today see English as nothing more than a school subject without any immediate need. They can dispense with English entirely and still get themselves promoted from one level of schooling to the next. This, teachers generally believe, undoubtedly colours their attitudes towards the subject which in turn affect their examination result. As an example, in the 1978 Primary School Achievement Test (UPSR), only 43% of the total Malay-medium candidates throughout the country passed the English paper and in 1982 the figure dwindled to 17% (Mohd Hashim 1982). Similarly, in the Sijil Pendidikan Malaysia (SPM or Malaysian Certificate of Education) common communication English paper conducted for the first time in 1977, only 10% of the total Malay-medium candidates throughout the country passed the paper as against 60% of English-medium candidates who passed (Chandrasegaran, 1979)

The low standard of English among Malay-medium pupils was once commented by Datuk Haji Abdullah Badawi (Utusan Malaysia, April 12, 1988), then Minister of Education:

> "Currently it is clear that the importance of English has been neglected to the extent that its quality and use among Malaysians have declined".

The preferential treatment accorded the English medium schools ensured a higher quality of education through that medium, which was available right up to tertiary level. Therefore it was of the greatest social and economic advantage to be educated in English medium schools (Wong, 1982). Under such favourable conditions English became established as the lingua franca of the educated elite and as the language of higher education in Malaysia (Lee, 1974).

2.5 English Education in Malaysia.

In Malaysia, a high-level decision at some point of time had resulted in the introduction of English (George, 1972). Before independence the English language was used as the medium of instruction at all school levels in English-medium schools apart from being the medium of instruction amongst people in the middle and upper classes. This situation has changed since independence as Bahasa Malaysia has, in stages, been made the medium of instruction in all schools with the aim of making it the unifying force amongst the people. Nevertheless, English is still taught at all school levels, because of its importance especially in the acquisition of knowledge, for example in the field of science and technology. Bearing in mind that Bahasa Malaysia aspires to bring forth a progressive society based on modern science and technology, it is appropriate that English is made the instrument to achieve this objective.

The main purpose of the English lessons is to impart basic skills and knowledge with two specific aims:

(i) to enable the students to use the language in their work; and

(ii) to improve their skills and increase their knowledge of the language to be used for specific needs at higher levels of education (Ministry of Education, 1985c).

At present English is a compulsory subject in schools and all public examinations, although the candidate need not pass this subject in order to continue his education. As a consequence the quality of teaching and learning English in schools especially in national schools is found to be less than satisfactory (Ministry of Education, 1985c).

The enrolment of Malay, Chinese and Tamil-medium schools were almost exclusively confined to the respective ethnic components of society. English schools, on the other hand, did not actually cater to the British. Instead the enrolments of these schools were largely drawn from the more privileged and affluent class of Malaysian society (Platt, 1976), and this way was quite independent of ethnicity barriers. The resultant effect of English-medium education was therefore elitist with a consequent division of society along socio-economic stratification, as opposed to vernacular education which accentuated ethnic compartmentalisation.

Despite the availability of instruction in the mother tongue, and the fact that English education was neither free nor compulsory, English schools commanded the greatest attraction. Lee (1974) attributes this to the fact that "it was of higher quality than the vernacular system and offer access to post-secondary education". Over and above this, it was seen as a passport to important positions in government and in the increasing number of European business establishments, as well as for professional training (Platt and Weber, 1980). These factors accorded it a virtually indisputable advantage over the other media in tertiary education and in employment (Miller, 1968). Its status as "the most indispensable requirement in the achievement of social and economic status" was considerably enhanced with the extension of colonial rule and the expansion of international trade and communication in Malaysia (Omar, 1976).

Fishman (1968) has stated of new nations that 'in the absence of a common nationwide, ethnic and cultural identity (they) proceed to plan and create such an identity

through national symbols that can lead to common mobilisation above, beyond, and at the expense of pre-existing ethnic-cultural particularities. It is at this point that a national language is frequently invoked as a unifying symbol.

> "Even before complete independence, the Alliance Government had set about the establishment of Malay as the national language. However, the immediate operational needs of the country may well necessitate the short-term recognition of another or of multiple languages. Thus some nations have hit upon the expediency of recognising several local languages as permissible for early education (i.e. grade one to three or even six), whereas the preferred national language is retained for intermediate education and a non-indigenous language of international significance is retained (at least temporarily) for government activity and higher education"(Fishman, 1968).

In the case of Malaysia, although Malay was made the national language, there is no prohibition of using English in the country. In fact it was still used as a second official language for independence Malaysia. Due to the importance of this language internationally it was retained for 'official' purposes, for the court, for diplomacy and for consultative purposes.

Article 152 of the Federal Constitution states:

> "The national language is Malay, and Parliament has the right to decide the script in which it may be written (Romanised script is the official script, Jawi may be used). Until 1967, English will continue in all Parliment Bills and Acts. Similarly, both Malay and English may be spoken in Parliment and the State Assemblies, but English remains the language of the Supreme Court until Parliment decide otherwise".

Thus it can be seen that English was retained for some time for the courts and parliament. In fact it has been retained for a much longer period. What Fishman (1968) states in regard to language of education also has been generally true in Malaysia, although it would not be appropriate to consider the policy of allowing primary education in Mandarin or Tamil, with Bahasa Malaysia as a second language is merely 'expediency' (Platt and Weber, 1980). This is because the non-Malays have the right to receive education in their mother tongues, at least at the primary level, in order to introduce, if not the language then the form of the language, and later the children should be given a choice either to continue their education in Malay or in their own language.

Of course, although the language may be made officially the national language, this does not of itself make it de facto the national language. It is the task of various official, or officially sanctioned, bodies to bring about changes in language use patterns so that the language does indeed become the national language. The changes that have occurred and still are occurring in the functions and status of English, should be considered, the former prestige language in relation to the increasing functions and the status of Malay. By referring to English as the former prestige language, it is not implied that there were no other high status speech varieties. Quite obviously there are prestige forms of Malay, varieties of Chinese, Indian languages such as Tamil and Punjabi, as well as the special prestige language connected with the religious domain, Arabic (Platt and Weber, 1980). What it is meant is that English was considered a prestige language because being fluent in it would lead "to higher status of occupations and higher income" (Platt and Weber, 1980).

With the present policy of implementing Bahasa Malaysia as the de facto as well as de jure national language, there has obviously been a change in the relative status of Bahasa Malaysia and English. For the Malays, there is obviously a cultural attachment to Bahasa Malaysia. In addition many of those now able to receive higher education and higher status positions are not from a background in which English had any great relevance. For the rural population, there would have been a degree of awareness that English was the language of the British administration and a language of power but as they had little or no opportunity to learn it they had neither sentimental of instrumental attachment to it.

Obviously Bahasa Malaysia is becoming more the language which will increase functional value for most of the population as it becomes even more important as the language of government. The process by which it becomes the language to which the whole population has sentimental attachment will be slower, but the more it is used and

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acceptance as appropriate for the private domain of Family and Friendship, the more this state is likely to be achieved. Obviously in the multi-ethnic, multilingual, multi-cultural society such changes do not occur overnight.

For some English-medium educated Malaysian, English has been on the borderline of being a Second language and a First language, but the number of such people will diminished. The reason is obvious because through the conversion programme all English-medium schools have been replaced by Malay-medium instruction. But there are a few private schools offering English as their medium of instruction. Obviously not all parents can afford to send their children to such schools so English remains as the language of communication only for those who can afford it, i.e. the upper and middle classes. For many, especially those who do not go on to higher education and/or have little or no contact with the English-speaking world, English, although it is taught as a 'second language' will be more a foreign language.

2.6   The philosophy and aims of education

As yet there is no one document in which the philosophy and aims of education for the country are explicitly and categorically stated. Nevertheless, they can be deduced from documents dealing with national policies such as the RUKUNEGARA (Figure 2.2), national development plans or government budgetary reports. Such documents enunciate strategies in the nation's quest for national identity and unity which involve the whole range of economic, social, political and cultural activities. The philosophy and aims of education can also be inferred from the objectives of educational projects and activities and in the preambles and statements of objectives of specific subject syllabuses.

There have been attempts to formulate statements of the philosophy and aims of education. These statements, however, were tentative and intended to serve as guidelines for certain purpose. For instance, in 1981, at the National Workshop on the

Philosophy of Teacher Education in Malaysia, the key paper delivered highlighted the essence of what constitutes the philosophy and aims of education as contained in the various documents. The participants deliberated upon the views presented and arrived at some consensus on what may be termed as the operational concept of the philosophy of education for the country. This was to serve as guidelines in the formulation of the philosophy and aims of teacher education (Ministry of Education, 1981c).

A more recent attempt to formulate statements of the philosophy and aims of education was in 1983 during a seminar convened to arrive at guidelines for planning the new curriculum for the secondary school level. In this initial attempt, the national philosophy of education was stated as follows:

> "Education is an effort towards developing the overall potential of children to enable them to become citizens with balanced development spiritually and physically; who are knowledgeable, responsible, and able to achieve individual happiness; as well as to contribute positively to the growth and prosperity of the nation in order to create a loyal, disciplined and united society in accordance with the principles of the RUKUNEGARA"(Ministry of Education, 1983e).

The seminar also attempted to specify the aims of education. These were stated as the promotion of the well-being of the individual and his contribution to society and nation. They incorporate the balanced and overall spiritual and physical development of the individual, the inculcation of appropriate values and attitudes, the enhancement of the ability for thinking and reasoning, the acquisition of skills and knowledge, and the nurturing of creativity appropriate to the conditions and needs prevailing in his society and the wider society. More specifically, the aims are:

(i) the creation of citizenry and national unity through mutual understanding, tolerance and closer relationship between the various communities, respect for the laws and the Constitution and pride in the national culture;

(ii) the development of rational thinking, positive attitudes to scientific inquiry and technological development, and the acquisition of knowledge, skills and values congruent with modernisation;

(iii) the development of the individual as a skilled and competent producer, and an effective consumer; and

(iv) the fostering of awareness of the Malaysian society being a member of the regional and world community (Ministry of Education, 1983c).

Malaysia is in the process of nation-building with vigorous efforts at fostering national unity, creating a national culture and promoting socio-scientific technological development. Hence, its philosophy of education, expresses its beliefs, commitments and values and its aims of education, serving as a source of inspiration and providing a sense of perspective; are accordingly geared to the overall goals of nation-building.

2.7 Equalising Opportunities

Most parents everywhere have high hopes for their children. In Malaysia, as in most countries, the more prosperous ones can provide far more advantages to assist their children success in school and subsequently, than can the poorer ones. The former can not only afford the costs of schooling, forego the potential earning or labour of their children, but also offer a model of achievement and a richer, more diversified home environment for the child.

A large scale nationwide sociological research in 1971-72 to study the causes of school leaving among primary and lower secondary students has shown relationship between poverty and school leaving. About one-tenth of the poorest children as contrasted to nine-tenths of the most prosperous were enrolled in school at age 15+. Attrition was highest in the rural population except for the small stratum of prosperous families (Committee of Education and Society, 1973).

Education in Malaysia is also seen as a means of restructuring society. Since independence in 1957 the policy of successive governments has been to create a national system of education acceptable to the people of Malaysia as a whole, to create a sense of national unity and to redress the socio-economic imbalance of the population. This was

done by restructuring the school system, nationalising the curriculum, developing the national language, and providing vocational and scientific courses.

One of the main aims of the economic development of the country is to eradicate poverty and the identification of jobs with race (Government of Malaysia, 1975). There had always been a wide disparity of economic development between urban and rural areas. There is also the polarisation of jobs according to race. Chinese are usually shopkeepers and artisans, the Malays mostly fishermen and farmers, and the Indians are usually estate workers, with a few as shopkeepers in the towns. Among the professionals, scientific and technical posts are mostly held by the non-Malays and the Malays predominate in the administrative services.

There is also disparity in resources, facilities and pupil achievement between the urban and rural schools. The urban schools are better established, tend to have better facilities and teacher supply, obtain higher levels of achievement and experience a lower drop-out rate. The determination of the government to bring about these changes through education is reflected in the Third Malaysia Plan (Government of Malaysia, 1975). The educational policy in this plan is characterised by five major thrusts as follows:

(i) The objective of national unity and integration will make the progressive introduction of the Malay language as the main medium of instruction at all levels of education imperative.
(ii) Educational facilities and opportunities for the poor will be extended. Pre-school education will be provided in areas where poverty is dominant. There will be continuation of the textbooks loan scheme as well as health and nutritional programmes for poor pupils.
(iii) The education and training system will be geared to equip the youth with knowledge and skills necessary for their effective participation in developing the economy.
(iv) Continuing efforts will be made to increase enrolment among Malay students so as to bring about a balance that accords with the long term objective of restructuring the composition of employment in professional, technical and managerial occupations.

(v) The planning and administrative capacity of the Ministry of Education will be strenghthened particularly at state level.

The overriding objective of the Malaysian education system is the promotion of national integration. Policies and programmes for education and training will continue to be geared towards fostering national unity and increasing the participation of all Malaysian in national development. The use of English as a second language has been given greater emphasis. Other means of national integration will be by the inculcation of national values, development of character through curricular and extra-curricular activities and narrowing the gap in educational opportunities among the various regions and races in the country. Since 1971 there had been some efforts at improving conditions in the rural areas such as the replacement of sub-standard schools and the amalgamation of under utilised ones.

2.7.1 Qualitative Improvements

As the need for a rapid expansion of educational facilities decreased in the last few years, greater attention has been given to improving the quality of education. In the early 1970s, the focus was narrowed to the need for building a progressive society oriented towards modern science and technology. Specific measures towards this end were the introduction of Modern Mathematics and the Integrated, Nuffield and Modern Sciences at the secondary level.

More recently it has been recognised that the changes in specific subjects do not fully meet the goals of qualitative improvement. If measures are to meet the needs of nation-building they must be much wider and more integrated. A number of new programmes fall into this category and are described as follows:

i. Initial teacher training

There are 26 teacher training colleges in Malaysia, mainly certifying teachers for primary schools. Out of these colleges, thirteen colleges train teachers for secondary

schools. Table 2.3 shows the 1984 numbers of student teachers accepted into the various colleges for Bahasa Malaysia, TESL, Mandarin and Tamil. The table is deceptive in the sense that the TESL training is not the same as the training of other language teachers for secondary schools. TESL teachers are language teachers only.

Table 2.3: Number of student teachers accepted into teachers colleges for 1984 (Ministry of Education, 1985b).

	Primary	Secondary	Total
Bahasa Malaysia	1620	505	2125
TESL	990	270	1260
Mandarin	630	30	660
Tamil	120	0	120

Most student teachers for Bahasa Malaysia and TESL have the S.T.P. (Higher School Certificate), the public examination beyond the SPM. On paper, it appears that student teachers have the necessary language competence to be language teachers.

Pre-service teacher education, mainly for upper secondary teachers, is also offered by local and foreign universities. All upper secondary language teachers are certified mainly through the local universities but, in the last few years, a number of TESL teachers have been produced through pre-service training in foreign universities.

In 1973 a two-year integrated teacher training programme was introduced aiming at providing greater mobility of teachers between the primary and the lower secondary levels. However in 1981 the duration of the training was extended to three years to allow for wider scope and greater depth of study.

ii. In-service education for teachers

Numerous in-service courses have been held for training the untrained temporary teachers and for upgrading the competence of trained teachers in various subjects.

Between 1980 and 1990, 6 089 untrained teachers and 223,302 trained teachers attended in-service courses (Government of Malaysia, 1988d).

TESL courses are being offered locally and also abroad, especially in Britain. Over 1983 and 1984, TESL personnel in all sections of the Ministry of Education have been sent for short term three-month courses to universities in Britain under the auspices of the British Council. The British government has budgeted five million pounds for the training of Malaysians in Britain from 1983- 1985. In 1983, 60 personnel were sent for short courses and 40 students, who had just graduated from schools, embarked on a five year period of study for a Bachelor's degree in TESL (Ministry of Education, 1985b). Beside personnel being sent for training to Britain, 100-150 TESL personnel were also sent to Australia, New Zealand, the United States, and Canada for diplomas and master's degrees in TESL, Linguistics, English Language and English Literature.

iii. Curriculum development

A Science Centre was established in 1969 to initiate improvements in science and mathematics. This was replaced by the Curriculum Development Centre in 1973 which is responsible for systematising curriculum development for a large number of subjects at the primary and secondary levels, and will be examined further in Chapter 3.

iv Staff development

In 1979 a training institute, known as Aminuddin Baki Institute was set up to provide training to all levels of staff in the education system in order to improve the management of education.

v. Other programmes

Since 1980 a number of developments have been initiated arising from the recommendations contained in the Cabinet Committee Report (1979). Most of these are aimed at qualitative improvements such as in the need to make educational content

relevant to the emerging and changing needs of the nation and to make the teaching and learning process more effective. As mentioned earlier, the KBSM is a major outcome of the Report.

There is little doubt about the rapid development of education in Malaysia. However, concerted efforts will have to continue as there are great demands for places at the higher levels; the rural schools are still disadvantage compared to the urban schools; and the steadily rising standards of living and rising levels of expectations will continually exert pressure for better educational services.

2.8 Organisation, administration and planning of education

Educational planning is an integral part of the overall national development planning and system and its implementation is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. Within the Ministry of Education the highest decision-making body is the Educational Planning Committee whose chairman is the Minister of Education (Figure 2.7). This committee undertakes the overall educational planning and co-ordinates activities of the different units in the Ministry. The education system is centralised, but within its framework it allows some degree of flexibility and adaptability in the implementation process. In fact, it not only permits but also encourages decentralised initiatives on the part of the implementors. Some measures in the implementation of the KBSR, to be discussed later, signify a deliberate attempt to promote initiatives at the school, district and state levels. The administrative machinery exists at four levels i.e. central (national), state, division or district and school.

(i) National level

At the national level there are eighteen divisions within the Ministry of Education which carry out specific functions (Figure 2.8). Eleven are in the professional domain headed by the Director-General and seven in the administrative domain headed by the Secretary-General (Figure 2.8).

(ii) State level

The State Education Department is headed by a Director who is responsible for professional as well as administrative matters. He is assisted by two directors and a number of professional and administrative officers (Figure 2.9).

(iii) **Division or district level**

The Division Offices in Sabah and Sarawak (in East Malaysia) and District Offices (in West Malaysia) are responsible for carrying out a number of functions on behalf of the State Department. In Peninsular Malaysia fifty-seven district education offices were set

Figure 2.7: The committee system (Ministry of Education, 1989).
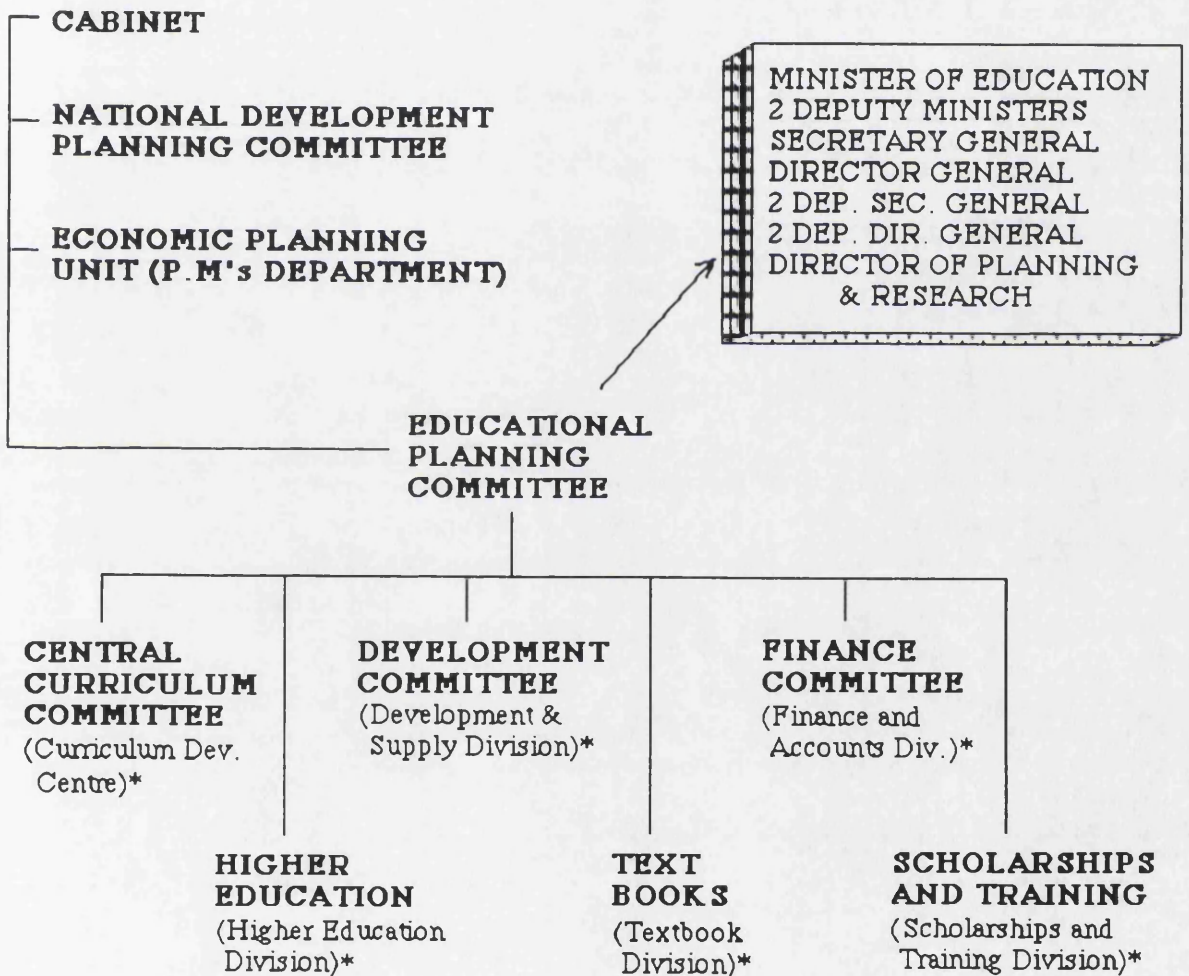
Note: * Secretariate

Figure 2.8: Organisational structure at national level.
(Min. of Education, 1989).
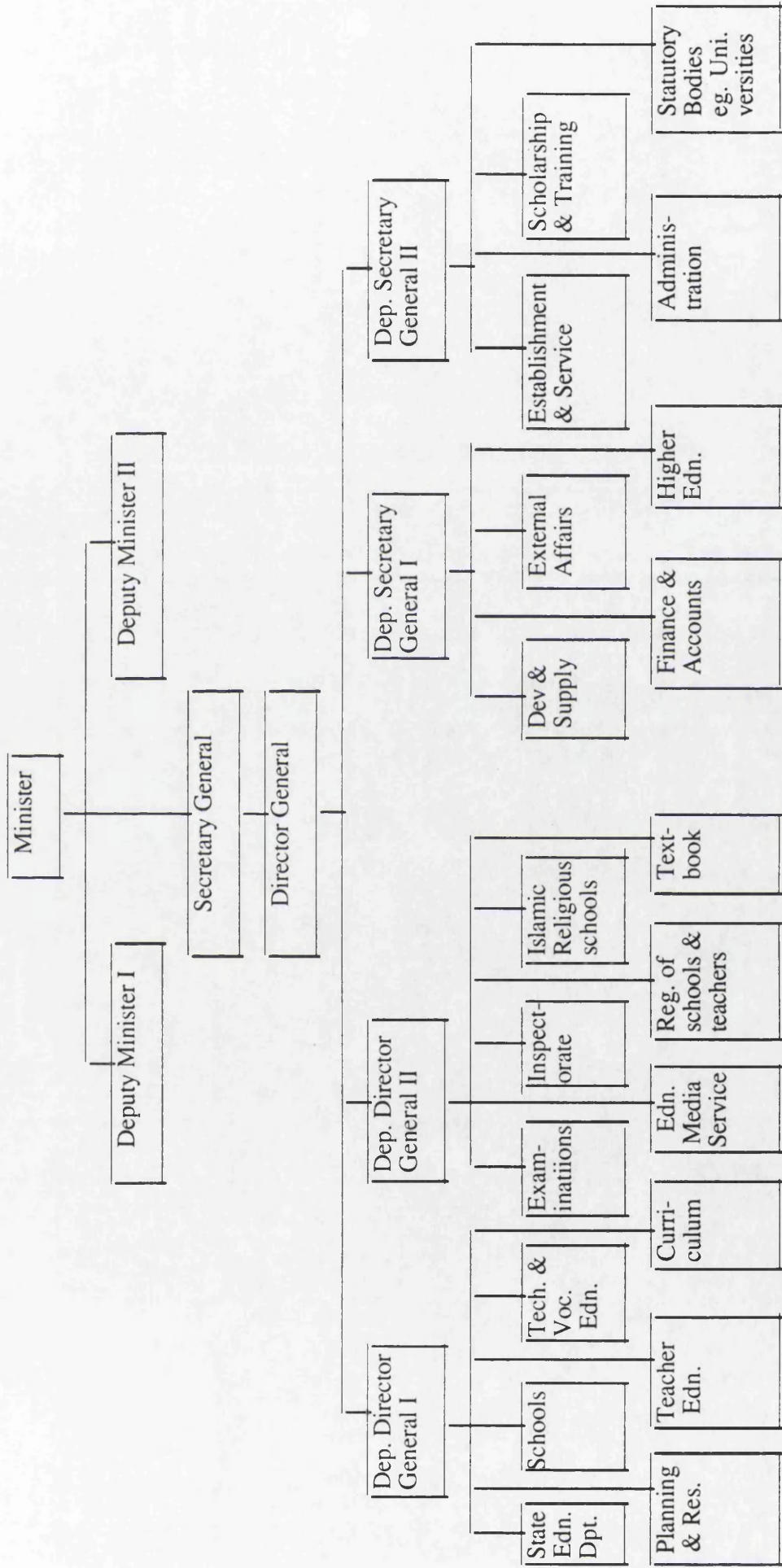
Figure 2.9:Organisational structure at state level (Ministry of Education,1989b).
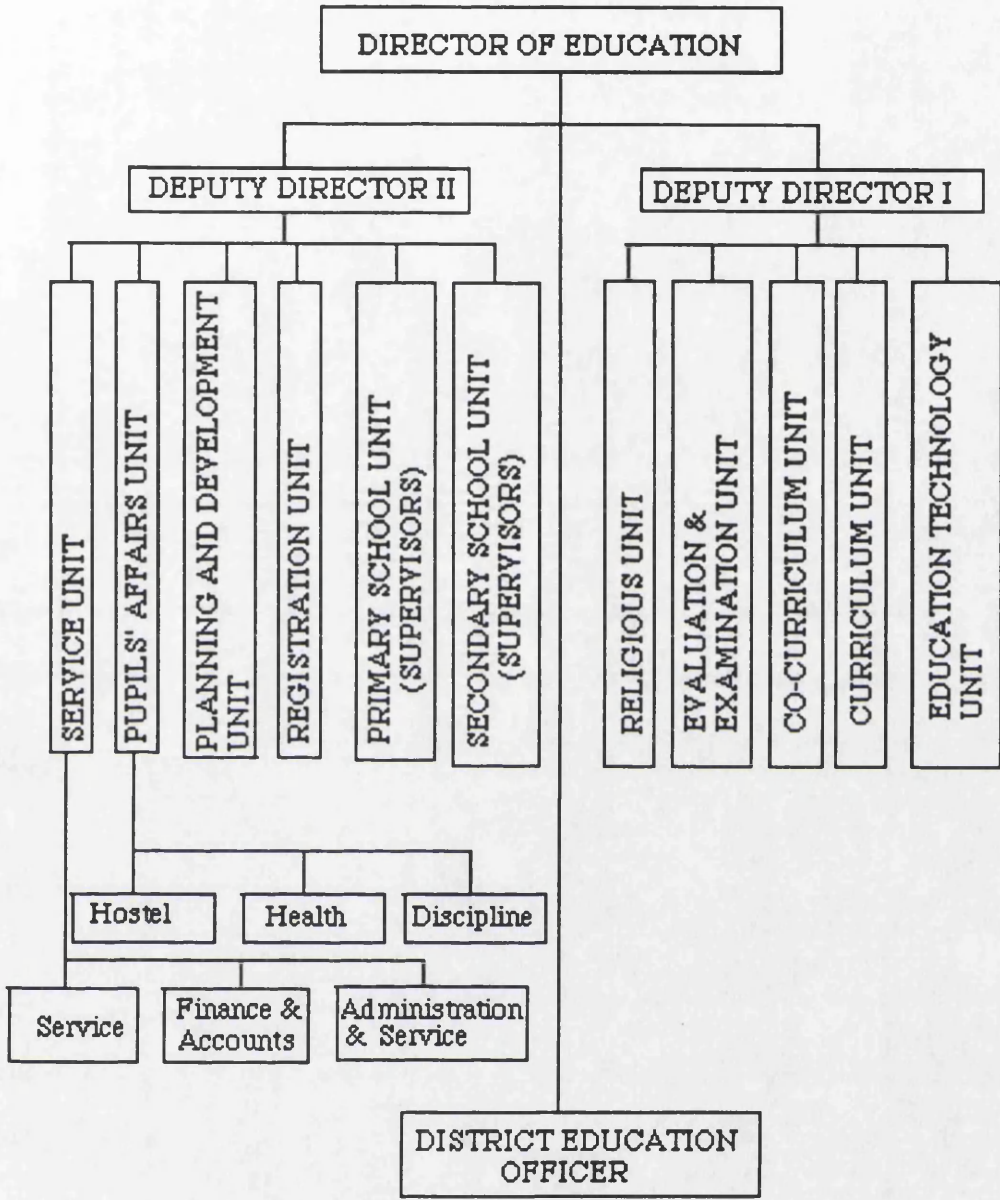
up in 1982 (Figure 2.10). The establishment of the district offices in Peninsular Malaysia is one of the measures towards improving the quality of education in the country. The setting-up of these offices placed very well with the introduction of the KBSR. As will be seen later, the district office in this study had actually undertaken a large portion of the responsibility for implementing the new curriculum.

(iv) School level

At the school level the headteacher is the administrative and professional head. He is directly responsible to the State Director through the Division or District Officer as shown in Figure 2.11.

2.9 Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be said that even though the status of English language is just a second language/ESL or foreign language but it is a very important language in Malaysia. The existing of English language in school system in Malaysia relies heavily upon the history during colonisation by British. Thus the implemention of the English language need to be serious, in particular the rural area and also more positive attitude should be considered by teachers and pupils.

Education at the primary and lower secondary levels is not compulsory, but a place has to be provided for each child. Though education can be considered free, parents do have to pay a nominal fees for library and sports, purchase of school supplies and school uniforms. Textbooks, however, have now become available free to a large proportion of pupils through the Textbook Loan Scheme. All pupils in the national primary schools and the poorer ones in the other schools are eligible for this assistance (Ministry of Education, 1983b).

Common course of studies and syllabuses are used throughout the country. At the primary level, due to the differences in the media of instruction, there is variation in the grade level in which a particular language is taught and the time allocated for its teaching. In the national schools English is taught from Standard 1; while in the national-type schools Bahasa Malaysia is taught from Standard 1, and English from Standard 3.

The courses of studies at the lower secondary level are organised along similar lines to those at the primary level, and allowing for wider scope and greater depth of study. There is an additional component, the pre-vocational subjects, aimed at providing pupils with the initial orientation to the world of work. The sixth form is available only to about 30% of the total number of Form V pupils. There are only the arts and science streams, and education at this level is generally regarded as a preparation for higher education. The curriculum at the secondary level is being revised in line with the recommendations of the Cabinet Committee Report (1979), and thus fundamental changes are expected to be introduced into the education system in Malaysia.

Figure 2.10: Organisation structure of district education office (Ministry of Education, 1989b).

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                  DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER
                  
      ASSISTANT DISTRICT            ASSISTANT DISTRICT
      EDUCATION OFFICER             EDUCATION OFFICER
      (SECONDARY) - (1)             (PRIMARY) - (1)

      DISTRICT EDUCATION            DISTRICT EDUCATION
      ORGANISER (1)                 ORGANISER (1)

                  ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL

                  1. CLERK
                  2. TYPIST
                  3. OFFICE BOY
                  4. MANUAL WORKER
                  5. DRIVER
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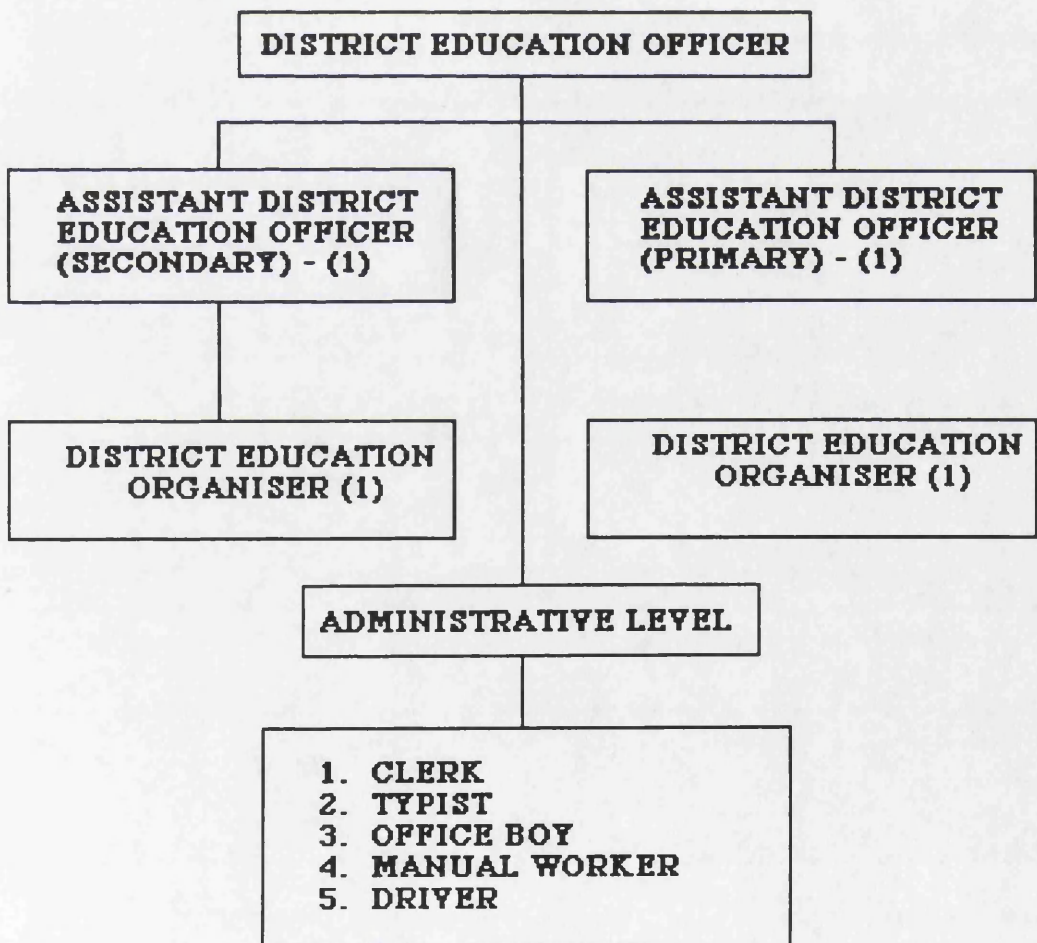
Figure 2.11: Organisational structure at school level (Min. of Education, 1989).

DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER AND SUPERVISORS (NOTIFICATION, ADVICE AND SUPERVISION)

BOARD OF MANAGER (ADVISORY)

PARENT-TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

SOCIAL DUTIES

PRINCIPAL (LEADERSHIP)

PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIP

SENIOR ASSISTANT (IN LARGE SCHOOL)

TEACHERS' MEETING

CLERKS

AUXILIARY SERVICES

LIBRARY SERVICES

MANUAL STAFF

SENIOR SUBJECT-TEACHERS, CLASSROOM TEACHERS

CLERICAL WORK

GENERAL AFFAIRS ACCOUNTING EQUIPMENT WELFARE LIAISON

HEALTH HOT MEALS

SCHOOL LIBRARIAN

INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

SUBJECT INSTRUC-TIONS 3 R'S, MUSIC, P.E.

RELIGIOUS MORAL, CIVICS EDUCATION

GUIDANCE AND COUNSEL-LING

OTHER TASKS RELATING TO INSTRUCTIONS AND CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

PREFECT BOARD

PUPILS

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON THE IMPLEMENTATION
OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION

3.1   Introduction

As discussed in Chapter 1 this thesis is concerned with curriculum change, in particular the implementation of a change at the secondary school level in Malaysia. The new curriculum is intended to introduce new emphases in objectives and content, new teaching style and new forms of instructional materials aimed at bringing about improvement in the quality of education which would affect virtually all children in the country. It is an example of an educational innovation. For this reason it is necessary that the concept 'innovation' and the literature that has accumulated be examined.

This study examines the process of curriculum evaluation and the contribution which made to effective curriculum planning and development.. The context and theory of the research, exploring the three donimant themes which run through the study, namely the interpretation of curriculum and curriculum development, teachers' responsiveness to chhange and the problem of implementation. Attention is also given to the question of the educational ideas from the West and their impact upon developing countries. Against this background, current theories and approaches to evaluation are examined, in pparticular the arguments revolving around the methodological debata and the influence which this has had upon the practice of evaluation in developing countries. A brief accounnnt is also given of Malaysia's education system, of one important curriculum project and the role of research and evaluation there.

3.2 Defining innovation and curriculum change

In reviewing the terminology *'innovation'*, Bosquet (1984) points out that it was originally a concept in economic theory. As it is defined by an economist, it refers to the manufacture of a new article or the introduction of a new need in order to make fuller use of resources or to become better adapted to desired objectives. The term began to be associated with education in the 1960s with the rapid expansion of research and development activities in the United States. Now the term has many and varied meanings as people and agencies have different views as to what constitutes an innovation. Miles (1964), for instance, feels that it is useful to define innovation as a deliberate, novel, specific change which is thought to be more efficacious in accomplishing the goals of a system.

Nisbet (1974) uses the term to refer to any new policy, syllabus, method or organisational change which is intended to improve teaching and learning. In a report of a workshop organised by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the term is understood to mean:those attempts to change in an educational system which are consciously and purposely directed with the aim of improving the present system. Innovation is not necessarily something new but it is something better and can be demonstrated as such.

The concept innovation has now expanded to the extent that it no longer has a precise meaning. Bosquet (1984) illustrates this through a perusal of lists of innovation projects undertaken by some of the international agencies in the last ten years. The work of the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID, 1977) in compiling national inventories of innovative programmes also illustrates the varied meaning attached to the term. For this task, centres engaged in educational reforms in each of the member states were requested to provide information on their projects.

The range in terms of scale incorporates projects for experimental purposes in one or a few institutions to those designed for nation-wide implementation. Diversity can also be seen in the specific changes aimed at by the different projects which include improvement of curriculum programmes, introduction of a new media for learning and strengthen school-community linkages.

Another way of viewing innovation or change is in terms of three characteristics as presented by Dalin (1978) as follows:

i) change is a process phenomenon as it takes place over time; it can be revolutionary or evolutionary in nature; and it involves a number of stages involving individuals, institutions and sub-systems;

ii) change is a systematic phenomenon as the individuals, organizations and interest groups involved are linked through formal and informal connections; and

iii) change is a multi-dimensional phenomenon as the process is 'political' and it is 'technical'; it is 'organisational' and it is 'individual'.

The term*innovation'* is often used interchangeably with the terms 'change' or 'reform' when it refers to planned change, though some writers have tried to make a distinction between them. In this thesis, these terms will be used interchangeably. The focus will be on innovations that are planned or initiated by agencies external to the school in order to bring improvement in teaching and learning. This mode of operation is currently the practice of introducing change in Malaysia.

3.3   The curriculum in intention and in practice

House (1981) said, the contemporary efforts in educational innovation in the industrialised countries of the West are often considered to have started in the early 1960s. In the United State this was dated to the launching of Sputnik in 1957 and the attacks on schools by university critics. Curriculum reform efforts were then launched in the name of scholarship and national defence. University scholars in mathematics and the natural sciences, and eventually in the humanities and social sciences, produced new curricular materials which were disseminated to teachers.

In the United Kingdom the early 1960s can also be regarded as the beginning of the curriculum reform movement. The first projects were funded by the Nuffield Foundation but in due course the Schools Council emerged as the major institution for

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curriculum development. The essential feature of the activities during this period, as in the United States, was the belief that curriculum development could and would become a planned and rational activity, the RD & D model. Subsequent experience, however, showed that this model did not always work as neatly in practice as in theory. Becher and Maclure (1978) argue that there are a number of practical reasons which work against this model, and it is at the diffusion stage that the weaknesses are revealed most clearly. Teachers did not respond in the logical way they were expected to do to the quality of the materials and to the ideas underlying them. This happened even when the projects drew heavily on the expertise of the best practising teachers - a measure taken arising from recognition of the autonomy of teachers in the United Kingdom.

From the general lack of success of the RD & D model to bring about the intended goals of educational change, a number of concepts and practices began to evolve. These can be classified into two categories. In one category are measures that attempt to strengthen critical processes in the model such as emphasis on dissemination, greater teacher involvement in the development process and provision of professional support for the teacher during implementation. In the other category are measures which could be considered as alternatives to the RD & D model. They include a variety of efforts such as the school-based curriculum development and the school-focused in-service training, all of which can be grouped under the broad heading 'school improvement'. Both categories of measures will be further examined later in the chapter.

3.4   Planning educational change

The term 'educational change' is open to different interpretations and nuances of meaning. To attempt to define it is not to solve curriculum problems but does help to identify certain issues which inevitably arise whenever curriculum and curriculum development are discussed. The emphasis in educational change is upon intention, upon the planning and guidance of work by schools. It is, of course, a definition formulated

in the context for it suggests that the planning is done by the school. In many other countries of the world, curriculum intentions are formulated centrally and a document entitled 'the curriculum' may be circulated to schools and teachers, in which precise content and methods of teaching are specified.

If curriculum is a difficult term to define, curriculum development is an even harder concept to delineate, the more so as in recent years it has become a fashionable bandwagon - at least until the accountability movement began to emerge as a restraining force. Perhaps for the purposes of this discussion, it can be regarded as the application of curriculum study practice. To this extent, it embraces all the concious and planned effords to change both the curriculum-in-intention and the curriculum-in-practice. In a centralised system of education, modifying or updating the curriculum statement is merely one part of the curriculum development process. This statement then has to be translated into teaching and learning materials and teachers have to be made aware both in pre and in-service training of the changes demanded. Often concomitant changes may be required in examinations, buildings, furniture, equipment, management and supervision. All of these elements are a part of the curriculum change process, of translating the curriculum-in-intention into the curriculum-in-practice. Too often a much narrower interpretation of the term is taken, restricted to modifications of the curriculum statement, to the projects in which written materials are developed and tested or to activities carried on by a curriculum development centre.

The reality is that a great variety of people and institutions mayt be involved in curriculum change: teachers (especially in decentralised education systems), inspectors, publishers, examination boards, research councils, aid agencies as well as the traditional centres such as universities, teacher training colleges or curriculum units of Ministry of Education. In different countries and in different circumstances, the

relative involvement of these bodies will vary but the recognition of their role and their planned participation is more likely to result in a narrower gap between intention and reality than if it is left to chance.

It is worth remembering that the ultimate goal of the complex process of curriculum change is to affect the learner and what he or she learns. Glossy, expensive curriculum materials or massive in-service training programmes are little signifiance or relevance unless they have some effect upon the learning of the people, whether children or adults, for whom the project was designed. The problem with this truism is that it has become enshrined in curriculum theory, having two particularly important influences. The first has been upon the interpretation of curriculum by American educators who have tended towards a model in which the attainment expected of students at the end of a course of study is clearly specified. The second important influence arising from the acceptance of the learner as the focus for curriculum change and its further operationalisation in the behavioural objectives model has been upon the thoery and practice of evaluation. For it can reasonably be argued that the only point at which the effect of curriculum change can be judged is at the point of the learner. When this is coupled with a specification of learning outcomes in behavioural terms, it is but a short step to the multiple choice objective test of achievement as the sole measure of a curriculum project's success or failure. In turn, this has led to a body of evaluation theory and practice dominated by the psychometricians.

Use of the term 'curriculum' in the sense of a list of subject matter to be covered can readily lead to the false notion that a curriculum is somehow fixed for the time that the statement is in print. The reality is much more complex if curriculum and curriculum change are viewed from the perspective discussed above. Of course, it is true that the printed document may not change but the reading and interpretation of it by all the practitioners involved, from teacher trainers and heads to inspectors and teachers, is a

dynamic process which will be affected not only by conscious and deliberate acts of educational planners (such as textbook or materials production, or the introduction of innovation teaching styles or methodologies) but also by subtle shifts in public opinion expressed through the media, parental pressure upon teachers to prepare their pupils for the examination hoops so critical to their life chances in developing countries, change in the economic circumstances of a country and deeper philosophical and cultural reactions to the acceptance of new or different ideas andpractices. For the ultimate arbiter of what happens in the classroom, the person responsible for translating the curriculum-in-intention to the curriculum-in-practice is the teacher, a human being who not only responds in an individual way to the demands, dictates and suggestions of those who take it upon themselves to plan the lives of others, but who is living in a wider society which itself is in a state of flux.

A consequence of this, whether politicans and administrators like it or not, is that curriculum change is untidy and ragged, rarely conforming to the designs and patterns envisaged by the planners. Some schools and teachers may embrace the new ideas enthusiastically, others may be frightened or suspicious of them, and other still may be too caught up with the business of survival in a situation of limited resources and overcrowded classrooms to cope effectively with them.

Seldom will the innovative ideas be implemented in the manner intended by the curriculum planners or material writers. Progress comes in the acceptance of this uneven pattern of advance and capitalising upon it: feeding the experience and enthusiasm of those practitioners who have responded effectively back into the curriculum change cycle; fostering communication between them and their colleagues; encouraging local modification and adaptation of materials and ideas rather than rigid adherence to centralised dogma; and promoting research and evaluation procedures which provide vivid, comprehensible and contemporary information to planners.

New curriculum materials may influence examination philosophy, syllabuses and design, difficulties of effecting curriculum change and so contribute to the fotmation of a necessary body of expertise for the future, the promotion of new practices in schools may trigger consequential effects in pre-service teacher training. A critical role for the educational planners lies in the identification of these unpredictable or unexpected side-effects, sieving out and judging their importance and ensuring that the lessons learnt are applied in the continuing cycle of change. Once again, the contribution of evaluation can be considerable if the design of the study is flexible, allowing such effects to be recognised, reported and fed back to practitioners.

Central to any strategy of qualitative change in schools must be the teacher for it is she -or he - who ultimately determines what children learn and the ways in which they learn it. Ministries of Education may make lofty statements of goals, writers may produce teaching/learning materials, heads may compile timetables but, in the end, the nature and quality of what happens within the four walls of the classrooms is dependent upon teacher.

The variation between teachers is as great as in any other field of human endeavour; everywhere there is a range of ability from the weak and incompetent, through the greater mass of average teachers, to the able, creative and imaginative ones. They vary not only in their ability but also in their adaptability in their personal responsiveness to new ideas and practices. Teachers may stand at different points on the stage model and their individual capability to move forward will also vary. It is remarkable how many educational experiments and innovations through out the developing would have been based on the assumption that teachers can make the 'leap' across educational stages provided that they are given a short in-service course

at the nearby training college. Notable among these have been the educational television experiments in American Samoa.

Change in school enrolment (increasing in the developing countries and decreasing in the industrialised countries), rising standards of living and rising level of expectations, in addition to the explosion of knowledge, and development of new media and channels of communication will continuously make demands or bring changes on the educational services. As Nisbet (1974) states thati nnovation is here to stay, and we must come to terms with it; and no one should underestimate the challenge and the difficulties which it presents.

This thesis thus provides an opportunity to gain a deeper understanding of this challenge and the complexities of implementating an innovation in rural and urban school in the Malaysian context.

3.5   The dynamic curriculum process

Various studies on curriculum have been carried out for various subjects in Malaysia. Ngui (1976) carried out a survey of the lower secondary geography curriculum in Kuala Lumpur. He made a survey of the teachers' perceptions of the lower secondary geography curriculum particularly pertaining to the following areas: objectives, syllabus, the position of the geography teachers, methods of teaching and the use of instructional materials. There is also an attempt to compare the views of the National and English medium school teachers. The study shows that the majority of teachers in the sample possess minimum qualifications (school certificate) and have never attended in-service courses. Teachers still regard geography as a mere learning subject with an overloaded syllabus. Schools do not have sufficient funds to purchase geography instructional materials.

Rahman (1985) made a study on how teachers in the secondary schools plan their English language curriculum. More specifically she looked into the purpose of planning the English language curriculum, how and what part teachers play in curriculum planning and what general principal teachers consider during planning. Her findings indicated that the teacher only decided on the content (what to teach) and the lesson planning at the classroom level. This is so as at the Ministry level the majority of the teachers have no say in the preparation of the syllabus and at school most of the planning is determined by the principal and the head of department.

Naginder (1985) did a study to evaluate the Ministry of Education English language reading programme in order to examine the students' response to the programme and make some pertinent recommendations. Among his findings Naginder said that a reduction in the class size (40-45 pupils at present) would enable the English language teachers to monitor the pupils' reading more closely. Further a reduction in the workload of the teachers' extra mural activities would enable them to implement the English Language Reading Programme more smoothly and efficiently because the teachers are required to attend to a lot of clerical work as well.

Tham (1987) carried out a study of the Principles of Accounts Curriculum in secondary schools in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. In his study he looked into the adequacy of the Principle of Accounts syllabus, assessed the suitability of the examination format, surveyed the current teaching practices and in-service training and concluded that the objectives of Principle of Accounts stated in the study were perceived to have been achieved to a considerable extent.

Chew (1979) conducted a study on the Malaysian curriculum change process and laid out propositions for a strategy for curriculum renewal. His study attempted to answer three major questions, namely, platforms from which curriculum planners formulate their curriculum decisions, the identifiable processes involved in generating and

sustaining curriculum change and finally the discernable directions and trends of curriculum change that would be practical in Malaysia within the next decade. His findings were that curriculum is conceived as a means to develop human potential for social reconstruction and that the practices of curriculum renewal in Malaysia have not taken into account adequately the implications and ramifications of curriculum change. Chew then proposes a reconceptualisation of the full of curriculum renewal and the building of 'systems' for effective curriculum change.

In addition to the Malaysian studies Rajadurai (1981) examines the planning of education in Singapore since independence in 1959 and makes recommendations for more effective and systematic planning of education in the country for the 1980's and beyond. He recommended that the flexibility in educational planning can be enhanced in two ways:

(i) by supplementing long-term forecasts with short-term forecasts and incorporating a flexible organisational structure that facilitates the modification of established targets when the continuous monitoring, review, feedback and evaluation activities show them to be inappropriate; and

(ii) through curriculum planning that enhances the flexibility of the manpower produced by the education system. This can be achieved through developing curricula that enhance the self-learning capabilities of the learner and resort to a broad general foundation and later specialisation in the development of manpower.

In implementing the education plans the Ministry of Education faced two problems. Firstly there was a shortage of financial resources and secondly the increased demand for primary education slowed down the expansion of secondary education.

3.6 Implementing a new curriculum

Implementation studies tend to display one or two main orientations. In the predominant orientation the main intent is to determine the degree of an innovation in terms of the extent to which actual use of the innovation corresponds to intended or planned use.

This is referred to as the fidelity of implementation. The other main orientation found in some studies is directed at analysing the complexities of the change process, that is how innovations become developed, changed etc during the process of implementation. This is called the mutual adoptation (Fullan, 1977).

There have been too many circumstances within recent years wherein many people have been involved in curriculum planning. In most cases the results of their labours have been packed into attractive booklets duly labelled as the curriculum or curriculum guide. What makes their efforts so useless is that the curriculum was never used as a working professional tool and the teachers continue the same practices from the same reference points as they did before the curriculum was planned.

Beauchamp (1964) lists five generalisations or principles involved in implementation:
(i) it is of no avail to plan a curriculum unless it is implemented in the various classrooms for which it is intended;
(ii) the implementation of the planned curriculum in the classrooms demands the weight of full and legitimate administrative authority and leadership to be successful;
(iii) in most cases curriculum implementation calls for re-education and reorientation of teachers;
(iv) teachers must pool and analyse their experiences with implementation in order to derive maximum benefits; and
(v) a factual record should be kept of the implementation experience.

Leithwood et al (1976) has found out that different approaches to implementation have failed for various reasons, most of which are included in the following:
(i) inappropriate match between the existing characteristics of a system and the innovation;
(ii) inadequate attention to securing client support for the innovation and for the practices required for the effective implementation;
(iii) inadequate provision for clients to acquire the skills needed for effective implementation;
(iv) inadequate provision in change strategies for monitoring their effects and for modifying strategies and tactics accordingly; and

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(v) lack of sound evidence demonstrating the innovation's relative advantage.

While these reasons cannot be regarded as universal for all curriculum implementation failures, they serve to point out three broad categories of variables which account for success or failure of curriculum implementation, namely:

(i) the attributes of the innovation;

(ii) the attributes of the adopter and adopting system;

(iii) the strategies for bringing (i) and (ii) together in effective and positive interaction (Chew, 1979).

Doyle and Ponder (1977) have summarised the problem of curriculum implementation as:

> 'Any curriculum proposal, regardless of its merits will have little impact on schooling until it is used. But the weight of the experience suggests strongly that it has been far easier to propose new curricula or ways to implement new proposals than it is to accomplish curriculum implementation'.

The items which constitute an educational innovation vary in kind. Broadly they include content, materials and equipment, principles and approaches, and modes of organisation. An innovation may comprise one or more of these. The degree of adoption, implementation or institutionalisation of an innovation is partly dependent on the nature of the innovation itself.

For instance, objects such as teaching aids are more readily adopted than principles since the latter often require shifts in attitudes. It is also partly dependent on the scale, that is, the number of schools or the population that the innovation is expected to affect. An innovation introduced into one or a few schools is obviously much easier to manage than one introduced in all the schools throughout a country at once.

The broader the scope and scale of the innovation, the more complex will be the process. The KBSM, the integrated secondary school curriculum in Malaysia, which is

the focus of the study is indeed a complicated innovation in both respects. Chapter 4 will examine these changes in a number of dimensions: aims and objectives, content, materials, teaching and learning approaches and system of pupil evaluation. It is also to be introduced into all the secondary schools throughout the country which have a wide range in the variety of contexts.

Not only is the KBSM a complex innovation, it is also fundamental in nature. It affects the whole stage in the school system and therefore virtually all the children in the country. In fact, it lays the foundation for the education of the entire population of the country in the years to come. In this respect the KBSM is unlike many of the innovations that have been discussed in the literature. The latter usually comprises small changes or affect only small proportions of the learners in the country.

A curriculum change is usually expressed in terms of a set of beliefs and assumptions, teaching strategies and learning materials in order to achieve certain desired objectives. In an analysis of fifteen studies pertaining to the implementation of a variety of innovations ranging from subject curricula to organisational changes in the school system, Fullan and Pomfret (1977) identify five dimensions of change as follows:

i. structural alterations which involve changes in formal arrangements and physical conditions such as different ways of grouping students;

ii. subject matter or materials which refer to the content of the curriculum, the sequence of this content and the media (e.g. written materials) used;

iii) role or behavioural manifestations such as changes in teaching styles or new relationship between teachers and students;

iv) knowledge and understanding that users have about the various components of the innovation such as its philosophy, objectives or implementation strategy; and

v) value internalisation which refers to the users' valuing of and commitment to implementing the innovation's various components.

Fullan and Pomfret (1977) and Fullan (1982) indicate that of five dimensions, structural alterations do not pertain to changes in the users but to changes in the conditions under

which users operate; and these can be easily installed by administrative fiat. New content or set of materials is the most visible aspect of change and the easiest to employ, but changes in teaching style using the new materials present difficulties. Changes in beliefs are yet more difficult because they challenge the core values held by individuals regarding the purposes of education. The use of materials by themselves may accomplish certain objectives, but it seems obvious that developing new teaching skills and approaches and understanding conceptually what and why something should be done, and to what end, represent a much more fundamental changes.

Fullan and Pomfret (1977) view with regard to implementation, there is a dilemma and tension running through the educational change literature in which two different emphases or perspectives are evident:

i) the fidelity perspective; and

ii) the process, evolutionary or mutual adaptation perspective.

The former is based on the assumption that an already developed innovation exists and the task is to get users to implement it faithfully in practice, as intended by the developer. The latter stresses that change often is (and should be) a result of adaptations and decisions taken by users as they work with the new programme; thus, the programme and the situation of the users mutually determining the outcomes.

Berman (1981) indicates that the concepts 'adaptation' and 'mutual adaptation' seem established as aspects of implementation. Effectively implemented innovations are characterised by mutual adaptation. This means that the innovation itself changes to meet the unique set of circumstances within the school, and the school changes as a result of the innovation. This conclusion is derived from the findings in the Rand Change Agent Study in the United State and subsequent studies which have explored the concepts in depth.

Berman (1981) also points out that 'clarification' is another concept that characterises activities during implementation, but it is less firmly established than adaptation. For an

innovation to be effectively implemented, users need to be clear about it. Clarification is the process whereby each user develops his understanding of the innovation as it evolves during implementation.

The process of implementation as characterised by adaptation brings serious implications to the Malaysian situation. As will be discussed later, the Malaysian school curriculum is based on the common emphases, common content, common approaches and even the use of common textbooks throughout the country. Such an approach to the curriculum is necessary. As will be examined later, the 'common' curriculum is seen as a vehicle for the achievement of national unity, the overriding objective of national development. But there is also the need to take into account the varied interests and abilities of the pupils and the differences in the environment in which they live. It is therefore necessary to bridge the gap between the ideals and specifications of the centralised curriculum on the one hand, and the reality of the teaching and learning environments on the other.

3.7   Teachers' response to change

A curriculum change which aims ultimately at improving learning opportunities for children depends on the teacher. It is the teacher who transforms intentions into actual practice.

Studies have shown that there will be difficulties in the communication between schools and project teams even when this has been singled out for attention (MacDonald, 1971). This confirms the findings of Gross et al (1971) that even where research and development support for an innovation has been intensive, the teachers concerned may still be confused about their role. Shipman (1974) found out from teachers that the most pressing source of tension in adopting an innovation is the time and energy expended. He found that teachers involved in curriculum implementation revealed a wide spectrum of interests and attitudes. They range from those who had taken little trouble to

understand what a project is all about to those who not only used the project materials offered but added to them out of their own efforts.

Once a curriculum is planned, its implementation is perhaps almost solely dependent on the class-room teacher. It is the teacher who interprets the objectives and content of the curriculum and manages the learning activities in the class-room whereby intentions are transformed into reality. That is to say the most important link between the individual child and the quality of his or her learning is the teacher - much maligned, abused and used - but still the single most important resource of formal schooling.

Rogers and Shoemaker (1971: 183-188) have come up with a system for classifying innovation adopters according to the criterion of innovativeness. The five categories of adopters along the continuum of innovativeness are:
(i)   innovators who are venturesome, eager to try new ideas;
(ii) early adopters who value respectable positions as opinion leaders;
(iii) early majority who follow with deliberate willingness in adopting innovations but seldom lead;
(iv) late majority who sceptical but adopts due to increasing social pressure; and
(v) the laggards who are traditional in outlook and conservative.

Havelock (1969:10-34) postulates the individual's progress as:
(i)   awareness stage with only slight involvement;
(ii) interest stage, with moderate involvement and information seeking;
(iii) evaluation stage with high involvement and active information seeking and mental trial;
(iv) trial stage, with high involvement and efforts directed at adapting the innovation; and
(v) adoption stage with decreasing involvement following accustomisation of new behaviours.

Doyle and Ponder (1977) have analysed the decision-making process which appears to underlie teacher reaction to change proposal, which they refer to as the 'practicability

ethic'. Only recommendations that the teachers themselves perceive as 'practical' will be the ones likely to be incorporated into their daily practices. Teachers seem to use three general criteria to determine if the proposal about classroom procedures qualifies as 'practical'- instrumentality, congruence and cost.

In developing countries the morale of teachers is also a factor to be considered as one of the determinant of change. The teachers here have to cope with difficult and complex teaching in crowded classrooms with discipline problems, the frustration of lack of time and unwarranted interruptions and the lack of adequate physical facilities and classroom resources make teaching an extremely difficult task to perform well.

However there are two aspects which might make teaching in developing countries a relatively more rewarding task than in the industrialised countries. Firstly there is a genuine desire on part of the pupils (and their parents) to acquire education, for it is a means of social mobility especially in acquiring better jobs. Secondly the status of the teacher, especially in rural areas, is usually high in relation to other types of occupation.

The teachers level of training and education are significant factors in determining his competence, flexibility and willingness to innovate. Therefore there is a need to ensure that teachers acquire the necessary knowledge skills and practices and develop the right attitudes regarding the innovation. These elements therefore must be incorporated into programme for the professional preparation and professional development of the teacher.

In-service training or INSET would make an important contribution to the resolutions of problems associated with several contemporary major task areas in education (Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development, 1981). Many of the INSET activities may not be directly for the purpose of helping the teacher implement a specific change in the school curriculum. However they are all aimed towards improving the competency of the teacher: for increasing and up-dating his stock of knowledge, for acquiring more effective and more varied skills for the tasks of teaching,

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and for developing positive attitudes in order to perform his tasks better. All these would increase the teachers capacity to implement innovation.

Goodlad and Klein (1970: 101-102) however concluded that it is unreasonable to expect adults to change their behavioural patterns or regularities especially when these have been acquired over a long period of time. They found that these patterns cannot be changed by attending lectures, participating in brief orientation sessions, reading manuals or attending a course where instructors talk about rather than demonstrate new procedures.

As for the new teachers who have received training at the colleges they are expected to be familiar with whatever new programmes are being introduced into schools. Unfortunately there are shortcomings in the initial training which render new teachers unable to cope not only with the innovation but even with established curricula. With reference to developing countries the major shortcomings have been identified as follows (Fullan, 1982):

   (i)   training colleges and their curricula are remote from the realities of schools;

   (ii)   over-loaded curricula often with academic content, some of which is of doubtful value to the teacher in his/her classroom;

   (iii)   the study of educational theory that is often irrelevant and academic, ignoring local matters, conditions and realities;

   (iv)   links between colleges curriculum development and in-service programmes are not as close as they should be; and

   (v)   the qualification and experience of staff often leave much to be desired.

However, in the industrialised countries such problems may not exist or may not be serious, but the neglect of emphasis on innovation and how it is initiated and implemented is evident. It is the teacher who interpretes the objectives and content of the curriculum and manages the learning activities in the classroom whereby intentions may then be transformed into reality. Virtually all writers dealing with educational change have stressed the key role of the teacher. A reform is only likely to be successful if teachers are willing to accept new ideas and able to implement them in their teaching.

Doyle and Ponder (1973) stress on the crucial role of teachers as the final arbiters of classroom practice. This condition prevails for at least two reasons, i.e the formal regulatory mechanisms in schools which mean that teachers work in relative isolation, and the norms of autonomy (or individualism) operating among teachers. They have also analysed the decision-making process which appears to underlie teacher reaction to change proposals which they refer to as the 'practicality ethic'. Only recommendations that teachers themselves perceive as 'practical' will be the ones likely to be incorporate into their daily practices. They argue that teachers appear to use three general criteria to determine if the proposal or statement about classroom procedures qualifies as 'practical':

i) instrumentality;

ii) congruence; and

iii) cost.

Instrumentality refers to the procedural specifications and clarity of the proposal, that is the 'how' of implementation. This dimension is significant as this enables the teachers to judge practicality in converting principles and outcome specifications into appropriate procedure. Congruence refers to the extent to which a proposed procedure is congruence with the teacher's perceptions of his situation. This includes compatibility with the way he normally conducts classroom activities, with his self-image and preferred mode of relating to students, and the nature of the setting under which the procedure was previously tried. Cost is explained as a ratio between amount of return and amount of investment, though not viewed solely as matters of monetary renumeration. It refers primarily to the ease with which the procedure can be implemented and the potential return for adopting the innovation.

Many other writers have also discussed on incentives and disincentives issues. It is important to know how teachers actually respond to change which impinges upon their

established habits and practices. This argument is extremely pertinent to planners in many developing countries such as in Malaysia, where it is mandatory on the part of teachers to implement whatever programmes have been decided by the central agencies. In order that the process is not just passive acceptance, 'innovation without change' or 'symbolic implementation'; planners, therefore, need to ensure that on balance, the criteria of clarity, needs, and costs are favourable to the teachers.

While the issue of incentives needs to be taken into account in any context that an innovation is attempted, in developing countries the morale of teachers is also a factor to be considered as one of the determinants of change. As Hawes (1979) states:

> "For no-one would deny that before any growth and development of curriculum in school is possible, it is necessary first for teachers to be physically present in the school they are employed in and second for them to be sufficiently interested at least to contemplate change".

He also points out, with particular reference to the African countries, that there are many instances where morale has dropped so low that even these two minimum conditions cannot be met (Hawes, 1979). Lortie 1975; House and Lapan 1978. note that the working conditions of teachers in the developing countries incorporate all these and other constraints. For instance, the lack of adequate physical facilities and classroom resources make teaching an extremely difficult task to perform well. In addition, the poor living conditions, particularly in the remote rural areas, further aggravates the situation for the teacher.

If coping with the normal teaching routine is already a difficult task, the added demands of an innovation will make the task of teaching even harder. However, there are two aspects which might make teaching in the developing countries a relatively more rewarding task than in the industrialised countries:

i) on the whole, there is a genuine desire on the part of the pupils (or of their parents) to acquire education, for it is one sure means of acquiring better jobs and of social mobility; and

ii) the status of the teacher, particularly in the rural areas, is usually higher in relation to other types of occupation.

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ii) the status of the teacher, particularly in the rural areas, is usually higher in relation to other types of occupation.

To a large extent, it is on the commitment of the teacher and the effort that he is prepared to make for the sake of the children that one hopes for real improvement in the quality of education in the developing countries.

The existence of incentives and high morale among teachers are important but do not necessarily guarantee an effective implementation of a change. Beeby (1966), for instance, argues that the teacher's level of education and training are significant factors in determining his competence, flexibility and willingness to innovate. This implies the need to ensure that teachers acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and practices and develop the right attitudes regarding the innovation. Such elements therefore have to be incorporated into programmes for the professional preparation and professional development of the teacher.

3.8 Professional preparation and development of teachers

In this section, the professional preparation and professional development of the teacher will be examined in relation to implementation of curriculum change and the discussion is divided into four parts: initial training, in-service training, professional support, and activities associated with the concept 'school improvement'.

3.8.1 Initial Training

Whatever the relative importance of education, ttraining or other factors it is clear that the teacher is the central figuure in thhe process of educational change. Again, the believe that evaluation can contribute to the more effective management of this process.. With particular reference to the African countries, five major shortcomings have been identified (Hawes, 1979) :

i) training colleges and their curricula are remote from the realities of schools;

ii) over-loaded curricula, often with academic content, some of which is of doubtful value to the teacher in his classroom;

iii) the study of educational theory is often irrelevant and academic, ignoring local conditions and realities;

iv) links between colleges, curriculum development and in-service programmes are not as close as they should be; and

v) the qualification and experience of staff often leave much to be desired

Fullan (1982) states that in the industrialised countries such problems may not exist or may not be so serious, but the neglect of emphasis on innovation and how it is initiated and implemented is evident. There are attempts being initiated or contemplated to remedy shortcomings in the initial training. These include restructuring the pattern of training, revision of curricula, upgrading the competency of staff, use of a variety of media and provision to cater for the needs of the beginning teacher.

For example Botswana has seriously taken measures to improve the training of its primary school teachers. Three workshops were held, i.e Pandey and Barnabas (1982), Seminar in primary teacher education curriculum, Strategies for improvement , and Pandey and Kibria (1983) discussed issues on how the tasks expected of the training colleges could be effectively performed. One of main conclusions was that the curriculum of a college must be seen as meeting priorities which include:

i. survival priorities that a beginning teacher needs in school during the first year of teaching;

ii. academic priorities so that teachers are competent at least in the core curriculum for all children in the country; and

iii. developmental priorities such as basic preventive health.

In order to emphasise group work it is necessary that the student teachers practice the method. In addition to the above, there is also the need to devise appropriate methodology for the country, suitable for its various contexts and the resources it has. Planning a training curriculum on the above guidelines is not an easy task. This is to ensure that all elements of the new curriculum are incorporated but whether or not this would bring the desired effects is yet to be seen.

3.8.2   In-service education

In -service education and training of teachers, in some places referred to as 'INSET' has been challenged on a number of counts. In the OECD countries (1981), there is broad agreement among the members that INSET could and should make an important contribution to the resolution of problems associated with several contemporary major task areas in education. The central issues in in-service training revolve around the validity of stage theory in educational development; and, more importantly, the assumption of desirable ends, that for the stage of being essentially those of developed Western nations. However in terms of the implications of the teacher training, and teachers' responsiveness to change, there is less argument although there are two problems: where and how to break into the teacher training cycle in which teachers teach as they were taught; and how to provide continuing support and encouragement to teachers in their own classrooms. In a survey of Commonwealth countries in Asia (1982), INSET is seen as meeting the following purposes:

i. to provide training and professional qualifications to serving but untrained teachers;
ii. to upgrade the qualifications of serving teachers whose original certification may have been rendered out of date; iii. to provide refresher or updating opportunities particularly to familiarise teachers with modern practices being encouraged in schools;
iv. to promote the dissemination of specific educational innovations;

Experience, however, suggests that, far from making fewer demands upon the teachers' skills and knowledge, these innovative projects have in practice demanded much more of them. Moreover, production of a wide range of good quality television programmes is an enormously difficult undertaking in a struggling developing country, requiring an excessive proportion of its educational and technical resources.

The focus has to be upon improving the education and training of teachers. The nnature of the strategies employed will vary from country to country: in some countries of Africa and, it may be necessary to attempt extremely modest reforms, assisting teachers merely to improve their teacher-centred 'chalk and talk' methods, providing them with a few additional pedagogical techniques and more printed material.

Other countries may be able to be more ambitious - perhaps introducing a short period of creative activities with children in the first two grades of primary school, which has been a successful bridgehead for change in several school systems; or strengthening supervision practices, developing more appropriate textbooks or capitalising upon existing social structures (for example, where older children care for younger children).

Teacher's level of education and training is the most significant factor in determining his or her competence, flexibility and willingness to innovate. Psychological is important effect of a good fundamental education, engendering that crucial sense of confidence without the teacher is unlikely to feel able to create that vital atmosphere in a classroom where children are encouraged to ask their own questions. A frame certificate, when possessed by a teacher who wishes to escape from the classroom, mean little. A person with humbler qualifications but a genuine interest in young children and a greater personal maturity may be a far better teacher.

Joyce and Showers (1980) examined more than 200 studies pertaining to the ability of teachers to acquire teaching skills and strategies. He categorised the levels of impact are awareness, the acquisition of concepts or organised knowledge, the learning of principles and skills and the ability to apply those principles and skills in problem-solving activities.

In an attempt to achieve universal primary education in Bangladesh (Dove,1985), one of the components that need to be looked into is improvement in the quality of the teachers. Most of them were hastily appointed in the early 1980s; and many of them lacked the background, sympathy or qualifications for the job. For this purpose an experiment in the use of mobile teacher trainers in forty Thanas distributed in seven different areas in the country is being carefully examined. The main argument for the strategy is that teachers in the remote schools cannot participate regularly in the residentially-based training programme and that if the trainer goes to the teachers at the school level, the training can be more directly related to the on-the-job experience and problems of the teachers. The strategy involves newly appointed ATEOs (Assistant Thana Education Officers) playing the role of mobile trainers in order to provide teachers with follow-up training on a regular and recurrent basis after receiving the one week-long course.

3.8.3 Professional support

The professional preparation of a teacher usually begins with his initial training. But it is not possible to equip him with knowledge and skills which would be sufficient for the whole of his professional life. As mentioned earlier, innovation is a feature of contemporary life and for the reason in-service education, in order to up-date his knowledge and improve his competencies, is necessary. The programmes or activities

which constitute in-service education can take many forms: courses, workshops, seminars, discussion or advice from inspectors and advisers. In this section, the professional preparation and professional development of the teacher will be examined in relation to implementation of curriculum change and the discussion is divided into four parts: initial training, in-service training, professional support, and activities associated with the concept 'school improvement'.

Other research studies provided support for the professional role of principals. Fullan (1984) sees that principals are the front-line manager of learning and the educational leaders of the their schools, hence, their role in promoting change in the schools is crucial. House and Lapan (1978), for instance, have shown that the principal spends only fifteen per cent of his time in his office alone; he can hardly be an instructional leader with such limited thinking time. Nisbet (1974) sees the major problem being to persuade the principal (or make it possible for him) to delegate some of his present managerial and public relations functions in order to leave him time for this more important role.

The introduction of a number of innovations into schools has made increased demands on advisory or supervisory service. There also appears to be some agreement in which advisers can best support teachers who wish to innovate such as giving advice to individual teachers in their classrooms and schools, or providing information and linkage for teachers in neighbouring schools who are engaged in similar innovations (Open University, 1976).

Sarason (1971) argues that there are difficulties which the principal faces in the attempt to be an initiator or implementor of change. For instance, the principal feels that going into the classroom for purposes of evaluation and change as an act that will be viewed

by the teacher as hostile intrusion, so he prefers not to visit classrooms although he has the power to do so and feels a responsibility to do so. Fullan (1982), however, argues that one of the greatest barriers to the development of a more effective change agent role for the principal is that hardly anyone knows what that means, what in practice the principal could or should do. Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) argues that, this involves creative attempts to bring non-regular materials and other resources into the school, ensuring co-operative working relationship among teaching staff and between the school and community, encouraging real rather than symbolic participation in decision-making and providing teachers with adequate planning time.

In the United Kingdom, Curriculum Design and Development Course team (Open University, 1976) there appears to be some agreement in which advisor or supervisory (personnel) can give advice or provide information to teacher at local level. A survey on the Local Education Authority (LEA) advisers in the United Kingdom confirmed that these advisers were centrally engaged in promoting change. Bolan (1978) argues that aside from lack of time there are other difficulties associated with the role of these advisers as facilitators of change. Basically, these appear to stem from the duality of their role.

Wheeler (1980) notes in Nepal, for instance, a research project conducted in 1980 which aimed at describing the existing system of supervision, its actual operation including an exposition of its shortcomings and the formulation of proposals for improvement.

In the Malaysian case, the KPs had been specially deployed to perform this advisory task (in addition to their being trainers of teachers). Their existence as a mechanism in the implementation strategy is seen as a major factor in promoting change in the classroom; but their status, inadequate training and lack of experience appear to hinder the effective performance of such a task. KBSM Orientation in-service course for KPs

concerning core and elective subjects and workshop for curriculum specification started in 1987 for Form 1 up to 1991 for Form 5.

A report of the OECD (1976) states that teachers' centres need to be seen as local aspect of a country's total system for keeping schools 'up-to-date', in particular, by retraining teachers and by supporting them materially and spiritually in their efforts at improvement. Weindling et al. (1983) state that the curriculum groups comprised discussion groups where teachers with similar interests exchanged ideas and experiences, and curriculum materials production groups in which teachers developed their own materials over several months or years.

Ayot (1983) sees that the Teacher Advisory Centres in Kenya as one of the measures in response to the need for curriculum innovation and upgrading of teachers. Hawes (1987) states another example of a support system based on teachers' centres and teachers' groups is the Cianjur Project in Indonesia.

3.9 School improvement

Hopkins (1984) considers the concept 'school improvement' to be one of the major themes in the discussion for improving the quality of education in the OECD countries. Bolan (1983) states that the term school improvement refers to those efforts that focus on the school as the major unit of change in the education system. The ideas and experiences of the school improvement efforts can provide additional insights to the planner of curriculum change in the developing countries.

3.10 Administrative, financial and material factors

In Malaysia the Director of the Schools Division will inform the schools about curriculum changes through professional circulars. The circular is essentially an instruction for schools to adopt the new programme and the implementation will involve

all schools throughout the country. This nation-wide implementation may or may not be preceded by a 'trial'. For instance, one year was allocated for the trial period for the implementation of the KBSR.

