Final report of the regional seminar

Building the Capacities of Curriculum Specialists for Educational Reform

Vientiane, Lao PDR, 9-13 September 2002

Funded by the Japanese Funds-in-Trust

INTERNATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION

UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education, Bangkok

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Foreword

The countries in East and South-East Asia are all involved in the process of change, since they all face a number of challenges with regard to management of curricula change. Therefore it is of great importance to be able to build capacity for the effective management of change of basic school curricula in order to meet the multiple challenges of learning in the twenty first century.

The *Curriculum Innovation in Basic Education* project is a joint initiative by the UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education in Bangkok, funded by the Japanese Funds-in-Trust, and the International Bureau of Education (IBE), Geneva. The aim of this project is to reinforce the capacity of curriculum developers in the management of curriculum change. In above context a series of seminars were held in the region. The Bangkok seminar produced a common framework for the situational analyses. The Vientiane seminar brought updates of situational analyses from the eleven countries that are taking part in the project, namely: Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Japan, South Korea, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Mongolia, Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam. The seminar on "Building Capacities of Curriculum Specialists for Educational Reform" (Vientiane, 9-13 September 2002) was an attempt to identify crosscutting issues and capacity-building needs for the management of curricular innovation in basic school education. It was organized jointly by the Lao National Commission for UNESCO and the National Research Institute for Educational Sciences (NRIES), Ministry of Education, Lao PDR. The first seminar on capacity building for curriculum specialists in East and South East Asia, (Bangkok, December 2000), was hosted by the Ministry of Education, Thailand.

The success of the seminar was assured by the participation of directors and heads of departments of national ministries of education from the eleven participating countries in East, South-east Asian and the Mekong sub-regions. The eleven country studies are in the CD ROM attached to this report. The three main topics that were discussed were (1) the ongoing initiatives

in curriculum reform based on situational analyses, (2) the identification of national and regional needs for capacity building in the development and implementation of national and local curricula, and (3) the identification of emerging issues in relation to curriculum policy change, structure and organization of learning content and the monitoring and evaluation of curricula content.

The final report of the seminar is divided into five parts and three annexes. Part I talks about the processes of curriculum policy change which has a penchant towards decentralization, particularly decision-making and the empowerment of local communities. Part II, which is the designing and implementation of local curricula, is a strategy of ensuring relevance of educational content and contributes to decentralization of education, governance and management. Part III deals with changing the structure and the organization of learning content, which is an important component as it shows the shift from central control of curricula towards a sharing of decision-making and the involvement of management at lower levels of the education system. Part IV discusses the evaluation of curriculum reform and talks mainly of the different steps countries have taken towards evaluating their curricular reforms. Part V is the last section of the report and it discusses the capacity-building needs as expressed by each of the eleven countries.

The IBE and UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education in Bangkok are grateful to all the participants who took part in the seminar and also to the hosts, the Lao National Commission for UNESCO and the National Research Institute for Educational Science (NRIES), Ministry of Education. Finally, we are all indebted to the Japanese Funds-in-Trust for its generous support for this important project.

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PART

I

Introduction to the Vientiane Seminar

CURRICULUM INNOVATION IN THE BASIC EDUCATION PROJECT

The countries of East and South-East Asia are all currently involved in processes of curriculum reform, representing a range of very diverse experiences. Despite the diversity of national contexts all the countries of the region face a number of challenges with regard to the management of curricula change. Building capacity for the effective management of change of basic school curricula is necessary in order to meet the multiple challenges of learning in the twenty-first century.

"Building capacity for the effective management of change of basic school curricula is necessary in order to meet the multiple challenges of learning in the twenty-first century . . ."

The *Curriculum Innovation in Basic Education* project initiated by the UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education in Bangkok, funded by the Japanese Funds-in-Trust, is implemented in partnership with the UNESCO International Bureau of Education (IBE), Geneva. The overall project goal is to reinforce the capacities of curriculum developers in the area of curricular reform of basic education. The regional seminar on Building Capacities of Curriculum Specialists for Educational Reform (Vientiane 9–13 September 2002) was organized jointly by the Lao National Commission for UNESCO and the National Research Institute for Educational Sciences, Ministry of Education, Lao People's Democratic Republic. It is a follow-up to the seminar on capacity building for curriculum specialists in East and South East Asia that took place in Bangkok in December 2000 and which was hosted by the Ministry of Education, Thailand.[1] The Bangkok Seminar brought together directors and heads of curriculum departments from the eleven participating countries to prepare the situation analyses of national processes of curriculum change. These situation analyses were updated and finalized for the Vientiane Seminar (September 2003). They shall

serve to identify issues towards building of national capacity for curriculum development at the central and regional/local levels.

The report that follows is an attempt to identify crosscutting issues and capacity-building needs for the management of curricular innovation in basic school education. It is based on a combination of the Vientiane seminar proceedings and on the situation analyses.

SEMINAR OBJECTIVES

The seminar brought together the directors and heads of curriculum departments of national ministries of education from the eleven participating countries in the East, South-East Asian and Mekong sub-regions (see list of participants in Annex 3) to:

- exchange experiences about recent and ongoing initiatives in curriculum reform in the participating countries, on the basis of draft situation analyses;

- identify emerging issues relative to the process of curriculum reform and development at the regional and national levels in relation to:

  - processes of curriculum policy change;
  - changes in structure and organization of learning content;
  - monitoring and evaluation of curricula reform;

- identify national and regional needs for capacity building in the development and implementation of national and local curricula.

PROJECT APPROACH AND OUTCOMES

1. *Curriculum innovation in basic education*

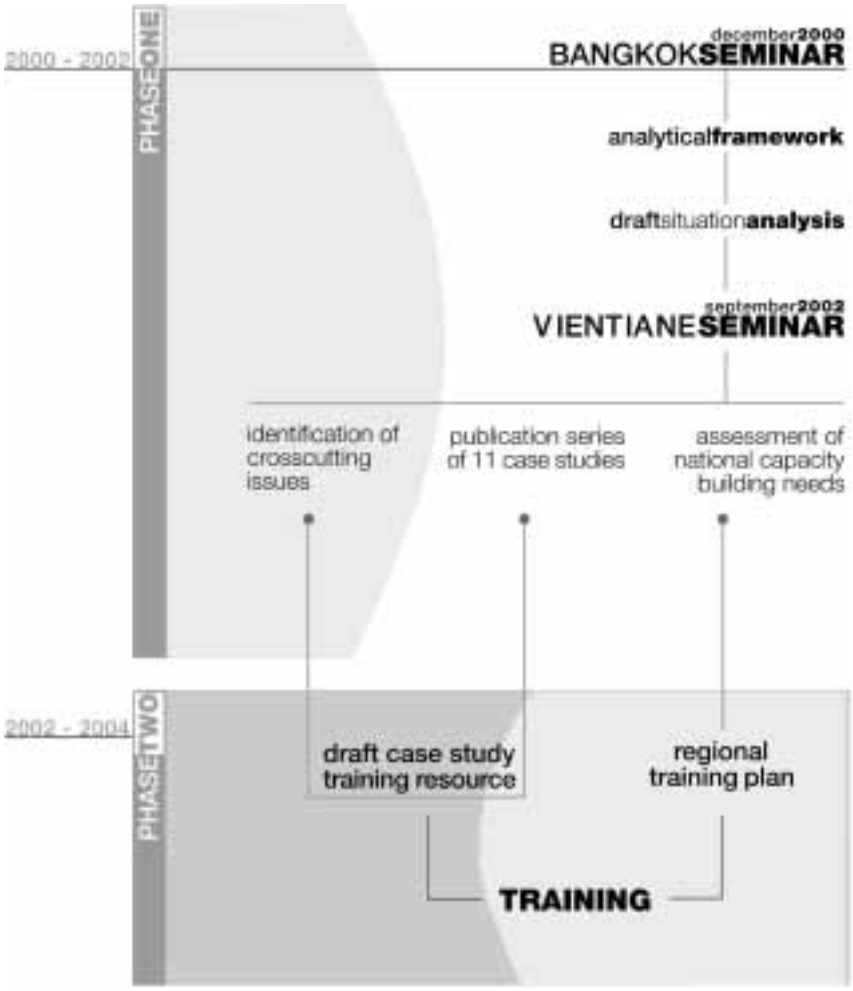

FIGURE 1. Curriculum innovation in basic education project in East and South-East Asia regions

2. *Project outcomes*

- *Production in CD ROM* of the eleven country case studies and seminar proceedings;
- Development of project ideas for a *regional training project proposal* for extra-budgetary funding;
- Plans for development of *training resources* for management of curriculum change.

SEMINAR METHODOLOGY

The *active participatory methodology* employed at the Vientiane seminar reflects the collaborative spirit that inspires the *capacity building model* behind the *Curriculum Innovation in Basic Education Project.*

The main outcome of the first seminar (Bangkok, December 2000) was the preparation of national *situation analyses* on the basis of a *collectively developed framework.*

"The active participatory methodology employed at the Vientiane seminar reflects the collaborative spirit that inspires the capacity building model . . ."

1. Review of international situation analyses

As a preparation for the Vientiane Seminar (September 2002), the participants were requested to *review and update the national situation analyses* based on current developments in the implementation of curricula change. Specific suggestions were communicated to the nominated participants separately by the seminar organizers.

2. Country presentations

At the seminar, each participating country was requested to make a ten-minute presentation providing an overview of rationales for curriculum policy change and a critical assessment of factors that facilitate and/or constrain the national process of curricula renewal. The suggested guiding questions for the presentations were as follows:

- *Changes in curriculum policy.* What are the various rationales for change? How is the need for change documented? How are these needs and rationales expressed in aims & goals of basic education? How are these policy changes communicated to curriculum developers?

- *Critical assessment of process of curricula reform.* What are the factors facilitating and/or constraining factors? What are emerging issues of concern? What is the role of research and evaluation? How much of the research results have been utilized in the curricula process?

3. Resource person's presentation

The situation analyses (see CDROM attached to this report) developed by the eleven participating countries identified a number of themes that relate both to the challenges being faced by curriculum developers and to the approaches they are taking to meeting those challenges. The presentation on 'changing focus in curriculum development' by the resource person identified four major themes:

- the development of a child-centred curriculum;
- the use of learning outcomes as a starting point for curriculum development;
- the concept of a curriculum framework;
- the expression of core national values through the school curriculum.

The presentation then explored what was meant by each of these themes, and the implications for curriculum development and implementation that each presents. Finally, the presentation summarized the changing focus of curriculum development, both in the region and the broader context, and presented some fundamental, pragmatic principles that could guide the development of contemporary curriculum.

WORKSHOPS

1. Thematic workshops

Three *thematic workshop sessions* were conducted in the form of small-group discussions:

- the process of curricula policy change;
- changes in the structure and organization of learning content;
- monitoring and evaluation.

Participants were grouped in different ways for discussions to ensure that opportunities were provided to share information, experiences and opinions throughout the region. A set of questions was adopted to facilitate the discussions. Following the structure of these workshops, this report presents four main issues identified by the participants and are developed in Parts II to VI of this report. The reporting of the workshop debates has been complemented with quotations out of the country situations analyses, as well as from relevant references.

2. National assessment of capacity-building needs

A final workshop was devoted to national assessment of capacity building needs for curricula reform in the eleven participating countries. The specific aims of this workshop were to identify the range of audiences/target groups in each national context who need enhanced capacity in developing and implementing curricula changes, rationales for selecting each of these groups and identifying the types of skills/competencies/knowledge they would require. Part VI of this report is dedicated to this issue and includes the complete set of national needs analyses.

Notes

1. Gregorio, L.; Byron, I. 2001. *Capacity-building for curriculum specialists in East and Southeast Asia*: *Final report of the training seminar. Bangkok (Thailand, 12-16 December 2000).* Geneva, Switzerland, IBE. [Hosted by the Thai Ministry of Education in collaboration with the International Bureau of Education (IBE) and UNESCO Bangkok, with funding support from the Japanese Funds-in-Trust.]

PART

II

Processes of Curriculum Policy Change

TOWARDS A FRAMEWORK OF EDUCATIONAL DECENTRALIZATION

"... defining what constitutes relevant learning involves a greater number of stakeholders in the process of educational policy making."

Processes of curriculum policy change are increasingly shaped by the trend towards greater decentralization of educational management and governance. Current trends promote decentralization of educational systems, in particular decision-making and participation in educational policies and practices, in order to reinforce the involvement and empowerment of local communities and their people. A range of technical, educational and political rationales is most often advanced in justifying the need for decentralization. These include: (1) managerial efficacy; (2) enhanced quality and relevance of learning content to local cultural and economic realities; and (3) increased legitimacy of curricula through greater stakeholder participation in policy formulation. There is a certain degree of overlap between political, technical and educational rationales and outcomes of decentralization. The political and efficiency outcomes of decentralization, for instance, overlap when the price of greater participation in decision-making is often greater participation in educational financing, too, through resource mobilization at the local level, usually in the form of special taxes.

Secondly, decentralization contributes to the improvement of the quality of learning and this may be seen to include 'inputs (number of teachers or textbooks, or amount of teacher training), processes (amount of direct instructional time, extent of active learning), outputs (test scores, graduation rates), and outcomes (performance in subsequent employment)' (Asian Development Bank, 2001).

However, in addition to a more traditional focus on inputs, quality may also be equated to relevance of the learning process in specific contexts. The quality of learning would therefore refer

to student knowledge, attitudes, values, and behaviour, or attaining a specific target/objective in a specific socio-economic environment. Therefore, defining what constitutes relevant learning involves a greater number of stakeholders in the process of educational policy making. This, in turn, increases the possible disagreements as to the meaning of 'quality' education as every stakeholder has a specific view of what constitutes relevant learning in today's world. 'Consensus is unlikely to be achieved among parents, teachers, administrators, and students' (ADB, 2001), as to what is quality education.