Until the late 1960's there was virtually no preparation for the implementation of a particular programme. It was assumed that implementation will take place as intended once a new syllabus, embodying a set of principles, revised subject content and a new approach to teaching had been developed and disseminated to schools (Chew, 1979). Now there is a growing realisation that implementation just does not fall into place. There is also an awareness that teachers play a crucial role in curriculum implementation.

The strategy for nearly all the training programme for in-service teachers (or INSET as it is referred to in some countries) has been the 'cascade' type where programme developers train a group of trainers at the central level for one or two weeks. The later comprised selected experienced and competent teachers for the particular subject and grade level designated as ' Pegawai Sumber' (Key Personnel or KP). After their training the KPs would train teachers at the state level for about 5 days. Only 1 or 2 teachers from each school will attend the courses conducted for each grade level. These teachers were expected to disseminate the knowledge and ideas acquired during the course to other teachers in their schools.

In the experimental projects other training strategies have been tried. One strategy is the use of workshops where teachers receive exposure to the new programme as well as developing instructional materials. Another strategy is the use of self-learning materials, which have been attempted by the 'Population Education Project' in our country. Materials for disseminating ideas and approaches that have been integrated into the school curriculum were given to all teachers in the trail. This method hoped to eliminate the problem of message dilution and distortion found in the KP system. Teachers would also learn about the programme at their own time and pace.

Many in-service training models have been tried in various parts of the world. The cascade strategy was used in Sri-Lanka for selected full-time teachers to perform the role of 'master-teachers' in the in-service training for the mathematics and science curricula in the 1960's (Ariyadasa,1976). In Indonesia this strategy was used in the Primary Education Development Project concerned with the development and supply of text books and the Development School Project experimenting with the use of individual learning modules (Young,1982).

Other strategies have also been used. An example is the PRODED project in the Philippines where the orienting of the teachers and other personnel involves two phases: the first is the formal training sessions consisting of structured programmes of 5 to 7 days duration, and the second consists of non-formal activities in the learning-cum-action cells in order to provide for the continuity, follow-up and application of learning (The Philippines, Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports, 1983).

Another strategy is the mobile teaching trainers or ATEO's [Assistant Thana (district) Education Officers] in Bangladesh. The ATEO's were firstly briefed on the practical aspects of running a course. This was followed by a one-week intensive training in their administrative task and a handbook was prepared for them. This was followed by more training on the primary curriculum and another handbook was prepared. They were then given another briefing before undertaking the tasks as mobile trainers. The main argument for the strategy is that teachers in the remote schools cannot participate regularly in the residentially-based training programme and that if the trainer goes to the teachers at the school level, the training can be more directly related to the on-the-job experience and problems of the teachers.

In 1983 a foundation course for all 16,000 teachers in the experiment was organised at thana (district) level. The course comprised lectures, discussion sessions and problem-solving group work. In addition, all ATEO's and the teachers were provided with a

training manual which lists the objectives for each part of the course, the content of the course, and suggestions for follow-up discussion and self-evaluation. Subsequent to this each ATEO would visit one school after another among the 25 to 30 assigned to him to organise group training and discuss problem and issues of a practical nature. There are some similarities between ATEO's and the KP in the Malaysian study. Both train the teachers. The former however specialises in providing on-the-job guidance to the teachers.

In a survey of primary curriculum in 10 English-Speaking countries in Africa it was found that every country and every project attempted to introduce new curricula by offering a series of specially organised courses for teachers. The extent and length of such courses varied enormously, often depending on limitations of money and manpower rather than on real needs. Courses are expensive for trainers have to be trained and courses need to be organised nation-wide for all teachers at least every year for six years or so (Hawes,1979b). Therefore the effectiveness of such courses cannot be high.

Nonetheless in developed countries the situation does not seem to be any better. Fullan (1982) summarises the situation with reference to the North American context, stated some of the reasons for the failure include:
(i) the selection of topics by people other than those whom the in - service education is intended;
(ii) the involvement of teachers from many different schools and/or school districts, but with no recognition of the different impact of positive and negative factors within the system to which they must return; and
(iii) the lack of follow-up support for ideas and practices introduced in the in-service programme.

The above strategies are carried out on an in-service basis (INSET). In a survey of Commonwealth Countries in Asia, INSET is seen as meeting the following purposes (Thompson,1982):

(i) to provide training and professional qualifications to serving but untrained teachers;

(ii) to upgrade the qualifications of serving teachers whose original certification may have been rendered out of date;

(iii) to provide refresher or updating opportunities particularly to familiarise teachers with modern practises being encouraged in schools;

(iv) to promote the dissemination of specific educational innovations;

(v) to improve the quality of teacher education through improved competency of the trainers themselves; and

(vi) to improve the quality of educational management and administration at all levels.

3.10.1   Administrative machinery

An administrative machinery has to ensure that adequate communication takes place which is one of the ten dimensions that Miles (1964) offers in a checklist of organisational health.   Adequate communication implies that there is a relatively distortion-free communication 'vertically', 'horizontally' and across the boundary of the system and from the surrounding environment.   House (1974) argues that communication has to be characterised by face-to-face personal contact. Indirect contact such as newsletters or conference methods suffice to spread simple, well-structured routine information; but direct contact is much more effective when there is an element of uncertainty or when results are unpredictable - these usually being characteristic of innovation.   Fullan (1982) stresses that the importance of adequate and effective communication between the different institutional levels, between the different groups and between members in a group.

3.10.2   Financial criteria

Financial criteria has formed one of the important elements in determining the successful of a project. In many developing countries, projects have proven unable to achieve the scope and scale of the change they had identified as necessary because of insufficient

funds (Thompson, 1982). For the KBSM project, however, the strong government commitment has ensured that, on the whole, adequate funds were provided.

3.10.3 Material criteria

In spite of the considerable amount of research on implementation that has been undertaken, Brown (1980) notes that the possibility of being able to establish a general prescriptive strategy for effective implementation is remote. This is because innovations are of many different kinds, and any given situation where an innovation is being introduced will vary in both major and subtle ways from the others. As can be inferred from the above examples much of the literature has in fact concentrated on the reasons why implementation of innovation has been unsuccessful, on the gaps between intention and reality. Fullan (1982), for instance, argues that at the more fundamental level educational change fails partly because of the faulty assumptions and ways of thinking about change on the part of planners and partly because some 'problems' are inherently unsolvable. Planners introduce change without providing a means to identify and confront situational constraints and without attempting to understand the values, ideas and experiences of those who have to implement the change. In addition planners generally do not possess the combination of expertise on the nature of the change with an understanding of and an ability to deal with the factors in action. As for the unsolvable problems, he argues that it is because innovation is part of the social world where the total number of variables (and their interactive, changing nature) is so large that it is logistically unfeasible to obtain all the necessary information and cognitively impossible to comprehend the total picture even if the information is available.

Material criteria include the facilities for the production of suitable materials and equipment, at suitable costs, and in adequate numbers; as well as an efficient system for

their supply to schools. An example to illustrate the importance of the availability of materials is provided in a study of an innovation in a secondary school by Gross et al (1971). They stress that in order for teachers to implement the 'catalytic role' models as intended by the innovation, they had to make available to their pupils materials that were highly motivating and self-instructional in nature. This was to enable them to be free from giving group instruction and to permit them to act as 'catalysts' in relating to the students. Eight of the ten teachers in the study complained bitterly that the amount of materials placed at their disposal at the time they made their initial efforts to implement the innovation was inadequate. The researchers, however, were of the opinion that a more fundamental reason for the failure to provide the materials needed was that few instructional materials of the type required existed.

Adams and Chen (1981) confirmed the need for adequate provision of plan, equipment, supplies and personnel in order for innovation to survive. However, it has not led them to reason that the greater the supply, the greater the chances of survival or for that matter the higher the quality of performance. This led them to conjecture what a 'critical mass' might comprise under various circumstances.

CHAPTER 4

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN MALAYSIA

4.1 Introduction

The period following the launching of Sputnik on October 4, 1957 through the 1960's

was a period of considerable change in education systems and curricula in developed

countries such as Great Britain and the United States, while the changes in Malaysia

began in the late 1960's and extended throughout the 1970's at almost every level of

formal education. Since then various development projects have been carried out for

the improving of specific aspects of teaching and learning practices.

The concept of 'school curriculum', as examined in Chapter 5 is a concept that has

evolved from the limited and restricted sense of a brief list of educational objectives

and content to be taught to much broader one encompassing elements such as teaching

strategies, learning activities, instructional materials and evaluation procedures. This

chapter examines the various facets of curriculum change in Malaysia; highlighting

aspects of the infrastructure, strategies and procedures that have prevailed prior to the

KBSM.

4.2 The 'School Curriculum'

The meaning attached to the term 'school curriculum' has broadened, the organisation

for managing innovation has grown more specialised, the specifications of the

curriculum have become more detailed and its materials have increased in variety, and

the complexity of the change process is being increasingly recognised The Malaysian

view of the curriculum has also widened and the appreciation of its role in nation-

building has been deepened and given greater emphasis.

> The Razak Report (Federation of Malaya, 1956) mentioned in
> Chapter 2, by implication, views the curriculum as comprising the
> syllabuses of the different subjects which listed the topics to be
> taught. It emphasises that the syllabuses common to all schools in
> the country constitute an essential element in the development of a
> united nation Towards the end of the 1960s there was a growing
> realisation that improving the school programme required more

than just specifying new or revised content. Objectives, teaching methods and learning materials were equally important; and the list of topics to be taught form only one part of the total school curriculum. In a position paper of the Curriculum Development Centre written in 1974, the curriculum is seen as:"all those activities in which children engage in under the auspices of the school. This includes not only what pupils learn, but how they learn it, and how teachers help them learn, using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment and in what kind of facilities." (Ministry of Education, 1974a)".

In a more recent attempt to improve the quality of education as a means towards fostering national unity and producing the required manpower skills, the Cabinet Committee Report (1979) defines the curriculum as:

"....an educational programme which encompasses all the knowledge, skills, transmitted to its members. The role of the curriculum.is to develop the child fully with respect to the physical, spiritual, mental and emotional aspects. It is also to inculcate and develop desirable moral values and to transmit knowledge. In the Malaysian context the curriculum has a role to play in creating a society that upholds the nations' aspirations towards achieving unity based on the Rukunegara and to train the manpower needed for the country".

The renewal of the curriculum as defined above becomes an extremely challenging task. It requires a great deal of expertise, resources, time, an effective infrastructure, as well as the contribution and commitment of agencies both in and outside of the education system.

4.3   The infrastructure for curriculum change

In 1965 when comprehensive education was to be introduced at the lower secondary level, subject committees were established. All of them ceased to exist once their tasks were completed (Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development,1967). In 1956 when the Razak Report recommended the introduction of common syllabuses, a committee was set up to undertake the task. Its work was later reviewed and where necessary revised by another committee. In the mid-1960s the School Division of the Ministry of Education began attempts at improving science and mathematics education at both the primary and secondary education levels. With the government's emphasis on manpower development oriented towards modern science and technology, the

Science Centre was set up in 1969. This was specifically to serve as the nerve centre for improvements in the curriculum and the teaching of science and mathematics (Government of Malaysia,1971). Having established this initiative for serious efforts in curriculum change, a small study team was formed in 1971 to review procedures of curriculum development hitherto undertaken by the Ministry of Education.

With the exception of a few subjects, the Centre is responsible for the development of programmes at the primary level and the lower secondary and upper secondary levels of the academic schools. The Islamic Religious Education Division is responsible for Islamic Religious Education at all school levels while the School Division is in charge of Health Education, Music and Special Education. The Technical and Vocational Education Division undertakes the development of the pre-vocational and technical programmes as well as others that are taught in the vocational and technical schools. A list of the major projects are shown in Table 4.1 and the subjects implementation in KBSM are shown in Table 4.2.

The final authority on curriculum matters lies with the Central Curriculum Committee under the chairmanship of the Director-General of Education, with heads of all professional divisions and relevant administrative divisions in the Ministry as members. Selected state directors and a curriculum expert from a local university are also members of the Committee. However, in wider policy matters or where there are significant financial implications, approval is required from the Educational Planning Committee under the chairmanship of the Minister.

It was recognised that curriculum reform is an on-going concern in educational development and that the process requires many modes of operation and full-time involvement of many people. The need to systematise curriculum development and to have it placed on a permanent footing in a central agency which could cater for the diverse but interrelated tasks of curriculum research, planning, development and

evaluation led to the establishment of the Curriculum Development Centre in 1973 (Chew, 1979). The centre is now a division of the Ministry of Education and is equipped with specialised facilities for curriculum development work. It has grown rapidly, and by 1984, has a director, two deputy directors, about 150 professional staff and 85 support staff (Ministry of Education, 1989b). The functions of the Centre are as follows:

(i)   To identify and translate national needs and aspirations through curricular specifications

(ii)   To plan and develop curricular programmes;

(iii)   To develop and produce curricular materials such as syllabuses, guidelines for teachers, learning materials for pupils, evaluation instruments, audio-visual aids and prototype teaching and learning equipment;

(iv)   To disseminate information on curriculum innovation and practices to teachers in the schools and others in the community;

(v)   To organise in-service teacher education courses to ensure the proper implementation of curriculum innovations, changes and revisions; and

(vi)   To conduct surveys and analysis of significant trends and developments in curriculum specifications and teaching practices.

Such institutionalisation of curriculum development, a world-wide trend in the 1960s and 70s, is apparent not only in Malaysia but throughout the countries in the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) and others in the region. In Thailand, for instance, a Curriculum Development Division was established within the Ministry of Education in 1972 (upgraded to become the Curriculum Development Centre in 1975), responsible for constructing syllabuses and curriculum materials, conducting try-out of programmes and implementing new programmes (Thailand, Ministry of Education,1980). In Indonesia the Centre for Curriculum Development has, since 1974, become one of the four centres constituting the Office of Research and Development (Balitbang Dikbud), that part of the Ministry of Education and Culture which commissions and conducts research (often action research) and plans for long -

Table 4.1: The major curriculum projects from 1969 to 1989.

Name of Project	date of setting-up
A. List of programmes introduced into schools	
1. Lower Secondary Integrated Science	1969
2. Lower Secondary Agricultural science	1969
3. Primary Civics	1970
4. Lower Secondary Civics	1971
5. Upper Secondary Pure Science (Physics, Chemistry and Biology)	1971
6. Secondary Modern Mathematics	1971
7. Upper Secondary General Science	1972
8. Remove Class Bahasa Malaysia	1973
9. Lower Secondary English	1973
10. Primary and Lower Secondary History	1973
11. Lower Secondary Commercial Studies	1974
12. Upper Secondary Bahasa Malaysia	1974
13. Upper Secondary Civics	1974
14. Upper Secondary English	1975
15. Geography for Primary* and Secondary Schools	1975
16. Primary Mathematics*	1975
17. Malay Literature for Secondary Schools	1975
18. Moral Education for Primary* and Secondary Schools	1977
19. Chinese Language for Primary Schools	1977
20. Tamil Language for Primary Schools	1977
21. Islamic Religous Education for Primary Schools	1978
22. Primary Science*	1978
23. Upper Secondary History	1979
B. Projects for improvement of on-going programmes.	
1. Special project for the improvement of Primary Science and Mathematics	1968
2. Bahasa Malaysia Word Count	1968
3. English Supplementary Readers (New Zealand Readers)	1974
4. Supplementary Readers for Bahasa Malaysia	1976
5. Sabah English Learning Module	1976
6. Resource Book for Secondary Mathematics	1976
7. Wall Charts for Secondary Mathematics	1976
8. Resource Book for Upper Secondary Civics	1977
9. Bahasa Malaysia Reading Methodology	1978
C. Experimental projects	
1. Population education	1973
2. Unified Language Project	1974
3. Multi-media self-learning programmed modules for Primary Science Teachers	1974
4. Pahang Tenggara Project	1974
5. Integrated Primary Curriculum	1974
6. Compensatory Education	1974
7. Multiple-class Teaching	1976

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* These programmes were not introduced into schools but the work done was incorporated into the planning of the KBSR.

Source: Ministry of Education, Curriculum Development Centre (1979a); and Technical and Vocational Division (1991c).

Table 4.2:Subjects Implementation in KBSM (Ministry of Education, 1990c).

| Subject | | | Year | | |
Core Subjects	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
1. National Language	I	II	III	IV	V	-
2. English Language	I	II	III	IV	V	-
3. Mathematics	. I	II	III	IV	V	
4. Islamic Studies and Moral Studies	-	I	II	III	IV	V
5. Geography		I	II	III		
6. History	-	I	II	III	IV	V
7. Science	-	I	II	III	IV	V
8. Living Skills		On trial implementation				
9. Arts	I	II	III	IV	V	
10.Physical Education and Health	-	I	II	III	IV	V
Elective Subjects						
Chinese Language	I	II	III	IV	V	-
Tamil Language	I	II	III	IV	V	-
Malay Literature				IV	V	-
Literature in English				IV	V	-
Other elective subjects					IV	V

Remove Class	
National Language	implemented in 1988
English Language	
Chinese Language	
Tamil language	
Arahan Bahasa Malaysia	implemented in 1989
Physical Education	
Arts Education	

term educational reforms and development (Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development, 1980).

Institutional structures however, vary according to the administrative system for each country as did the initial perception of need which led to their establishment. However, studies of programmes and experiences of these institutions sponsored by the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) reveal that in every country trends are towards greater comprehensiveness as opposed to single subject orientation; stronger linkages between the different aspects of change; and greater integration with the schools, teachers and the teacher training systems (Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development, 1980).

4.4 Strategies for curriculum change

Yet, while the Malaysian concept of the school curriculum has expanded and the infrastructure to manage curriculum change has become more specialised, the strategy for change has not really altered. However, with a few exceptions, the strategy and approach are still subject-based and centralised as discussed below.

4.4.1 Subject-based approach

The various subject syllabuses have been developed by different groups of people, often at different times. At the primary level, for instance, the new syllabuses for three highly interelated subjects were prepared at different times: Civics in 1970, History in 1973-75 and Geography in 1978-81 (Curriculum Development Centre, 1983). In many cases, syllabuses for the same subject for each school level have also been developed by different groups and at different times. For example, the new History syllabuses for the primary and lower secondary levels were prepared in 1973-75, those for the upper secondary were not attempted until 1979.

An interdisciplinary approach in programme development has been attempted by the Population Education Project as some population-related topics already exist in a number of subjects. Two strategies for introducing population elements into the curriculum were used: by 'infusion', i.e., the substitution of examples in the existing topics in order to give a population slant; and by 'integration', i.e., the inclusion of relevant population topics into syllabuses as and when they were formulated (Ministry of Education, 1981a).

As can be seen from Table 4.1, all those projects leading to the introduction of new programmes into schools have been planned and developed based on established subjects. The Curriculum Development Centre has carried out various curriculum projects like the lower secondary Integrated Science (1969), Primary Civics (1971),

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Upper Secondary National Language (1974), Upper Secondary History (1979) and many other single subject-based curriculum projects for improving specific aspects of teaching and learning or for experimental purposes.

Attempts at curriculum integration have been experimented by the Integrated Primary Curriculum Project. The aim of the project was to design and develop an improved curriculum for Standards 1-3 based on the need to interrelate and integrate the educational experiences of children during their earlier years of schooling. Initially the project attempted the integration of all subjects in the curriculum using the 'centres of interest' approach. The trial, though encouraging, revealed a number of problems such as the tendency for the topic to widen to the extent that teachers encountered difficulties in completing the prescribed syllabuses. Subsequently, integration was done through the use of 'themes' involving only four subjects: Local Studies, Health Education, Science, and Art and Craft (Ministry of Education, 1981b).

The great potential for integrated teaching, particularly at the primary level, is now widely recognised. In many of the countries in the region there appears to be unanimity in the desire for developing an alternative approach to the traditional discipline-based, subject-centred and teacher-dominated system of primary education. In 1980-81 APEID organised a project aimed at providing the knowledge base and establishing improved methods, techniques and tools for programmes of integrated curriculum for the member countries (Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development, 1982). Various forms of integration have been attempted in the different countries. For example, the Thailand elementary school curriculum introduced into schools in 1978 is no longer made up of separate subjects. Instead, it is divided into five integrated areas of experience: basic skills development, life experiences, character development, work-oriented education, and special experiences. The contents are presented in the form of concepts and behavioural objectives, and claimed to be more meaningful to teachers, in contrast to the bare factual statements in the former

documents (Kamol and Siripon, 1984). In the Malaysian context, some features of the KBSM (will be discussed in Chapter 5) are among others the integration of some of the established subjects, and the integration of skills and knowledge from other subjects particularly for the teaching of languages.

Developing a subject curriculum is a much easier task than attempting more global changes but it inevitably leads to certain weakness in the product. Pupils acquire knowledge and skills only through the perspectives of particular subjects and not as an integrated whole. Furthermore, it inevitably leads to overloading, a major critism about most syllabuses that have been produced (Chew, 1979). Such overloading could be attributed partly to the appointment of syllabus committee members based on their specialisation in the subject, hence, their commitment towards promoting it; and partly to the effect of demands of a higher level on the one below it, hence, the tendency to include more rather than less content.

4.4.2 Centralisation

Beside the preparation of new syllabuses and materials, the centralised initiatives also extend into activities designed to help improve and better implement on-going programmes. For example, a 'Special Project' set up in 1968 to improve the teaching of primary Mathematics and Science had the immediate task of providing whatever facilities or services possible to help teachers. This task took the form of preparing teachers' guides in order to introduce the inquiry approach in teaching and learning. The preparation of the guides was undertaken by the Science Centre with a few selected college lecturers and teachers being seconded to act as the developers (Ministry of Education, 1974b). Another project, established in 1976, aimed at producing wall charts for secondary Mathematics that could actually be used in the teaching and learning activities rather than merely being exhibited, was also planned and developed by central agencies. In this project teachers in different parts of the country only

provided assistance in trying-out the charts (Personal communication with an officer at the Curriculum Development Centre, Ministry of Education, 1991a).

The overall responsibility for production of textbooks lies with the Textbook Bureau. A large proportion of these books have been published by the Language and Literature Agency, a quasi-government publishing house. Others have been produced by the commercial publishers. Briefing for the writers has been given by the curriculum developers; and evaluation of the manuscripts undertaken by selected teachers, curriculum developers and officers of the Bureau. Based on the evaluation reports the Bureau would then decide whether or not to approve the books. Once approved these books would be entered into the Ministry's list of textbooks from which schools may then make their selection. Whereas Teacher's guides and other materials have also been the responsibility of central agencies. Workshops with teachers participation have often been held to assist in the production.

The Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development (1967) realised that ideally each school should be given the freedom to develop the curriculum for its children; and it also recommended wider participation in curriculum planning and development. In effect, however, it proposed a centrally prepared curriculum suitable for use throughout the country, with provision for local personnel to make recommendations, since a national curriculum would be much more economical of effort (Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, 1967).

In practice, virtually all aspects of curriculum planning and development have been, and still are, undertaken by the central agencies. In the case of syllabuses, for instance, most of the preparation was carried out by various committees within the Ministry. Once they have been finalised and approved by the Central Curriculum

Committee, they become the official syllabuses which it is mandatory for all schools to adopt.

4.4.3 Curriculum development at state level

In Malaysia the introduction of the KBSM also initiates some attempts at decentralisation, with agencies at the state and district levels expected to play a much greater part in implementation than before. There have been measures towards decentralisation in some countries. In the Philippines, for instance, one of the six components of the Programme for Decentralised Educational Development (PRODED) Project aims to build competencies in managers and administrators in order to provide the needed leadership in project development, implementation and evaluation at all levels in the education system (The Philippines Ministry of Education, 1983). Currently in Indonesia there is considerable concern at the over-centralisation of curriculum in such a vast region. The new curriculum, 'Kurikulum '84, gives for the first time, limited measure of local autonomy to provinces; and the Director of the Office of Research and Development at that time as actively pursuing plans for far greater diversification of programmes and educational materials (Young, 1982).

Although the main thrust in curriculum planning and development has been at central level, there has been some involvement of the State Curriculum Committees or the State Education Departments. For instance, in 1977 the committee studied and commented on the list of values to be included in the Moral Education syllabuses and they also reviewed the draft syllabus for the primary Geography (Ministry of Education, 1980a) and the departments have always been consulted whenever schools were needed for try-out.

In Thailand the process of decentralisation has gone quite a long way. The school-cluster i.e., the grouping together of a number of schools for the purpose of enabling

them to assist one another by sharing educational resources in the cluster, had already been in existence since the 1960s. When the new primary curriculum, referred to earlier, was introduced in 1978, the Ministry informally grouped schools to help facilitate implementation. Schools with qualified teachers and good facilities were selected as 'lead' schools to provide support to others in the cluster. In 1980 a legislation on school-clusters was officially procured. Since then the school-cluster system has become an integral part in the decentralised administrative structure of primary education in the country. The school-cluster are the core units at the local level for the improvement of all aspects of school activities, while the provincial and District Primary Education Offices provide support through supervision, training, research and the development of teaching and learning materials (Rung, 1983).

In 1978 a circular was sent by the Deputy Director-General to the State Directors explaining detailed functions of the State Curriculum Committees and a reminder that such committees were to be set up if they have not done so. The list of functions also include the discussion of the planning and management of curriculum activities in order that teaching and learning practices and atmosphere in schools could be further improved (Ministry of Education, 1979b). Undoubtedly, there is recognition of the need for state level agencies to be involved in curriculum development. So far, however, they have only provided assistance to the central agencies as and when required. Their involvement therefore varies from project to project and can be relatively minor. There are four main reasons why greater involvement in professional matters may prove difficult from the state level:

a. Posts and personnel: Post and personnel specially allocated for the task of curriculum development are necessary. To expect just any of the state officers to undertake the task is unrealistic. The heavy workload entrusted to each officer is likely to mean that administrative matters would be given priority over professional duties.

b. Clarification of roles: A clear delineation of roles and tasks between the central and state agencies so that each supplement and complement the other is necessary. In a system where centralisation has all along been the mode of operation, it is essential that both levels are aware of and accept each other's roles.

c. Expertise: Curriculum development is a specialised task for which some training and experience are necessary to enable the personnel to perform it well. So far provision for training has been made only for personnel at the central level; and the experience that has accumulated exists within the central agencies. Until the state level personnel have the necessary expertise, it is unlikely that any curriculum development can be expected at that level.

d. Centralisation-decentralisation: This is an issue relevant not only to Malaysia but also to many other countries in the region. In the study of educational development in the ASEAN countries Postlethwaite and Thomas (1980) consider centralisation as obviously a mixed blessing. It has advantages such as in ensuring that all schools pursue the common goals to which the nation is dedicated to, that each region will indeed receive proper attention, or that the limited supply of talent and facilities are utilised to the maximum. On the other hand, it discourages local initiative, is less responsive to local needs and far slower to respond than a locally placed authority.

4.4.4 Participation

In Malaysia, the need to ensure that the common objectives, common approaches and common emphases prevail in all schools and to economise on resources implies that a considerable degree of centralisation will be necessary. However, the value of wider participation in curriculum planning and development, particularly of the teachers, will need to be looked into. Teachers are responsible for putting any change into practice; their involvement is a way of ensuring their greater understanding of and commitment to the innovation. In addition, many of them can also articulate felt needs within the schools and provide relevant information about matters such as resources, students' abilities or the classroom environment. It is at the state or district levels that the real involvement and participation of teachers can be nurtured, especially for adapting

centralised materials and for generating others that are more appropriate to the local conditions and the specific needs of the children.

The Integrated Secondary Curriculum Project obtained grass-roots participation in a different manner. The first attempt at producing the guidelines for the integrated approach of teaching was undertaken by the project officers. This was followed by an orientation seminar for the principals and teachers of the six laboratory schools, during which time instructional materials were also developed. The guides and materials were then tried out by the teachers, with the project officers working very closely with them. Another seminar was held later to enable the teachers to classify, consolidate and synthesise their experiences in the use of the new approach. Subsequently the project officers developed guide books with the help of selected teachers from the laboratory schools. The teachers were supplied with the raw materials for making instructional materials and encouraged to write down their ideas to be reviewed by the project officers. These were compiled, tried out, and workshops were held to discuss them; resulting in the production of two guide books on different aspects of the integrated approach (Ministry of Education, 1987b).

The Report of the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development (1967), mentioned earlier, emphasises the complexity of the operation and the need for as wide involvement as possible in order to formulate a curriculum relevant to the modern educational philosophy and needs of the country (Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, 1967). Yet the participation has been and still remains limited, partly due to existing educational machinery and traditions (as described above) and partly to the pressures which exist to get new programmes introduced in schools (will be discussed in a later section).

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The practice for developing a new syllabus or revising an old one in the 1970s and even today follows a similar pattern, but now would take a longer time with a few more steps added into the process. Once a need had been identified and the Central Curriculum Committee decided that action be taken, a committee was appointed. The latter met periodically to consider the approach in formulating the syllabus and to review drafts prepared by the members. The process of preparing drafts, review and amendment would go through several cycles. Draft reviews might also include getting expert opinions from outside the committee. When finalised, the committee would make recommendations as to the date of implementation, in-service training of teachers, preparation of textbooks and other forms of support for implementation. The syllabus and the recommendations would be presented to the Central Curriculum Committee, and when approved, preparation for implementation would begin.

In the preparation of teachers' guides and other materials (excluding textbooks) workshops were often held. Apart from the programme developers, members of such workshops usually consisted of experienced teachers; specialists in the subject from the relevant divisions in the Ministry, training colleges and universities; and ocassionally one or two from outside the education system. The workshop could be for brainstorming, actual writing, reviewing of drafts, or editing of materials. In between workshop sessions the developers proceeded with other aspects of the production.

The development of the new History syllabuses for the primary and lower secondary levels clearly illustrates the operation of such a procedure. The decision of the Central Curriculum Committee to revise the old syllabuses in 1973 was prompted by a number of factors from within and outside the Ministry. The History Syllabus Committee had 17 members consisting of representatives from the relevant divisions in the Ministry,

universities, training colleges, and practising teachers. The chairman was the Director of Examinations Syndicate (now a Deputy Director-General of Education) and the secretary was a college lecturer (later replaced by a curriculum developer). These people were chosen on the basis of their being historians or the history specialists in their institutions. All members had full-time jobs and meeting were held about once a month. The finalised draft syllabuses were approved in 1975. Subsequently a small team of full-time staff was established at the Curriculum Development Centre to carry on further development work and to prepare for the nation-wide implementation (Chew, 1979).

In 1965, for instance, the task of formulating the common syllabuses was entrusted to the General Syllabus and Timetable Committee. The latter delegated its task to subject sub-committees composed of educationists and teachers. The draft syllabuses were sent to selected teachers. Based on the comments they were then amended and put on 'trial' in a few schools. The feedback received was considered, the necessary amendments made, and thereafter the syllabuses became official (Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, 1967). The above procedures did not, however, apply to the development of the mathematics and science programmes brought in from Great Britain. In this case, once it was decided that a particular programme be adopted, tutors from Britain came to the country to conduct the orientation and training of selected Ministry officials and teachers. The local personnel then performed the tasks of writing the Malaysian version of the materials as well as the in-service training of teachers. Ad-hoc groups, consisting mainly of teachers, assisted in the preparation of the materials. In some cases British consultants were available to work on the programmes (Ministry of Education, 1984c).

So far there have been only two attempts at getting real grass-roots participation in curriculum development. These were by the experimental projects. One of these was the Lower Secondary School Component of the Compensatory Education Project which aimed at developing a sustainable strategy of involving teachers in compensatory education work. Twelve pilot schools in two areas were involved in the experiment. In the first year of operation, 1984, centralised workshops were held in each area to develop materials and teaching techniques. With the assistance of the project officers and a few university lecturers, the principals, senior assistants (deputy principals) and selected teachers from the pilot schools pooled their experiences in diagnosing problems and developing alternative ways of helping pupils with learning difficulties. In 1981-82 school-based workshops were held for the other teachers in the schools. These sections were led by those who had attended the earlier workshops, with minimal guidance from the project officers. Later, in 1983, centralised workshops were conducted by staff from a particular pilot school as a means of disseminating ideas to the others. In 1983 'key personnel' (selected teachers) from the pilot schools conducted exposure courses for teachers from the other schools in the area (Ministry of Education, 1987a).

However, it is a mistake to look on the issue of participation or centralisation-decentralisation as one where rigid choices need to be made. In every system there is some measure of central decision-making and some degree of choice left at local or school level. This issue is concerned with the question of 'who controls the curriculum'. Writing for the British context, Lawton (1983) notes that popular discussion over curriculum control often seems to assume that control is unitary and total, that is, either teachers decide on all aspects of the curriculum, or there must be a centrally controlled curriculum for all schools. Reality is more complicated for in any national system there are four or five levels of responsibility: national, regional,

institution, departmental and individual. The key question is: how much and in what aspects each is responsible for.

4.5 The specifications and materials of the curriculum

These have come into existence partly due to the establishment of specialised agencies with full-time staff who can devote time for the production of such materials and partly to the realisation that teachers need help in understanding the curriculum and acquiring ideas in order to make learning meaningful and relevant to the students. Their production has been assisted by greater appropriations of money for the supply of these materials, and a revolution in production techniques which enable both print and non-print materials to be more easily reproduced. Each type of material and its utilisation is examined in this section. Over the years the specifications of the curriculum such as the objectives, the topics to be studied, or the activities to be carried out have become more explicit and more detailed. Materials describing and supporting the curriculum have also increased in variety. To the syllabuses and textbooks have been added teachers' guides, resource books, readers and multi-media kits (Appendix 1).

4.5.1 Types of materials

Textbooks

The extent to which a textbook actually possesses such characteristics depends partly on the quality of the evaluation and partially on the ability of the writers to meet these criteria. In some cases, the pressure to get the books ready on time poses difficulty in achieving the high standard required. The textbook has been the most visible material of the curriculum. Virtually all students possessed textbooks, made possible by the Textbook Loan Scheme as mentioned earlier. They have been extensively used both in the classroom and at home. In the former, they constituted the most important instructional materials, and in some cases, could be the only one available. At home

they would be used for doing homework and to provide the basic materials for revision. The over-dependence on the textbook is one feature that the KBSM attempts to change. Throughout the school system textbooks have been available for virtually all the subjects. Usually there would be only one book for each subject at each form/grade/level. The approved textbooks have been evaluated according to various criteria. They could be expected to possess the following characteristics:

i. the objectives of the book are consistent with those of the syllabus;
ii. the facts, information, concepts, practical work and exercises contained in the book are those required by the syllabus;
iii. facts and information are up-to-date, presented clearly and accurately, in line with the principles of the Rukunegara, and are locally oriented;
iv. the illustrations are relevant, accurate and clear;
v. there is a sufficient amount of practical work (where appropriate) and suitable exercises for students; and
vi. the language is suitable for students of the particular form/grade level and the appropriate terminology has been used (Ministry of Education, 1984a).

Multi-media kits

A self-instructional multi-media kit for primary Science has also been prepared. This effort started on the assumption that many primary teachers did not possess sufficient knowledge and skills in Science to enable them to teach the subject properly. The kit consists of booklets, film strips, tapes, apparatus and other materials so as to enable teachers to perform the experiments themselves. A kit for the topic on electricity was produced but dissemination was hampered by costs and further development ceased (Kamaruddin, 1978). In a few cases, multi-media kits have been produced. There have been variations in the rationale for the production and in the types of items constituting the kits. A simple kit has been produced by the Sabah English Learning Module Project, designed as a short-term measure for the teaching of English in the rural schools of Sabah where there were no trained teachers of English. The project

produced ten modules, each consisting of ten lessons. These were taped on cassettes and organised in a manner such that any teacher could use them. The tapes were accompanied by pictures and a set of number cards (the latter for use in identifying pupils during the lessons). The instructions for teachers were in Bahasa Malaysia. For the pupils Bahasa Malaysia was used for the first module, but increasing amounts of English was used as the lessons progressed such that in the last module all the instructions were in English (Ministry of Education, 1983f).

Readers

The production of readers has also been attempted. The Supplementary Readers Project for English aimed to produce the kind of reading materials that children in the rural and semi-rural areas would enjoy. With the assistance of the New Zealand government, it was decided to adapt a set of existing readers for pupils in the Island Territories of New Zealand. These readers were supplied to the primary and lower secondary schools together with the teachers' book providing suggestions for their effective use (Ministry of Education, 1984b).

Teachers' handbooks

Essentially these guides contain further clarification of topics in the syllabus, the approach for teaching of the subject and suggestions for teaching and learning activities. However, there is no standard form in terms of presentation or the amount of details or examples included. The Standard 4 Mathematics guide book, for instance, has 214 pages: apart from two pages for the introduction, it contains statements of objectives, explanation of key concepts, and elaborate description on how to carry out activities including the aids to use for each topic in the syllabus (Ministry of Education, 1971b). The contents of the Standard 4 History guide book are presented differently: within the 91 pages are a brief statement of the rationale for producing the guides, an

elaboration of each topic in the syllabus, a description of the salient characteristics of nine teaching techniques, and three examples of how these techniques may be combined for the effective teaching of a topic (Ministry of Education, 1978). Teachers' guides have become an additional document to the Malaysian curriculum since the late 1960s. They are now available for some, but not all, subjects. At the primary level, the guides for Mathematics and Science were developed many years after the syllabuses had been in use. For some other subjects, such as Bahasa Malaysia and Civics, they were prepared and compiled as part of the syllabuses. For others, such as History, the guides were developed after the syllabuses had been approved.

Teachers' resource books

In order to provide further assistance to teachers, resource books were produced for certain subjects. The exact purpose of each appeared to vary from one subject to the other. For secondary Mathematics, the resource book was produced due to the limited number of local publications which discuss current developments in Mathematics teaching; and it was also envisaged as a supplement to in-service courses. The book contains the rationale and philosophy of the programme; matters directly relevant to classroom practices such as teaching methods, evaluation techniques, and teaching aids and how to make them; and a list of resource materials (Ministry of Education, 1986a). By contrast, the resource book for the upper secondary Civics aims to help teachers in getting a proper understanding of the concepts such as 'basic groups', 'community', 'society', 'constitution' and 'institution' contained in the syllabus. Each concept is defined, its characteristics and functions explained with examples from the Malaysian context, and references given (Ministry of Education, 1985a).

Subject syllabuses

Over the years there has been a marked increase in the number of pages for the syllabuses but there does not appear to be any standardisation in terms of what are included, the organisation of the contents, or the degree of specification of the statements. For example, the 1966 primary History syllabus contains only 3 pages of topics to be studied (Ministry of Education, 1966) in contrast to the 1978 syllabus which has 7 pages of topics in addition to other information such as the background and rationale of the syllabus (Ministry of Education, 1978). This new syllabus is again different if compared, for instance, with the latest primary Civics syllabus prepared in 1971 (Ministry of Education, 1971a). The former provides no suggestions for teaching activities while the latter has 19 pages of guidelines for teaching the topics for each grade level. Regardless of how detailed the syllabus is, it can only specify the curriculum in general terms since it has to be applicable to all teachers and all students. There is ample scope for teachers to interprete the syllabus in ways that are appropriate to his students. The syllabus is an extremely important document. It is mandatory for all schools to adopt it which forms the basis for materials developed for the subject, and also it provides guidelines for the teacher in the planning of each term's activities.

Teacher-made materials

Virtually all the documents and materials produced or approved by the Ministry address themselves to specific subjects at the different school levels. There is no document which explains the totality of the school curriculum or even the curriculum for a particular level. This being the case, it is possible to assume that many teachers are familiar only with the subjects they are teaching. At the primary level, as mentioned earlier, the practice is for teachers to teach nearly all subjects in a particular form/grade.

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Even so, one cannot be sure that they see the complementary roles of the different subjects. At the secondary level, teachers are 'specialists'who are teaching only one or two subjects. The introduction of the KBSM are expected to bring significant changes with respect to materials. There are documents pertaining to the whole curriculum as well as specific subjects. Over-dependence on textbooks has been reduced by increasing the variety of instructional materials. In addition, there is a much greater emphasis on teachers preparing their own materials. To supplement the pupils' materials that have been produced centrally, teachers have been expected to produce additional materials and teaching aids in order to make learning more effective. In practice, however, as will be shown in the case of the KBSM English language programme in Chapter 8, such materials were apparently insufficient.

Schools (courses of studies) regulations

A basic document for the school curriculum is the School (Courses of Studies) Regulations which was issued under the provision of the Education Act 1961 (Ministry of Education, 1967). This document sets out the schedule of approved subjects to be taught and the minimum time to be allocated for each subject at each grade/form/level. It is used by principals in the preparation of the school time-table. Amendments to the Regulations such as changes in the time allocation for a subject are made from time to time. These are made known through Professional Circulars sent from the Schools Division to the State Education Departments, and from the latter to the schools.

4.5.2   Utilisation of materials
The extent that the efforts of central agencies in producing materials help promote learning by the pupils depends on the extent to which teachers make use of them. The quality of the materials, such as their appropriateness for the characteristics of the

particular set of pupils or the readability of the instructions to teachers, will affect the degree of usage. In addition, as can be seen from the examples above, the purpose of the materials or the importance of the subjects as viewed by the teachers, and the demands made on teachers in using them, are significant factors. Science, for instance, is important because it is an examination subject; therefore, teachers put more effort and would be happy to receive support. Civics is a non-examination subject and thus little attention is given to it. And, considerable increase in workload arising from the attempt to follow the suggestions in the materials will likely deter teachers from using them. The availability, utilisation and quality of materials are some of the issues being examined in the study of the KBSM. Insights into these matters are necessary in order that measures can be taken so as to derive maximum benefits from the efforts at materials production.

Implementation of the Civics programmes at the lower and upper secondary levels have also been evaluated (Ministry of Education, 1986b). The implementation of these programmes as will be shown in the next section, proved very unsatisfactory largely due to the fact that Civics is not an examination subject. Consequently, guides and other materials produced for the subject were little used. While it is always difficult to assess the degree to which such new courses and materials have been utilised, certain evidence is available from evaluations which have been conducted from time to time over the last fifteen years. The degree of use of materials between different programmes appears to vary widely.

The utilisation of the adapted New Zealand readers mentioned earlier showed a different picture. The readers were sent to schools in 1977 and a survey on the utilisation was conducted in 1979. The data showed that 40% of the sample schools

used the readers, but a majority of them did not appear to take steps to interest pupils in reading as suggested in the teachers' book. Interviews with some teachers indicated that the suggestions for the various reading activities, if carried out, would tremendously increase their workload in terms of the preparation they had to do (Ministry of Education,1984b). In 1972 an evaluation of various aspects pertaining to primary Science was conducted, with responses from 201 randomly selected teachers who had taught Standards 1 or 2 for at least a year. Most of these teachers had attended the in-service courses introducing the teachers' guides, the earliest course being held in 1969. The data showed that the guides were very much in use, with 75 per cent of the teachers indicating that they were 'very resourceful', 16.7 per cent 'resourceful', and 8.3 per cent 'somewhat resourceful' (Kamaruddin, 1978).

4.6   Implementation

Until the late 1960s preparation for implementation was virtually negligible. The assumption had been that a new educational concern would be resolved once a new syllabus, embodying a set of principles, a reconsidered selection and organisation of subject content and a new approach to teaching, had been developed and disseminated to schools (Chew, 1979). With the growing realisation that teachers play a crucial role in curriculum change, attempts have been made to prepare and provide them with support. Besides the production of materials, in-service training for teachers has now become an integral part of curriculum change in Malaysia. In this section various aspects pertaining to the training of teachers, principals and trainee teachers, as well as the provision of other forms of professional support for teachers will be examined. The implementation of the curriculum involves all schools throughout the country, with the exception of secondary Mathematics and Science programmes. For these, only a certain number of schools began using the programmes each year and it took several years before they were introduced to all (Ministry of Education, 1969a). The nation-wide implementation may or may not be preceded by a 'trial'. For the implementation

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of the primary and lower secondary History syllabuses, for instance, one year was allocated for the trial, but there was no trial for primary and lower secondary Civics syllabuses. The inclusion of the trial in the curriculum change process appears to depend on the degree of pressure for introducing the programmes into schools - where time permitted, the trial was conducted. The in-house training session consists of various packages for each subject department. Various packages provided for in-house training are as follows:

i) video showing teaching strategies in classrooms for every Forms (1 to 5);
ii) training modules;
iii) facilitators guides for modules above;
iv) reading materials;
v) Principles may invite Key Personnel as Consultants during in-house training; and
vi) training done over subsequent Saturday.

All schools were informed about changes in the curriculum through Professional Circular from the Director of the Schools Division. The circular is essentially an instruction for schools to adopt the new programme. The strategy for implementing a programme is a progressive one, starting with the lowest grade for the particular level and moving up the ladder with each succeeding year. Initially, Key Personnel (represent each state in Malaysia) from Form 1 to Form 5 are trained in the new programme. They then relay this information to the Heads of English Department at their state by conducting State-Level Training Programme, who then conduct in-house Training Session at school level. During the in-house Training Session, the Principal involved in general and overall subjects since they have attended a course covering all subjects. The Principal will get assistance from Senior Assistant for Curriculum, Senior Assistant for Co-Curriculum and Assistant for Social Welfare in order to make sure everything goes smoothly. The Principals were only attended a three days course

covering all subjects, thus they felt that it was insufficient to supervise all senior subject teachers at their schools.

4.6.1 Orientation and Training for Implementation

Characteristics of the programme

A survey in 1981 on the implementation of the Form 1 History programme indicated a different kind of problem. The survey was conducted in ten schools, and the interviews with teachers and principals elicited complaints on the inadequacy of the time allocation of two periods per week. This was because the scope of the syllabus was 'too wide' such that it was difficult to 'complete the syllabus' particularly for the weak students, and it was also not possible to use the more student-centred methods as suggested by the Ministry of Education (1981b). There have been cases of shortcomings in the programmes themselves which contributed to the low level of implementation. For example, the Integrated Science for the lower secondary level was originally planned for Scottish students and adaptation has only been slight. The inquiry-discovery approach, for instance, would not be easy to operate for it would be contrary to traditional customs where children are expected to obey and not to question parents, teachers or elders. In addition, some of the contents of the course which included topics such as electricity, acids and bases would tend to relate more to the urban and industrial environment but the majority of students would be more familiar with the rural and agricultural environment With such features it would be difficult to expect a high level of implementation.

Preparation and support for implementation

The survey of the Form 1 History programme, mentioned earlier, indicated not only lack of the necessary teaching aids such as models or pictures of old coins, or maps of the early empires; but also the lack of sources that teachers could refer to for additional materials on the topics to be taught, and ideas for improving their teaching (Ministry of Education, 1981b). Deficiencies in the training programmes and lack of an effective mechanism for providing teachers with on-going support have already been discussed in section 4.6.2. For some programmes, limited supply of materials and equipment have also hampered implementation. For example, in a study of the Integrated Science programme in four schools, it was found that when the programme was first initiated in 1973 the schools had not yet obtained the necessary equipment. When principals of two of the schools contacted the Ministry, they were informed that various companies had been given contracts for equipment. By this time, however, the companies had so many requests to fulfill that additional delays ensued, thus requiring teachers to improvise equipment extensively, or modify or even eliminate the experiments suggested in the syllabus (Charlesworth, 1975).

Level of implementation

A number of factors need to be taken into account in order to ensure effective implementation of a programme. Examples of studies to demonstrate this have already been given earlier in sections 4.5. and 4.6. In the Malaysian context three groups of factors appear relevant in explaining the low level of implementation. These include: (i) characteristics of the programme; (ii) preparation and support for implementation; and (iii) the examination system. The literature review has shown that the level of implementation is low or even virtual 'failure' of implementation is quite common (Sim et al., 1973; Ministry of Education, 1980). Reports on the implementation of

programmes derived from studies or through informal channels show that the situation in Malaysia is no exception.

The examination system

At the primary level the national assessment tests at Standards 3 (no longer in use after 1981) and 5 have been claimed to have motivated pupils to study earnestly with the aim of doing well in the tests. However, the multiple-choice format of these tests has led teachers to use extensively a similar format in their routine classroom tests instead of other forms of assessment such as those which require pupils to express themselves. Without the appropriate skills in the development of objective questions and multiple-answer choices (which many teachers do not possess), the multiple-choice format in classroom tests has undermined the process of evaluating pupils' progress (Chew, 1979). It also means that the learning process such as the use of the inquiry approach, as suggested in the guide books for Mathematics and Science referred earlier, would not be implemented properly.

The examinations tend to affect programmes in different ways. In the case of Civics, a non-examination subject, the programme has been so seriously affected as to be virtually neglected in many schools. Among the findings of an evaluation of the programme at the lower secondary level were the frequent use of civics time allocation for other subjects, particularly when examinations were near. Teachers without proper qualifications were often asked to teach the subject, and teachers used only the lecture method and relied solely on the textbooks (Ministry of Education, 1975). An evaluation of the programme at the upper secondary level also showed a similar

situation. The findings revealed that a few schools did not even possess the new syllabus, some teachers had not attended the in-service courses for the programme, and many schools did not complete the syllabus for each year (Ministry of Education, 1979a). On the other hand, where subjects are studied for examinations, there is pressure for teachers to 'cover the syllabus', but with the tendency for the non-examinables to be neglected. Teaching and learning methods are those which would enable pupils to score high marks rather than the ones recommended in the programmes. Studies of the lower secondary Integrated Science subject clearly showed that the teacher-centred approach remained in use rather than the proposed inquiry-discovery approach; while the multiple-choice assessment examination seemed to have encouraged continuing concentration on rote learning techniques (Charlesworth,1975).

Professional support for teachers

In 1989 there was a re-organisation of the educational structure at the state level. An additional post for a deputy director and a curriculum unit were created at the state department; and education offices at the district level (in Peninsular Malaysia) were set up. With two deputy directors as shown earlier in Figure 2.5 (organisational Structure at State level), one of them could be assigned to oversee professional matters while the other could take responsibility for administrative matters. The curriculum unit, with officers for the different subjects, would have the capacity to assist teachers in the classroom. The district offices would allow schools greater access to professional support. Thus, the machinery for providing on-going support for teachers and for monitoring programmes in schools can be said to have been established. The need to provide teachers with assistance in their day-to-day work is recognised in Malaysia. There has always been the Inspectorate in the education system and one of its functions

is to advise teachers. Its effectiveness in this task, however, is hampered by the small number of staff in comparison to the large number of schools and the increasing number of innovations being attempted at the same time. In 1976 there were 65 inspectors for the whole country but the number was increased to 189 in 1981 (Ministry of Education, 1991d). Even with this increase, there would only be one inspector to about 40 schools, or one inspector to about 700 teachers, a ratio grossly inadequate for the task to be performed effectively.

The earlier attempt at establishing personnel specifically for the purpose of helping teachers in the classroom was for primary Mathematics and Science in 1970. Initially the KPs who conducted the courses regarding the new teaching approach visited the teachers. This proved unsatisfactory as the KPs themselves were full-time teachers and there was little time that they could devote for such task. Subsequently twenty-three posts of District Project Supervisors were created in 1972 (Ministry of Education 1984c). Gradually personnel responsible for other subjects were also appointed. By 1978 there was one for the secondary science programmes, one for the languages and one for the social science subjects attached to each state department. But these personnel were expected to carry out a number of tasks such as organising courses or attending meetings such that providing assistance to teachers in the classroom could not be undertaken seriously.

Training of principals

Training of principals as preparation for the implementation of new programmes prior to the KBSM has been lacking (New Straits Times, 1988). Apart from the orientation as in the experimental projects referred to earlier, there has been virtually no exposure of principals to new programmes. They get to know about changes in the curriculum

from the Professional Circular, and through having to select one or two of their teachers to attend in-service courses, in addition to what could be learned from the mass media. The conscientious principals might try to find out more about the new programme from their teachers after attending the courses or from friends involved in the programme. For the less conscientious, it was possible that they might not know the programme fully even after it has been taught in the schools. The orientation of the principals for the KBSM project will be examined later, in Chapter 7.

Training of teachers

Many in-service training models have been tried in various parts of the world. One example already mentioned is the experiment with the mobile teacher trainers in Bangladesh. Another example is in the PRODED Project in the Philippines mentioned earlier, where the orienting of teachers and other personnel involves two phases: the first is the formal training sessions consisting of structured programmes of five to seven days duration; and the second consists of non-formal activities in the learning-cum-action cells in order to provide for the continuity, follow-up application of learning (The Philippines Ministry of Education, 1983). As mentioned earlier, there are various efforts in the search for ways of making in-service education more effective, apart from experiments with training strategies. There is much that Malaysia can benefit by, from the experiences of other countries, but whatever means is adopted, it has to be suitable to the context and constraints of the Malaysian situation.

The strategy for nearly all the training programmes for in-service teachers has been the 'cascade' type where programme developers train a group of trainers at the central level for one to two weeks. The latter comprised selected experienced and competent

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teachers for the particular subject and grade level, designated as 'Kakitangan Sumber', but are better known by the initial letters 'KP' (Key Personnel). After the training the KPs would train teachers at the state level for about five days. The use of this strategy has been determined by two major factors as follows; (i) the implementation procedure, where all classes for a particular grade throughout the country start using the programme at the same time; and (ii) the short span of time between the decision to implement and the actual implementation. This means that a large number of teachers would have to be trained within a very short time. The developers of the programme usually consisted of a handful of officers and would not be in position to train all the teachers. Therefore, the KPs were needed to serve as trainers. Due to limited funds, only one or two teachers from each school were able to attend the courses conducted for each form/grade/level. They were then expected to disseminate the knowledge and ideas acquired during the course to other teachers in their schools.

The selection of KPs has been the responsibility of the state departments. The criteria for selection usually included length of teaching experience, academic and professional qualifications, leadership qualities and proficiency in the relevant languages. In a study of the in-service courses for the Form 3 History syllabus, the responses of the State Social Studies Officers responsible for selecting the KPs showed that the more important criteria pertain to personality characteristics. These included qualities such as 'initiative', 'dedication', 'leadership abilities', 'willingness to receive new ideas' and 'ability to make decisions'. The other criteria included academic and professional qualifications, teaching experience, proficiency in Bahasa Malaysia and if possible in English, not being a KP for other subjects, less than forty years of age, and not being transferred or ask for a transfer (Ministry of Education, 1980c). A 'KP system', though widely used, has its weaknesses. Most of the KPs themselves would not have taught the new programmes before conducting the courses. They might not even have seen the programme taught other than perhaps in mini-lessons or on videos. In

addition courses for both KPs and teachers were usually held the year before the programme for the particular form/grade was implemented. The same teachers usually performed the role of KPs for the entire school level. Their relatively short exposure also raises doubts concerning their effectiveness for conducting the state level courses. Moreover, the lack of supervision of their actual performance as teacher trainers raises much cause for concern.

The cascade strategy for the training of in-service teachers is used in many countries. In Sri Lanka, for instance, selected full-time teachers performed the role of 'Master Teachers' in the in-service training for the mathematics and science curricula in the 1960s (Ariyadasa, 1976). In Indonesia it was used in two important projects: the Primary Education Development Project concerned with the development and supply of textbooks, and the Development School Project experimenting with the use of individualised learning modules (Young, 1982). In spite of the shortcomings of the strategy (although attempts at using others), a KP system appears to be the only one that the Malaysian planners consider feasible. In fact, this same system is used for training the KBSM teachers. In view of this, it is essential that research into the operation of the system and how to further improve its effectiveness be conducted. While the training strategy could be improved upon, the major weakness in virtually all in-service training for teachers in Malaysia as in many other countries has been the fact that the courses were once-off and not repeated. Such courses could provide teachers with some exposure to the new curriculum and some guidance to enable them to use it, but in no way could they provide them with the necessary knowledge and skills to cope with all aspects of the change. As will be seen later in Chapter 9, other forms of professional support for the Malaysian teachers has been limited. Therefore, it is not surprising if new programmes did not get effectively implemented. The inadequacy of the once-off course prior to implementation and the need to provide support for teachers on a more permanent basis has been recognised in the KBSM project. But as

will be examined later in Chapter 9, the actual provision has not totally met the requirements of the teachers.

In the experimental projects other training strategies have been tried. Workshops where teachers receive exposure to the new programme as well as developing instructional materials have already been mentioned. Another strategy, the use of self-learning materials has been attempted by the Population Education Project. These materials were for disseminating ideas and approaches that have been infused or integrated into the school curriculum. They were made available to all teachers involved in the trial. Such materials were aimed at eliminating the problem of message dilution and distortion as found in a KP system, and at enabling teachers to learn about the programme in their own time and at their own pace. In addition to the materials, there were discussions at the school level with the principals acting as chairmen. These discussions were to enable teachers to get clarification on certain issues contained in the materials and discuss ideas on how to teach the programme, and indirectly compelled them to study the materials. The active involvement of principals meant that they themselves had to understand the programme fully in order to provide the leadership to their staff members. A management module containing guides for the principals was produced in view of variations in their leadership ability (Ministry of Education, 1983c). As in other countries a number of shortcomings can be seen in the training of the trainers and of the teachers. In the Malaysian situation, these include the short duration of the courses; the dilution and distortion of the message as it passes from one level to the next; the lack of variety in the delivery techniques; the use of inappropriate techniques such as the lecture method, when actual participation by teachers would have been more effective; the lack of audio-visual aids; or the lack of proper facilities particularly at the state level where, for instance, teachers have to sit at desks and chairs meant for secondary students (Sim et al.,1973; Science and Mathematic Education, 1975)

Training of student teachers

For the implementation of the KBSM there has been much more effort towards gearing the initial training programme to be in line with the requirements of the new curriculum. In the literature review the close link between curriculum development and initial teacher training has been emphasised. Such link is necessary to enable the new teachers to manage the new programmes being implemented immediately they begin teaching. In Malaysia this matter did not appear to have been given much attention. It seems merely to have been taken for granted that once a new programme has been fully developed (and not until then) and the decision made to implement it, it then became the responsibility of the Teacher Education Division to take the necessary steps. It also seems to assume that representation from the Division or training colleges on syllabus committees, at materials production workshops, or at in-service courses for teachers was sufficient to enable the colleges to prepare their students for new programmes.

4.7 Evaluation

Evaluation can play an even more significant role in curriculum change in providing answers to the numerous questions that arise during the process. Indeed it should do so in Malaysia as in other developing countries, for much is at stake when change is being attempted. While evaluation has increasingly become a significant element in curriculum change in Malaysia (Chew, 1979), there is a lack of a whole view of evaluation as distinct from evaluation activities separately conceived for the different components of the curriculum reform process. What is needed, as Dave (1980) suggests, is a built-in system of evaluation which provides a mechanism for appraisal, feedback, diagnosis and remedial action at all stages of a project including the pre-planning, planning, implementation and assimilation stages. The system should also

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have a wider scope to include an appraisal of the environmental setting and evaluation of inputs, processes, immediate outcomes and long-range outcomes. He also suggests that to be successful, particularly in the developing countries, evaluation should not become too costly or too time-consuming; and there is need for a proper balance between quick and qualitative reviews on the one hand, and the more quantitative and sophisticated procedures on the other. In the context of the developing countries, Young (1982) notes that the interpretation of the meaning of curriculum evaluation varies from project to project and from country to country in terms of the approaches and methodologies used, the roles and functions attached to evaluation and the scope and role of the studies conducted. In Malaysia the bulk of the evaluation appears to be for two purposes: (i) for improving materials, and (ii) for assessing the degree of effectiveness of implementation of programmes. In the first category are the evaluation activities carried out in the process of preparing syllabuses, teachers' guides and other materials. Examples of these have been mentioned earlier in this chapter. The evaluation of textbooks can also be included in this category, though its purpose is twofold: for improvement as well as for certifying the quality of the books. Examples of evaluation activities for the second category have been mentioned in the last section.

What appears substantially lacking is the evaluation of existing situation or situational analysis, including the programme in use, before embarking on a new one. For instance, it is important to know the sort of teaching and learning that actually goes on in the various types of schools before an 'improved' programme could possibly be devised. The lack of such an evaluation was particularly noticeable for the Mathematics and Science programmes imported from Britain. However, a number of later projects have attempted to collect baseline data, though these may not be as systematic, extensive or intensive as one would have wished for. For examples, surveys were made prior to the planning of the lower and upper secondary Bahasa Malaysia and English programmes in early 1970s (Ministry of Education, Personal

communication, 1991a) Similarly, as preparation for the planning of the lower secondary Geography syllabus, there was a survey of views from different groups, including teachers and inspectors, regarding the content of the existing syllabus, teaching techniques being used and equipment and facilities available in schools (Ministry of Education, 1978).

4.8   Research

The overall situation in Malaysia is similar to those in many other developing countries. Participants at an APEID Workshop on Research to Improve Teaching-Learning Practices noted that in spite of increase in the volume of research and success of some of the projects, there is a feeling of doubt about the efficacy of the general body of research that has been conducted. There are problems in the application of findings such as arising from methodological weakness and communication gaps between researchers and practitioners. The participants made a number of suggestions for improvement such as the use of varied channels for dissemination and the setting up of a mechanism to guide practitioners in the full use of the findings (Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development, 1984). Another possibility for improving research in developing countries is as proposed by Myers (1981), that is, by developing a variety of connections between the 'separated worlds of research': between researchers in the West and Third World countries, among researchers in the Third World, and between researchers in education and those in other fields. While the suggestions above could improve research activities, one major problem regarding research in curriculum change is the definition of 'research' itself. If research is seen as wholly 'scientific', many problems arise concerning the methodology, as well as

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the reliability and validity of the results obtained. It would also raise the question of specialised training for those required to conduct it. On the other hand, if research can be accepted as also 'descriptive', and hence, overlapping substantially with action research projects, situational analysis and evaluation in the process of materials production, then it may well become more easy to justify and more easy to operate.

Many of the research activities that have been carried out in Malaysia could be classified under the experimental, developmental or action research categories. The majority of these relate to the primary level such as those undertaken by the experimental projects mentioned earlier. Theoretical or basic research studies are few in number. One, on the acquisition of basic skills, was conducted in 1979 and details of this will be discussed in Chapter 5. The distinction between research and evaluation is not always easy to make. Some of the activities mentioned in the last section, such as the collection of baseline data, could just as well be classified as research. Within the Malaysian Curriculum Development Centre the two activities are allocated to one unit and individual officers could be engaged in both. On the whole the emphasis on research has been limited in comparison to the amount of effort in developing new programmes. Two major factors may be responsible for such a narrow interpretation: (i) the lack of conviction of the usefulness of research in the derivation of valid and reliable data for educational improvement, and (ii) the pressure to develop and implement programmes such that it is necessary to concentrate efforts in these areas at the expense of research.

4.9 Planning

Unrealistic time perspective is not peculiar only to Malaysia. Many projects in other developing countries also appear to suffer from the same problem. For instance, Hawes (1972) made a cautionary note on the Nigerian government in its rush to implement a new primary curriculum. He stressed that time is needed at every stage in the change process and in retrospect it is of surprisingly little matter to a country's educational development whether educational innovations come in a year or two, sooner or later. What does make an impact is the confusion, the uncertainty, the instability which occurs when teachers attempt to embark on a new course which they do not clearly understand. It is worth noting that, in retrospect, the headlong Nigerian curriculum change against which the writer was cautioning was virtually ineffective in operation. Similarly one can think of many projects in Malaysia and in other countries where such advice could have been used to advantage.

In the last fifteen years many new programmes have been introduced at all levels in the Malaysias school system. But there does not appear to have any overall plan. The new programmes were initiated at different times and have been prompted by different factors which come sometimes from outside the education system. However, one aspect that does not seem to be appreciated is that time is needed to be able to undertake properly the numerous operations essential in any change.

In nearly all cases, the time between the decision to implement and the actual implementation had been too short. For example, the Special Project for improving Mathematics and Science teaching at the primary level was launched in 1968. Before the end of the following year, teachers' guides for both subjects at Standard 1 had to be completed and teachers trained to use them. In the case of the primary and lower secondary History programmes, the decision for nation-wide implementation to begin in January 1978 was taken in middle of 1975. This meant that try-out of the teaching

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and learning activities, in-service training of teachers, writing of textbooks and all other preparation had to be completed within a period of two-and-a half years.

4.10 Conclusion

Implementation, as discussed in Chapter 3, consists of the process of putting into practice an idea or programme which is new to the people expected to change. It is therefore a real change in practice. For this reason it is an intricate process for it involves a large number of people and beings forth administrative, financial and material implications. All these have to be planned for and managed. From various statements by Ministry officials concerning implementation of the KBSM made from the time of its inception in December 1988, it is possible to deduce the following generalisations:

i. that implementation is the responsibility of every agency in the education system, hence, it requires effort and commitment from all concerned;
ii. that each state is to be totally responsible for implementation of the KBSM in its schools; and
iii. that flexibility and use of discretion are to prevail in interpreting implementation guidelines so that measures taken would be appropriate to the particular conditions of the state, district, school or classroom.

The Implementation Committee under the chairmanship of the Deputy Director-General of Education II was set up which was responsible for the planning of the implementation, establishment of new infrastructure and procedures and improvement of the existing practices i.e. to look for constructive ways for improvement. These are outlined in the document for implementation, generally referred to as the 'Blueprint for Implementation' (Ministry of Education, 1982a). Malaysia has now established an organisational structure for intensive and concerted efforts at curriculum renewal. It has accumulated vast experiences in the highly specialised tasks of curriculum planning, development and implementation. All this should make the task of devising

a curriculum suitable for the whole spectrum of student ability, in the urban and rural areas, and for the different racial groups. However, efficiency and effectiveness in curriculum renewal are not characteristics that are easily acquired. They can arise only through an adequate understanding of the complexity and implications of the various tasks in the process, and through an effective co-ordination of the efforts of various groups of people at the different levels. The most difficult of all is to ensure a strong link between those who formulate the curriculum proposal and those who have to translate the proposal into reality.

CHAPTER 5

THE NEW INTEGRATED SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM (KBSM)

5.1   Introduction

The implementation of the KBSM is viewed against the general literature on implementation, the relevant experiences in Malaysia and useful information related to parallel endeavours in South-East Asia. Throughout the study, the researcher has been constantly made aware of the fundamental nature of the change being attempted and the extreme complexity of the implementation process.

5.2   KBSM -The curriculum proposal

The KBSM represents the first attempt at an overall renewal of the curriculum at the secondary level. It is a key measure towards improving the quality of education in the country. Its beginning can be taken with the publication of the Report of the Cabinet Committee (1979) mentioned in Chapter 4 (Figure 5.1). The KBSM was introduced in line with the National Education Philosophy. The aims of KBSM are in line with the aims of education of the nation, that is to produce well balanced citizens who believe and have faith in God.

In 1989 the KBSM was implemented fully in the Remove classes and Form One. The core subjects for KBSM students in Form One are National language, English language, Mathematics, Islamic Education/ Moral Education, Geography, History, Science, Art and Craft, Physical Education and Living Skills, whereas Additional Islamic Studies, Mandarin and Tamil classes are elective subjects.

Under the KBSM school periods have been extended to 46 per week compared with 36 under the old system. The additional periods are for Living Skills (4 periods a week), Additional Islamic Studies (4 periods) and the language classes (2 additional periods

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Figure 5.1:The integrated education operational in the KBSM (Ministry of Education, 1988a).

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│     THE NATIONAL EDUCATION PHILOSOPHY         │
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         ┌──────────────────────────┐
         │   THE AIMS OF EDUCATION   │
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      │   THE OBJECTIVE OF THE CURRICULUM   │
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            ┌────────────────────┐
            │     Affective       │
            │     Cognitive       │
            │     Psycomotor      │
            └────────────────────┘
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| Subjects compulsory and elective | A well balanced person | Subjects compulsory and elective |

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        language          language
contents ◄─────────────────────────► contents
         values            values
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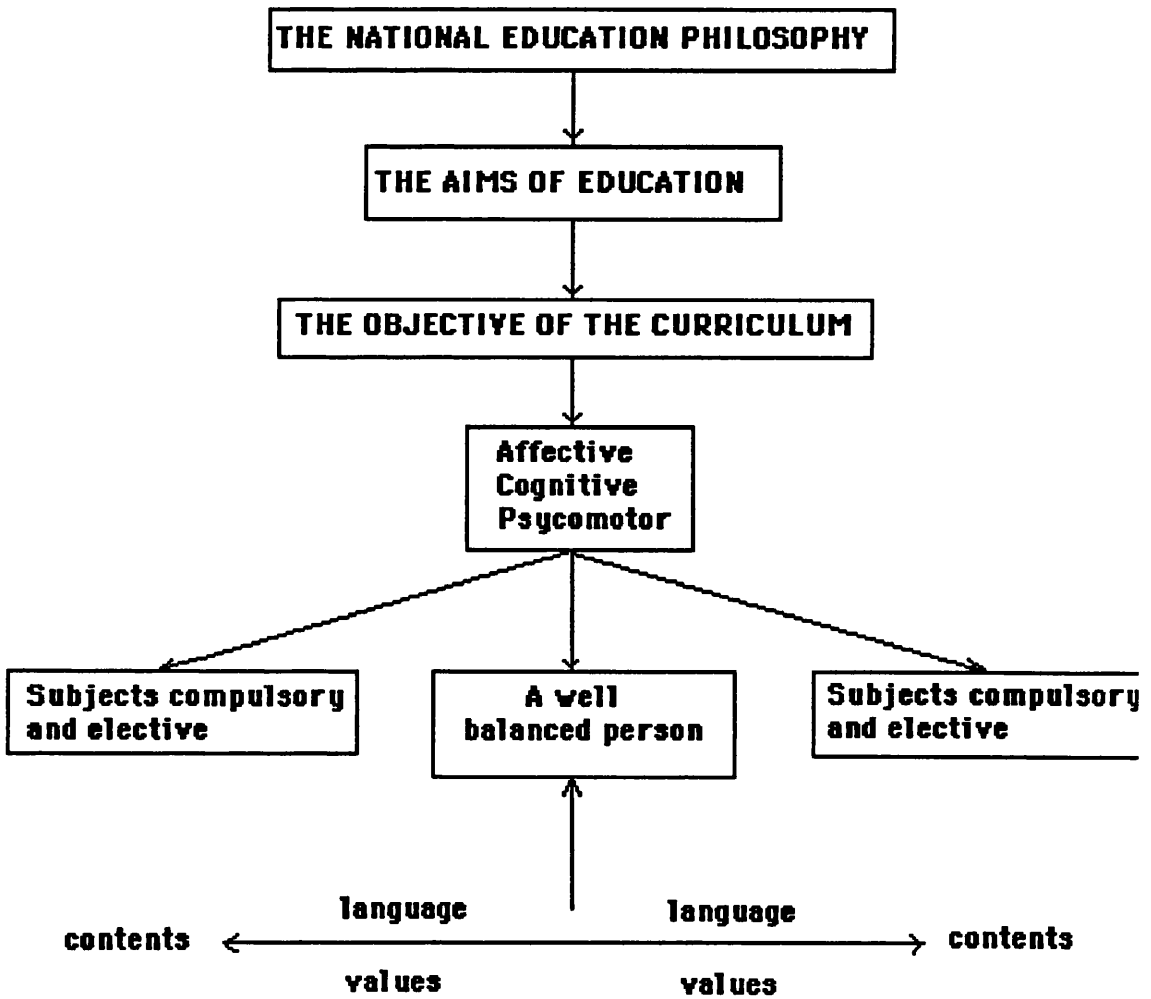
per week). The aim of teaching students Living Skills which is a combination of Industrial Art, Agricultural Science, Home Science and Commerce - was to expose students to elements of technology, commerce, entrepreneurship and daily living. This can also develop the students' intellects, so that they can think critically, analytically and be able to decide on matters rationally based on what they have learnt and observed. The additional classes are taught before or after the usual session to achieve 'integration of experiences inside and outside the classroom' (Anwar,10.1.1989). The extended hours are from 7.45 am to 3.25 pm for the morning schools and from 11.25 am to 6.25 pm for afternoon.

5.3 Integration in the KBSM

In the KBSM programme, integrated education is an important strategy to ensure and combine knowledge and expertise, language and value in all subjects. Integrated education can be defined as the process involved in developing a student in acquiring knowledge, instilling moral values and balanced physical development which is done as a whole to ensure a well rounded person.

Steps are taken to preserve the existing educational disciplines. The disciplines are referred to and carried out in line with the philosophy and aims of the National Educational Policy. The philosophy and aims are then translated into objectives for the different subjects. The contents of the curriculum must be integrated studies of man, environment and God. The basic knowledge acquired in the 3'm in the KBSR is reinforced and further developed. These includes learning, social and psychomotor skills that was introduced in the KBSR.

Values are a very important component to be integrated into the curriculum, besides being taught in Religious and Moral Education. The inclusion of values is done consciously and purposefully. The values that are emphasised are spiritual, humanitarianism and good citizenship.

5.4 Aims and objectives of the KBSM

The KBSM planned on the recommendations of the Cabinet Committee (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 1981a) attempts:

> "...to ensure that every child gets the opportunity to acquire the necessary skills, knowledge, values, attitudes and practices. Each pupil is encouraged and guided to acquire full mastery of the basic skills. Opportunities are also provided to enable pupils to develop their talents, interest and creativity in specific areas".

In short, it is basic education with emphasis on reading, writing and arithmetic; and also provides opportunity for the overall development of the individual. The school

curriculum is viewed by the Cabinet Committee as one of the key measures towards achieving national unity and the supply of trained manpower. At the secondary level the contribution towards the former goal is through the mastery of Bahasa Malaysia and English language and the development of good character in the pupils; and for the latter, through the acquisition of the basic and other relevant skills.

The entire curriculum for the secondary level is viewed as an entity and subjects have been arrived at as a means towards achieving the overall aim. This is in contrast to the former curriculum; as discussed in the previous chapter, each subject was planned separately, at different times and by different groups of people. These subjects together comprised the curriculum, hence, there was no one statement of aims for the curriculum as a whole.

5.5   Areas of study

English language is one of the major subjects taken by all primary and secondary students. The findings of this study might provide some useful evidence on the whole range of questions on activities for the preparation and support for implementation, implementation practices in the classroom and the degree of success of the English language programme.

In line with the National Education Policy, English language is taught as a compulsory subject and is the second medium of instruction in schools at all levels. The wider role of English language now with its status as the second language of the country couples changes and new emphasis in English language teaching. Students are not required to be fluent in the language and be able to communicate, but they should understand the system of the language to fulfill its function as a language to unite the people, function as the main communicative language, and the language to acquire knowledge.

At the secondary level, the English language programme will continue to emphasize efficiency in using the language to listen, speak, read and write, create a consciousness and awareness towards the variations of the language in different situations and a sensitivity towards the unique language system and style and the humanistic values inculcated through reading knowledge and literary materials.

The English language programme in secondary schools is a part of the overall integrated education programme for secondary schools (KBSM) which hopes to mould a personality that is balanced and harmonious from the intellectual, emotional, spiritual and physical aspect. The programme aims to give the students an understanding of the language system and the value it stands for, and the fluency to use the language to communicate effectively to voice one's thoughts and feelings about items of general knowledge, personal and communal matters in a formal or informal context. It also aims to train students to be creative and innovative through oral and written works in line with the National Education Policy.

The acquisition and usage of English language is promoted as a means to acquire knowledge and medium of communication. The KBSM English language is also integrated with values. Our National Education Philosophy stresses that education should develop the potential of the individual in a holistic and integrated manner. This simply means that the education should help an individual's whole development and that all school subjects relate to each other in attempting to achieve this aim.

As a language to acquire knowledge, the KBSM students should have a good command of the language and be able to communicate well and fluently, be critical and analytical in their reading and creative and productive in their written work. The KBSM students will be taught to be sensitive to the style of the language and to be aware of the language usage in various situations.

The usage of other languages to acquire and build up knowledge is encouraged. Besides this, the text books must portray philosophy and encourage integration in the lessons. Therefore the KBSM aims at integrated education to ensure a balanced development of the individual's potential from the intellectual, spiritual, emotional and physical aspects to produce an individual who is educated, that has high moral values and is loyal to the community and country. Integration also takes into consideration the cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills through the subject content of the various subjects of offered.

Apart from the subjects and the emphases in them, another significant change in the curriculum is in the time allocation. A large proportion is allocated to Bahasa Malaysia and Mathematics . In the former curriculum only 200 minutes per week for all levels were allocated for Bahasa Malaysia, whereas 280 minutes were allocated in the KBSM, while for Mathematics it was increased from 210 minutes to 240 minutes. Nonetheless the amount of time allocated for English language lesson was unchanged i.e. 200 minutes per week (Ministry of Education, 1987a). The new time allocation is in accordance with the Cabinet Committee Report which place greater emphasis on basic skills (Ministry of Education, 1987e).

The development of the basic skills, and their utilisation has to be thoroughly mastered before it can be utilised for subsequent acquisition of knowledge. Teaching and learning will continue to reinforce the mastery of the basic skills; but the acquisition of knowledge, the utilisation of language for thinking and communication, the utilisation of mathematical skills and knowledge to solve problems and to think logically, and the

opportunity to understand societal issues are also given importance (Ministry of Education, 1986a). Six subjects from the former curriculum, i.e., Mathematics, Islamic Studies and Moral Studies; Arts, Science, History, Geography, and Physical Education and Health Studies are retained. One new subject, i.e. Living Skills, has been introduced. Essential elements from all the former subjects would still be in the curriculum; as content in the learning of language skills, incorporated into Moral Education or Islamic Religious Education, or integrated to other subjects.

The English language subject which constitutes the language skills programme in the KBSM will be discussed in detail in Section 5.6. The English language programme aims to develop in the students a level of language competency to carry out a number of language functions such as mastery of language skills and the use of correct language forms and structures. All these would be to equip students with the ability to communicate accurately and effectively both orally and in writing, in line with the status of English as an effective second language in the school system (Ministry of Education,1986a). Islamic Religious Education emphasizes guidance and training in the reading of the Al-Quran Al-Karim and in the foundations of Islamic Religious Education which includes Aqidah, Ibadat, Sirat Rasulullah S.A.W. and character building. The practical aspects of these are given importance, whereas the Moral Education programme deals with twelve values. These are based on the religions, traditions and norms of the multi-racial Malaysian society and are universal human values consistent with the principles of the RUKUNEGARA. The programme aims to produce students with good character and who can make responsible decisions based on moral values. Special emphasis is given to good daily habits (Ministry of Education, 1981a).

The subjects such as Science, Mathematics, Geography and History contain elements from the humanities, the social sciences and physical sciences. The contents have been selected to give knowledge; to develop awareness, understanding, appreciation and sensitivity towards man and his environment; as well as to develop the skills to acquire knowledge, and to understand and solve problem (Ministry of Education, 1987a). While the inclusion of the Living Skills subject could be justified that there are dangers that accretions may vitiate one of the original goals of the KBSM, i.e., not to overload the curriculum. Furthermore, the introduction of special subjects rather than elements to be integrated into the existing KBSM plan would compartmentalise the curriculum. This is a major source of weakness, already discussed in Chapter 4. Living Skills programme could be integrated into subjects such as Bahasa Malaysia, Art Education and Mathematics.

All subjects have two main aims: firstly, to arouse students' interest and to develop their talents; and secondly, to reinforce the basic skills. Art Education presents an area of aesthetic through which students are to enjoy themselves, and express ideas and feelings in creating works of art. The programme incorporates behavioural skills, knowledge of culture and development of perception. These are to enable students to recognise, differentiate, create and value works of art. The Physical Education programme encompasses physical movement education as well as education through participation in physical activities. It aims to provide students with the opportunity to develop themselves physically, socially, mentally and emotionally (Ministry of Education, 1987a).

5.5.2 Comment

The KBSM is periodically augmented and revised in an attempt to make it more relevant for national development. In 1989, Living Skills became an additional subject in the curriculum. Its introduction was due to the increasing importance of manipulative skills. This subject was tried out at Form 1 level in 74 schools throughout the country in 1989. Five periods per week were allocated for it and emphasis is in the technical field and is to be regarded as preparation for a more formal education in it. This emphasis is in line with current government's efforts to orientate the people towards blue-collar jobs and industrial development. At the same time the subject is intended to widen the opportunity for students to fulfill the desire to construct and create, and assist in their psychomotor development (Ministry of Education, 1987d).

5.6 The aims and objectives of the English language programme in the KBSM

The aims of the English language education in secondary schools are to enable students to (Ministry of Education, 1989a):

(i) Understand the language system,that is the form,meaning and function and use it effectively in everyday life.
(ii) Use English language effectively to acquire general knowledge.
(iii) Use English language effectively in daily communication.

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The KBSM sees English language as one of the languages "to help Malaysia keep abreast of scientific and technological developments" and to "participate meaningfully in international trade and commerce". It also sees English language as an "additional means of access to academic, professional and recreational materials".

The English language education for secondary schools will continue to strengthen and improve the language efficiency of the students. The objectives of teaching-learning English language in secondary schools are at the end of Form 1 to enable pupils to:
1. listen to and understand spoken English in the school;
2. speak about things in the home and school, places in the school; animals kept as pets; people and personal matters and transport;
3. read and understand instructions, directions, messages, information, description, letters, stories and poems;
4. write instructions, directions, messages, informal letters, and stories, fill in forms, and describe people, things and events.

The objectives of teaching-learning English language in lower secondary schools are to enable pupils to:
1. use the language effectively and continue to add to the skills that were obtained in the primary schools;
2. listen and understand the mass media;
3. converse and give opinions using proper language in various situations with friends, teachers, parents, family and community;
4. read, understand and reason out various materials in prose and poetry to understand messages, teachings and moral values in community living;
5. read and understand various materials from subject materials and general knowledge to increase ones knowledge and use leisure time effectively; and
6. write various types of essays including letters and fill in forms.

In Form 1, efficiency in the language must be reinforced so that pupils can express ideas, read and be able to produce essays about themselves, facts and stories   The pupils must be exposed to materials that are attractive and suitable to their level of proficiency. For Form 2, efficiency in the language must be upgraded so that they can

analyse, read and reason and produce essays about themselves, facts, stories and imagination . The students must be exposed to a wider scope of materials and use suitable language. In Form 3, efficiency in the language must be further emphasized so that students can discuss and analyse, read and reason and produce essays that are personal, factual, narrative, imaginative and discussive. The students must be exposed to materials that are more challenging and that have a higher standard of language

The Form 1 English language content and syllabus contents as given in Tables 5.1 and 5.2:

(i) efficiency in using the language; and

(ii) grammar and proverbs.

Efficiency in using the language includes hearing and speaking, reading and writing. Grammar includes syntaxes, morphology and also pronunciation and intonation.

5.7   Teaching and learning strategy

The English language syllabus for secondary schools does not specify any specific teaching strategy. Therefore teachers can choose any approach and teaching-learning method that is suitable with the language skills taught and the students' ability to achieve the lessons objective in line with the objectives of the English language education in secondary schools.

The effectiveness of the lessons also depends on the suitability of the contents of the materials used, and teaching aids that can encourage the students to think, communicate

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Table 5.1: Contents of English language lessons for Form 1 (Ministry of Education, 1987a).

Form 1	Contents
Instruction on how to use public amenities	Meeting people, homes and furniture
Directions to places of interest	Asking and giving directions at school, in the library, at the canteen, pets
Information to places of interest	At the seaside, people at school, people at home
Messages	A birthday party
Stories	A new bicycle, a shopkeeper
Letters to and from friends and relatives on topics of common interests	Hobbies, shopping
Job application and replies	Future action, a policewoman
National events	Teachers Day
Malaysian leaders	Honest people
The armed forces	Courage
Air transport	Preparing for Sports Day
Processes and procedures	Sport Day
Describing scenes	Friendly matches
Sports and entertainment	Netball, football
Information in charts	Time table
Current issues	The garden
Poems	

and interact. The teaching-learning approach should emphasize integration between language proficiency and the teaching of general knowledge and moral values. Integration can take place between two, three or all the language proficiency skills. Teachers should also make the pupils aware of the estatic values in the language, proverbs and the variations of the language in different situations

In the KBSM and in line with the students ability, the teaching-learning of grammar should be integrated with language proficiency. To achieve this purpose, teachers need to plan and choose the grammar topics that they want to teach. The usage of words or sentence structures in the teaching materials used can be highlighted through questions, discussions etc. The grammar topic to be taught can be reinforced with examples and usage in various context.

For the Form 1 English language programme, newspaper, student magazines and dictionary together with materials of general knowledge and literature should be used in

Table 5.2: Syllabus contents of the English language programme (Ministry of Education, 1989b).

The contents indicate the minimum to be achieved by the student at the end of the secondary school. Teachers should extend upon the contents if their students have the capabilities to handle them. The contents list the four language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing, and the sound system, the grammar, and the vocabulary to be taught. Teachers should use the Malaysian setting as a base to teach the contents. They should emphasise the principles of good citizenship, moral values and the Malaysian way of life. The following skills are to be taught together with all the other skills.

1. Listening and speaking

    1.1.   Listening to and understanding meanings of words, phrases and sentences;

    1.2.   Ask for and give meanings of words, phrases and sentences: and

    1.3.   Speak using correct pronunciation, and with correct intonation, word stress and sentences rhythm.

2. Reading

    2.1   Read using correct pronunciation, and with correct intonation, word stress and sentences rhythm.

    2.2   Use dictionaries; to get the appropriate meanings of words and how these words Are used; and

    2.3.   Read and understand meanings of words, phrases and sentences.

3. Writing

    3.1.   Write sentences in correct sequence to make paragraphs and use correct punctuation; and

    3.2.   Take dictation.

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teaching-learning and general reading. These strategies are hoped to encourage and build self-confidence in the pupils in using the English language. The classroom practices for the former curriculum, no doubt, varied from school to school in the country. On the whole they had a number of undesirable features. The following criticisms drawn from various sources (Rafai, 1980; Noor Azam, 1980; Ministry of Education, 1981d) are widely representative of the perceived weaknesses in the teaching and learning of English:

i. all students were taught with the same method, using the same materials and given the same written work;

ii. teachers tended to be constrained by the textbooks, attempting to 'cover' them without taking into account whether or not students had understood the lessons;

iii. teaching tended to be abstract, not related to the experiences and day-to-day life of students, and insufficient teaching aids were used;

iv. exercises were given even before students had understood the concepts being taught;

v. students were not given practical activities to help them understand what was taught, and often there were insufficient written exercises to reinforce the concept or skill being learnt;

vi. there was a lack of remedial activities, and a lack of emphasis on students doing correction for written exercises; and

vii. there was inadequate drill for multiplication tables.

It is in the teaching and learning processes that the new programmes are expected to bring the greatest changes. It stresses that:

i. students are to be given the opportunity to develop their interest in learning, to be prepared to receive subsequent learning, and to be able to learn on their own;

ii. students are to be given the opportunity to express feelings and ideas through various media such as speech, art, music, dance and movement, acting; and for nurturing their creativity;

iii. students are to acquire skills and knowledge through direct experience, such experiences to be achieved through their active involvement in interesting activities; and

iv. students are to be provided with the opportunity to acquire real-life experiences such as facing problems, and developing understanding and cooperation; hence, the classroom atmosphere should encourage students to think, to ask questions and to exchange ideas (Ministry of Education, 1987a).

The major features in new teaching and learning strategy are as follows:

i. learning is to be managed through a variety of groupings; as a class, in small group, in pairs or individually; appropriate to the skills being taught and the varied abilities of the students;

ii. greater diversity and flexibility is to be applied in the selection of knowledge and skills to be taught in a particular lesson; and

iii. more attention is to be given to the individual needs of the students through the remedial and enrichment programmes (Ministry of Education, 1986a).

All these lead to a different style of classroom management including the physical arrangement in the classroom and the use of a variety of activities and materials. The new teaching and learning strategy, if fully implemented, would lead to considerable improvement in student learning. The features and description of the strategy are described in a number of materials for teachers produced by the Ministry of Education (1986a).

5.7.1 Pupil grouping

Learning in small groups is expected to be conducted after whole class teaching of a concept or skill. If the homogeneous grouping is used, the activities are to be graded to the different abilities of the group; but if the mixed-ability grouping is used, each group can have a different activity, and the groups can take turns to do them. When activities are carried out in small groups, the teacher will have to move from one group to another to assist pupils where necessary; he is also to encourage cooperation, and competition among the pupils. To maximise the benefits from the use of small groups, at the end of each session, the teacher is expected to conduct a discussion of each group's work, or put on display the work produced, for the benefit of the rest of the class. To enable the small groups to function smoothly, the teacher has to ensure that students become familiar with the routine to move around for specific purposes only and without disturbing others, and to be able to carry out the work by themselves with the minimum of help from the teacher. Teachers are expected to use small group and individualised teaching in addition to whole class teaching. The use of small groups is intended to provide students with the opportunity to learn according to their abilities and aptitudes, and to progress according to their own pace. Two types of grouping are recommended, the homogeneous and the mixed-ability; but membership in a group is not to be permanent. The homogeneous grouping is considered suitable for teaching the basic skills where the teacher can grade activities according to the ability of the group. But in any group, differences between students exist, therefore, the teacher

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needs to provide for individualised teaching and learning as well. The mixed-ability grouping is recommended for the other subjects or when pupils have already acquired the basic skills. With this type of grouping the teacher is expected to encourage the brighter pupils to help the weaker ones, thus, fostering a healthy social and emotional development in the pupils.

In summary, the explanation of the rationale and operation of the use of a variety of student groupings seems clear enough, but this is a fundamental change from the established practice of whole class teaching. Not only will it involve a change in teaching style which, as examined in Chapter 4, is not always easy to achieve; but it is also more demanding on the teacher. He has to plan a large number of activities each day, prepare the appropriate teaching and learning aids and exert a great deal of effort for managing the different groups.

5.7.2   Selection of knowledge and skills

The integration of knowledge and the integration of skills are particularly relevant for English language, and they appear to have been adequately incorporated into the suggestions in the guide book. For instance, the acquisition of the skills on sentence and picture matching, the suggested content is about animals such as pets and farm animals that pupils see in their neighbourhood; and the suggested activities include naming animals, reading sentences about animals that have been prepared by the teacher and matching pictures with the text being read (Ministry of Education, 1987d).

Teachers are also urged to integrate the teaching of a number of skills in a particular lesson, as hitherto, skills have often been taught separately. The integration can be for skills in the particular subject or from other subjects as well. The skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in a language programme, for instance, can be combined

in one lesson; or the skill of observation in Science subject can be combined with oral skill for language. Such an integration would enable a number of skills to be mastered simultaneously, and in an integrated way, as experienced in daily life. As a consequent this could also reduce boredom on the learning process. In the teaching of the basic skills, particularly for reading and writing, the teacher is expected to use knowledge from the other subjects such as Science, Physical Education, History, Geography and Arts Education. The knowledge selected has to be appropriate to the student's experience and interest. In learning reading, for instance, the topics could be about fruits and flowers found in the locality of the schools.

5.7.3 The Remedial Programme

Remedial teaching is to comprise a set of tasks that have to be undertaken systematically. After teaching a particular concept or skill, the teacher is expected to assess the students' performance in order to identify those who have and those who have not mastered the skill. While teaching, through interaction with the pupils or through assessment, the teacher may get to know the problem faced by the pupils. But to be accurate about the nature of the problem, the teacher will need to use specially constructed diagnostic tests.

After having identified the problem the teacher will then proceed to plan the remedial activities. He has to allocate his time such that while doing remedial teaching for the weak students he is not neglecting the others. He is expected to prepare graded instructional materials so that the other students can be fully occupied with the minimum of supervision while he attends to the weak ones. Should a special remedial teacher be available in the school (which is often not the case) his services have to be used.

Remediation requires support from within as well as outside of the classroom. Weak pupils are very much in need of emotional support to develop self-confidence and a positive attitude towards learning, hence, cooperation between the school and parents has to be established. While the necessity for helping the weak pupils is undeniable, there are a number of constraints in operationalising the programme. The diagnostic tests to identify the specific problems a child has, as envisaged by the Cabinet Committee and as specified in the programme, are not available. And, to expect teachers to produce them is highly unrealistic. Furthermore, the problems as noted by the Cabinet Committee, such as the lack of specialised training for teachers, responsible for the ineffective attempt at remedial activities, have not been solved. High level of implementation for this aspect of the teaching and learning strategy therefore cannot be expected. Pupils vary in their readiness and capacity for learning. For those who have not mastered a particular skill in the specified time, remedial activities have to be provided. In the KBSM, the remedial programme is seen as a specific measure to assist those who have problems in acquiring the basic skills. Its objectives are to assist pupils to overcome problems in learning any particular skill, to overcome negative attitudes and adverse behaviours, and to develop self-confidence and a positive attitude towards learning.

5.7.4 The Enrichment Programme

The enrichment programme focuses on the basic skills. It is meant for all students, but the quantity is expected to vary according to ability - the brighter ones getting more than the weaker ones. The activities can be done at any time chosen by the teacher or after learning a particular skill or group of skills. Two categories of activities are expected to be carried out:

i. Activities of the students' choice

These are not directly related to the skills being learned and are to be done less formally, i.e. pupils are free to choose activities according to their interests, talents or abilities; and with minimum direction from the teacher.

ii. Activities of the teacher's choice

These are directly related to the skills being learned and aimed at reinforcing acquisition of those skills. They are to be conducted in a formal way, with planning or direction from the teacher.

The enrichment programme is intended to provide activities that are additional to the basic learning activities undertaken within or outside school hours. It aims to widen knowledge and experience; reinforce the skills being learned; and provide additional opportunity for pupils to inquire and study on their own, and develop desirable personality traits. In summary the general ideas for the enrichment programme might appear clear enough; but for the teacher who has to put them into practice, a great deal more guidance is needed. There is no special guide book for the programme. Brief statements are included in the books about the KBSM in general and some suggestions for activities can be found in the English language guide. In fact, nowhere in any of the published documents are the two categories of activities further elaborated. No doubt, explanations and handouts were provided during the courses; but these courses, as will be examined in Chapter 9, apparently did not fully meet the standard expected by the teachers and others involved in the implementation process.

5.7.5 Variety in activities and materials

In carrying out group activities the teacher is urged to use a variety of instructional materials in terms of media, levels of difficulty and topics of interest. Such variety is recommended for all lessons as well as for the remedial and enrichment activities. Teachers are expected to use a number of activities in a particular lesson as this would

make learning more enjoyable and stimulate pupils' motivation to learn. Such activities can include games and simulations, acting or role play, and visits. Most of these would provide pupils with the opportunity to interact with each other and with the environment, hence, enhancing their awareness and understanding of other people and the environment.

5.7.6 Classroom organisation

The large number of readers has arisen from recognition of the importance of developing interest in reading, and so a means of reinforcing language acquisition. The readers are also intended to provide students with the opportunity for acquiring knowledge; as mentioned earlier, none of the subjects at the Form 1 level is aimed for this purpose. This is an obvious attempt to operationalise the emphasis on basic skills, although it would substantially increase recurrent cost for secondary education. However, as will be seen in Chapter 11, students' performance in reading (and the other basic skills) has improved. To facilitate teaching and learning in the way recommended above, the teacher has to ensure that classroom organisation is flexible, with each object and space having a definite function. It should encourage interaction between the teacher and students, between students themselves, and between students and the instructional materials. Each interaction should be planned so that the teaching and learning objectives can be achieved to the maximum.

5.8 Instructional materials for From 1 English language programme

One of the weaknesses of the teaching and learning practices in the former curriculum was the insufficient amount of written exercises to reinforce acquisition of the concept or skill being learned. However, cost-wise the new curriculum has the consequence of a need to supply workbooks for every year by the Ministry in contrast to supplying textbooks once in five years, which could be difficult to justify. The new forms of instructional materials is an indication of the serious attempt at changing the teaching

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style, particularly in reducing dependence on the textbook. The study kit can be regarded as ambitious. No doubt it aims to ensure that teachers use a variety of teaching and learning materials, but the actual items constituting the kit may be questioned. And, views of respondents in the study, to be examined in Chapter 8, indicates doubts on the usefulness of supplying teachers with such kits.

5.9   Views on the KBSM

The teaching and learning approach in the KBSM was hailed as appropriate for the secondary level. The use of groups, teaching according to the abilities of the students, the enrichment and remedial activities and the variety of instructional materials were seen as giving students greater opportunity for learning, and enabling them to learn faster. These aspects were often elaborated as some of the major reasons for the success of the basic skills component. Details will be discussed in Chapter 10. The announcement of the KBSM on 8 December 1985 (New Straits Times) was received with full support by all sectors of the public. One of the national newspapers reported that parents, teachers, politicians, university dons and the man-in-the-street heartily welcomed Education Minister Datuk Musa Hitam's new integrated secondary school curriculum. The general consensus was that 'it was long overdue' and that 'at last our children will get a basic education

The emphasis on the basic skills was endorsed as the effective way of reducing illiteracy, and of facilitating pupils in studying other subjects. While all agreed to the importance of acquiring the basic skills, a few respondents were not happy with the reduced knowledge content in the curriculum, for subjects such as Science, Health Education and Geography have been omitted. A principal, for instance, explained that 'students learn the names of flowers in their Bahasa Malaysia lessons but they do not know the details of the different part of a flower'. The omission of Science was

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criticised as being 'not development-oriented' in view of the importance of science and technology at the present time. The reduced knowledge content was also considered to constitute a loss to the brighter students. Such loss may not be apparent in the early years but could be detrimental in the long run. It is interesting to note that there was an undivided support for the KBSM among those who responded to questionnaires and interviewed at the central and state levels and in the four states selected for the study. A majority of the respondents expressed their support with brief comments such as 'it should have been done earlier' or 'that's what the secondary school needs'. A few of them viewed the KBSM as a means of revitalizing the teachers in order for them to become more dedicated, more innovative and to be less dependent on the textbook; as a means of helping the weaker students; and as a means of truly educating the young to become good citizens instead of 'only studying to pass examinations',

5.10 What infrastructure was set up?

As mentioned earlier, there are various tasks to be performed. In a centralised system there are different tasks that have to be undertaken at different levels. These have to be planned for and co-ordinated, and their operations managed. For the KBSM project the infrastructure comprises established institutional forms, and a new ones created specially for the purpose. For a fundamental change in the entire primary and secondary curriculum for the whole country to become effectively implemented, an adequate and efficient infrastructure is needed.

5.10.1. At central level

The Curriculum Development Centre, responsible for planning and developing the materials, has deployed about a third of its officers for the KBSM. The Textbook Bureau has to concentrate its efforts in evaluating the new textbooks and readers. The Inspectorates has to devote more time to classroom where the KBSM is being taught for the first time; and the Teacher Education Division has to ensure that new teachers are able to teach the KBSM immediately they start their teaching career. At the Ministry or central level, as shown earlier, different divisions have their own distinct functions. With the KBSM their workload has increased and perhaps more attention is being given to the new curriculum at the expense of other activities.

5.10.2. At state level

The re-organisation at the state level in 1988, mentioned earlier, particularly with the appointment of an additional deputy director and the establishment of the curriculum section, further strengthened the infrastructure for implementation. At the state level a special unit for the KBSM was created in January 1988 as the existing one in charge of school administration and curriculum did not have adequate staff to undertake the additional workload.

5.10.3. At district level

There are five to nine officers in each district. One of them was specially assigned to handle all matters pertaining to the KBSM; while the rest with major responsibilities in other areas, were assigned to assist him. In addition, there were 7 to 10 Resource Persons for the different subjects of the KBSM. They were included in the teacher allocation for the schools to which they were attached, but taught only about 800 to 1000 minutes per week instead of the 1080 to 1160 minutes or more as allocated to the other teachers. This was to enable them to be free of teaching duties for two days a week in order to visit schools for monitoring the implementation and providing guidance to teachers in the classroom. The district education offices were established to serve a number of professional and administrative functions. There are nine to

twelve functions at each district, in which three of them are particularly relevant to the KBSM project. These are to oversee school programmes; to organise and conduct courses, seminars, meetings at district level; and to undertake follow-up action arising from reports of the Inspectorate (Pulau Pinang northeast district Education Office, 1990).

5.10.4   Committees

At the ministry, the KBSM Implementation Committee determines policy and broad guidelines while the KBSM Technical Committee deliberates on details of the implementation. The State KBSM Implementation Committee manages the finances and prepares guidelines for implementation at the state, district and school levels. The District KBSM Implementation Committee is responsible for in-service training, monitoring of the implementation and guidance for teachers; while the school KBSM Committee has to ensure proper implementation at the classroom level. The tasks and membership of these committees are shown in Table 5.3. Apart from the committees already mentioned, there were others (at all levels) set up to serve specific functions. One, for instance, was concerned with planning the in-service programmes for teachers, and another with working out details of the system for pupil evaluation (personal communication with various members of staff at Ministry and administrative circulars the state education offices, 1991d). At the state level, one such committee was formed to identify basic teaching and learning materials and equipment and to monitor their quality. At districts level for instance an example of a committee was formed in which the Key Personnel in the district could meet to discuss reports of their school visits.In addition to the above infrastructure, the need for co-operation and co-ordination between the different agencies led to the setting up of committees at all levels.

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5.11 Was the curriculum tried-out?

In the case of the KBSM, it was planned that it be implemented in stages, starting with the first stage of implementation for the Form 1 in 1988 for the four languages (i.e. Bahasa Malaysia, English language, Mandarin and Tamil) and for other subjects in the following year. A new curriculum is intended to provide improved learning opportunities to all pupils in all the schools, therefore, it has to geared strictly to their needs.

The learning objectives to be achieved, the teaching and learning strategies recommended and the activities suggested have to be suitable to the varied interests and abilities of the whole student population. For these reasons, programme developers must seek evidence about the appropriateness of the programme for the intended group. This means that the programme needs to be empirically tried-out before it is approved for use on a large scale. The need to try-out programmes is recognised by the Malaysian curriculum developers, but as discussed in Chapter 3, the impatience to get programmes introduced in schools put limits to the duration and rigour of the try-out.

Preparation for the languages implementation of the secondary programmes included the production of teachers' and pupils' materials at the central level and the training of teachers and principals by state level staff who had previously been trained by the curriculum developers. In-service training for KP were conducted in 1988. With the

Table 5.3: The KBSM Committees at the various levels (KBSM News, 1989).

Level and Committee	Membership	Tasks
Ministry; KBSM Implementation Committee	Chairman: Deputy Director General II Members: Directors of all professional divisions and states, heads of three administrative divisions. Secretariat: Curriculum Development Centre	To decide policies to oversee implementation at all levels. Responsible for financial matters. To ensure cooperation and coordination between all agencies.
Ministry; Technical Committee	Chairman: Deputy Director General II Members: KBSM coordinators from all states and professional divisions, representatives from three administrative divisions. Secretariate: Curriculum Development Centre	To deliberate and decide KBSM on details pertaining to implementation at the state level
State: KBSM Implementation Committee	Chairman: State Director Members: Professional officers of the state department; representatives of Principals, Inspectorate and training colleges. Secretariate: KBSM unit.	To plan implementation activities at the state, district and school levels. To manage finances.
District: District KBSM Implementation Committee	Chairman: Head of District Education Office Members: Representatives of Principals, teachers and Parents and Teachers Associations.	To plan implementation activities at the district level.
School: School KBSM Committee	Chairman: Principal Members: All KBSM teachers and some other teachers.	To provide guidance and assistance for implementation at the school and classroom.

use of the cascade strategy the KP were trained in April, only four months after the start of the implementation. This was to enable teachers to be trained during the second and third term holidays i.e. August and November - December respectively, in order to avoid disrupting school activities. As for the materials, it could not have been possible to have them rigorously tried-out, revised and printed in time for the in-service courses, or to reach schools before January 1989.

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To help teachers gain a greater understanding of the various concepts and features of the teaching and learning strategy, and to enable them to apply these more effectively in their teaching, the states were required to strengthen the mechanism for giving advice and guidance to teachers. Each state developed its own strategy, deploying staff from both state and district levels for the purpose. The reports of first year implementation brought to light two major problems. One was the tremendous increase in the teachers' workload because of the need to prepare large quantities of learning aids. The other was the low level or lack of implementation of some of the features of the KBSM. For example, pupils were made to sit in small groups as recommended, but the actual teaching was conducted for the class as a whole and not according to the levels of ability of the small groups. This problem was seen to be due to a lack of understanding of the basic concepts of the KBSM, the difficulty of getting used to new ways of teaching and the lack of appropriate teaching and learning materials. Such finding showed teachers' workload increased and to reduce this, three different measures were taken:

i. an increase in the teacher-class ratio from 1.2 to 1.5 teachers per class, so that with the reduction in the teaching load, teachers could devote more time for preparing teaching aids;
ii. the production of workbooks for English language in order to provide at least the minimum amount of exercises for pupils; and
iii. the establishment of committees at the school level where other teachers could become involved, helping the KBSM teachers with the preparation of teaching aids.

Virtually every day in the first few months of 1988, it was possible to find articles and letters about the KBSM in the national newspapers. Some of these were encouraging, some critical and sceptical, while others even misinterpreted the aims and purposes of the curriculum. One particularly significant feature of the implementation of KBSM

was the great interest and concern shown by all sectors of the public, particularly the politicians.

5.12 Conclusion

In terms of plans or intentions the KBSM has definitely accomplished the model secondary education as envisaged by the Cabinet Committee. There is the obvious emphasis on the basic skills by means of reducing the knowledge content to be acquired by pupils, to the extent that there is no subject that provides for formal learning of knowledge in the first three years. The KBSM also provides for the needs of all students, with remedial programme for the weak ones and enrichment programme for the brighter ones. The 'teaching methods appropriate to the new approach in education' recommended by the Cabinet Committee have been translated by the planners into the 'student-centred' or 'activity-based' approach in teaching and learning. Learning comprises active involvement in various forms of activity, using a variety of materials and to be undertaken in different types of student grouping; and student evaluation is to play a more prominent role in promoting learning.

Thus, while the central emphasis of the KBSM is on the basic skills, it also aims to improve other aspects of quality of secondary education in the country: to increase learning opportunities from all students, to make learning more meaningful and interesting, and to provide for the overall development of the students. But to expect all this to happen speedily in all schools in the country is highly optimistic. The challenge in this endeavour is in translating these aims into actuality; and this will be examined in Chapters 8, 9, 10 and 11.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1   Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology, instrument used, background of sample and analysis of data. A number of research methods were employed in this study as a combination of methods is appropriate in order to make use of different strengths as well as to cross-examine information obtained and to answer research questions as mentioned in Chapter 1. The study mainly focuses on one group of individuals, namely, the secondary school English teachers from different location, medium and type of schools. The data required for this study were basically obtained from questionnaire responded by teachers and principals in 67 schools, as well as interview and observation in 17 classrooms and also interview responses from personnel in the Ministry of Education at the district, state and central levels.

6.2   Methodology

In this study an attempt has been made to evaluate both the outcomes and working of the KBSM and English Language Programme, although in an informal and relatively unstructured manner. The technique was to ask for very general opinions and then to ask respondents to justify them, rather than by asking very specific questions which it was felt would 'lead' the respondents.

Survey methods needed to reach more samples and to enable the respondents to respond to objective and open-ended types of questions. Respondents could express their comments freely with regard to the implementation of the KBSM. In addition interview with teachers, principals and personnel was felt important as more detail information and clearer insights were expected to be obtained. Observation is important to examine the extent of implementation at classroom level which could describe classroom instruction in terms of the type of activities and verbal instruction.

6.2.1 Criteria for Selection of Sample

Samples were selected from two groups of individuals, namely the Form 1 secondary schools teachers teaching English language and principals. They were selected from different location (rural and urban), medium of instruction (Malay, English and Chinese) and, type of school (day and residential). As the exact number of the teachers teaching English language in Form 1 was not available from all schools (67 schools), therefore all of them (133 teachers) were chosen as the samples for this study.

6.2.2 Nature of the Sample

The sample of this study refers to teachers teaching English of Malay, Chinese and Indian race whose first language is not English. The schools from the states of Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak were chosen for this study because they could represent schools from both rural and urban areas. The schools into which the KBSM is being introduced has diversed characteristics i.e. they were used to be Bahasa Malaysia, English and Chinese as media of instruction.

6.2.3 Method of Data Collection

The researcher returned to her home country, Malaysia, to collect data for this research. The fieldwork mainly involved administered questionnaire, interviews and classroom observation. The researcher travelled to the four states of Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak, where she interviewed principals, teachers and personnel. She visited both rural and urban schools, interviewed the teachers and classroom observation were carried out. She found that teachers, principals and personnel were very co-operative about answering the questionnaire and being interviewed. In many cases, the officials in-charge of certain departments were personal friends of the researcher and this made things easier. She had access to various documents and literature available in the Ministry of Education.

For all research to do with education in Malaysia, permission for conducting such a study had to be obtained from the Ministry of Education. As the researcher was a staff member of the Ministry, the approval to conduct the research was much easier to obtain and furthermore the area of research is of high priority and of great interest to the Ministry of Education. She was constantly made aware of the fact that the information being given to her was not readily available to the general public and that not many people could have had access to it and to bear in mind on the sensitivity of the questions to do with language issues and the media of instruction in schools.

The investigation was divided into three main phases, namely: preparatory phase, pilot study and main study.

i.   Preparatory phase

The main work done in the preparatory phase was to establish contact with the Ministry of Education Malaysia, in order to get permission to carry out the investigation.

Prior to undertaking of this study, approval was first sought from several agencies as follows:

1. Educational Planning and Research Division (EPRD) of the Ministry of Education, Malaysia;
2. Directors of the State Education Departments from the states of Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak;
3. Heads of the District Education Office; and
4. Principals of the schools involved.

The following sequence of procedures was carried out for securing the approval to conduct this research:

a. Approval and supporting letter from course supervisor in the Department of Education, University of Glasgow before going back to Malaysia for fieldwork.

b. A covering letter which solicited for the approval of the study, a copy of the research proposal with questionnaires, observation check list, interview outline and a set of completed forms required by the Ministry of Education were mailed to EPRD. Permission to administer the questionnaire to the teachers in the state of Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak was then granted from the EPRD on 3rd. June, 1991.

c. A copy of the approval letter from the EPRD together with a set of all materials as in (b) were provided to all Directors of Education for each state.

d. Copies of the above letters were also sent to District Education Offices to inform them about the research.

e. Copies of the above letters were also sent to the principals of the secondary schools involved in the survey.

vi. All letters pertaining to approval of this study are given in Appendices 2, 3, 4 and 5 (i.e. Appendix 2: Letter to the Ministry of Educatiob; Appendix 3: Letter from the Ministry.of Education; Appendix 4: Letter to the State Education Departments; Appendix 5: Letters from the State Education Departments).

Once the official approval to carry out the pilot study was granted from the Ministry of Education, the State Education Department sent an official circular to the secondary schools involved, informing the principals of the intended study.

ii.   The pilot study

The pilot study was carried out for fifteen schools in the Federal Territory and the state of Selangor in which seven rural schools and eight urban schools were selected for this study. The total number of Form 1 English teachers who took part in the pilot study was 30 and the distribution is shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.1). They were considered to be reasonably representative of the eventual target population. The principals from these schools also responded to the questionnaires. The main purpose of the pilot study was to test the adequacy of the meaning of the questionnaires, especially the clarity of the questions and wordings and to obtain data for analysis in order to refine the instrument. Teachers were also asked for comments on any difficulties encountered in understanding the questionnaires.

After conducting the pilot test in those schools. a number of problems came to light. First, a number of questions either did not elicit any information or were found to be redundant. Some information which the researcher required could only be furnished by the senior English teacher while some other questions could only be answered by the teacher incharge of English curricular activities. It was thus decided to delete some

questions and direct others only to specific teachers. As a result of the pilot study the layout of the teachers' questionnaire was altered in response to comments from the teachers and principals. Statements that were indicated as difficult to understand by the teachers were refined by the researcher. Also it was found that a time of about one and a half hours was sufficient to administer the teachers' questionnaire.

On the whole, the teachers encountered no difficulties in answering the questionnaire except for question no. 12 (Appendix 6). For this question, the teachers were asked to write comment(s) on the visit by the personnel. The question is open-ended, i.e. to give a chance for the teachers to response. From the returned questionnaires, it was found that only one out of ten respondents commented on the frequent of the visit. To be more specific in the actual fieldwork, the question was re-constructed as "Please indicate how frequent the visits were" and the open-ended question was left as it is for the teachers to comment on the visit.

Owing to the limitation of time available to implement the field research and data collection, the number of secondary schools considered in the pilot study had to be small and manageable in number which could be handled by a single researcher.

iii. Main study

The main study was conducted in mid June up to the end of October, 1991. The researcher visited all the schools involved to conduct interviews and observations. In the principal's view survey, questionnaires were mailed to 71 principals of the schools involved in the survey. Sixty seven principals responded, while the rest of the responses were considered void because the questionnaires were answered by assistant principals. The collection of the questionnaires from the schools involved was made by post.

In selecting the schools for the main study, the criteria which were considered include the location of school (rural or urban), medium of instruction (Malay, English and Chinese) and type of school (daily or residential). In order to obtain these information,

the researcher had requested the State Education Departments to provide her with a list of schools according to district. Two hundred and fifty seven schools have been identified for this study where about 15% (67 schools i.e. total population) was selected for distribution of questionnaire. Out of these 67 schools about 15% (10 schools; 17 classroom: 8 rural and 9 urban) was selected for classroom observation and interview.

In Pulau Pinang, four day type schools were selected for this study in which two schools each from rural and urban areas. The urban schools were represented by a premier school where the medium of instruction used to be English while the other one was a Chinese medium school. Whereas the two rural schools involved were of National medium school. Visits to these schools were carried out in early July 1991.

In Kedah, five schools were selected for this study in which three schools from rural and two schools from urban areas, comprising of one National medium, two English medium and two Chinese medium schools. All of these schools are day type secondary schools. The study was carried out in mid July 1991.

In Perlis, two schools were selected which represent urban and rural schools. The urban school is located about 6 km away from the capital city Kangar and the rural school is located about 18 km away and only up to Form 3 level (i.e. Lower secondary school). The study was carried out in late August 1991.

In Perak, six schools were selected of which four were urban schools, located about 5 km away from the capital city of Ipoh. Three English medium schools were premier schools and the other one was a Chinese medium school. Two rural schools that located about 25 km from Ipoh were selected where both represent National medium school. One of the schools was a fully residential school. The study in the state of Perak was carried out in early September 1991 for a duration of two weeks.

The researcher visited each school for two days where she has the opportunity to interview principals, Form 1 English teachers as well as other teachers. In addition, the researcher sat in the classroom for teaching observation, checked registers, examined pupils' work and teachers' correction and examined teachers' lesson plan and the teaching aids facilities available. The time for each lesson and activity was recorded. The observation schedule was used to gain credibility as to investigate the background and teaching learning process that taken place in classrooms.

6.3   Data collection instrument

Four sets of instruments, namely the Teachers' Questionnaire, Principals' Questionnaire, Classroom Observation check-list and Interview guideline were used in the data collection. The instruments were developed by the researcher based on her own working experience with the EPRD and in consultation with the CDC personnel who were involved directly with the implementation of the KBSM as well as from the related studies conducted by other researchers such as those cited in the review of literature (Chapter 4).

6.3.1   Questionnaires

Two types of questionnaires namely the Teachers' Questionnaires and Principals' Questionnaires were shown in Appendices 6 and 7, respectively. The items in the questionnaire were designed to answer the research questions presented in Section 6.3. The questionnaires were written in English since the respondents themselves were English teachers and all the principals and key personnel were English educated. Almost all the questions asked in the questionnaire were of the objective type. The respondents needed only to read each item carefully and to indicate their responses with a tick in the appropriate box(es). The remaining questions were open-ended type questions which enabled the respondents to: (i) respond freely for items where a

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specific list of responses was not provided; and (ii) express their comments freely with regard to the use of resource materials in the teaching and learning of Form 1 English.

Principals questionnaires

The principals' questionnaire consisted of the following 2 main sections:

Section 1: Background data of the respondents. This section consisted of 12 questions to elicit the background information of the respondent.

Section 2: Principals' view on what administrative procedures are involved in the implementation of the curriculum at school level. This section sought to elicit the change in the time-table, change in the time allocated for the subject, change in teachers incharge in classroom arrangement and other changes.

Teachers' questionnaires

The teachers' questionnaire consisted of the following two main sections:

Section 1: The Teachers' Background Questionnaire. The background data forms the first section of the main instrument of the study. This section of questionnaire consisted of 15 items, designed to obtain the following information: name of school, location of school, medium of instruction, type of school, sex, age group, years of teaching experience, years of teaching English, years at present school, subject specialisation, subjects teaching and minute teaching per week, additional responsibilities, academic qualifications, English studies, professional qualifications. The purpose of such information was to enable the researcher to deduce possible answers to the extent of implementation as well as to group the sample for comparative study.

Section 2: Teachers' view on the KBSM and Form 1 English language programme. This section consisted twenty five questions aimed at eliciting teachers' self-perceptions on their role, involvement and adequacy in teaching the various topics in the English language programme, how the teachers plan their individual lessons, the practices and problems encountered in the methods of teaching English language in the KBSM ,the changes the teachers perceive have taken place at school level to accommodate the new curriculum.

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6.3.2 Interview Schedule

The schedule was developed by the researcher and had been tried out and pre-tested before the final study. These questions were of the open-answer and semi-structured types and are shown in Appendix 8. The study was planned to obtain qualitative data in which only frequency counts were made and reported on identifiable categories. The purpose was to obtain more complete and in-depth information on personnel's, principals' and teachers' view of the KBSM English Language programme. An interview schedule was consequently developed. General guidance on the principles relating to preparing an interview guide and the writing of questions was obtained from Borg and Gall (1983), Hoinvelli et al. (1978) and Kahn and Carnell (1957).

Question writing

Open-ended questions, but semi-structured, were used to gain more in-depth information. Seven questions were written, starting with a general question and moving to a more specific question in the specified area as mentioned in Chapter 1. Each question was carefully checked to ensure it was related to the eight research questions. Phrasing of questions and the language used were further clarified by repeated re-writing and pre-testing with five Form 1 English teachers.

Pilot test of interview schedule

A draft of the interview schedule was then prepared and was subjected to a field test. Ten teachers were randomly selected for the pilot study. The researcher went to the schools involved to interview the teachers. All of them were very co-operative. Six of the interviews were recorded, after permission for taping was granted by the interviewees. During the interview, notes were taken when the respondents seemed unsure of the questions or when the questions had to repeat. After each interview the interviewee was asked whether he had understood what was required in each question or whether further explanation was needed. The interview was conducted between 45

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to 60 minutes, and the time-span was considered reasonable to keep the respondents' continued attention. The information obtained was also recorded as far as possible in the respondent's own words as the interview progressed and the recording was checked when the tape was played back.

Questions intended to reveal the process of KBSM and English language programme being implemented at central, state and district levels had been prepared in advance. However, after the interviews with teachers, some questions arising from those interviews were added and some of the questions were deleted. The number of people interviewed was expanded because some Ministry officials had specific information which many others were not aware of. The researcher decided to use reporting technique and follow up on information obtained from various sources.

Final interview schedule

Although initially the researcher planned to use a recording instrument, respondents were uncomfortable when a cassette recorder was used and consequently it was abandoned. The experience in the pilot study was useful to improve the needed skills of interviewing as well as in refining the wording of the questions. The researcher had previous experience in interviewing: once as a co-ordinator in research on "Literacy problems in schools" and another on "Characteristics of effective secondary school in Malaysia".

As the planned procedure was found adequate and elicited the information that was required, no further practice in interviewing was carried out. Moreover, as the researcher was carrying out the interviews by herself, she was in a better position to understand the purpose of her questions, and was able to resolve queries, if any, that may arise during the interview. This is consistent with Hoinvelli et al. (1978, p.91),

that 'To this extent, he may well get more out of the interviews by doing them himself than by entrusting them to someone else'.

The Form 1 English teachers, principals and personnel were asked the extent they regarded the Form 1 English language programme as being successful and to comment on why they felt so. In some cases during the interviews, views on these issues were given even before the specific questions were asked, a reflection of the fact that people are continually making judgements about innovation as mentioned above. Most of the personnel, principals and teachers were very helpful, co-operative and willing to participate in the study, thus the investigation can be carried out without much problems.

Personnel

Interviews were conducted with twenty two personnel for the basic skills component of the KBSM, though many of them were in charge of other aspects of the curriculum as well. Their designations and functions, the levels at which they operated and the number specifically responsible for English language are shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.2). All the relevant personnel were approached and interviewed.

Interviews were both semi-structured and unstructured, depending on the person being interviewed. For those directly involved in the development and implementation programmes were approached through semi-structured interviews. Ten interviewees, however, who are not directly connected with English language teaching but had other relevant information were also interviewed through unstructured interviews. Such interviews were conducted over telephone for those respondents who happened to know the researcher personally and also if the respondents did not have much time for conducting interview in person.

The personnel were asked for their views regarding the KBSM, in particular the activities (what the teaching-learning process in the classroom is perceived to be like) and support (preparation and support activities for implementing the KBSM as whether or not have been useful and sufficient to the teachers); the demands on the teachers; the implementation practices in the classroom (factors at the school level considered important in implementing a new curriculum); the strategies used by the central agency to facilitate the implementation of the curriculum in schools; and the extent of success of the English language programme.

Principals and Form 1 English teachers

The principals and teachers for the basic skill component at the Form 1 level in all the 71 government assisted schools were requested to respond to self-administered questionnaires sent through the post. Attempt was made to interview as many of them as possible as more detail information and clearer insights were expected to be obtained compared to the questionnaire survey. The teachers interviewed were from the schools where the classroom observation were conducted, including the KPs. The number of teachers and principals involved in the survey are shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.3).

The researcher then visited those schools selected for interview and observation. The questions asked in the interviews for the principals and teachers were similar to those covered in the questionnaire. The principals were asked for information on the orientation they received and the activities at their schools for implementing the KBSM as well as their views regarding the curriculum, the demands on the English teachers and the extent of success of the basic skills component whereas the English teachers were asked for information on the training, materials, advice and other assistance they received for implementing the programme; their views regarding these and the curriculum in general; the demands made on them; and extent of success of the basic skills component in English.

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Other teachers

Interviews were held with some other teachers in the 10 schools where classroom observations were conducted, depending on their availability. These teachers were not teaching English at Form 1 level, but some of them had experienced teaching English Language at Form 1 level previously and also had attended the in-service courses. Some of these teachers teach examination classes i.e. Form 3 and 5 and other classes as well, except Form 1 class. By interviewing these teachers, it could help to provide the researcher with more information regarding the progress of the implementation of the Form 1 English language programme. Additionally, informal unstructured interviews were also carried out with upper secondary school teachers (mostly in urban schools), senior language teachers and teachers incharge of language curricular activities. A minimum of four teachers were interviewed from one secondary school Appendix 11 (Table 11.4).

6.3.3   Classroom observations

One aspect of programme evaluation that has been developed and used to a great extent in recent years in the United States is for assessing the degree of implementation of the innovation. A number of models have been experimented, including the use of direct observations in the classroom to assess the material, structural and behavioural changes; the use of 'Levels of Use' (LoU) interviews to determine the participants' knowledge and use of innovation; and measuring the variations in teachers' adaptation of the innovation and relating these variations to students outcomes (Revicki et al., 1981). An example of a project where the level of implementation has been evaluated using different models is "Follow Through". For instance, this project was developed and experimented in the United Kingdom in order to create a variety of model programmes for making schooling more effective for children in the kindergarten up to grade 3 whose parents are of the low income group (Fullan, 1983).

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In order to describe classroom instruction in terms of the types of activities and verbal interactions which take place within activities in English language classroom, the observation instrument was developed which included a taxonomy of categories (Allen, 1987; Frohlich et al., 1985; Frohlich, 1987; Spada, 1989). The other evaluation model used was direct classroom observation in order to examine the relationship between classroom instructional processes and child outcomes known as Stalling's System (Stallings, 1977).

On the basis of the above models, the researcher decided to develop her own observation schedule so as to suit her research work dealing with the Malaysian context (Appendix 9). The observation schedule was reviewed and validated by experts in research methodology for EFL in the University of Glasgow. The observation schedule basically consists of eight taxonomy categories as follows:

i. Initiation:
This is to provide information on who initiates speech in class, whether the teacher or the pupils.

ii. Language content:
This is to provide information on which language aspect receives more emphasis, and how was this aspect presented, whether in form, function, contextualized or decontextualized in the classroom.

iii. Language skills:
Which skill(s) receive more attention in class (reading, writing, speaking or listening).

iv. Materials used:
Are text, audio or visual available and how often are they used?

v. Interaction:
This is the most important category. It should characterise the classroom being observed; whether teacher-centred, pupil-centred, choral work, pair work, group work or individual.

vi. Activities:
Are activities given controlled or uncontrolled?

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vii. Class lay out:
What is the physical lay out of the class? (pair, face to face, group or single row)
viii. LI: It is important to observe to what extent first language is used in class.

The use of direct classroom observation system may be the best alternative for measuring the materials, structure and role or behaviour dimensions of the innovation; but it cannot effectively assess other aspects such as teacher's knowledge, understanding or commitment to the innovation. Furthermore, classroom observation data cannot really reflect 'normal' classroom practice. Any teacher will 'teach his best' and may try to use more innovative approaches while being observed. We know that teachers do not always do that, particularly when pressure is great and morale is low. In addition, direct observations are expensive and sometimes not feasible if large samples are involved.

The classroom observations were carried out on 17 classrooms from 5 rural and 5 urban schools. Each teacher was observed for three teaching periods where attempt was made to observe the English lessons that the teacher taught during a week. The important areas of interest in the classroom observation were to see how the KBSM was translated into practice, how the integrated system was operating, how the text books were being used, the methods (student-centred, activity-oriented, question-response strategies employed and the extent of use of teaching-aids as media of extension of communication) which the teachers were using and how these are related to those being advocated by the English language programme. Another aspect of observation was to try to look into the background of the teachers and the pupils, the history of the school, its administrative and professional links with the district and state offices and the internal organisation of the school.

The classrooms selected are numbered 1 to 8 for rural and 1 to 9 for urban schools. All of the teachers involved in this observation had experience of at least two years of teaching of English subject (Table 7.10). Some characteristics of the eight classes observed in rural area and the other nine classes in urban area are presented in Tables 6.5 and 6.6, respectively. The classes observed ranged in size from 23 to 43 pupils

(average of 33.4 pupils) per class in rural schools and from 33 to 45 pupils (average of 39.1 pupils) per class in urban schools.

Table 6.5: Some characteristics of the eight classes observed in rural area.

	Class							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
No. of pupils	43	35	39	27	34	33	31	36
Boys (%)	55.6	57.4	39.5	56.1	38.7	51.6	61.1	60.0
Girls (%)	44.4	42.6	60.5	43.9	61.3	42.4	48.4	38.9
% pass English for UPSR 1990	23.3	52.3	17.9	16.7	23.2	39.4	48.4	36.1
Parents occupations								
Farmers (%)	76.8	87.8	86.5	37.1	32.8	74.5	57.4	51.3
Technicians/teachers	0	0	4.2	19.5	25.2	2.2	3.2	2.6
others	23.2	12.2	9.3	43.4	42.0	6.7	39.4	46.2
% Absenteeism (Jan. - July 1991)	6.9	5.4	5.5	7.1	4.0	4.0	6.3	4.0

Source: Information from the teachers and class registers

Table 6.6: Some characteristics of the nine classes observed in urban area

	Class								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
No. of pupils	45	39	38	44	36	43	33	36	43
Boys (%)	100.0	61.4	56.1	0	61.7	0	56.6	57.9	41.7
Girls (%)	0	38.6	43.9	100.0	38.3	100.0	43.4	42.1	58.3
% pass English for UPSR 1990	88.9	87.2	52.6	97.7	69.3	100.0	71.9	59.8	99.7
Parents occupations									
Civil service officer Techers,shopkeepers Professionals (eg. doctors, lawyers engineers)	84.0	79.4	67.6	80.8	58.5	68.8	69.4	55.4	78.0
others	9.3	15.5	32.4	6.7	35.9	10.2	24.5	41.7	10.9
% Absenteeism (Jan. - July 1991)	2.2	4.2	6.9	2.3	5.7	4.0	5.5	6.3	7.0

Source: Information from the teachers and class registers

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6.3.3.1   Classroom observation schedule

Observation techniques are good in that trained observers are employed to make a record of interaction taking place during the period of observation, of specific behaviour or in specific areas of concern. The technique suffers a major disadvantage in that the introduction of an observer brings a new member into the class which alters, to a certain extent, the behavioural pattern of the group; thus the observation has been influenced. Experience of observing trainee teachers in Malaysia during teaching practice has indicated the limitations of such a method. Hidden cameras may be used to record events so that they can be analysed later, in which case the intruder-interference effects may be eliminated, but it may not be ethically justified.

The activities and interaction components in the classroom observation were systematically recorded at regular intervals using pre-prepared forms (Appendix 9). In the pre-testing of the instrument, this schedule was found unsatisfactory as many of the items considered did not take place in the classroom. In addition, the variety of activities was smaller and the pace was slower than originally anticipated. As a consequence, the recording scheme was then changed to a full recording on a time-sampling procedure (Spada, 1987). In this way it was hoped to provide a more comprehensive picture of what was actually happened in the classroom.

Each class was visited three times by the researcher and the observation period per visit was 40 minutes. For the purpose of classroom observation, a schedule was designed in order to distinguish characteristics of the English language classroom and to provide a representative description of a language class. The schedule was tailored to the research question and in order to provide an objective and comprehensive approach to classroom observation, a structured schedule was developed which included a taxonomy of categories. The categories defined on the schedule represent activities that characterise language classrooms, and were arranged in a sequence in which they were

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likely to occur. Accordingly, the schedule was divided into eight categories, some of which have sub-categories, which were checked off when they occurred.

The classroom observation schedule was used to record the activities by ticking every three second interval in the appropriate boxes. The amount of time recorded under certain categories or sub-categories are supposed to distinguish activities that characterise whether the class being observed is teacher-centred or pupil-centred. The categories defined were initiation, language content, language skills, materials used, interaction (after the lesson), activities, class lay-out and L1 (first language is used in class).

During the observation schedule, various aspects of the physical environment and the teaching and learning practices were examined using the information from the classroom. All the information gathered are discussed under the following topics: physical environment; time-table; teaching and learning aids; pupil grouping; activities; interaction; pupil evaluation and records; pupil performance; teachers' guide and classroom practice as discussed in Chapter 10.

6.4   Population and sampling procedure

The secondary schools in the different states in Malaysia are administered by the State Education Departments, which in turn are responsible to the Ministry of Education. Thus, an approval to carry out the pilot study has to be obtained from both the Ministry of Education and the State Education Departments. The population of the present study were principals, English teachers from all fully government assisted secondary schools in the four northern state of Peninsular Malaysia. In 1990, there are 257 government secondary schools in Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. Only urban and rural schools were considered in this study. The list of these secondary schools by

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states is shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.7) and their location is shown in Appendix 12.

The sampling techniques adopted in this research was cluster and stratified sampling materials based upon Cohen and Manion (1980) and Monly (1978). By clustering method, a specific number of schools were selected and all teachers from the required location, medium of instruction and type of school were tested. By stratification method, the population was divided into heterogeneous groups, in which each group consisting of subjects with similar characteristics. In this case, the division was based on geographical location of the schools (rural and urban), medium of instruction (National, English and Chinese) and type of schools (day and residential) without taking into consideration the grade of the schools.

The sample of this study (i.e. Form 1 English teachers) refers to teachers of Malay, Chinese and Indian race or those whose first language is not English. Rural schools refer to those schools which are situated in small towns or areas with a population less than 10000 persons while the urban schools refer to those situated in towns of 10000 persons or more (Government of Malaysia, 1990).

In the selection of the sample from the population of secondary English teachers, a stratified cluster sampling technique was utilised (Henry, 1990; Borg and Gall, 1983; Kerlinger, 1973). A random sample of schools was taken from each state which was in proportion to their representations among the total number of schools in the four northern states in the Peninsula Malaysia.

As a result 71 schools were identified in the study, representing seventeen secondary schools in Penang, twenty schools in Kedah, six schools in Perlis and twenty four schools in Perak. The researcher has requested the principals to respond to her letter

regarding the number of Form 1 English teachers in their respective schools so that the exact number of questionnaires could be sent to those schools. After obtaining the responses from the principals from each school, a total of 171 copies of questionnaires for English teachers and 71 copies of the questionnaires for principals were sent to the respective schools. It was found that some schools had as many as five Form 1 English teachers, in particular the urban schools, but some rural schools, for instance, have only either 1 and 2 Form 1 English teachers.

Rural schools

There are at present 130 government rural secondary schools in Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. The distribution of these schools by state and the list of the 36 rural secondary schools involved in this study are given in Appendix 11 (Table 11.8). The schools which were selected for the study, including 6 schools from Penang, 13 in Kedah, 4 in Perlis and 13 in Perak. Appendix 11 (Table 11.9) indicates that from a total of 64 questionnaires sent to the rural schools, 59 (92.2%) usable returns were received. The 59 secondary English teachers were from 35 (97.2%) of the 36 secondary schools sampled. The number of usable returns were 6 out of 6 (100%) schools for the state of Penang, 12 out of 13 (92.3%) schools for the state of Kedah, 4 out of 4 (100%) schools for the state of Perlis and 13 out of 13 (100%) schools for the state of Perak. Usable questionnaires returned by state were as follows: Perak (100%), Penang (91.7%), Kedah (85.7%) and the lowest number of returns was from Perlis (83.3%).

Urban schools

There are at present 127 government urban secondary schools in Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. The distribution of these secondary schools by state is shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.10). As for the secondary schools in the urban area, 35 schools were included in this study, comprising 12 schools in Penang, 9 schools in Kedah, 2 schools

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in Perlis and 12 schools in Perak. Appendix 11 (Table 11.11) indicates that from a total of 107 questionnaires sent to the urban schools, 74 (69.2%) usable returns were received. The 74 secondary English teachers were from 32 (91.4%) of the 35 secondary schools sampled. The number of usable returns were 11 out of 12 (91.7%) schools from the state of Penang, 8 out of 9 (88.9%) schools from the state of Kedah, 2 out of 2 (100%) schools for the state of Perlis and 11 out of 12 (91.7%) schools for the state of Perak. In terms of usable questionnaires returned, the highest number of returns was from the state of Penang (75.0%) followed by Perlis (71.4%), Perak (67.5%) and Kedah (64.3%).

National schools

There are at present 108 government National secondary schools in Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. The distribution of these secondary schools by state is shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.12). The medium of instruction at these schools is 'Bahasa Malaysia'. Appendix 11 (Table 11.13) indicates that from a total of 55 questionnaires sent to the National schools, 48 (87.3%) usable returns were received. The 48 secondary English teachers were from 29 (96.7%) of the 30 secondary schools sampled. The number of usable returns were 6 out of 6 (100%) schools for the state of Penang, 9 out of 10 (90.0%) schools for the state of Kedah, 4 out of 4 (100%) schools for the state Perlis and 10 out of 10 (100%) schools for the state of Perak. In terms of usable questionnaires returned, the highest number of returns was from the state of Penang (100%) followed by Perak (94.3%), Kedah (76.5%) and the lowest number of returns was Perlis (75.0%).

English schools

There are at present 108 government English secondary schools in Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. The distribution of these secondary schools by state is shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.14). Appendix 11 (Table 11.15) indicates that from a total of

87 questionnaires sent to the English schools, 64 (73.6%) usable returns were received. The 64 secondary English teachers were from 28 (93.3%) of the 30 English secondary schools sampled. The number of usable returns were as follows: 8 out of 9 (88.9%) schools for the state of Penang; 8 out of 9 (88.9%) schools for the state of Kedah; 2 out of 2 (100%) schools for the state of Perlis and; 10 out of 10 (100%) schools for the state of Perak. In terms of usable questionnaires returned, the highest number of returns was from the state of Perlis (80.0%), followed by Perak (77.1%), Kedah (75.0%) and Penang (65.2%).

Chinese schools

There are at present 41 government Chinese secondary schools in Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. The distribution of these secondary schools by state is shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.16). Appendix 11 (Table 11.17) indicates that from a total of 29 questionnaires sent to the Chinese schools, 21 (72.4%) usable returns were received. The 21 secondary English teachers were from 10 (90.9%) of the 11 Chinese secondary schools sampled. The number of usable returns were from 3 out of 3 (100%) schools for the state of Kedah, 3 out of 3 (100%) schools for the state of Penang, 4 out 5 (80.0%) schools for the state of Perak and; none from the state of Perlis. In terms of usable questionnaires returned, the number of returns were as follows: the state of Penang (88.9%); Perak (66.7%%); Kedah (62.5%) and; none for the state of Perlis.

Day schools

There are at present 242 government day secondary schools in Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. The distribution of these secondary schools by state is shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.18). Appendix 11 (Table 11.19) indicates that from a total of 162 questionnaires sent to the day schools, 124 (76.5%) usable returns were received. The 124 secondary English teachers were from 62 (93.9%) of the 66 daily secondary

schools sampled. The number of usable returns were from 16 out of 17 (94.1%) schools for the state of Penang, 19 out of 20 (90.5%) schools for the state of Kedah, 5 out of 5 (100%) schools for the state of Perlis and 22 out of 23 (95.7%) schools for the state of Perak. In terms of usable questionnaires returned, the number of returns were as follows: Perak (79.0%); followed by Penang (76.8%); Perlis (72.7%) and; the lowest number of returns was Kedah (72.3%).

Residential schools

There are at present 14 government residential secondary schools in Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. The distribution of these secondary schools by state is shown in Appendix 11 (Table 11.20). Appendix 11 (Table 11.21) indicates that from a total of 9 questionnaires sent to the residential schools, 9 (100%) usable returns were received. The 9 secondary English teachers were from 5 (100%) out of the 5 residential secondary schools sampled. The number of usable returns was from all the 5 schools in which one school each from the states of Penang, Kedah and Perlis while two schools for the state of Perak. Thus all residential schools have returned usable questionnaires.

6.4.1 Sample and sampling

After several factors have been considered (i.e the location of the schools, medium of instruction during the late 1970s and the type of school), 15% of the number of schools were selected for the study (Henry, 1990). These include 18 schools in Penang, 22 schools in Kedah, 6 schools in Perlis and 25 schools in Perak (Table 6.7). The list of schools sampled in this survey is given in Appendix 10.

In the main investigation, 133 Form 1 teachers, 67 principals and 22 personnel took part in the survey. The list of secondary schools for each state was obtained from the respective State Education Department (Appendix 11 - Table 11.7) in which sixty six schools in Penang, seventy eight in Kedah, nineteen in Perlis and ninety four in Perak.

The list of schools was obtained from the State Education Departments (Appendix 10) where 243 are normal day secondary schools and the remainder 14 are residential schools. The normal day schools prepare their pupils to further their education either to Form Six or college levels. Of the 14 residential schools, 5 schools were sampled in this study. The technical and vocational schools were not included in this study since English was only taught at Form Four level at these schools. The vocational school emphasised vocational subjects and its main aim is to equip students with basic practical skills (trade or mechanical skill) which will help them to secure jobs in the industrial area. The technical school emphasised the teaching of technical subjects in which it prepares the foundation in technical and science studies to enable students to obtain employment or to further their education at the polytechnics, teacher training colleges and the agriculture and technology universities for diploma and degree courses.

The number of Form 1 English teachers in each school vary from one school to the other. Some schools had five Form 1 English teachers, especially for those schools in urban area, whereas some other schools had only two or even in some cases had only one.

The samples of this study consists of all the English teachers who are teaching at the Form 1 level from 71 secondary schools in the states of Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. Out of the total of 71 secondary schools included in this study, 36 schools are categorised as rural and 35 schools are urban. These schools comprised of 29 National, 28 English and 10 Chinese medium secondary schools (Tables 6.12, 6.14, 6.16) and 66 daily and 5 residential schools respectively (6.18 and 6.20).

Appendix 11 (Table 11.22) shows the distribution of secondary English teachers sampled by state, number of questionnaires returned and number of teachers observed

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and interviewed. There were a total of 171 questionnaires sent, but only 133 (77.8%) usable returns were received. The 133 secondary English teachers were from 67 (95.7%) of the 71 secondary schools sampled. The number of secondary schools having usable returns were as follows: seventeen out of eighteen (94.4%) schools for the State of Penang; twenty out of twenty two (90.9%) schools for the State of Kedah; six out of six (100.00%) schools for the State of Perlis and; twenty four out of twenty five (95.7%) schools for the State of Perak. In terms of usable questionnaires returned, the highest number of returns was from the State of Perak (80.0%) followed by Penang (79.5%), Perlis (76.9%) and the lowest number of returns was from Kedah (73.5%).

6.4.2   Background of the secondary schools

The schools involved in this study were those in the northern states in the west coast of the Peninsular Malaysia (Figure 2.1). The schools from the states of Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak were chosen for this study because they could represent school from both rural and urban areas. Since the distribution of schools is not the same in each state, thus about 15% of the total number of schools in each state was selected based upon Henry (1990), Borg and Gall (1983) and Kerlinger (1973).

The secondary schools into which the KBSM is being introduced have diverse characteristics. Of the 4500 schools in 1990, about 71%, 20% and 9% were used to be Bahasa Malaysia, English and Chinese as media of instruction respectively (Min. of Education, 1990b). There is also diversity arising from the physical-socio-economic differences in the environment. The urban schools are generally characterised by larger enrolments, better facilities and more qualified and experienced teachers than the rural schools. But among the rural schools there are also marked variations eg. those in the inland, coastal, rice-growing or the rubber estate areas. In addition, there are variations arising from practices that prevail and initiatives taken by the different states, districts and each individual school.

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The secondary schools in Malaysia are categorised as day or residential and 'A 'or 'B' grade schools. Day schools are day-to-day basis of school, whereas residential schools are fully boarding schools. The 'A ' grade schools have the size of the enrolment of more than 1000 pupils, and less for the 'B' grade schools. In this study only the type of school was taken into consideration. The grade of schools was not taken into consideration simply because most of the schools in rural areas are 'B' grade and the schools in the urban areas are 'A' grade. Other factors which were taken into consideration are locality of the schools (rural and urban) and their medium of instruction (Bahasa Malaysia, English and Chinese).

Of the total enrolments of 0.94 million students in the secondary schools in 1990, 51.5% were boys and 48.5% were girls (Min. of Education, 1990b). The size of school enrolments varies from as high as over 2000 pupils to as low as below 500 pupils. In virtually all the large schools, especially in the urban, the limited number of classrooms has made it necessary for them to run morning and afternoon sessions with upper secondary in the morning sessions and lower secondary in the afternoon session. Prior to 1991, more than 50% of the schools have double sessions, but the number was reduced to half since then. This decline is due to two major reasons: one is the decline in enrolment as a consequence of the rural-urban drift; the other is the active school construction programme, a part of the overall drive to improve provision of education in the country. In fact, of the seventeen schools where I conducted the classroom observations, four had recently built new blocks and two were having a new block constructed.

The national average class size at the secondary level in 1988 was 33.4 (Min. of Education, 1989a), but the range in actual size is great. In the large schools, classes can have over 40 pupils in a class, while in small schools in the remote areas, the classes can have only 20 pupils in a class.

In 1990, 71 665 teachers taught in the secondary schools. Of these, 52.1% were males and 47.9% female, and 91.1% of them were trained teachers (Min. of Education, 1991d). The others were temporary and untrained teachers. Teacher supply at the secondary level can be considered no longer a serious problem, though there are still difficulties in deployment of staff to rural areas. However, with the introduction of an increased teacher-class ratio for the KBSM classes, to be examined later, the question of teacher supply becomes an urgent matter again.

Teachers in secondary schools are usually trained in certain subject. There are specialist teachers for each subject namely English, Bahasa Malaysia, Arabic, French, Japanese, Mathematics, Religious, Living Skills, Science subjects, Physical Education, History, Geography, General Paper, Principle Account, Home Science, Agriculture and Student Consultant.

There are variations in resources and facilities between schools in Malaysia. Most of the schools in urban area are large in number of enrolment while in rural schools the number of enrolment is usually small. Despite attempts by the government to provide more grants to the latter, urban schools still have many advantages, arising from economic differences and accessibility to a wider range of choice in the procurement of equipment and materials. In addition to government funds, the urban schools tend to get greater financial support from parents and the community, due to the obvious differences in the income levels of urban and rural dwellers. A large number of National secondary schools are located in rural areas, reflection of extensive areas under padi field and fisherman villages.

In 1991 the enrolments in the schools ranged from 700 to 2100 students while the number of teachers ranged from 50 to 150. The non-teaching staff which included

clerks, office attendants, gardeners, cleaners and watchman ranged from 9 to 19. The number of Form 1 classes ranged from 3 to 10 and class size for this grade ranged from 30 to 45. At the National secondary schools, the majority of pupils are Malays and of the Islamic faith and in the English secondary schools are mixture of Malay, Chinese and Indian (for Chinese and Indian pupils some are Buddhist, Hindus and Christian).

6.4.2.1   Rural and urban schools

The terms 'rural' and 'urban' are used to describe the area of the respondents' residence and school. The study follows the definition given in the 1980 Population Census of Malaysia, which states that the 'urban' area is a gazetted area with a minimum population of ten thousand (Government of Malaysia, 1990). The rural schools are located in rural areas, and these schools are directly responsible by the district education office. Most of the rural areas have been developed for agriculture in which the major crops are rice, oil palm, rubber and coconut. Oil palm and rubber are mainly grown on a large estates and owned by companies, while the other crops are in smallholdings and are individually or family owned.

The 8 classrooms for which the classroom observations were conducted in the rural schools are easily accessible by good-weather village road and mostly about 10 miles from the nearest town, except for a few village roads where their conditions were unsatisfactory. Most of the schools in rural area are secondary- coeducational schools which had enrolment between 500 to 2000 pupils who are mainly ethnic Malays from the nearby villages. Parents of the pupils are farmers, fishermen and estate and factory workers.

The rural schools normally had adequate physical facilities. There was sufficient (and in some cases more than sufficient) number of classrooms. There were also other necessary rooms such as the principal's office, staff room, library, TV room, prayer

room and store room. All schools had playing fields but heavy rains sometimes could make them unsuitable to be used. There were adequate desks and chairs for pupils, furniture for the staff, and office equipment such as a typewriter, photocopying machine, cyclostyling machine and stencil cutter. Some rural schools were provided with electricity and piped water; but they appeared to suffer from occasional breakdowns in electricity supply and fairly frequent water shortages. All schools had canteens where students could purchase drinks and snacks during recess time.

The total number of classes in the schools ranged from 6 (two classes each for Form 1 to Form 3) to 20 (four classes each for Form 1 to grade 5), with the teacher-class ratio of between 1.2 and 1.5. Generally each school had between one to three untrained teachers, but proportionally this can be as high as 10% of the teaching staff. Only one school appeared to suffer from shortage of teachers; but many principals were anxious about getting replacements as a number of teachers had requested for transfers.

The number of pupils in each class was fairly large. Absenteeism was fairly high, but it was claimed that there was no drop-out. In fact, the term 'drop-out' appeared to be an unfamiliar one to many teachers. Judging from the pupils' background these schools seem to be typical of the area they present. Pupils in the rural area were mostly from typical families engaged in farming, rubber tapping and fishing.

Most of the schools in urban area had enrolment of more than 2000 pupils. In some schools, there were more than thirty English teachers, with majority trained in TESL/TEFL. Four secondary schools (9 classes) for which the classroom observations were conducted are located in the urban area. Most of the pupils are from middle and upper middle class families and only a few of them from lower income homes. Parents were mainly civil service officers, teachers, shopkeepers or professionals (eg. doctors, engineers and lawyers).

In the rural areas, the pupils are culturally homogeneous Form 1 learners who had little or no personal contact with westerners. There was not much difference in the distribution of jobs between Malays and non-Malays. Most of them were involved in the traditional sector of economy, namely: farming, rubber tapping and fishing. A few of them were artisans, shopkeepers and teachers.

It was found that the Malay pupils in the urban area came from families whose fathers or guardians work as soldiers, policemen, teachers, clerks, government servants, taxi drivers and a small minority of businessmen. In contrast, the fathers or guardians of the non-Malay pupils were mainly involved in business in one form or the other, thus reflecting the preponderence of non-Malays in business activity.

6.4.2.2 Medium of instruction

The early administration allowed education to develop in a Laissze faire manner. There was no such thing as a national system of education. The British colonial authorities allowed the development of four parallel language media schools at primary levels - Malay, English, Tamil and Chinese and two language media schools at secondary level - English and Chinese. The three types of vernacular schools were run along racial lines and only the English medium schools were multi-racial.

With independence in 1957, the need for a national language was felt. Malay, the lingua franca of the majority of the people, was chosen as the national language of the country. Article 152 of the Constitution of the (then) Federation of Malaya (1957) states that the "national language shall be the Malay Language" and that this national language will replace English as the sole official language ten years after the achievement of independence (Karim, 1977). The Language Policy of 1967 put this Article into effect by prescribing the gradual phasing out of Chinese medium of

instruction in secondary schools and English as one of the media of instruction in secondary and tertiary education in the country (Augustin, 1982). The national language was to be propagated as the medium of instruction in all schools and as the official language in all government activities.

The gradual switch from English and Chinese to Malay (or Bahasa Malaysia, as it is officially designated), as the medium of instruction began with the primary 1 classes in 1970. By 1975 all primary education was in Bahasa Malaysia. This process was completed in 1982 when all secondary education, including the pre-university classes, was conducted in Bahasa Malaysia. By 1983, all courses at tertiary levels was conducted in Bahasa Malaysia.

The types of schools are referred to schools that were Malay-, English- and Chinese-medium before the change in the medium of instruction. Therefore when the terms "Malay-medium, English-medium and Chinese-medium" are used they refer to the above three types of school prior to the changeover. A large majority of the pupils in the National medium schools were Malays while the Chinese-medium schools were mainly Chinese. On the other hand, there were a mixture of Malay, Chinese and Indian pupils in the English-medium schools.

6.4.2.3 Day and residential schools

The selection for day type secondary schools was important simply because such schools were found in both rural and urban areas. The pupils in these schools maintained their day-to-day contact with home and community. They possess variable intellectual ability and come from families with different socio-economic background i.e. from the humble rural surrounding to the rather complex urban environment. The selection for residential schools was equally important as such schools were also found in both rural and urban areas. The pupils in these schools were selected pupils whom

mostly came from rural schools where the selection was based on their performance in their exams such as UPSR, SRP and SPM. On contrary to most day schools, the residential schools were fully equipped and under close supervision from the Ministry of Education.

In order to meet the long-term objective of a racially balanced employment structure, major efforts have been made by the government to encourage more rural areas pupils with good result to pursue their study at residential schools. Under the Fifth and Sixth Malaysia Plans, 35 fully residential schools, with a total enrolment capacity of 10590 pupils were established "to provide expanded educational opportunities for pupils from rural areas" (Government of Malaysia, 1990). At residential schools, the main aim is to provide to those selected rural pupils a concentration of attention and resources not easily achieved through the general education programme. It is hoped thereby to ensure "that more rural students gain access to the kind of training that is required to enter various programmes at higher levels".

Over the last twenty years, special opportunities have been created for the students from rural areas. Six secondary schools with residential facilities for the majority of students had been established by 1965 in various urban and rural areas of the country. By 1971 three more schools were founded and these schools were built to cater for rural pupils. As the result of the above efforts there was a marked increase in Malay students' enrolments at all levels of education beyond the primary level. By the mid 1970's the problem of increasing the number of Malay in secondary education had been overcome (Government of Malaysia, 1975).

6.5 Data analysis

All the data collected from the respondents were analysed in a qualitative and quantitative manner. Qualitative analysis of the data includes categorisation of open

ended responses according to some specific criteria, example in terms of the kind of changes needed to facilitate implementation. The tabulation of responses were carried out to show the frequency and means. Chi-square is used to analyse the data so as to compare the responses of the various groups of respondents as well as to find out whether there is any significant difference in responses among these various groups of respondents. Descriptive qualitative interpretations are based on the interviews with personnel, principals and teachers as well as from classroom observations

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The data collected were coded and analysed using the SPSS computer based data analysis package i.e. statistical package for the Social Science (Nie et al., 1977). The procedures employed in analysing and presenting the data were related to the research questions discussed in Chapter 1.

CHAPTER 7

BACKGROUND OF TEACHERS, LESSON PLANNING AND PROBLEMS

7.1   Introduction

This chapter describes the background of education and training of teachers and principals and planning of lessons as well as some general problems encountered by teachers in teaching KBSM English language programme.   These information are gathered based upon responses to the Teachers' Questionnaire survey and the interviews.

7.2   Background data of teachers and principals

The respondents in this study are from Form 1 teachers of English and their respective principals.   One-hundred-seventy-one questionnaires were distributed to the teachers of English from 71 schools.   One-hundred-thirty-five teachers responded to the survey, from which 133 of them returned complete usable questionnaires.   Whereas 71 principals responded to the survey, from which 67 returned complete usable questionnaires.   The background information of the respondents obtained include the locality, media of instruction, type of school, sex, age-group, years of teaching English, years at present school, years of teaching experience, subjects specialisation, other subjects taught, duration of teaching English in a week, additional responsibilities and formal education.