Finally, in political terms, decentralization in education implies the devolution of power and authority from a higher to a lower level, usually involving the general population more directly in decision-making. As decentralization is adopted, broad involvement of stakeholders becomes a key factor in education governance and management. According to the ADB (2001), a broad-based consultation process should be the basis of any process of curriculum change that will affect curricula. This supposes a realignment of the roles of central and local authorities through:

"... a broad-based consultation process should be the basis of any process of curriculum change that will affect curricula."

- The participation of the local community in the ownership and responsibility of education. The collaboration of the local community and the local education staff would bring about a 'greater sensitivity to […] local conditions in terms of economic activities and understanding of special characteristics of the region. Therefore, decentralization means transferring power not only to the state governments, but granting autonomy to the local authority and to the individual schools' (Schmelkes , 1997).

- The maintenance by the central power of a system of support through laws, policies and guidelines, and also the provision of assistance in generating resources.

- The continuing role of the central authority in monitoring, evaluating, and setting new standards.

A strong central government is a requirement in the process of decentralization, as the role of the government policies has to be transformed into State policies, which incorporate the participation of civil society, including parents and local community. Precisely for this reason, a strong, if transformed, centralized system can be efficient in addressing a very wide range of issues. The issue then is to attain the right balance (Weiler, 1990) between centralization and decentralization that is appropriate in each situation.

These next sections illustrate the wide range of models of curriculum policy change from the East and South-East Asia region. A simple framework of guiding questions has been adopted to better understand the process of curriculum policy change from a comparative perspective.

"The issue . . . is to attain the right balance between centralization and decentralization that is appropriate in each situation."

- What are the parameters that affect the nature and process of stakeholder involvement in policy making?
- Who is involved in the process (educational versus non-educational actors?) Whether at central, regional or local levels, what is the nature and scope of the stakeholder involvement?
- How are stakeholders involved? When are they consulted, who is consulted, and in what capacity?
- What conflicts/forms of resistance arise, and why? How is such resistance overcome? What marketing strategies are

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EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT IN EAST AND SOUTH-EAST ASIA

The type of political systems, the nature of national educational management systems and the structure of national curricula all have an important impact on the scope and the process of consultation for curriculum policy change. The nature of educational management systems, in particular, is a key parameter in determining the scope and the nature of decentralization of educational management and governance. Although differences remain in the degree of decentralization, most countries have at least decentralized their educational administration and management system, most often at three levels: the national, the local and the school level, as illustrated by the following examples from China, Indonesia and Mongolia:

- China. In order for the curriculum to be relevant to the various contexts, curriculum management responsibilities will be shared respectively at national, local and school levels. The Ministry of Education will be responsible for macro supervision, in terms of planning, supervision of the national standards and guidelines for text development, teacher training, regulations for curriculum assessment, as well as management at the provincial and grassroots levels. Local education authorities at province level are expected to coordinate the implementation of the national curriculum and planning of the local curriculum. […] Schools are the major players for the curriculum implementation and transaction.

- Indonesia. The 1989 Indonesian Education Law […] clearly describes the role of the central office as preparing the national curriculum, and the role of provincial offices as adjusting the national curriculum framework to local needs, as well as developing their own local contents to achieve the educational goals. The law furthermore allows teachers to have a more flexible adjustment of the national curriculum to the local situations and contexts.

- Mongolia. The Ministry of Science, Technology, Education and Culture is responsible for developing and approving the national standards and curriculum (educational goals, structure and organization of learning content, pre-service and in-service teacher training, textbook and equipment provision, students assessment and curriculum evaluation). The ministry also provides an action framework and develops model regulations and rules for implementing, monitoring and evaluating the national standards and curriculum at all levels. Local authorities coordinate the implementation of the national standards and curriculum, develop and approve local curriculum in line with the national standards and curriculum, provide an action framework and develop guidelines for implementing, monitoring and evaluating local curriculum. The schools develop and approve school curriculum in compliance with the national and local curriculum while taking into consideration students' demands and needs and the schools' capacity and implement, monitor and evaluate

Table 1 illustrates the degrees of decentralization and the changes taking place in the management and governance of the educational structures in the eleven countries featured.

Table 1. Degrees of decentralization

Country	Changes in management and structures of national curricula
Cambodia	Highly centralized system of education following national goals ß Education is crucial for national unity, restoration of national identity and socio-economic development. ß With the liberalization of the economy, the education policy is focusing on curricula reforms based on Western models.
China	Centrally initiated and directed, national curricula reforms by the Ministry of Education, in curricula planning, syllabi, textbooks. ß Pushing forward towards socialist modernization through decentralization of national, local and school based curricula. ß Market-based production of textbooks and teacher's guides with approval of the Ministry of Education.
Indonesia	Highly centralized system with centrally initiated education reforms for provinces and districts ß Flexibility in the implementation of local curriculum content with national standards that provide unity to the curriculum.
Japan	Centrally controlled nationwide standards of education ß Reforms implemented in 2002 to reduce teaching content and teaching time: a five-day week school system put into practice.
Republic of Korea	Highly centralized but with an aim to modify rigid national curricula ß By adopting the 'open education' policy, which integrates content of various subjects into a topic-work based instructional plan. ß A future policy towards developing and providing diverse textbooks.
Lao People's Democratic Republic	Centralized curriculum for both public and private schools With the concept of integration to overcome curriculum overload, introducing creative skills, problem solving, the role of school in society and preservation of the environment. Creating in students a spirit of patriotism, combining modern world education with national culture.
Malaysia	Centralized system with education as part of the government's developmental policy. Focus on human resource development to meet challenges of the information millennium, capital investment and technologically sophisticated industries by applying curriculum reforms to enhance the quality of education
Mongolia	Centralized national level strategic planning, coordination for its implementation, monitoring and evaluation for developing the national standards and curricula through a holistic approach. ß To make reforms in the curriculum and standards based on the best traditions and at the same time learning from best experiences and practices achieved from world education reforms ß To give more freedom and increase the responsibility of local authorities and schools by decentralizing educational management ß To transfer from a ten-year to an eleven-year schooling system
Philippines	Centralized national curricula reforms implemented in both private and public schools ß When implementation is made by individual schools, indigenization /localization of curricula is encouraged ß Instructional materials support curriculum and are provided for free ß Mass teacher training at the regional levels is conducted ß Use of interactive/collaborative learning methods.
Thailand	Towards decentralization of educational management by encouraging local participation and ensuring quality education through: ß Promotion of basic education ß Improve education quality/teacher training/ in-service training ß Curricula reforms ß Administrative reforms
Viet Nam	Highly centralized system of education ß Modernize to a certain extent the content and methods ß Improvement of structure of national education system ß Upgrading public schools ß Encouraging the development of semi private and private schools ß Renewing, stabilizing and improving the quality of education and training.

Table 1 clearly illustrates a wide range of scenarios that exist, where some countries are increasingly decentralizing policy and governance and others are beginning to implement localized curricula. The following example from China represents a highly centralized system where decisions in educational reforms are taken by the central government and then disseminated throughout the country:

- China: Curriculum policies are usually set forth by the Ministry of Education through documents such as curriculum planning, syllabus, textbooks lists recommendation as well as regulations. For example, the ministry is developing the document of Guideline for the Reform of National Curriculum in Basic Education, which will direct the reform, and development of national curriculum in China.

Malaysia on the other hand, is an example of a more decentralized model of decision-making:

- Malaysia: The national curriculum is implemented using the decentralized mode. At the Ministry level, the Central Curriculum Committee, the highest policy-making body in the organization, established the working committee, the Committee for Implementation of Primary and Secondary School Programs. It is supported by a Technical Working Committee to coordinate and to ensure that reforms would be well implemented from every aspect.

The collective and participatory nature of decision-making in Malaysia is one of its strengths, where although certain agencies are responsible for the school curriculum, the actual planning, development and other related activities are shared out. The flow chart (Figure 2) illustrates explicitly how a number of opinions from within (ministries: education planning committee, central curricula committee, curriculum development centre), and from without (world trends, public opinion, policy directives, policy mandates) are taken into consideration when implementing the directives. There is also a mechanism of communication, evaluation and feedback between the various bodies involved in curriculum reforms and implementation, particularly between the curriculum development centre at national level and the state education departments and district education offices.

FIGURE 2. Flowchart of the curriculum development process

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TRENDS TOWARDS BROADER STAKEHOLDER INVOLVEMENT

"Many participating countries consider teachers to be the most important stakeholders in the consultation process."

This type of division of responsibilities in the decentralization of curriculum development may result in tension. First, at the policy making level (governance), the broader involvement of stakeholders at the various levels implies a broader process of consultation, on the one hand, and/or a process of decentralized decision-making on the other. Secondly, at the level of implementation, decentralization often touches upon issues related to the development of local curricula. While devolution of educational decision-making (governance) cannot be separated from decentralization of implementation (administration/ management), this first section

focuses essentially on the level of curriculum policy formulation or what Rosenmund (2002) refers to as 'curriculum-making processes' at the national level. Issues of decentralization of curriculum management and the development of local curricula, in particular, will be dealt with in the next section (see part II).

The practices of educational and non-educational stakeholders in the curriculum reform process vary from country to country. In countries such as the Philippines and Malaysia, for instance, consultation takes place with a broad range of stakeholders.

- Philippines: The stakeholders involved in the process of consultations were the curriculum specialists, area experts, teachers, students, academe and representatives from various sectors like parents, business, trade and industry, religious groups, PTAs and local government units.

- Malaysia: The views and recommendations of the different stakeholders are taken into consideration at various stages of curriculum development. In curriculum planning, development and design, the service of competent moderators and experts/specialists available locally are sought. This is to ensure the development of high-quality curriculum.

In the case of Republic of Korea, the need for consultations with broader range of stakeholders has recently been acknowledged:

- Republic of Korea: in the past, a minority elite class who decided on educational content monopolized decisions regarding education. This group consisted of religious leaders, the governing class in power, and a group of scholars. Nowadays, equality of educational opportunity necessitates a change in the method of determining educational content. Participation by concerned citizens has increased.

In other countries, such as Cambodia, there is a general trend towards more open consultation processes, where, while stakeholders are not directly involved in the decision-making process, their opinions are nevertheless being taken into account:

- Although there was no direct participation of different stakeholders (including business sector and local community groups), at various stages of the curriculum development process, direct and indirect consultations took place with a variety of stakeholders, including the critical National Conferences on Education, which were held annually. The various stakeholders involved in the curriculum development process, especially at the final stage, were Parent Associations, school committees and

various communities. They discussed on emerging issues to be solved through education such as lacking of Social Morality, Human Rights abuse, the concern for the quality of life, etc.

Finally other countries are acknowledging the importance of initiating consultations with various stakeholders and interest groups. Mongolia, for example, emphasized that:

- A national committee which is composed of decision and policy makers, curriculum specialists and area experts from all levels, academia, school teachers and principals has been working on developing a new national standard since 2001 and is now in a stage of concluding it. Various stakeholders, such as Government of Mongolia, ADB, UNICEF and the Mongolian Foundation for Open Society (Soros Foundation) sponsored this activity.

"... a general trend is developing to increase consultation with the general public as well as experts at the local level."

Many participating countries consider teachers to be the most important stakeholders in the consultation process. In Republic of Korea, for example, because of the general democratization of the country 'nowadays the voices of teacher's unions and association have become louder'. As they are responsible for the implementation phase of the reforms, the final impact of the reforms largely depends on teacher's perception, knowledge and understanding of the changes. This being the case, the participation of teachers in design and implementation can be crucial to successful curriculum change:

- China, too, expressed a concern to involve teachers to a greater extent in future reforms in an effort to improve the design and the degree to which these reforms are implemented, and encouraged the participation of teachers in the development of textbooks and other instructional materials.

In addition to teachers, a general trend is developing to increase consultation with the general public as well as experts at the local level. These actors have been recognized to play an important role in the consultation process, as is the case of Mongolia, where an opportunity was opened to broaden participation of the general public by implementing projects and programmes. At present, this type of activity has a very important role in the revision of teaching and learning content and methodology'. This trend is observed in:

- China, the thirteen regional Curriculum Development and Teaching Material Centres play important roles in wider participation in the curriculum development process, particularly for getting the involvement of professional forces such as subject specialist and curriculum experts, for guiding the piloting

programs of new curriculum for the areas around the centre, and for listening from parents and social groups.

- Viet Nam, apart from the Board of Curriculum Development 'scientists, experts, administrators, teachers and other people […] participated and contributed to the curriculum development process'.

The involvement and commitment of the different actors in the above examples, especially at the level of district administrators can greatly contribute to the preparedness of the local level for changes. Furthermore, sharing of resources, tasks or responsibilities at the local level will increase the feeling of local ownership this is crucial to successful implementation of reforms.

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CONFLICTS AND RESISTANCE IN CURRICULUM POLICY FORMULATION

"There is nothing easy about the process of change. Nowhere is this more the case than in education, yet in no other field are innovations and reforms more needed."

- S. Shaeffer 1990

'There is nothing easy about the process of change. Nowhere is this more the case than in education, yet in no other field are innovations and reforms more needed' (Shaeffer, 1990). Change may be conceptualized as a continuous process of adaptation of curricular content, methods and structures to social change. Resistance to change is part of this process of increasingly continuous curricular renewal. Resistance may be encountered in the curriculum development process both at the level of policy making or of implementation. Although clearly interrelated, the sources and causes of such resistance are different when considering the 'curriculum-making process' (curriculum policy formulation), as opposed to process of policy implementation.