7.2.1 Teacher group

The group composed of 40 males (30.3%) and 92 females teachers (69.7%) as shown in Table 7.1.   The majority of the teachers were non-graduates, from which ten (7.5%) possessed the School Certificate, now known as the 'Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia' (SPM), or the Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE) (equivalent to Scotland Standard Grade, England 'O' Level and USA Grade 11).   One hundred and two (76.7%) possessed the 'Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan' (STP) or the Higher School Certificate (HSC)

(equivalent to Scottish Higher in Scotland, 'A' Level in England and Grade 13 in USA), whereas only twenty-one (15.8%) teachers are graduates (Table 7.2).

Table 7.1: Percentage distribution of responses based on sex.

Sex	N	%
Male	40	30.3
Female	92	69.7
Total	132	100.0

Table 7.2: Percentage distribution of responses by qualifications.

Qualification	N	%
MCE	10	7.5
HSC	102	76.6
Degree	21	15.8
Total	133	100.0

In terms of their professional qualifications (i.e. level of teacher training), it was found that majority of them (111 teachers or 83.5%) had a Teaching Certificate, which meant that they had undergone at least two years of training at college level. Six (4.5%) had a Diploma in Education, four (3.0%) had a Postgraduate Diploma in TESL/TEFL from local and foreign universities and twelve (9.0%) had a bachelor degree (Table 7.3).

Table 7.3: Percentage distribution of responses based on professional qualifications.

Professional qualification	N	%
Teaching certificate	111	83.5
Diploma in Education	6	4.5
Post-graduate diploma	4	3.0
Degree	12	9.0
Total	133	100.0

The levels of English studied by the respondents is shown in Table 7.4. It was found that majority of them (103 teachers or 77.4%) indicated the HSC as their highest level

while only six (4.9%) indicated the MCE to be the highest level. Whereas twenty-four (18%) of them had a degree (i.e. graduates).

Table 7.4: Percentage distribution of responses based on English studies.

Level of English studies	N	%
SPM/MCE	6	4.9
STPM/HSC	103	77.4
Degree	24	18.0
Total	133	100.0

It is evident from this study that all the teachers possessed the qualifications required by the Ministry of Education. In fact, slightly more than half of the respondents had more than 10 years of teaching experience. Most teachers in urban schools had good grade for English language in public exams and were trained specifically in the teaching of English language.

Fifty-six (42.1%) teachers who teach only English subject only, 54 (40.6%) teachers teach English and another subject and 23 (17.3%) teachers teach English and two other subjects. As a matter of fact all of them have experience in teaching other subjects in school eg. Living Skills, Geography, History, Physical Education and Bahasa Malaysia (Malay Language), see Table 7.5. It is evident that slightly half of the respondents have to teach other subjects as well and consequently they are bogged down with tremendous workload, despite being at the early stage of the implementation of the KBSM.

Table 7.5: Percentage distribution of responses based on subject teaching.

Subject teaching	N	%
English only	56	42.1
English and 1 subject	54	40.6
English and 2 subjects	23	17.3
Total	133	100.0

As regard to teaching experience, 38 (28.6%) of the respondents have 5 years or less of teaching experience, 24 (18.0%) of the respondents have between 6 to 10 years, 21

(15.8%) have from 11 to 15 years while 50 (37.6%) have more than 16 years of teaching experience (Table 7.6). In terms of teaching English, 47 (35.4%) of the respondents have 5 years or less of teaching secondary English, 24 (18.0%) of the respondents have between 6 to 10 years, 22 (16.5%) have from 11 to 15 years while 40 (30.1%) have more than 16 years of teaching secondary English (Table 7.7). Regarding the number of years at the present school, 51 (38.3%) of the respondents have been for 5 years or less at the present school, 32 (24.1%) of the respondents have been for 6 to 10 years, 26 (19.5%) have been from 11 to 15 years while 24 (18.4%) have been for more than 16 years at the present school (Table 7.8).

Table 7.6: Percentage distribution of responses based on teaching experience.

Teaching experience (years)	N	%
< 1	6	4.5
1 - 5	32	24.1
6 - 10	24	18.0
11 - 15	21	15.8
16 - 20	16	12.0
>20	34	25.6
Total	133	100.0

Table 7.7: Percentage distribution of responses based on duration of teaching English.

Teaching English (years)	N	%
< 1	7	5.3
1 - 5	40	30.1
6 - 10	24	18.0
11 - 15	22	16.5
16 - 20	15	11.3
>20	25	18.8
Total	133	100.0

It is not stipulated officially what the teaching load of an English teacher is. Normally the teaching load of an English teacher should be between 800 minutes (20 periods) and 1120 minutes (28 periods) per week (Table 7.9). This study shows that the teaching load of the teachers in urban adhered strictly to the above time allocation. However, the

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teachers in rural schools have to teach a minimum of 1120 minutes or even more in a week.

Table 7.8: **Percentage distribution of responses based on duration of teaching at the present school.**

Duration (years)	N	%
< 1	8	4.5
1 - 5	43	32.3
6 - 10	32	24.1
11 - 15	26	19.5
16 - 20	17	12.8
>20	7	5.3
Total	133	100.0

Table 7.9: **Percentage distribution of responses based on duration of teaching per week.**

Duration (minutes)	N	%
< 1000	59	44.4
1000	38	28.6
> 1000	36	27.0
Total	133	100.0

Eleven (8.3%) teachers have no additional responsibilities, 95 (71.4%) teachers have one to three responsibilities and 27 (20.3%) teachers have four to six responsibilities (Table 7.10). Each teacher held several of the following responsibilities in their respective schools as follows: secretary/treasurer of the parent-teacher association; head of department for various subjects such as English language and Moral Studies departments; head of resource centre or library; in-charge of societies or uniformed groups eg. English language Society or the School Band; incharge of sports and games eg. athletics, badminton, soccer or basketball; responsible for book loan; or serving as discipline teacher. Concerning the age of the respondents, they ranged from 19 to 54 years old (mean = 30.4 years old), see Table 7.11.

Table 7.10: Percentage distribution of responses based on additional responsibilities.

Add. responsibilities	N	%
none	11	8.3
1 - 3	95	71.4
4 - 6	27	20.3
Total	133	100.0

Table 7.11: Percentage distribution of responses based on age group.

Age group (years)	N	%
< 26	6	4.5
26 - 30	32	24.1
31 - 35	24	18.0
36 - 40	21	15.8
41 - 45	16	12.0
46 - 50	33	24.8
51 - 55	1	0.8
Total	133	100.0

Subject specialisation, subject teaching and in-service training

In terms of their option subject, 83 (62.4%) teachers were specifically trained to teach English when undergoing pre-service training whereas 48 (36.1%) of them were not (Table 7.12). All the teachers (132 teachers or 99.3%) attended in-service training, except for one teacher who joined the service in 1991 (Table 7.13).

In this study the Form 1 English teachers were asked to indicate the year when they attended the course for the KBSM and English language. The responses showed that majority of them (112) attended the course in 1988 (Table 7.14) whereas seven teachers attended in 1987 and four teachers in 1989.

Table 7.12: Percentage distribution of responses based on subject specialisation.

Subject specialisation	N	%
English option	83	62.4
Non-English option	50	37.6
Total	133	100.0

Table 7.13: Percentage distribution of responses based on in-service training attended.

Attended in-service courses	N	%
Yes	132	99.3
No	1	0.8
Total	133	100.0

The number of courses attended by the teachers varied from one to three courses (Table 7.15). Most of the teachers had attended at least once (83 or 62.4%), 37 (27.8%) teachers attended twice and 13 (9.8%) teachers attended three times. The training courses for the teachers were usually held during the first week of the first, second or third term school holidays. The duration of each course ranged from one day to one week for school district and state levels whereas the longer duration courses which ranged from 1 month to 6 months were normally conducted by CDC or IAB.

Tables 7.16 and 7.17 show the institutions that conducted in-service training and duration of course(s) which the 132 teachers had attended. Twenty three (17.3%) teachers attended the training held by the school, 47 (35.3%) by the district education office, 38 (28.6%) by the state education department and 23 (17.3%) by the CDC.

Table 7.14: Percentage distribution of responses based on
year attended in-service courses.

Year	N	%
1987	4	3.0
1988	112	84.3
1989	3	2.2
1990	2	1.5
1991	2	1.5
Missing	10	7.5
Total	133	100.0

Table 7.15: Percentage distribution of responses based on
the number of in-service courses attended.

No. of courses attended	N	%
Once	83	62.4
Twice	37	27.8
Three times	13	9.8
Total	133	100.0

A very small percentage of the teachers (2 or 1.5%) attended the course held at IAB.

Duration of the courses attended by teachers range from 1 day to 6 months. Table 7.17

revealed that more than half of the teachers (54.9%) attended the courses which lasted

less than 1 week. Only 10 (7.5%) respondents had attended an in-service course

between one and six months. Most of the teachers read pamphlets and printed materials

provided by the Ministry of Education (Table 7.18).

Table 7.16: Percentage distribution of responses based
on in-service courses attended.

Venue	N	%
School	23	17.3
District	47	35.3
State	38	28.6
CDC	23	17.3
IAB	2	1.5
Total	133	100.0

Table 7.17: Percentage distribution of responses based on duration of in-service courses attended.

Duration	N	%
1 - 6 days	73	54.9
7 - 14 days	50	37.6
1 - 6 months	10	7.5
Total	133	100.0

Table 7.18: Percentage distribution of responses based on teachers' sources of information.

Source of information	N	%
pamphlets	44	33.1
printed materials	26	22.6
talks/seminar	25	21.7
journal/books/TV	20	17.4
no response	18	5.2
Total	133	100.0

Effectiveness of the courses for teachers

The teachers were asked to evaluate the topics offered in the courses they attended based on the four compulsory topics in each course, namely understanding the aims and principles and strategies of KBSM; teaching techniques; audio-visual aids; and classroom management. It is evident that evaluation of the in-service courses attended by the 132 teachers revealed that the majority (about 90%) of the teachers found that the topics in understanding the aims, principles and strategies were very useful.

The percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers' comment on in-service courses is shown in Table 7.19, for which thirty seven (27.9%) teachers indicated that the in-service course improved teachers' competence and increased their confidence; thirty five (26.9%) teachers agreed that the courses succeeded in training them the proper way to use resource kits and other aids and materials available; thirty three (25.4%) teachers felt that the courses were too short and inadequate in helping the teachers to solve problems faced in the teaching of new KBSM English language; and

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Table 7.19: Percentage distribution of responses based on teachers' comment on in-service courses.

Comments on the in-service courses	N	%
1. Improve teachers' competence and increased the confidence	37	27.9
2. Succeeded in training the proper use of the resource kits and other aids and materials available	35	26.9
3. Too short and inadequate in helping the teachers to solve problems faced in the teaching of new KBSM English language	33	25.4
4. Contents were too theoretical	13	9.6
5. No response	15	10.2
Total	133	100.0

thirteen (9.6%) teachers felt that the contents were too theoretical. Some of the teachers felt that the courses had provided them with new ideas and insights in the teaching of the new KBSM English Language programme. About three quarter of the teachers, said that the courses did bring about significant changes in the teachers' attitude. They felt that the courses succeeded in training them in the proper use of the resource kits and other aids and materials available. However, the teachers were generally of the opinion that the courses could be further improved. For instance, there were many comments by the teachers on the inadequacy of the contents covered (rural - 45.9% and urban - 54.1%) and the appropriateness of the techniques used, all reinforcing the same overall impression that the course was 'too theoretical'. They suggested that more details and examples are needed and there should be more of the "how" rather than the "what" and more demonstrations rather than explanation are needed to be included in the courses.

In the face-to-face interview with some of the urban teachers, it emerged that though they had attended one form of in-service course or the other, they found the in-service course 'boring', 'unchallenging' and 'uninteresting'. Their main complaint was that the in-service courses that they have attended failed to address their specific problems which they encountered upon returning to the reality in the classrooms. Their motivation waned when there was no follow-up and contact with the key personnel or district education office. Teachers rely heavily on in-service courses for their information and knowledge about the KBSM English language. However, in relation to the criterion of the materials specifications, modifications would have to be incorporated, in providing more rural examples or more urban examples and catering for other classroom situations and also for very experienced and older teachers.

Four suggestions were offered for improving the training of teachers: Firstly, a better selection and preparation of the trainers; Secondly, a longer duration of training so that there is adequate time for discussion and practical sessions; Thirdly, a review of the content and activities of the course to include an exposure to a wider range of teaching and learning materials, and sessions for preparing materials; And lastly, a local infrastructure for organising additional courses and workshops, and providing teachers with the opportunity for exchanging ideas with colleagues and KPs.

In addition some teachers also complained of too many participants in a class when conducting reorientation courses for the teachers. The large number led to lack of interaction between the KPs and the teachers. It was suggested that the number of participants should be reduced to allow for closer interaction between trainers and teachers.

Usefulness of the course

Most of the teachers felt that the courses did help to improve the teachers' competence in the teaching of the new programme. It is also helpful to increase their confidence in

teaching but the teachers need further explanation of the new communicative approach. The teachers felt that the courses had provided them with new ideas and insights in the teaching of the new KBSM English Language programme. All teachers agreed that the courses succeeded in helping them to understand better the aims, principles and strategies of the new programme. None of the teachers commented the courses attended to be not useful or not useful at all.

The teachers felt that certain new strategies in the KBSM should be explained in greater detail and their applications in the classrooms should be demonstrated. This would ensure that the teachers not only have an adequate understanding of a new strategy but also are able to practice it in the classroom. Most of the teachers found difficulties to carry out group teaching in their classrooms for remedial and enrichment purposes. As they were not knowledgeable in this area, thus they suggested that the in-service courses should give adequate emphasis on group teaching strategies.

Practical session

With regard to the practical sessions the majority of the teachers found it to be relevant. These teachers felt that the courses succeeded in training them in the proper use of the resource kits and material available. They agreed that the courses were practical oriented. There are, however, certain topics that should be given greater emphasis such as: (i) construction and usage of audio-visual aids; (ii) how to use resource materials; (iii) preparation and how to use resource materials; and (iv) assessing resource materials.

Facilitators' knowledge

The majority of the teachers commented that the facilitators' knowledge of the course was adequate. Some teachers agreed that the contents were too theoretical. They have the opinion that the facilitators should give more emphasis on technique and remediation

and enrichment; grammar; and teaching of composition - writing. When the researcher interviewed the facilitators (KPs), they said that the topic mentioned above had been neglected due to time constraint. Moreover, these topics were not covered adequately in the courses conducted by the CDC at national level. Teachers indicated that they need more topics to be covered during in-service training such as formative and summative evaluation of the pupils' progress.

Duration of course

Most of the teachers commented that the courses attended were too short to enable the teachers to understand fully the new ideas, concept and approaches contained in the new programme. Teachers would like to know more on some of the key concept of the KBSM and concrete examples which need to be shown on how to conduct the teaching and learning activities. They suggested that the courses should be extended to at least three or four weeks so that the topics could be discussed in greater depth. In addition, most of the respondents suggested that the training agencies should organise more seminars or workshops on topics relevant to the approaches in English language teaching or the use of educational technology.

7.2.2 Principal group

The sixty-seven secondary school principals who responded to the survey were between the age of 40 and 54 years old. Thirty seven of the principals who responded (55.2%) had experienced teaching at the secondary school level for 10 years or less, 29 principals (43.3%) had been teaching for 10 years or more. One (1.49%) principal did not respond to this question. The group composed of nineteen females (28.1%) and forty eight (71.9%) males. The biographical details of the personnel and principals are shown in Appendix 13.

The principals' level of professional training ranged from having had two years of college training plus numerous in-service courses. Sixty two principals (92.5%) had a Bachelor's degree with a diploma in Education and another five principals (7.5%) had Masters degree. Sixty five principals responded to the question regarding the number of years they had been in teaching service. Twenty five (38.4%) of those who responded had between 20 and 25 years experience in teaching service, and 40 (61.6%) principals had between 25 and 35 years in teaching service. It is evident that they are experienced teachers and are expected to play their role as administrator as well as adviser.

7.3 Lesson Planning

Figure 7.1 shows that the English lesson was planned according to the KBSM concept by teachers in both rural and urban schools i.e. based on location. There are no significant differences between the two locations, except for content of the lesson ($x^2 =$ 10.93), aims of the syllabus ($x^2 = 23.93$) and time devoted to each skill ($x^2 = 16.31$), see Appendix 14 (Table 14.20). Figure 7.2 shows that English lesson was planned in accordance to the KBSM English language programme based on media of instruction. There is significant difference in the abilities of the pupils ($x^2 = 32.51$) and content of the syllabus ($x^2 = 17.51$), see Appendix 14 (Table 14.22). Figure 7.3 shows that English lesson was planned in accordance to the KBSM concept in both day and residential schools. There are significance difference in time devoted to each skill, discussion with department staff ($x^2 = 18.26$), suggestion from visitors ($x^2 = 18.26$) and sequencing of subject matter ($x^2 = 11.05$), see 14 14 (Table 7.21).

7.3.1 Teaching aids

Sixty nine (51.9%) of the Form 1 English language teachers responded to this open-ended question regarding the teaching aids. Twenty-six (37.7%) teachers indicated that they used teaching aids almost every lesson, 42 (60.9%) teachers indicated that they

Figure 7.1: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers' lesson plan by location.
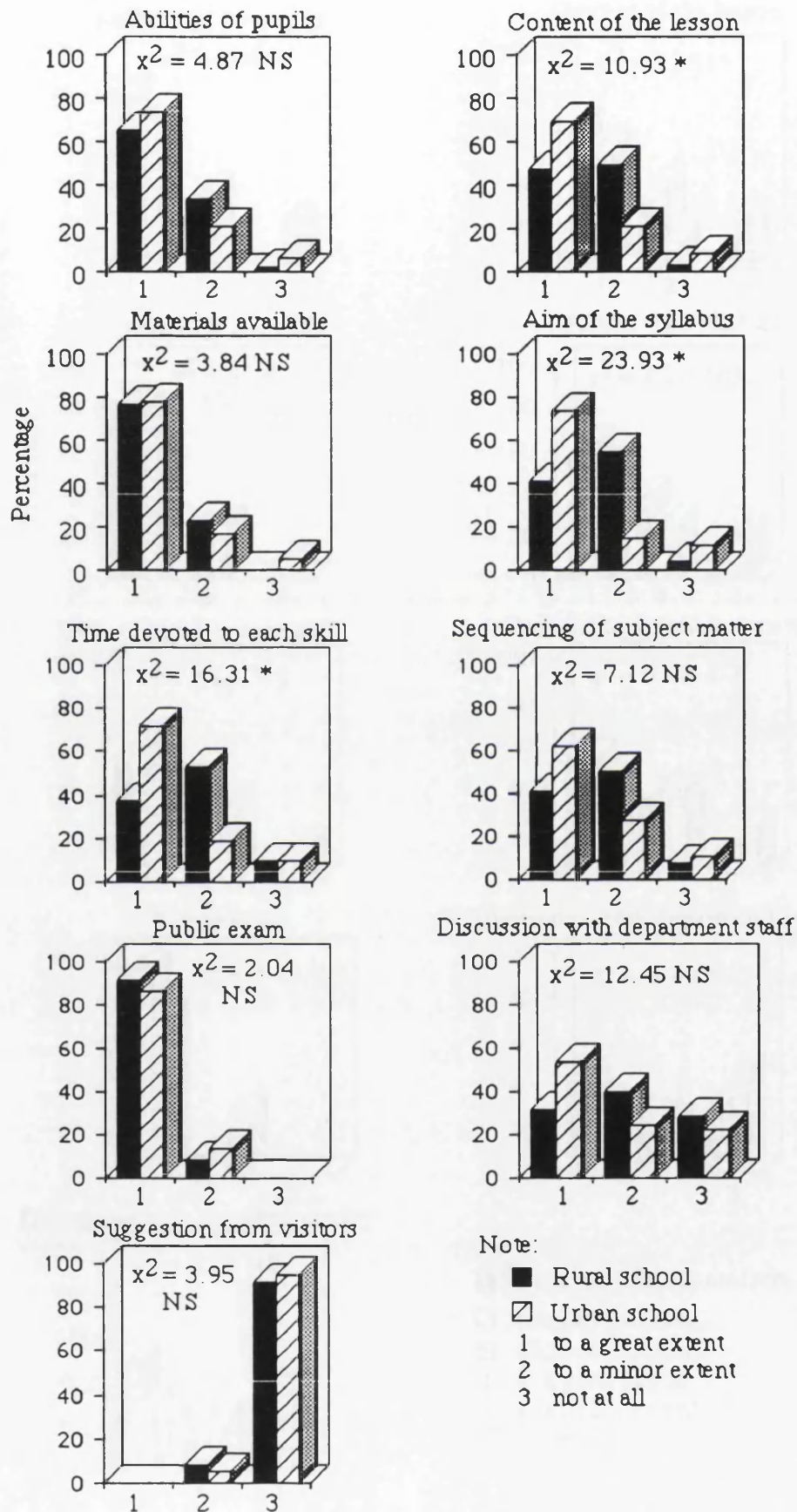
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Figure 7.2: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers'
lesson plan by medium of instruction.

Abilities of the pupils
$x^2 = 32.51*$

Content of the lesson
$x^2 = 17.51*$

Materials available
$x^2 = 4.14$ NS

Aim of the syllabus
$x^2 = 7.24$ NS

Time devoted to each skill
$x^2 = 2.60$ NS

Sequencing of subject matter
$x^2 = 5.28$ NS

Public exam
$x^2 = 9.19$ NS

Discussion with department staff
$x^2 = 8.80$ NS

Discussion with department staff
$x^2 = 3.37$ NS

Percentage

Note:
■ Bahasa Malaysia medium
☑ English medium
☐ Chinese medium
1 to a great extent
2 to a minor extent
3 not at all

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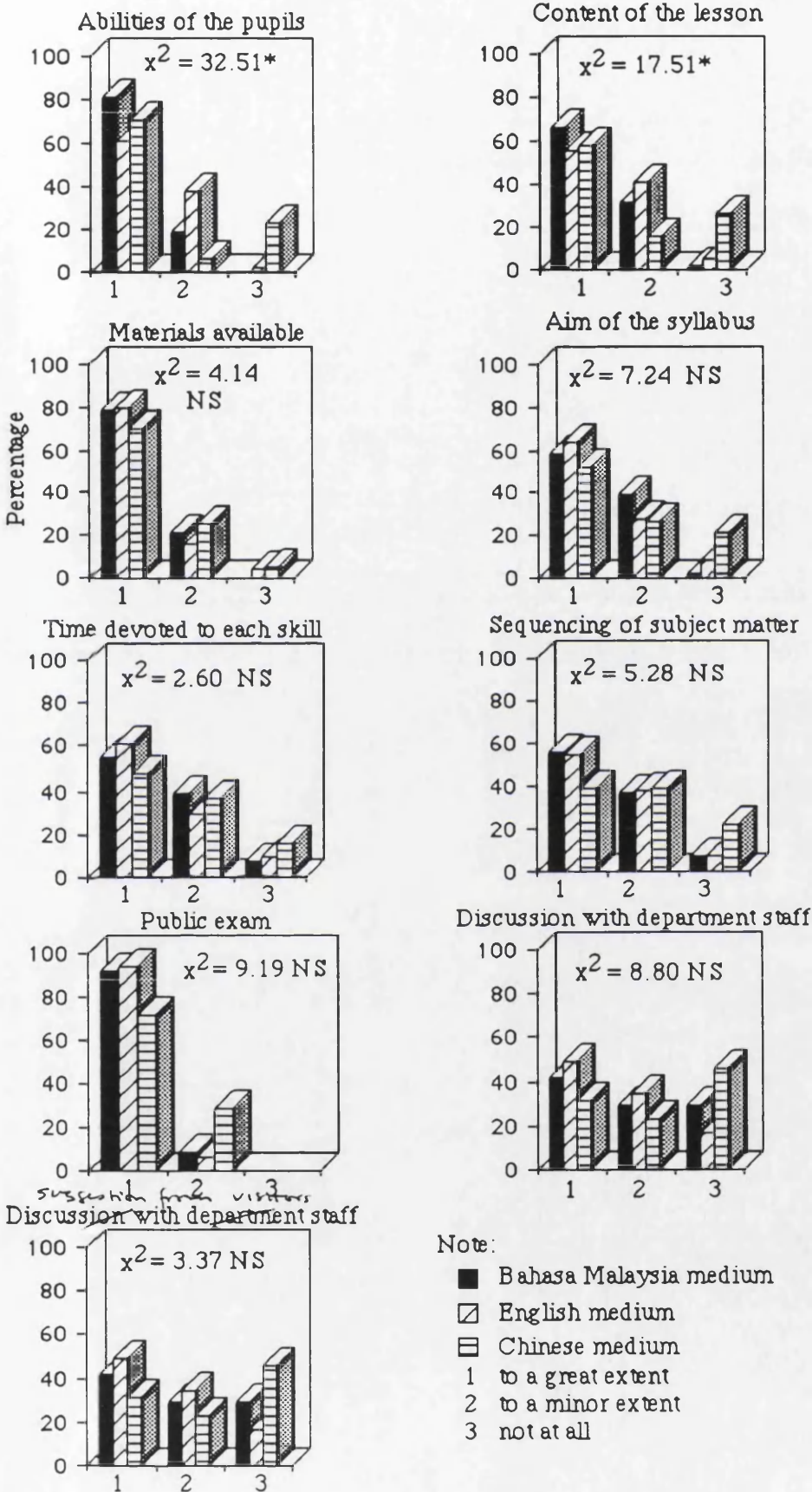
Figure 7.3: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers'
lesson plan by type of school.
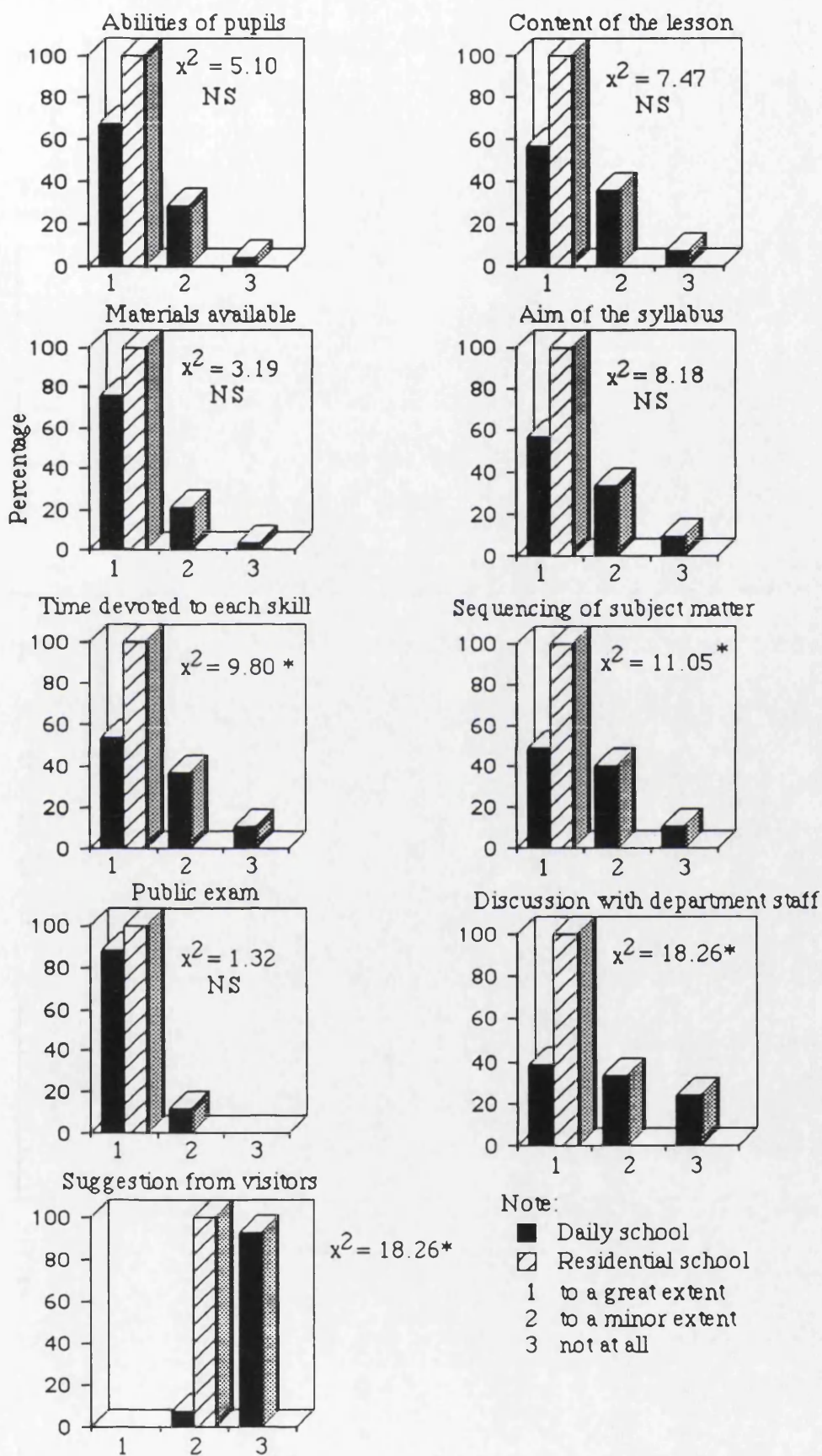
used only once a week, 1 (1.4%) teacher indicated that there was not enough teaching aids and 64 (48.1%) teachers did not respond to this open-ended question. The responses are tabulated in Table 7.23.

Table 7.23: Distribution of responses based on teachers' comment on teaching aids.

Comments	N	%
Used teaching aids every lesson	26	19.6
Used once a week	42	31.6
Not enough teaching aids	1	0.8
No response	64	48.0
Total	133	100.0

7.3.2   Facilities available

Fifty six (42.1%) of the Form 1 English Language teachers responded to this open-ended question regarding the facilities available. Seventeen (30.4%) teachers indicated that they used photocopy machine to provide duplicated materials, 39 (69.6%) teachers indicated that their school provided enough manila cards and drawing pens and 77 (59.9%) teachers did not respond to this open-ended question. The responses are tabulated in Table 7.24.

Table 7.24: Distribution of responses based on teachers'comment on facilities available.

Comment	N	%
Duplicated materials	17	12.8
Manila cards adequate	39	29.3
No response	77	57.9
Total	133	100.0

7.3.3   Demand on teachers

One hundred and seventeen (88%) of the Form 1 English language teachers responded to this open-ended question regarding the actual demand made on teachers. Out of those who responded, 75 (64.1%) teachers indicated that they have to do preparation of

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teaching and learning aids, 19 (16.2%) teachers indicated that they need to spend time on classroom management, 8 (6.8%) teachers indicated that they have to do recording of pupils' progress, 15 (12.8%) teachers indicated that they have to do planning and writing lesson plan and 16 (12%) teachers did not respond to this open-ended question. The responses are tabulated in Table 7.25.

Table 7.25: Distribution of responses based on teachers' opinion on the actual demand.

Demand	N	%
Preparation of teaching aids	75	64.1
Classroom management	19	16.2
Planning lesson plan	15	12.8
Pupil's progress	8	6.8
No response	16	12.0
Total	133	100.0

Table 7.26 shows the teachers' opinion on their degree of demands. Slightly over 50% of the teachers considered their teaching demands as satisfactory whereas less than 2% considered it light. However 44.2% of the teachers felt that their teaching demands was heavy or fairly heavy.

Table 7.26: Distribution of responses based on teachers' opinion on degree of demand.

Degree of demand	N	%
Light	2	1.5
Satisfactory	71	54.2
Fairly heavy	21	16.0
Heavy	37	28.2
No response	2	0.1
Total	133	100.0

7.4 Problems in teaching the KBSM English language

One hundred and thirty (97.7%) of the Form 1 English language teachers responded to this open-ended question regarding the main problems they face. Out of those who responded, 10 (7.7%) teachers indicated that their pupils are not interested when the

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teachers try new things in which they are not familiar with; 19 (14.6%) teachers

indicated that discipline is a problem; 11 (8.5%) teachers indicated that there are too

many physical constraints, such as the rows of desks which are screwed to the floor; 5

(0.8%) teachers indicated that it is virtually impossible to provide the necessary

duplicated materials; 23 (17.7%) teachers indicated that students prefer grammar and

exam practice; 17 (13.1%) teachers indicated that the schools 'administration' and the

teachers in other classes do not like the noise when all the students talk at the same time;

30 (23.1%) teachers indicated that students will not use English when they are put into

pairs and groups; 15 (11.5%) teachers indicated that the students complain that the

teachers are not teaching them if the teachers ask them to work in pairs and groups; and

3 (2.3%) teachers did not respond to this open-ended question. The responses are

tabulated in Table 7.27 and some of the problems encountered by teachers could be

divided under the following categories:

Table 7.27: Distribution of responses based on teachers' main
problems in implementation.

Main problem	N	%
Not interested	10	7.7
Discipline problem	19	14.6
Physical constraints	11	8.5
Duplicated material	5	3.8
Grammar and exam	23	17.7
Administration	17	13.1
Pair group	30	23.1
Complain	15	11.5
Missing	3	2.3
Total	133	100.0

7.4.1 Practical constraints

From the responses to the questionnaire administered in connection with this study,

some issues are very prominent and quite crucial. For instance, Table 7.26 shows the

teachers' opinion on their degree of demands, for which 44.2% felt that their teaching

demands was heavy or fairly heavy. During the interview, the teachers were asked

about the current allocation of time for teaching English as it is a crucial element in

ensuring the success of the English curriculum in Malaysian secondary schools. The vast majority of respondents felt that the current allocation of time for teaching English is insufficient, in particular as it involved too much time in the preparation and usage of teaching aids. The time factor appears to be crucial as English language classes were only allocated for 5 periods (200 minutes) in a week. This situation is worse as the current regulations preclude any possibilities of an extension of teaching time for English.

Any likelihood of amendments to existing regulations with a view to increasing the instruction time for English in the foreseeable future is effectively curtailed by the competing demands of the other disciplines in the school curriculum. The time factor will therefore have to be considered as fixed and the English curriculum will have to be tailored accordingly. The time allotted for English instruction assumes even more significance since for most pupils, especially in rural areas, their main (and frequently the sole) contact with English is likely to be during the one or two periods of English in school per day (Fernandez, 1984).

Even though the English teachers had done a lot of preparation for teaching aids in their schools, slightly more than half of them thought that these demands did not affect the performance of their teaching. They gave the following reasons:
   a. get some help from the visitors and during in-service training, learned how to manage pair or group work effectively;
   b. for teachers who teach English subject only have ample time to prepare teaching aids and plan their lesson work; and
   c. the school timetables were arranged deliberately to give them convenient time to attend in-service course or discuss with other colleagues.

Those teachers who felt that the performance of their teaching as English teacher had been affected brought up the following reasons:

a. they could not cope with their teaching and preparation for teaching aids at the same time because their teaching hours have not been reduced. This is especially true for non-English option in rural schools;

b. they are frequently been visited by visitors from the Ministry, state or district level which is true for urban schools;

c. they are bogged down by their duties as Head of English language Department and/or other school responsibilities; and

d. they have to attend courses conducted by CDC or by the KP, as well as other relevant seminar;

7.4.2   Time factor

Fernandez (1984) found that in carrying out duties, the priorities of English language teachers were firstly to ensure that the English syllabus was completed; secondly to maintain good classroom discipline at all times; thirdly to produce good performance in the examinations; and finally to increase pupils' proficiency in English. Although the responses to this question indicated that a pre-occupation with the completion of the whole syllabus is superseded by other priorities, the follow-up interview with the respondents indicated otherwise.

In classroom teaching, the respondents appear to be more inclined to complete the whole syllabus within the scheduled period. Frequently, this translated into an equitable distribution of time for the various teaching "units", with little varied emphasis to reflect the differing degrees of difficulty. In the teachers' zeal to complete the overloaded curriculum in totality, the "teaching" rather than the "learning" aspects seemed to receive priority.

Fernandez (1984) found in his study that the most frequent of aids used by the English teacher in the classroom was written work to be completed in class by pupils individually, followed by use of prescribed textbooks, drills/pattern practice, group/pair

work, audio-visual aids, teaching aids produced by Ministry of Education and enrichment activities.

The follow-up interview, however, indicated that much of the written work completed by pupils in class could just as well have been delegated as "home work", thereby effecting considerable savings in valuable classroom time which could have been more profitably utilised for actual classroom teaching.

CHAPTER 8

MATERIALS AND TEACHERS' IN-SERVICE TRAINING

8.1   Introduction

The preparation for the first year implementation of the KBSM Form 1 programme involved a tremendous efforts including the production of teachers' and pupils' materials at central level and the training of teachers and principals by the staff from the state level who had previously been trained by the curriculum developers. At the meetings of the KBSM Implementation and Technical Committee there were intense discussions concerning the purpose and possible strategies and procedures for monitoring the progress of the implementation. For instance, the state education departments monitored their own schools under the supervision of the Curriculum Development Centre.

8.2   What materials were produced?

A new curriculum requires new materials for teachers and pupils. These have to be produced and made available in adequate numbers at the appropriate time. Preparation of materials requires expertise and time, and to make them available to all teachers and pupils requires not only resources but also an effective machinery for their distribution.

In Chapter 5, the researcher has referred to the materials prepared for the teachers and described the various types of materials for the pupils. For the curriculum to be effectively implemented, these materials have to be of high quality and meet the needs of the teachers or pupils. In this section, the teachers' and pupils' materials will be examined with respect to types, availability, utilisation and quality.

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8.2.1 What kind of teachers' material were produced?

All teachers' materials were developed at the central level, though there were variations in terms of the agencies responsible and the people who actually participated in the preparation. Details of these and contents of the materials are shown in Table 8.1. The bibliographical details for the teachers' materials are shown in Appendix 1. The production of these materials was a complex task where it needs to ensure consistency, complementary and the minimum of overlaps between the different materials. In addition there was also continual pressure to set the materials ready on time, adequate number and of high quality. A significant feature of the KBSM is the large amount of materials produced for teachers. Some materials are about the curriculum as a whole or on particular aspects relevant to all subjects, and others are specifically for each subject. These can be classified into two categories. The first comprises the Teacher's Handbook, the KBSM General Guide Book and the syllabuses. Together they contain statements of the rationale, aims and objectives, the content (or skills) and the general approach in which teaching and learning is to be conducted. Whereas the second category comprises all the other materials which contain further elaboration of the underlying assumptions and ideas of the curriculum and its content. They also incorporate suggestions and examples for the teaching and learning activities. These are designed as guides for teachers, to be studied and adopted if appropriate, or to be modified or replaced with more suitable ones.

8.2.1.1 How far were the teachers' materials available in sufficient quantities and at the right time?

Prior to the KBSM the Form 1 teachers would have possessed the syllabuses and a few guide books. They were confronted with a large number of materials at the same time. To teach English language at the Form 1 level they have to refer to two books, while. most teachers, as shown in Table 7.6, teach at least another subject at the

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Table 8.1: Teachers' materials for the KBSM in general and Form 1 English language.

Materials	Contents and length	Agency responsible for production
A. For KBSM 1. Teacher's Hand Book 2 KBSM General Curriculum Guide Book	The rationale and aims of the curriculum, areas of study, time allocation and the teaching and learning strategy - 24 pp. Teaching and learning strategy and techniques, role of the teacher and principal, classroom organisation, and materials of the curriculum- 76 pp.	The Curriculum Development Centre. The Development Centre.
B. For English Language 1. Syllabus 2. Form 1 Guide Book 3. Form 1 Resource Book	The objectives of the programme, and the language skills to be acquired by pupils- 29 pp. Detailed specifications of the language skills, the approach and techniques for teaching, and teaching and learning activities- 156 pp. Examples of teaching and learning activities and materials to be used - 203 pp.	The Curriculum Development Centre.* The Curriculum Development Centre.* The Curriculum Development Centre.*

Note: * - Produced with substantial participation of teachers, and representatives from the divisions in the Ministry, training colleges and state departments.

Form 1 level or other Form, thus they have to consult other syllabuses and guide books as well.

For an effective implementation, every teacher who has to teach the new curriculum needs to be provided with the teachers' materials prior to implementation of the course. This would enable him to refer to the materials during the course, and provide him with the opportunity to study them in his own time and at his own pace. For the KBSM, the materials were distributed during the pre-implementation course and a copies were provided for each teacher, with the exception e.g.. the Form 1 English Language Guide Book, and the Form 1 English Language Resource Book , as they were not ready on time. The two guides were distributed to all schools in early 1989 by post or through district education offices.

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In order to ascertain the extent to which these materials were actually available, the researcher asked the Form 1 teachers to indicate their availability. The combined responses from the interviews and questionnaires are shown in Figure 8.1. Overall, most of the teachers from both rural and urban schools owned a copy of each item. Most of the teachers in rural schools shared a copy or have only seen the Form 1 English Language Resource Book, whereas most teachers in urban owned a copy {x^2 =46.43, Appendix 15 (Table 15.2)}. Several factors could have contributed, such as limited copies provided by the Ministry and the failure of the school to make photocopies if copies were not enough. In the case of the Form 1 English Language Guide Book, there was a definite shortage, as indicated by complaints from the teachers (Figure 8.1). This could be due to the problem in the distribution mechanism and consequently the teachers have to share them.

Most of the teachers in the three media of instruction owned a copy of each item (Figure 8.2) and there is no significance different in availability of teachers' materials between the three media of schools (Appendix 15, Table 15.3). Figure 8.3 shows that only a small number of teachers in day schools owned a copy of Form 1 English Language Resource Books, but almost all teachers in residential schools owned a copy. There is a significance difference (x^2=26.01) in availability of this item between day and residential school (Appendix 15, Table 15.4). The above analysis underlines the importance of producing materials on time and in adequate quantities so as to ensure effective implementation of a new curriculum. If the materials are not in the teachers' possession, it become difficult for them to refer to whenever the need arises, thus the implementation of the curriculum is bound to be affected.

Figure 8.1: Percentage distribution of respondents based on availability of teachers' material by location.

Teacher's handbook
$x^2 = 9.26$ NS

KBSM guidebook
$x^2 = 4.10$ NS

English Language syllabus
$x^2 = 0.93$ NS

Form 1 English Language guidebook
$x^2 = 2.81$ NS

Form 1 English Language Resource Book
$x^2 = 46.43$ **

Percentage

Note:
- ■ Rural
- ▨ Urban

1 own a copy
2 share a copy
3 have only seen
4 have never seen
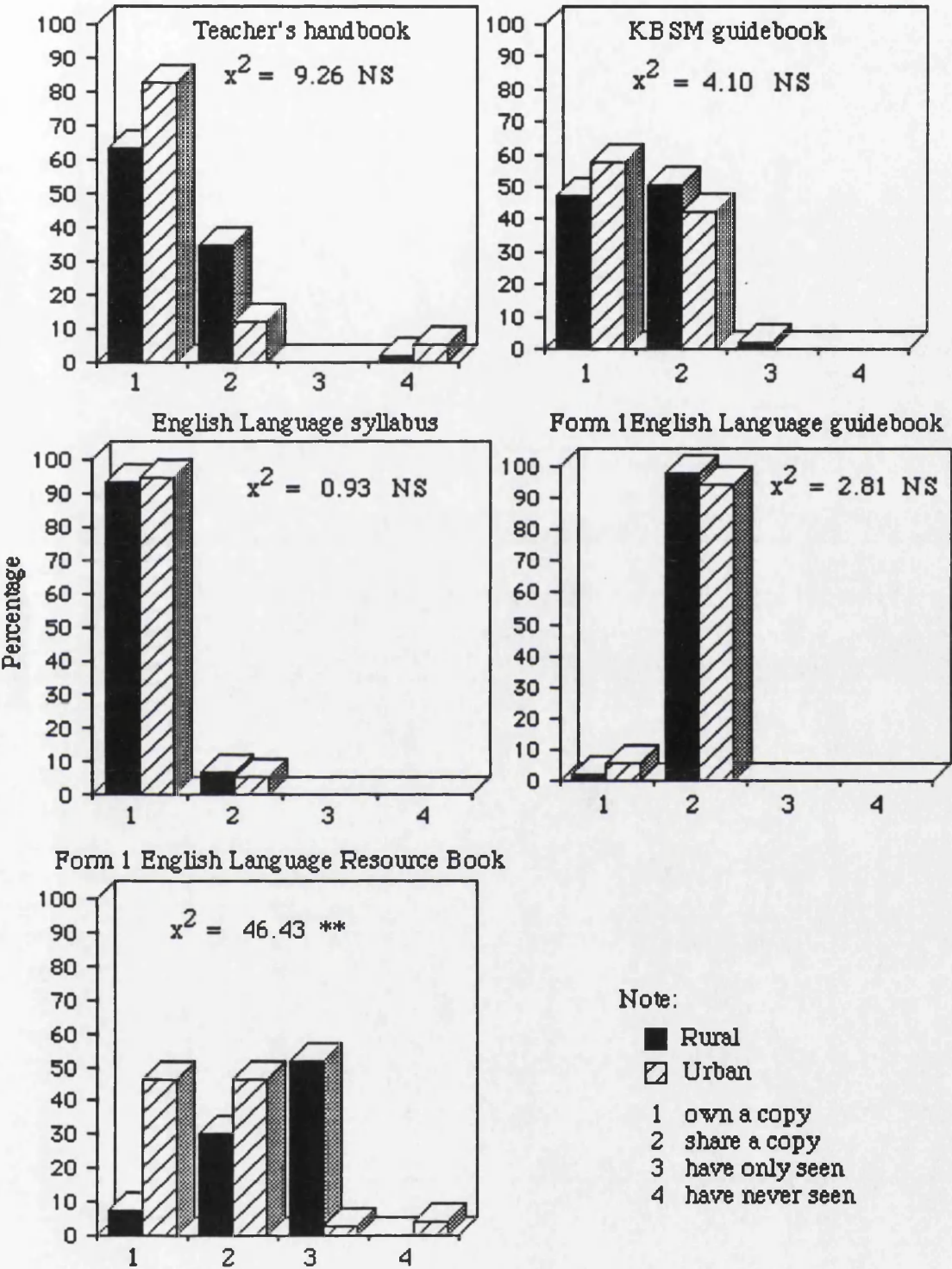
Figure 8.2: Percentage distribution of respondents based on availability of teachers' materials by medium.

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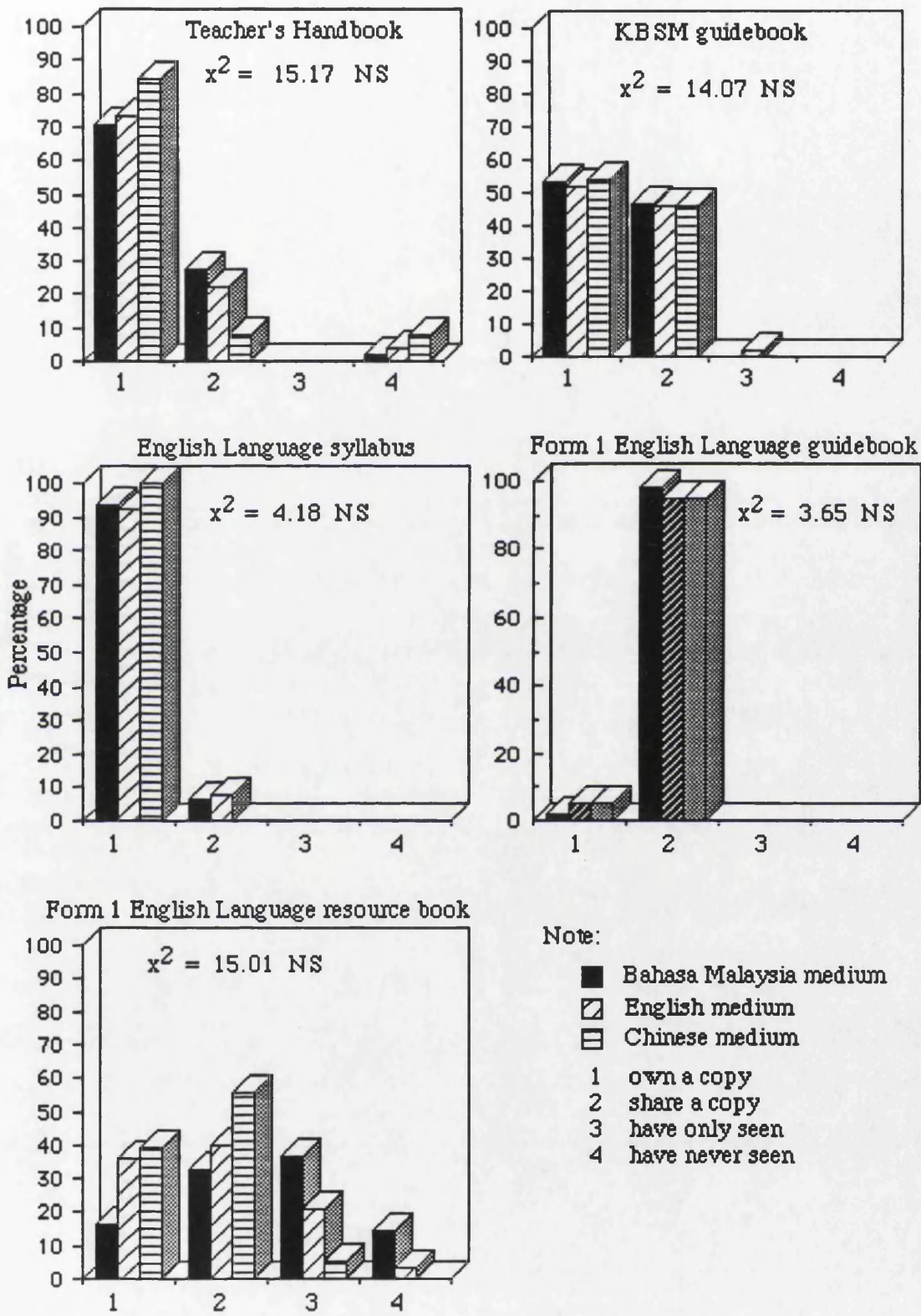
Figure 8.3: Percentage distribution of respondents based on availability of teachers' materials by type of school.

Teachers' handbook
$x^2 = 6.81$ NS

KBSM guidebook
$x^2 = 5.14$ NS

English Language syllabus
$x^2 = 0.78$ NS

Form 1 English Language guidebook
$x^2 = 0.96$ NS

Form 1 English Language resource book
$x^2 = 26.01$ *

Note:
■ Daily school
☑ Residential school
1 own a copy
2 share a copy
3 have only seen it
4 never seen it
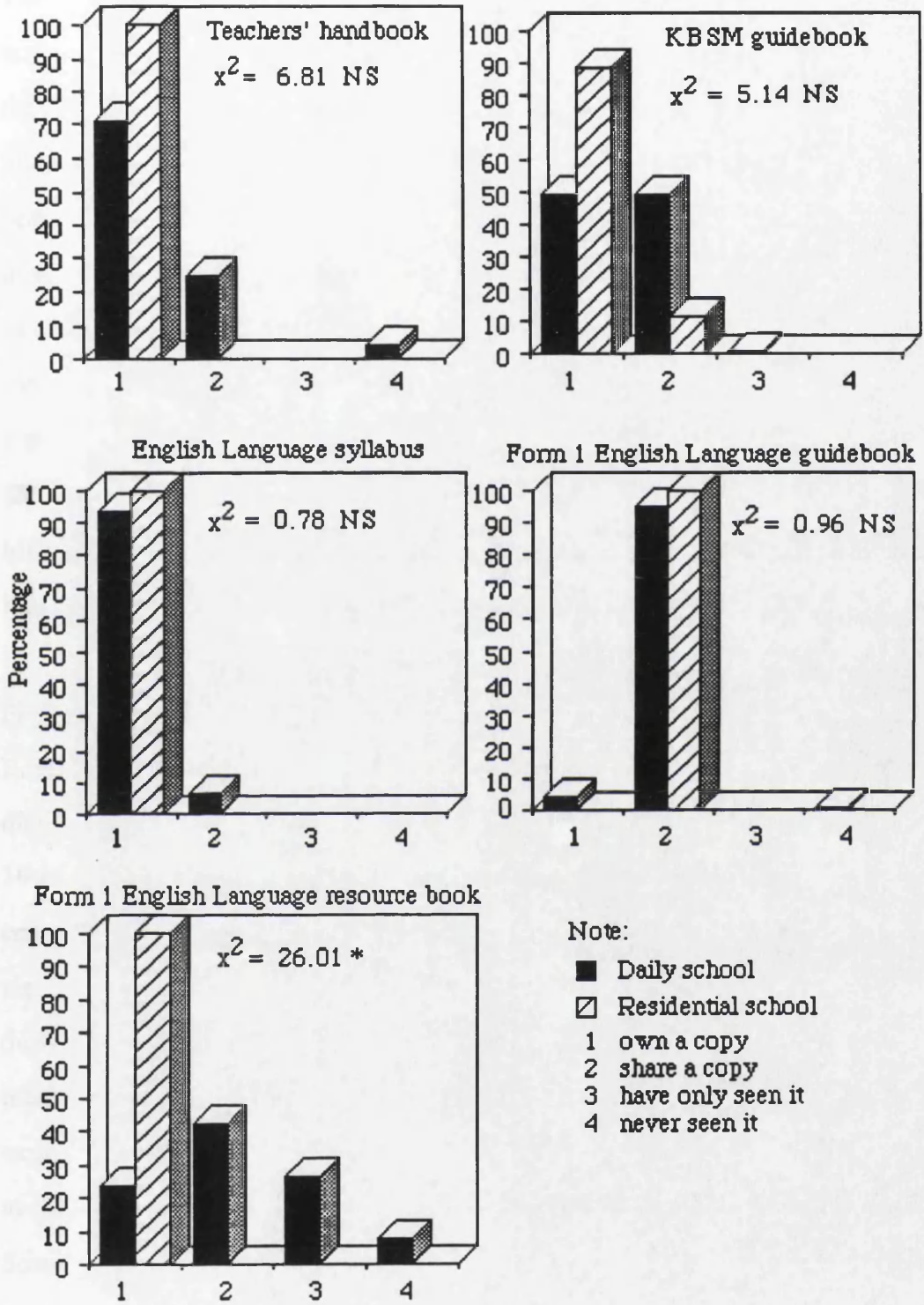
8.2.1.2   To what extent were the teachers' materials used?

The extent to which materials help in the implementation of a curriculum is dependent not only on their availability but also on the extent to which teachers make used of them. Therefore, the Form 1 English language teachers were asked the extent to which they have made use of teachers' materials. Figure 8.4 shows that the percentage of teachers using the English Language Resource Book was slightly higher in urban schools than in rural schools. The difference was significant (x^2 = 29.04) as shown in Appendix 16 (Table 16.5). There were responses for 'read a few times' (58.5%) for teachers in rural, as against 64.2% of the teachers in urban schools. Only a slight difference for responses for 'read once' in rural (37.7%) as against in urban (20.9%). The most used material by the teachers was the English Language Syllabus. Many of the teachers interviewed remarked that even in their third year of teaching the KBSM, they still refer to the English Language Syllabus almost every week.

Figure 8.5 shows that teachers in Chinese schools referred to English Language Guide Book more often than those in Bahasa Malaysia and English medium schools. The difference is found to be significant (x^2 = 11.42) as shown in Appendix 16 (Table 16.6). Most teachers in the residential schools always refer to Teacher's Handbook compare to teachers from the day schools (Figure 8.6) and this difference is not found significance as shown in Appendix 16 (Table 16.7). These teachers were identified during the interviewed were either new teachers who are teaching English or new teachers just started in teaching profession. Some of the teachers, in particular experienced teachers explained that it was really necessary to make constant reference to the other materials as the necessary items had been incorporated into the syllabus. Some teachers from the day school mentioned that the KBSM Guide Book and English Language Guide Book contained only information of a general nature.

Figure 8.4: Percentage distribution of respondents based on utilisation of teachers' materials by location.
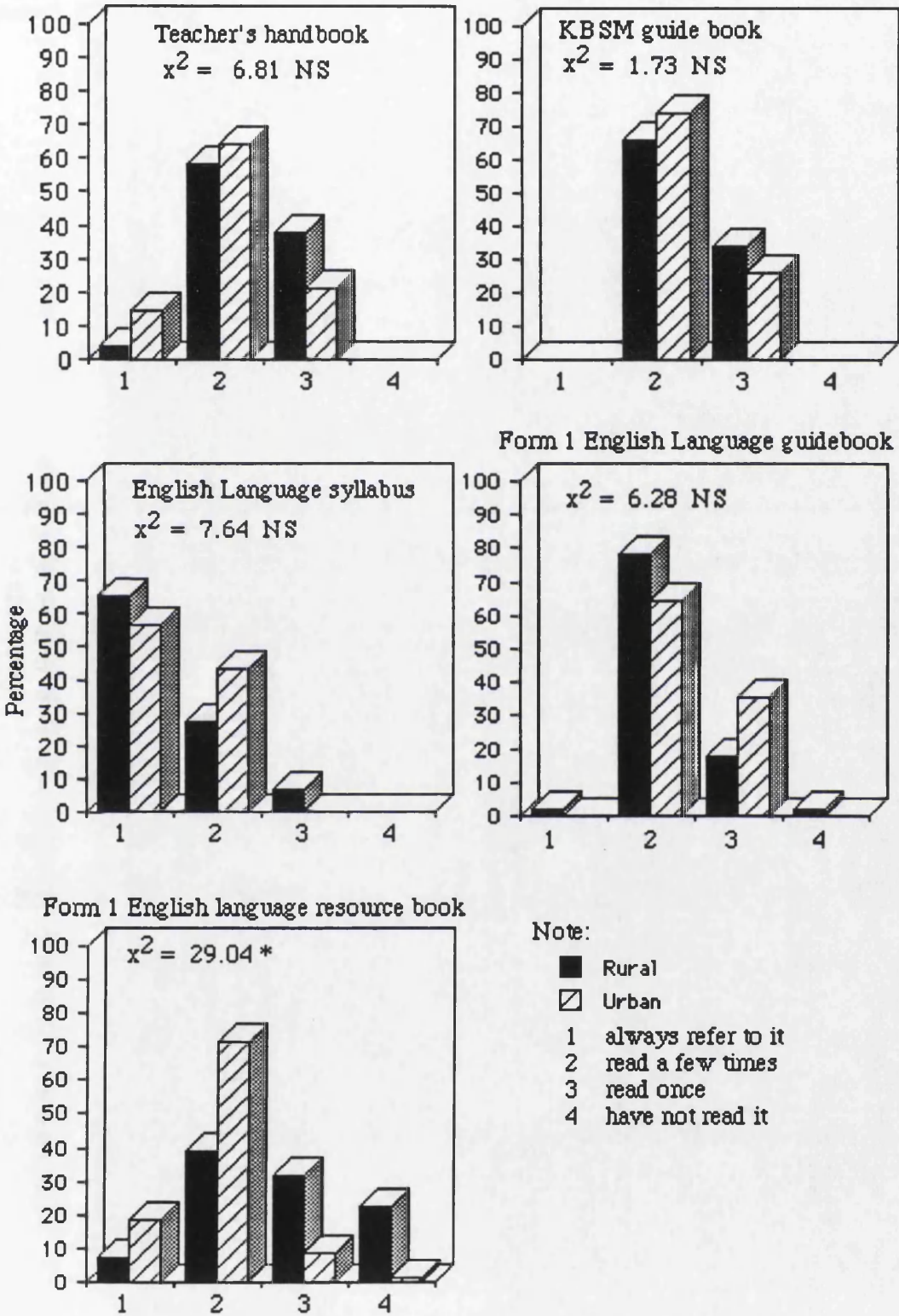
Figure 8.5: Percentage distribution of respondents based on utilisation of teachers' materials by medium.

Teacher's handbook
$x^2 = 3.47$ NS

KBSM guidebook
$x^2 = 11.42$ *

English Language syllabus
$x^2 = 8.09$ NS

Form 1 English Language guidebook
$x^2 = 14.98$ NS

Form 1 English Language resource book
$x^2 = 12.91$ NS

Note:
■ BM medium
▨ English medium
☰ Chinese medium

1 always refer to it
2 read a few times
3 read once
4 have not read it

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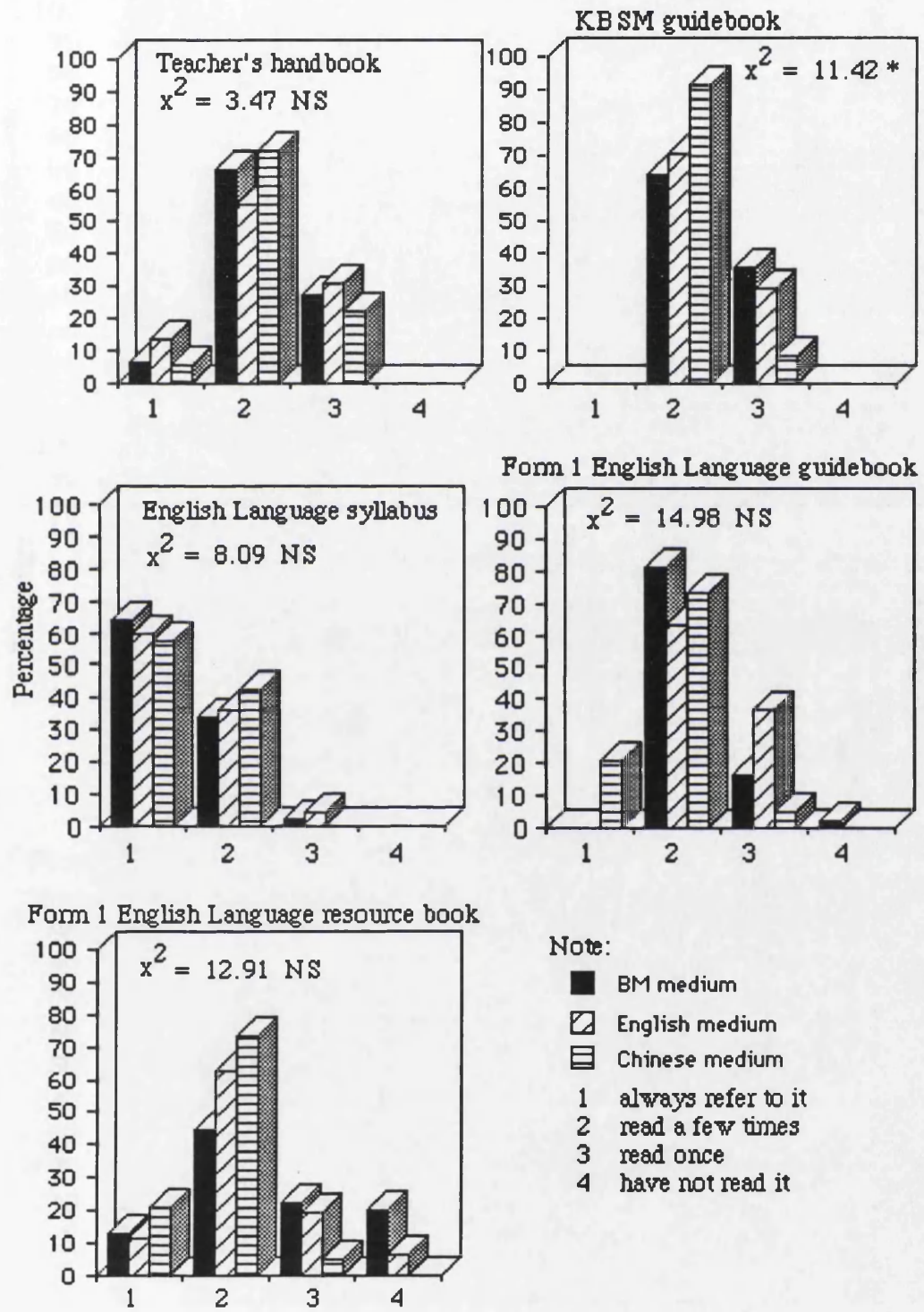
Figure 8.6: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers' responses in utilisation of Teacher's Materials by type of schools.
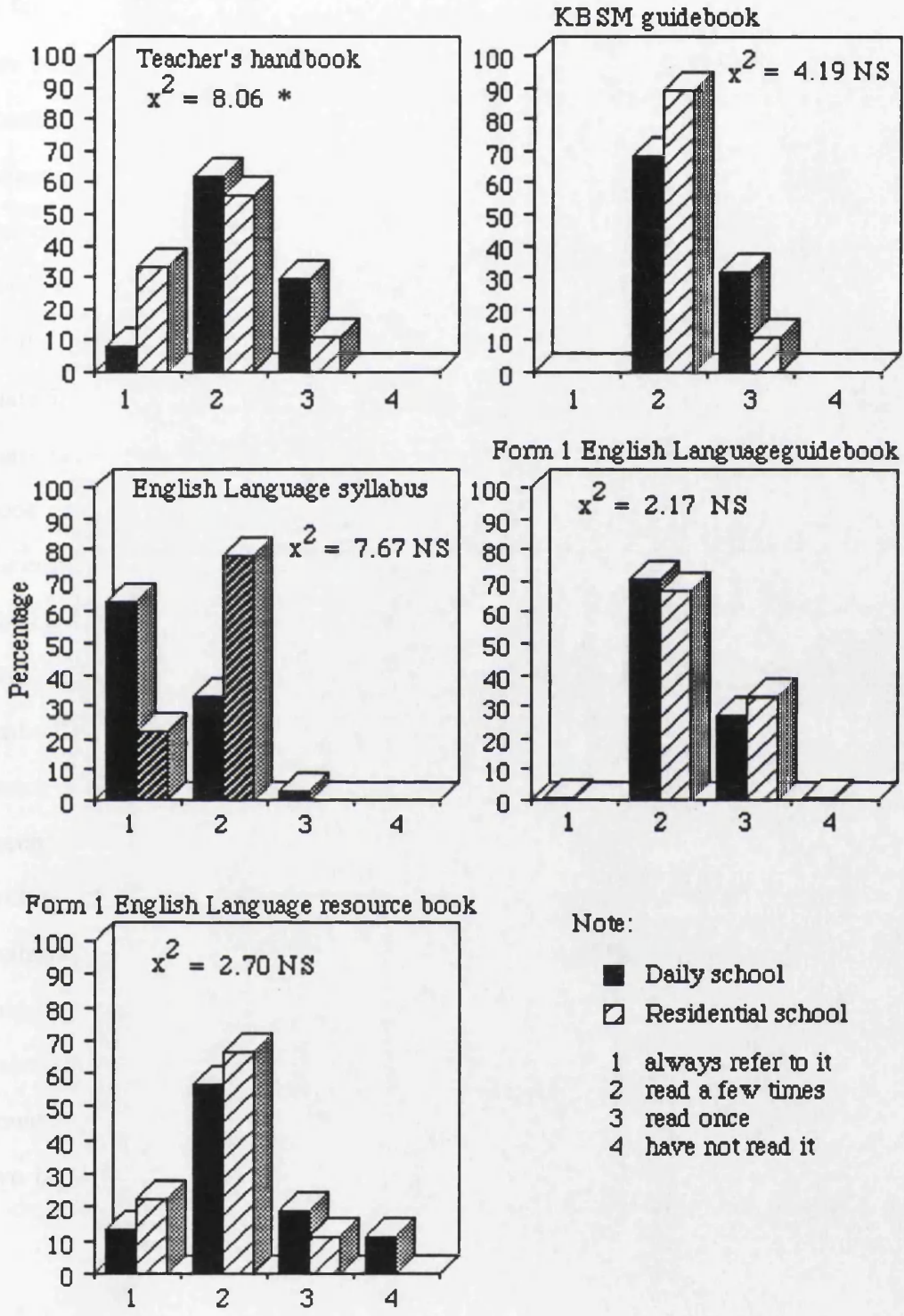
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Comments

A few teachers remarked that there were too many books to consult at one time. One can easily deduce that the materials the teachers referred to would be those that give them concrete and immediate help in their day-to-day work and materials with information and guides specific to the teaching and learning practices. There were responses for 'have not read it' from teachers who 'own' or 'share' a copy of the teacher's materials but quite a number of them did not indicate anything at all for some of the materials. If lack of response could be assumed as not having read the materials, it meant that quite a number of teachers have not used some of those materials. The least used material was the KBSM Guide Book. Even though this book contains some good ideas, they seemed difficult to follow. What is a real cause for concern is that those materials containing the underlying beliefs, assumptions and objectives of the KBSM were not often consulted, rather teachers referred to those that give them guidance for their day-to-day activities. However, fundamental changes as embodied in the KBSM requires a change in the attitudes on the part of the teachers, hence a thorough understanding of the assumptions and beliefs of the curriculum is essential. While it is commendable on the part of the developers to provide teachers with a variety of materials, the very existence of such a large and diverse amount of materials appear to cause problems to the teachers, especially in the preparation of lesson plan as all factors have to be considered such as mixed ability of pupils, existing of teaching aids, and sequencing of the contents. However, these could be countered by combining the contents of the various materials to constitute only one or two books.

8.2.1.3 How far did the teachers' materials meet the requirements of the teachers?

The extent to which teachers make use of the materials depends on the extent that they are seen as being of help in the performance of teachers' tasks. And this in turn

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depends on whether or not the materials meet the requirements of the teachers. On the whole both teachers and personnel felt that the materials were 'good', 'useful', 'adequate' or 'of help in the teaching'. Most of the teachers appeared contented to be following the suggestions and examples contained in the materials, particularly in the English language Guide Book because it contains the necessary explanations and suggestions for teaching purposes. However, a few shortcomings were noted such that the materials had insufficient examples for enrichment and remedial activities (Table 8.8).

Table 8.8: Distribution of respondents based on teachers' comment on teachers' materials.

Teachers' materials	N	%
Suggestion and examples are appropriate	34	25.6
Learning activities are suitable	30	22.6
Insufficient of examples for enrichment and remedial activities	27	20.3
English language resource book is too ideal	24	18.0
Large number of examples	4	3.0
No response	14	10.5
Total	133	100.0

The personnel felt that teachers were 'too tied' to the guides, and were following them too rigidly. And, as one of them remarked, 'the teacher makes the guide book the control rather than the guide'. They also felt that the teachers were diffident in attempting anything not specified in the materials, therefore their ideas and creativity were not utilised. The teachers did in fact rely heavily on the guides. This was confirmed in the 17 classrooms that the researcher observed, and will be discussed in Chapter 10.

On the other hand it is encouraging to note that teachers follow the suggestions in the guide books, thus an indication of their willingness to implement the new curriculum. However, rigid adherence to the guides means that nothing is modified or added to make learning more interesting or more suited to a particular set of pupils in the classroom. Four reasons could explain this situation: Firstly teachers may genuinely feel that there is no need to modify or add anything as the suggestions and examples in the guide is appropriate and adequate. The content of the English Language Guides in particular, appears to contain all the details that a teacher might need for the teaching and learning activities for the various language skills. In addition the guide has sufficient vocabulary and aspects of grammar; Secondly, teachers may not be able to take advantage of the opportunity to be creative and to plan lessons as they think best suited to their own pupils due to the established practice of following what has been specified or suggested by the higher authority; Thirdly, majority of teachers may not have the confidence in attempting activities not stated in the guides due to lack of understanding of the basic ideas underlying the various features of the KBSM; And finally, teachers may not be so committed enough to implement the KBSM to the level of expectation by the planners.

Comment

From this study it is not possible to be conclusive as to the exact reasons for the lack of creativity on the part of the teachers. However, it does raise the perennial issue of the gap between what planners expect of teachers, and what the teachers themselves can do or are prepared to do. For teachers to be creative or to become confident enough to innovate, they need to be totally clear about the new curriculum. It is noteworthy to stress here that to understand fully the various components of the KBSM and to plan learning activities that are truly interesting and meaningful to the varied interests and levels of ability of a large number of pupils in one class, is really a demanding task for teachers. In addition in order for the teachers to be creative they

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should receive invariable support from various sectors such as principals and personnel, in particular the inspectorate. To a large extent this could be achieved through the professional development programme for teachers such as attending courses, workshops, on-the-job training as well as interactions and co-operation with colleagues. The provision for the professional development (will be discussed in Chapter 9) of the KBSM teachers was very limited. Therefore it is not highly optimistic to expect them to be so innovative.

8.2.2 What pupils' materials were produced and provided?

As discussed in Chapter 5, one of the features of the KBSM is the emphasis on the variety of pupils' materials that are appropriate to the varied needs, interests and abilities of the pupils. These materials are produced by the central agencies of the Ministry of Education or by commercial companies. The materials produced by the Ministry for the Form 1 English language programme are textbook, readers' and study kit. These are to be supplemented by materials that will be prepared by the teachers themselves.

The pupils' materials produced at the central level constituted new forms of materials in the Malaysian schools, hence the need to work out policy and procedures for their production and supply. A great deal of discussion and negotiation took place among the professionals in order to decide who is responsible for the production and supply of the materials and also between the professionals and administrators concerning financial and procurement procedures.

In addition to the above materials, others specifically for remedial and enrichment activities were also prepared. One of the sets of materials for enrichment activities (e.g.. readers) are Hang Tuah, The Snow Goose, Robinsoe Crusoe, Aladdin and the Wonderful Lamp, Man of Everest, Tula and Rosa and Menji (Ministry. of Education,

1991). The production of these materials is a measure towards ensuring that these activities are adequately carried out. However, the level of implementation was detected to be low during the first year of implementation (discussed earlier), and thus cause a little concern during the early months of the second year implementation.

8.2.2.1   Were the pupils' materials available in adequate numbers?

To ascertain whether or not the pupils' materials are actually available in the required quantity, the researcher asked the Form 1 teachers to indicate the availability of these materials in their schools. Teachers responses concerning the adequacy of pupils materials from both rural and urban schools based on the questionnaires are shown in Figure 8.7. The textbooks are generally adequate as they are available free through the Textbook Loan Scheme to all pupils in the government-assisted secondary schools. The inadequacy of textbooks in a few schools could be due to limited copies supplied by the Ministry of Education. However the schools should have requested for more books as soon as possible from the Ministry.

Appendix 17 (Table 17.9) shows that there was a slight balance in responses from the teachers for textbooks in rural and urban areas, i.e. 94.3% of the teachers in rural indicated 'adequate' , as against 100.0% of the teachers in urban schools. Only 5.3% responses from rural school teachers indicated 'not adequate', and no responses from urban. The results indicated that there was no significant difference for the supply of textbooks between urban and rural schools. Most of the teachers considered the textbooks as adequate, but more than 70% of the teachers from rural areas

Figure 8.7: Percentage distribution of respondents based on adequacy of pupil's materials by location.
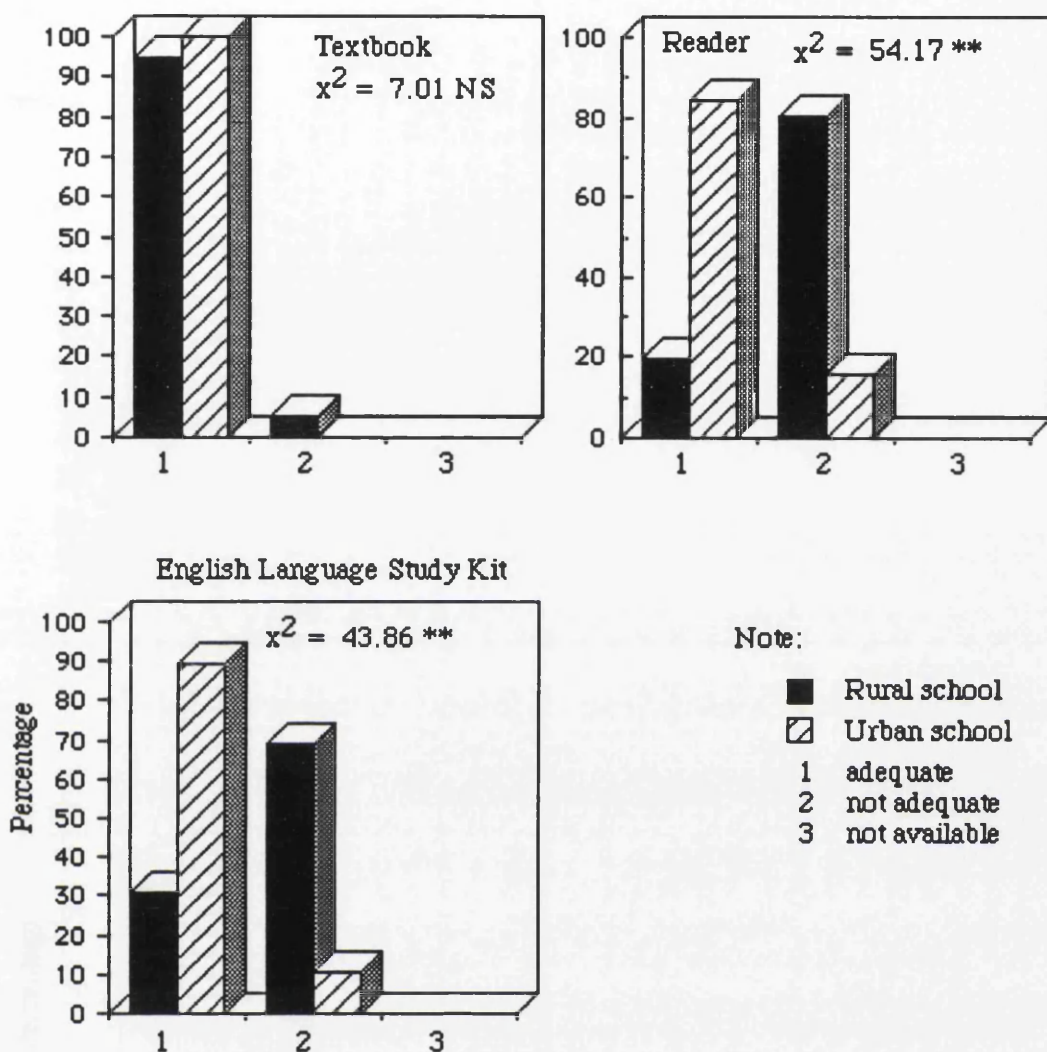
considered the readers and study kits as 'not adequate' in the required amount, and consequently constitute a serious problem. Only 8 copies of the set of 'readers' were supplied to every class or sharing between two or three classes. This quantity, however, was considered adequate to enable pupils, to have the opportunity to read them during a period of one year.