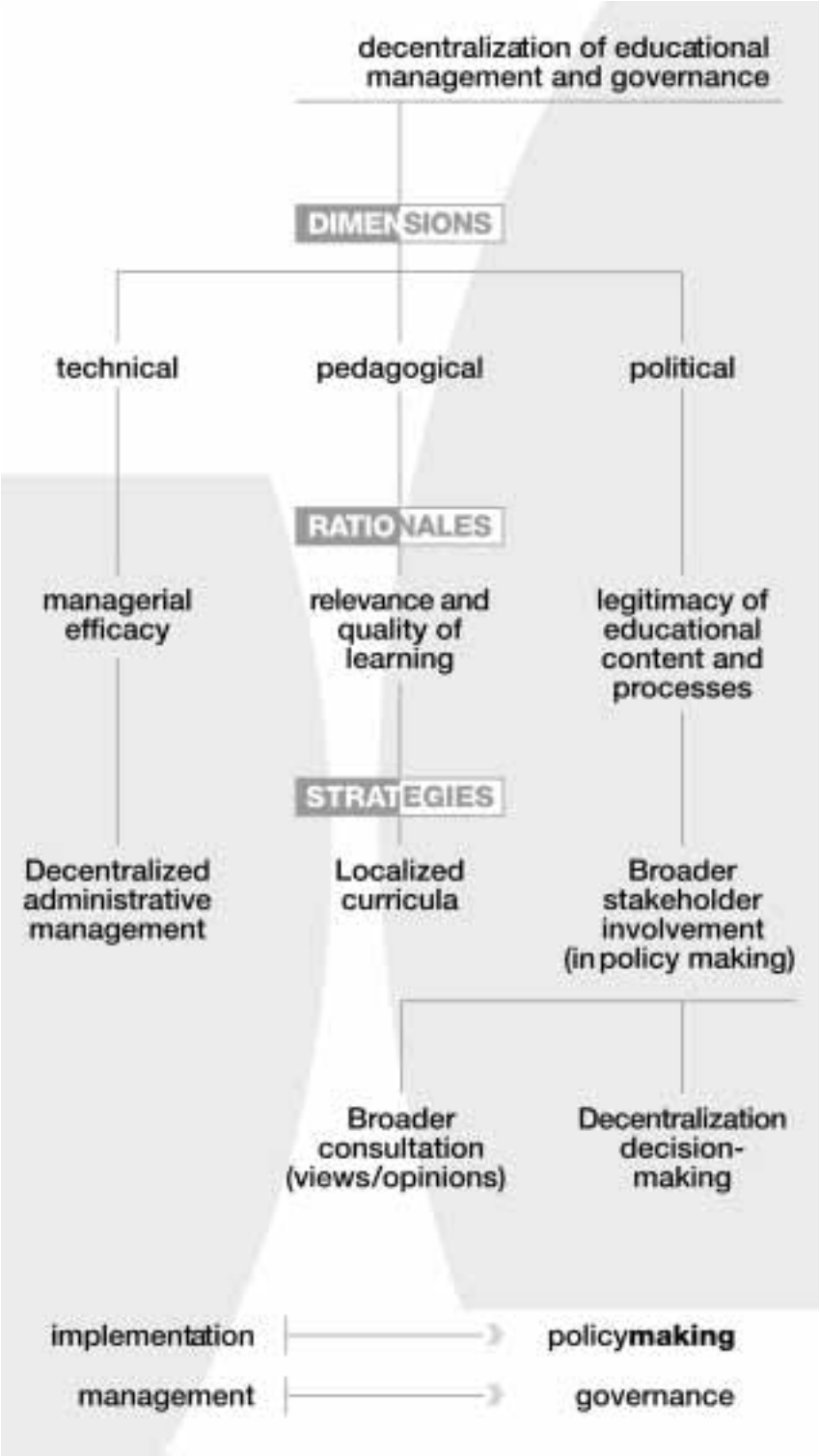

Figure 3. Flow of educational management decentralization

"Due to political tensions, curriculum developers are sometimes confronted with contradictory views on education and the direction it should be taking . . . . Managing conflicting opinions (vested interests) and different interpretations about the desired change about policy can be a real challenge."

Due to political tensions, curriculum developers are sometimes confronted with contradictory views on education and the direction it should be taking. Resistance to new policies often appear at the source of the curriculum renewal process, i.e. at the level of policy formulation. The greater involvement of stakeholders brings in a broader range of opinions, views, interests and expectations, which may often be conflicting. Managing conflicting opinions (vested interests) and different interpretations about the desired change about policy can be a real challenge.

The perceived risk of an adverse impact on learning achievement is an important source of resistance to change. The introduction of a five-day school week in Japan and of more choice with elective subjects, more leisure and the cultivation of a 'zest-for-living' were all based on an attempt to enhance the overall quality of the learning process. But we find that university teachers resisted the policy because they feared that 'students might get low achievements in the future because of the reduction of teaching content and teaching time'.

Resistance can also originate from parents for example and this is most often related to the content of education and to their concern over examinations (whether examination techniques are satisfactory; whether pupils are adequately being prepared, etc.).

When conflicting views cannot be overcome, this can adversely affect the curriculum, as is shown by an example from The Republic of Korea, which has a curriculum comprising of two basic parts: the general guidelines and specific guidelines by subject. Education-curriculum specialists developed the first guidelines, while subject matter specialists delivered the latter. This has resulted in a problem of consistency between these two elements of the curriculum.

- The gap has been ascribed to the power conflict between general educators and subject-matter specialists. The former group, who comprise persons who have specialized in the study of education as graduates and undergraduates, play a pivotal role in the process of national curriculum reform as they take on the role of coordinating and controlling the revision process. Certainly this problem remains unsolved, and will emerge again as a serious problem in the next revision of the curriculum. For the sake of both the efficiency and consistency of school curricula, it is essential that a solution to this problem be found.

Another example of when the failure to overcome conflicting views can cause inconsistency in the curriculum development process, is

that of Lao PDR, where different viewpoints, between reformists who strive to adapt to the educational innovation and technology, and conservators who try to insist on the existing traditional education, have hampered the reform process.

Sometimes the distinction between a process of consultation of stakeholders consulting to collect views and effective participation in a process of decision-making becomes blurred. In many cases, the extent to which all of the different opinions expressed during consultations need to be taken into account or incorporated into the decision-making process remains to be clarified. Even though each country determines what an appropriate scope on consultation is, they find themselves confronted with similar dilemmas. The Philippines, for example has experienced difficulties in dealing with a very broad consultation process, illustrating how such involvement can hamper the reaching of consensus. The government has learned from this experience and in the future might limit its consultations to fewer pressure groups, lobbies and stakeholders.

"... the most efficient consultation method is a participatory approach that engages stakeholders throughout the curriculum development process, and not only at the beginning, as is often the case."

Many countries experience difficulties in deciding which stakeholders should be consulted, at what stage of the curriculum reform process and in what capacity. It is often the case that stakeholders, and teachers in particular, consider that they have not been sufficiently implicated in the process of deciding on the direction of change, as has been the case in the Republic of Korea where:

- One of the main problems or constraining factors of the implementation in the new curriculum is the strong opposition from teachers. Some teachers disagree with its educational direction and content. […] They think its educational direction and content are too idealistic and irrelevant to actual school situations. They predict that it will be hard to implement in the schools. As a result, some teachers insist that the implementation schedule of the seventh national curriculum be postponed until the actual situation in each school improves.

From a more global and theoretical standpoint, there may also be resistance to Western paradigms of education management. New trends in the decentralization of educational management and governance may be perceived as being associated with globalization are often considered to be developed out of a Western perspective. Therefore, the need was expressed to use a combined approach between traditional beliefs, sayings and customs and universal principles, frameworks and practices in education.

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MANAGING CONFLICT AND RESISTANCE

Some types of resistance to successful curriculum change and implementation can be anticipated and addressed before they develop. A series of recommendations have been formulated on the basis of the analysis and discussion at the Vientiane workshop.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Clear definition of the role of stakeholders

Participants at the Vientiane workshop clearly expressed the need to better define and clarify the role of stakeholders in the process of consultation. The participants regarded the consultations on curriculum changes and reform as complex processes that can have broad implications. The best guarantee for success is often two-way communication, combining top-down and bottom-up approaches. This ensures more commitment from actors involved at all levels and gives all those involved a sense of ownership of the changes, as is the case of Mongolia, where 'mutually supporting activities for implementing top-down and school based bottom-up reforms have resulted in the increase of motivation and initiative of school teachers'.

Furthermore, this type of process fosters trust of stakeholders and contributes to the reinforcement of political will to support the policy changes. In many countries central policy makers play an important role in implementing curriculum change, and a supportive environment is therefore a crucial ingredient for effective implementation of curricula changes.

The need for consensus building among stakeholders (business groups, teachers, policy-makers, interest groups, public), as well as greater openness and transparency in consultation processes was explicitly expressed by the participants, and can be illustrated by an example from Malaysia:

- One strength in the practice of curriculum development is the collective and participative nature of decision making on curriculum matters. Although certain agencies are responsible for the school curriculum, the actual planning, development and other related activities are shared out. The participation of various stakeholders ensures that related activities are co-ordinated.

The need was also expressed for a clear differentiation in the roles of central, local and school administrators as well as to inform education stakeholders and communities of their respective roles in the curriculum development/reform process. The Philippines emphasized the need to redefine the role of stakeholders because it is impossible to consult all of them on every issue. Sometimes consultations should be about informing stakeholders on what the reform will be about, without necessarily asking for their input.

2. When to consult which stakeholders and in what capacity

In terms of timing, the participants agreed that the most efficient consultation method is a participatory approach that engages stakeholders throughout the curriculum development process, and not only at the beginning, as is often the case. Involving local authorities and other stakeholders throughout the process not only ensures continuity and transparency, but also implies that sufficient time is made available to consult all relevant stakeholders. As noted earlier, the Republic of Korea experienced resistance from teachers who were not involved in early stages of curriculum policy change. In this particular case, teachers opposed the nature and legitimacy of the consultation process, given the fact that their opinions were not taken into consideration and that the consultation process was more of a formality than an actual consultation.

The Philippines illustrates a case where communication took place too early in the process:

- But once decisions were made we began to have problems, first because little information was made public in the process of initial decision-making since decisions were sometimes still tentative. One of the dangers […] here was that public opinion was made before we could properly disseminate the change and a lot of clarifications have to be made as public opinion began to form.

Insisting on the importance of communicating policy changes, in Indonesia:

- The curriculum team invited members from teacher-training institutions to attend information sessions where they shared their work and asked for input. This collaborative process has the potential to inform current courses being developed for pre-service teachers, so that they relate specifically to the new curriculum and keep trainee teachers up-to-date and informed about curriculum issues.

3. Communication and marketing of policy changes

"Communicating decisions about educational change to the general public is crucial for proper implementation of curriculum reforms. The participants acknowledged the generally limited mechanisms and strategies that are deployed to inform the public of changes in policy. The consequence of a misinformed or insufficiently informed public can lead to a lack of understanding of the changes and eventually to resistance"

Communicating decisions about educational change to the general public is crucial for proper implementation of curriculum reforms. The participants acknowledged the generally limited mechanisms and strategies that are deployed to inform the public of changes in policy. The consequence of a misinformed or insufficiently informed public can lead to a lack of understanding of the changes and eventually to resistance. Therefore, the reform should be communicated through several sources and to a variety of stakeholders, including those that are sceptical of the proposed changes. Although this can be a time-consuming process, it is an efficient means of managing conflicting views as the following case in the Philippines illustrates:

- We wanted to widen the consultation, rather that talk to only a few representatives from the organizations. Media was a powerful means of dissemination, including the distribution of question and answer sheets to stakeholders. For the media people who were against some of what we were doing, we sat with them and published our answers in newspapers of national circulation. Regular meetings were held with dissenting stakeholders and all multimedia assistance available were utilized.

In this regard, Thailand has learned from modifications of curricula in the past that 'it is essential that adequate publicity, campaigns and orientation meetings have to be conducted involving relevant individuals, agencies and organizations including the general public and the mass media.' The participants therefore stressed the importance of providing a variety of modalities of consulting with the stakeholders, e.g., through public hearings, workshops, curriculum networks, curriculum councils, forums and/or symposiums.

An interesting modality of consultation is that adopted in Thailand where an academic market meeting is held to share ideas about curriculum development and to collect input through mechanisms, such as:

- Public hearings: Educators throughout the country comment on the drafted curriculum.
- Workshops are conducted for improving the drafted curriculum.
- Public hearings: well-educated experts selected by the Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development;
- Curriculum editing workshops are conducted.

Viet Nam, for this purpose, has councils for verification and clarification, while in the Philippines consultations are generally interactive and conducted in various forms:

- For example, teachers had to sit for a whole week to analyse the suggested features of the curriculum; area specialists had focus group discussions; parents, PTAs and students had assemblies; representatives from the academe had symposia and fora, and representatives from the local government were given orientations on the suggested change and so with the religious groups.

Regularly reforming and updating education laws and acts will also better inform the public of the latest changes. This can be achieved by developing mechanisms for strategic communication through the use of mass media, councils for verification and clarification, brochures and engaging teachers in marketing the ideas of the reform. In terms of communication techniques, the participants encouraged the use of simple language and terminology as well as the production of pragmatic information to convey messages regarding curriculum change.