Figure 8.8 shows that there was a marked difference between responses in the three media schools. It can be seen clearly that there was 'not adequate' supply of readers and English Language Study Kit in the National medium school ($x^2 = 32.54$ and

x^2=37.81), see Appendix 17 (Table 17.10). Figure 8.9 shows that day school was

not adequate in readers and English language

Figure 8.8: Percentage distribution of respondents based on adequacy of pupil's
materials by medium.
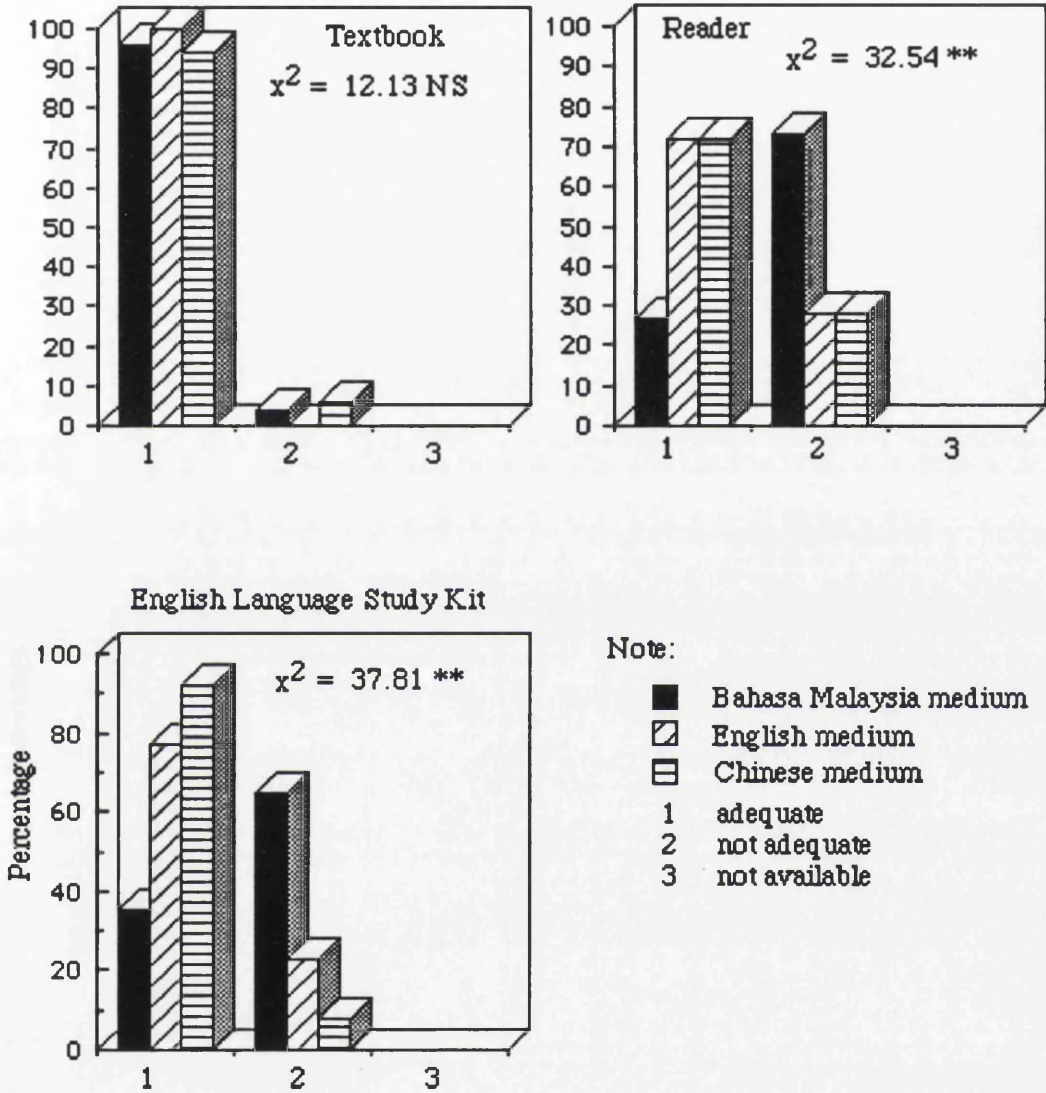
Study Kit ($x^2 = 8.95$ and $x^2 = 6.30$), see also Appendix 17 (Table 17.11), reflecting a

serious problem in supply. The English Language Study Kit was aimed primarily at

providing teachers with guides and examples where only one set was allocated for

each class; additional materials therefore had to be prepared by teachers themselves.

Study Kits, designed to enable teachers to use in class, hence, are not adequate in

supply in National rural schools; sharing or taking turns to use them is unsatisfactory.

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This situation is critical and the comments about the shortage of supply of pupils'

materials (in particular 'readers' and study kit) to rural

Figure 8.9: Percentage distribution of respondents based on adequacy of pupils'
materials by type of school.

Textbook
$x^2 = 1.14$ NS

Reader
$x^2 = 8.95$ **

English Language Study Kit
$x^2 = 6.30$ *

Note:
■ Daily
▨ Residential
1 adequate
2 not adequate
3 not available
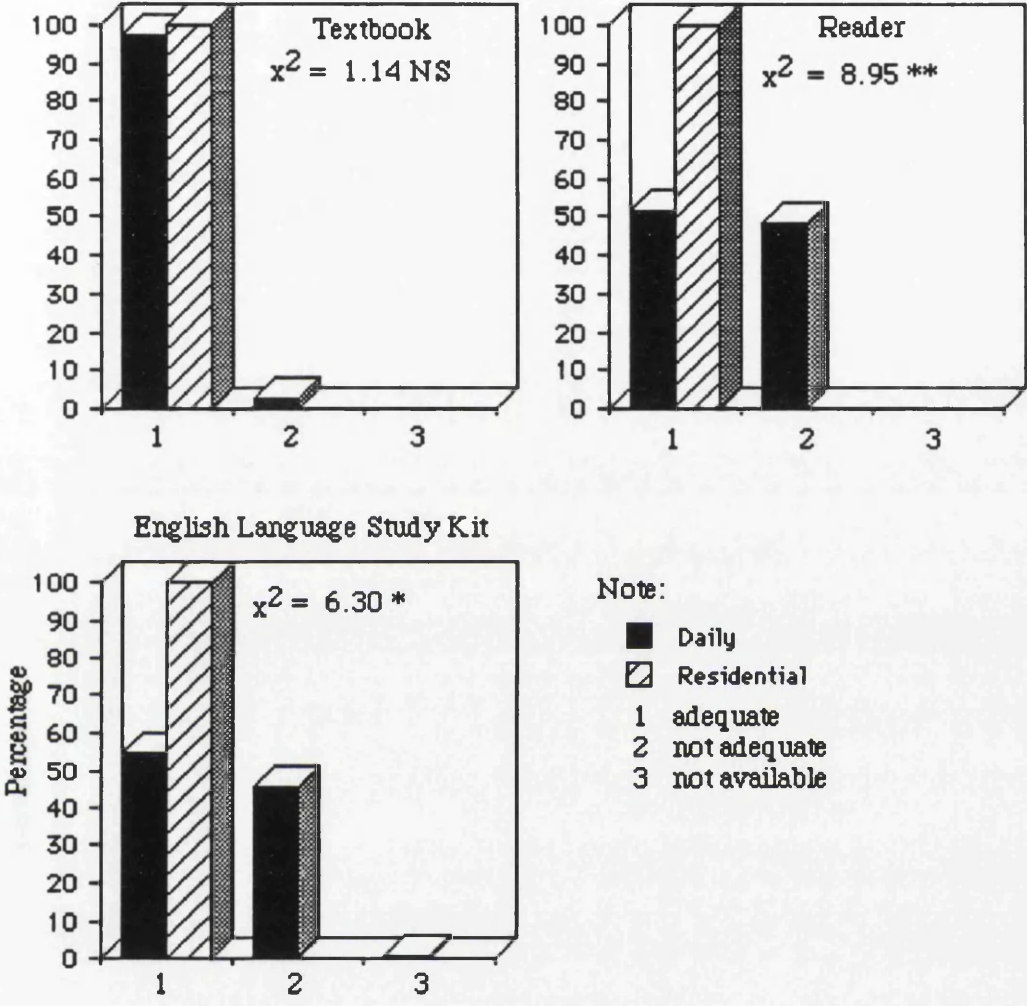
schools and National medium school should be viewed as a serious problem, and

consequently the implementation of the curriculum is bound to be affected.

8.2.2.2 What use did teachers make of the pupils' materials?

In this study the Form 1 English teachers were asked to indicate the extent of usage of

the pupils' materials by them. It is clearly seen from Figure 8.10 that on the whole,

only 'readers' was used 'often'; whereas textbooks and English Language Resource

Kits were only used sometimes. There is a significance difference ($x^2 = 45.73$) in

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utilisation of the English Language Study Kit by teachers in urban and rural schools

(Ap.8.12-Tab. 8.12) where teachers in urban areas used slightly more often than those

Figure 8.10: Percentage distribution of respondents based on utilisation of pupils'
materials by location.
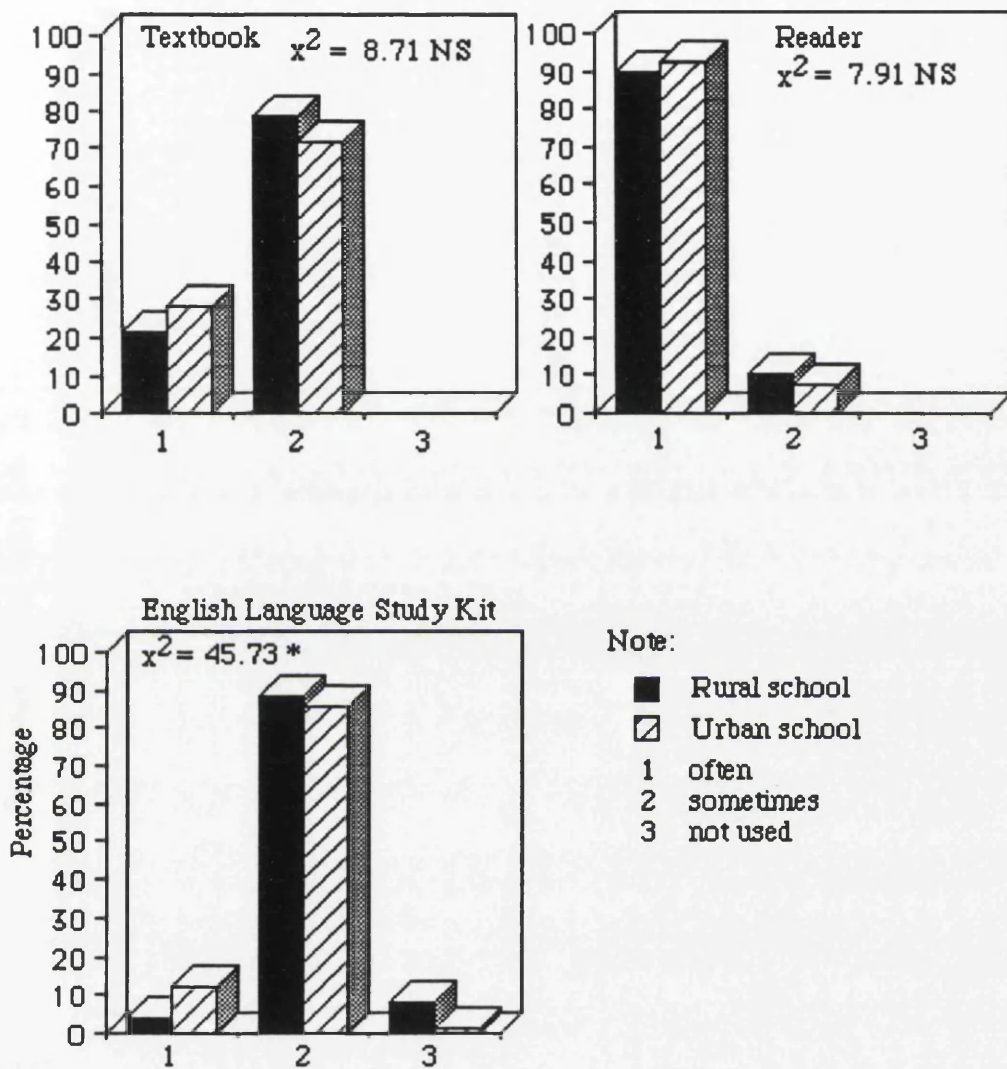
teachers in rural areas. The three pupils' materials were commonly used by all teachers

irrespective of the media of instruction (Fig. 8.11). Appendix 18 (Table 18.13)

shows that 'readers' was used more often by teacher in English medium school

compared to National and Chinese media schools ($x^2 = 12.59$). The idea of having

the Study Kit was welcomed by both teachers and personnel as it could help reduce

teachers' workload and also both groups generally felt that the materials were 'good'

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and 'useful'. The textbooks were not used 'often' by teachers in day and residential

schools (Figure 8.12). There were remarks that some the exercises in the textbooks

Figure 8.11: Percentage distribution of respondents based on utilisation of pupils' materials by medium.
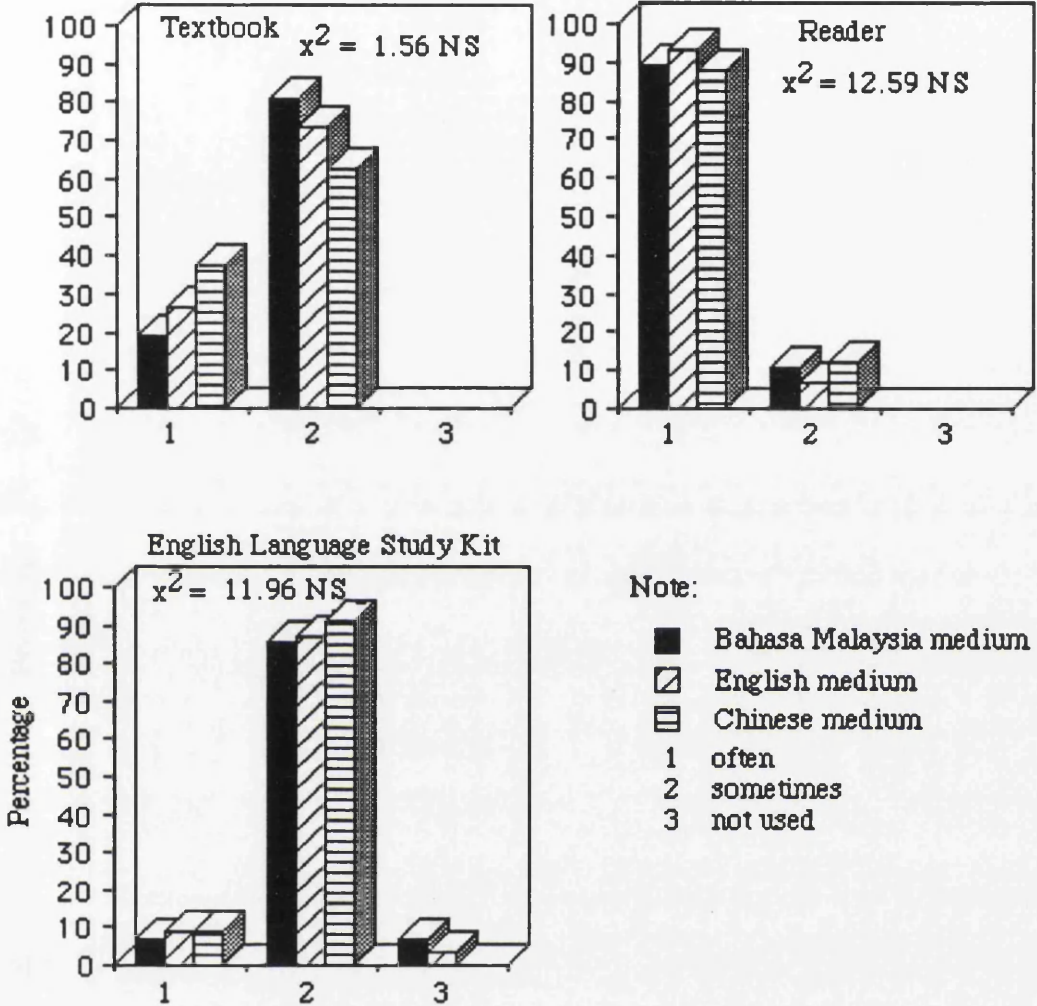
were rather difficult for weak pupils and on contrary too easy for pupils in residential

schools. It appears that there was no significant different of utilisation of pupils'

materials between both type of schools (Appendix 18 - Table 18.14).

Comment

The overall responses showed that there was no significant difference in the usage of

pupils' materials between the rural and urban schools and between the day and

residential schools. But there was a marked differences between National, English

Figure 8.12: Percentage distribution of respondents based on utilisation of pupils' materials by type of school.

Note:
- ■ Daily school
- ☑ Residential school
- 1 often
- 2 sometimes
- 3 not used

a
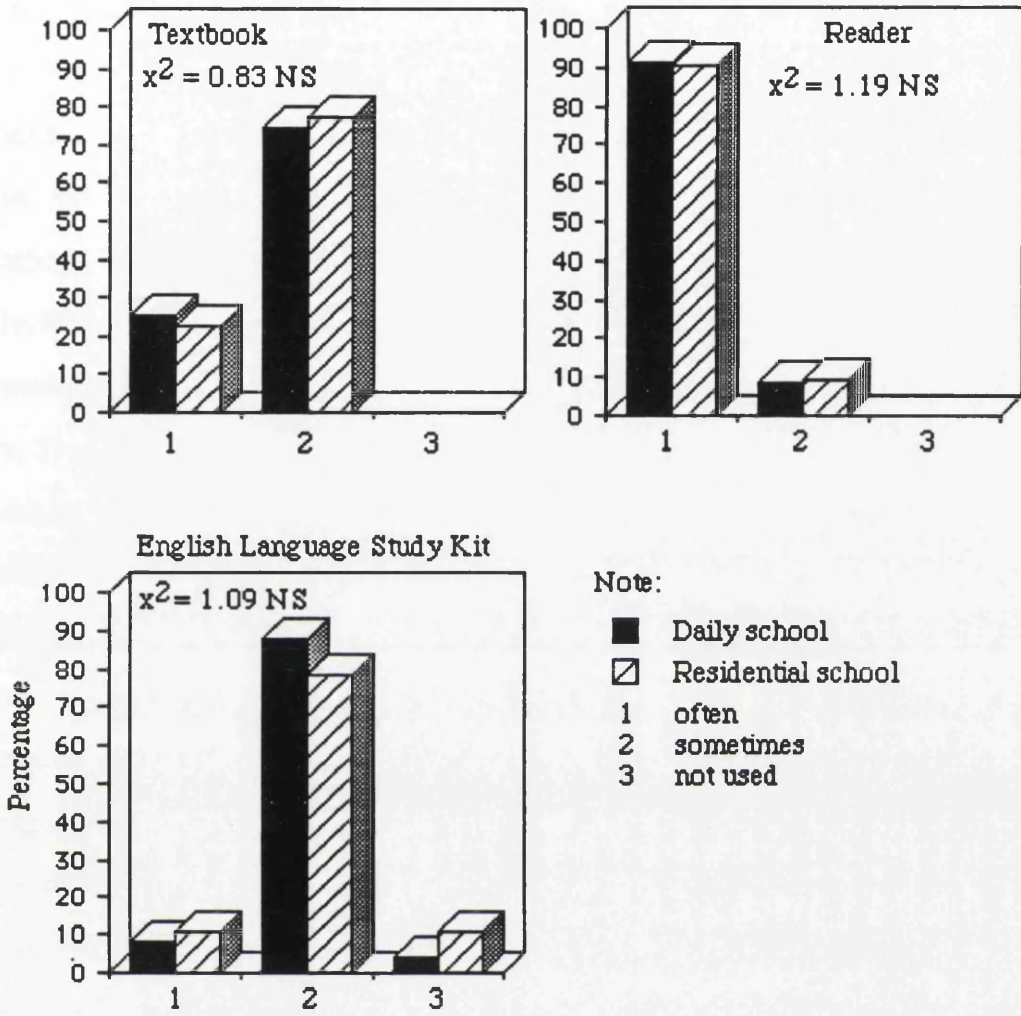
nd Chinese media schools, especially for readers. All pupils' materials were supplied to schools by the beginning of the school year of 1989, with the exception for the English Language Study Kit which arrived at the beginning of 1990. This was unavoidable as the Study Kit was only produced when it was realised that the kit helps to reduce teachers' workload.

8.2.2.3 Teachers' comments on pupils' materials
Textbook

i. Teachers from English medium school found that some parts of the textbooks used and English Language Kit were not suitable. It has been identified that the kit was not challenging enough for the more proficient pupils in urban schools. However,

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English teachers from rural English medium school were of the opinion that the textbooks were largely suitable.

ii. Neither the pupils nor the teachers from National medium school enjoyed using the textbooks although they did enjoy some of the activities in the kit.

iii. Textbooks were unsuitable and neither pupils nor teachers in Chinese medium school enjoyed using them.

iv. For National medium schools in urban area, teachers and pupils enjoyed using the textbooks and they were found largely suitable.

v. Teachers in residential schools felt that the textbooks for Form 1 were largely suitable, although the better classes found them too easy. Neither pupils nor teachers enjoyed using textbooks or English Television (ETV) and Educational Radio Programmes.

vi. Rural teachers who teach good classes were happy with the textbooks. Some teachers wanted to change the textbooks used but were unable to do so because of the regulations of the Ministry of Education. Once a book is adopted as a textbook, it has to remain so for 5 years.

vii. It is always the difficult to accommodate the needs of all pupils in any centrally produced materials. A textbook of 159 pages for the English language programme cannot possibly take into account the wide range of abilities and interests of children in the different environments in the country. There is a need for teachers or agencies at the local level to adapt certain portions of the centrally produced materials, and to produce additional ones that are more suited to the particular characteristics of the pupils in a particular district. Some suggestions for such activities are discussed in Chapter 9.

vii. During the interview, a majority of teachers in urban schools felt that textbooks were not suitable. They felt that foreign English language textbooks were suited to the standard of English of the pupils. Foreign books were not, however, allowed to be adopted as textbooks. This was a majority feeling by teachers in English schools.

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Teachers said that none of the textbooks on the list approved by the BBT (Textbook Bureau) was truly suitable for their classes. It is hoped that the officers in the BBT keep these differences in mind when making decisions regarding textbooks which are supposed to be suitable for all schools in the country.

viii. If textbooks are unsuitable, how prepared are teachers to dispense with items altogether and to produce their own materials? If the materials from the Ministry are inappropriate, is there any purpose of the Ministry producing and disseminating them? The question is whether the teachers have the requisite training to produce and select materials for their class? The Ministry is now attempting to set up district and regional resource centres so that aids, which are suitable to the area the school is in, can be produced.

ix. Teachers in rural schools found that textbooks were unsuitable, and some of the exercises are found to be not suitable at all for the weak pupils. They considered the exercises 'not suitable for the rural children' or perhaps 'suitable only for bright pupils'.

Reader

Teachers in rural areas remarked that readers were not suitable for the weak pupils and some of the contents were 'urban-biased', but are appropriate to all pupils in all types of environments. Nevertheless, the readers do provide pupils with more reading materials covering a variety of topics.

Study Kits

i. Certain comments from both teachers and personnel indicated that they were not truly satisfied with the study kits. For instance, some of the teachers felt that the letter and syllable cards for English language were 'too small' in size.

ii. A few of the personnel even considered the kits unnecessary as it was more important that teachers prepare their own materials. One remarked that 'too much spoon-feeding would not encourage teachers to develop their own ideas'.

iii. There were also some comments about some teachers not cutting up the cards provided in the kits as they were 'too nice to be used'. One of the personnel emphasised that a kit should be a complete package. They should include items such as exercises for pupils, references for teachers and ideas to help teachers prepare their own materials.

iv. From the comments of respondents, it appears that alternative ways of providing teachers with ideas for preparing learning aids need to be employed. One possibility is through an exhibition displaying the ready made items or to include a session on their production during the in-service courses. This could achieve the same objective and at a much reduced cost. In addition, it would increase or after more variety in the training activities - a matter that also needs to be looked into, and will be discussed in the next section. Another possibility is for teachers to meet at regular intervals, formally or informally organised, to prepare their own materials so that they could exchange ideas and share their experiences. The importance of teacher interaction has been noted in Chapter 4 and will be further discussed in Chapter 9.

v. In rural schools, TESL teachers were more aware of the study kit than non-TESL teachers, although they did not always use the teachers' materials available to them by school. Most English teachers in the rural schools had been teaching English for a number of years. However, they knew far less of what teachers' materials were available than did the TESL-trained teacher who had been there even for less than a year.

vi. On the whole, all teachers felt that the materials were 'good', 'useful' or 'of help in reducing teachers' workload'.

8.2.2.4 What were the non-centrally produced pupils' materials?

In addition to these, there are now easily available materials in the market such as workbooks, worksheets, readers, educational toys and games and other learning aids that have been produced by commercial firms. As mentioned earlier, the centrally produced materials were to be supplemented by others which the teachers themselves prepared. The limit is constrained only by the creativity of the teacher, his time and energy and co-operation given by the school. Thus, one can expect variation in the variety, quantity and quality of materials in the classrooms. Details of these and the demands for the preparation of materials by the teachers are examined in the next chapter. The emphasis on teachers producing their own materials means that an even greater quantity and variety would be available to the pupils.

Materials that have not been approved by the Ministry, can only be bought with government funds when special approval is granted by the Ministry. However, there is no regulation to forbid purchases with the use of other funds such as donations from the Parents-Teachers-Association (PTA) or parents' own money. The production of materials specially geared to the KBSM has been taken up most enthusiastically by commercial firms. Some of them actively promote the sale of their product. In fact, in a few visits to the schools the researcher encountered sales representatives with their recent publications, including textbooks and workbooks for English language. There were schools which utilised contributions from the PTAs to acquire materials such as charts and overhead projectors in order to help reduce the teachers' workload. In addition, there were some schools that organised the purchasing of workbooks for pupils own use using parents' own money. The teachers and principals indicated that there were variations of sources to purchase these materials. In some cases, there were teachers themselves who used their own money to purchase items such as educational games and story books in order to increase the quantity and variety of materials for their own pupils.

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The gap between the advantaged and disadvantaged groups that already exist, will be made even harder to reduce; secondly, in the urban schools there appears to be growing dependence on materials, particularly the workbooks (which were not provide by the Ministry). Such dependence is contrary to the belief of the KBSM on the importance of teachers producing their own materials that are geared to the specific needs of their pupils. Dependence on the workbook could make teaching and learning activities similar to those in the former curriculum, the difference being the material now is the workbook rather than the textbook; and thirdly, where funds permit schools are likely to purchase these materials as they help reduce the teachers' workload. The purchasing or utilisation of the commercially produced materials appears to be largely determined by financial situation. Some comments from the respondents raised three issues as follows: Firstly, variations in the variety, quantity and quality of the materials will occur in accordance with the financial standing of the schools or the parents.

For the KBSM, which emphasised variety of activities and materials suited to the varied needs of pupils, such contribution should be welcomed. Yet, to allow the situation to continue could in fact widen the gap between the advantaged and disadvantaged groups, and lead to dependency on the workbook as anticipated. This is a real dilemma with no easy solution. Commercial firms, no doubt, are spurred by the profit motive, but they have greatly expanded the quantity and range of learning materials.

8.3 Teacher training

The changes in syllabi and the new emphasis in English language curriculum at the lower and secondary level has necessitated changes in the training and retraining of English language teachers, both at the pre-service and in-service levels. With these changes have come new needs for the English language teachers which should be assessed in order to help develop a programme for training an effective English language teacher.

Professional preparation and professional development of the teacher usually begins with his initial training. New teachers who have received training at the colleges are expected to be familiar with whatever new programmes that are being introduced into schools. In-service training is aimed at improving the competency of the teacher: for increasing and up-dating his stock of knowledge, for acquiring more effective and more varied skills for the tasks of teaching, and for developing positive attitudes in order to perform his tasks better (Thompson, 1982).

Teachers' centres and teachers' group are often regarded as a measure to disseminate curriculum change, to foster curriculum development at the local level, or for the professional development of teachers (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1976).

The researcher also asked the Form 1 English teachers and the personnel for their views on the extent to which the course had helped in the teaching of English language. Principals and teachers not teaching Form 1 were not specifically asked for their views on the matter, but some of them offered comments. The teachers' responses regarding the usefulness of the 1988 course by location, media and type of schools are shown in Figures 8.13, 8.14 and 8.15, respectively. On the whole, the

course was found to be useful by the teachers (Appendix 19 - Tables 19.15, 19.16, 19.17).

Figure 8.13: Percentage distribution of respondents based on in-service courses by location.

Understanding the aims and principles — $x^2 = 0.84$ NS

Teaching techniques — $x^2 = 2.08$ NS

Audio-visual aids — $x^2 = 2.79$ NS

Classroom management — $x^2 = 2.99$ NS

Note:
■ Rural
▨ Urban

1 = very useful
2 = useful
3 = somewhat useful
4 = partly useful
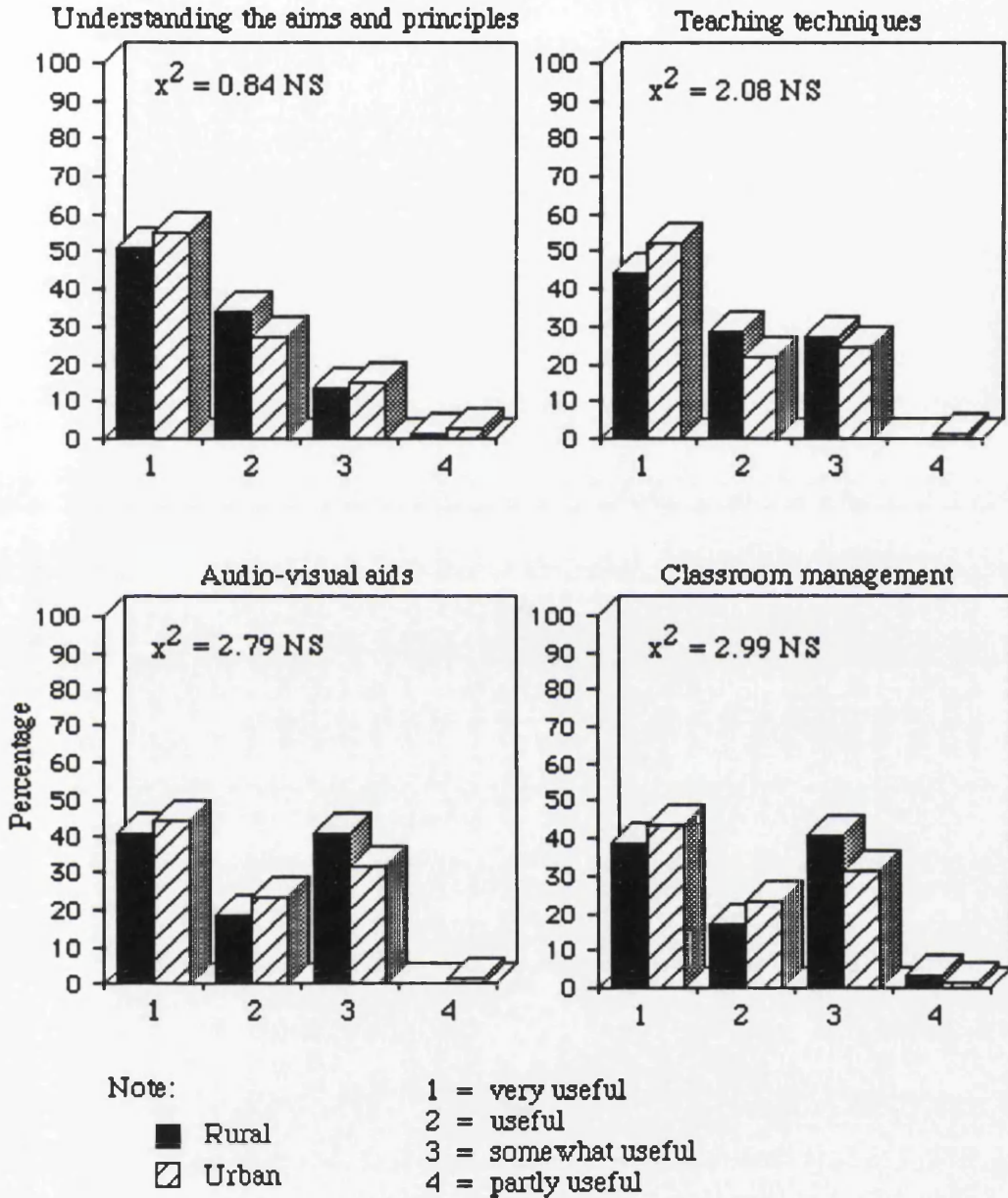
8.3.1 Were teachers and personnel prepared for implementing the curriculum?

It has already been emphasised that the preparation of teachers is essential in order to ensure the effective implementation of a new curriculum. Teachers need to be clear

Figure 8.14: Percentage distribution of respondents based on in-service courses by medium.

Understanding the aims, principles

Teaching techniques

Audio-visual aids

Classroom management

Note:

■ Bahasa Malaysia medium
▨ English medium
🖯 Chinese medium

1 = very useful
2 = useful
3 = somewhat useful
4 = partly useful
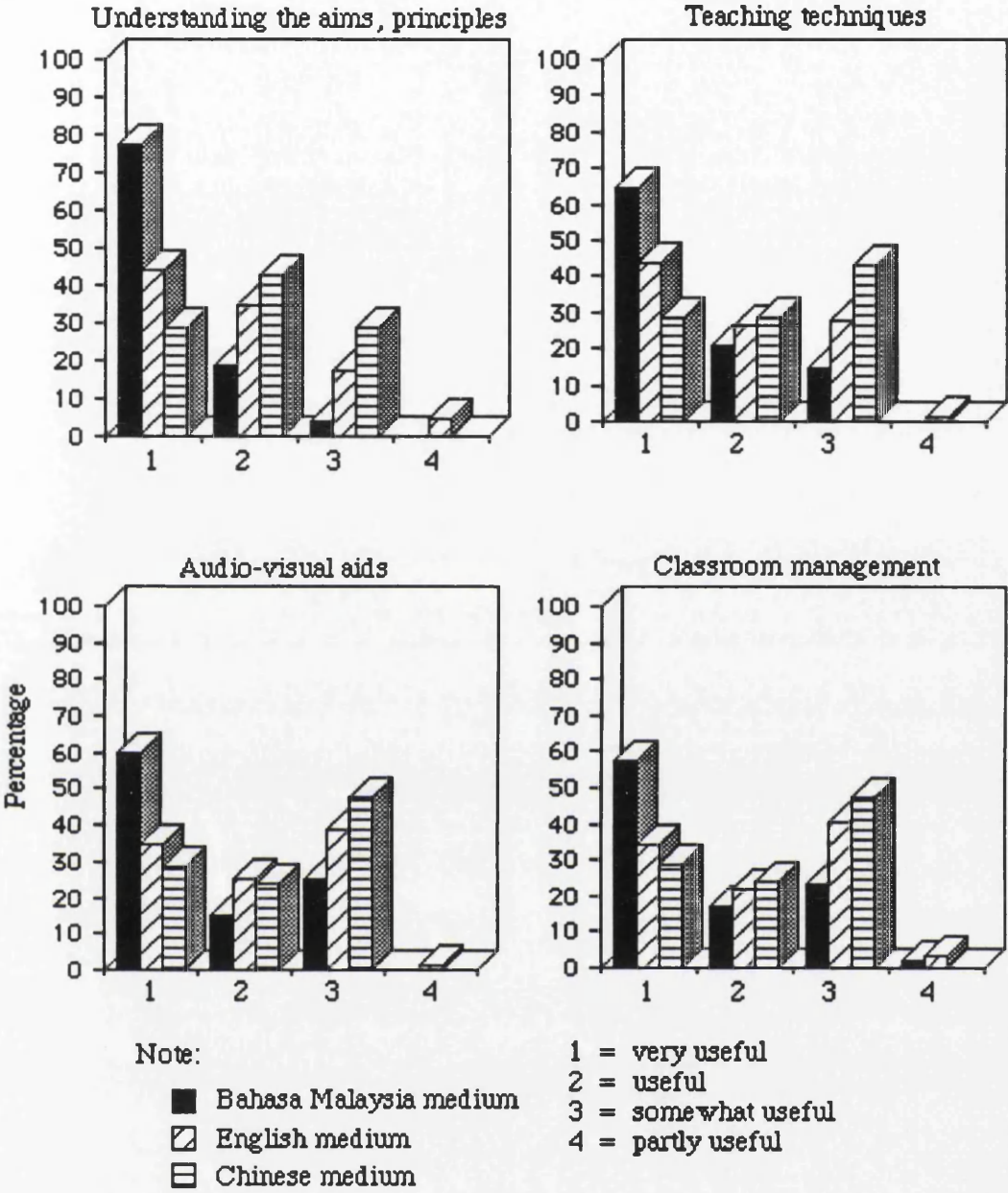
about all aspects of the curriculum and develop new teaching skills before they can translate the intentions into meaningful learning activities for the pupils. Principals and others whose job is to support teachers, also need to be prepared; for they too need to have a thorough understanding of the curriculum. As discussed in Chapter 4, in both the industrialised and developing countries, courses are usually conducted to familiarise teachers with new programmes. And, in Chapter 5 it has been shown that

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Figure 8.15: Percentage distribution of respondents based on in-service courses
by type of school.

Understanding aims and principles
$x^2 = 8.43$ *

Teaching techniques
$x^2 = 10.10$ *

Audio-visual aids
$x^2 = 13.27$ *

Classroom Management
$x^2 = 13.52$ **

Percentage

Note:
■ Daily school
▨ Residential school

1 = very useful
2 = useful
3 = somewhat useful
4 = not useful
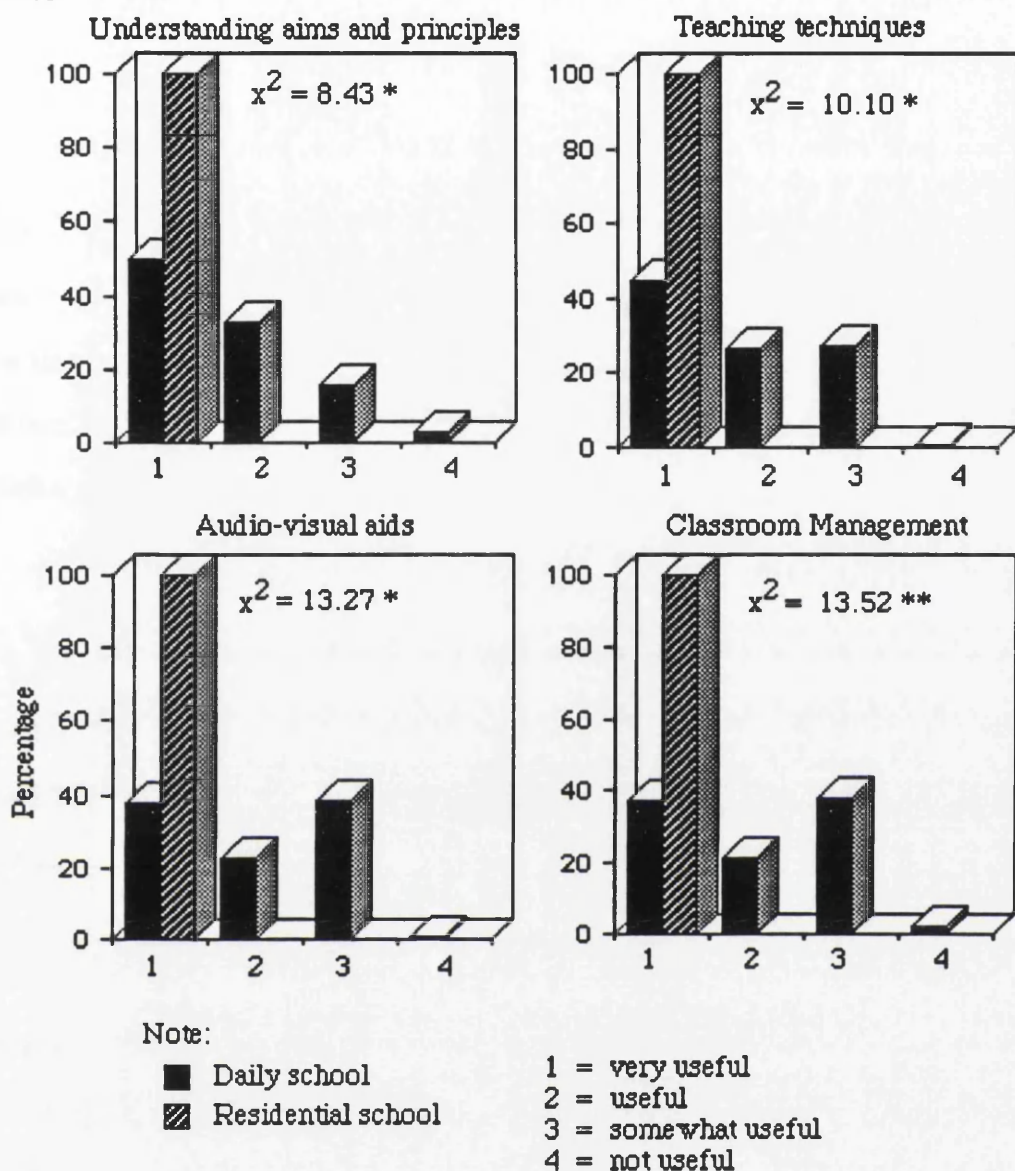
in-service courses have become an integral part of the curriculum change process in
Malaysia.

For the introduction of the KBSM the plan was to provide training for every teacher
who would be teaching the new curriculum. As the KBSM incorporates the entire
curriculum, it means that every school teacher in the country will eventually receive
training. To facilitate the organisation of the training, the teachers were classified into

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training. To facilitate the organisation of the training, the teachers were classified into three groups: the Bahasa Malaysia, English, Living Skills, Science and Islamic Religious Education teachers. For all groups, the cascade strategy of training was to be used, the KPs to become trainers for teachers at the state or district levels. There were variations in the actual conduct of the courses for the different groups. In this thesis reference is made only to the training of the English language teachers. There was also some provision for the training of the principals. And there was emphasis on the need for staff at all levels in the education system and the student teachers to be familiar with the KBSM.

8.3.2   How were the Key Personnel (KPs) trained?

The KPs were selected from among the more experienced and capable secondary English teachers. There were also additional criteria specific to each subject. In the four states, where possible, KPs for English language were chosen from those who had previously been KPs for the subject and had attended specialist language courses. The number for each state was determined by the number of schools and the geographical size of the states, as well as the capacity of the central agency for providing the training. In some cases, as we shall see in the case of the northern states of the Peninsula, that the capacity was far below the actual needs of the states. Training of the KPs was the responsibility of the Curriculum Development Centre, with assistance from the other divisions in the Ministry. The KPs for different subjects were selected by the state departments. The KPs were to play the role of trainers and were chosen from different districts. For this reason the first KP course in 1988 was held for 7 days, in order to provide them with a thorough exposure to the various components of the KBSM as a whole and for the Form 1 programme in particular. Subsequent courses in 1989 and 1990,

to familiarise them with the programmes for Form 2 and Form 3 respectively, were held for 5 days only.

In 1988 there were 400 KPs in all subjects in the KBSM for the states in Peninsular Malaysia, 130 for Sabah and 122 for Sarawak (Ministry of Education, 1988c). Due to the large number of participants, the course was conducted 4 times between April and June, twice in Kuala Lumpur and once each in Sabah and Sarawak. The topics covered during the course, the duration and methods of presentation are shown in Table 8.18, with the objectives of the course were as follows:
- to explain the background, rationale, philosophy and aims of the KBSM;
- to explain the specifications of the curriculum and the new elements contained in it;
- to explain the teaching and learning strategy;
- to develop positive attitudes to the curriculum;
- to develop certain skills for implementation of the curriculum

(Ministry of Education, 1988b)

Table 8.18: Contents of the 1988 Key Personnel Course (Ministry of Education, 1988b).

Topic	Duration (hrs.)	Methods of presentation
1. The background, rationale, philosophy and aims of the KBSM	6	Lecture, question - and answer
2. Major concepts in the teaching techniques	8	Lecture, question - and answer
3. Use of audio visual aids	8	Workshop, practical sessions
4. Classroom management	8	Lecture, workshop, practical sessions
5. The management of training	6	Lecture, question - and answer
Total	36	

From the states of Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak a total of 28 English language KPs attended the central level course. This number was not adequate for training over 1000 teachers that were needed to teach English language at the Form 1 level. Twenty to thirty more KPs were required for each state, and they were trained in August at the state level for a duration of four days. The KPs who attended the

in August at the state level for a duration of four days. The KPs who attended the central level course performed as trainers. This two-stage training of the KPs is obviously unsatisfactory but pressure of time and the limited number of trainers at central level made the situation unavoidable.

Six of the seven KPs who attended the central level course were interviewed in this study. They were generally satisfied with it, although one of them remarked 'no training could be totally adequate'. However, an evaluation of the course by the KPs themselves showed that they would like further explanation on some of the key concepts of the KBSM such as remediation and enrichment and to be shown concrete examples of how to conduct the teaching and learning activities (Ministry of Education, 1988b). The central level course of 14 days was too short to enable KPs to understand fully the new ideas, concepts and approaches contained in the KBSM. It covered all the necessary topics, but 'coverage' does not necessarily guarantee through grasp of the ideas being conveyed. In this particular case, there were other weaknesses: the course was too short and the trainers were not thoroughly prepared for the task. As expected, comments from the KPs who attended this course confirms its inadequacy. As there were already shortcomings at the central level course, the quality of the state level course could not be expected to be high. Even in theory, the cascade strategy is likely to cause dilution of the message from one level to the next.

8.3.3 How were the teachers trained?

Training of the teachers by the KPs in each state was the responsibility of the State Education Department. The duration was usually for 10 days, and the course was to be conducted during the year before implementation of the particular form (Ministry of Education, 1988b). In each state the teachers were allocated to different centres in the various districts. Each centre had about thirty to forty participants. The course

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various districts. Each centre had about thirty to forty participants. The course duration was eight days in which 5 hours were allocated for the exposure of the KBSM as a whole and 26 hours for English language. By the end of December 1988 all teachers who were to teach Form 1 in 1989 have attended the training course. The personnel who indicated that the course has not been useful usually referred to 'teachers being confused' or 'not understand certain concepts'. There were remarks from the teachers that they have to discuss with other teachers before being able to grasp certain ideas, or to rely on their own ideas and experiences. The majority of the personnel felt that the course had been partly adequate and partly useful. The comments that were favourable to the course from both teachers and personnel tended to be brief such as 'it gave me more confidence to teach' from the teachers, and 'it can familiarise teachers with the overall programme' from the personnel.

Deficiencies in the performance of the KPs is not unexpected since training teachers required a different set of skills from those required in the classroom. Furthermore, as one of the personnel pointed out, the KPs got to know the KBSM just before the teachers, indicating that their experiences are also green in the new curriculum. As discussed in Chapter 5, the pre-implementation course has a role to play, but in no way can it equip the teacher with all that he needs to implement a new programme. In the case of the course for the KBSM, the training can only be an exposure of a theoretical nature. Neither KPs nor teachers had taught the new curriculum, and many of the teachers perhaps had not even seen it being taught.

The short course cannot be expected to enable teachers to master fully every aspect of the new curriculum or for changes in their attitudes and beliefs to occur. Nevertheless, it is important that it should be as effective as possible in those matters that it can reasonably be expected to perform. If effort is made to specify clearly the

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objectives of the course - of the things that can realistically be done within the constraints of the short course - then, perhaps more can actually be achieved. The cascade strategy was employed in order to make it possible to train a large number of teachers all at once, though it does not guarantee the quality of the training desired. The key role that teachers play in the implementation of innovation has been already emphasised in Chapter 5. And, for them to be able to perform their role effectively, the provision and quality of their professional preparation and professional development are crucial. The pre-implementation course therefore has to be viewed as part of the provision for the professional development of the teacher. Additional courses will be needed from time to time; guidance is required to help the teacher cope with the numerous problems that arise in his day-to-day work, particularly when he begins teaching the new programme; and the opportunity has to be provided to enable him to interact with other teachers and the KPs in order to exchange ideas and to gain greater clarification on various aspects of the curriculum. These aspects are further discussed in Chapter 9.

8.3.4 How were the student teachers trained?

With the introduction of the KBSR and KBSM, the programme had to be reviewed again to ensure that all the elements of the new curriculum were being incorporated. In addition, the lecturers had to be briefed about the changes. In 1981, the three-year programme pre-service teacher training programme was introduced. Prior to this the training was only for two years. This meant that the entire programme had just been revised. The immediate action taken was to give the lecturers an orientation on the KBSM. Between March and June 1988, a few officers from the Teacher Education Division who had earlier on received an orientation or been involved in planning the curriculum undertook the task. Where possible, lecturers from three colleges that were closest to one another were grouped together for a three-day briefing. The

duration was recognised as short but was considered intensive, and with the help of the materials, it was felt that the lecturers would be able to cope with their task (Ministry. of Education, 1988a).

There is considerable indication in the comments offered by some respondents in the study that the new teachers did not know enough about the KBSM. They emphasised the need for the student teachers to be thoroughly exposed to the curriculum, not just in the 'what' and the 'why', but also in the 'how'. Following the orientation each college had to plan its own activities so that student teachers graduating at the end of 1988 could teach the KBSM. However, by the middle of 1988, the training for the 1988-89 batch was half-way completed and the examinations would be based on the original programme. Consequently, the student teachers were given only a one-week exposure to the KBSM at the end of 1989 (Ministry of Education; Personal Communication,1991a). Such was the inertia of the system, one could not therefore expect the newly qualified teachers to be able to teach the new curriculum.

The lecturers themselves need to have sufficient experience with the curriculum, but it was felt that they had not been involved early enough to become competent in it, nor was there adequate consultation with the curriculum developers and inspectors, particularly in matters of teaching methodology. For certain syllabuses, such as Educational Foundation, no revision was necessary; while others such as Bahasa Malaysia, Mandarin and Tamil were revised. The task was completed by the end of 1989 and the revised syllabuses were distributed to the colleges early in 1990 (Ministry of Education, Personal communication, Teacher Education Division, 1991d). Student teachers graduating as from the end of 1990 could therefore be expected to teach the KBSM without further training. Long-term measures to improve

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the relevance of the pre-service training were being undertaken through the review and revision of the training programme. In fact, the programme already contained many elements of the KBSM.

8.3.5 How were the principals trained?

At the state level, the principals and senior assistants were given a three-day orientation in 1987. For most of the principals, a two-day orientation was conducted in 1988 at the four states. At the end of 1988 all principals were called for a one-day briefing specifically for the implementation of the new curriculum. The orientation for the principals and senior assistants (Deputy principals) was planned as part of the overall training programme for implementation of the KBSM. It was intended for 5 days, a duration considered adequate to expose them to the relevant aspects of the curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1988a). The tasks of the principals in the implementation of the KBSM are clearly stated in the General Guidebook which covers professional, administrative and public relations matters. As the professional leader, for example, the head is expected to provide the guidance and advice required by his teachers and to take the steps necessary to ensure the overall development of the pupils so that no aspect is over-or-under-emphasised. As an administrator, he has to ensure that the physical setting in the classroom follows the recommendations of the KBSM and the necessary teaching and learning materials are available and used effectively. The principal is also responsible for establishing good relationship with parents for the latter's involvement has effects on implementation of the curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1987b).

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The general feeling of the principals about the orientation was that it was inadequate to enable them to supervise their teachers properly. It was 'too short', 'too general' and 'was more concerned with administrative matters'. Many of them mentioned other means through which they had become familiar with the KBSM. These included discussion with other principals, asking for information from their own teachers, observing the teaching and learning in the classroom and information from the mass media. Appendix 13 shows that of the 67 principals in this study, two attended the orientation in 1987, 55 attended in 1988, 5 attended only the briefing in 1989, one was a KP, and four had received no formal exposure at all.

8.3.6   How were staff at the various levels trained?

There is recognition of the need for staff in the different agencies and at all levels in the education system to be exposed to the new curriculum, and some formal provision for this has also been made. However, such exposure cannot be expected truly to equip the staff with the depth of knowledge about the curriculum to enable them to become effective managers, administrators or advisers. Responsibility rests on each member of staff to seek understanding and clarification on the various components of the KBSM through further reading and discussion. At the level of the four states under study, the relevant staff at the state department received their training from courses in preparation for the KBSM implementation. Those at the district level attended the state level Key Personnel courses which were held every year. The exposure of staff at the central, state and district levels to the KBSM took in many forms. At the Ministry, three different types of orientation and training could be identified. The first was, subject specialists from the relevant divisions attended the training course held each

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year in preparation for the implementation. Secondly, special briefings lasting from half to one day were given by the Curriculum Development Centre at the end of 1988 to staff of the Inspectorate, the Teacher Education Division, the School Division and the Examination Syndicate. And, finally some divisions, conducted their own seminar or training. For example, in 1988 the major theme of the Inspectors' Annual Conference was the KBSM and in 1989 the inspectors had a five-day course on the KBSM.

CHAPTER 9

PROFESSIONAL SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS
AND MONITORING OF CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

9.1 Introduction

The preparation and support for implementation has involved the improvement of existing practices as well as the establishment of new infrastructure and procedures. These are outlined in the document for implementation, generally referred to as the 'Blueprint for Implementation' (Ministry of Education, 1988a).

For the implementation of a curriculum to be effective, the production and supply of materials and the preparation and support for teachers, have to be integrated. An effective machinery is necessary to undertake the planning and oversee the operations of these tasks. But we cannot fully understand the process and outcomes of change and its implications until teachers attempt to teach the curriculum in the varied contexts of each classroom. Problems which are not foreseen and outcomes which are not intended could occur. Hence, continuous close monitoring of the curriculum is necessary, as well as the flexibility and capacity to solve problems and to accommodate unintended outcomes. Equally important is the need to develop in each individual involved in the change process the feeling of partnership and the shared endeavour, and the need for continuous improvement.

9.2 What professional support was provided for teachers?

The professional support that has been available to teachers is largely in the form of advice and guidance in the classroom. It is on-the job, while teaching the new curriculum, that real problems are likely to be faced by the teachers. For the KBSM, the 'Blueprint for Implementation' clearly states that the training given to teachers as preparation for teaching the KBSM, no matter how comprehensive and useful, needs to be followed-up with guidance and other professional support. The topic 'guidance'

cropped up many times at meetings of the KBSM Implementation and Technical Committees in 1988 and 1989. In a workshop attended by the state KBSM officers and representatives from the Ministry in May 1989 (KBSM News,1988), provision was made for the exchange of ideas on this matter. The members defined guidance as a process of giving information...regarding the what and how of implementing the curriculum after the problem or weakness has been identified. Such guidance has to be consistent, whether given immediately or afterwards, so that it would lead to the same type of implementation.. Thus the professional support is needed by the teachers to help them solve their day-to-day problems, to gain greater clarity about the curriculum and to become more competent with the new teaching skills. The support that has been made available to teachers is largely in the form of advice and guidance in the classroom.

9.3   How was the guidance for teachers provided?

The number of inspectors is inadequate to cope with the needs of teachers throughout the country. In line with the emphasis of sharing responsibility for implementation, the state education departments were also made responsible for providing guidance to their teachers. One of the major functions of the Inspectorate Division in the Ministry is to advise teachers on matters pertaining to teaching and learning. This is done every time an inspector visits a school and after having directly observed the teaching in the classroom.

The Key Personnel for English subject, who were released from their teaching duties for two days a week, provided the greater part of the advice to teachers. They were expected to visit each school at least once a month, but to confine their advice to teachers on teaching and learning matters at the classroom level. An integral part of the functions of staff at the state and district levels is to visit schools for administrative and professional purposes. There are many schools to be visited by inspectors, state and district staffs in each state.

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In northern states, there were 39 KPs in 1989/90 and 44 KPs in 1991 to assist teachers for English language in the 381 secondary schools in the 16 districts. Their distribution according to subjects is shown in Table 9.1. The number of KPs allocated to the different subjects seem to correspond with the emphasis of the curriculum. For instance, Bahasa Malaysia and English language are compulsory subjects, whereas Chinese and Tamil Language (not compulsory subjects) have only 12 KPs.

Table 9.1: KPs for the states of Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak for 1989, 1990 and 1991.

Subject	Number of Key Personnel		
	1989	1990	1991
1. Bahasa Malaysia	16	18	20
2. English Language	13	13	15
3. Chinese Language	6	6	6
4. Tamil Language	4	3	3
Total	39	39	44

Source: The four States Education Office, 1991

The number of visits in 1989 and 1990 by the KPs and others for guidance purposes, received by the 10 schools (where the classroom observations were conducted) are shown in Appendix 20 (Tables 20.2 and 20.3). There is a decrease of about 15.0% in the total number of visits between 1989 and 1990 for both rural and urban schools. However, there was no significant difference for visits between 1989 and 1990 for rural ($x^2 = 1.21$ NS) and urban ($x^2 = 0.95$ NS).

There are variations in the number of visits a school received, for instance, School 2 in rural areas received only 2 visits in 1989, in contrast to 8 visits received by some others. On the other hand, in the urban schools, there was not much difference in the number of visits between 1989 and 1990. However, there was no significant difference between visits in 1989 and 1990 in both rural and urban schools.

Each visit by the KP included direct classroom observation (where possible), looking through the teachers' record book and materials in the classroom, and discussion with

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Each visit by the KP included direct classroom observation (where possible), looking through the teachers' record book and materials in the classroom, and discussion with him as to what could be further improved. Before leaving school, the KP would write a report of his observations and suggestions in the KP Report Book. This was meant for use by the principal as a basis for discussions with the teacher concerned, with all the KBSM teachers, or with the School KBSM Committee in order to make the necessary improvements. The KP would also send a report to the district office. In cases where performance was considered unsatisfactory, staff from the district office would then make a visit to the school.

9.4 How far did the guidance meet the requirement of the teachers?

The personnel were also asked for their views on the adequacy and usefulness of the advice given to teachers. All groups of teachers not teaching KBSM and many principals offered comments on the topic. The researcher has grouped the information and views from respondents under four aspects: quality of advice, frequency of visits, the advice received and the KP system. In this study the Form 1 English teachers were asked to indicate the frequency of visits they received for guidance/advice and to comment on the visits.

9.4.1 Quality of advice

There were also certain comments which showed that some of the teachers did not value the advice they received. They felt that visitors ought to examine the overall teaching and learning environment before making comments, or that the teachers themselves knew better than the visitors in terms of what to do in the classroom. Most of the teachers gave favourable comments such as 'received constructive criticisms' or 'been shown examples'. The less favourable ones are such as 'visitors only make comments but do not give examples' or 'the comments were on trivial matters', particularly during interviews, tended to be followed by further explanations.

Among the personnel, the somewhat predictable feeling was that the advice given to teachers 'had been of help', although many recognised that 'it could be improved'. Five of the KPs interviewed felt that teachers were generally appreciative of the advice given to them, and one remarked that some teachers did not seem to value it.

9.4.2. Frequency of visits

The responses from the questionnaires of the Form 1 English teachers regarding the frequency of visits are shown in Table 9.4. Most of the Form 1 English teachers taught English and one or two other subjects.. Some of these teachers taught both English and Bahasa Malaysia. Since these two were the KBSM core subjects, therefore the teachers were visited by a number of KPs in addition to the one or two inspectors

Table 9.4: Frequency of visits by the personnel for guidance as indicated by the Form 1 English teachers.

	Year		
	1989	1990	1991
Very frequent	24.8 (32)	9.3 (12)	3.8 (5)
Frequent	59,7 (77)	38.0 (49)	7.5 910)
Not frequent	9.3 (12)	41.0 (53)	73.0 (97)
None	6.2 (8)	11.7 (15)	15.7 (21)
	$x^2 = 106.40$ **		

The visits refer to all that have been received, not just for Form 1 English Language; as teachers were unable to recall specifically who came and for what subjects, particularly for 1989.

and staff from the state department and district office. In 1989 some of them were even visited by more than one KP for a particular subject, particularly in the case of Bahasa Malaysia and English.

As shown in Table 9.4, the majority of teachers indicated that they had a number of visits in 1989 and 1990, but only a few indicated likewise for 1991. There is a significant decrease of about 35.0% in the total number of visits in rural schools. As a whole, the result showed that there is a significant difference in the total number of

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visits between 1989 and 1991 (x^2 = 106.40). The reduction in the number of visits was because of the need to concentrate assistance on the Form 2 and 3 teachers who were teaching the KBSM for the first time in 1990 and 1991, respectively.

The comments from the Form 1 English teachers regarding the frequency of visits varied greatly. On the one hand, there were teachers who felt that the visits 'should be more frequent', particularly for 1990. On the other hand some teachers considered the visits as 'too frequent'. And, in a few cases during the interviews, there were definite sighs and relief that the KPs were no longer coming to see them.

One hundred and twenty seven (95.5%) of the Form One Secondary English teachers responded to the open-ended questions regarding the frequency of visit. Out of those responded, 37 (29.1%) teachers indicated that the frequent of visit decreased. Eighteen (14.2%) teachers indicated that the they received constructive criticism, 41 (32.3%) teachers indicated that the KP system really help the teachers to solve their day-to-day work, 31 (24.4%) teachers indicated that the occurrence of inconsistencies of advice and 6 (4.5%) teachers did not respond to this open-ended question. Their responses are tabulated in Table 9.5. In summary, the general feeling among the personnel, seemed to be that the provision for guidance as given by the KPs, inspectors, and staff from the state department and district office, was adequate.

9.4.3 The advice received

Although there was general satisfaction with the frequency of visits, the same could not be said with regards to the consistency of advice received. The occurrence of

Table 9.5: Percentage distribution of responses based on teachers' comment on frequent of visit.

Comments	N	%
1.Received construct- ive criticisms	37	29.1
2.Too frequent visit	18	14.2
3.Solve teacher's day-to-day work	41	32.3
4.Inconsistency of advice received	31	24.4
5.No response	6	4.5
Total	133	100.0

inconsistencies, particularly in the early part of 1989 was mentioned by a large number of respondents. Such inconsistencies could come from the same KP at different visits, among the KPs themselves, or between the KPs and other visitors. During the interviews, some teachers gave examples, but others were unable to recall the exact details. Among the examples often quoted were the need to make two or three changes in the style for writing teaching plans for English language lessons. Most teachers in rural and urban areas quoted an example on the writing of the daily teaching plans: a KP suggested that explicit statements be written of the different activities for the weak and for the bright pupils, and in contrast an inspector remarked that such explicitness was undesirable.

Most of the Form 1 English teachers were troubled by these inconsistencies. One of them wrote 'Each visit makes me extremely unhappy because whatever I am shown differs from that of the last visit'. Others remark with despair that such conflicts of advice, 'make me even more confused', or ' I don't know what to do'. Teachers who are not teaching KBSM subjects commented that the KBSM teacher are being the 'victims of the system' and that such inconsistencies could lead to 'a decline in their interest and motivation'.

Some respondents, who realised these inconsistencies made attempts to rationalise them. For example, a principal remarked that 'As the KBSM was new, many aspects had not been finalised, and each group was only trying to do its best'. A member of

had not been finalised, and each group was only trying to do its best'. A member of staff from the state department explained that the situation could be attributed to a number of reasons: the various groups attended different course; the state level staff and the KPs were not provided with the opportunity to discuss professional matters; and in some subjects such as English language, a certain amount of subjectivity could be expected to prevail.

To avoid the problem it was agreed at a meeting of the KBSM Implementation Committee that each school was to provide a book where visitors must enter their names, dates of visits and the advice and suggestions they had made. Visitors were expected to refer to this book at the beginning of their visits in each school. This measure may provide some help but cannot guarantee a solution to the problem. Aside from visitors forgetting to write their reports or to consult others' reports before starting their advisory tasks, it is not really possible to document all details of the discussion between the adviser and the teacher. It is also interesting to note that one inspector dismissed the matter altogether saying that there is no such thing as conflicting advice if the teacher thinks and uses his discretion. A teaching approach is good or bad only with respect to the particular context. Teachers ought to welcome advice from any source, but he could use his discretion in putting anything into practice. The inconsistencies of advice appeared to have occurred throughout the country. For example, in a survey of views of teachers and principals from 100 secondary schools throughout the Peninsular Malaysia in August-November 1989, there were also complaints about this (Ministry of Education, 1990a). Similarly, a survey by the National Union of the Teaching Profession in July 1989 (New Strait Times, 1989) conducted in 400 schools in the Peninsula Malaysia showed that teachers were confused because of 'conflicting instructions' from superiors. For example, some officials wanted them to integrate the four skills while the others preferred oral skill to be emphasised.

9.4.4 The Key Personnel System

Some of the KPs explained that teachers did need help as there might be items not well treated in the courses or guide books, and constant contacts with the KPs could help maintain interest so that they did not revert to former practices. In fact, many of the respondents, particularly among the principals and teachers not teaching the KBSM, considered the presence of the KPs itself as an important factor contributing towards the high level of implementation that had been achieved With the exception of a few Form 1 English teachers, the respondents in this study were of the opinion that the deployment of KPs to provide guidance to teachers was definitely a positive measure towards ensuring an effective implementation of the KBSM. .

However, comments and suggestions expressed by respondents raised four issues of interest pertaining to the KP system. Firstly, the selection of the KPs should be from the experienced, capable and dedicated teachers. In this way teachers would acquire the maximum benefit from them, not only in the advice they give, but also in their being exemplary teachers whom others can look up to.

The second issue was the training for the KPs. It is essential that the KPs be adequately trained. They need to have an overall view of the curriculum, a thorough understanding of their subjects and the necessary interpersonal skills. In this way, it is possible for them to have ideas and feel confident in making suggestions even in matters not specified in the guide books and be able to communicate to the teachers effectively.

The third issue of interest was the KPs' role and relationship. The KPs do not have authority like the inspectors or the district office staff and they are subordinate to the principals in the organisational hierarchy. Their task is confined to advising teachers on teaching and learning matters at the classroom level. Their role therefore is of a

9.5 What were the other forms of professional support provided for teachers?

In the 8 districts visited by the researcher, there have been attempts to develop a resource centre which would function as a centre for collecting and disseminating ideas pertaining to the implementation of the KBSM, as a place where teachers could come to exchange ideas and experiences, and make teaching and learning aids. Each centre has been equipped with some essential equipments such as duplicating machines, paper cutters and typewriters. These centres have only recently been established and therefore could not be expected to function at their optimum. However, the comments from a district staff showed concern that teachers did not come to the centre to make use of the facilities available.

In this study, there was no attempt to ascertain the impact of this radio programme. However, the researcher got the impression that they did not contribute very much in the teaching and learning activities in the classroom. Other forms of professional support have been attempted at different levels. At the central level, two 20-minute per week radio programmes for English language had been produced.

Another form of support was through the KBSM newsletter, which contained articles on events about the project and innovative teaching and learning practices that teachers had attempted. In the pre-testing of the questions for the Form 1 English teachers, an item on this was included; and it appeared that teachers generally were unaware of it. In any case, an 8-page publication for 2 or 3 times a year could possibly make some impact.

The four states' education departments have also created the posts of KPs for Educational Technology. This rose from the recognition of the value that could be derived from teachers producing their own learning aids. One of the KPs was allocated to George Town in Pulau Pinang, and 2 others have been assigned to assist the KBSM teachers.

However, the personnel felt that the principals are unable to perform their professional tasks in the implementation of the KBSM due to their poor exposure to the curriculum and lack of concrete guidelines for their role tasks. As a matter of fact, some of the principals themselves expressed the same view. However it is encouraging to note that the principals were seen by some of the personnel as beginning to show more interest in professional matters, indicating a healthy development. Despite the importance of professional support from KPs, inspectorates and staff from state education department, it seems clear that the central provision of a support system is likely to be through advice to teachers in schools. In this respect, the principals should play an important role for they are the most easily available source of advice to the teachers.

9.6 Comments on professional support for teachers

This section not only provides insights into the provision of professional support for teachers, but also raises 5 issues in the curriculum change process. The first issue was on the professional support provided to the teachers. This professional support should only be given if it enhances the teaching and learning process. In other words, it should be given only if it is congruent with the needs of the teachers. As for the resource centre, it is visited only if teachers are sure that there is something definite they can benefit from. The second issue is on the training of the personnel who in turn provide training to the teachers. These personnel need to know in depth the various components of the curriculum, to have the confidence to make suggestions, to be sensitive to the learning environment of the pupils, and to be able to communicate effectively. The third issue here is on the importance of the role of a principal as the administrative and professional leader for curriculum change at school level. At present, a principal in a school in Malaysia only plays the role of an administrator. This needs to be changed. For this change, he needs to be adequately prepared for it. Even though the government has sent them for training, the principal have not changed their attitudes. This change in attitude should also be extended to the others in the system -

towards recognition and acceptance of the essential contribution of the principal in providing professional support to teachers in their own school.

The fourth issue was inconsistencies in the advice given to teachers arise from the varied interpretations of the curriculum by the different groups and by each member in the group. An individual's understanding of the curriculum is determined by the exposure he received and his existing stock of knowledge and experiences. While inconsistencies cannot be totally avoided, their occurrence could be minimised through greater consultation such that a set of shared criteria exists. A guidance manual for the KPs could perhaps be produced. The final issue was the lack of emphasis on providing support to the Form 1 English teachers beyond 1990. This appears to lie on the assumption that the teachers no longer need help, for they already possess adequate knowledge and have developed the required skills. While the Form 1 programme has been generally well implemented, there is still room for improvement (this will be discussed in the next chapter). Teachers need time to acquire a depth of understanding of the curriculum and to be competent in the new teaching approaches and thus they do need continuous help. These issues together with suggestions and measures to be taken will be discussed in Chapter 10.

9.7 Was the administrative, financial and material support provided?

This section aims to highlight other aspects which are also important in the implementation of a new curriculum that have not been discussed above. The KBSM, a national project bringing a number of major changes in secondary education, is bound

to have many implications for administrative, financial and material support. Some of these have already been mentioned or implied in the early part of the text.

9.7.1 Teacher- class ratio

Teaching load for almost one fourth of the English teachers (Table 7.9) is less than 1000 minutes per week.. As a consequence of the decrease in teaching load of the KBSM teachers, the Ministry of Education is now facing a severe shortage of trained teachers (Utusan Malaysia, 1988). A measure taken to reduce teachers' workload in the preparation of teaching and learning aids was to increase the teacher-class ratio for the KBSM classes, from 1.2 to 1.5 teachers per class. This meant that the KBSM teachers would have a reduced teaching load and the extra free time could be used to prepare teaching aids. For the Form 1 teacher the maximum teaching load is 1000 minutes per week; replacing that of the non KBSM teaching load of 1200 minutes per week. The new ratio was effective from January 1988. Its implementation is progressive, parallel with the implementation of the KBSM. The change in the teacher-class ratio is a strong indication of the government's commitment to the curriculum, but it gives three serious implications: First, to implement the new ratio would mean an increase of 24% of the teaching force (if enrolment does not increase), hence, an increase of 24% in the salaries for the teachers, the latter comprising the largest component in the current costs for secondary education. Secondly, as already noted in Chapter 5, about 5.0% of the teachers in the secondary schools are untrained. To be able to supply schools with the required number of trained teachers, the training colleges will have to increase their intake, hence, increasing costs in initial training or 'holiday courses' for attachment (untrained) teachers. And finally, for the colleges to cope with the increased intake, new lecturers have to be employed or, existing lecturers have to undertake a heavier workload, hence affecting the quality of the training.

9.7.2 Funds

In 1988, M$ 45.5 million was allocated for the introduction of the new curriculum at Form 1 level (Fifth Malaysia Plan, 1986). All the funds required came solely from the government, with no involvement of financial assistance from any external agency. The two largest allocations were to the special funds for implementation and for the pupils' materials. For the KBSM special fund, there was an allocation of M$ 15 000.00 per school in the Peninsula Malaysia and M$ 20 000.00 per school in Sabah and Sarawak (due to higher costs and the large geographical size of the two states) each year to prepare for the introduction of the curriculum at each grade level. These funds were used to pay for the training of teachers, principals and senior assistants; teachers' materials, study kits, equipment and materials for use in schools; and travel costs for visiting schools. On the whole, the financial support has been generous, an indication of the government's commitment to the curriculum. The economic recession in 1988 had made it necessary for the expenditure to be reduced, but where possible the allocation for the KBSM was not affected. The Minister of Education (New Straits Times, 1988). gave an assurance that the government will not compromise on funds for the implementation of the KBSM despite the present economic slow down... We have put in so much thought, so much effort, so much of concern that we shall not be grudge spending money to ensure that our Integrated Secondary School Curriculum is successful. For the planning, development and implementation of the KBSM funds were needed for the following:
> i. planning and development activities such as seminars, workshops for writing materials and try-out of materials;
> ii. salaries for new staff at the state level and the increase in the number of teachers;
> iii. orientation and training of KPs, teachers, principals and senior assistants, college lecturers, inspectors and others;
> iv. materials and equipment for teachers and pupils; and
> v. travel costs for personnel visiting schools in order to monitor implementation and provide advice to teachers.

The allocation for pupils' materials would be for new textbooks and readers. For implementing the KBSM at the Form 1 level, M$ 20.5 million was spent, as against M$

2.9 million if the KBSM had not been introduced (Ministry of Education, 1991e). Textbooks and readers are supplied on the regular loan basis, i.e. once every 5 years, with about 10.0% replacement each year.

9.7.3 Equipment and materials in schools

In 1988, as preparation for the introduction of the Form 1 programme, the schools in the four states were supplied with the equipment and materials as listed in Table 9.6. In addition, between M$ 1500.00 and M$ 2000.00 was allocated to each school, the actual amount depending on the expected number of Form 1 classes for 1989. These funds were to enable the schools to purchase other materials which they considered necessary. Part of the special funds for implementation were for the purchase of equipment and materials for the schools. The equipment includes charts, blank tapes, manila cards, marker pens and duplicating paper required by teachers for the preparation of additional learning aids.

Table 9.6: Equipment and materials supplied to schoolsfor implementation of the Form 1 Programmes.

Equipment and materials	Quantity (for a school with one class of Form 1)
Manila cards	110 pieces
Lined cards	10 packets
Stencils	2 boxes
Duplicating paper	5 reams
Duplicating ink	2 tubes
Marker pens	2 boxes
Gum	2 bottles
Magnetic pieces	2 boxes
Rubber stamps	1 set
Wall pockets	1 set
Strawboards	5 pieces
Multi-purpose chips	2 boxes
Scissors	1 pairs
Pegboards	5
Magnetic board	1
Plastic mat	1
Sentence maker	1
Ruler	1
Stencil pen	1
Stencil plate	1

Notes: (1) Equipment and materials specifically for Bahasa Malaysia, Chinese and Tamil are excluded.
(2) The equipment and materials were supplied to schools at the end of 1988.
Source: The four state education departments, September 1991.

A majority of the schools had photocopy machines, almost 50% had a language laboratory and about 30% had a computer laboratory. In this study the researcher asked the Form 1 English teachers about the equipment and materials available in their schools for the preparation of learning aids. All schools had a library, cyclostyling machines and stencil cutter, though a few teachers complained of equipment being out of order. Teachers in rural schools unanimously felt that there was little support from the central agency or the state education department. They were given a free hand to use whatever materials they needed and whatever facilities the school had. Unlike the urban schools, where they received considerable support from School Division, and to a certain extent, from the district education office. On the whole, both rural teachers and principals were of the opinion that the financial assistance or the supply of materials had not been really adequate. One group of rural teachers not teaching the KBSM, for instance, mentioned that such a situation had led teachers to grumble, for 'while good work is expected, the necessary materials are not provided'. Another group remarked that the demands of the KBSM even had caused other activities in the school to be neglected. The teachers and principals were highly aware of the great amounts of materials needed for the preparation of learning aids in order to make the curriculum a success. For instance, one of the teachers remarked that 'Before, materials needed to be stencilled only once a month; now with the KBSM, stencilling has to be done nearly every day'.

As one principal explained in the case of his own school, 'It just isn't possible to expect parents to contribute simply because of their incomes are low where they are dependent solely on two rice harvests per year'. There was also a strong feeling that the rural schools were disadvantaged as they are solely dependent on government funding. Unlike the urban ones, there was little opportunity for them to acquire funds from other sources. The success of the KBSM was regarded by teachers and principals as highly dependent on financial assistance or an adequate supply of equipment and materials. Without this, it was feared that the KBSM would revert to

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practices as in the former curriculum. A few of Form 1 English teachers commented at great length on this matter, emphasising that when funds were available in the first year, teachers' interest and innovation increased and ideas developed. When there was no more funds in the second year, interest declined and frustration set in, because they have acquired lots of ideas on how to improve their teaching, but there was little that they could do.

Funds would be needed not only to replace those which would wear out rapidly through constant use, but also to provide teachers with the opportunity to prepare a large variety of suitable and interesting ones as their understanding and competency in the curriculum increase through experience. For the rural schools financial assistance from the parents cannot be relied upon, therefore, financial support from the government has to become available. In addition, PTAs in particular the urban schools also help to provide some teaching materials such as pupils' book and language laboratory While the government has spent millions of 'ringgit' on the new curriculum and will continue to do so in the years to come, it would appear on the whole, that it is the availability of the small sums of money in the school that determine the success of the KBSM. As will become evident in the following chapters, a great deal of the teaching and learning activities depended on the use of learning aids such as cards, charts or pictures. These aids were in fact considered to constitute a major factor in promoting better learning on the part of the pupils.

9.7.4 Was there public support for the curriculum?

An information leaflet containing question-and-answer on 23 salient features of the curriculum was published in 3 languages; i.e. Bahasa Malaysia, Chinese and Tamil. An 'Information Committee' was set up with membership consisting of representatives from the Ministry, Radio-Television Malaysia, National Films Malaysia and Department

of Information. Its task was to ensure that comprehensive and accurate information was disseminated to the public. In addition, the states education department, districts education office and schools were directed to play their own role in disseminating the information about the KBSM. The KBSM was made known to the public through the announcement by the Minister of Education on 2 December 1986. As mentioned in Chapter 5, the curriculum was generally received with full support from people from all walks of life. When the first year of implementation began in January 1989, the Ministry of Education took the following steps to inform the public about the KBSM.

The briefing incorporates progress reports as well as discussion of problems encountered in the implementation of the new curriculum. Press conferences were usually held after the briefing to enable the progress of the KBSM to be made known to the public. Briefing the Minister of Education on the progress of the KBSM has become a regular activity. The Curriculum Development Centre organised the briefings 3 times a year, where the deputy ministers and senior officials of the Ministry were also attended.

At the school level, meetings of the Parents Teachers Associations were utilised for briefing parents, speeches at Speech Days (where parents are invited to attend) usually included references to the KBSM. In addition, some schools had special programmes such as inviting parents to observe demonstrations of the KBSM activities. Various activities were undertaken by the above agencies at all levels to inform the public about the KBSM. In the four states, staff members of the district offices gave briefings at gatherings of the local community. A survey of public opinion conducted towards the middle of 1989 by the Prime Minister's Department on 8 502 people from all walks of life showed that 85.0% of them fully supported the KBSM, 5.0% wanted to see the effectiveness of the curriculum first; and only 10.0% of them reported not being fully informed about the curriculum (Berita Harian, 1989). What has emerged clearly from

the KBSM experience is that the public has shown a lot of interest and concern about what takes place in the school. Definite measures have been taken by the Ministry of Education to disseminate information about the KBSM.

9.8 How was the curriculum implementation monitored?

It is also necessary to know the extent to which the curriculum has been implemented and how much it has actually benefited the pupils. Therefore, monitoring and evaluation of the curriculum in the early part of the implementation stage is essential in order to identify any problems and weaknesses that may arise in implementing the curriculum. As emphasised in Chapter 3, we cannot totally predict the outcomes and implications of a new curriculum until it is taught in schools. Difficulties which were not anticipated might appear and therefore solutions have to be provided. The monitoring should be undertaken by agencies at all levels and the information to be channelled to the KBSM Implementation Committee. The latter would then direct the information to the relevant agencies for appropriate actions to be taken (Ministry of Education, 1988a).Monitoring is recognised as an essential element in the implementation of the KBSM. The 'Blueprint for Implementation' states that the KBSM needs to be monitored, to find out what is exactly happening in the classroom, and to identify the weaknesses in the curriculum which could not have been done before implementation.

The monitoring should be undertaken by agencies at all levels and the information to be channelled to the KBSM Implementation Committee. The latter would then direct the information to the relevant agencies for appropriate actions to be taken (Ministry of Education, 1988a). For monitoring the nation-wide implementation, a proposal was put forward by the Curriculum Development Centre to the KBSM Implementation Committee in January 1989. The paper states that the monitoring has two aims which constitute indicators of the degree of success of the KBSM. Firstly, to determine the degree of implementation, as judged from the utilisation and adequacy of the KBSM in

the school, with particular reference to administration, management and school facilities; supplies and utilisation of materials; and the teaching and learning practices in the classroom. Secondly, to find out the level of pupils' achievement, as ascertained from their performance, interests, attitudes and interaction in the classroom. The paper proposes that the Ministry be responsible for preparing the monitoring instruments, the district offices for collecting the data, and the state departments for compiling the data and submitting the reports to the Ministry for analysis. The samples would consist of 10.0% of schools in the country, all principals and KBSM teachers in the sample schools and 20.0% of the pupils in each of the KBSM classes in the same sample schools. The paper also suggests that a questionnaire be designed to find out the views of parents and the general public towards the KBSM. This task could possibly be undertaken by an agency outside the Ministry such university.

9.8.1 How was the monitoring conducted?

The agencies involved in monitoring the curriculum comprised the Inspectorate and the Curriculum Development Centre from the central level, the state departments and the district offices. Monitoring process took place in 1989 and all the reports were sent to the KBSM Implementation Committee in 1991. A new strategy for assessing pupils' achievement and for an overall evaluation of the KBSM project was also worked out, (will be examined in Chapter 10). A detailed description of the monitoring process is as follows.

9.8.2 The inspectorate

For each subject two aspects are to be examined; firstly, administration and organisation which incorporate matters relating to the time-table and plan of activities; and secondly, teaching and learning process which focuses on the content being taught and the practices in use (Ministry of Education, 1988c). In 1989, nearly 3000 schools were visited and over 5000 Form 1 teachers were observed by the inspectors. The

monitoring of the KBSM classes followed the guidelines for inspection of other classes as set out in the Inspector's Guide Book.

There were also detailed discussions on specific aspects of the curriculum during the inspectors' course on the KBSM in 1989. The English language group, for instance, deliberated on the approach in the teaching of the subject, preparation and utilisation of instructional materials and classroom problems (Ministry of Education, 1989a). In order for the inspection guides to be in line with the requirements of the KBSM, the Inspectors' Annual Conference in 1988 devoted a great deal of time on the strategies to be used in inspecting KBSM classes and other aspects of implementation.

The reports in connection with implementation of the KBSM were compiled twice a year. Two reports were produced: one, for the KBSM as a whole; and the other pertaining to individual subject. This is to ensure that the action needed would be taken. If the performance of the teachers were to be found unsatisfactory, the district or state personnel would make a follow-up visit to the schools so that remedial or necessary action could be taken. Each inspector's visit would include classroom observation, examination of teachers' record books and other teaching/learning materials, followed by discussions with teachers individually or in groups. A detailed report of each visit, including comments and recommendations for improvement (where necessary) were prepared and copies were sent to school, the district office and state department.

9.8.3 The Curriculum Development Centre

At the beginning of the school term of 1990, ten schools in the vicinity of the Centre were selected to become experimental schools. The aim was to obtain information regarding the teaching and learning practices, to try-out particular topics or teaching strategies and to ascertain the appropriateness of the materials supplied to the teachers.

Initially, each officer was asked to look into the implementation of specific subjects only. Such a practice was found to be unsatisfactory as certain aspects of the overall implementation could be missed out. Therefore it has then changed, with one officer, allocated to each school who responsibles for collecting information on all aspects of the KBSM. In January 1990, the Centre conducted a survey using questionnaires and interviews with principals and teachers in 79 schools and staff of the state departments in seven states in the Peninsula Malaysia. It was specifically to obtain information on problems areas such as supply of materials, views regarding KPs, remedial and enrichment activities and teachers' workload. Monitoring by the Centre took many forms. Within the first two weeks of the school year in 1989, a few schools in each state throughout the country were visited. Later in the year, implementation in some nearby schools and selected schools in two states in the Peninsula Malaysia were monitored.

9.8.4 State Education Department

The actual frequency of visits, by the staff depends on their workload at the office because of the heavy demands for organising courses, purchase and supply of materials and other administrative tasks. Pre-prepared forms were used for each visit, among others to look into matters at the school level (e.g.. the support by the principal) and at the classroom level (e.g.. the physical setting and learning activities). The staff from the Curriculum Section of the four states were responsible for monitoring the KBSM, and were expected to visit schools once fortnightly.

9.8.5 District Education Office

An adequate provision for monitoring the KBSM at the school and classroom levels has enabled a great deal of information to be accumulated. But the value of such information depends on the extent to which it can accurately portray the implementation

practices and highlights aspects that need to be further looked into. Such information can only be acquired if the right questions were asked and the right techniques were used. The pre-prepared form like the one used by the KPs, for instance, has the advantage of ensuring that all of them concentrate on the same issues, but it can prevent them from taking note of other aspects which may be of particular significance in certain classrooms. In fact, the number of items which are crucial in assessing the implementation of the KBSM (e.g.. do teachers truly understand the underlying ideas of the KBSM, or what are the patterns of teacher-pupil interaction) are not included in the form. And, the technique of assessing the degree of implementation with the use of rating scale will provide scores that are not easy to interprete for the purpose of planning measures for improvement.

The reports from the KPs and district staff were compiled and sent to the state department where a copy was sent to the KBSM Implementation Committee at the central level. The district education staff and KPs should visit schools as often as possible. Pre-prepared forms were used, focusing on matters such as how well the school KBSM Committee functioned and how much effort teachers had put in. These are grouped into five categories: i.e. administration, classroom organisation, management and teaching, teaching and learning aids and pupils evaluation. A number of specific items are listed for each category to be assessed using a 5-point rating scale from 'very satisfactory' to 'not satisfactory at all'.

9.9 Conclusion

There was considerable allocation of funds from the government for the various tasks of implementation. The actual preparation and support indicates that the main concern is to assist the teacher, who ultimately is the one responsible for transforming the aims

of the new curriculum into learning experiences for the pupils where large quantities and new types of materials were produced; in-service courses for teachers to familiarise themselves with the new curriculum were conducted; on-the-job professional support for teachers was provided; and the curriculum in the classroom was monitored and where feasible corrective measures were taken.

CHAPTER 10

IMPLEMENTATION OF KBSM AT THE SCHOOL LEVEL

10.1   Introduction

This study examines the various demands made on the teacher for implementing the new curriculum and the support available to him at the school level. The evidence is derived from interview responses of personnel at the central, state and district levels; interview and questionnaire responses from teachers and principals in the 67 secondary schools,as well as observations in 17 classrooms in the four states. This chapter examines the existing state of affairs of the KBSM in the classroom- how the programme has been translated into reality and the extent to which the various components of the curriculum are being put into practice. The KBSM English language programme represents the plan, prescription, intentions or instructional system. It is an idea or an ideal of what planners would like to see in the schools. Such an ideal, of course, does not often materialise, for as Parlett and Hamilton (1976) emphasize the instructional system may remain a shared idea, abstract model, slogan or shorthand, but it assumes a different form in every situation. Its constituent elements are emphasized or de-emphasised, expanded or truncated, as teachers, administrators interpret and re-interpret the instructional system for their particular setting.

10.2   Physical environment

The KBSM is expected to bring about a number of changes in the classroom. Much information of what actually occurs in the classroom is available in the monitoring reports made by the different agencies as discussed in Chapter 9. Thus, the content of the reports would have been reflected in the views of the personnel interviewed as most of them were involved in the monitoring programme. Additionally various aspects of the physical environment and the teaching and learning practices in the classroom are also discussed using information from the classroom observations

classroom are also discussed using information from the classroom observations conducted by the researcher herself as well as comments offered by the principals and teachers. The features are described in the following sections.

10.2.1   Seating arrangement

The pupils' desks were arranged side by side, in a small group, facing each other or in a row as shown in Figure 10.1. It was found that nearly all the classrooms have some form of side by side or group seating. Sitting side by side is the minimal classroom seating arrangement in accordance to the KBSM strategy. Classroom 3 and 6 in rural school had about 33% and in classroom 4 and 9 in urban schools had about 30% single row seating arrangement (Tables 10.1 and 10.2). The reasons for this being ignorance and unfamiliarity of the seating arrangement and also as a disciplinary measure.

Single row seating arrangement is least encouraged as it denotes segregation rather than interaction among pupils. It appears that teachers have begun to implement classroom arrangement such as side by side, group and face to face seating which is in accordance to the KBSM requirement. During group work, desks were arranged in small groups. Such a seating pattern facilitated working in small groups and enabled greater interaction among pupils; but it was apparently hard and unsuitable when pupils had to be looking at the teacher or the blackboard at the front; and the situation is worse when they had to copy from the blackboard.

10.2.2   Teaching and learning aids

In all the 17 classrooms a great quantity of teaching and learning aids were available. Most of these had been prepared by the teacher using manila cards and marker pens, pictures cut from old books, magazines or calenders. Tables 10.3 and 10.4 show a list of the different types of teaching and learning aids used for English language subject.

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Figure 10.1: Seating arrangement of a classrom where observation was made.

B

C

A

D

•	Pupil
☐	Pupils' desks
▤	Teacher's desks
▬	Blackboard
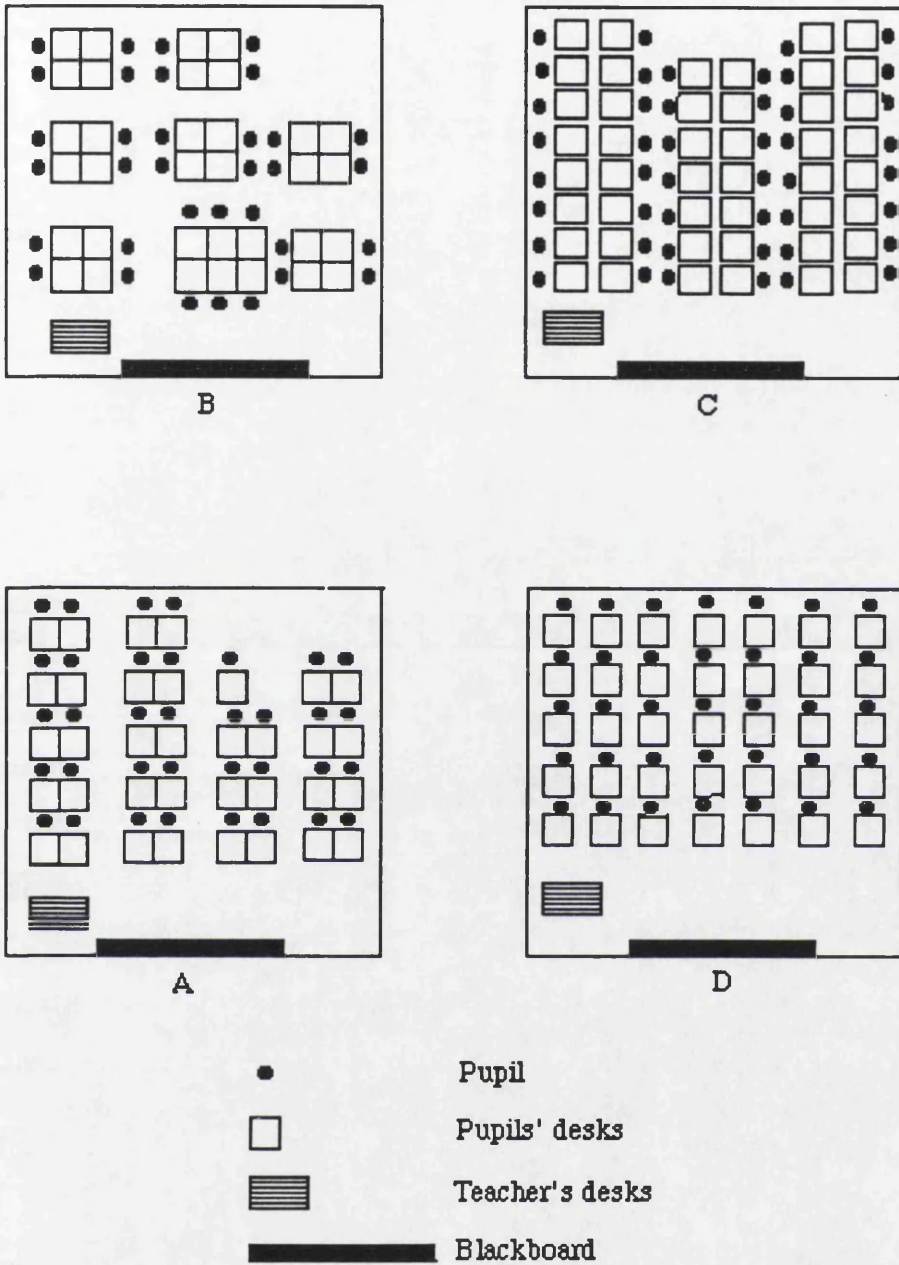
Most of them were not readily visible as they were kept in various storage facilities such as cupboards, shelves, racks, wall pockets, boxes and envelopes. These materials were placed mainly along the sides and back of the classroom. Audio-visual resource materials, such as radio, cassette, video and tape were kept in the principals' room or school office. Tables 10.5 and 10.6 show that teachers used

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Table 10.1: Mean time and percentage for seating positions of pupils during
English language lessons in rural schools.

Seating locations	Classroom							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %
Side by side	18 45.0	15 37.5	17 42.5	15 37.5	16 40.0	6 15.0	12 30.0	17 42.5
Group sitting	10 25.0	10 25.0	13 32.5	11 27.5	10 25.0	20 50.0	10 25.0	10 25.0
Facing each other	12 30.0	15 37.5	-	14 35.0	14 35.0	-	18 45.0	13 32.5
Single row	-	-	10 25.0	-	-	14 35.0	-	-
Total (minutes)	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40

Table 10.2: Mean time and percentage for seating positions of pupils during English language
lessons in urban schools.

Seating locations	Classroom								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min %	min. %	.min. %
Side by side	19 47.5	3 33.0	13 32.0	21 52.2	21 52.2	19 45.5	13 32.0	12 30.0	22 55.0
Group seating	21 37.5	27 25.0	13 31.5	6 14.0	5 10.5	13 31.5	12 29.0	10 25.0	5 12.3
Face to face			14 19.5	-	14 37.3	8 23.0	15 18.0	18 20.0	-
Single row				13 33.5					13 32.7
Total (minutes)	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40

audio visual during English class, especially in urban schools. Some classrooms
were very crowded; the teachers were not able to use the audio-visual equipments
easily. The pupils were also cramped together when they all had to work in groups.
In the classroom observation, it was found that most of the teaching aids were used.
For English language in particular, the most frequently used ones were cards or
charts containing syllables, words, and illustrations. Some of these were for
demonstrations

Table 10.3: Teaching and learning aids for English language in rural schools,(/) indicates availability.

Teaching and learning aids	Classroom (n = 8)							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Pictures	/		/	/	/	/	/	/
Newspapers	/	/			/	/	/	
Charts	/	/			/	/	/	
Radio cassette recorder	/		/				/	/
OHP			/		/	/		
Models		/		/				
Language games			/		/		/	/
Film projector	/							
Slide projector			/					
Video tapes						/		/

Table 10.4: Teaching and learning aids for English language in urban schools,(/) indicates availability.

Teaching and learning aids	Classroom (n = 9)								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Pictures	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
Newspapers	/	/				/			/
Charts		/	/		/			/	
Radio cassette recorder	/	/	/	/	/		/	/	/
OHP	/		/			/			/
Models		/	/		/				
Language games	/		/	/	/		/	/	
Film projector		/			/	/			
Slide projector	/	/		/	/			/	
Video tapes		/	/			/	/		

Table 10.5: Mean time and percentage of materials used during English language lessons in rural schools

Material used	Classroom							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %
Text	14 35.0	20 58.8	12 34.3	12 33.3	10 26.3	17 48.5	10 27.8	17 43.5
Audio	2 5.0	3 8.8	5 14.3	5 13.9	5 13.2	-	3 8.3	3 7.7
Visual	3 7.5	-	3 8.5	-	-	3 8.6	2 5.6	1 2.6
Total (minutes)*	19 47.5	23 67.6	20 57.1	17 47.2	15 39.5	20 57.1	15 41.7	21 53.8

Note: * The duration do not add up to 40 minutes because materials were not used at all times during instruction

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Table 10.6: Mean time and percentage of materials used during English language lessons in urban schools

Materials used	Classroom								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %
Text	12 34.2	16 40.2	11 27.5	10 27.7	9 23.1	20 22.5	19 52.7	15 42.8	18 45.0
Audio	5 14.3	-	4 10.0	1 2.8	10 25.6	5 14.7	6 16.7	1 2.9	1 2.5
Visual	1 2.5	3 7.5	1 2.5	1 2.8	3 7.7	1 2.9	1 2.8	3 8.6	5 12.5
Total (minutes)*	18 51.4	19 47.7	16 40.0	12 33.3	22 56.4	26 76.5	26 72.2	19 54.3	24 60.0

Note: * The duration do not add up to 40 minutes because materials were not used at all times during instruction

only, while others were actually used by the pupils. During the observations, there were a few instances when the teacher used a piece of display or referred to some information in the display while in the process of teaching. It is evidence that more than 60% of lessons observed in rural schools and 70% in urban schools (Figures 10.2, 10.3 and 10.4) had some form of teaching aids., thus indicating a positive development. Probably, this high percentage reflects teachers' efforts to make the lesson more interesting or to increase pupil participation or to make teaching and learning more effective.

As mentioned earlier one of the aims of this study was to ascertain what are the types of teaching aids available to teachers and frequency of using them. As illustrated in Figures 10.2, clearly the most frequently used by the teachers of the two localities was chalkboard. The most glaring lack of usage were models, videotape, radio, films, OHP and TV. Figure 10.2 shows that it is clear that rural schools used chalkboard more often than urban schools. Appendix 21 (Table 21.3) shows that, in terms of frequent of used

Figure 10.2: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teaching aids used by teachers by location.
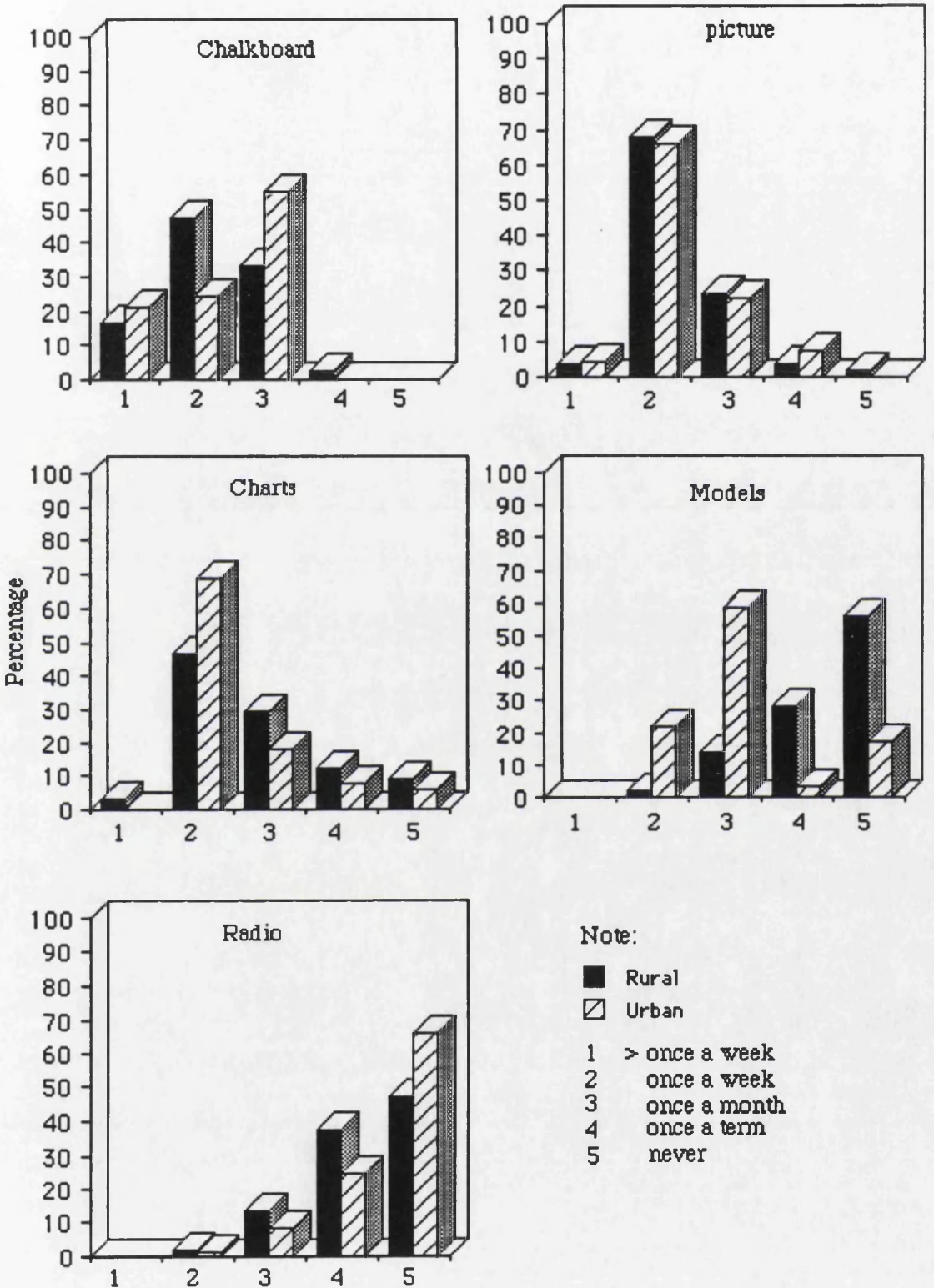
Figure 10.2 (Cont.)
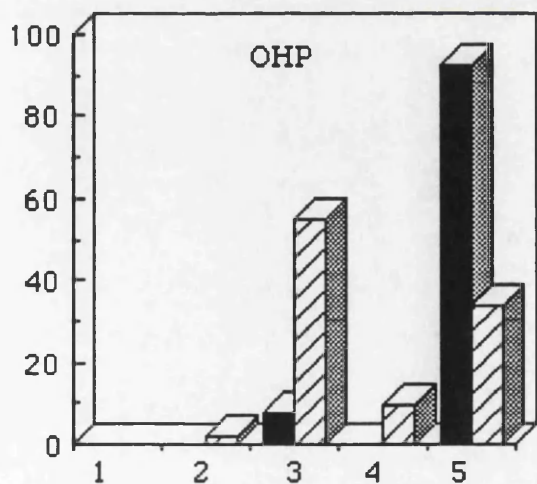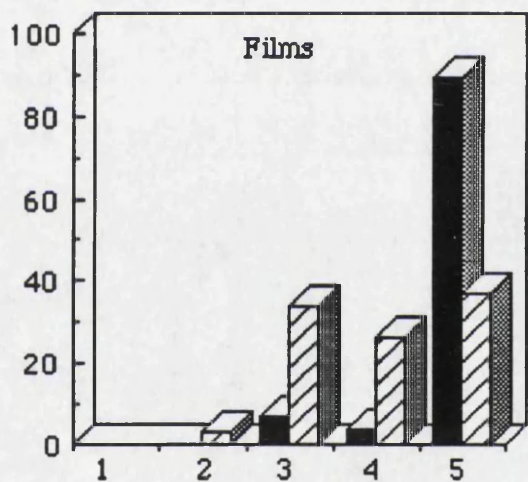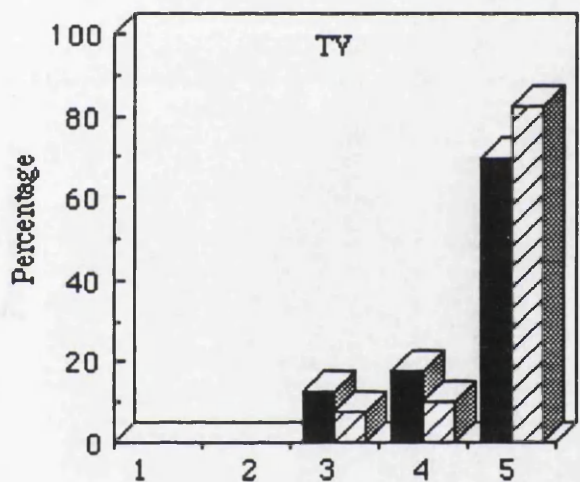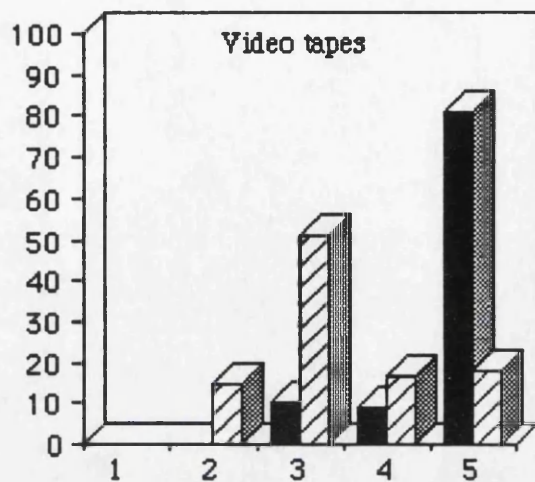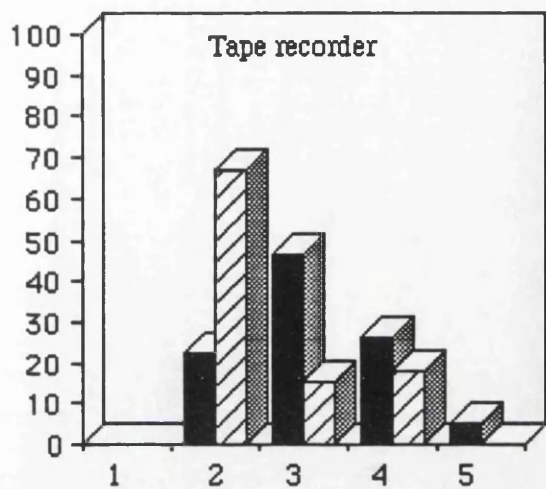
Figue 10.3: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teaching aids used by teachers by medium
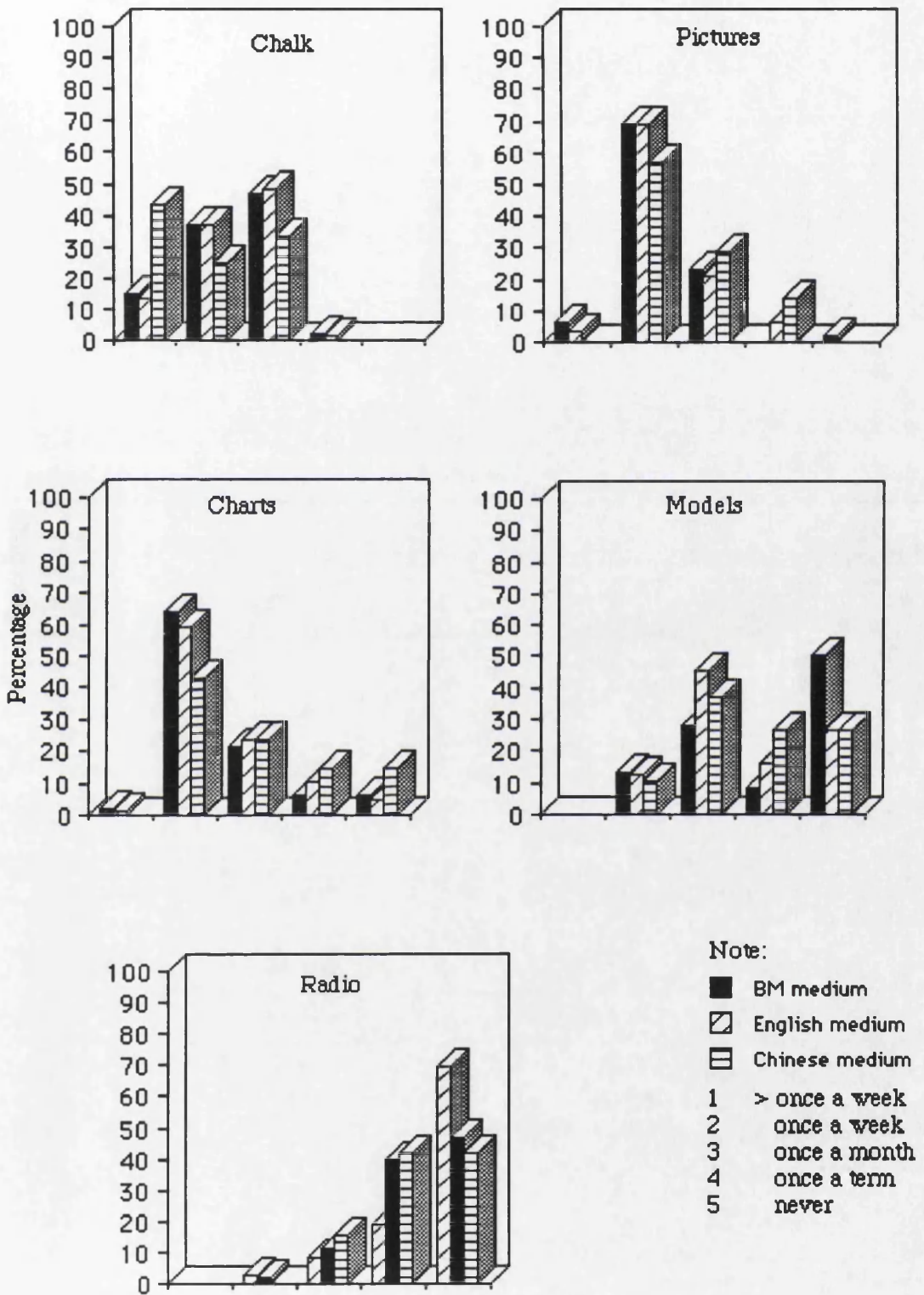
Figure 10.3 (Cont.)
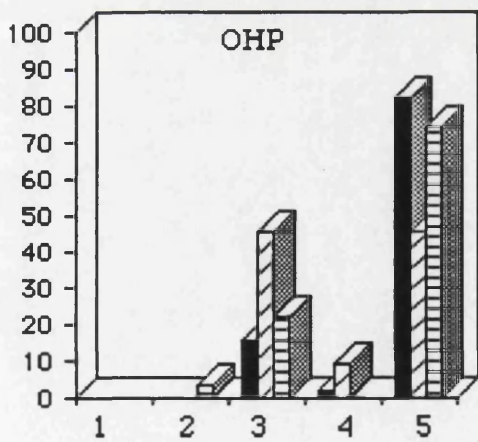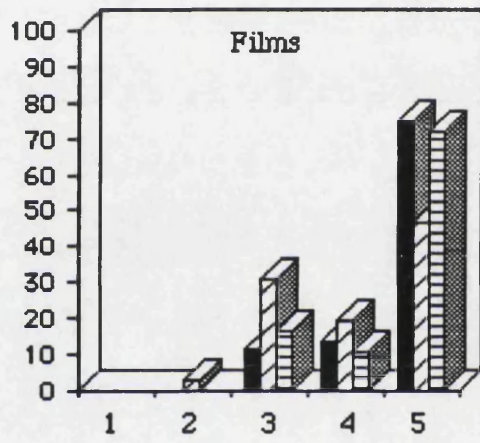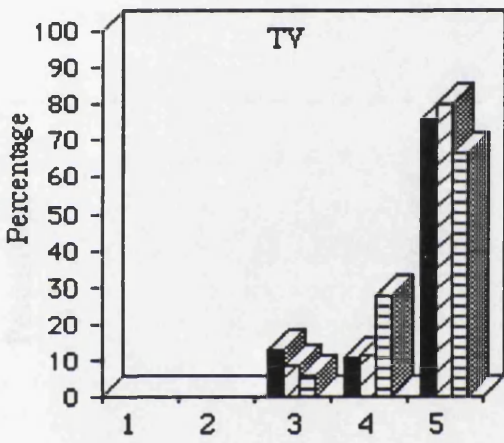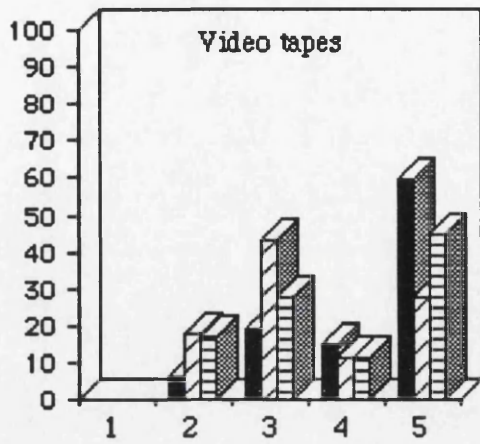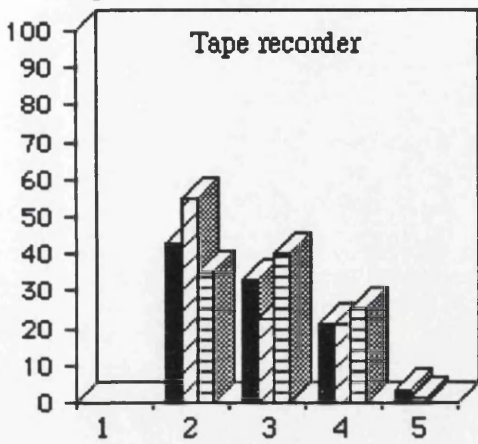
Figure 10.4: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teaching aids used by teachers by type of school (c.f. Table 10.5)..
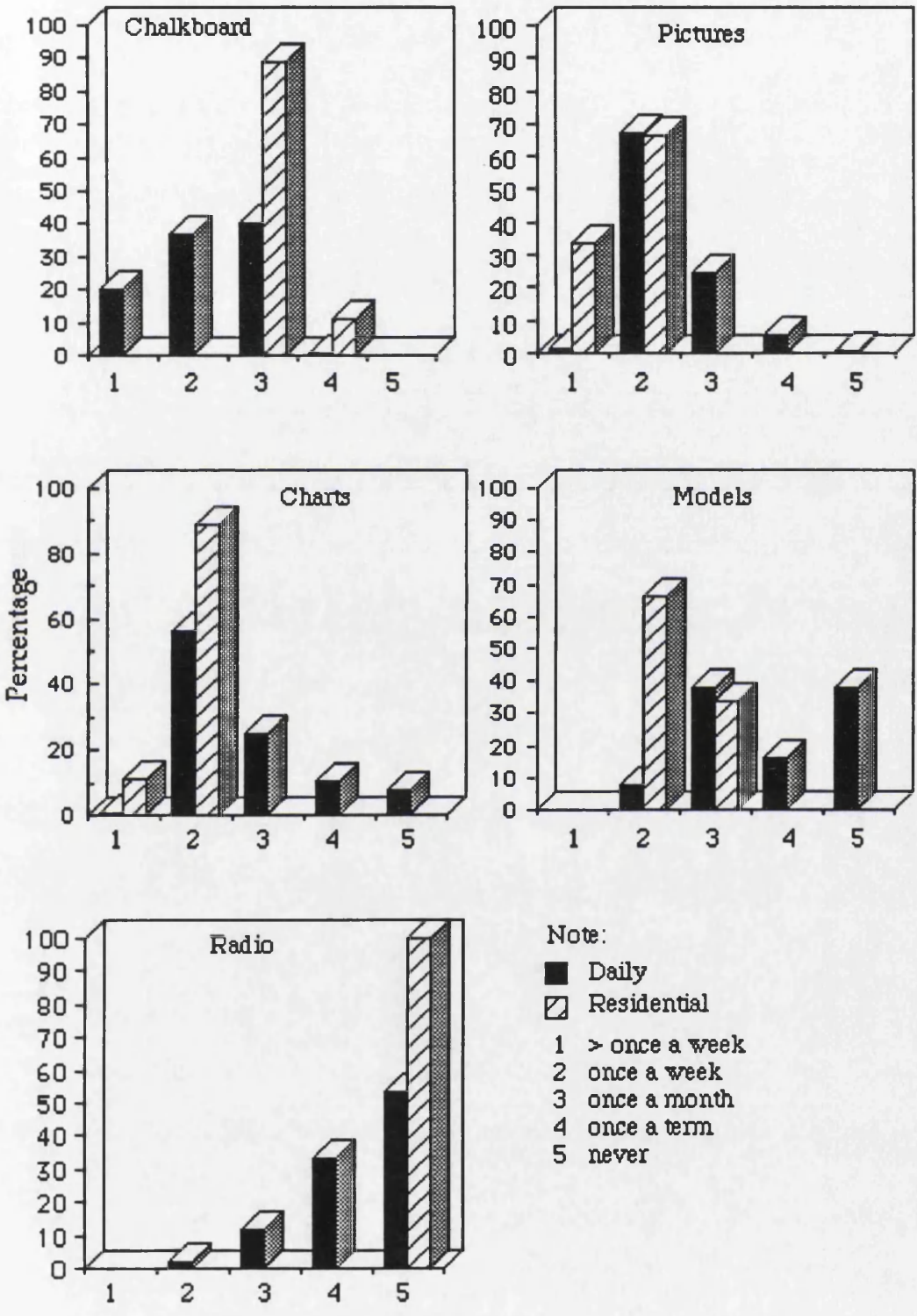
Figure 10.4 (Cont.)
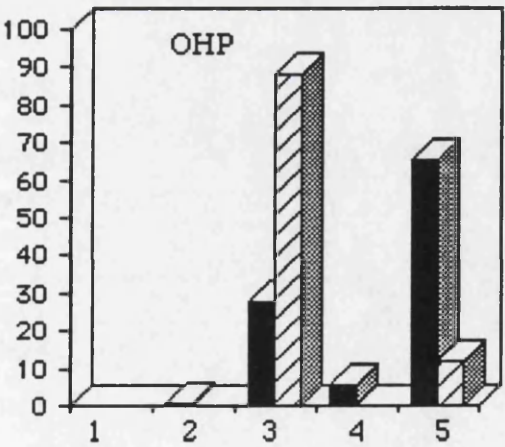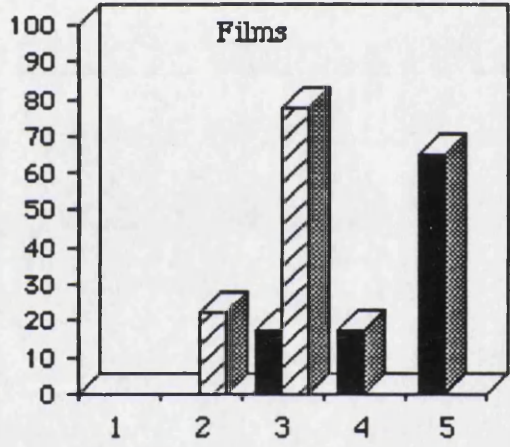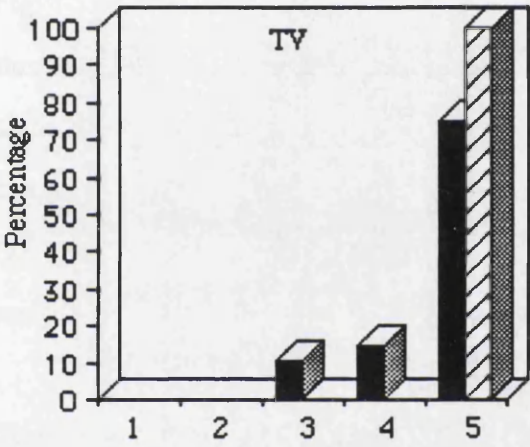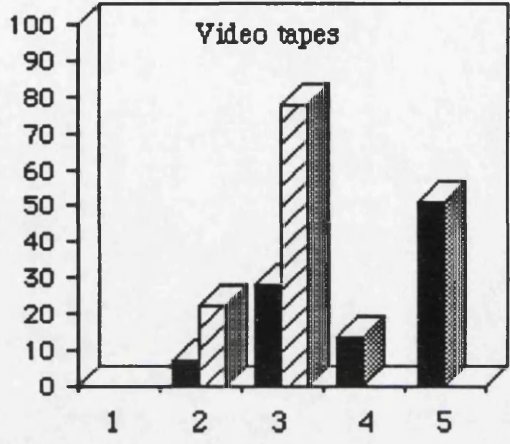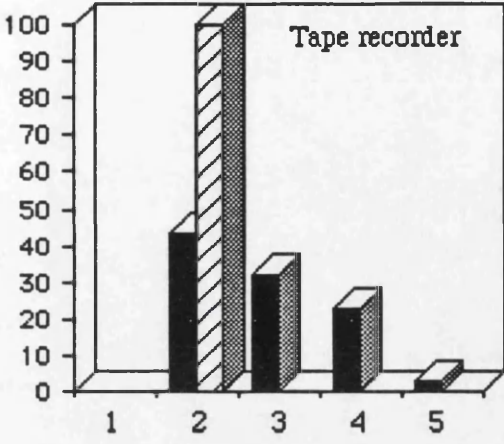
between these two localities it has shown very little difference (x^2 = 21.05 NS). Pictures were commonly used by teachers from two localities (x^2 = 20.19 NS). Charts were used once a week by almost 70% of urban schools, as against 47% of rural schools. This distinct difference was significant. Models, tapes recorder, videotapes, films and OHP were commonly used by teachers in urban, but not in rural schools. Generally, irrespective of locality, it can be said that radio and TV were not used as frequently as other teaching aids. The usage of these teaching aids by the two locality of schools are similar. There is hardly any significant difference between the two localities.

Figure 10.3 shows that the most frequently used teaching aids by the teachers of the three media was chalkboard. Appendix 21 (Table 21.4) shows that there were no significant differences between National, English and Mandarin schools in the use of chalkboard (x^2 = 12.47 NS), pictures (x^2 =13.33 NS), radio (x^2 =12.73 NS) and TV (x^2 = 6.54 NS). However, a significant difference was observed between the three media of schools in the use of tape recorder, video tapes, and films.

Similarly Figure 10.4 also clearly shows that the most frequently used teaching aids by the teachers in day schools was chalkboard. Pictures, charts, models, tape recorder, videotapes, films and OHP were the most frequently used by teachers in residential schools. There was a significant difference between the two types of schools. However, very little different for the usage of radio (x^2 = 8.95 NS) and TV (x^2 = 2.96 NS) between the two types of schools (Appendix 21 - Table 21.5).

Based on the evidence of the findings, it certainly seems that the conventional 'chalkboard and talk' approach is still the main mode employed by the teachers. Teachers appear to rely heavily on chalkboard. Hence, it is clear that the scenario of yesterday certainly has not changed but is still actively employed by the teachers

despite the fact that the new curriculum has been implemented which calls for new approaches in the teaching-learning process, giving emphasis to learners and not teachers. In the case of audio-visual materials, such as tape recorder, videotape and films the finding of this study indicated low utilisation, consistent with the general results reported by Federal Inspectorate of Schools (Ministry.of Education, 1989a).

Comments

From the questionnaire and interview, most of the teachers irrespective of locality commented on the following major deterrents perceived by the teachers to impede the use of resource materials: (i) lack of time to prepare and use of resource materials because of heavy teaching load; (ii) lack of clerical assistance and adequately trained personnel with sufficient time to manage the resource centre; (iii) classroom have no special provisions for the use of audio-visual aids; (iv) insufficient units of resource materials for use by the teachers; (v) difficulty in replacing repairing loss on damaged resource materials; (vi) no in-service training in the use of resource materials is provided for teachers; and (vii) lack of facilities for teachers to produce their own teaching aids. A change in the physical environment of the classroom is one of the major changes that has been brought about by the KBSM. It is obvious to a visitor walking along the corridor in a school, which is a KBSM class, and which is not. However, changes in the physical set-up are not difficult to implement; they do not necessarily imply that fundamental changes in teaching style have taken place; and once effected, they can remain unchanged throughout the year. In spite of this need and urge to use resource materials and also simplifications in the designs and operations of audio-visual devices such as tape recorders, projectors, films and OHP, the utilisation of the materials was not as extensive as expected. According to the comments made by the respondents low utilisation of learning and teaching aids is probably due to the following reasons: (i) lack of these materials; (ii) no special rooms to use them; (iii) lack of training; and (iv) not available or accessible when required. The other probable explanations could be that teachers are resistant to

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change or they lack of confidence and/or knowledge in operating the related hardware to use the supporting materials. To achieve this goal, a heavy dependence on the 'chalk and talk' and textbook centred teaching is obviously not the answer. It calls for active participatory teaching and learning experiences and the use of a varied assortment of resource materials. One teacher commented that, "The use of resource materials in the teaching and learning of KBSM is important because: it helps teachers achieve the objective of teaching and learning, the process of teaching and learning English is more interesting, it is able to attract the students' interest towards the subject, it diversifies the methods of teaching and learning, and on the whole, has more advantages to both pupils and teachers". Also one very senior teacher commented as follows: "Use of resource materials in the teaching and learning of Form 1 English is very important and must be encouraged. However, fortunately it was evident from the interview that the teachers are generally well aware of the importance of resource materials for effective teaching in KBSM. Another teacher commented as follows: "Compared to 'chalkboard and talk' method, use of resource materials enhances teaching effectiveness. However, a lot of time is required to finish teaching a particular unit of the syllabus. In addition, the lack of time was due to the preparation of mid-year and final-year examinations that prevents the frequent use of resource materials. The seriousness of these deterrents adversely affecting frequent use of resource materials is expressed in the comments of the teachers. The comments are presented verbatim. One respondent said: "The syllabus is too wide and there is time constraint. In the end, the main objective of the teacher is to complete the syllabus. As such, the use of resource materials become less important". It is also evident from this study that lack of time to prepare and use resource materials because of heavy teaching load was the greatest barrier perceived by the teachers. According to Rahman (1980) "In the Malaysian instance it is generally accepted that teachers have a heavy teaching load and would therefore find this a constraint to preparing for the use of educational media". Being weighed down by a

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heavy teaching load, teachers obviously perceived that they did not have the time to prepare and use resource materials. On top of that, teachers are also constantly burdened with administrative matters such as maintaining class registers, collecting school fees, processing book loan and numerous other school duties besides preparing for the coming lessons. Furthermore, teachers have also to wrestle with examination pressure and the pressure of completing the syllabus. Armed with such 'responsibilities', it is no wonder that teachers considered preparing materials for classroom use only an added burden, and that it is just too much to fit into an already crowded schedule.

In addition a senior teacher made the following statement: "Utilisation of resource materials is limited whereas time to prepare the materials is also very limited. This is because teachers are overburdened with numerous school duties. For instance: I, myself, am appointed to hold numerous positions in the school - the senior guidance and counciling teacher, club adviser, secretary of the school co-operative, under-15 football coach, school atheletic team manager and many others". The display used in the classrooms clearly enhanced the environment for learning. But greater benefits could be derived from the display if teachers are aware of the following factors such as:

i. Regular changes of the display, so that only materials relevant to the topic being taught are put up, and thus could increase pupils' interest. Pupils' lack of interest in the display was probably because it had been put up for a long time and they had become too familiar with it.

ii. There appeared to be little attempt to design the display as a learning resource. For instance, the addition of questions to accompany illustrations would provide pupils with something to think about or work on rather than only passively looking at them.

iii. The lack of proper storage facilities, for instance, charts, wall pictures caused some difficulty for the teacher in gathering the necessary learning aids for their lesson. It also caused unnecessary exposure, causing the materials to wear out, collect dust, or the colours to fade much too quickly. Nonetheless, the large variety and

quantity of learning aids which pupils themselves could handle is regarded by the personnel, principals and teachers in the study as one of the factors for the success of the programme. These involved a lot of financial assistance. After the third year of implementation and with the high rate of wear and tear, it would be extremely difficult to maintain the amplitude of supply as in the initial period. There was a feeling that teachers generally did not understand the proper role of these learning aids; i.e. that these were not fully utilised, used only once for a particular purpose, or merely displayed.

They also pointed out that a number of the materials were out of date or not relevant to the work being taught. Interviews with the personnel and Senior English Subject teachers showed that they were generally satisfied on the abundance of learning aids available in schools. But a few of them were not truly happy with the situation. After years of dependence on the textbooks and chalk-and-talk, they do need more guidance in the preparation of the appropriate aids as well as in the effective utilisation of them. Though the personnel expressed dissatisfaction, one must commend the teachers for their efforts in preparing the learning aids.
Such efforts have indicated teachers' interest and commitment as well as the ability to be creative. For teachers had misconceptions about the proper role of these aids, they are not necessarily to be blame.

10.3 Time - table

The times for starting the school day, recess and end of the school day were strictly adhered to and bells were rung. The bells were also rung to mark the end of each forty-minutes. Occasionally teachers extended the period for a few minutes into the recess time or at the end of the school day. In a few classes in urban schools, for instance, the teacher continued teaching the weak group for about 5 minutes during recess time or after school while the others have left. The time-table in all classes followed very strictly the time allocation specified by the new curriculum as discussed in Chapter 5. Generally each period is for forty minutes duration and for English language there were either single periods or double periods.

10.4 Grouping of pupils

The mixed-ability grouping, as envisaged by the planners of the KBSM, has definite advantages. Limited use of it means that there will be less opportunity for brighter pupils to help the weaker ones, and for developing the spirit of co-operation and harmony among all pupils as well as the leadership qualities among the brighter pupils. Furthermore, excessively long durations with pupils of their own ability level could have unfavourable effects - the weak ones might feel inferior, and the bright ones might become arrogant. So far, there was no comments from parents or the public on this matter. However, it is rather early to be certain of its outcomes, but the agencies responsible for the KBSM need to be on the alert for possible effects that might arise. Both the homogeneous ability grouping and the mixed-ability grouping were recommended in the KBSM. In the classes observed, only the former was used for English language lesson. In addition the comments from respondents also indicated that the homogeneous grouping was generally used. In some of the classes the pupils were grouped according to ability: the bright, the average and the weak. However, in some classes the pupils were not grouped according to any criteria. The

pupils formed their own groups, usually based on convenience i.e. the nearest friends. The teachers did not even refer to them as group A, B or C. Rather they were referred to as the group at the front or the back, or the one over here or over there. Such an attempt is to avoid labelling pupils by ability which is commendable even though it rarely deceives the children. As discussed in section 10.2.1 the majority of pupils' desks were arranged either in single rows or in paired rows (Figure 10.1). During English lesson the pupils would form their regular seating in small groups when group work is needed by teacher. In a few classrooms in rural schools, the weak pupils were further sub-divided where the groups in front row were weaker than those at the back.

However, the teachers had to make some changes from time to time in order to make all groups work. For most of the time during the English lessons the pupils sit at their own places either in a single row or in a double row. At other times all of they could sit in their group or in the front row of the class. In addition, there were a few occasions throughout the observations in classrooms in urban schools, that the pupils were away for thirty minutes to watch English programme on television in the school hall. It appears from this observation that the pupils were accustomed to moving from one place to another. Such shifts were accomplished very quickly but sometimes could be a little fussy and noisy. The same members remained in the group throughout the period for a particular subject. A few teachers mentioned that two or three pupils changed groups from time to time and this was usually done between the average and the weak groups. However, in some classes the weak pupils grouped themselves together.

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10.5   Types of activities

One of the first foci of classroom observation was the extent to which lessons conducted were pupil-centred. Tables 10.7 and 10.8 show different type of activities in the English language lessons in rural schools, from which it was found that about 60% of the lessons observed were pupil-centred,. reflecting pupil-participation activities. This is a positive development of skills, especially the speaking skill which will predominate in such lessons. Nevertheless, nearly 48% of the lessons observed were teacher-centred in the rural schools and 41% in the urban schools.

According to the personnel interviewed, whole class teaching is by far the most common form of teacher-pupil interaction, whereas the teaching of small groups rarely occurred although there were provision for groups activities. These features were realised through the observation in the 8 classrooms in rural and 9 classrooms in urban schools. A distinctive feature that emerged was the type of school that determined a lesson being pupil or teacher-centred. In residential schools, the lessons are 100% pupil-centred. In some day schools (premier school- formerly English medium school) they were 60% pupil-centred, whereas schools in rural locality and with pupil composition of mostly Malays or mostly Chinese such as rural schools in Perlis and Kedah, the

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lessons was about 70% teacher-centred respectively. This is probably due to the low proficiency level in English language that inhibits the pupils from active participation and initiates teachers into class-domination. The bright pupils always seem to participate more than the others.

Table 10.7: Mean percentage of observed time for the different activities in the English language lessons in rural schools.

Activities	Classroom							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %
Whole Class:								
Teacher-centred teacher interacting with individual students or the entire class (T<---------> S/C)	11 27.5	13 38.2	17 48.6	18 50.0	22 57.8	23 65.7	12 33.3	20 51.2
Pupil-centred students interacting with the class or individual students while one central activity is going on (S <------------>S/C)	5 10.0	2 17.7	6 17.1	4 11.1	2 5.3	-	3 8.3	5 12.8
Choral work	6 17.5	2 5.9	5 14.3	2 5.6	3 7.9	6 17.2	5 13.9	-
Pair	11 27.5	6 17.6	7 20.0	12 33.3	8 21.1	6 17.1	10 27.8	6 15.4
Group	7 17.5	5 14.7	-	-	-	-	6 16.7	4 10.3
Individual	-	2 5.9	-	-	3 7.9	-	-	4 10.3
Total (minutes)*	40	34	35	36	38	35	36	39

* The duration is usually less than the allocated time as a few minutes taken to get organised at the beginning of the lessons, such as in gathering or distributing materials, had been disregarded.

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Teaching of the whole class usually involved the use of some aids and writing on the board; the teacher explaining and demonstrating the meaning of the word or concept; and questions from the teacher with choral responses, interspersed with individual

Table 10.8: Mean percentage and time observed of the interaction in the English language lessons in urban schools.

Interaction	Classroom								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %
Whole Class:									
Teacher-centred teachers interacting with individual students or the entire class (T <----------> S/C)	16 44.3	13 32.5	9 22.5	16 45.0	12 30.8	20 58.3	9 25.8	18 51.2	23 56.6
Pupil-centred Students interacting with the class or individual students while one central activity is going on (S <---------> S/C)	3 8.8	6 15.8	6 14.2	6 16.1	5 12.8	2 5.6	6 17.5	4 10.0	3 7.8
Choral work	-	1 1.7	3 8.3	4 10.3	3 9.3	1 2.5	-	1 2.6	-
Pair	6 18.5	15 35.7	14 34.2	6 17.9	6 15.4	9 26.8	5 13.3	13 38.8	12 30.5
Group	10 28.4	6 16.0	5 11.6	-	5 12.8	-	10 36.7	-	1 2.5
Individual	-	-	5 15.8	5 12.7	7 6.4	-	5 14.2	-	-
Total (minutes)*	35	40	40	36	39	34	36	35	40

*The duration is usually less than the allocated time as a few minutes taken to get organised at the beginning of the lessons, such as in gathering or distributing materials, had been disregarded.

responses from the pupils. Occasionally one or two pupils were asked to perform a small piece of work while the others observed. This pattern of teaching is clearly illustrative of the teacher-pupil interaction. The details of classroom observations are discussed below.

10.5.1 Interaction and language skills

This evaluation exercise was conducted partly to determine the extent of teaching strategy by the teachers. It can be seen that about 75% of the teachers do resort to the strategy of question-response. However the type of questioning was mostly convergent. Thus it can be concluded that the lessons were very much within the text in which only a small part of the lessons was divergent questions in structure. This low percentage could be due to the fact that teachers were very dependent on the text as they were themselves adapting and adjusting to the new concepts, methodology and techniques of the KBSM English language programme. Questioning techniques are essential to teachers in assessing the progress of the learners/pupils. From the observation it is evident that the more rural the locality of schools, the less interaction between pupil and pupil, as exemplified by classrooms 2, 4 and 7 (Table 10.7).One of the most important aspects of the KBSM is the interaction between individuals, namely teachers and pupils and between pupils and pupils. More than 90% of the lessons evaluated showed teacher-pupil interaction and 65% showed pupil-pupil interaction in urban schools whereas only 60% showed teacher-pupil interaction and 30% showed pupil-pupil interaction in rural schools. The other important observation was on the incorporation of the language skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing in classroom teaching. The most frequently occurring language skills involve listening and speaking which is in accordance to the

KBSM feature. This was observed most frequently occurred in classrooms 1, 4, 5 and 7 in rural school and in classrooms 1, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 9 in urban school. On the other hand, it was observed that reading and writing frequently occurred in classrooms 2, 3, 6 and 8 in rural schools and in classrooms 2, 3 and 8 in urban schools. However, it is evident from this observation that almost all the lessons the teachers attempted to integrate more than two skills. Also it is apparent that about 70% of the lessons observed in the urban school stresses on listening and speaking skills, while only about 50% in the rural schools. Tables 10.9 and 10.10 portrayed this characteristic. It can be concluded that the listening skill predominates, in particular the rural pupils, as they are not conversant and lack of confidence to actively partake in activities relating to other skills specially the speaking skill.

Table 10.9: Mean time and percentages of language skills in the English language lessons in rural schools.

Language skills	Classroom							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %
Listening	18 45.0	10 29.4	7 20.0	12 33.3	17 44.7	6 17.4	17 47.2	12 30.8
Speaking	10 25.0	5 14.7	6 17.1	12 33.3	10 26.3	4 11.1	8 22.2	6 15.4
Reading	5 12.5	10 29.4	10 28.6	5 13.9	6 15.8	15 42.9	5 13.9	11 28.2
Writing	7 17.5	9 26.5	12 34.3	7 19.5	5 13.2	10 28.6	6 16.7	10 25.6
Total (minutes) *	40	34	35	36	38	35	36	39

* The duration is usually less than the allocated time as a few minutes taken to get organised at the beginning of the lessons, such as in gathering or distributing materials, had been disregarde

There was an unanimous agreement among the personnel on the increase in pupil-pupil interaction in the KBSM classroom. This situation was brought about through seating arrangement of pupils in small groups and also due to the greater freedom for the pupils to talk and move while doing their work. It was evident from this

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observation that a great deal of pupil-pupil interaction, both social and academic, took place. While working together on an activity, interaction was inevitable. Sitting close to one another can also facilitate it. While doing work individually, pupils frequently talked to each other, looked at each other's work and even helped one another.

10.10: Mean time and percentages of language skills in the English language lessons in urban schools.

Language skills	Classroom								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %	min. %
Listening	10 28.6	10 25.0	7 17.5	12 33.3	13 33.2	11 32.4	15 41.7	5 14.3	16 40.0
Speaking	12 34.2	5 12.5	16 40.0	10 27.8	10 25.6	5 14.6	12 33.3	5 14.3	14 35.0
Reading	3 8.6	10 25.0	8 20.0	10 27.8	8 20.5	9 26.5	7 19.4	10 28.6	5 12.5
Writing	10 28.6	15 37.5	9 22.5	4 11.1	8 20.5	9 26.5	2 5.6	15 42.8	5 12.5
Total (minutes) *	35	40	40	36	39	34	36	35	40

* The duration is usually less than the allocated time as a few minutes taken to get organised at the beginning of the lessons, such as in gathering or distributing materials, had been disregarded.

However, it was found that opinion and comments were divided about the increase in pupil-teacher interaction. Some of them were of the opinion that there had been an increase of pupil-teacher interaction as pupils were given more individualised attention and consequently they felt closer to the teacher. The other reason is probably the greater freedom in the classroom has made pupils more confident, enabling them to initiate interaction with the teacher. Other personnel, however considered that pupil-teacher interaction was limited as the teacher tended to do most of the talking and relied on choral responses from the pupils. Pupil-initiated interaction with the teacher was limited, and confined to a few matters. These were to get clarification on how to perform an activity, to get confirmation that the work done

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was correct, or to inform the teacher that the work had been completed and these came mainly from the brighter pupils.

The talking in the classroom was very much dominated by the teacher. Questions from the teacher were responded to mainly by the class as a whole, and occasionally by certain groups or individual pupils. Quite often the question-and-answer on a particular matter were repeated a few times. Such repetition could be by the class as a whole or by two or three different pupils. The pupils were accustomed to giving choral responses. When no names were mentioned, the whole class would automatically respond together. Pupil participation was limited and controlled by the teacher in particular in rural schools and also for schools with National and Chinese as media of instruction.

Most of the teacher-pupil interaction was confined to academic matters and the necessary class management instruction, whereas disciplinary matters, praise or reprimand were not often heard. Below are two typical examples of the pupil-teacher interactions during the English language lesson:

Example 1 - Teacher-pupil interaction during an English lesson in rural school.
            (All names are fictitious)

The teacher announces the class that today they are going to describe some pictures using adjectives or describing words learned in the previous lesson.

Teacher:	(Holds up a picture of the national flower and tells her class that they now have to describe this picture to a foreign friend or pen-pal).
Class:	Class in chorus (which is a common habit) respond "flower".
Teacher:	Yes, we all know that it is a flower, but what about the flower, Ah Chong?
Ah Chong:	Red flower
Teacher:	Very good, sit down Ah Chong. Now, let me see, you Kumar.
Kumar:	(Stands up slowly and without looking up, slowly says, "bunga raya".
Teacher:	In English Kumar, what is it in English?
Kumar:	Bunga raya.
Teacher:	Sit down Kumar (Turns and calls a very anxious and excited pupil, who just cannot wait to answer). Yes, Ali?

Ali:	Looking very gleeful at being given a chance to answer, literally shoots up). "It is a hibiscus flower teacher" and is about to say more but is interrupted by the teacher.
Teacher:	Yes, yes very good, now you Kumar, what did Ali say just now?
Kumar:	Flower.

Example 2 - Teacher-pupil interaction during an English language lesson in urban school - double periods (all names are fictitious).

Teacher:	We are going to read about the festivals in our country today. Take out your Readers and turn to page 23. I am going to read now and I want you all listen and follow very carefully, for we are going to talk about it afterwards.
	(The teacher begins to read the passage about Hari Raya (Muslim Festival), Chinese New Year, Deepaavali (Hindi Light Day) and Christmas).
	What do you do before you celebrate Hari Raya? Yes, Daswinder.
Daswinder:	The people 'puasa' (fasting), teacher.
Teacher:	Daswinder said, "the people 'puasa' (fasting)". Who are the people and what do you mean by 'puasa'?
Mei Ling:	The Islam people "puasa'.
Teacher:	Islam is the Religion, like Hinduism, Christianity, Taoism and Bhuddhism. (Before she can say anymore Susy answers).
Susy:	Muslim teacher, Hindu, Christian and Chinese people.
Teacher:	Very good Susy, Muslims embrace Islam, Hindus follow Hinduism, Christian embrace Christianity and Chinese follow Taoism. Who celebrate 'Hari Raya'?
Mei Ling:	Muslims.
Teacher:	Yes, Muslims celebrate Hari Raya.
	What is 'puasa'?
	(There is absolute silence and the pupils wait in anticipations of being told).
	Well, when we say 'puasa' we mean fasting.
	For how long do the Muslims fast?
Karim:	One month teacher.
Teacher:	Yes, they fast for one month.
	Do all the Muslims in this class fast?
Chorus:	Yes, teacher (emphatic yes).
Teacher:	Ahmad, what do you do during Hari Raya?
Ahmad:	I got 'baju baru' (new dress) shoes and my father gives money. I go to so many houses on Hari Raya day.
Teacher:	Tell the class Daswinder, what does Ahmad do during Hari Raya?
Daswinder:	He wears new dress and shoes. His father give him money and he goes to many houses during Hari Raya. He enjoy one you know.
Susy:	(Giggling) Ahmad wears new dress, teacher? Only girls wear dress, not boys!
	(The others begin to giggle as well).
Teacher:	All right, girls wear dresses and boys wear .....
Samy:	'Seluar' (trouser) and shirt.
Daswinder:	Trouser and shirt.
Tina:	Pants.
Teacher:	Yes, boys wear pants and trousers, but girls do wear pants or trousers too, don't they?
Class:	Yes, teacher.
Tina:	Girls can wear dresses and trousers.
Teacher:	You are right. Now let us move on to Chinese New Year.

(The teacher continues in this way and gets the class to talk about the other festivals that they celebrate in the country. She also writes new and different words on the board).
Now I want you to take out your exercise books and write five sentences about the festivals that you celebrate. Put up your hand if you want me to come and help you.

The questions asked by the teacher were usually of the closed-answer type where a word, a phrase or a short sentence would suffice as an answer. In a few instances where the open-answer questions were asked, there was little opportunity for the pupils to answer as the teacher never allowed time for pupils to respond, or changed the question, or provided the answer himself. A number of respondents remarked about the KBSM class being 'noisy'. For instance, an inspector said, "You will know when you are approaching a KBSM class from the amount of noise you can hear" and a principal explained that he had to put the KBSM classes at the end of the block so that the noise would not disturb the other classes. In KBSM classes pupils had been given greater opportunity for talking which definitely had increased in interaction among themselves and between pupils, thus providing the avenue for the pupils with the opportunity to express ideas or to encourage them to think.

10.5.2   Individual and group activities and learning and teaching aids

Most of the time when pupils were working on their own, they were expected to do the work individually as shown in Tables 10.7 and 10.8, with the exception for classrooms 2, 3 and 9 in urban schools where newly trained teachers used the greater part of the time to group activity. Individual activities usually involved doing exercises on the worksheets such as filling the blanks with the correct syllables or words and copying work from the blackboard for language skills. However, there is evidence that group activity and pair work took place to a large extent during classroom lessons as can be seen from the classroom observations, indicating about 45% of the lessons had some form of pair work and about 37% had group work

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(Tables 10.7 and 10.8). It is hoped that this approach will increase in due time. Nonetheless it is noteworthy to mention here that some pupils use their mother tounge (L1) to communicate with their friend during group or pair work, in particular for the pupils in National and Chinese schools in rural area. In addition, teachers in this schools too used L1 as a last resort, when meaning were too difficult to grasp by pupils. It was found that most of the lessons had activities that were of an individual type. In fact, 69.5% of the lessons in rural schools had activities of this nature. This trend, i.e. individual type activities is the mainstream of lessons in all schools, irrespective of their locality. The probable conclusion that can be inferred here is that examination-orientated style of teaching (emphasis on individual performance) is still practised and/or perhaps teachers are still unfamiliar with the mechanics of group or pair activities.

10.6   Pupil evaluation and records

The pupils did oral comprehension during reading session. Whereas, in rural school, the activities observed were group work and role play. For example, registering a letter, posting a parcel and starting a post office savings account; teachers provided the necessary materials and let the pupils worked in groups. Each group then role-played their task to the class. Both activities desribed above formed one of the most important features in the KBSM. Group activities could involve all members in each group or a few of them together. In urban schools, for instance, the activities observed were writing sentences about pictures (showed scenes of pineapple canning in a local factory) that the teacher put up on the chalkboard. On the whole pupils

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received frequent feedback from their teachers. The teaching process incorporated a great deal of question-and-answer; with the teacher immediately correcting any

wrong.answer, pronunciation or spelling. However, the dominance of choral responses reduced the real feedback for those who actually needed it. In such responses, the tendency was for pupils to follow those who knew the correct answer, even when they did not fully understand the question. Quite often a few of the pupils did not even respond; and in a large class it was easy for the teacher to miss them. All the teachers kept these records; but some filled them regularly and were up-to-date, while others were not so. Some of the personnel expressed doubts on the accuracy of these records as teachers had to comply and it was possible that some of them kept those records simply to please the visitors. The evaluation of pupils on the acquisition of a number of skills that they have just learned usually took the form of work done on the worksheets or in the exercise books. Such work was marked by the teacher. An examination of this work showed that some teachers were up-to-date in their marking, while others were not. Also a few teachers were meticulous in their marking, while others were rather careless. The acquisition of the skills was recorded in the Teachers' Record Books. All teachers kept the 'Profile Record' for each pupil. This record form was printed by the district education office for all schools in the district. The pupil's achievement and teacher's comments for each subject for mid-year and final-year assessments were recorded and then sent to parents. Such procedure has been an established practice, the only difference being that now Grades A to E are used instead of actual marks. Quite a number of teachers, principals and district staff regarded the change to the use of grades as unsatisfactory as parents have been so accustomed to the use of marks. In order to please parents, some schools

used both marks and grades for yearly assessment for their pupils. Pupils also received feedback from their teachers when they worked on their own. This could be more effective as each pupil or group received feedback pertaining directly to their own work. However, the attention to the individual or group was limited by the pressure of time on the teacher.

10.7 Pupils' performance

Since exams are based mainly on reading and writing skills, teachers were asked to gauge the level of pupils' competency in listening and speaking as well as in reading and writing. Each teacher taught more than one class and in all cases, teachers realised that there was a range in pupils' ability in the school. Figure 10.5 shows that teachers in urban schools felt that pupils' ability in the four skills ranged from very good to adequate in speaking, reading, writing and listening, whereas rural schools ranged from good to poor. They are significantly difference (Appendix 22 - Table 22.10). The terms used by the personnel, principals and teachers to describe the KBSM pupils were 'active', 'lively', 'more attentive', 'more alert', 'more receptive to learning', 'more interested', 'more confident' and 'noisy'. These characteristics were attributed to a number of factors such as the attention given by the teacher to individual pupils, an adequate supply of materials which pupils themselves could handle, seating in small groups, interesting activities to occupy them and the greater freedom for pupils to express themselves. During the observations these characteristics were evident and could be applied to the majority of the pupils. Unfortunately, a few of the very weak pupils in each class did not possess these characteristics. They were not noisy and generally posed no disciplinary problems to the teachers; indeed, in a large class it was easy to miss seeing them. Figure 10.6 shows that teachers in National medium schools felt that pupils' ability in speaking and reading was good to adequate, whereas writing and listening skills ranged from good to poor. Teachers in English medium schools felt that pupils were very good in speaking, reading, writing and listening, whereas in Chinese medium

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schools the four skills varied from good to poor for speaking, adequate to poor for reading, writing and listening. This shows that they are significantly different (Appendix 22 - Table 22.11).

Figure 10.5: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers' opinion on pupils' skill in English by location.