CONCLUSION: AN ISSUE OF BALANCE?

How far can and should the process of decentralization of educational management and governance go? Is it possible to go too far? The challenge is one of attaining the right balance. While decentralization is portrayed as the winning horse, a few caveats are nevertheless in order. McGinn (2002), in his work states that, 'initial decentralization reforms were weak instruments for improving the quality of education'. However, this fact may have had more to do with the kinds of reforms that were attempted and the expectations they generated, rather than decentralization itself. More recently, decentralists 'have moved away from a naïve perspective that any participation develops democratic structure' (Creese & Bradley, 1997).

"Keeping the right balance in terms of decision-making and responsibility is an essential part of the success of the educational process."

Keeping the right balance in terms of decision-making and responsibility is an essential part of the success of the educational process. Moreover, it may be argued that the debate on centralization

vs. decentralization is based on a paradox. The tendency today is to promote decentralization of the education system, in particular decision-making (governance) and implementation of educational policies and practices, in order to reinforce the involvement and empowerment of local communities and its people. However, in some specific contexts, a strong centralized system can be efficient in addressing a very wide range of issues.

- China: Even though it has a strong tradition of a centralizing curriculum, there always exists under varying degrees, decision-making, at regional, local and school levels. The diversity and unevenness in many fields is preserved through the existence of the nation. Considerable responsibility is given to regional educational authorities, which adapt central curriculum objectives to local contexts where this is felt to be necessary. The system's reforms of curriculum structure is moving forward to a three-level model in the beginning of the twenty-first century: national curricula, local-based curricula and school-based curricula.

McGinn (2002) adds that participation at local levels can be sustained, if participation at other levels, such as intermediate and national levels, follows suit (p. 30). So even if the results of the decentralization process are not all immediately satisfactory, as McGinn states: 'We are now moving in the right direction […] towards a more realistic understanding of the time it will take to achieve effective decentralization and reap its benefits. We have to come to understand that the change must occur not only in cognitive knowledge and technical skills, but also in cultural attitudes and values' (2002, p. 31).

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PART

III

Designing and Implementing Local Curricula

INTRODUCTION

Part I reviewed regional trends in development of curriculum policy change with a particular focus on the greater participation of stakeholders in policy formulation. It is essentially an illustration of the political rationale for the decentralization of educational governance and management. A second important rationale is more educational in nature and is prompted by a concern for improving the quality of education. A crucial dimension of quality education is that of relevance of curricula content; the diversity of local (sub national), cultural and socio-economic realities. The promotion of localized curricula is a strategy of ensuring such relevance and is an important component of the decentralization of education, governance and management. This section deals with the following problems:

1. Trends towards localized curricula in East and South-East Asia.
2. Constraints in the implementation of local curricula:
   - Lack of competent staff (teachers and administration);
   - Lack of funding;
   - Resistance from teachers;
   - Constraint of university entrance exams (structure of higher education system).

TRENDS TOWARDS LOCALIZED CURRICULA IN EAST AND SOUTH-EAST ASIA

The participants at the regional seminar agreed that curriculum content should be based on the local needs and relevance for the learners. In this regard, most countries have placed increased emphasis on the local or school-based curriculum, to be developed by teachers and local authorities, which is the best level at which to perceive and integrate the realities of the communities. The examples from Indonesia and Japan, clearly illustrate the steps taken by the government towards decentralization of curriculum reforms, where there is a flexibility and encouragement in implementing local curricula.

"Curriculum content should be based on the local needs and relevance for the learners."

- Indonesia: The primary change in the 1994 curriculum reform is the inclusion of the local curriculum subject (LCS) as an independent subject that takes more than 20 % of the curriculum. The minimum standard contains the core curriculum to be implemented nationally and the local curriculum content that can be modified by each district according to felt needs. Schools may add courses of local interest so long as it does not reduce the time allotted in the national curriculum. […] The 1989 Education Law indicates that education 'shall be based on the national curriculum and the curriculum which is adjusted to the situation, and the need of environment and the special characteristics of the education unit concerned.'

- Japan: Each school is supposed to make its own educational plan in line with the relevant laws and the National Curriculum Standards, taking into account the actual circumstances *of each school and each community*.

Further examples show that most countries have changed the structure of their curriculum in order to leave room for this local or school-based curriculum to be developed. The following examples, theoretically at the level of policy discourse, show the integration of locally relevant subjects into the school curriculum with the school-based curriculum leaving scope for flexibility, creativity and local preoccupations:

- Lao People's Democratic Republic: The local-based curriculum embraces the knowledge and life skills for agriculture, livestock, planting, forestry, handicraft, appropriate technology, services and so on should make up 20% of all the courses.

- Mongolia: The learning and teaching content is classified into 2 categories (State prescribed and School based contents). The state prescribed content is compulsory and goes in conformity with education standards and makes up 55% of the total content. The school based or flexible content consists of 2 parts: prescribed and altering and school chosen. Prescribed and altering content makes up 20 percent and an 'open-window' for reflecting the rapid changes that is occurring in the society and all schools should follow this content. The school-chosen content (25%) takes into consideration the ever changing interests, demands and needs of learners, the actual conditions of the community and school itself and the development level and characteristics of the students.

The trend towards the localization of curricula, without compromising programme objectives are also greatly encouraged, in countries like the Philippines, Republic of Korea and Viet Nam.

- Philippines: The national curriculum may be enriched by individual schools by including locally relevant subjects as the Philippines has a very diverse culture with a number of spoken languages across its sixteen regions.

- Republic of Korea: Superintendents at both metropolitan and provincial levels are advised to make use of the basic guidelines of the curriculum framework in the organization and implementation of the curriculum, in order to meet the needs of students in the local areas. Schools themselves then prepare their own curriculum implementation plan in accordance with the national curriculum and the Metropolitan and Provincial Educational Authorities (MPEA) guidelines.

- Viet Nam: The adoption of the national curriculum in the formal school system entails a unified curriculum for all kinds of schools in the provinces in the whole country. […] However, the provinces can base its implementation on the specific circumstances and conditions of different kinds of individuals. […] In the curriculum allocation, about 15 % is allocated for the content of the locality (local history, geography, traditions of production and culture).

However, ensuring relevance of local curricula is not an easy task and in some cases, relevance can be compromised, as in the case of Indonesia where, up to now, some local content problems are still arising in certain provinces, such as at the borders of West Java where, for many years, people have been moving to Jakarta. This

new urban population come from different provinces, and are from different ethnic backgrounds so they speak different languages. On the other hand, in Jakarta because of the growing urban population, housing is becoming an urgent problem. As a result, many of Jakarta's inhabitants prefer to live outside the capital, often in areas of West Java. Their children then attend the schools in these districts but do not master the Sundanese language. With the launching of the new curriculum in 1994, the Central government also allowed each province to add national subjects and matters of interest to their specific local curricula. The new LCC in West Java, aimed at introducing the Sundanese culture and practices, which have not always been considered relevant in the case of non-Sundanese children. This often leads to tensions. Therefore, the need to find a balance is crucial as Indonesia further explains:

- Indonesia: 'The present national curriculum does not allow for and cater sufficiently to the diversity of the Indonesian societies. A reformed curriculum must leave more scope for locally developed curricula. Yet local curricula must also fit the national standards and national priorities. A dynamic balance, then, must continuously be searched between 'similarities' and 'differences' for the realization of Bhinneka Tunggal Ika (Unity in Diversity).'

CONSTRAINTS IN IMPLEMENTING LOCALIZED CURRICULA

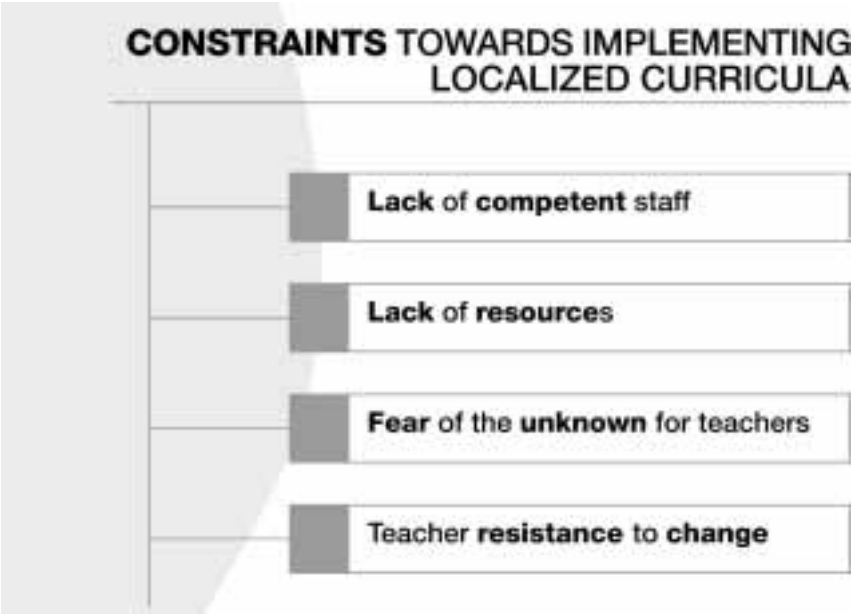

FIGURE 4. Flowchart of constraints towards implementing localized curricula

1. Lack of competent staff

The implementation of local curricula can be problematic, in terms of implementation. The situation in practical terms is not always as easy as when it is laid out in official documents. The country examples that follow explicitly point out the difficulties that are presented in decentralization of curricula. The implementation of measures can lead to difficulties, as the Malaysia report accurately articulates:

- Malaysia: It is known that curriculum implementation cannot be ideally executed as a number of constraints operate during the process. These may include teacher factors (their qualification, motivation, skills, content, clarity, etc), pupil factors (motivation to learn, readiness for schooling, interest in school and learning, etc.), school factors (class size, management, facilities, school complex, etc.), and other factors, such as language of instruction, insufficient learning materials, teaching aids, attitude of teachers, and learners, etc.

"One of the practical implications of developing a local curriculum is to presume that at the local level competent staff will be available to carry out the tasks."

One of the practical implications of developing a local curriculum is to presume that at the local level competent staff will be available to carry out the tasks. Indonesia in this regard believes it is possible for the decentralization process to go too far by assuming that local communities can assume the responsibilities and tasks that this process involves, such as developing their own school-based curriculum. Many countries express a similar view, as this capacity is often absent or only partially developed. Lao P.D.R, for example, explains that even if 10% of the curriculum is to be developed at the school level, in practical terms this does not happen. Among the different causes, are the lack of funding; lack of capacity; resistance of teachers due to the poor situation of the teaching profession; tensions between reformists and conservatives, etc. In addition to this*:*

- Poor supervisory mechanism, especially weak pedagogical support, low qualifications of teachers and inefficient management skills of school principals as well as low morale and lack of material incentives of educational personnel could make the curricular reform initiatives remain on paper.

The country examples that follow further express the difficulties or constraints encountered by different countries when trying to upgrade teachers' qualifications, conduct in-service training and establish innovative professional support systems to provide school models for better practices while trying to implement the decentralized system. The following example is from the Republic of Korea.

- Republic of Korea: Due to the lack of sufficient experience in curriculum development at a local level in the Republic of Korea, and partly due to other constraints, such as teacher shortage or surplus, and the college entrance examination system, significant variation in educational programs between schools or local areas are hard to find. Although many teachers and local educational administrators admit the necessity and the desirability of decentralization, they tend to think that the idea of localization is difficult to implement in the current The Republic of Korean educational environment due to the constraints of university entrance examination and the teachers lack of experience.

An example from Indonesia indicates that:

- Indonesia. Indonesian schools are increasingly under pressure to find a better way to implement the changes required by the new law. Provincial and district offices are struggling to develop the required 20 per cent local curriculum and local content components of the national curriculum framework, in addition to implementing the new 1994 national curriculum.

2. Teacher attitude and resistance

"Teacher attitude and resistance is also to be taken into consideration, as it is an important factor in the implementation process of local curricula."

Teacher attitude and resistance is also to be taken into consideration, as it is an important factor in the implementation process of local curricula. Teachers or school heads/administrators make their voices heard for a variety of reasons, ranging from ideological resistance to emphasis on the lacking facilities to carry out new tasks required by the curriculum changes. What triggers resistance from teachers is, the feeling that they will have to do more work, under the same conditions and without necessarily the capacity to develop or even teach such a curriculum! In Indonesia, for example, the implementation of the new competency based curriculum has given rise to problems. So many innovations are taking place at the same time (mainly piloted in Jakarta) that teachers in the main cities resist the implementation of the new curriculum. However, district authorities have welcomed it and it has been piloted since 2001.

3. Fear of the unknown

Another important factor that leads to resistance is the fear of the unknown. Teachers who have been bombarded with changes tend to be exhausted, and find it hard to keep up their energy, enthusiasm and, ultimately, willingness for change. Teachers, Gustavson explains, are 'afraid of drastic innovations, partly because they prefer the familiar, and partly because the vested interests of most people

are normally bound up with the existing set-up', as cited in Hargreaves (1995, p. 72). Very often teachers are left out of policy discussions, and have very limited involvement in the decision making process so they often resist ill-designed and poorly implemented change projects as we see from the examples below.

- Malaysia: Teacher attitude is another constraint to effective curriculum implementation. Most teachers prefer traditional approaches despite having been exposed to new curricular concepts and student-centred teaching approaches.

- Lao PDR: As new unknown concepts are introduced, many teachers encounter difficulty in transferring and processing knowledge and information.

4. Lack of resources

The lack of resources can also lead to reticence. In Indonesia, the development of the decentralization process presumes that schools have sufficient expertise and funding to develop their own curriculum. Poor districts feel this is too much in terms of human and financial resources.