Note:
1   very good   ■ rural school
2   good   ▨ urban school
3   adequate
4   poor
5   very poor
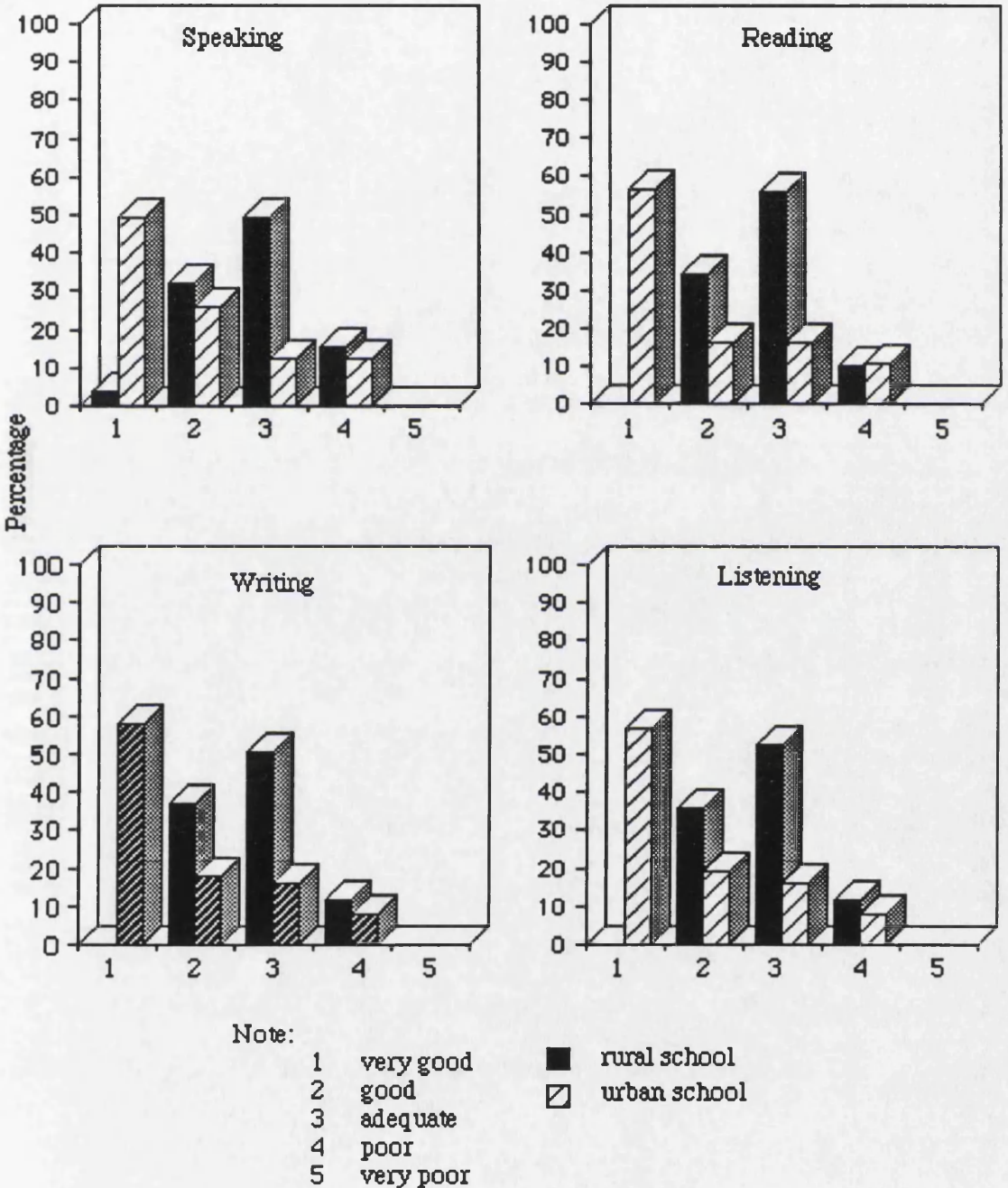
Figure 10.7 shows teachers' perceptions of pupils' language skills in day and residential schools. Teachers felt that pupils' ability in reading and listening in English was

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adequate, whereas speaking and writing skills ranged from adequate to poor in day

schools. In residential schools, teachers gauged pupils' skills as ranging from very good

to adequate for speaking and reading, very good to good for listening,

Figure 10.6: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers' opinion on
pupils' skill in English by medium of instruction.

Note:
1 very good
2 good
3 adequate
4 poor
5 very poor

■ BM medium
▨ English medium
☰ Chinese medium
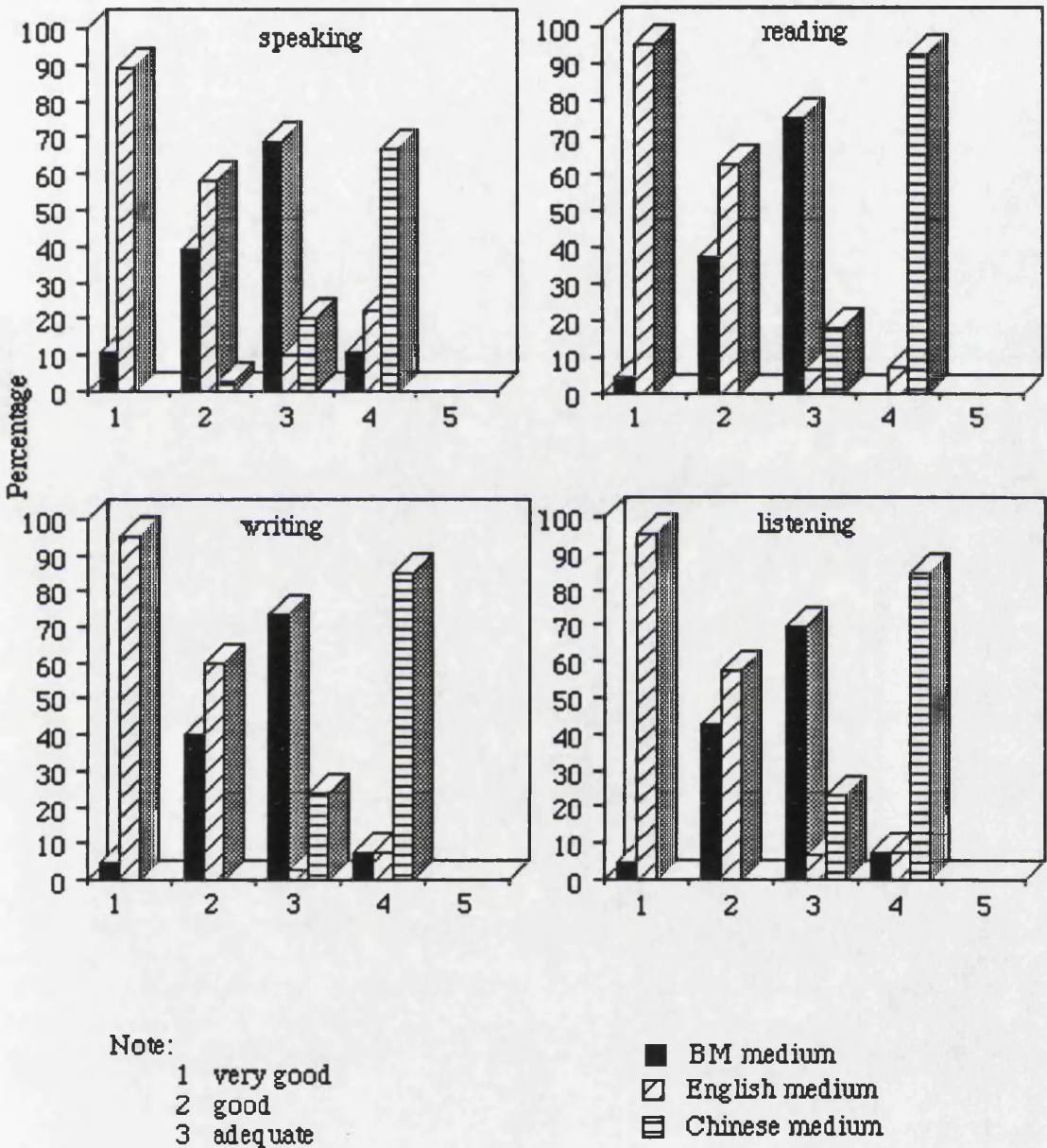
and very good to adequate for writing. Appendix 22 (Table 22.12) shows that these

slight differences have no significant difference.

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Teachers' perceptions did not in fact correspond largely with the final picture of some

Figure 10.7: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers' opinion on pupils' skill in English by type of school.
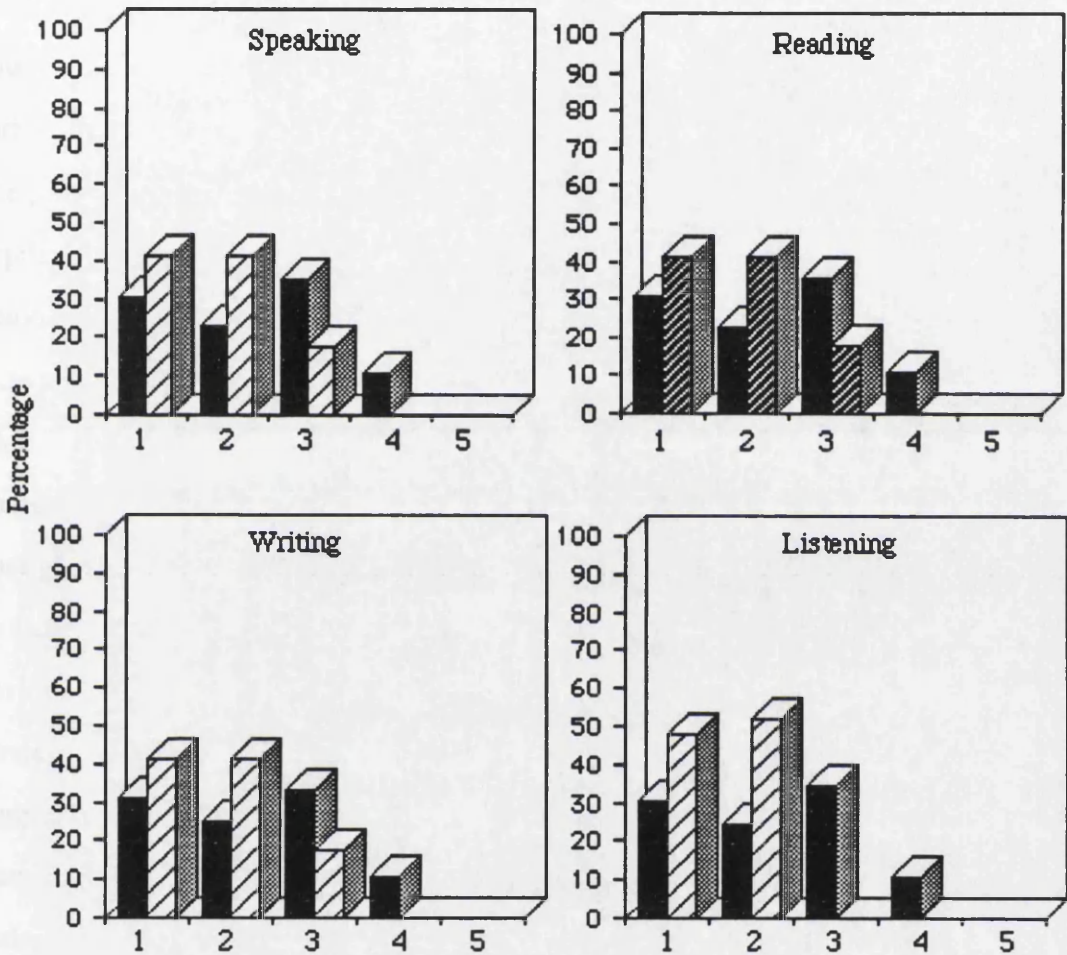
Note:
1 very good
2 good
3 adequate
4 poor
5 very poor

■ Daily
☑ Residential

schools having more able pupils in certain languages. Even when perceptions and results did not tally, certain attitudes and opinion of the teachers were revealed. For

example, some teachers based their perceptions on the situation within the school rather than comparing the performance of their pupils on a national level.

Comparison of the final examination results for English distinctly showed that the ability of the pupils in English from rural schools was considerably lower than for those in the urban schools. Furthermore, it was observed from the classroom observation that considerable difference in the pupils' proficiency in English language varies according to the area of the school and the background of pupils in the school. The public exam results for the English language, both SRP and SPM showed that the pupils performance in English language in urban schools were better than the rural schools (Ministry of Education, 1991b). In addition, the English language results were relatively good in the residential school and the former English medium schools.

10.8 Teachers' guides and classroom practice

There were also attempts to engage pupils in interesting and meaningful activities. Though much has been achieved in a short time, inevitably there is still a long way to go before the curriculum is interpreted as its designers would wish it to be. It is obvious that teachers had put in a great deal of effort in implementing the new curriculum. They have followed very closely many of the requirements and suggestions, particularly in the lesson planning, in the preparation of teaching and learning aids, and in the scope and sequence of the content to be taught. Greater understanding of concepts such as enrichment, more ideas in order to generate a variety of teaching and learning activities and greater confidence to be innovative are essential for the teacher. Even with these, actual improvement may still be limited due to the inability of the one teacher to cope with the wide range of pupil abilities, which in some cases is compounded by the large class size. While there were these disappointing occurrences, there were also some encouraging ones where teachers have shown confidence to develop other activities. For instance, the use of newspaper cuttings to stimulate discussion on sports was not suggested in the guides, neither was the simulation activity on TV news reading that followed. During these activities the

teacher was also able to stress the importance of reading. The teachers of the 17 classes were observed to be following the teachers' guides very closely. At the time of the observations they were either at the last or second last teaching unit in English language, indicating that the syllabuses should be completed by the end of the year. Where details of content and vocabulary lists were specified in the guides, these were also closely adhered to by the teachers. In two classes of the rural schools, for instance, the vocabulary lists used were exactly as in the guides whereas in the other two classes in urban schools, there were some additions to the guide.

Wherever details were not given in the guides, the teachers had to develop their own ideas. For the topic 'special events', two classes in rural schools simply talked about the Teachers' Day. For the topic 'sports and entertainment' three teachers in urban schools also incorporated sports at both national and international levels. The teaching and learning activities in the guides were also followed by teachers very closely, although a few of them were sometimes left out. There were also instances when the teacher had not followed the suggestions accurately. The readers, for instance, were intended for developing the reading habit, reinforcement of language skills and the acquisition of knowledge and moral values. In the classes observed, they were used simply to occupy those who had completed work ahead of the others.

10.9   Demands on the teacher

The increased workload in the preparation of teaching and learning aids was one of the major findings from the first year of the implementation. It attracted frequent press comments in the first half of 1987. For instance, an article in one of the newspaper (New Straits Times, May 1989) even claimed that some teachers.spend about eight hours at home daily preparing various teaching materials. The undesirable outcome: tired, sleepy teachers who cannot give of their best. A new programme inevitably brings demands on the teacher. For a major curriculum change like the KBSM, a number of demands such as in understanding new ideas, planning new activities, using new teaching techniques or preparing new materials could be expected. In this study the Form One English teachers, principals and the personnel were asked to indicate the degree of demands that the KBSM, with reference to the teaching of English, had made on the teacher. They were also asked to describe the nature of these demands.

10.9.1   Degree of demands

Table 10.11 shows that majority of the respondents indicated that the KBSM had demands on the teachers. Most of the urban teachers indicated 'heavy' compared to the rural teachers. However, there was no significant difference ($x^2 = 6.30$ NS). A majority of the English medium teachers indicate 'heavy' compared to Chinese and Malay media schools. This difference also is not significant ($x^2 = 5.31$ NS). But there is a significant difference between day school and residential school. Some teachers not teaching the KBSM appeared to have a feeling that the demands on the KBSM teachers were great, expressing emphaty and sympathy for the Form 1 teachers.

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Table 10.11: Percentage distribution of responses based on the teachers' opinion on their teaching demand/load by location, medium and type of school.

	Location		Medium			Type	
	Rural	Urban	BM	E	C	Daily	Residential
Heavy	11	26	9	38	5	36	1
Fairly heavy	16	5	23	27	2	21	-
Satisfactory	30	41	20	2	6	64	7
Light	1	1	4		4	1	1
x^2	NS 6.30		NS 5.31			* 9.36	

The comments about the demands ranged widely, from those who indicated excessive to those who considered the demands were light. For instance, one Form 1 teacher mentioned that 'the demands were so heavy, they could not be described' or these were references to having heard of teachers wanting to resign due to the heavy workload. At the other end, there were comments which indicated that the demands were not, in fact, excessive. For example, a Form 1 teacher said: "Now that I have gone through it, it isn't that heavy after all"; while a principal commented that "These demands were nothing more than what one could expect in the teaching profession". A few respondents assessed the matter in relation to a teacher's attitude and commitment: the KBSM would be demanding for the 'good teacher' who attempts to comply with all the requirements, but not so for the one who simply wants to be a 'teacher'.

From the comments of the Form One teachers, it was possible to detect the varied attitudes towards the KBSM and their commitment to the profession. At one end there were teachers who remarked that they did not mind the hard work because it was for the sake of the pupils, or that they were happy to have put in a lot of work as the pupils were actually achieving more. At the other end were comments about being compelled to work hard or having no choice in the matter.

Many respondents explained that these demands were felt particularly in the first half of 1989, when teachers were starting to teach the new curriculum. By 1990, these demands had decreased, as most of the learning aids had been prepared; and with experience, classroom management has become easier.

10.9.2 Nature of demands

The comments on the nature of the demands were grouped into three major categories as shown in Appendix 22 (Table 22.13).

Classroom management

Many respondents strongly suggested the need to categorise these pupils according to their ability in English. It was just not possible for the one teacher to manage a large class and the wide range of pupils' abilities. In addition, even the bright pupils needed close supervision. There were remarks, particularly from the Form 1 teachers, regarding the teacher's inability to give more attention to the weak pupils, or to manage the one or two extremely weak pupils. Within the weak group, it was recognised that pupils had different levels of ability and had different problems. One Form 1 teacher commented that 'that strain of having to cope with the two or three very weak pupils can make the teacher grumpy the whole day'. A slightly higher percentage of the Form 1 teachers compared to the principals and personnel indicated classroom management as an additional demand and provided more lengthy comments. These included the need for teachers to be alert all the time, to be in full control of everything that goes on in the classroom, to maintain discipline, to move around all the time in order to supervise the different groups, to organise and store the learning aids and to rush continually in order to get things done.

Preparation of teaching and learning aids

The preparation required plenty of time; and there were remarks that teachers had to stay up late; their rest and leisure hours being sacrificed and families neglected. A few respondents also added that some teachers had use their own resources to supplement the limited supply available at the school. Most of the respondents elaborated on aspects pertaining to the preparation that had caused the heavy demands. These included the need to make a large number of sets for each item so that pupils could have one each, to prepare materials for every activity, to prepare materials for a number of activities each day so that they were suitable for pupils of the different abilities, to prepare and cyclostyle worksheets, to get ideas to prepare materials appropriate for the particular activity, to look out for new ideas so that the brighter pupils would not be bored, to look for suitable illustrations or to draw them, and the actual cutting and pasting in the preparation.

Among the personnel, there were comments that the workload could be reduced if teachers maximised the use of each item, i.e. to use in as many activities as possible for a number of units. And, it could even be further reduced if their concept of materials and resources for learning become wider - to incorporate not only items that have been made but also those that exist in the environment. However, some respondents, including a few from amongst the Form 1 English teachers, felt that the increase in workload was not heavy or should not be heavy. The reasons for such a view included the assistance from the KPs for ideas, assistance from other teachers in the school actual preparation, a certain amount of learning aids had been provided, the new materials and the equipment (such as paper-cutter) necessary were available in the school, and sets of materials need to be made only for members in the groups and not for all in the class. In the former curriculum there was also the requirement for making materials, but this was not strictly enforced; therefore, teachers had not been

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preparing themselves. The respondents were unanimous regarding the increase in the teachers' workload arising from the preparation of learning aids. A few of the principals and personnel remarked that the increased workload had been particularly felt because of the situation which had existed previously. Some teachers not teaching the KBSM commented that preparing these aids was the one aspect that worried them when they would have to teach the KBSM. A few of them explained that this occurred as there were no longer workbooks, the teachers need to prepare the materials themselves. There were also remarks about teachers being pressured into producing suitable materials and aids because of the frequent visits by the KPs and other visitors.

Recording of pupils' progress
The teachers emphasised that they knew enough about each pupil's progress and problems without having to refer to records; visitors did not refer to them, but would inquire about the pupils' progress from the teacher; and there had been no handling - over of these records to the teacher who subsequently took charge of the pupils. A few teachers appeared quite indifferent to the matter, as one of them simply said, 'we are required to do it, so we do it'. Comments from some Form 1 English teachers and teachers not teaching the KBSM indicated that this task was considered an unnecessary burden as they did not see the purpose for keeping these records. The demand for recording pupils' progress in the 'Performance Records' was really felt by the Form 1 teachers. In early 1989 the requirement was that a record be kept for each pupil in every subject. To reduce the teacher's workload, it was changed, where only one record needed to be kept for all pupils in the class in each subject. The frequency of filling these records appeared to vary: after the completion of each worksheet (which could be once or twice a week), or only after teaching a particular group of skills. A few of the personnel considered that this task was felt to be burdensome only at the beginning and would disappear once the teachers had become familiar

with it. Teachers' failure to see the purpose of the 'Performance Records' can be attributed to two factors. Firstly, the 'Performance Records', as part of the new system of pupil evaluation, was specifically intended to help the teacher in identifying to whom remedial or enrichment activities need to be given. Those for remedial evaluation, subsequently, need to be given diagnostic tests in order to find out the exact nature of the learning problems.

Secondly, the handling over of records to teachers taking over the classes when children proceed to a higher grade is not mentioned in the 'Guides for evaluation', nor is it a routine procedure in the schools. The latter contains details of the teachers' work for the whole year, would be submitted to the principal at the end of each year, and then kept in the school office; hence, handing over of the 'Performance Records' would not be possible. In a system with automatic promotion for all pupils regardless of their level of achievement, the 'Performance Records', indicating acquisation (or lack of it) for particular skills and sub-skills for each pupil, would provide obvious advantages. The teacher, taking over the class, can get to know the level of the pupils' performance before the following school year begins, and can even make the necessary preparation.

Other forms of demands

From the findings in the study, it is obvious that all respondents were well aware of the increase in the teachers' workload particularly arising from the need to prepare teaching and learning aids. And, it is significant that there does not appear to be any

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resentment, even among the Form 1 English teachers themselves, against these demands. In fact, many of the Form 1 teachers appeared able to appreciate the reasons for the extra work. From their comments, their strong support for the curriculum as demonstrated in Chapter 5, and their plea for more financial assistance in order to prepare more learning aids, it is possible to conclude that they are strongly committed to the KBSM and are prepared to put in a great deal of effort in implementing it This is a positive sign for a growth in professional commitment. The issue is, how to further encourage this growth and to sustain professional commitment at a high level.

Professional commitment is undoubtedly a fundamental concern in curriculum change. Effective change is not a once-and-for-all event, but a dynamic process which can occur only with the professional growth and commitment of the teacher and this will be discussed in Chapter 11. Other forms of demands mentioned by some of the respondents included the need for the teacher to understand the new concepts, to be familiar with the new terms, to relate the concepts with the teaching practices, and to plan the day-to-day activities so that each group of pupils was given the appropriate work.

There were also references about pressure from the principals and others from outside of the school to ensure the success of the KBSM; the dilemma of what to do in the face of conflicting advice from visitors; the uncertainty, particularly in the beginning, of not knowing if one was following the recommendations correctly; and the change

of attitudes such as from reliance on the one textbook to having to cope with a variety of materials. While the demands of the KBSM on the teacher had been real, a few respondents pointed out that the stories in the press and the rumours that had gone around had exaggerated. These could have adverse effects: the public could develop negative attitudes towards the KBSM; and the teachers, who sooner or later would be teaching the KBSM, could become unnecessarily anxious.

10.10   Support at the school level

During the limited implementation, it was evident that teachers need additional help in preparing learning aids and operationalising some of the features of the KBSM. This led to the establishment of the KBSM committee at the school level and strengthening the provision for guidance. The latter has been discussed in the previous chapter In the planning for implementation of the KBSM, it was anticipated that the teacher would need help. The role that the principal could play in the implementation was emphasized, and the usual provision for the production of materials and the training of teachers was made. The former were asked about measures taken at their schools in the attempt to assist the KBSM teachers and the increase in their workload due to the introduction of the KBSM. The latter were asked the nature of the assistance they actually received at the school level. The discussion which follows has been divided into four parts, i.e. (i) the School KBSM Committee; (ii) financial and material support; (iii) support from the principal; and (iv) other forms of support.

The school KBSM committee

Meeting were held to discuss problems and to look for solutions. Through this committee, the assistance of other teachers was obtained for the preparation of learning aids. There were difficulties in getting assistance: the other teachers had their own tasks to perform, or some were reluctant to help as their own turn for hard work would soon come; some of the KBSM teachers themselves felt that it was 'not nice' to be constantly asking for help, for as teachers they should do their own work; and that the KBSM teacher had to inform the other teachers regarding the materials needed well in advance, for which in some cases, he himself did not have any ideas. By the second year of implementation, these committees did not seem to function.

Support from the principals

A majority of the respondents pointed to the principal as being the most important factor and elaborated that; he is a source of help and advice to the teacher in both professional and administrative matters; he has the authority to control what goes on in the school and classroom; he is responsible for generating co-operation between members of staff; he can inspire teachers to strive harder; and he is the model along which teachers tailor their efforts. For all these to occur, the principals have to be provided with adequate training and the opportunity for professional development. In addition to being chairman of the School KBSM Committee, the other administrative

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tasks performed by the principals included ensuring that the classroom was organised as recommended, equipment such as the radio-cassette player was safe, teachers attended the courses and informing parents about the KBSM.

From principals with higher qualification (M.Ed) in urban schools, there were brief references to professional tasks such as 'supervising teachers' or 'supervising the teaching in the classroom', but virtually none of the teachers mentioned them. Some of the principals indicated that they experienced some increase in workload, while others felt that there was hardly any increase. Apart from the tasks already mentioned, others which had caused the increase were relatively minor in nature.

From the interviews, the impression obtained was that the principals were happy to be performing these tasks. It is also significant to note that, contrary to the general view discussed in Chapter 3, lack of time was not mentioned or even implied as a factor that could limit their ability to implement the KBSM. The very fact that they did not complain is significant, and disturbing. This is possibly because they did less than was hoped of them; as discussed in the previous chapter, their poor orientation to the curriculum and lack of concrete guidelines for their role tasks in curriculum change being considered responsible for this. The important role of the principal in the implementation of innovation at the school level has been emphasised earlier in the thesis.

Financial and material support

Mostly in urban schools PTA contribute quite a big amount of financial assistance toward the success of the KBSM whereas for the rural schools in particular, some

respondents felt that the associations were more concerned with helping the Form 3 pupils who would be sitting for the Assessment Examinations, as examination results mattered a great deal. Financial support and the acquisition of equipment and materials were matters of concern to both teachers and the principals. While many of the principals had worked hard to acquire additional funds, comments from the teachers showed that the availability of such support ranged widely. Many respondents in the study mentioned that the Parents and Teachers Associations could contribute towards the success of the KBSM through their financial assistance. Such associations have played a more effective role in the urban and larger schools.

Other forms of support

The other forms of support were the co-operation among the Form 1 teachers in the form of sharing ideas on learning aids, ideas from colleagues in other schools in the preparation of aids and assistance from family members in the preparation of materials. Overall, it appears that a great deal of the support and assistance at the school level focuses on the preparation of lesson plans and learning aids. This is necessary, but matters pertaining to the teaching and learning process, including a more diversified and effective use of these aids also need to be discussed. It is possible for this to occur, if the principals who do not seem to lack the time and are happy to be doing what they can, can be equipped with the capacity to ensure this happening in their schools. Given the opportunity for them to develop their professional leadership competencies, they could even become the leverage for qualitative improvements in secondary education, particularly in the rural areas.

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10.11 Conclusion

What is most encouraging from the findings in the study is that, on the whole, teachers were prepared to accept the heavy demands created by the new curriculum. There were also indications that they were prepared to continue to work hard for the benefit of the pupils. This is a sign of growth in the professional commitment of the teachers, a development that needs to be capitalised upon. As already emphasised, the teacher plays a key role in the implementation of any programme, hence, in the improvement of learning of the pupils. By the end of the second year of implementation at the Form 1 level, a number of positive changes had been effected in the classroom, an indication of the support and commitment of teachers and agencies at the different levels for implementing the new curriculum. But a number of features as intended by the planners have also not been fully implemented. This is not expected for the KBSM introduces fundamental changes in a number of dimensions. All these are not easy to achieve within a short time, for teachers need time to learn about the curriculum and to become competent in the various new skills expected of them. Furthermore, certain aspects of the preparation and support for implementation discussed in previous chapter, have not been adequate; and actual conditions in the classrooms have not made it possible for all features to be implemented as intended.

Attempts have been made to promote this support through emphasis on the professional role of the principals and the establishment of the School KBSM Committee, but actual support received by the teacher appeared to be limited. In attempting any change, particularly a fundamental one, there are bound to be numerous problems which the teacher faces. He needs to discuss matters and to get

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advice, in particular from his superior. In addition, he also needs encouragement and moral support. These kind of supports are extremely important and only available from the principal who should be a true professional leader in addition to being an effective administrative leader.

CHAPTER 11

DEGREE OF SUCCESS OF THE CURRICULUM

11.1 Introduction

This chapter will look at outcomes the approaches and practices of evaluating innovation and views pertaining to outcomes of the KBSM. Innovation involves a time lag, an interplay of many forces, and the emergence of side effects and unintended consequences which may be in opposition to the desired outcomes. From the time an innovation is planned to the time that result can be achieved, a number of processes have to go through and various groups of people are involved.

11.2 Views on evaluation

One aspect of programme evaluation that has been developed and is used a great deal in recent years in the United States is for assessing the degree of implementation of the innovation. A number of models have been experimented including the use of direct observations in the classroom to assess the material, structural and behavioural changes; the use of 'Levels of Use' (LoU) interviews to determine the participants' knowledge and use of the innovation; and measuring the variations in teachers' adaptation of the innovation and relating these variations to student outcomes (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1980; Hall and Loucks, 1977; Evans and Sheffler, 1976).

An example of project where the level of implementation has been evaluated using different models is 'Follow Through', a unique nationality developmental/ experimental project initiated in 1967 in order to create a variety of model programmes for making schooling more effective for low income children in the kindergarten up to Grade 3 (Fullan, 1983).

reflect 'normal' classroom practice, but only the particular teacher's ability and potential or lack of it. Any teacher will 'teach his best' while being observed; even though we know that teachers do not always do that, particularly when pressure is great and morale low. In addition to these limitations, direct observations are expensive and sometimes not feasible if large samples are involved. Early attempts in the evaluation of innovation focused single-mindedly on pupil achievement. To some extent this is still in use today. Essentially there are two variants in this approach: (i) the classical experimental or agriculture-botanical model, and (ii) the objectives or goal-oriented model. In the objectives model, each innovation is judged against its own professed intentions without necessarily establishing 'control' or 'experimental' groups. The procedure involves the identification of the objectives of the innovation, their translation in terms of the behaviour which would characterise them, the development of suitable test items, the administration of such tests, and the processing of the results. As in the classical model, weaknesses are also inherent in this strategy, which objectives to be selected, and the validity of the test items. The standard procedure in the classical model is to select two samples at random from the target population, produce the test items, pretest both samples, assign one random sample (the 'experimental' group) to the treatment and the other (the 'control' group) to no treatment, post-test both groups and compare their achievement.

Much has been written on the deficiencies of this classical model arising from both technical and conceptual difficulties. These include the inability to equalise all variables in the two samples and the inability to produce tests which are fair to both groups; for innovation, in fact, aims to change both educational ends and means, such that the amount of shared ground would be limited (Lawton, 1980; Harlen, 1976). A review by

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Walker and Schaffarzick (1974) of twenty-six studies comparing the subject matter achievement of students using new or innovative curricula with that of students using traditional curricula clearly demonstrated this last point. The researchers reasoned that if the innovative curricula were substantial improvement over traditional ones, then the experiments would show consistent advantage for students using innovative curricula. The pattern of results in the reports was found at first to show this result, but a more thorough analysis showed that innovative curricula were superior only in their own terms. Innovative students did better when the criterion was well-matched to the innovative curricula while traditional students did better when the criterion was matched to the traditional curricula.

Both the classical and goal-oriented models are quantitative in nature and are concerned only with outcomes pertaining to pupils. In addition to the shortcomings already mentioned, Parlett and Hamilton (1976) include the neglect of other data, the 'subjective', 'anecdotal' or 'impressionistic' which may be more salient to the innovation; and the failure to articulate with the varied concerns and questions of the different interest groups. Moreover, as Charters and Jones (1975) pointed out what is expected to happen in an innovation does not in fact happen, hence the risk of appraising 'non-events'.

Deficiencies in quantitative evaluation had led to the emergence of other models of evaluation. For instance, Stake (1967) broadens the scope of evaluation by specifying three bodies of information to be considered, i.e., the antecedents, the transactions, and

the outcomes. Scriven (1973) proposed a 'goal-free' approach to evaluation as a means to enable the evaluator to be attentive to a wider range of possible outcomes, and to assess effects of a programme against the needs of the consumers instead of against the goals of the providers. Parlett and Hamilton (1976) propose the 'illuminative' evaluation which seeks to address and illuminate a complex array of questions pertaining to the innovation, designed to take account of the interaction between the 'instructional system' and the 'learning milieu'.

11.3   Evaluating curriculum change in developing countries

Malaysia is a developing country, as mentioned earlier the role of evaluation in innovation has increased in importance such that it is now an accepted feature of project planning and management However with regards to outcomes, the focus still appears to be very much on student achievement at the short-term period and using the classical or objectives models for evaluating it. In the developing countries striving to maintain and improve the quality of education on offer to their children while at the same time continuing a massive quantitive expansion of the whole education system. For example, the Mid-West Primary Science Project in Nigeria (Falajayo,1976) designed to ensure that all pupils would learn science throughout their primary school years was evaluated in order to find answers to five major questions, of which two pertained to outcomes. One was to find the impact of the programme on pupils in terms of the acquisition of the knowledge of scientific facts, the application of these facts to solving problems and the development of scientific attitudes. .

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Curriculum change in Indonesian Development School Project (Marsandi et. al.,1977; and Nasoetion et. al., 1976) attempted to explore the role played by evaluation in the management of curriculum change. The project was initiated in 1974 which has concentrated particularly upon the origin of the 1975 Curriculum in systems analysis theory; upon textbook writing and publication in the project; upon the implementation of these materials in schools through a multiplier system of teacher training; and, because of its important side-effects on the thinking of curriculum planners generally in Indonesia, upon the evaluation strategy and practice in the project. The evaluation of the project comprised regular collection of data from project schools, feed back on each module, tests at the end of each semester to assess pupils' achievement, and a final evaluation to measure whether or not the experiment had been successful. The first three components of the evaluation were for improving the modules and the operation of the new instructional system.

11.4   Assessment of the KBSM

An overall evaluation of the KBSM has also been planned to be undertaken by the University of Science Malaysia (USM, 1991). It focused on four aspects: materials, dissemination system, learning environment and product; to be conducted between 1990 and 1994. The product evaluation, which constitutes measurement of the outcomes of the project, would focus on the outcomes of learning, teaching styles and means of evaluating pupils. The instruments proposed to be used are paper-and-pencil tests, interviews, questionnaires and classroom observations. Because of the high degree of

confidentiality associated with both of the evaluation operations, the researcher was not able to examine any of the plans and instruments, let alone their results. The view regarding the outcomes of an innovation in the KBSM project and in the examples from other developing countries is confined exclusively to those pertaining to the classroom, particularly in terms of pupil achievement. There is obviously a need to widen the range of outcomes. However, an evaluation which incorporates the various types of outcomes, the short-term and the long-term ones, those that affect the different groups or different parts of the system, as well as the intended and unintended ones, has serious implications. The evaluation design will be more complicated, a variety of instruments will have to be developed, and the operation of the evaluation will be longer. These would require more time, more people, more expertise and more funds. As mentioned earlier, a high degree of confidentiality is associated with the evaluation activities for the KBSM. There are, of course, reason for this, but it is an unfortunate decision. At the planning stage, confidentiality prevents a wider debate on the design of the evaluation, details of the sampling or the instruments to be used, which, if undertaken, could help towards a better evaluation.

In general, curriculum planners in developing countries, have tried to base management of change upon information which has been systematically collected. In KBSM project is also seen very much in terms of pupil achievement. In November 1989, the pupils' achievement test were carried out for the first year of implementation of KBSM. For the first and second year of implementation, only four languages (i.e. Bahasa Malaysia, English, Chinese and Tamil) were introduced. For this limited implementation, the aim was to find out the level of pupil achievement for each year, using a sample of 10

percent of schools in the country. This survey was developed jointly by the Examination Syndicate, Teacher Education Division and the Curriculum Development Centre. The proposed evaluation was put into operation and at the end of 1991 tests were given to the sample of Secondary 1, 2 and 3, but the results are kept confidential.

11.5 What are the outcomes of innovation?

Another way of looking at outcomes could be in terms of the feasibility, effectiveness and educational value of the innovation. Cooper (1976) in writing about curriculum evaluation in the British context considers these factors to be the three logical areas about which information would be needed by decision makers. Eraut (1976) suggests that information on these aspects can be seen in terms of three main assumptions as follows:

i. that the project's innovation strategy will lead to a significant number of schools implementing the curriculum strategy as intended (not just adopting the project's name and materials);

ii. that the project's curriculum strategy, if correctly implemented, will have effects on the pupil, teacher and school which are consistent with the project's claims and intentions; and

iii. that these effects will have greater educational value than the effects of possible alternative strategies.

Yet another way of looking at outcomes is one proposed by Adams and Chen (1981) after analysing the process of innovation of seven projects from different parts of the

world. They argue that all events likely to influence the future of an innovation could not be anticipated, therefore, innovation should be adaptable. Thus, rather than taking 'failure to achieve stated objectives' as the criterion for evaluating innovations, they propose an 'effects criterion', that is, focusing on what happens whether anticipated or not, as the result of the innovation process.

Outcomes or effects of an innovation can be the intended and unintended short-term and long-term outcomes. One way of viewing outcomes can be in terms of the different kinds of effects of the innovation. For example, the Dissemination Efforts Supporting School Improvement (DESSI) study in the United States identified and measured the following:

i. degree of implementation which assesses the degree of actual change on the part of the teacher;

ii. attitude towards innovation which is concerned with perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the change;

iii. impact or benefits:

    a. on students such as in the amount of learning

    b. on teachers such as in professional development

    c. on the organisation such as in increased interaction among staff
       members

(Crandall, 1982).

11.6 What were the degree of success of the KBSM?

For English language, virtually everyone mentioned the improved performance in reading, with comments such as 'more pupils can read', 'pupils can read more fluently', 'pupils can read earlier', 'pupils shows more interest in reading' and ' even the very weak ones can at least recognise the alphabet and syllabus'. With the high achievement that has actually been demonstrated at the Form 1 level, many who involved in KBSM were optimistic that or nearly all pupils should be able to communicate in English by the end of their lower secondary schooling. Apart from communicative, improved achievement in writing and oral skills were also mentioned. Many pupils could easily understand sentences, make simple sentences and produce correct answers both orally and in writing. A few, however, remarked that the pupils are more interested in learning English and more confident to use English outside school.

In addition to pupil achievement there were comments referring to other types of outcomes. All of them could be considered desirable and are listed below:

i. a change in pupil performance as discussed in Chapter 10;

ii. a change towards a more positive attitude on the part of the teachers, and an awareness of the greater effort that they can put into their work;

iii. greater interaction among teachers in the school, both professionally and socially, arising from the establishment of the School KBSM Committee;

v. increased capability on the part of the state in the management of implementation

v. increased contact, consultation and co-operation among the divisions in the Ministry, with officers beginning to regard each other as member of a team; and

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vi. increased understanding on the part of planners about the process of curriculum change.

The teachers and principals who were interviewed appeared definite in their judgements about the degree of success of the KBSM, but the personnel were hesitant and usually proceeded to discuss various aspects relating to the implementation and outcomes of the curriculum as a whole. Table 11.1 shows that most of the respondents felt that English language programme had been 'successful'.

Table 11.1: Percentage distribution of responses based on teachers' comment on the degree of successful of the KBSM.

	N	%
Fully successful	65	41.3
Successful	41	30.7
Partly successful	27	28.0
Not successful		
Total	133	100.0

More specifically, success for English language was seen as the ability to communicate and read. With few exceptions, the respondents who were interviewed showed reluctance to pronounce the programme as 'fully successful'. In the case of the teachers and principals this was because not all students in each class could achieve the objectives as intended by the programme. In the few cases where respondents

considered the programme as 'partly successful', it was because they felt that quite a number of students still could not achieve the objectives of the programme.

11.7 What were the criteria for success?

In the pre-testing of the questions for the teachers and principals, this particular question appeared redundant. In all cases what were expressed as the manifestations of success were in fact the criteria they would use. From the responses of the teachers and principals, therefore, one could deduce that the criterion for success was solely pupil achievement.. Many of the personnel also considered student achievement as the criterion but in some cases the following was suggested as more valid:

. the overall performance of the students, including not only the acquisition of the language skills, but also the other objectives as intended by the programme;

i. teachers' performance in the planning, preparation and conduct of teaching; and

ii. the utilisation of students' time in the classroom.

11.8 What were the reasons for success?

Five reasons were attributed for the success of this programme as identified by the respondents in the study. Firstly, teachers adopt a number of teaching strategies in the classroom. The availability of more reading materials provides pupils with greater opportunity for reading and for developing interest in reading. The use of worksheets

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means that pupils do not waste time copying work into their own books. Teaching according to the ability of the pupils and greater attention to the weak ones have enabled nearly all to acquire the basic skills. The increased opportunity for pupils to speak and work on their own has given them confidence and helped to develop their interest in learning

Secondly, a number of teaching guides were produced. The guides specify the language skills to be taught in great detail, and these are systematically presented. There are also many suggestions for the teaching and learning activities. All these make the planning and conduct of teaching easier for the teacher. Thirdly teachers often receive assistance from the Key Personnel and other visitors.

Fourthly, a reduction in the knowledge content in the curriculum as a whole means that pupils are not overburdened. A more relevant content for English language makes teaching and learning easier. And finally, a greater increased allocation means that sufficient time can be given to ensure that language skills are thoroughly mastered by the pupils.

11.9 Areas for improvement

Even though the respondents in the study were happy with improvements brought by the new English language programme, there were a number of comments which indicated their concern over certain issues. In some cases, specific suggestions for improvement were offered. Some of these, such as financial assistance and teachers' workload had already been discussed.

11.9.1 The brighter and weaker students

On the whole the respondents felt that the brighter pupils were not getting as much attention as they should as teachers tended to concentrate more on the weaker pupils.

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Many of the respondents emphasised the need for a specialist remedial teacher and suggested that at least one such teacher be allocated to each school. The provision of a remedial teacher would not only reduce the burden on the class teacher but also ensure that the weaker pupils obtained the proper help that they needed. But, this requires resources: for the specialised training required by these teachers and for the extra posts that need to be created, a measure that could not possibly become effective quickly.

11.9.2   Class size

The class size of 37 or more students was viewed by respondents as responsible for a number of difficulties: the management of teaching was more demanding, and the burden on the teacher increased with the need to make large sets of instructional materials. Classrooms were crowded, and the amount of time the teacher could give for individualised attention was reduced. Many of the respondents were of the opinion that a smaller class could lessen these difficulties and would lead to increased student achievement. Some even suggested the number of students per class be reduced to as low as 27.

Teachers would always want smaller classes, but this would involve increase in the number of classrooms and teacher supply. Already, the new teacher-class ratio and other costs for implementation have made considerable demands on resources. Furthermore, there is no empirical evidence yet, to indicate that 'small' class size would lead to higher student achievement.

11.9.3   Ideas for improving teaching approaches and activities

This is obviously an area of concern. Teachers do require a continuous supply of ideas to enable them to grow professionally so that their teaching becomes more effective and interesting. As mentioned earlier, the amount of suggestions that the central agencies can provide is limited. It is essential therefore that teachers, principals, KPs and the district level staff are capable of generating ideas, which legitimise their professional development. Such provision has to be seen as an on-going activity and to incorporate a variety of means. This issue will be further examined in Chapter 12.

Many of the Form 1 English teachers expressed their need for more suggestions in order to improve their teaching. The other group of respondents also referred to this and mentioned that the KPs should be providing teachers with these. Unfortunately, the KPs seem unsure of what better approaches and activities to suggest.

11.10   Problems in the implementation

There are three main implementation problems appeared to be related to the need for commitment , hasty schedule and the rural schools.. Firstly, about one-third of the personnel appeared to question the commitment of teachers and principals and emphasised that they need to put greater effort in order to make the KBSM a success. There were familiar criticisms about teachers such as, 'they do not carry out what they have planned and written in their record books' or 'marking of pupils' work is not

meticulous and not up-to-date'. And some principals and senior assistants, it was claimed, need to prove themselves to be more prepared to handle professional matters. From the classroom observations and the interviews with teachers and principals that the researcher conducted, there appeared to be a great deal of commitment. Perhaps, instances interpreted as lack of commitment were more a matter of lack of awareness (e.g. lack of awareness of the value of immediate feedback as a means of promoting more effective learning), or lack of preparation or training (e.g. the principals were generally not able to provide professional support to teachers due to the inadequate preparation they received for this task).

Secondly, in addition a number of respondents from among the personnel and principals remarked on the haste with which the KBSM was implemented. Sufficient time had not been given for the limited implementation to be monitored thoroughly and problems to be studied. The above observations by respondents suggest that they were generally aware of a complexity in implementing a curriculum change. There were also remarks which indicated their awareness that there were many factors which need to be adequately addressed in order to improve the quality of education. As the study was undertaken in rural and urban areas, a number of comments invariably referred to the advantages and disadvantages of the rural and urban children- the rural children arising from the poor conditions in the rural schools, and the low economic status and passive attitudes of the rural parents.

And finally, respondents frequently cited the imbalance between urban and rural schools. The latter were seen as suffering from a number of disadvantages; such as they suffer from lack of facilities, shortage of teachers and support staff and an environment that is not truly conducive to learning; the welfare of the teachers is not being given

adequate consideration. There is no suitable housing close to the school. Teachers live far away from school and face transport problems. Furthermore, there is no extra allowance for teaching in the rural areas; and there is a lack of awareness of the poor conditions in the rural schools on the part of planners at the central level; in fact, no systematic study has ever been made of these conditions.

CHAPTER 12

GENERALISATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

12.1 Introduction

This thesis attempts to explore the challenge and complexity of a curriculum change for secondary school in Malaysia. A survey method and a case study approach have been used in describing the process of change in the KBSM, i.e. a new curriculum for the secondary level in Malaysia. The main focus of this investigation is on the basic skills component in English language programme at the Form 1 level. In order to attain this, large portion of the empirical data have been studied from 67 secondary schools in the northern states of Peninsular Malaysia, and detailed observations were also made in 17 classrooms. Some of the salient finding of this study is discussed below.

12.2 Curriculum Change: Lessons from the Malaysian Experience

The outcomes of the KBSM examined in this study representing only the short-term which prevail in the first three years of implementation. However, as described in Chapter 3, the outcomes of an educational change effort tend to be time-dependent. However, as already emphasised, the outcomes that are expected to occur in the future, cannot be precisely predicted. On the whole the findings in this study are inadequate to use as a basis for making judgement on whether the innovation has been a 'success' or a 'failure'. There are the planned and unintended ones; there are the short-term and long-term ones; and there are also outcomes of different types. In addition to changes at the classroom level, an innovation also cause changes at the other levels. For instance, in the case of the KBSM, special committees were set up

in order to ensure effective implementation of the programme at the school, district, state and national levels.. An immediate effect on the KBSM teacher was the increase in workload. The ultimate aim of an innovation is to benefit the learner, therefore the conditions and processes that prevail in the classroom are the most critical although the effects of the innovation on the other groups of participants and at the other levels are equally important.

Other outcomes of the KBSM that have been examined, such as little useful feedback about how training was carried out and how it could be improved. Such outcomes are unavoidable for innovation is a complex process and numerous factors come into play. Certain unintended outcomes, however, are not necessary unwanted. For example, the excessive increase in the workload of the KBSM teachers led to the introduction of a higher teacher-class ratio. The latter is obviously a much desired measure. It will reduce the burden on the teacher, and in the long-term it will mean an enlarge supply of teachers for the secondary school - a factor which can contribute to the overall improvement of secondary education. The emphasis on the acquisition of basic skills; the active participation of pupils in learning through a variety of activities; use of a variety of instructional materials and managed through a variety of pupils grouping; the greater attention to individual pupils and the need to provide for the different levels of ability by means of remedial enrichment programmes; were all endorsed as the appropriate means towards improving the quality of education at the secondary level.

The KBSM also brought remarkable changes in the classroom activities and atmosphere. The overt ones were the large quantities of teaching and learning aids most of which were prepared by teachers themselves, the seating of pupils in groups; the existence of teaching elements of literature in language classes, and the perpetual movement and noise as pupils engaged in the learning activities. There was also the faithful application of the new content or skills and in the sequence as specified in the teachers' guides. It was found that the urban and English medium schools generally could implement the KBSM programme efficiently. Nonetheless, the teachers find it difficult to teach effectively as the number of pupils in a class is too large i.e. more than 50 pupils.

12.3   Qualities for success

The factors that need to be taken into account in order to ensure effective implementation depend on the nature of the studies taken. Curriculum development and curriculum change are inextricably linked process. It is argued in this study that a wider perspective of evaluation and use of the complementary methodology of evaluation could have made an important contribution to better curriculum planning. If Malaysia wishes to make progress in the effective implementation of its plans for qualitative change, its educational leaders will need to look to the more fundamental issue of how they interpret the process of curriculum development and the implications for organisational structures and planning priorities.

From the evidence in the study, it appears that the relative success of the basic skills component of the KBSM is attributable to the following factors: Firstly, the congruence of the planners' emphasis on basic skills and the fundamental objectives of the teachers and the acceptance by the teachers of the various features of the teaching and learning strategy Secondly, the attempt to set realistic goals in terms of time to be spent and ground to be covered, leading to the increased time allocation for English language and the fairly high quality of the guide books   Thirdly, the availability of a large number of KPs which enabled them to visit schools regularly for assisting teachers in their work. Finally the strong support from the government as demonstrated in the generous financial provision and the support from the teachers themselves through a great deal of sacrifice in terms of time and effort.

12.4 Prospects for the 1990s

For a common curriculum, as in the case of the KBSM, the relevance criterion is not easy to fulfil. Not only are the pupils varied in their interests, aptitudes and abilities, but they are also affected by the varied contexts in which they live, ranging from the remote rural areas to the industrialised urban centres. Parents also have different aspirations and expectations for their children. Parents in rural areas would be satisfied with the acquisition of the basic skills in the education, but others may want more to be accomplished. What exactly the curriculum is like in practice and what implications it brings cannot be known until teachers and those responsible for

helping them attempt to use it. Unevenness in the level of implementation is likely to occur for conditions in some places are more conducive to a higher level of implementation than others.

This study has revealed the complexity of the curriculum change process in Malaysia. It is envisaged that the political pressure to maintain the unity of the country will probably ensure that centralisation of the system in Malaysia will be continued. The review of the literature, the experiences in Malaysia and other countries and the specific case of the KBSM have shown that it is indeed a serious and demanding task. It involves a large number of people, from the different groups, and at the various levels. It also requires the commitment and hard work from every individual involved. In addition, adequate funds, a realistic time schedule and an effective administrative machinery are necessary. There are many objectives to achieve, and there are usually pressures to include more rather than less in a curriculum. There is therefore the need to identify priorities and to ensure that pressures from the different groups do not jeopardise the success of the change.

However, even when a curriculum has been elaborately planned and satisfied the required criteria, it would only remain as intentions or on-paper proposals until it becomes translated into meaningful learning activities for pupils in the classroom throughout the country. It is at the stage of implementation (trying to effect real change) that a number of decisions have to be made, numerous activities to be carried out and a large number of people are involved. These decisions have made at all

levels. When the change is introduced into schools, there is no guarantee that the proposal will be implemented in the way intended by the planners; for people interpret the proposal in different way, and the variety of contexts necessitate that the proposal be put into practice in different ways.

12.5 Implications and Suggestions

Curriculum implementation is not merely the process of tinkering with the official syllabus, but it is a process which continued throughout in which everyone is involved: parents, teachers, community leaders, politicians and professional educators. The findings in the survey method and the case study approach, to some extent, can not be generalised to the rest of the country. There were, however, a number of instances where views of personnel at central and state levels and of others in other parts of the country corresponded with the conditions that prevailed in this study. In Chapter 4, the researcher has illustrated that the secondary schools into which the KBSM is being introduced have diverse characteristics.

Nine aspects relating to curriculum implementation identified from this study are: demands on implementors; financial, material and other resources; monitoring; unintended outcomes; communication between the different institutions; proposal of the KBSM; preparation and development of professional; adequate time; and professional and administrative machines operate. Details will be discussed in sections 12.6 to 12.14.

12.6 Demands on implementors

All individuals participating in the change process will experience some demands. It is only the question of its degree. In this study the investigation focused on demands made by the new curriculum on the teachers and principals and this will be examined as follows.

It was found that all teachers experienced an increase in workload. In the initial stages, hard work was needed to prepare learning aids and to learn how to manage the new teaching style. Even after the initial period, more effort was required from them compared to demands under the former curriculum; in managing the learning of the different groups in large classes, in being responsive to the needs of individual pupils, and in the need to continually replace learning aids that are bound to wear out rapidly through constant use. Their efforts have shown results - pupils are performing better than before. The satisfaction of being able to achieve something worthwhile can become a strong stimulus for continued hard work or even greater effort.

For the KBSM the principals were expected to perform the tasks of the professional leader in addition to managing the regular administrative and public relation tasks necessary to install a new curriculum. Surprisingly, they did not claim to have experienced demands in these tasks; in fact, some of them felt that there was hardly any increase in their workload. The main reason for this was because they could not

perform the professional tasks. Nevertheless, they performed what they could and were happy to have a part to play in the change process. The principals in urban areas seemed to become the prime mover towards qualitative improvement compared to the rural principals.

12.7 Financial, materials and other resources

In this study the high cost of introducing the KBSM into schools was illustrated in Chapter 8. The funds were made available by the government. There were no financial or other forms of assistance from any external or international agency. The large financial allocation indicates very clearly the government's commitment for improving education for all the children in the country. The availability of the funds has made it possible for the KBSM to be launched according to its original plans such as the time schedule for its implementation, changes in pupils' materials and other forms of support for its implementation. However, this study revealed that the small sums of money at the school level that appeared to cause some problems. Teachers and principals consistently referred to the inadequate financial assistance from the government and the difficulty of relying on the rural parents to make contributions. Without financial assistance, they feared that the large quantities of learning aids, so necessary for effective teaching and learning, could not be replaced once they were worn out. The situation also calls for a closer look at the allocation and expenditure of the funds. One example how expenditure could be reduced was suggested in Chapter 9, i.e. by providing the teachers with the study kits, and this

could be done more cheaply by means of an exhibition or demonstration during the in-service courses. The fund which would arise from reduction of expenditure could then be channelled to the rural schools which have many disadvantages in many aspects; or alternatively, a special allocation could be made for them. Such discrimination in favour of the rural schools is certainly justified on the basis of equalising opportunities for those in the disadvantaged areas with those in the more advantaged areas. It is one of the bases of the New Economic Policy which aims for unity and equal opportunity within an ever expanding economy (discussed in Chapter 4).

12.8   Monitoring

Adequate monitoring of a change implies the need to provide the infra-structure for the monitoring to be undertaken, to ensure that the monitoring looks into the relevant aspects and ask the right questions, and for the information obtained to be conveyed accurately and immediately to the agencies that can make decisions for corrective action. But, the value of the monitoring lies in the extent to which these agencies pose the flexibility and capacity for planning the appropriate action to be taken.

In the case of the KBSM, not all measures require central policy decisions or have serious financial implications. Some of the problems could be tackled by agencies at the state and district levels. For instance, the need to encourage use of the mixed-ability grouping or change in the style of teacher questioning could be matters that the

professional development activities for teachers, principals and KPs at the district level could incorporate. Greater responsibility for implication entrusted to the state and district agencies surely involve responsibility for decision-making in certain matters. For the KBSM, an adequate provision for monitoring was available. This was undertaken by agencies at the central, state and district levels, and with regular reports submitted to the KBSM Implementation Committee. Some of the measures could be enforced immediately but others took a longer time to have any impact at the classroom level. However, the commitment on the part of the planners to provide for such support has greatly helped to keep up morale and sustain the enthusiasm of teachers and others involved in the new curriculum.

Evidence from the investigation in this study showed that there were matters which the monitoring agencies appeared not to have detected. For instance, there were excessive use of the homogeneous ability grouping, lack of change in teachers' questioning styles, lack of pair and group work and lack of usage of teaching aids. Unless detailed information is available, it is not possible to assess accurately the level of implementation, the nature of the shortcomings, or the seriousness of the unintended outcomes. Without an accurate analysis of the problem, it is not possible to plan for the appropriate corrective measures. After obtaining the accurate information, it is essential that the decision-makers study it with attitude that allow for a flexible pattern of response. A lot of skill and confidence are necessary for such flexibility to occur.

12.9 Unintended outcomes

While the occurrences of unintended outcomes cannot be avoided, their number and seriousness could be reduced with a more realistic time schedule for the planning and try-out before the innovation is implemented widely. A possible alternative is to make some amendments to the innovation itself; while maintaining the ideals and the aspirations, the means could be adjusted to be more consistent with the constraints of the situation.

The outcomes of an innovation cannot be fully predicted in advance. Unintended outcomes (though not necessarily unwanted) may occur along side those of the intended ones. The very nature of innovation, a process involving various groups of people and dependent on administrative, financial and material support, in itself implies that it cannot be totally planned. The study has demonstrated the occurrence of some unintended effects of the KBSM. One clear example is the increase in the teachers' workload arising from the need to prepare large quantities of learning aids. In the original plan, the emphasis on teachers preparing their own materials was partly to reduce dependence on textbooks, and partly to encourage teachers to use their creativity so as to provide pupils with a variety of materials suited to their abilities and interests. From the evidence in the study, these objectives could be considered to have been achieved, but they had caused the teachers' workload to increase to the extent that it became a topic very much discussed even outside of the

education system. This increase of workload, fortunately, did not lead to undesirable repercussions from the teachers, teachers' unions or the public because certain measures were immediately taken; but the latter had important implications on the system. One of the measures was the setting up of the school KBSM Committee. This did not have serious implications, in fact, it provided greater opportunities for teachers and principals to participate in the curriculum change process. Another measure, the increase in the teacher-class ratio, while desirable not just for ensuring the success of the new curriculum but also as an important input towards improving the overall quality of education at the primary level, has very serious implications.

Another unintended outcome could be seen in the relative neglect of the brighter pupils arising from the greater attention given by teachers to the weaker pupils. This situation has arisen from the emphasis in the KBSM that teaching and learning be made appropriate to the varied interests and abilities of the pupils. In the process of implementing this aspect of the proposal, teachers have become more aware of the individual differences among the pupils, have grouped pupils according to their ability, and have also attempted to provide activities appropriate to the different groups.

The lack of enrichment activities, as examined earlier, can be attributed largely to the lack of understanding of the concept on the part of the teachers. There is therefore the need to provide them with the opportunity to acquire greater clarification of the

concepts and with more examples of the types of activities to be conducted. The measures to improve the situation were the provision of guidance to teachers and the production of additional materials. The evidence in the study has shown that the guidance has not been successful in providing teachers with the help they needed, and the additional materials would not reach the schools until the end of 1991.

12.10 Communication and consultation

In a centralised system there are the planners who decide on the objectives, content and teaching strategies of the curriculum; or the policy makers who can authorise the allocation of funds, and the employment and deployment of personnel. At the local level there are the administrators and the supervisors while at the school level there are the principals and teachers who contribute to the implementation of curriculum change. The contribution of each group thus will determine whether or not the innovation will succeed.

Each group has a distinct role to play in the change process. For this reason, communication and consultation between the groups at each level and between levels are necessary to ensure that all are working within the framework of the same objectives, emphases and approaches. For a centrally developed curriculum like the KBSM, the decisions regarding aims and objectives, content, teaching and learning strategies, as well as the administrative, financial and material support to implement the curriculum were made at the central level. Such decisions had to be

communicated through the state and district agencies in order to reach the teachers. It was only then that the curriculum could be translated into learning activities for the pupils in the classroom. Similarly, conditions prevailing at the classroom level would have to be communicated through the district and state agencies to the planners and decision makers at the central level before major correction measures can be taken.

At any level, the various groups responsible for the different tasks of curriculum change have to communicate with and consult each other. In the case of the KBSM the curriculum developers at the central level who produce the syllabuses and guide books, the teacher trainers who provide training to new teachers and the inspectors who supervise teachers in the schools, need to be constantly in touch with each other. In addition the communication needs to be accurate, unambiguous, comprehensive and timely; that the consultation needs to be exhaustive in order to clarify issues and to obtain consensus of views.

In this study it was found that there were instances where the necessary communication and consultation for the KBSM project were provided for; such as the briefing by the curriculum developers to staff of other divisions before the limited implementation began, a workshop for national and state level staff to discuss issues pertaining to guidance for teachers in 1989, and the monthly meeting of the KPs at the district level. However, there were also instances of lack of communication such

as over the supply of the readers, and lack of consultation that has resulted in inconsistencies of the advice given to teachers. All these, to a certain extent, had adversely affected the implementation of the new curriculum.

There was also a clear example of the failure to inform the public of development of the KBSM. This has provided a lesson which the Ministry is not likely to forget, judging by the concern now shown and the measures now taken to ensure that the public is continuously informed of the progress of the project. A successful change depends on the contribution of each group, and every individual in the groups. Each one's contribution is maximised to the extent that it is effectively co-ordinated with the contribution of the others. For this reason, adequate communication are vital. Within the Malaysian education system, the channels for communication and consultation, formal and informal, at each level and between the levels were already in place. There is need for more frequent and more effective communication and consultation so that the implementation of programmes can be better accomplished. Some suggestions for improvements between the different agencies and the different levels are given below:

a. Between divisions at the central level: all relevant divisions to be consulted prior to decisions being taken; decisions taken by any one division to be made known immediately to the others; representatives of divisions attending meetings, briefings, seminars, workshops, or conferences to brief their directors immediately of the discussion that has taken place.

b. Between central and state agencies: state agencies to be consulted prior to decisions being taken; any communication from a division at the central level to state agencies to be made known to other relevant divisions; important decisions taken at state level to be made known to the relevant divisions at the central level.

c. Between the state and district agencies: regular consultation in professional matters between state level staff and the district staff and KPs; problems and queries at the district level to be forwarded immediately to the state agencies.

d. Between agencies at district level: regular meetings among district staff, KPs and principals on professional and administrative matters.

12.11 The proposal of KBSM

In this study there were instances of difference in interpretation of the KBSM as implied in comments about the need for great consultation between the divisions in the Ministry, and for regular meetings between staff at the state level and KPs of the district level. There were also instances of varied interpretations between members in each group such as the occurrence of inconsistencies of advice given to teachers by different KPs. It is the proposal as understood and interpreted by the teacher that gets translated into teaching and learning activities in the classroom. Also, it is the proposal as understood and interpreted by a KP, inspector or district staff that becomes the basis in his attempts to help the teacher to teach the new curriculum.

Clarity about a proposal by teachers and those who support them is essential for a change to be effectively implemented. This aspect has been emphasised by many researchers as described in Chapter 3. But clarity, particularly for a complex proposal, is not acquired once and for all; rather the individual develops highly understanding of the proposal during implementation. For the teacher, he gained clarity as he attempts to put the proposal into practice, perhaps with assistance from supervisors, principals or colleagues. Variations in interpretation of a proposal cannot be totally avoided for each individual has his opinion, e.g.. on what constitutes a 'meaningful' activity or an 'effective' use of a teaching aid. In the study, such variations of interpretation on the part of the visitors (the KPs, inspectors and staff at the district and state levels) was found to cause confusion and anxiety to the teachers. In the implementation of the KBSM there were opportunities for criteria to be formulated such as during the inspectors' conference or workshop, or during the monthly meetings of the KPs.

The inspectors could attempt the initial specifications for deliberation by the other groups at the central, state and district levels. The final product would constitute a consensus of views of all groups which would then have to be accurately and clearly documented and made available to all. Teachers' competencies are likely to improve and students' achievement might increase, hence, there is need to review and revise them from time to time. The specifications of the criteria should also provide flexibility in order to take account of variations arising from the diverse aspects in

which the curriculum is being implemented. However, for reasons of national unity and the need to equalise opportunities, discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, the common goals, common objectives and common emphases of the curriculum have to be maintained. All agencies and individuals therefore should strive to achieve the ideals specified in the common curriculum, but it is unrealistic to expect the same practices and the same levels of pupil achievement everywhere. For instance, one cannot possibly expect the performance of urban students, with exposure to foreign languages and a conducive learning environment at home, to be the same as the performance of those educationally disadvantaged ones in the remote rural areas.

12.12 Preparation and development of professional

Professional development of district level staff

The district staff are responsible for both administrative and professional matters. Professional development for them is obviously necessary. This is even more so with the current move towards decentralisation and thus the professional development of the teachers, principals and KPs are to be taken at district level.

Professional development of principals

The principal has an important role to play in any changes affecting the school who is the administrative leader as well as the professional leader for a school. The

principals performed their administrative tasks such as in the preparation of the time-table, ensuring experienced teachers teaching KBSM classes and raising additional funds. However, they did not generally perform their professional tasks in advising and guiding teachers in teaching the new curriculum. This was partly because the professional role was new to them and partly because they did not receive adequate preparation.

At the central level it was planned that the principals be given a five-day course in preparation for the tasks they were expected to carry out. Unfortunately, many of the principals received only a two-day course and a few received no training at all. This is indeed a serious shortcoming and could be attributed to: (i) the lack of awareness of the important role of the principals in curriculum change on the part of the state level planners, and (ii) the unrealistic assumptions of what a short course could achieve.

To be able to supervise their teachers and to assume others for the professional development of the teachers as suggested earlier, the principals would require a thorough understanding of the various dimensions of the curriculum as a whole and a basic understanding of all the subjects in the curriculum. Professional development for them would have to incorporate courses as well as interaction and mutual support among them at both the formal and informal levels. The five-day course that has been planned needs to be carried out with its content to incorporate the various professional tasks the principal is expected to perform. The actual conduct of the

course, as in any training, has to ensure the maximum acquisition of skills and transfer of skills to actual practice. The principals, like the teachers and the KPs, need time to acquire understanding and to develop the necessary skills. They too need on-going support. This can be provided through additional courses, workshops or seminars, perhaps of two to three days duration twice a year, organised by the state department; as well as through mutual support among themselves in the district.

Curriculum change involves learning to do something new on the part of the individuals in the various groups involved in the process. In this study it was found that teachers had to learn new ideas such as the principles and specifications for the new teaching and learning strategy; prepare new materials; develop new skills for managing learning activities of students of the different abilities; and plan their weekly and daily lesson plans. The teachers were expected to use their discretion in adapting the specifications, suggestions and ideas provided by the central agencies so that the learning activities were appropriate to the particular needs of the students and their environments. They were also expected to utilise their creativity so that learning was effective and a meaningful and enjoyable experience to the students. All these mean that teachers were expected to develop a far more open attitude to change: that change is not an event accomplished with the formal adoption of the curriculum, but a process, continuously aiming for the 'better'. Apart from the teachers, other groups responsible for implementing the curriculum also had to perform new tasks.

The principals had to assume the role of professional leader in addition to their usual administrative role; KPs who were regular classroom teachers had to train and provide guidance to other teachers, and monitor the curriculum; while staff at the district and state levels had to attend to a number of new administrative and professional matters. As emphasised in section 12.3.1, one prerequisite for the effective implementation of a change is that the individuals involved are clear about the proposal. It is from the clear understanding of the proposal that the relevant competencies can be developed, the latter often involves changes in attitudes. All these cannot be acquired at once by the individual, definitely not at the beginning of his involvement with the innovation. It is through a combination of means such as courses, discussions and practice before and during implementation that these might be achieved. In short, it is professional development that the individual requires. Such development has to be planned and provided for. The type of programmes that an individual requires depends on his responsibilities, but there are some factors which are common to any effective programme. Some factors that have been suggested by Fullan (1982) are as follows: professional development should focus on job-related tasks faced by the individual; professional development programmes should include the training components: theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and application with coaching; a series of several sessions, with intervals between in which people have the chance to try things, is much more powerful than even the most stimulating one-shot course; and a variety of formal and informal elements such as courses, workshops, one-to-one assistance and peer interaction should be co-ordinated. The professional development of the teachers, principals, KPs and district staff will be examined as follows:

Professional development of KPs

In this study the KPs have an extremely important role in the implementation of the new curriculum. They train and provide guidance to teachers` as well as monitor the implementation. An essential element in the stock of knowledge of the KPs is a through understanding of the curriculum at both the theoretical and practical levels. This implies that the KPs themselves must have the experience of teaching the curriculum. In the study it was found that the KPs were given a teaching load of 600 minutes per week and to teach the classes which were using the KBSM for the first time i.e. in 1989 they taught the Form 1 classes; and in 1990, the Form 2 classes. This means that when they were training the form 1 teachers in 1988, they had not taught the curriculum; and when they were monitoring the implementation and assisting teachers in 1989, their experience was the same as those teachers. Such limited experience in the curriculum obviously put limits to the effectiveness of their performance.

Like the professional development of the teachers, the KPs also need to be provided through other means. It will be during the monthly meetings and other specially convened sessions that such deliberations might take place. In addition, manuals for training, monitoring guidance and conduct of sessions at the resource centre and teachers' groups could also be produced. Collegiality among the KPs should also be promoted.

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Professional development of teachers

In order to implement the KBSM, the teachers had to understand the curriculum, prepare a variety of teaching and learning aids and conduct a different style of teaching. To help them in these tasks, they were provided with guide books, given a short course prior to implementation, and visited by KPs and others, in order to give them further assistance. They had effected positive changes in the classroom and pupils' performance had improved; but they still had a long way to go to reach the ideal as envisaged by the planners. There were obvious cases of lack of clarity about certain features of the curriculum such as in the use of the readers, or over the activities for enrichment.

But the most significant of the findings relating to teachers was that they were seen as generally lacking the confidence to try out activities not specified in the guide books. Confidence is a fundamental attribute that needs to be occupied by teachers if any attempt at curriculum change is to be successful. Without it, at best, teachers can only become skilful initiators or the conscientious followers of instructions from higher authority. As mentioned earlier, it is not possible for the central agencies to provide teachers with all the examples and ideas that they need for their day-to-day work. Neither should this be necessary, for the teacher should be encouraged and be provided the opportunity to plan his own teaching, as he is the one who knows best the particular needs, interest and abilities of his pupils and the particular

conditions in the school. It is through this professional responsibility entrusted to the teacher that professional commitment could grow, an essential element for ensuring improved learning on the part of the pupils.

Malaysian teachers' confidence has to be developed to enable them to innovate and to be fully responsible for their own teaching. This can only be done with an adequate provision for their professional development, which is essential to enable teachers to improve their practices. Professional development incorporates all those activities that help a teacher to perform his tasks better. These include courses and workshops, advice and guidance received while on-the-job, activities at a teachers' centre or in a teachers' group and interaction and assistance from colleagues.

Nowadays in-service courses, workshops or conferences constitute a regular component in the implementation of curriculum change in both the industrialised and developing countries, although there are variations in the duration, organisation and actual conduct of the training. In Malaysia in-service courses have been taken seriously in which they have become an integral part of the curriculum change process. Efforts were made to ensure that at least one teacher from each school attend courses, usually up to five days duration, for the different programmes. In the case of the KBSM, provision has been made for every secondary school teacher in the country to attend courses, up to 10 days in duration. As emphasised earlier, teachers cannot learn everything at once, and a course prior to implementation can

only be of a theoretical nature: for teachers have not had the experience of teaching the curriculum, and of discovering the complexities and problems of doing it. A series of courses to serve specific purposes and initiated by agencies at the different levels will be necessary. Courses need to be held, perhaps once a term in the first year of implementation, and once a year in the later years, in addition to the pre-implementation course. The actual conduct of a course is also an important factor in determining its impact. The lecture method as the mode of presentation prevalent in the KBSM courses was considered unsatisfactory by both teachers and personnel.

It has been emphasised in a number of places in this thesis that teachers need help and advice in their day-to-day work, for it is while on-the-job that they face real problems. In this study it was found that the KBSM teachers received ample guidance in the first year of implementation but hardly any in the second year. But teachers need time to be able to understand a new curriculum thoroughly and need to become truly competent in the new teaching style. The duration needed depends on the nature of the change and on the nature of the support that is given to them. For the KBSM teachers, one year was not adequate; support was evidently needed even at the end of the second year of implementation. Thus, it would be necessary for the provision of guidance to be extended to the second, or even the third and forth year of implementation. For guidance to be effective, it has to meet the needs of the teachers. Inconsistencies of advice, causing confusion to the KBSM teachers, need to be minimised or even eliminated.

In this study it was found that some teachers, on their own initiative, discussed problems, exchanged ideas or co-operated in producing worksheets with others in their schools or even with teachers from other schools. They all indicated that such mutual support was beneficial to them. It appears therefore that mutual support among teachers should not only be encouraged, but actual provision be made to foster its growth. Mutual support can take various forms such as exchanging ideas and experiences, discussing problems, co-operating in producing materials, lending and borrowing materials, visiting each other's classroom, and even observing each other's teaching.

In four districts visited in this study a resource centre was recently established but so far it has not managed to attract teachers to come. For it to become truly a centre of activities for teachers, it has to cater for teachers' need. Some of the more immediate needs, as expressed or implied by the teachers, were to generate ideas for interesting teaching and learning activities and to produce materials or adapt centralised materials to become more relevant to the pupils in the district. These ideas and materials could then be disseminated to other teachers in the district, for instance, perhaps through the resource centre newsletter. The resource centre is a new structure in the Malaysian Education System, and for it to function effectively, active promotion and strong leadership are needed. This could be provided by the district staff and the KPs.

12.13 Adequate Time

Time is needed for the overall planning; for developing the specifications and materials of the curriculum; for trying these out and revising them; for preparing for its implementation, particularly in training teachers; for teachers to become competent in teaching the curriculum; and for the change itself to become assimilated into the system.

The introduction of the curriculum into the schools takes only a short time. In the case of the KBSM, it takes only seven years for the entire curriculum at all grade levels to be installed in all schools throughout the country. However, to ensure that curriculum is effectively implemented requires a much longer time. However, the rush to get an innovation introduced into schools and the resulting undesirable consequences, discussed in Chapter 5, is characteristic of curriculum change in Malaysia prior to the KBSM as well as in many other countries. This very same features was again repeated in the case of the KBSM.

In this study, however, other problems have been detected, which could have been avoided given adequate time for planning and try-out. Some of them could be considered serious while others were minor; but together, they caused the implementation to be less effective than has been hoped for. In addition this study has revealed that the principals were unable to perform the role of professional leaders in their own schools due to inadequate preparation. In the initial stage of

implementation the principals were invariably preoccupied with administrative matters such as preparing the time-table, ensuring that the experienced teachers to teach KBSM classroom was satisfactory and raising funds for the purchase of additional materials. When these urgent administrative tasks had to be be attended to, thus their involvement in professional matters was lacking.

Another problem which could be regarded as serious was that the KPs were only trained for four months before the first year of implementation. Consequently, solutions to problems such as teacher lack of clarity over key ideas of remediation and enrichment could not be adequately worked out. Such lack of clarity was also experienced by the KPs during their training (discussed in Chapter 8). Invariably, this would be transmitted to the teachers whom they trained. Evidence from the classroom observations and views of the personnel in the study proved to be the case.

The examples above illustrate the importance of adequate time for any curriculum change attempt. Yet there is persistent pressure for change to be introduced rapidly. While this is inevitable, for planners and decision-makers, with their good intentions, want to accomplish as much and as quickly as possible. However, we must be forewarned for the shortcoming resulting from such pressure, as pointed out by Sarason (1971) that results in bypassing the different aspects of the time perspective

problem, a bypass that may have no immediate adverse consequences but can be counted on to produce delayed, and sometimes fatal, difficulties.