In addition to these more conventional factors that can explain reluctance of teachers to implementation of local curricula, there is another point of resistance, which is a certain reluctance of teachers to change their traditional teaching habits. In the Republic of Korea, for example, teachers resist the implementation of the new curriculum because it threatens their jobs. In secondary education in particular, new subjects require new teachers, while the integration leads to the disappearance of other subjects. Moreover, the introduction of electives gives teachers of 'popular' subjects more possibilities than teachers of 'unpopular' or obsolete electives like, the German language teachers, who are being retrained to teach other subjects. The same phenomenon can be observed in Lao PDR with French teaching, and to some extent in Cambodia with Russian and Vietnamese:

- Lao P.D.R.: In recent years, the interest of students in French has fallen sharply because most jobs offered by the labour market require English language and computers skills.

- Cambodia: The curriculum was first piloted in a few schools or areas before adoption. Some resistance came from students, teachers and educational officers with regard to the overloaded content and new content/subjects such as Earth Sciences; the change of foreign language from Russian and Vietnamese to French and English; the lack of teachers.

To overcome constraints, there is an urgent need for training teachers, administration and supervisory staff. The example from Thailand shows how this country is taking steps to overcome the problem it is facing in its: 'basic education curriculum implementation', where educational institute administrators and teachers are not yet sufficiently confident to prepare their curricula'. The ways to overcome such problems as stated in the example, are to conduct an adequate number of orientation meetings/seminars/training workshops to harness the use of master or prototype teachers who could act as effective coaches and who could help to a very considerable degree, to promote learning exchanges inside and outside the agencies, to use academic clubs in the forms of networks comprising well-educated people and various types of media in order to assist teachers in preparing their own curricula. To help solve these problems, adequate number of documents teachers' guides, learning materials, personnel and sufficient budgets have to be provided to all educational institutes and localities.

In Lao PDR, a recommendation was formulated to 'strengthen the mechanism of curriculum management relying on decentralization through the training of school administrators, pedagogical advisers, and the trainers of teachers'. The following example from Cambodia illustrates the steps taken by the central government:

- Cambodia: The MoEYS launched the Teacher Orientation Programme for teachers and school directors. It provided a handbook to help them to use textbooks and teacher manuals properly and later enhance the teacher manual revision. This provided very useful lessons for the designing of successive textbooks and teacher's guides. It also provided the opportunity to orient manageable numbers of teachers each year to be able to implement the curriculum.

From the examples in the different sections above we understand that the decentralized implementation of local curricula is met with resistance at the level of implementation because of the lack of developed structure to accommodate such reforms. We also see that all is not lost and that countries are taking steps towards improving the situation.

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PART

IV

Changing the Structure and the Organization of Learning Content

INTRODUCTION

"The evolution of educational thinking and practice has led to a renewed conceptualisation of the curriculum, in particular with regard to the structure and content of the formal curricula."

The Vientiane Seminar brought out different trends in the development of curriculum changes, at the policy level and also within the curriculum development process, as discussed in the previous sections. The trends discussed in this section clearly elaborate, the shift from central control of curricula towards a sharing of decision-making and the involvement of management at lower levels of the education system. It is also clear that a curriculum can no longer be regarded as a simple document containing content, timetables, or learning outcomes. The concept of a curriculum, as is seen by countries today, involves a complex process influenced by decision-making practices that are influenced by various aspects of the socio-cultural, political and economical milieu, as shown in Figure 5.

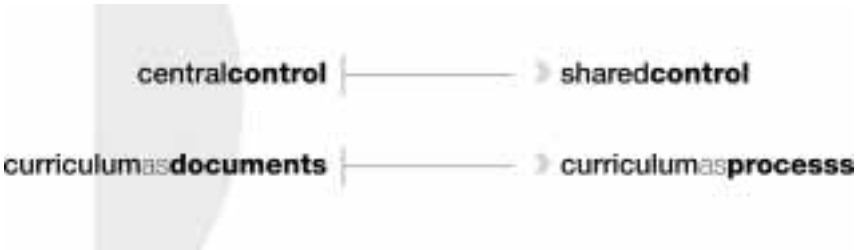

FIGURE 5. The decision-making process

There are changes taking place too, in terms of the development of curriculum content, which are directly related to learning and how learning is structured. The evolution of educational thinking

and practice has led to a renewed conceptualisation of the curriculum, in particular with regard to the structure and content of the formal curricula. As shown in Figure 6, the curriculum has shifted from being a rigid set of rules, applications and objectives into a flexible, moving, changing framework that can be adapted at the level of instruction and learning with the desired outcomes, encouraging lifelong learning by integrating locally relevant subjects, and encouraging critical thinking, analytical skills and problem solving instead of the customary form of rote learning.

FIGURE 6. Changing trends in curriculum development

THE OVERLOADED CURRICULUM

The actual fact is that most countries have a curriculum that is overloaded. This, in turn, as seen from the following examples, poses a negative effect on learning:

- China: The existing curriculum designed in 1992 was felt to be inadequate in a number of ways. The content and ways of learning/teaching are overloaded and too difficult for pupils to complete.

- Philippines:[1] One of the roots of the unsatisfactory and unsteady achievement of our students is our overcrowded curriculum. […] It is said that overcrowded curricula can hinder or delay the development of critical competencies, as

coverage of the subject matter tends to take priority over in-depth learning.

- Viet Nam: A lot of content is heavy on theory, but lacks applicable knowledge and practical activities. They also lack association to actuality. The amount and degree of the content of some parts in some subjects are too advanced for the students.

- Indonesia: There is a lot of public dissatisfaction with the large number of subjects in the present curriculum. There is too much detail that needs to be memorized and not enough focus on understanding and *analysis.*

In addition, worldwide preoccupations, such as the environment or the HIV/AIDS pandemic have also created a new emphasis on the introduction of new subjects into the curricula. New areas, such as environmental civic and/or health education have made their way into the formal school curriculum. The following country examples from Malaysia, Mongolia and Viet Nam show the introduction of cross-curricular integration of subjects into the curriculum.

- Malaysia: In view of the challenges of the twenty-first century and other changing needs, the whole school curriculum was revised in 1999. The newly revised curriculum will be implemented in stages nationwide beginning in 2002. The basis of the revised curriculum contains, among other aspects learning as a life-long effort, overall and integrated individual's development (intellectual, spiritual, emotional, and physical, languages, humanities, sciences, technology, vocational, arts, religious and moral education, special programmes include anti-drugs education, environmental education, family health education, values and education.

- Mongolia: In the primary grades (1st –4th grades) of the general secondary school the natural and social studies subjects, such as 'environmental studies' and 'Mongolian history' were integrated into one subject, named 'Local area studies'.

- Viet Nam: At primary level, the content of health education is integrated into subjects like Natural and Social studies in grades 1, 2, 3 and into Science as a subject in grades 4, 5. History and Geography are integrated in grades 4, 5. In grades 1, 2, 3, Drawing, Music, and Handicraft are integrated in arts subject (one reason for this is: in these grades the teaching of above subjects is closely linked with aesthetic education). This reduces the number of subjects, which suits the circumstance,

as each class has only one teacher for all subjects and the time allotted for teaching is limited. The integration is also aimed at avoiding overlaps between subjects.

Hence, this demand to continuously introduce new subjects into the curriculum, in fact, aggravates the problem of the overcrowded curriculum, as is articulated in the Japan report: 'Adding some new items into a subject matter may not be very difficult, but reducing some items is rather difficult.'

In response to the above-mentioned problem, most countries have taken steps toward the integration of learning content in order to decongest the curriculum. In Malaysia, for example, the ICPS (Integrated Curriculum for Primary Schools) and ICSS (Integrated Curriculum for Secondary School) programmes are the main focus of this integrated approach, which uses three areas, namely, communication, man and his environment and self- development. These areas are further subdivided into six components: Basic skills, Humanities, Arts and Recreation, Spirituality, Values and attitudes, Living skills and co-curriculum.

Integration is clearly seen in other country examples as well, for example, Cambodia where there is an integration of Social Studies, Science, and Aesthetic Education, and in China, where the integrated curriculum includes: Moral education and Life, Moral education and Society, History and Society, Integrated Arts and Integrated Practices. The Republic of Korea too talks of integrating subjects in the form of: Disciplined Life, Intelligent Life and Pleasant Life. Other examples are:

- Philippines:[1] Studies localizing and integrating indigenous curricula are being undertaken in the Third Elementary Education Projects (TEEP). (…) The curriculum has been reduced from eight to five subjects in the case of Grade 3 up and from eight to 4 in the case of grades 1 and 2. (…) The curriculum basically consists of 3 subjects for integration under a learning area called Makabayan (patriotism).

- Thailand: Learning content is classified into eight subject groups, namely, Thai language, mathematics, science and technology, social studies, religion and culture, health and physical education, visual arts, music and performing arts, work and vocation, and foreign languages.

- China: The Integrated curriculum has therefore been developed as follows: 'Moral Education and Life' for both Grade 1 and Grade 2, and 'Moral Education and Society' for Grade 3 and Grade 6 are integrative subjects in order to adapt to the growth of students,

where children's life cycle could be expanded from their families to school and society, and their experience and sociological knowledge could be enriched.

- Japan: 'Life Environment Studies' is a new subject which was introduced first in the present Standards by combining social studies and science taught in the first and second grades.

In conclusion, the following examples illustrate the condition of reducing the number of subjects through integration and the difficulties involved when trying to implement these changes:

- Lao PDR: In order to overcome the problems related to curriculum overload, the integration of the subjects' new concepts, were considered and adopted. Subject matter in primary education is highly integrated into the world around us; comprising of the knowledge of morals, civics, history, geography, biology, physics, health education, environmental studies, population education, HIV/AIDS/STD and drug preventive education. At the lower secondary education level, knowledge of biology, physics, chemistry, astrology, geology and environmental studies are combined in the natural sciences.

In practical terms this can introduce perverse effects and Laos illustrates this fact 'in the social sciences and language the integration did not occur as defined by its nature. Separate subjects […] are still included in lower secondary school programmes. Consequently, the combination of subjects has complicated the organization of teaching and learning owing to the lack of a correlation between the curricula of secondary education and teacher education.' Furthermore, the incorporation of new subjects 'has led to more overload due to limited time devoted to main subjects.'

Issues Related to the Integration of Learning Content

The overloaded curriculum and the problems it brings about, as described in the above section, has numerous impacts on the structure and organization of learning content. It has, for example, altered the number of periods taught and has led to the introduction of cross-curricular areas.

1. Reduction in the number of periods taught per week/year

Closely related to the integration of learning areas, is the reduction of the number of periods taught per week or per year. Japan, for example, had to reduce teaching hours as well as content in each subject area because of the implementation of the five-day-school-week system and the introduction of a new area of 'Periods for integrated study.'

The same was seen in Mongolia, where in connection with the transition to five working days a week at the national level, the duration of a one-hour subject was changed from 45 minutes to 40 minutes in 1998. The reason for reducing the number of periods is that all public schools have 2 shifts and therefore no classrooms are available for all grades.

The Republic of Korea too has decided to take steps:

- 'The amount of subject content that students have to cover every year will be reduced. The total amount of curriculum content will be reduced by 30%.'

Only Cambodia has increased its number of school hours (to six hours per day) to attain the 5,000 hour international standard.

2. Cross-curricular approaches

In order to address the problem of overload, curriculum developers seek new ways to integrate emerging issues such as human rights, peace, tolerance, health, environment, ICTs, HIV/AIDS and civics education. One of the trends is to adopt a cross-curricular approach, implying that new learning areas are not integrated as separate subjects, but rather appear throughout the curriculum, Examples from Cambodia, Malaysia and Indonesia show the integration and introduction of subject into the school curricula.

- Mongolia: In addition to an integrated approach, Mongolia introduced an 'Open Window' approach in 1998 thus changing the structure and organization of learning content. In order to reflect the rapid changes and emerging issues that are occurring in the society, new subjects such as 'Health education', 'Street law', 'Ecology', 'Economics' were put into an 'open-window' or prescribed and altering content. For example, in the health education subject the following components are included: bad habits, mental health, reproductive health, nutrition, HIV /AIDS. The components, however, may be subject to change, if required.

- Cambodia: Among the new education reform policies adopted, the aim is to 'integrate into subject areas competencies in human rights education, tolerance, peace, hygiene, health, food, environment, tourism, economy, business, computers, AIDS, and civics education.'

Furthermore, a cross-curricular approach has the advantage of highlighting a given area from multiple angles, thus allowing an interdisciplinary approach to the topic introduced. The following country examples illustrate this point:

- Lao PDR: The new curriculum will focus on a limited number of integrated basic subjects, emphasizing the role of schools in society and the preservation of the environment. Supplemental learning materials on practicing life skills for the prevention of risk behaviours of school teenagers were developed, tested and distributed (drug use, HIV/AIDS/STD, road accidents, natural disasters and war.) International education messages, such as education for peace and international understanding are infused and spread across various subjects.

- Viet Nam: An increase in the interdisciplinary coordination (combined subjects of similar content into subject areas) in order to support the learning of the subjects and avoid overlaps. The project of lower secondary education had developed curricula for some integrated subjects (in the period of technical assistance of the project) such as Natural Science (integration of physics, chemistry, biology), Social Science and Humanities (integration of History, Geography, Civics education). Arts (integration of Drawing, Music).