The logical and simple solution to the problem is to allow for more time. But what duration constitutes 'adequate' time for a particular innovation is not easy to specify. Too little time can cause undesirable consequences, and yet, as Fullan (1982) points out that open-ended time-lines are also problematic, because they create ambiguity about what is expected and when and a lack of clarity about what constitutes progress. There is, therefore the need for a balance between having too little time and too much time. For the KBSM, perhaps a delay of just one year starting the nation-wide implementation could have been sufficient to enable the problems mentioned to be studied and hence the appropriate measures could be taken.

The strain of the nation-wide implementation could also be made lighter if the curriculum were to be introduced into schools even more gradually. This could have been done if only a limited number of schools in each state were to use the curriculum in the first year, and the number to be increased each succeeding year. Alternatively, only certain subjects of the new curriculum could be introduced each year in all schools. With either alternative the time needed to implement the entire curriculum into all schools in the country would be longer than seven years. There are, of course, implications from either alternative, but with adequate planning it could have made the implication easier to manage.

12.14 Professional and administrative machines operate

In this study the inseparable links between administrative and professional matters has been demonstrated at the various institutional levels. At the central level, for instance, the introduction of the KBSM could not have been realised without the large financial allocations. At the school level the teaching of the new curriculum could not have taken place if the principal, in his capacity as the administrator, had not ensured that his teachers attended the in-service courses.

The links were also seen at various stages in the change process. For example, when the new types of pupils' materials were developed, negotiations with the administrators were needed to ensure an increased financial allocation; or at the monitoring stage, both professional and administrative matters at the school level had to be looked into. In the Malaysian Ministry of Education, as described in Chapter 2, there are divisions responsible for administrative matters and others responsible for professional matters. Better link between various divisions in the Ministry would facilitate the curriculum implementation process. The highly centralised system of education tends to discourage localised curriculum implementation activity. Publishing exprtise is extremely limited, having a detrimental effect upon the quality of materials which can be produced. The implications of these examples is that the professionals must involve the administrators at every stage in the change process. Certain matters, involving major policy and financial implications, will naturally take longer to negotiate, hence, time is necessary. The longer the period for the planning

and try-out of the curriculum (to be discussed later), the more certain that the necessary links will become effectively established. The State Education Department is responsible for both administrative and professional matters. Hence, the links between the two elements can be considered to be automatically established. However, members of staff at the state department are usually assigned to handle either administrative matters or professional matters.

The District Education Office is responsible for both administrative and professional matters. But with only a limited number of staff, as shown in this study, it has not been possible for it to manage both aspects. The assistance of the KPs was needed to help monitor the implementation of the new curriculum and provide guidance to teachers. At the school level both administrative and professional matters are interlinked. The professional and administrative matters at school level are interlinked. The effectiveness of teachers depends on the administrative support they get and the materials they have made available. The inspectors and the staff at the district and state levels looked into both matters. But the KPs were only required to advise teachers on teaching and learning matters and to monitor implementation at the classroom level; and not to advise principals, nor to discuss administrative matters.

12.15   Conclusion

It is hoped that a deeper understanding of the process has been made possible and would be of help in influencing future action in the Malaysian context as well as others which are of similar nature. Perhaps this should be so, for educational

development is a never-ending story. There will always be more ideal to aspire for, greater learning to achieve and better practices to establish. No matter how complex the task of educational change may be, it is one that cannot be avoided. It is only

through real change which enables pupils to benefit from the opportunities for learning, that the quality of education can be said to have improved. This is a task that can be accomplished only through the join efforts of planners, administrators, professionals, teachers, and all those concerned with education. And, it is a task for which there appears to be hopes of being undertaken successfully. The findings from the evaluation of pupil achievement and the KBSM project as a whole will become available only after 1995 when the entire curriculum has been implemented. The findings in this thesis can only reflect the short-term outcomes of the innovation and in those aspects for which the evaluation had been designed. To be able to pronounce that the KBSM is successful or not successful will not be easy. There are difficulties in any attempt to evaluate an innovation. All respondents were directly involved with the innovation and many had experienced the struggle in order to achieve to the level of success in accordance to the 'Blueprint of Implementation' of the KBSM.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1 · List of the bibliographic details for teachers' materials.

A. For KBSM in general

1. Ministry of Education, 1987. Kurikulum bersepadu sekolah menengah: Matlamat, rasional, bidang pelajaran dan strategi pengajaran dan pembelajaran [The integrated secondary school curriculum: aims, rationale, areas of study and teaching and learning strategy]. Kuala Lumpur: Kementerian (Unpub.).

2. Ministry of Education, 1987. Buku panduan am Kurikulum bersepadu sekolah menengah (The general guide book for the New Primary School Curriculum. Kuala Lumpur: Kementerian (Unpub.).

3. Ministry of Education, 1989. Buku panduan program penulisan kurikulum bersepadu sekolah menengah Tingkatan 1 [Guide book for the remedial programme of the integrated secondary school curriculum Form 1]. Kuala Lumpur: Kementerian (Unpub.).

4. Ministry of Education, 1988. Panduan penilaian dalam bilik darjah KBSM [Guide for the KBSM classroom evaluation]. Kuala Lumpur, Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

B. For English Language

1. Ministry of Education, 1986. Sukatan pelajaran sekolah rendah: Bahasa Inggeris [Secondary school syllabus: English Language]. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

2. Ministry of Education, 1987. Buku panduan khas Bahasa Inggeris Tingkatan 1 [The specific guide book for English Language Form 1]. Kuala Lumpur: Kementerian.

3. Ministry of Education, 1987. Buku sumber Bahasa Inggeris Tingkatan 1 [Resource book for English language Form 1]. Kuala Lumpur: Kementerian.

Appendix 2   Letter to the Ministry of Education.

Siti Rahayah Ariffin,
1872, Jalan Megat Haron,
14000 Bukit Mertajam,
Pulau Pinang.   24hb. Mei 1991.

Pengarah,
Bahagian Perancangan dan Penyelidikan Pendidikan,
Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia,
Paras 2, 3 dan 5, Blok J,
Pusat Bandar Damansara,
50604 Kuala Lumpur.

Tuan,

   Per: Memohon kebenaran bagi menjalankan penyelidikan ke sekolah-sekolah,
   Jabatan-jabatan dan Institusi-institusi di bawah Kementerian Pendidikan
   Malaysia bagi tujuan penyelidikan peringkat Ph. D.

Adalah dimaklumkan bahawa saya pelajar peringkat Ph.D. di universiti Glasgow,
United Kingdom ingin memohon kebenaran bagi penyelidikan ke sekolah-sekolah di
bawah Kementerian Pendidikan malaysia.

2.   Sehubungan dengan ini, saya berharap pihak tuan dapat menghantar senaskah
borang permohonan dan syarat-syarat penyelidikan.

Sekian, terima kasih.

Yang benar,

....
(Siti Rahayah Ariffin)

BAHAGIAN PERANCANGAN DAN
PENYELIDIKAN PENDIDIKAN,
KEMENTERIAN PENDIDIKAN,
PARAS 2, 3 DAN 5, BLOK J,
PUSAT BANDAR DAMANSARA,
50604 KUALA LUMPUR

Telefon: 2556900
Kawat: "PENDIDIKAN"
Faks: 03-2554960

Ruj. Tuan:

Ruj. Kami:
    KP(BPPP)13/15 Jld.36(/
Tarikh:
    3 Jun 1991

Puan Siti Rahayah bte Ariffin,
1872, Jalan Megat Haron,
14000 Bukit Mertajam,
Pulau Pinang.

Puan,

**Kebenaran Bagi Menjalankan Kajian Ke Sekolah-Sekolah,
Jabatan-Jabatan Dan Institusi-Institusi Di Bawah
Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia**

Adalah saya diarah untuk memaklumkan bahawa permohonan puan untuk
menjalankan kajian mengenai

"The Implementation of The New Integrated Secondary School
Curriculum (KBSM) For English Language In Rural Secondary
School In Malaysia (with special reference to administrative
problem)"

telah diluluskan.

2.   Kelulusan ini adalah berdasarkan kepada hanya apa yang
terkandung di dalam cadangan penyelidikan yang puan kemukakan ke
Bahagian ini. Kebenaran bagi menggunakan sampel kajian perlu
diperolehi daripada Ketua Bahagian/Pengarah Pendidikan Negeri
yang berkenaan.

3.   Puan juga dikehendaki menghantar senaskhah hasil kajian puan
ke Bahagian ini sebaik sahaja selesai kelak.

Sekian.

"BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA"

"CINTAILAH BAHASA KITA"

Saya yang menurut perintah,

(DR. HANAFI MOHAMED KAMAL)
b.p. Pengarah Perancangan dan Penyelidikan Pendidikan,
b.p. Pendaftar Besar Sekolah-Sekolah dan Guru-Guru,
Kementerian Pendidikan.

s.k.

Pengarah Pendidikan,
Pulau Pinang.

Pengarah Pendidikan,
Negeri Kedah.

Pengarah Pendidikan,
Negeri Perlis.

Pengarah Pendidikan,
Negeri Perak.

Siti Rahayah Ariffin,
1872, Jalan Megat Haron,
14000 Bukit Mertajam,
Pulau Pinang.   4   Jun 1991

Pengarah,
Jabatan Pendidikan Negeri.

Tuan,

Per: Memohon kebenaran bagi menjalankan penyelidikan ke sekolah-sekolah,
Jabatan-jabatan dan Institusi-institusi di bawah Kementerian Pendidikan
Malaysia bagi tujuan penyelidikan peringkat Ph. D.

Adalah dimaklumkan bahawa saya pelajar peringkat Ph.D. di universiti Glasgow,
United Kingdom ingin memohon kebenaran bagi penyelidikan ke sekolah-sekolah di
bawah Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia.

2. Bersama-sama ini disertakan salinan-salinan dokumen berikut: surat kebenaran
daripada BPPP, rancangan penyelidikan, soal-selidik, panduan pemerhatian dan
panduan temubual untuk perhatian dan tindakan pihak tuan selanjutnya.

Sekian, terima kasih.

Yang benar,

. . . .
(Siti Rahayah Ariffin)

Jabatan Pendidikan,
Bangunan Tuanku Syed Putra,   Telefon: 625339/625448
10900 Pulau Pinang.   Fax: 04-611726

_____

Ruj. Kami: (22)dlm.Pen.P.P.AM.0051-2 Jld.9

Tarikh: 10 Jun 1991

Puan Siti Rahayah bte Ariffin,
1872 Jalan Megat Haron
14000 Bukit Mertajam
Pulau Pinang.

~~Tuan~~/Puan,

Kebenaran Bagi Menjalankan Kajian Ke Sekolah-Sekolah,
Jabatan-Jabatan Dan Institusi-Institusi Di Bawah
Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia
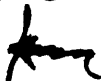
Saya diarah merujuk surat KP(BPPP)13/15 Jld.36(173) bertarikh
4 Jun 1991   berhubung dengan perkara di atas.

2.   Lanjutan daripada syarat di para 2 surat tersebut, ~~tuan~~/puan
adalah dengan ini dikehendaki menyampaikan ke Jabatan ini satu set
sampel atau instrumen kajian yang hendak digunakan untuk semakan
dan pertimbangan Jabatan ini.

Sekian.

"BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA"

Saya yang menurut perintah,

(HARUN BIN HASSAN)
b.p. Pengarah Pendidikan,
Pulau Pinang.

s.k.   Pengarah,
        Bahagian Perancangan dan Penyelidikan Pendidikan,
        Kementerian Pendidikan,
        Paras 2, 3 dan 5, Blok J,
        Pusat Bandar Damansara,
        50604 Kuala Lumpur.

        (u.p. Dr. Hj. Hussein bin Mahmood)

HH/hmn   404

Rujukan Tuan:
Rujukan Kami: JPK(PPSG)03-01/3(6

Tarikh: 10 Jun 1991

Puan Siti Rahayah bt. Ariffin,
....
1872, Jalan Megat Haron,

....
14000 Bukit Mertajam, Pulau Pinang.
....

Tuan,

Kebenaran Bagi Menjalankan Kajian Ke Sekolah-Sekolah
Jabatan-Jabatan Dan Institusi-Institusi Di Bawah
Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia.
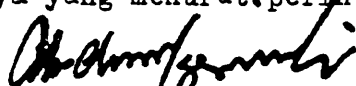
Adalah saya diarah merujuk surat KP(BPPP) 13/15 Jld.36(173)
bertarikh 4 Jun 1991 -   mengenai perkara di atas.

2.   Sehubungan itu, pihak jabatan dengan ini membenarkan tuan/puan
menjalankan kajian seperti yang terkandung dalam para 2 surat
kementerian.

Sekian.

"BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA"

Saya yang menurut perintah,

(Abdul Aziz b. Emby, PPN., PCK)
Ketua Penolong Pengarah,
Unit Perhubungan/Pendaftaran Sekolah & Guru,
b.p. Pengarah Pendidikan
        Kedah Darulaman.

s.k.

/sa.

UNIT PERHUBUNGAN DAN PENDAFTARAN
JABATAN PENDIDIKAN PERLIS
01990 KANGAR.   TELEFON: 761177

Ruj. Kami: JPPs/PPGS/5/23/$_1$(12)

Tarikh   : 11 Jun 1991

Puan Siti Rahayah bt. Ariffin,
No.1872, Jalan Megat Haron,
14000 Bukit Mertajam,
P. PINANG.

Tuan/Puan,

Kebenaran Menjalankan Kajian Mengenai:
The Implementation of The New Integrated Secondary School
Curriculum(KBSM)For English Language In Rural Secondary Schools In
Malaysia (with special reference k to administrative problem)
Dengan hormatnya saya adalah diarah merujuk surat tuan/puan

bertarikh 4 Jun 1991   berkenaan dengan perkara

yang tersebut di atas.

2.   Sukacita dimaklumkan bahawa Jabatan ini tidak ada apa-apa
halangan bagi tuan/puan menjalankan kajian yang dimaksudkan.

3.   Saya percaya pihak sekolah akan dapat membantu menjayakan
kajian yang dirancangkan itu.

Sekian, terima kasih.

' BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA '

Saya yang menurut perintah,

ABDUL AZIZ BIN HAJI MOHD. SAAID
  Unit Perhubungan dan Pendaftaran
     Jabatan Pendidikan Perlis.
b.p. Pengarah Pendidikan,
Perlis.

s.k

Pengetua-Pengetua,
Sek. Men. N.Perlis - sesalinan surat Bil.KP(BPPP)13/15 Jld.36(173)
bertarikh 8 Julai, 1992 dikepilkan bersama-sama ini untuk makluman/
tindakan tuan/puan selanjutnya.   AMS/bc.

JABATAN PENDIDIKAN PERAK,
JALAN TUN ABDUL RAZAK.
30640 IPOH,
PERAK DARUL RIDZUAN.

TELEFON: 513355

Ruj. Tuan:

"CINTAILAH BAHASA KITA"

Ruj. Kami: J.Pend.Pk/Sulit
4757/Jld.5 (14)

Tarikh: 12 Jun 1991

Puan Siti Rahayah bt.Ariffin,
1872, Jalan Megat Haron,
14000 Bukit Mertajam,
Pulau Pinang.

Tuan/Puan

KEBENARAN BAGI MENJALANKAN KAJIAN KE SEKOLAH-SEKOLAH
DI NEGERI PERAK DARUL RIDZUAN
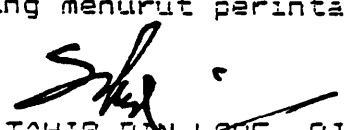
Saya diarah merujuk kepada surat permohonan tuan/puan
bertarikh 4.6.91   dan surat Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia
KP(BPPP)13/15/Jld. 36 (173) bertarikh 3 Jun 1991   mengenai
perkara di atas.

2.   Sukacita dimaklumkan bahawa kebenaran adalah diberi
untuk tuan/puan menjalankan kajian yang bertajuk

   "The Implementation of The New Integrated Secondary School
   Curriculum (KBSM) For English Language In Rural Secondary
   Schools In Malaysia (with special reference to administrative
   problem)"

"BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA"

Saya yang menurut perintah,

(MOHD. TAHIR BIN LOPE, PJK.)
Ketua Penolong Pengarah,
Bahagian Perhubungan dan Pendaftaran,
b.p. Pendaftar Sekolah-Sekolah,
Perak Darul Ridzuan.

s.k.   Pegawai Pendidikan Daerah

1872, Jalan Megat Haron,
14000 Bukit Mertajam,
Pulau Pinang.
Malaysia
13th. June 1991

The English Teacher,

_____

_____

Malaysia

Dear Teacher,

<u>Re: Questionnaire- Information on the KBSM</u>
<u>for use in a study for the preparation of a thesis</u>

I would very much like to get some information and your views regarding the
KBSM in general and the Form 1 English Language programme in particular. These
are specifically for purposes of a study for the preparation of a thesis. I hope you
would offer frank views and provide as much information as possible on every
question. All information given and opinion expressed in this questionnaire will be
treated as strictly confidential.

Please indicate with a tick (√) in the relevant boxes and write the answers or
comments in the spaces provided. If the spaces are inadequate, do write on the back
of the page or use additional paper. In view of the short duration for the conduct of
this study, I would be most grateful if you would complete the questionnaire as soon
as possible. Please return in the enclosed envelope.

For your co-operation, I am indeed grateful.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours gratefully,

(SITI RAHAYAH ARIFFIN)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHER

SECTION I: Background Data

1. Name of School: _____

2. Locality of school: rural ☐   urban ☐

3. Former language of school:
          Bahasa Malaysia ☐   English ☐   Chinese ☐

4. Type of school: daily school ☐   residential school ☐

5. Sex: male ☐   female ☐

6. Your age group:
            25 years and under ☐   26-30 years ☐   31-35 years ☐
                 36-40 years ☐   41-45 years ☐   46-50 years ☐
                 51-55 years ☐

7. Number of years in the teaching service:
            less than 1 years ☐   1-5 years ☐   6-10 years ☐
               11-15 years ☐   16-20 years ☐ 20 years and above ☐

8. Number of years teaching English:
            less than 1 years ☐   1-5 years ☐   6-10 years ☐
               11-15 years ☐   16-20 years ☐ 20 years and above ☐

9. Number of years at present school:
            less than 1 years ☐   1-5 years ☐   6-10 years ☐
               11-15years ☐   16-20 years ☐ 20 years and above ☐

10. Were you trained to teach English when you were undergoing pre-service training:
                 yes ☐   no ☐

11. The subjects you taught and the time allocation
1989 _____
1990_____
1991_____

12. Additional responsibilities (such as being secretary of the KBSM Committee, or Adviser to English Language Society)
1989_____
1990_____
1991_____

13. Academic qualifications:
Lower Cert. of Ed. (LCE)/ SRP ☐   Malaysian Cert. of Ed. (MCE)/SPM ☐
Higher Sch. Cert. (HSC)/STPM ☐   University degree (B.A, B.Sc., etc) ☐
                    Others (specify) ☐ _____
        Please state year obtained_____

14. Professional qualifications:
            Teaching Certificate (Secondary) ☐
                        Diploma in Education ☐
Degree in TESL/TEFL/Applied Linguistic ☐
                        Others (specify) ☐ _____
        Please state year obtained_____

15. English studies:
Lower Cert.of Ed. (LCE)/ SRP ☐   Malaysian Cert. of Ed. (MCE)/SPM ☐
Higher School Cert. (HSC)/STPM ☐   University degree (B.A, B.Sc., etc) ☐
                    Others (specify) ☐ _____
        Please state year obtained_____

SECTION II: Teacher's view on the KBSM and English Language Programme

1. KBSM aims to introduce changes with respect to objectives, content, method of teaching and ways of evaluating pupils. All these are for improving the quality of education.

What are your views on the KBSM ?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. In your opinion, to what extent can the Form 1 English Language programme be considered successful?

   fully successful ☐   successful ☐

   partly successful ☐   not successful ☐

Please indicate the reasons why you think so_____

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

3. In the spaces provided, please indicate the availability and utilization of the books prepared for the teacher on the KBSM in general and the Form 1 English Language programme.

Books	AVAILABILITY				UTILISATION			
	Own a copy	Share a copy	Have only seen it	Have never seen it	Always refer to it	Read a few times	Read once	Have not read it
Teacher's Handbook								
The General Guide Book								
English Language Syllabus								
Form 1 Guide Book								
Form 1 Eng. Lang.Resource Bk.								

Please comment on any of the materials listed above:_____

_____
_____

4. In the spaces provided, please indicate the adequacy and utilisation of pupils' materials for the Form 1 English Language programme.

Materials	ADEQUACY			UTILISATION		
	Adequate	Not adequate	Not available	Often	Some-time	Not used
Textbook for Eng. Lang.						
Readers for Eng. Lang.						
Study Kit for Eng. Lang.						

Please comment on any of the books listed above:_____
_____

5. When did you attend the in-service course for the teaching of Form 1 English Language _____

6. How many in-service courses have you attended to date on the teaching of Form 1 English Language ? _____

7. If you have attended any in-service course(s) on the teaching of the Form 1 English Language , please state the institution that conducted the course and the duration of the course
_____
_____

8. In the past 3 years, those teaching Form 1 English Language have attended an in-service course. To what extent has the in-service course been useful to your school-work on any of the following topics.

	very useful	useful	somewhat useful	not useful
i The background, rationale, philosophy and aims of the KBSM	☐	☐	☐	☐
ii Teaching techniques	☐	☐	☐	☐
iii Use of audio visual aids	☐	☐	☐	☐
iv Classroom management	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate why you think so
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

9. Beside the in-service courses, from what other sources do you get information regarding the Form 1 English Language?

none ☐

pamphlets from the Ministry ☐

printed materials commercially produced ☐

talks/seminars conducted by the school ☐

Others (specify) ☐ _____

10. Are you involved in planning the scheme of work in your school in one or more of the following ways

in discussion with colleagues as a member of a team ☐
in discussion with the head of department ☐
in discussion with colleagues ☐
as a head department ☐
others (specify) ☐ _____

11. How satisfied are you with the part you play in planning Form 1 English Language scheme of work in your school?

very satisfied ☐   much satisfied ☐
a little fairly satisfied ☐   not satisfied at all ☐

12. Since the KBSM was introdued you might have received various forms of assistance from different people or agencies.

At school level you might have received advice from the principal, assistance from other teachers in the preparation of learning aids or contribution from the Parents and Teachers Association. Please describe any assistance you have received since you started teaching Form 1 English Language.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

13. Apart from the school, District Education Office, State Education Department or the Ministry, you might have received assistance from other sources such as colleagues or family members. Please describe any assistance you have received from such sources.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

14. Since you started teaching Form 1 English Language, it is very likely you received visitors in connection with KBSM. Please indicate how frequent their visits were in 1989, 1990 and 1991.

	1989	1990	1991
very frequent	☐	☐	☐
frequent	☐	☐	☐
not frequent	☐	☐	☐
none	☐	☐	☐

Please comment on the visits_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

15. How satisfied are you with the cooperation and help which you receive from your superiors

very satisfied ▯   much satisfied ▯

a little fairly satisfied ▯   not satisfied at all ▯

16. When I am involved in planning the lessons for Form 1 English Language, account is taken of:

	In The KBSM		
	to a great extent	to a minor extent	not at all
abilities of the pupils			
content of the lesson			
materials available			
aims of the syllabus			
time devoted to each skill			
sequencing of subject matter			
public examination			
discussion with dept. staff			
other (specify)			

Please comment on any of the account taken listed above＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

17. How frequently do you use the following teaching aids in your Form 1 English Language classes?

Teaching aids	Frequency of use				
	every lesson	once a week	once a month	once a term	never
Chalkboard					
Pictures					
Charts					
Models					
Radio					
Cassettes					
Videotapes					
Television					
Films					
OHP					
Other (specify)					

Please comment on any of the teaching aids used listed above＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

18. Please indicate in the appropriate box the resource materials available to you in the teaching of Form 1 English Language

library ▯

language lab. ▯

computer lab. ▯

photocopying machine ▯

cyclostyling machine ▯

stencil cutter ▯

others (specify) _____ ▯

19. Please indicate the extent to which materials (such as marker pens, manila cards, duplicating papers) are adequate for you to make learning aids for the teaching of Form 1 English Language

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

20. Regarding your Form 1 English Language classroom teaching, please indicate the extent of the demands that have been made on you.

heavy ▯   fairly heavy ▯

satisfactory ▯   light ▯

Please describe the actual demands that have been made on you

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

21. How often do the teachers in your school get together for formal discussion on their implementation practices, the problems they face and the ways to overcome them

once a week ▯   once a month ▯   once a term ▯

once a year ▯   never ▯

22. How confident are you in carrying out an English lesson?

very confident ▯   confident ▯

fairly confident ▯   not confident ▯

23. Please state the main problems you have encountered in implementing the programme

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

24. How would you rate your Form 1 pupils' skills in English?

	very good	good	adequate	poor	very poor
speaking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
reading	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
writing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
listening	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

25. Other comments regarding the KBSM, and the Form 1 English Language programme

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

1872, Jalan Megat Haron,
14000 Bukit Mertajam,
Pulau Pinang.
Malaysia
13th. June 1991

The Principal,

_____

_____

Malaysia

Dear Principal,

<u>Re: Questionnaire- Information on the KBSM</u>
<u>for use in a study for the preparation of a thesis</u>

I would very much like to get some information and your views regarding the KBSM in general and the Form 1 English Language programme in particular. These are specifically for purposes of a study for the preparation of a thesis. I hope you would offer frank views and provide as much information as possible on every question. All information given and opinion expressed in this questionnaire will be treated as strictly confidential.

Please indicate with a tick (√) in the relevant boxes and write the answers or comments in the spaces provided. If the spaces are inadequate, do write on the back of the page or use additional paper. In view of the short duration for the conduct of this study, I would be most grateful if you would complete the questionnaire as soon as possible. Please return in the enclosed envelope.

For your co-eperation, I am indeed grateful.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours faithfully,

(SITI RAHAYAH ARIFFIN)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRINCIPAL

SECTION I: Background Data

1. Name of School: _____

2. Locality of school: rural ▢   urban ▢

3. Former language of school:

   Bahasa Malaysia ▢   English ▢   Chinese ▢

4. Type of school: daily school ▢   residential school ▢

5. Sex: male ▢   female ▢

6. Your age group:

   40 years and under ▢   41-45 years ▢   46-50 years ▢

   51-55 years ▢

7. Number of years in the teaching service:
   less than 15 years ▢   16-20years ▢   21-25 years▢
   26-30 years ▢   31-35 years ▢   35 years and above ▢

8. Number of years of becoming a senior assistant:
   less than 5years ▢   6-10 years ▢   10 years and above ▢

9. Number of years of becoming a principal:
   less than 5years ▢   6-10 years ▢   10 years and above ▢

10. Number of years at present school:
   less than 5years ▢   6-10 years ▢   10 years and above ▢

11. Academic qualifications:
   Lower Cert. of Ed. (LCE)/ SRP ▢   Malaysian Cert. of Ed. (MCE)/SPM ▢
   Higher Sch. Cert. (HSC)/STPM ▢   University degree (B.A, B.Sc., etc) ▢
   Others (specify) ▢ _____
   Please state year obtained_____

12. Professional qualifications:
   Teaching Certificate (Secondary) ▢
   Diploma in Education ▢
   Bachelor in Education ▢
   Others (specify) ▢ _____
   Please state year obtained_____

SECTION 11: Principal's view on the KBSM and English Language Programme

1 KBSM aims to introduce changes with respect to objectives, content, method of teaching and ways of evaluating pupils. All these are for improving the quality of education.

What are your views on the KBSM ?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. In your opinion, to what extent can the Form 1 English Language programme be considered successful?

    fully successful ▯   successful ▯

    partly successful ▯   not successful ▯

Please indicate the reasons why you think so_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

3. When did you attend the in-service course on the KBSM?

_____

4. How many in-service courses have you attended ?

_____

5. If you have attended any in-service course(s) on the KBSM, please state the institution that conducted the course and the duration of the course

_____

6. If you had attended a course, please describe how it has been helpful or not helpful in your work

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

7. Regarding the classroom teaching, please indicate the extent of the demands that have been made on the teacher for teaching the Form 1 English Language programme?

     heavy ☐   fairly heavy ☐

    satisfactory ☐   light ☐

Please describe the actual demands that have been made on the teacher

_____

_____

_____

_____

8. Please describe the measures that have been taken in your school to assist teachers for the teaching of Form 1 English Language since the KBSM was introduced (e.g: change in the time-table, change in the time allocated for the subject, change in teachers-for example more experienced teachers put to teach in the KBSM classes, change in classroom arrangement and other changes).

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

9. Please describe any increase in your workload that you have experienced due to the introduction of the KBSM .

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

10. Other comments regarding the KBSM

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

THANK YOU very much for your co-operation

IONS FOR INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONNEL

are your views regarding the KBSM in general?

ur opinion, to extent would you say that the new Form 1 English language programme

n successful. Why?

ch of the criteria would you say ought to be judge the overall effectiveness of the

mme?

what extent would you say that teachers are putting into practice the ideas and approaches

new Form 1 English language programme?

if necessary:

ch ones are they following most closely?

ch ones are they not following closely? Why?

at do you think are the real demands which the new Form 1 English language

mme makes on them?

if necessary:

our opinion, are there or are there not new things that teachers have to know?

our opinion, are there or are there not new ways of teaching that teachers have to do?

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your opinion, are there or are there not new things that teachers have to prepare?

your opinion, are there or are there not new things that teachers have to organise?

your opinion, are there or are there not new things that teachers have to record?

what extent do you feel that the training given to teachers has been useful in the teaching

Form 1 English language programme?

what extent do you feel that the training given has been sufficient?

es if necessary:

w do you feel that the training could have been done to help the teacher?

there anything else you think could be done to help the teacher?

what extent do you feel that the materials prepared for teachers have been useful in the

hing of the Form 1 English language programme?

To what extent do you feel that the materials prepared have been adequate?

es if necessary:

ow do you feel that the materials could have been prepared to help the teacher?

there anything else you think could be done to help the teacher?

To what extent do you feel that the materials prepared for pupils have been useful in the

hing of the Form 1 English language programme ?

what extent do you feel that the materials have been sufficient?

es if necessary:

ow do you feel that the materials could have been prepared?

there anything else you think could have been done?

To what extent do you feel that the advice given to teachers has been useful in the teaching

Form 1 English language programme?

To what extent do you feel that the advice has been sufficient?

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...s if necessary:

...do you feel that the advice could have been?

...here anything else you think could be done to help the teacher?

...the whole, what do you yourself feel are the important factors at the school level in

...ementing a new curriculum? Why?

...ographical data:

...x

...ge

...ualifications (Professional and Academic)

...ears of working experience

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Date: _____   Classroom: _____

School: _____

Category	Subcategory		
Class lay-out	single row		
	facing each other		
	side by side		
	group sitting		
LI	class management		
	activity instruction		
	teaching practice		
Activity	uncontrolled		
	controlled		
Interaction	pair		
	individual		
	group		
	Whole class	choral work	
		student-centred	
		teacher-centred	
Materials used	frequency of use		
	availability		
Language content	decontextualised		
	contextualised		
	form		
	function		
Language skills	writing		
	reading		
	speaking		
	listening		
Initiation	Pupil		
	Teacher		

Appendix 10   List of schools

(i) List of schools sampled from the state of Pulau Pinang, Malaysia.

No.	Name of school	Location	Medium	Type	Send	Received	* No. of class-room	English teachers interviewed
1	Raja Tun Uda	R	M	D	2	2		
2	Sri Balik Pulau	R	M	D	2	2	2	4
3	Sungai Acheh	R	M	D	2	2		4
4	Sacred Heart	R	E	D	2	2		
5	St. Mark	R	E	D	2	2		
6	Jit Sin	R	C	D	2	2		
7	Abdullah Munshi	U	M	D	2	2		
8	Sri Mutiara	U	M	D	2	2		
9	Penang Free	U	E	D	5	2	2	6
10	St. George's	U	E	D	5	3		
11	Convent Light Street	U	E	D	2	2		
12	Convent Pulau Tikus	U	E	D	3	2		
13	Methodist Boys'	U	E	D	2	1		
14	St. Xavier	U	E	D	2	1		
15	Confucians Chung Hwa	U	C	D	4	3		4
16	Chinese Girls	U	C	D	3	3		
17	Tun Syed Shah Shahabuddin	U	M	Re.	2	2		

(ii) List of schools sampled from the state of Kedah, Malaysia.

No.	Name of school	Location	Medium	Type	Send	Received	* No. of class-room	English teachers interviewed
1	Padang Terap	R	M	D	1	1		
2	Pendang	R	M	D	2	2		
3	Pokok Sena	R	M	D	2	2		
4	Alor Janggus	R	M	D	1	1	2	4
5	Kuala Ketil	R	M	D	2	2		
6	Agama	R	M	D	2	1		
7	Tunku Bendahara	R	M	D	2	1		
8	Changlon	R	M	D	1	1		
9	St. Anne's Convent	R	E	D	2	2		
10	St. Patrick	R	E	D	2	2		4
11	Khir Johari	R	E	D	2	2		
12	Chio Min	R	C	D	2	1	1	4
13	Sultanah Asmah	U	M	D	4	2		
14	St. Michael	U	E	D	4	3		
15	Kolej Sultan Abdul Hamid	U	E	D	4	3		
16	St. Nicholas Convent	U	E	D	3	1	2	7
17	Tun Sharifah Rodziah	U	E	D	5	3		
18	Keat Hwa	U	E	D	3	2		
19	Sin Min	U	E	D	3	2		6
20	Sains Md. Jiwa Sungai Petani	U	E	Re	2	2		

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(iii) List of schools sampled from the state of Perlis, Malaysia.

No.	Name of school	Location	Medium	Type	Send	Received	*No. of class-room	English teachers interviewed
1	Kuala Perlis	R	M	D	2	1		
2	Batu 16	R	M	D	1	1	1	4
3	Syed Alwi	R	E	D	1	1		
4	Agama Alwiyah	U	M	D	3	2	1	4
5	Derma	U	E	D	4	3		
6	Putra	R	M	Re.	2	2		

(iv) List of schools sampled from the state of Perak, Malaysia.

No.	Name of school	Location	Medium	Type	Send	Received	*No. of class-room	English teachers interviewed
1	Sri Manjung	R	M	D	2	2		
2	Raja Shahriman	R	M	D	1	1		
3	Raja Lope Nor Rashid	R	M	D	2	2		
4	Sri Perak	R	M	D	1	1		
5	Hamid Khan	R	M	D	2	2		
6	Sungkai	R	M	D	2	2	2	4
7	Raja Chulan	R	M	D	2	2		
8	Methodist, Air Tawar	R	E	D	3	3		
9	Convent Sitiawan	R	E	D	2	2		
10	St. Anthony	R	E	D	2	2		
11	Tracher Methodist Girls'	R	E	D	2	2		
12	Nan Hwa	R	C	D	2	2		
13	Raja Perempuan	U	M	D	3	2		
14	Anderson	U	E	D	5	3		
15	Clifford	U	E	D	4	3	2	4
16	King Edward VII	U	E	D	4	3		5
17	St. George	U	E	D	5	4		
18	Methodist, Ipoh	U	E	D	4	2		4
19	Ave Maria Convent	U	E	D	4	3		
20	Hua Lian	U	C	D	4	2	2	5
21	Sam Tat	U	C	D	3	2		
22	Tsung Wah	U	C	D	3	2		
23	Sains Teluk Intan	R	M	Re.	2	2		5
24	Tunku Abdul	U	M	Re.	1	1		

Note: * observation was carried out at these schools.

R	=	rural school
U	=	urban school
M	=	National-medium
C	=	Chinese-medium
Re	=	residential school
E	=	English medium

Appendix 11

Table 11.1:Distribution of the Form 1 English teachers for the pilot study.

Medium	Rural	Urban	Total
Bahasa Malaysia	7	7	14
English	3	8	11
Chinese	2	3	5
Total	12	18	30

Table 11.2: The personnel interviewed

Designations and functions	Level	No of personnel
1. Curriculum officer: develop programmes and monitor implementation	national	4
2. Inspectors of school: monitor implementation and provide guidance to teachers and princupals	national state (Pulau Pinang) state (Kedah) state (Perlis) state (Perak)	2 1 1 1 1
3. Staff of the Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. State Education Departments: Responsible for all aspects of implementation in the state	state (Pulau Pinang) state (Kedah) state (Perlis) state (Perak)	1 1 1 1
4. Staff of the District Education Office: responsible for all aspects of implementation in the district	district (Pulau Pinang) district (Kedah) district (Perlis) district (Perak)	1 1 1 1
5. Key Personnel (KPs): Full-time secondary English school teachers who play the role of trainers and advisers to teachers in the district.	district (Pulau Pinang) district (Kedah) district (Perlis) district (Perak)	2 2 1 2
Total		25

Table 11.3: Principals and Form 1 teachers involved in interviews and questionnaire surveyed

	Total	No. interviewed	Questionnaire survey		
			No. sent	No. responded	%response
Principals	67	17	71	67	94.4
Form 1 teachers	171	78	171	133	77.8

Table 11.4: Number of interviewees interviewed at each school

Interviewees	No. of interviewees
Form 1 English teachers	1 to 4
Principal	1
Senior English teacher	1
Upper secondary teaacher	1
lower seconday teacher	1
Language curriculum activity teacher	1

Table 11.7: Distribution of secondary schools in four states in Malaysia and thosed sampled

State	No. of school in state	Percentage	No. of schools sampled
Pulau Pinang	66	25.7	18
Kedah	78	30.3	22
Perlis	19	7.4	6
Perak	94	36.6	25
Total	257	100.0	71

Table 11.8: Distribution of rural secondary schools in four states in Malaysia and thosed sampled.

State	No. of rural school in state	Percentage	No. of rural schools sampled
Pulau Pinang	22	16.9	6
Kedah	46	35.4	13
Perlis	12	9.2	4
Perak	50	38.5	13
Total	130	100.0	36

Table 11.9: Distribution of rural secondary English teachers sampled by number of questionnaires returned and number of teachers observed and interviewed.

State	No. of school	No. of schools having usable returns	% of school returns	No. of secon. English teachers sampled	No. of usable returns	% of usable returns	No. of secon. English teachers observed	No. of secon. English teachers intervie-wed
Penang	6	6	100.00	12	11	91.7	2	8
Kedah	13	12	92.3	21	18	85.7	3	12
Perlis	4	4	100.0	6	5	83.3	1	4
Perak	13	13	100.00	25	25	100.0	2	9
Total	36	35	97.2	64	59	92.2	8	33

Table 11.10: Distribution of urban secondary schools in four states in Malaysia and thosed sampled.

State	No. of urban school in state	Percentage	No. of urban schools sampled
Pulau Pinang	44	34.6	12
Kedah	32	25.2	9
Perlis	7	5.6	2
Perak	44	34.6	12

Table 11.11 Distribution of urban secondary English teachers sampled by number of questionnaires returned and number of teachers observed and interviewed.

State	No. of school	No. of schools having usable returns	% of school returns	No. of secon. English teachers sampled	No. of usable returns	% of usable returns	No. of secon. English teachers observed	No. of secon. English teachers intervie-wed
Penang	12	11	91.7	32	24	75.0	2	10
Kedah	9	8	88.9	28	18	64.3	2	13
Perlis	2	2	100.0	7	5	71.4	1	4
Perak	12	11	91.7	40	27	67.5	4	18
Total	35	32	91.4	107	74	69.2	9	45

Table 11.12: Distribution of National secondary schools in four states in Malaysia and thosed sampled.

State	No. of National school in state	Percentage	No. of National schools sampled
Pulau Pinang	22	20.4	6
Kedah	35	32.4	10
Perlis	12	11.1	4
Perak	39	36.1	10
Total	108	100.0	30

Table 11.13: Distribution of National secondary English teachers sampled by number of questionnaires returned and number of teachers observed and interviewed.

State	No. of school	No. of schools having usable returns	% of school returns	No. of secon. English teachers sampled	No. of usable returns	% of usable returns	No. of secon. English teachers observed	No. of secon. English teachers intervie-wed
Penang	6	6	100.00	12	12	100.0	2	8
Kedah	10	9	90.0	17	13	76.5	1	4
Perlis	4	4	100.0	8	6	75.0	2	8
Perak	10	10	100.00	18	17	94.4	2	9
Total	30	29	96.7	55	48	87.3	7	29

Table 11.14: Distribution of English secondary schools in four states in Malaysia and thosed sampled.

State	No. of English school in state	Percentage	No. of English schools sampled
Pulau Pinang	31	28.7	9
Kedah	31	38.7	9
Perlis	7	6.5	2
Perak	39	36.1	10
Total	108	100.0	30

Table 11.15: Distribution of secondary English teachers sampled by number of questionnaires returned and number of teachers observed and interviewed.

State	No. of school	No. of schools having usable returns	% of school returns	No. of secon. English teachers sampled	No. of usable returns	% of usable returns	No. of secon. English teachers observed	No. of secon. English teachers interviewed
Penang	9	8	88.9	23	15	65.2	1	6
Kedah	9	8	88.9	24	18	75.0	2	11
Perlis	2	2	100.0	5	4	80.0	0	0
Perak	10	10	100.0	35	27	77.1	3	13
Total	30	28	93.3	87	64	73.6	6	30

Table 11.16: Distribution of Chinese secondary schools in four states in Malaysia and thosed sampled.

State	No. of Chinese school in state	Percentage	No. of Chinese schools sampled
Pulau Pinang	13	31.7	3
Kedah	13	29.3	3
Perlis	0	0	0
Perak	16	39.0	5
Total	41	100.0	11

Table 11.17: Distribution of Chinese secondary English teachers sampled by number of questionnaires returned and number of teachers observed and interviewed.

State	No. of school	No. of schools having usable returns	% of school returns	No. of secon. English teachers sampled	No. of usable returns	% of usable returns	No. of secon. English teachers observed	No. of secon. English teachers interviewed
Penang	3	3	100.00	9	8	88.9	1	4
Kedah	3	3	100.0	8	5	62.5	2	10
Perlis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Perak	5	4	80.00	12	8	66.7	1	5
Total	11	10	90.9	29	21	72.4	4	19

Table 11.18: Distribution of daily secondary schools in four states in Malaysia and thosed sampled.

State	No. of English school in state	Percentage	No. of English schools sampled
Pulau Pinang	63	26.0	17
Kedah	75	31.1	21
Perlis	18	7.4	5
Perak	86	35.5	23
Total	242	100.0	66

Table 11.19: Distribution of daily secondary English teachers sampled by number of questionnaires returned and number of teachers observed and interviewed.

State	No. of school	No. of schools having usable returns	% of school returns	No. of secon. English teachers sampled	No. of usable returns	% of usable returns	No. of secon. English teachers observed	No. of secon. English teachers intervie-wed
Penang	17	16	94.1	42	33	78.6	4	18
Kedah	21	19	90.5	47	34	72.3	5	25
Perlis	5	5	100.0	11	8	72.7	2	8
Perak	23	22	95.7	62	49	79.0	5	22
Total	66	62	93.9	162	124	76.5	16	73

Table 11.20: Distribution of residential secondary schools in four states in Malaysia and thosed sampled.

State	No. of residential school in state	Percentage	No. of residential schools sampled
Pulau Pinang	3	21.4	1
Kedah	3	21.4	1
Perlis	3	21.4	1
Perak	5	35.8	2
Total	14	100.0	5

Table 11.21: Distribution of residential secondary English teachers sampled by number of questionnaires returned and number of teachers observed and interviewed.

State	No. of school	No. of schools having usable returns	% of school returns	No. of secon. English teachers sampled	No. of usable returns	% of usable returns	No. of secon. English teachers observed	No. of secon. English teachers intervie-wed
Penang	1	1	100.00	2	2	100.0	0	0
Kedah	1	1	100.0	2	2	100.0	0	0
Perlis	1	1	100.0	2	2	100.0	0	0
Perak	2	2	100.0	3	3	100.0	1	5
Total	5	5	100.0	9	9	100.0	1	5

Table 11.22: Distribution of secondary English teachers sampled by state, number of questionnaires returned and number of teachers observed and interviewed.

State	No. of school	No. of schools having usable returns	% of school returns	No. of secon. English teachers sampled	No. of usable returns	% of usable returns	No. of secon. English teachers observed	No. of secon. English teachers intervie-wed
Penang	18	17	94.4	44	35	79.5	4	18
Kedah	22	20	90.9	49	36	73.5	5	25
Perlis	6	6	100.0	13	10	76.9	2	8
Perak	25	24	96.0	65	52	80.0	6	27
Total	71	67	95.7	171	133	77.8	17	78

Appendix 12: Location map of the survey of the secondary schools in Pulau Pinang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak.

SOUTH CHINA SEA

THAILAND

N

Perlis

2
3
Kangai
5 6
4 Arau
1
6
8

Pulau Langkawi

Jitra 10
4
18 3
17 Alor Star 2
15 13 19
14

Kedah

Sungai
11 Petani Baling
9 5 7 Kroh

George Town
7,8,9,10,11
12,13,14,15,16
4
Butterworth 12
5 Kulim
17 16 5
Bt. 6
Mertajam 22 Grik
3 Selama 4

Pulau Pinang

Perak

Parit Buntar
8 20 Taiping
16 15 Kuala Kangsar
21 12

STRAITS OF MALACCA

Ipoh
14 24 7
13 18
Cameron's Highlands

KELANTAN

PAHANG

9 10
Lumut 11
3

17
Tapah
2

Scale:
0 km 100

19 Teluk
23 Intan 6

SELANGOR

●	Capital
·	Town
·-··-	State boundary
·-··	Intl. boundary
—	Main road
3	Location

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APPENDIX 13: BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS OF PERSONNEL AND PRINCIPALS.

A. PERSONNEL

Personnel Biographi- cal details	Curriculum developers (N=4)	Inspector (N=6)	State staff (N=4)	District staff (N=4)	KPs (N=7)
Age (years)	28-43	41-51	40-50	42-46	40-46
Sex: Male	2	5	3	4	3
Female	2	1	1	-	4
Qualification a. Academic					
School cert.	1	1	1	-	2
High sch. cert.	1	1	2	1	2
Bachelor deg.	1	3	1	2	3
Master deg.	1	1	-	1	-
b. Profes- sional cert.	2	2	4	2	3
Diploma in Education	2	4	-	2	4
Length of service (years)	4-22	20-24	19-26	17-33	21-24

Note: Age 55 is the compulsory retirement age for all government emplyees, including teachers.

B. PRINCIPAL

   AGE

Age (years)	No. of teachers
35 - 39	5
40 - 44	23
45 - 49	25
50 - 54	14
Total	67

SEX

Male	55
Female	12

QUALIFICATION

a. Academic	No. of teachers
School cert.	11
High school cert.	22
Bachelor degree	24
Master degree	9
Ph. D	1

When obtained

Before becoming a teacher	12
Less than 5 years after becoming a teacher	20
5 - 9 years after becoming a teacher	15
10 - 14 years after becoming a teacher	9
15 - 19 years after becoming a teacher	11

b. Professional qualification

All principals possessed teaching certificates

WORKING EXPERIENCE

a. Duration in the teaching service

20 - 24 years	8
25 - 29 years	8
30 - 34 years	25
35 - 39 years	26

b. Duration as senior assistant
   - < 5 years   17
   - 5 - 9 years   21
   - > 10 years   29

c. Duration as principal
   - < 5 years   37
   - 5 - 9 years   23
   - > 10 years   7

d. Duration in the present school
   - < 5 years   36
   - 5 - 9 years   29
   - > 10 years   2

Appendix 14:

Table 14.20 : Distribution of respondents based on teachers' lesson plan by location.

Lesson plan	Degree of consideration						
	Rural			Urban			
	great extent	minor extent	not at all	great extent	minor extent	not at all	x^2
1.Ability of the pupils	37(65.0)	19(33.3)	1(1.7)	50(73.5)	14(20.6)	4(5.9)	4.87 NS
2.Content of the lesson	26(47.3)	27(49.1)	2(3.6)	49(70.0)	15(21.4)	6(8.6)	10.93 *
3.Material available	44(77.2)	13(22.8)	0	56(77.8)	12(16.7)	4(5.5)	3.84 NS
4.Aims of the syllabus	21(41.2)	28(55.0)	2(3.8)	51(73.9)	10(14.5)	8(11.6)	23.93 **
5.Time devoted to each skill	19(37.3)	27(53.0)	5(9.7)	47(72.3)	12(18.5)	6(9.2)	16.31 **
6.Sequencing of the subject matter	21(41.2)	26(51.0)	4(7.8)	41(62.1)	18(27.3)	7(10.6)	7.12 NS
7.Public exams	53(91.4)	5(8.6)	0	64(86.5)	10(13.5)	0	2.04 NS
8.Discussion with department staff	14(31.1)	18(40.0)	13(28.9)	32(54.2)	14(23.7)	13(22.1)	12.45 *
9.Suggestion from visitors	0	1(8.3)	11(91.7)	0	2(5.4)	35(94.6)	3.95 NS

Table 14.22 : Distribution of respondents based on teachers' lesson plan by type of school.

Lesson plan	Degree of consideration						
	Day			Residential			
	great extent	minor extent	not at all	great extent	minor extent	not at all	x^2
1.Ability of the pupils	78(67.2)	33(28.4)	5(4.40)	9(100.0)	0	0	5.10 NS
2.Content of the lesson	66(56.9)	42(36.2)	8(6.9)	9(100.0)	0	0	7.47 NS
3.Material available	91(75.8)	25(20.8)	4(3.4)	9(100.0)	0	0	3.19 NS
4.Aims of the syllabus	63(56.8)	38(34.2)	10(9.0)	9(100.0)	0	0	8.18 *
5.Time devoted to each skill	57(53.3)	39(36.4)	11(10.3)	9(100.0)	0	0	9.80 *
6.Sequencing of the subject matter	53(49.1)	44(40.7)	11(10.2)	9(100.0)	0	0	11.05 *
7.Public exams	108(87.8)	15(12.2)	0	9(100.0)	0	0	1.32NS
8.Discussion with department staff	37(38.9)	32(33.7)	26(24.4)	9(100.0)	0	0	18.26 *
9.Suggestion from visitors	0	3(7.5)	37(92.5)	9(100.0)	0	0	9.40 *

Appendix 14

Table 14.21: Distribution of respondents based on teachers' lesson plan by medium of instruction.

Lesson plan	Degree of consideration									x^2
	Bahasa Malaysia			English			Chinese			
	great extent	minor extent	not at all	great extent	minor extent	not at all	great extent	minor extent	not at all	
1.Ability of the pupils	38(80.9)	9(19.1)	0	37(60.7)	23(37.7)	1(1.6)	12(70.6)	1(5.9)	4(23.5)	32.5 **
2.Content of the lesson	30(66.7)	14(31.1)	1(2.2)	34(55.7)	25(41.0)	2(3.3)	11(57.9)	3(15.8)	5(26.3)	17.5 **
3.Material available	36(78.3)	10(21.7)	0	50(79.4)	10(15.9)	3(4.7)	14(70.0)	5(25.0)	1(5.0)	4.14 NS
4.Aims of the syllabus	25(58.1)	17(39.5)	1(2.4)	37(63.8)	16(27.6)	5(8.6)	10(52.6)	5(26.3)	4(21.1)	7.24 NS
5.Time devoted to each skill	23(54.8)	16(38.1)	3(7.1)	34(61.8)	16(29.1)	5(9.1)	9(47.4)	7(36.8)	3(15.8)	2.60 NS
6.Sequencing of the subject matter	23(56.1)	15(36.6)	3(7.3)	32(55.2)	22(37.9)	4(6.9)	7(38.6)	7(38.9)	4(22.2)	5.28 NS
7.Public exams	43(91.5)	4(8.5)	0	59(93.7)	4(6.3)	0	15(71.4)	6(28.6)	0	9.19 NS
8.Discussion with department staff	16(42.1)	11(28.9)	11(28.9)	26(49.1)	18(34.0)	9(16.9)	4(30.8)	3(23.1)	6(46.2)	8.80 NS
9.Suggestion from visitors	0	1(6.3)	15(93.7)	0	2(7.1)	26(92.9)	0	0	5(100.0)	3.37 NS

Appendix 15

Table 15.2: Distribution of respondents based on availability of teachers' material by location.

| Teachers' Materials | Degree of availability | | | | | | | | x^2 |
| | Rural | | | | Urban | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Teachers' handbook	63.3 (31)	34.7 (17)	0	2.0 (1)	82.5 (47)	12.3 (7)	0	5.2 (3)	9.26 NS
KBSM guidebook	47.1 (24)	51.0 (26)	1.9 (1)	0	57.9 (33)	42.1 (24)	0	0	4.10 NS
English Language Syllabus	93.1 (54)	6.9 (4)	0	0	94.5 (69)	5.5 (4)	0	0	0.93 NS
Form 1 guidebook	1.8 (1)	98.2 (55)	0	0	5.7 (4)	94.3 (66)	0	0	2.81 NS
Form 1 resource book	7.1 (4)	30.4 (17)	51.8 (29)	10.7 (6)	46.4 (32)	46.4 (32)	2.9 (2)	4.3 (3)	46.43 *

Table 15.3: Distribution of respondents based on availability of teachers' materials by medium.

| | Degree of availability | | | | | | | | | | | | x^2 |
| | Bahasa Malaysia | | | | English | | | | Chinese | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Teacher's handbook	70.5 (31)	27.3 (12)	0	2.2 (1)	73.5 (36)	22.4 (11)	0	4.1 (2)	84.6 (11)	7.7 (1)	0	7.7 (1)	15.17 NS
KBSM guide book	53.2 (25)	46.8 (22)	0	0	52.1 (25)	45.8 (22)	2.1 (1)	0	53.8 (7)	46.2 (6)	0	0	14.07 NS
English language syllabus	93.6 (44)	6.4 (3)	0	0	92.2 (590	7.8 (5)	0	0	100 (20)	0	0	0	4.18 NS
Form 1 English guidebook	2.1 (1)	97.9 (46)	0	0	5.0 (3)	95.0 (57)	0	0	5.0 (1)	94.7 (18)	0	0	3.65 NS
Form 1 English Language Resource Book	16.3 (8)	32.7 (16)	36.7 (18)	14.3 (7)	36.2 (21)	39.7 (23)	20.7 (12)	3.4 (2)	38.9 (7)	55.6 (10)	5.5 (1)	0	15.01 NS

Table 15.4: Distribution of respondents based on teachers' responses to availability of teachers' materials by type of school.

| Teachers' Materials | Degree of availability | | | | | | | | x^2 |
| | Day | | | | Residential | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Teachers' handbook	65.5 (69)	22.4 (24)	0	3.7 (4)	8.4 (9)	0	0	0	6.81 NS
KBSM guidebook	45.4 (49)	45.4 (49)	0.9 (1)	0	7.4 (8)	0.9 (1)	0	0	5.14 NS
English Language Syllabus	87.0 (114)	6.1 (8)	0	0	6.9 (9)	0	0	0	0.78 NS
Form 1 English Language guidebook	3.9 (5)	88.2 (112)	0	0.8 (1)	0	7.1 (9)	0	0	0.96 NS
Form 1 English Language resource book	21.6 (27)	39.2 (49)	24.8 (31)	7.2 (9)	7.2 (9)	0	0	0	26.1 **

Note:

1 = own a copy
2 = share a copy
3 = have only seen it
4 = have never seen it

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Appendix 16

Table 16.5 : Distribution of respondents based on utilisation of teachers' material by location.

Teachers' Materials	Degree of utilisation								x^2
	Rural				Urban				
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Teachers' handbook	3.8 (2)	58.5 (31)	37.7 (20)	0	14.9 (10)	64.2 (43)	20.9 (14)	0	6.81 NS
KBSM guidebook	0	66.0 (33)	34.0 (17)	0	0	74.1 (43)	25.9 (15)	0	1.73 NS
English Language Syllabus	65.5 (38)	27.6 (16)	6.9 (4)	0	56.9 (41)	43.1 (31)	0	0	7.64 NS
Form 1 English language guidebook	2.0 (1)	78.0 (39)	18.0 (9)	2.0 (1)	0	64.5 (40)	35.5 (22)	0	6.28 NS
Form 1 English language resource book	7.4 (4)	38.9 (21)	31.5 (17)	22.2 (12)	18.3 (13)	71.8 (51)	8.5 6)	1.4 (1)	29.04 **

Table 16.7 : Distribution of respondents based on teachers' responses in utilisation of teachers' material by type of school.

Teachers' Materials	Degree of utilisation								x^2
	Day				Residential				
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Teachers' handbook	7.5 (9)	57.5 (69)	27.5 (33)	0	2.5 (3)	4.2 (5)	0.8 (1)	0	6.60 NS
KBSM guidebook	0	63.0 (68)	28.7 (31)	0	0	7.4 (8)	0.9 (1)	0	4.19 NS
English Language Syllabus	59.2 (77)	30.8 (40)	3.1 (4)	0	1.5 (2)	5.4 (7)	0	0	7.67 NS
Form 1 English language guidebook	0.9 (1)	65.2 (73)	25.0 (28)	0.9 (1)	0	5.4 (6)	2.7 (3)	0	2.17 NS
Form 1 English language resource book	12.0 (15)	52.8 (66)	17.6 (22)	10.4 (13)	1.6 (2)	4.8 (6)	0.8 (1)	0	2.70 NS

Note:

1 = always refer to it
2 = read a few times
3 = read once
4 = have not read it

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Table 16.6 : Distribution of respondents based on utilisation of teachers' material by medium.

Teachers' Materials	Degree of utilisation												x^2
	Bahasa Malaysia				English				Chinese				
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Teachers' handbook	6.8 (3)	65.9 (29)	27.3 (12)	0	13.8 (8)	55.2 (32)	31.0 (18)	0	5.6 (1)	72.2 (13)	22.2 (4)	0	3.47 NS
KBSM guidebook	0	64.4 (29)	35.6 (16)	0	0	70.6 (36)	29.4 (15)	0	0	91.7 (11)	8.3 (1)	0	21.42 **
English Language Syllabus	63.8 (30)	34.0 (16)	2.2 (1)	0	59.4 (38)	36.0 (23)	4.6 (3)	0	57.9 (11)	42.1 (8)	0	0	8.01 NS
Form 1 English language guidebook	0	81.0 (34)	16.7 (7)	2.3 (1)	0	63.6 (35)	36.4 (20)	0	6.7 (1)	66.7 (10)	26.6 (4)	0	12.98 NS
Form 1 English language resource book	13.3 (6)	44.4 (20)	22.2 (10)	20.1 (9)	11.5 (7)	62.3 (38)	19.7 (12)	6.5 (4)	21.1 (4)	73.7 (14)	5.2 (1)	0	12.91 NS

Note:
1 = always refer to it
2 = read a few times
3 = read once
4 = have not read it

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Appendix 17

Table 17.9: Distribution of respondents based on adequacy of pupils' materials by location.

	Degree of adequacy						x^2
	Rural			Urban			
	1	2	3	1	2	3	
Textbook	94.3 (54)	5.3 (3)	0	100.0 (65)	0	0	7.01 NS
Reader	19.3 (11)	80.7 (46)	0	84.1 (58)	15.9 (11)	0	54.17 **
English Language study kit	29.4	70.6 (16)	0 (36)	89.7	10.3 (52)	0	43.86 ** (6)

Table 17.10: Distribution of respondents based on adequacy of pupils' materials by medium.

	Degree of adequacy									x^2
	Bahasa Malaysia			English			Chinese			
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
Textbook	95.8 (46)	4.2 (2)	0	100.0 (57)	0	0	94.1 (16)	5.9 (1)	0	12.13 NS
Reader	27.1 (13)	72.9 (35)	0	71.7 (43)	28.3 (17)	0	72.2 (13)	27.8 (5)	0	32.54 **
English Language study kit	35.6 (16)	64.4 (30)	0	77.0 (40)	23.0 (12)	0	92.3 (12)	7.7 (1)	0	37.81**

Note:
1 = adequate
2 = not adequate
3 = not available

Table 17.11: Distribution of respondents based on teachers' responses on adequacy of pupils' books by type of school.

	Degree of adequacy						x^2
	Day			Residential			
	1	2	3	1	2	3	
Textbook	90.2	2.4	0	7.3	0	0	1.14 NS
Reader	48.0	44.9	0	7.1	0	0	8.95 **
English Language study kit	53.6	38.2	0	8.2	0	0	6.30 **

Note:
1 = adequate
2 = not adequate
3 = not available

Appendix 18

Table 18.12: Distribution of respondents based on utilisation of pupils' materials by location.

	Degree of utilisation						x^2
	Rural			Urban			
	1	2	3	1	2	3	
Textbook	21.2 (11)	78.8 (37)	0	28.4 (19)	71.6 (48)	0	8.71 NS
Reader	89.7 (52)	10.3 (6)	0	92.4 (61)	7.6 (5)	0	7.91 NS
English Language study kit	3.9 (1)	88.2 (46)	7.9 (1)	12.3 (3)	86.0 (50)	1.7 (1)	45.73 *

Table 18.13: Distribution of respondents based on utilisation of pupils' books by medium.

	Degree of utilisation									
	Bahasa Malaysia			English			Chinese			x^2
	1	2	3	1		2	3	1	2	3
Textbook	18.8 (9)	72.9 (38)	0	23.4 (15)	64.1 (41)	0	28.6 (6)	61.9 (10)	0	1.56 NS
Reader	87.5 (42)	10.4 (5)	0	89.1 (57)	6.3 (4)	0	66.7	9.5 (14)	0 (2)	12.59 *
English Language study kit	0	79.2 (36)	2.1 (3)	4.7 (5)	75.0 (48)	0	4.8 (1)	47.6 (10)	0	11.96 NS

Note:
1 = often
2 = sometimes
3 = not used

Table 18.14: Percentage distribution of respondents based on utilisation of pupils' materials by type of school.

	Degree of utilisation						x^2
	Day			Residential			
	1	2	3	1	2	3	
Textbook	25.4	74.6	0	22.4	77.6	0	0.83 NS
Reader	91.3	8.7	0	90.3	9.7	0	1.19 NS
English Language study kit	8.1	87.9	4.0	10.8	78.4	10.8	1.09 NS

Note:
1 = often
2 = sometimes
3 = not used

Appendix   19

Table 19.15: Distribution of respondents based on in-service courses by location.

Degree of usefulness									
	Rural				Urban				x^2
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Understand the aims and principals	50.8 (30)	33.9 (20)	13.6 (8)	1.7 (1)	55.4 (41)	27.0 (20)	14.9 (11)	2.7 (2)	0.83 NS
Teaching techniques	44.1 (26)	28.8 (17)	27.1 (16)	0	52.7 (39)	21.6 (16)	24.3 (18)	1.4 (1)	2.08 NS
Audio-visual aids (24)	40.7 (11)	18.6 (24)	40.7	0 (32)	43.8 (17)	23.3 (23)	31.5 (1)	1.4	2.79 NS
Classroom management	39.0 (23)	16.9 (10)	40.7 (24)	3.4 (2)	43.8 (32)	23.3 (32)	31.5 (23)	1.4 (1)	2.99 NS

Note:

1 = very useful
2 = useful
3 = partly useful
4 = not useful

Table 19.16: Distribution of respondents based on in-service courses by medium.

	Degree of usefulness												
	Bahasa Malaysia				English				Chinese				x^2
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Understand the aims and principles	77.1 (93)	18.8 (90)	4.15 (2)	0	43.8 (280)	34.4 (22)	17.2 (11)	4.6 (3)	28.6 (6)	42.9 (9)	28.5 (6)	0	22.22 **
Teaching techniques	64.6 (31)	20.8 (10)	14.6 (7)	0	43.8 (280)	26.6 (917)	28.1 (18)	1.5 (10)	28.6 (6)	28.6 (6)	42.9 (9)	0	11.01 NS
Audio-visual aids (28)	59.6 (7)	14.9 (12)	25.5 (11)	0	34.4 (16)	25.0 (25)	39.1 (1)	1.5 (6)	28.6 (5)	23.8 (10)	47.6 (9)	0	11.76 NS
Classroom management	57.4 (27)	17.0 (8)	23.4 (11)	2.2 (1)	34.4 (22)	21.9 (14)	40.6 (26)	3.1 (2)	28.6 (6)	23.5 (5)	47.6 (10)	0	10.64 NS

Table 19.17: Percentage distribution of respondents based on the topics in in-service courses by type of school.

	Day				Residential				Total	Missing	x^2
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4			
1. Understanding principles	49.9 (62)	32.3 (40)	15.3 (19)	2.5 (3)	100.0 (9)	-	-	-	133		8.43 *
2. Teaching techniques	45.1 (56)	26.6 (33)	27.4 (34)	0.9 (1)	100.0 (9)	-	-	-	133	-	10.10 *
3. Teaching aids	37.8 (47)	22.6 (28)	38.6 (48)	0.9 (1)	100.0 (9)	-	-	-	133		13.27 *
4. Classroom book	37.3 (50)	21.9 (27)	38.2 (47)	2.6 (1)	100.0 (9)	-	-	-	132	1	13.52 **

Note:

1 = very useful
2 = useful
3 = partly useful
4 = not useful

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Table 20.2: Number of KPs' visits for guidance to teachers of the 8 classrooms in rural schools for 1989, 1990 and 1991.

Personnel	Classroom																							
	1989								1990								1991							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Key Personnel	2	2	3	1	0	3	1	1	3	0	1	1	4	4	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	2
Staff from district office	2	0	0	2	3	4	1	5	1	0	1	0	0	1	2	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
Staff from state dept.	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Inspectorate	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total	6	2	5	4	4	8	3	8	4	2	2	3	5	6	4	4	1	3	2	2	2	3	3	3

Source: Compiled from entries in the Visitors Books and the KP Report Books of the 8 classrooms in rural schools (until September 1991)

Appendix 20

Table 20.3: Number of KPs' visits for guidance to teachers in the 9 urban schools for 1989, 1990 and 1991.

Personnel	Classroom																										
	1989									1990									1991								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Resource Persons	1	3	1	1	2	3	2	0	1	4	3	3	5	4	2	2	3	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	1
Staff from district office	2	0	3	5	1	2	4	3	0	1	0	2	1	1	0	2	3	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
Staff from state dept.	0	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Inspec-torate	2	1	0	2	1	1	2	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
Total	5	6	5	9	5	7	8	6	4	6	5	6	3	6	5	5	7	4	3	2	3	2	1	2	2	3	2

Source: Compiled from entries in the Visitors Books and the KP Report Books of the 9 urban schools (until September 1991).

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Appendix 21

Table 21.3: Distribution of respondents based on teaching aids used by teachers by location.

| | Degree of usage | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Rural | | | | | | Urban | | | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	5	N	1	2	3	4	5	N	x^2
chalkboard	16.8 (9)	47.4 (27)	23.3 (19)	2.5 (2)	0	57	21.1 (15)	23.9 (17)	55.0 (39)	0	0	71	21.05 NS
pictures	3.4 (2)	67.8 (40)	23.7 (14)	3.4 (2)	1.7 (1)	59	4.2 (3)	66.2 (47)	22.5 (16)	7.1 (5)	0	71	20.19 NS
charts	3.4 (2)	46.6 (27)	29.3 (17)	12.1 (7)	8.6 (5)	58	0	69.1 (47)	17.6 (12)	7.4 (5)	5.9 (4)	68	37.91 *
models	0	1.8 (1)	14.0 (8)	28.1 (16)	56.1 (32)	57	0	21.5 (14)	58.5 (38)	3.1 (2)	16.9 (11)	65	35.27 *
radios	0	1.7 (1)	13.6 (8)	37.3 (22)	47.4 (28)	59	0	1.6 (1)	8.2 (5)	24.6 (15)	65.6 (41)	61	18.05 NS
tape recorder	0	22.4 (13)	46.6 (27)	25.9 (15)	5.1 (3)	58	0	66.7 (48)	15.3 (11)	18.0 (13)	0	72	39.27 *
video tapes	0	0	10.3 (6)	8.6 (5)	81.1 (47)	58	0	14.9 (10)	50.7 (34)	16.4 (11)	18.0 (12)	67	38.57 *
TV	0	0	12.5 (7)	17.9 (10)	69.6 (39)	56	0	0	7.4 (5)	10.3 (7)	82.3 (56)	68	19.35 NS
films	0	0	7.1 (4)	3.6 (2)	89.3 (50)	56	0	2.9 (2)	33.8 (23)	26.5 (18)	36.8 (25)	68	35.97 *
OHP	0	0	7.4 (4)	0	92.6 (50)	54	0	1.6 (1)	54.8 (34)	9.7 (6)	33.9 (21)	62	44.28 **

Table 21.4: Distribution of respondents based on teaching aids used by teachers by medium.

	Degree of usage																
	Bahasa Malaysia					English					Chinese						x^2
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Chalkboard	14.9 (7)	36.2 (17)	46.8 (22)	2.1 (1)	0	13.3 (8)	36.7 (22)	48.3 (29)	1.7 (1)	0	0	42.9 (3)	57.1 (4)	0	0	12.47 NS
Pictures	6.3 (3)	68.8 (33)	22.9 (11)	0	2.0 (1)	3.3 (2)	68.9 (42)	21.3 (13)	6.5 (4)	0	0	57.1 (4)	28.6 (2)	14.3 (1)	0	13.33 NS
Charts	2.1 (1)	63.8 (30)	21.3 (10)	6.4 (3)	6.4 (3)	1.7 (1)	59.3 (35)	23.7 (14)	10.2 (6)	5.1 (3)	0	42.9 (9)	23.8 (5)	14.3 (3)	14.3 (3)	6.48 NS
Models	0	13.0 (6)	28.3 (13)	8.7 (4)	50.0 (23)	0	12.3 (7)	45.6 (26)	15.8 (9)	26.3 (15)	0	10.5 (2)	36.8 (7)	26.3 (5)	26.3 (5)	11.41 NS
Radio	0	2.2 (1)	11.1 (5)	40.0 (18)	46.7 (21)	0	2.5 (1)	8.8 (5)	19.3 (11)	69.4 (40)	0	0	15.8 (3)	42.1 (8)	42.1 (8)	12.73 NS
Tape recorder	0	42.7 (20)	33.3 (16)	20.8 (10)	3.2 (2)	0	54.8 (34)	22.6 (14)	21.0 (13)	1.6 (1)	0	35.0 (7)	40.0 (8)	25.0 (5)	0	28.5 *
Video tapes	0	6.4 (3)	19.1 (9)	14.9 (7)	59.6 (28)	0	17.4 (4)	43.3 (26)	11.7 (7)	27.6 (23)	0	16.7 (3)	27.8 (5)	11.1 (2)	44.4 (8)	29.59 *
TV	0	0	13.0 (6)	10.9 (5)	76.1 (35)	0	0	8.3 (5)	11.7 (7)	80.0 (48)	0	0	5.6 (1)	27.8 (5)	66.6 (12)	6.54 NS
Films	0	0	11.4 (5)	13.6 (6)	75.0 (33)	0	3.2 (2)	30.6 (19)	19.4 (12)	46.8 (29)	0	0	16.7 (3)	11.1 (2)	72.2 (13)	29.63 *
OHP	0	0	15.9 (7)	2.3 (1)	81.8 (36)	0	0	45.5 (25)	9.0 (5)	45.5 (25)	0	3.7 (1)	22.2 (6)	0	74.1 (20)	5.32 NS

Table 21.5: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teaching aids used by teachers by type of school.

| | Degree of usage | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Day | | | | | | Residential | | | | | X^2 |
	1	2	3	4	5	N	1	2	3	4	5	
chalkboard	24 (20.1)	44 (36.9)	50 (42.0)	2 (1.0)	-	93.1	-	-	8 (88.7)	-	1 (11.3)	15.7 *
pictures	2 (1.6)	80 (67.0)	30 (24.8)	7 (5.8)	1 (0.8)	93.1	3 (33.3)	6 (66.7)	-	-	-	25.44 *
charts	1 (0.9)	67 (56.5)	30 (24.8)	12 (10.2)	9 (7.6)	92.8	1 (8.3)	8 (56.7)	-	-	-	11.98 *
models	-	10 (8.0)	45 (38.0)	19 (16.0)	45 (38.0)	92.6	-	6 (66.2)	3 (33.8)	-	-	31.49 **
radios	-	2 (1.8)	14 (11.6)	40 (33.0)	64 (53.6)	92.6	-	-	-	-	9 (100.0)	8.95 NS
tape recorder	-	52 (43.3)	38 (31.7)	27 (22.5)	3 (2.5)	93.0	-	9 (100.0)	-	-	-	10.79 *
video tapes	-	8 (6.9)	34 (28.4)	16 (13.8)	61 (50.9)	92.8	-	2 (22.2)	7 (77.8)	-	-	14.62 **
TV	-	-	12 (10.5)	18 (14.8)	89 (74.9)	92.7	-	-	-	-	9 (100.0)	2.96 NS
films	-	-	21 (17.4)	21	78 (65.2)	92.7	-	2 (22.2)	7 (77.8)	-	-	46.97 **
OHP	-	2 (1.0)	33 (28.1)	7 (5.6)	78 (65.3)	92.2	-	-	8 (88.5)	-	1 (11.5)	13.97 *

Note:
1 = more than once a week
2 = once a week
3 = once a month
4 = once a term
5 = never

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Table 22.10: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers' opinion on pupils' skill in English by location.

| | Pupils' skill | | | | | | | | | | x^2 |
| | Rural | | | | | Urban | | | | | |
	1 N %	2 N %	3 N %	4 N %	5 N %	1 N %	2 N %	3 N %	4 N %	5 N %	
Speaking	2 (3.4)	19 (32.2)	29 (49.2)	9 (15.2)	0	36 (49.3)	19 (26.0)	9 (12.3)	9 (12.3)	0	35.14 **
Reading	0	20 (33.9)	33 (55.9)	6 (10.2)	0	42 (56.8)	12 (16.2)	12 (16.2)	8 (10.8)	0	39.61 **
Writing	0	22 (37.3)	30 (50.8)	7 (11.9)	0	43 (58.1)	13 (17.6)	12 (16.2)	6 (8.1)	0	41.28 **
Listening	0	21 (35.6)	31 (52.5)	7 (11.9)	0	42 (56.8)	14 (18.9)	12 (16.2)	6 (8.1)	0	39.51 **

Table 22.11: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers' opinion on pupils' skill in English by medium.

| | Pupils' skill | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | x^2 |
| | Bahasa Malaysia | | | | | English | | | | | Chinese | | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Speaking	10.6 4	39.5 15	69.2 27	11.1 2	0	89.5 34	57.9 22	10.3 4	22.2 2	0	0	2.6 1	20.5 7	66.7 7	0	13.31 **
Reading	4.8 2	37.5 12	75.5 34	0	0	95.2 40	62.5 20	6.7 1	7.1 2	0	0	0	17.8 7	92.8 8	0	14.79 **
Writing	4.7 2	40.0 11	73.8 31	7.7 1	0	95.3 41	60.0 21	2.4 1	7.7 1	0	0	0	23.8 9	84.7 6	0	15.31 **
Listening	4.8 2	42.8 15	69.8 30	7.7 1	0	95.2 40	57.2 20	7.0 3	7.7 1	0	0	0	23.2 9	84.7 6	0	14.95 **

Note: 1 = very good
2 = good
3 = adequate
4 = poor
5 = very poor

Table 22.12: Percentage distribution of respondents based on teachers' opinion on pupils' skill in English by type of school.

	Pupils' skill										
	Daily					Residential					χ^2
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Speaking	30.7	23.2	35.2	10.9	0	41.1	41.1	17.8	0	0	6.21 NS
Reading	30.7	22.6	35.5	11.2	0	41.1	41.1	17.8	0	0	4.66 NS
Writing	31.4	25.0	33.0	10.6	0	41.1	41.1	17.8	0	0	3.87 NS
Listening	30.7	24.2	34.5	10.6	0	47.9	52.1	0	0	0	7.71 NS

Note:
1 = very good
2 = good
3 = adequate
4 = poor
5 = very poor

Table 22.13: Distribution of respondents based on teachers' opinion on KBSM.

Teacher's opinion (N = 133)	Total	%
(i) Preparation of teaching and learning aids	17	56.4
(ii) Classroom management	19	14.3
(iii) Recording of pupil's progress	15	11.3
(iv) Other forms of demands	8	6.0
Total	117	88.0

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