FOCUS ON THE RELEVANCE OF THE CURRICULUM TO THE MODERN WORLD

There are other factors that promote the changes of the curricula. The demands of the global society have exerted pressure on labour markets, which require new types of skills and competencies to be included in the current curriculum, as we find illustrated in the example from Japan:

- Japan: In the new National Curriculum Standards, a subject 'the period for integrated study' was introduced. In this period children can find interesting topics to learn. These topics may be combinations of several topics children have

learned in different subjects or may be applications by making use of basic content in some subject areas. Topics such as the use of computers or foreign language conversation could be introduced in 'periods for integrated study.

The rapidly changing social, political and economical environment calls for a constant updating of teaching and learning areas so as to meet the demands of the global society and labour markets. If we take China as an example, it is shifting from a systematic presentation of individual disciplines and excessive emphasis on traditional knowledge to a closer integration between modern society, technological development and the learners' life.

"The demands of the global society have exerted pressure on labour markets, which require new types of skills and competencies to be included in the current curriculum. . . ."

A direct outcome of this trend is the increased focus on science and technologies (an ever faster developing sector) and in particular, Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). ICTs have made their way into most curricula nowadays, although in terms of implementation, the lack of resources and facilities remains a major challenge. Taking China, as an example, it has formulated and implemented the strategy of 'revitalizing the country through science and education' and put the development of education as a strategic priority in the socialist modernization drive. This was done essentially to improve the quality of education and foster a new generation with an innovative spirit and practical ability to meet the challenges of the future.

Countries like Cambodia and Mongolia, have taken steps toward developing educational policies to keep up with the rapidly growing liberalization of the economy by making the school curriculum flexible, with varied teaching and learning content, and providing state-of-the-art training for the nation's teachers and students, at all levels of education. They have also taken steps to be open to all new information flow, so as to keep up with the demand of the labour market, or the 'world of work' of an industrialized society. In Indonesia, the implementation of the 1994 curriculum was aimed at developing skilled workers.

However, not all the countries in the region have been able to take such measures in improving science and technology in their educational system, the following country examples illustrate this point:

- Lao PDR: Computer literacy, mentioned in the education strategy more than a decade ago, has not been introduced in

the current curriculum, owing to the scarcity of human, material and financial resources.

- Viet Nam: Many great and new achievements of natural science, social and humanistic, science and technology and the very urgent problems of global magnitude have not yet been introduced or reflected suitably in subjects.

- China: The Knowledge or contents of curriculum is backward, and fall behind the development of socio-economic environments and the advance in sciences and technologies. Inadequate attention is paid to the importance of the individual's development and the ability of creativity and practice. The design and implementation of curriculum is too centralized, and the development and ability of local-based and school-based curriculum are still weak.

INTEGRATION OF OR EMPHASIS ON FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

As countries are increasingly opening up to the rest of the world, the mastering of foreign languages has become an additional challenge. Some countries are shifting their foreign language instruction away from former influences such as Russian, French or German towards English, Japanese or other regional languages. These choices are largely driven by the demands of the international labour market, in particular in the field of ICTs and science, as Viet Nam points out through the following example:

- Facing the challenges of globalization trends, curriculum of countries in the region have paid special attention to foreign languages, first and foremost it is English, then information technology, and communicative and cooperative skills in life.

Countries like Malaysia and the Philippines have taken this challenge a step further by introducing science teaching in English. In the case of the Philippines this will be introduced from grade 1 onwards.

Many countries have chosen to introduce foreign-language teaching at the primary levelæGrade 3 in the case of China and Laos and Grade 5 in the case of Cambodia and Mongolia:

- China: Has realized that foreign language learning/teaching plays a key role in introducing foreign cultures, as a means of communicating with others. The MOE has issued a policy

document about English language learning/teaching: from 2001 the English language will gradually be introduced as a core subject beginning from the third grade in primary.

- Lao PDR: Foreign languages will be taught to the children from grade 3 upwards in order to meet the demands of learners to learn the techniques of writing the Roman alphabet, to know the letters, and, at the same time, to acquire some communicative skills with basic words, phrases and simple sentences related to the daily life of the children. […] At the secondary education level, along with the main instrumental subjects […] emphasis is placed on foreign languages.

- Cambodia: Among the education reform policies, Cambodia included 'foreign language subjects (French or English) from grade 5 at the primary level upward. Each student in each class can choose only one foreign language according to the capability of his or her school.'

- Mongolia: As a Policy on Foreign Language Education, approved in 1998, '… all schools should start teaching main foreign languages (English and Russian) from the 5th grade, however, other languages (German, French, Japanese, Chinese, Arab and etc) may be taught as elective courses and conditions are being set. Thanks to the New Law on Education approved in 2002, English language may be taught even from the 1st grade if required conditions are set.

Other countries are opting for bilingual instruction as a guarantee of learning a foreign language. This is the case of Malaysia, where after an initial period of emphasis on national language teaching (following independence) the level of English steadily dropped. To address this problem, a bilingual schooling system is offered in selected areas. Evaluation is currently underway in order to ensure parents that this type of education is not at the cost of the quality of instruction.

- Malaysia: Among the new elements introduced into the existing curriculum/subject syllabus are the 'elements of literature in teaching the national language and English language.'

INCREASED FLEXIBILITY OF THE SYSTEM

"... more time should be made available for school-based and co-curricular activities, and especially recreational activities."

Overall, the curriculum allows more room for flexibility and creativity by schools and teachers. In terms of learning time, teachers are given more freedom in organizing their instructional periods. More choices are made available to pupils, as most curricula are now composed of core and elective subjects. Furthermore, the participants recommended that more time should be made available for school-based and co-curricular activities, and especially recreational activities. Increased diversity of teaching methods and learning techniques also stimulates the creativity of the teaching staff. This diversification is particularly important in regard to and increased focus on diversification in order to address differing abilities of pupils. The quote from Korea gives an example of this new focus, while the cases of Indonesia and Mongolia illustrate the overall increase in flexibility of the system.

- Republic of Korea: 'Respect for the demands of the consumer, in the classroom context, means that students of differing abilities should be given the opportunity to learn where learning tasks or content are suitable to their level of ability. Thus, in the seventh revision a new form of curriculum, called 'differentiated curriculum' was introduced, in which different learning content and objectives were prepared for the different groups of students. For students between the first grade and the tenth grade, the differentiated curriculum was to apply only to five subjects, such as Mathematics, English, the Korean language, Science and Social studies. Eleventh to twelfth grade students were allowed more opportunities to select, from a list, the subjects appropriate to their ability.'

- Indonesia: 'The curriculum is flexible in the aspects of learning content, learning time, and teaching-learning procedures. Educational institutes/teachers could prepare institute curriculum consistent with particular needs of the communities/localities concerned. Learning time is allowed to differ from what is suggested (as deemed necessary). Diverse teaching-learning techniques/procedures are also permissible (to ensure better degree of consistency with learners' characteristics).'

- Mongolia: 'The very flexible school curriculum includes the 'prescribed core content' ('the teaching and learning compulsory content'), which conforms with the primary,

basic and complete secondary education standards, and the 'school-based curriculum' ('the teaching and learning flexible content'), which conforms with learners' and society's continuously changing interests, demands and needs. (…) The ratio of these two parts in total content was 91 percent and 9 percent, but changed into 87 percent and 13 percent.'

Increased Focus on Competencies and Skills for Individual Development

As the participants indicated, the current curriculum requires the integration of knowledge, skills and values (focused on thinking skills, process skills and the Emotional Quotient). Among the critical competencies to be mastered, numeracy and scientific skills remain crucial according to the participants, but no longer suffice. Life skills and all other types of skills that may contribute to the development of the individual are crucial in the educational process of children today. In order to attain the goal of life long learning, pupils are required to develop analytical and problem solving skills that will assist them in their daily confrontations with the increased information available in today's society. This is very clearly seen in the Korean example when they state that: 'The proportion of optional activities in school is being increased and will be used mainly to encourage students' self-directed learning in schools.'

China is also taking steps by introducing: 'Integrated Practice and Activities', that include IT education; research studies; community service and social practices; labour and technology, etc. These subjects help students develop their abilities of collecting and dealing with information; problem solving by using comprehensively learnt knowledge; communicating and cooperating; strengthening the sense of social responsibility; and gradually forming the spirit of creativity. The examples from Lao PDR and Malaysia clearly show the increased focus on competencies and skills in the current curriculum:

- Lao PDR: New curriculum, textbooks, teacher's guides and other corresponding instructional materials will focus around a limited number of integrated basic subjects, emphasizing problem solving, learning to learn and creative skills, as well as the role of schools in society and the preservation of the environment.

- Malaysia: Revised recently, the national curriculum stresses the different levels of learning outcomes, with appropriate teaching learning approaches, strategies and instructional materials for students with different needs and capabilities. […] The curriculum provides the foundation for students to cope with everyday life and life-long education. The new elements introduced include science-process skills, critical and creative thinking skills and patriotism. The elements of knowledge, skills and values are incorporated in order to bring about the integrated development of the intellectual, spiritual, emotional and physical aspects of the individual.

INTEGRATING THE FOUR PILLARS

This is the last point when looking at the trends in the organization of learning content. We see that all the countries of the region, in varying degrees, integrate the Four Pillars of the Delors Report. In many cases the principles underlying these pillars already existed in some form in the curricula, but were made more explicit after the publication of the report. In Cambodia for example after listing the competencies expected of students at the completion of primary, lower secondary and upper secondary levels, the participant at the regional seminar pointed out that:

- It should be noted that the goals, aims and vision of education in Cambodia have incorporated the 'Four Pillars' and more, and that they were established before the publication (1996) of the Delors Reports. However, the earlier seminal report of UNESCO, 'Learning to Be,' contributed significantly to the deliberations.

- China: In both primary and secondary school, the theme of learning to live together is also taught through selected content from several interdisciplinary subjects such as global education, population education, education for environmental protection, technical education, peace education, HIV/AIDS prevention, etc.

- Lao P.D.R. Up to now the education in Laos has promoted 'Learning to Know and Learning to Do'. At the same time, the five pillars of education (moral, intellectual, labour, physical and aesthetic development) significantly reflecting the four pillars of learning mentioned in the Delors Report are also fully implemented and distributed among the school subjects.

The examples gleaned from the various country reports and presentations in this section on 'Changing the Structure and the Organization of Learning Content', very clearly illustrates the extent to which the various countries of the region are conforming to the process of implementing educational reforms.

Notes

1. Presentation by the Philippine participant, Dr. Fe Hidalgo, at the Vientiane seminar.

PART

V

Evaluation of Curriculum Reform

INTRODUCTION

If we accept Worthen's[1] definition of evaluation as 'the determination of the worth of a thing', then the evaluation of educational curricula refers to determining the merit or worth of a part or the whole of a curriculum. There are a number of reasons why evaluation is important, first, according to Sanders,[2] it informs and serves the needs of policy makers, administrators, and other members of the society. It also informs and helps in decision-making as it gives policy makers information. Secondly it serves as a reference to teachers, curriculum specialists, school administrators and others involved in curriculum development.

Different countries have different approaches to curriculum evaluation; an example from the Philippines shows what this country is doing in terms of curriculum evaluation:

- Philippines:[3] The curriculum restructuring is being tried out in all public schools and we want to evaluate the following:

  - The adequacy of support to the implementation of the curriculum (the context);
  - How the curriculum is operationalized in schools, i.e. in terms of the input and the process; and
  - To assess the initial learner behaviour change that may be attributed to the curriculum and the corresponding teacher behaviour change.

HOW CAN WE EVALUATE CURRICULA?

TYPES OF EVALUATION

1. Diagnostic evaluation

This method of evaluation is carried out at the beginning of a programme or project, by first identifying aspects of a curriculum that have to be improved and then by making appropriate decisions to do so. Diagnostic evaluations provide essential information for designing appropriate programmes in curriculum development.

- Thailand: In order to develop the 2001 Basic Education Curriculum, Thailand used the following sources:

  - ß ‘Studying Thai educational quality problems including social, cultural, economic, scientific and technological and political conditions and problems;
  - ß Studying and analysing the 1990 primary, lower and upper secondary curricula implementation;
  - ß Studying and analysing the national educational policies;
  - ß Collecting and studying theories and lines of thoughts about educational philosophy, curriculum development theories, learning theories, learning psychology and social and cultural information;
  - ß Collecting, studying and analysing and synthesizing the provision of educational management and national curricula of other countries; and
  - ß Studying and analysing standard-based education.

2. Formative evaluations

An ongoing process where there is continual talking and planning, with educational personnel, on matters regarding the change of content in the curriculum or the student body. The evaluators who carry out formative evaluations are usually people who are already involved in the educational programme under evaluation. They are often individuals or groups who are internal to the educational system.

- Malaysia: Research-based studies on the national curriculum: The Education Planning and Policy Research Division conducted a study on the implementation of the Integrated Curriculum for Secondary Schools. The findings of these

studies provide input for curricular improvement. In general, the results of the formative evaluation are used by curriculum planners to revise and improve the implementation of a curricular programme.

3. Summative evaluations

Occur mostly at the end of a project or programme. Summative evaluations are used to determine what has been achieved over a period of time, to summarize programme progress, and to report the findings to the stakeholders. The evaluators who conduct this type of evaluations are usually external evaluators, who according to Sanders[4] are 'candidates independent of and unaffected by the object of the evaluation'.

- Indonesia: Formulated the recommendation to 'Establish a collaborative process between curriculum teams and international consultants that work hand in hand to professionally share the process and outcomes of such curriculum development. There are numerous issues addressed to such projects that have the potential to assist and inform others in the field of curriculum development. The development of articles documenting and analysing such projects should be submitted to international and Indonesian journals as a means of contributing to understanding and processes within this field of endeavour.

- Malaysia: The Education Planning and Policy Research Division conducted a study on the implementation of the Integrated Curriculum for Secondary Schools. Findings from summative evaluation concerned with the effectiveness of the whole curricular programme are used in making major decisions on whether to continue/expand/modify or terminate certain curricular programmes.

- Mongolia: After 1990s Mongolia's curriculum reform went through different stages of development. In 2001 the evaluation was made on the last stage of reform, which had started back in 1997. The outcome of the evaluation was that there is a need for changing the subject based standard and curriculum to the competence based standard and curriculum. The new standard has just been finalized.

THE IMPORTANCE OF EVALUATIONS

One of the methods used in evaluating curricula is by using external curriculum evaluations. This approach to evaluation mainly uses people from outside the system, those with the expertise. The factors that contribute to organizing external evaluations are: the need for independence, the span of control, legal requirements that are contractual and of course, the expertise involved in conducting the evaluations[5].

Experts from different government bodies are asked to evaluate programmes as in the Mongolian example:

- Mongolia: The State Education Inspection Board, inspectors of local education with support from former parents, school governing board and local administration organize the external supervision. Inspection results are analysed and the processed information is submitted to relevant organizations and individuals, and used to effect changes in their policy and planning.

The example from the Philippines shows that it is important to have external evaluators who are familiar with the type of evaluations they have to carry out:

- Philippines:[6] 'The monitoring is done both at the national and local levels and a curriculum support desk has been organized to continue to receive feedback from the field and to respond to urgent concerns. External evaluators are also welcomed provided they have been oriented on the restructured curriculum.'

Another approach to evaluation is internal evaluation. This may be carried out either on a centralized or decentralized basis. A centralized system would require the formation of an evaluation unit within the system itself and one of the points mentioned in a decentralized system would be the use of existing, permanent groups within the system. 'Curriculum evaluation may be organized so that it is carried out by departments.'[7]

- Malaysia: Monitoring and evaluation are normally carried out in every phase of curriculum implementation. In addition to supervision the school inspectors and subject supervisors at the State Education Departments, monitoring and supervision are also carried out by the various divisions within the Ministry of Education, i.e., Curriculum Development Centre, Examination Syndicate, the School Division, Teacher

Education Division and Education Planning and Policy Research Division. The area of focus differs for each division.

The example that follows illustrates monitoring of programmes to generate information to serve as a contribution to decisions about program continuation[8].

- Thailand: Each Educational Institute is expected to design the monitoring system and evaluation scheme to provide relative feedback for the continuing revision of school-based learning contents along with implementation.

SOURCES THAT INITIATE OR FEED CHANGE

"The main purpose of evaluation is to facilitate or improve programmes or projects, by judging them. Judgements are made mainly on the basis of what has been observed, and this helps to modify or change a particular programme, project or curriculum."

The main purpose of evaluation is to facilitate or improve programmes or projects, by judging them. Judgements are made mainly on the basis of what has been observed, and this helps to modify or change a particular programme, project or curriculum. This trend can be observed in the following country examples:

- China: Regular assessment should also be undertaken at school level for principals, teachers, students, parents and community members to review the newly introduced curriculum and to take necessary initiatives to strengthen the effectiveness.

- Malaysia: In order to ensure smooth implementation of the national curriculum, several subject committees at the national level have been formed particularly for subjects like national language, English, mathematics and science. The role of such a committee is to review regularly the effectiveness of the teaching and learning of the subjects concerned. Changes in the curriculum contents are made based on the recommendations of the committees. Other subject committees are formed from time to time to review the subject curriculum and make recommendations for improvement.

By using the opinions expressed by the general public, Mongolia has been able to revise its teaching content and the methods used in teaching and learning:

- Mongolia: In the activities of the school-based content and in order to create an environment for application of the content, an opportunity was opened to broaden participation of the general public by implementing projects and programmes. At present this type of activity has a most important role in the revision of teaching and learning content and methodology.

- Viet Nam: To prepare for curriculum development, there is a lot of research on the theory and practice of curriculum renovation and methods of general education […] Based on this research, the orientations and principles, procedures for developing curriculum are built to be a basis for the development of curriculum. The task of soliciting comments and evaluation play an important role in the finalization and institutionalization of the new curriculum.

RESEARCH-BASED STUDIES TO EVALUATE SUCCESS AND FAILURE

The following are country examples that indicate the results of the evaluations conducted at various levels of curriculum implementation. Based on the results, changes are brought about regarding the utility and appropriateness of the assessment, and this helps in decision-making concerning improvements or modifications to curricula. This is very clearly expressed in the example from China:

- China: 'Research-based studies on the state and effectiveness of various aspects of the national curriculum and its implementation, including the effectiveness of curriculum content, existing pedagogies and instructional approaches, teacher training, and of textbooks and instructional materials have been arranged. For example, MOE has organized the experts and professors of key education institutes or universities to collect and review all the senior high school entrance examination paper. The results and recommendations have been used for monitoring and improving examinations, and to guide the teaching reform.'

From the presentation at the Seminar, an example from Indonesia shows that:

- The Curriculum Development Centre carried out an evaluation on the implementation of the 1994 curriculum. The findings show that there are still some unsolved

problems, such as the existence of some disconnections, overlapping of content, and even misleading curriculum implementation, particularly for the subjects of Sports and Art. Therefore, these misconceptions were righted by providing a Curriculum Supplement Document for all subject matters and for all levels (…) for the purpose of selecting (reducing and adding) content.

The example from Japan clearly elaborates the steps that the country has taken towards introducing revisions in the teaching methods, teaching objectives, and teaching content of particular curricula:

- Japan: The Ministry of Education has been conducting nation-wide surveys on students' achievement in some subject area. The purpose of this survey is to evaluate the effectiveness of implementation of the National Curriculum Standards. The results of this survey are to be used to improve the methods of teaching and learning in a nation-wide perspective and to design more effective Curriculum Standards in the near future (…) This implies that we should put more emphasis on developing children's number sense, as well as on introducing children's hands-on activities in mathematics classrooms. These survey results and analysis have been used in the process of revising the objectives and teaching content in the Curriculum Standards for mathematics.

With the help of research conducted by the NRIES, Laos PDR has been able to take steps towards improving learner performance and quality education, enhancing mother-tongue use in schools with positive outcomes, and conducting action research in Science and Mathematics education. NRIES staff has led three evaluations:

- To study the situation of organization of teaching-learning, the effects of national teacher orientation workshops, the use of textbooks and teacher's guides and to assess student learning outcomes. The evaluation findings indicated satisfactory achievements. The new curriculum was relevant to the student needs and the requirements of local and national development, and has contributed to the improvement of learning performance and the quality of education.

- A study of teaching Lao PDR for ethnic minority children and youth has been conducted in order to enhance language macro skills, such as listening, speaking, reading and writing. The research team has advanced the hypothesis that by

possessing adequate language skills, the ethnic minority youth would be able to improve learning of other academic subjects: mathematics, sciences, social studies, technology, etc. The team decided to try out the concentrated language encounters techniques adapted to the learning environment in ethnic minority areas by taking into careful account the specific features of ethnic languages and dialects. As a result, the student learning outcomes have considerably improved; both teachers and learners were also motivated to learn.

- Another aspect of enhancing learning achievements and teaching effectiveness at the secondary education level is related to action research conducted by NRIES Mathematics and Sciences Division, in cooperation with teachers of the Vientiane municipality secondary schools and professors of the National University. The research findings show that most of the students lack the focus in reading books and extracting useful information for using as the basic data for constructing or discovering knowledge. It is recommended to promote reading skills and introducing the reading techniques in school.

In the Philippines, by using the information gleaned from reviews and studies, there was evidence to show that the curriculum needed to cut down on overcrowding:

- Philippines:[9] A core group was organized to continue the study of the curriculum and to consolidate and study the results of the previous surveys, studies, consultations and reviews. […] All of the reviews and studies point to the low student performance. A number of factors are consistently identified as contributory to this problem, such as inadequacy of funds, prior preparation of teachers, high drop-out rate, high level of illiteracy, insufficiency of instructional support and facilities (e.g. laboratories, libraries, etc.) The major studies all recommend the need to decongest the curriculum.

On the other hand, in the Philippines, studies also pointed out to the necessity for introducing analytical methodology in the curriculum:

- As regard secondary education, the Committee on Information Technology, Science, Mathematics Education and other Technologies states: ‘The New Secondary Education Curriculum (NSEC) deserves a second look It must be vis-à-vis the NSAT (National Secondary Achievement Test) results of the last four years where the students achieved mean percentage scores of only about 50%.

> The lowest scores were recorded in Science and Mathematics indicating that these are the most difficult subjects for the students, and for which additional contact time may be needed and innovative teaching techniques should be devised to make them interesting and less daunting to students. The basic education curriculum should be streamlined such that it will provide for greater concept understanding, mastery of skills (e.g. critical thinking and other scientific skills) and appreciation of science and technology as applied to daily life.'

As we have seen from the examples above curriculum quality is important to maintain, and standards of quality in education are achieved by constantly studying the worth and merit of educational curricula. The main focus of curriculum evaluation is looking at the policies that have been put into actionæthe structure and framework of curriculum development: curriculum design; the various instructional products and materials that are used; where the objectives of student outcomes can be analysed; checking/testing student progress; the effectiveness of teaching and teachers or instruction outcomes; the learning environment and finally the monetary resources available. Through educational evaluations, all these factors result in measuring the effectiveness of educational policies that are implemented in the curricula development process.[10]

Notes

1. Worthen, B.R. 1990. Program evaluation. In: Walberg, H.J.; Haertel, G.D. eds. The international encyclopaedia of educational evaluation. Oxford, United Kingdom: Pergamon.
2. Sanders, J.R 1990. Curriculum evaluation. In: Walberg,& Haertel, op. cit.
3. Presentation by the Philippine participant, Dr. Fe Hidalgo, at the Vientiane Seminar.
4. Sanders, J.R 1990. Curriculum evaluation. In: Walberg,& Haertel, op. cit.
5. Sanders, J.R 1990. Curriculum evaluation. In: Walberg,& Haertel, op. cit.
6. Presentation by the Philippine participant, Dr. Fe Hidalgo at the Vientiane Seminar
7. According to Stufflebeam, 1971, as cited in. Sanders, J.R 1990. Curriculum evaluation. In: Walberg,& Haertel, op. cit.
8. Anderson, L.W.; Ball, S. 1978, as cited in Worthen, op. cit.
9. Presentation by the Philippine participant, Dr. Fe Hidalgo, at the Vientiane Seminar
10. Sanders, J.R 1990. Curriculum evaluation. In: Walberg,& Haertel, op. cit.

PART

VI

Capacity-building Needs in Curriculum Development

CURRICULUM INNOVATION IN THE BASIC EDUCATION PROJECT

A special session of the workshop was dedicated to identifying national capacity building needs in the management of curriculum reform in the eleven participating countries. For this purpose, the following sets of questions were used:

WHO?
Within the education institutions (including schools) and organizations in your country, who needs enhanced capacity to develop and / or implement reformed curriculum?

WHY?
What is the rationale for identifying each target group? What is the significance of its role and function in the process of reform in your country?

WHAT?
What skills / competencies, knowledge, etc does each identified target group need?

HOW?
Within realistic resource constraints, what modalities for enhancing capacity could be employed or would be appropriate for each group? (face to face training workshops, cascade models, printed / electronic modular materials, study visits and exchanges, etc)

WHEN?
How urgent are the training needs of each group? In what time frames? In what sequence?

NATIONAL CAPACITY-BUILDING NEEDS

While a range of capacity building needs were identified for different audiences in each national context, in reporting back to the group, each country was requested to focus on one type of a capacity building need, considered to be a priority (see table further in this chapter). During the general discussion, three main 'functions' or roles in curriculum reform were suggested as a way to organize the capacity building needs as they emerged from the national needs analyses:

1. ***Leadership function*** that represents a set of responsibilities for managers and directors involved in curriculum reform. This would include such dimensions as:
   - Political will;
   - Advocacy and marketing;
   - National goals and values;
   - Core concepts (frameworks; local curricula; flexibility; learner-centred approaches.

2. ***Management function*** involving curriculum development managers at central and local levels and which would touch upon such dimensions as:
   - Structures for undertaking curriculum reforms;
   - The processes of consultation at national and local levels;
   - Piloting processes;
   - Curriculum design and writing;
   - Training;
   - 'Curriculum implementation cycle'.

3. ***Operational function*** (for district personnel, teachers, inspectors, principals, etc.) that would include the following components:
   - Assessment of teaching and learning;
   - Supervision;
   - Monitoring and evaluation of curriculum implementation.

REGIONAL CAPACITY-BUILDING NEEDS

From a regional perspective, the national needs assessment reports indicate a need for capacity building in the management of curriculum change for curriculum developers and policy makers. Modalities for such capacity include:

- Regional networking and exchange of information and sharing of experiences;
- Study visits and attachment programmes;
- Comparative case study training materials on the management of curriculum change.

The main target audiences that would benefit from this capacity building would be:

- Curriculum developers at central level;
- Policy makers: senior and middle management at central and local levels in charge of curriculum design and implementation;
- Education experts at national level;
- Curriculum reform committee members and curriculum policy makers.
- The content of the materials used for this purpose could include:
- Understanding and comparing processes of curriculum development and review in a variety of contexts;
- Learning from foreign experiences, models of management of curriculum change conflict resolution, consensus-building, marketing/communication of reform;
- International trends of basic education reform; curriculum management reform;
- Management of curriculum change—conduct consultations; hearing the voice of rural and marginal communities; leadership qualities in the context of decentralized systems; how to influence public opinion at early stages;
- Evaluation and monitoring processes.

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
CAMBODIA				
1	At the ministry level: ß key persons from related departments; ß curriculum committee members; ß directors or representatives from Primary Education Department; ß director of Secondary Education Department; ß directors of Teacher-Training Departments; ß key persons from universities ß good teachers.	Because they are: ß the main persons responsible for the curriculum reform; ß the representative of the whole section of education; ß the persons responsible for the training of teachers (pre-service, in-service); ß the curriculum policy maker; ß the people who should understand the curriculum reform and curriculum development, the methodology of teaching and learning, monitoring and evaluation.	To be able to: ß develop the vision for the future of education; ß to understand the changing focus in curriculum development; ß to set standards (national and minimum); ß to develop national education goals, aims and objectives; ß to develop the curriculum policy (policy makers); ß to determine outcomes of learning.	ß study visits; ß workshops; ß training: on-the-job training with consultation of national and international experts to establish (1) the curriculum framework, (2) instruments for piloting and validation and (3) monitoring and evaluation.
2	At the provincial level: ß technical people from twenty-four provinces; ß head of POE and DOE; ß inspectors; ß supervisors; ß principals of Regional Teacher Training Centres (RTTCs); ß principals of Provincial Teacher Training Centres (PTTCs).	Because: ß They are active people in the management of curriculum implementation. ß They are responsible for training (pre-service, in-service). ß They are responsible for monitoring. ß The supervisor and inspectors should understand the changing focus in curriculum policy and curriculum reform. ß They should have a clear vision of curricular changes and are be able to communicate it through the teachers and help teachers to implement the changes.	To be able to: ß understand some aspects of the changing focus in curriculum development, for example the change from categorized learning to integrated learning, from rote learning to applied learning, from teaching to learning, from input to outcomes.	ß training; ß workshop; ß training that focuses on (1) new aspects of the reform, (2) monitoring, (3) new textbook orientation, (4) evaluation.
3	Headmasters and technical team leaders	Because: ß They interact directly with the teachers. ß They cater for the teachers' needs. ß They transfer/translate skills and knowledge to the teachers. ß They should change the ways of working.	To be able to understand: ß new pedagogy; ß new ways of learning; ß outcomes; ß applied learning; ß child-centred approaches; ß the construction of the test items; ß achievement tests.	ß workshop; ß meetings; ß visits.

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
CHINA				
1	Teacher researchers as part of a core group, who would in turn become local trainers	ß to enable them to understand, identify themselves with and creatively implement the new curriculum; ß to establish a bottom-up teaching research system with an effective self-improvement mechanism, so that training goes hand in hand with curriculum experiment, research and management.	Training in general educational ideas and approaches, such as: ß background of the basic education curriculum reform; ß international trends of basic education; ß curriculum standards and teaching plan (e.g. introduction of new courses, such as comprehensive courses; practical and activity oriented courses); ß change of student learning styles as required by the new curriculum; ß transformation of teachers' roles and functions; ß reform of the teaching research system; ß new approaches and techniques in educational assessment and evaluation; ß curriculum management reform (e.g. management of three graduate courses, utilization and development of local curriculum resources).	ß in-service training and pre-service training; ß residential training and non-residential training; ß short term face-to-face training and long-term follow-up guidance; ß new curriculum training and teacher continuing education; ß face-to-face training combined with long-distance training (broadcasting, video, CD).
INDONESIA				
1	Policy makers: senior and middle-level management at central and local levels in change of curriculum development, such as: ß directors and deputy directors responsible for curriculum design and implementation; legislators; senior curriculum specialists; ß heads of districts and their senior staff responsible for curriculum design and implementation at district level; ß inspectorate at central and district levels; ß rectors and deans of universities responsible for pre-service teacher training.	These target groups have significant roles to encourage, motivate and empower their staff in the design and implementation of curriculum reform at wider level.	ß link between legal aspects and the change in focus of curriculum development; ß leadership; ß changing focus in curriculum development all over the world; ß a world-class curriculum standard; ß need to establish a curriculum council/task force at district level; ß curriculum management (consultancy, resolving conflicts); ß monitoring and evaluation.	Sub-regional workshops or in-country workshops with assistance from UNESCO and/or IBE

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
2	Professional support groups, school inspectors, head-teachers, local administrators and curriculum specialists, textbook writers, test writers.	Often teachers have more training than these groups. When school inspectors and head-teachers are less confident than teachers, they tend to discourage teachers by assessing teachers' performance using administrative indicators of success (teachers' attendance, lesson plans, school uniform, etc.). This group has to be well equipped with sufficient skills to support teachers to develop their own curriculum at the school level.	ß Changing focus of curriculum; ß criteria for successful reform; ß indicators of success.	ß In-country training workshops at local level; ß cascade models; ß exchange.
3	Implementers at classroom level: teachers and subject specialists	They are the key stakeholders of the implementation of curriculum reform	ß Process of curriculum development; ß design of a curriculum related to local needs; ß innovative methods of teaching; ß authentic assessment.	ß training workshops; ß cascade models; ß cross-district teacher exchange at country level.
4	Curriculum taskforce at district level.	Currently, we only have a curriculum taskforce at the provincial level; this should be extended to the local level.	ß Curriculum design; ß monitoring and evaluation.	ß Structured training workshops with printed materials.
5	All target groups	Unreachable target groups because of budget and time constraints.	ß Philosophy; ß theoretical frameworks; ß reasons for changes including the change itself.	ß Distance learning; ß web sites; ß electronic modular materials; ß printed materials.
JAPAN				
1	School teachers and school heads/principals.	ß They should understand policies of the New Curriculum Standards. ß They should increase confidence in their teaching, in explaining how they teach and what they teach to parents and children.	Develop skills to implement the new standards into their own school and organize/make their own school curriculum.	
2	Supervisors, inspectors and administrators of local governments.	ß They should give appropriate practical advice to school teachers in their local area. ß They should distribute appropriate information on the new school curriculum to the people in the local area.	Develop skills to evaluate how successfully local schools are implementing the new standards.	

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
3	Curriculum specialist of the Ministry of Education (in Japan, each curriculum specialist is in charge of one specific subject of curriculum standards).	ß Curriculum specialists should understand the country experience and history of teaching and learning in the subject. ß Curriculum specialists should gather appropriate data and information on how well the standards are being implemented and how well the student's outcomes are. ß Curriculum specialists should understand and compare the process of curriculum development, review.	ß Curriculum specialists should organize a special committee of experts in subjects, gather opinions and ideas and integrate those into the new curriculum standards. ß Curriculum specialists should analyse the information and data and information and use it at the next curriculum revision. ß Curriculum specialists should select and organize an appropriate amount of teaching contents to be stated in the standards.	ß Curriculum specialists should organize several workshops for representative supervisors of local governments and representative school-teachers. These representative people will in turn distribute information to people in each local area.
REPUBLIC OF KOREA				
1	Teachers at all levels	ß to enable implementation of the new curriculum; ß to develop a new role for teachers as researchers and curriculum developers.	ß understanding of new subject areas, context and methodologies; ß developing the curriculum of discretionary time and extra-curricular activities; ß managing and monitoring school-based curriculum; ß train secondary school-teachers in a second subject in order for them not to lose their jobs due to increasing electives; ß emphasis on the use of ICTs; ß understanding and using the new assessment system.	ß peer teaching; ß videotapes; ß mutual consultation of teachers; ß teacher study groups; ß graduate courses for teachers in universities; ß providing teaching/learning examples.
LAO P.D.R.				
1	Curriculum developers: ß central level; ß NRIES; ß TDC; ß TTC; ß provincial level.	They are main educational stakeholders in the curriculum reform.	Process of curriculum development.	ß Face-to-face training (TOT); ß cascade method; ß study visit; ß workshop; ß printed materials.
2	Evaluation staff centre: ß NRIES; ß DGE; ß TDC; ß TTC; ß provincial level; ß district level; ß school level.	More participatory approach would be given to the process.	Monitoring and evaluation process: ß assessment tools; ß items bank; ß portfolio; ß continuing assessment; ß using CPT for data analysis.	ß Face-to-face training (TOT); ß cascade method; ß study visit; ß workshop; ß printed materials.
3	Education administration: ß PES; ß DEB; ß headmasters; ß principals.	To enhance in-country capacity.	Management.	ß Face-to-face training (TOT); ß cascade method; ß study visit; ß workshop; ß printed materials.

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
MALAYSIA				
1	Curriculum developers	ß They need to know the process and procedures of curriculum development because this is their main responsibility. ß Most often the officers develop these skills on-the-job. ß They need to translate needs into curricular specifications.	ß Curriculum development processes; ß monitoring and evaluation; ß curriculum and instruction; ß curriculum organization; ß curriculum design and development; ß research techniques and data analysis; ß use of ICTs in teaching and learning; ß grading of materials.	ß Three months specialized training in curriculum development; ß study visits/exchanges; ß on-going training.
2	Teacher trainers	They train teachers on how to implement the curriculum.	ß New pedagogical approaches in curriculum reform (curriculum instruction).	ß Face-to-face training workshops; ß three months specialized training.
3	Teachers	ß They implement the curriculum. ß They organize teaching in the classroom. ß They develop lessons.	ß New pedagogical approaches in curriculum reform (curriculum instruction); ß How to develop curriculum content to local situations.	ß Face-to-face training workshops; ß modular materials; ß cascade model.
4	School heads and principals	They provide leadership to support the teachers.	ß Curriculum leadership; ß curriculum management; ß management of change; ß curriculum supervision.	ß Face-to-face training; ß study visits; ß exchange.
5	Examination officers	They translate curriculum specification into test items.	ß Curriculum evaluation; ß curriculum instruction; ß development of assessment tools.	ß Face-to-face training workshops; ß three months specialized training; ß one-off programme.
6	Textbook writers	They translate curriculum specification into text.	ß Curriculum instruction; ß instruction design.	ß Face-to-face training; ß one-off programme.
7	State and district education officers	They monitor the curriculum and provide assistance to teachers that need help.	ß Curriculum leadership; ß monitoring and evaluation; ß development and instruction for evaluation; ß curriculum supervision.	ß Face-to-face training; ß study exchanges;
8	School inspectors	They monitor and provide supervision on the implementation of the curriculum.	ß Curriculum instruction; ß monitoring and evaluation; ß development indicators; ß curriculum supervision.	ß Three months specialized training; ß face-to-face training.
9	Key personnel/trainers	They conduct in-service training and dissemination of any curricular change.	ß Curriculum instruction; ß monitoring.	ß Three months specialized training; ß modular materials.
10	Other material developers	They develop support materials such as charts, ICT based materials, radio and television programmes that teachers can use to implement the curriculum.	ß Curriculum instruction; ß instruction design.	ß Face-to-face training.
11	Policy makers	They need to understand the process involved to support the programme.	ß Curriculum development processes.	ß Briefing modules.

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
MONGOLIA				
1	Policy makers at the national, local and school level: ß government officials; ß senior specialist.	To understand the framework of the national curriculum and to make necessary preparations for implementing new education standards that were finalized in 2002.	ß New knowledge, skills and competencies related to curriculum change and its implementation for each target group; ß a module for each target group will be developed separately.	Special training programmes for developing new skills and competencies of curriculum change: ß face-to-face training and national workshops; ß national, international, sub-regional workshops.
2	Decision makers at the national, local and school level: ß members of Parliament; ß ministers; ß directors; ß administrators.	When adopting policy change documents, they need to choose between different versions of curriculum proposals and thus be able to make the correct choice.	(same as above)	Special training programmes for developing new skills and competencies of curriculum change: ß advocacy; ß study visits; ß exchanges.
3	Trainers at the national, local and school level: methodologists; professors; researchers; curriculum developers.	ß They implement pre- and in-service training of teachers. ß They need to carry out practical and theoretical research.	(same as above)	Special training programmes for developing new skills and competencies of curriculum change: ß long- and short-term; ß learning action projects for long- and short-term; ß workshops; ß training.
4	Teachers at school level: all teachers by each subject.	They implement the learning/teaching process in the classroom.	(same as above)	Special training programmes for developing new skills and competencies of curriculum change: ß workshops; ß distance learning; ß study visits.
5	Evaluators at national, local and school level: inspectors; supervisors.	ß They implement the process of evaluation and monitoring. ß They need to be able to analyse data of examination, evaluation and monitoring.	(same as above)	Special training programmes for developing new skills and competencies of curriculum change: ß workshops; ß distance learning; ß study visits.
6	Textbook providers at the national level: ß authors; ß editors; ß publishers; ß designers.	They need to prepare textbook and instructional materials as well as supplementary materials.	(same as above)	Special training programmes for developing new skills and competencies of curriculum change: ß workshops; ß distance learning; ß study visits.

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
PHILIPPINES				
1	Curriculum reform committee members and curriculum policy makers	1. The curriculum committee members should be well-grounded on trends in education and the different contexts in which curriculum change or reform are made. 2. Advocates or policy-makers in curriculum should know the whole curriculum development reform process and what is likely to make a difference in learning outcomes. 3. Implementing changes requires effective and efficient management of the whole process and effective leadership.	Competencies (knowledge, skills and values) related to: 1. The different contexts in which reform is being considered, e.g. social, political, legal, economic, etc. a) Trends in education: ß child-centred education; ß holistic education and integrated approaches; ß lifelong learning/life skills; ß pillars of learning; ß multiple intelligences; ß alternative approaches to evaluating learning outcomes; b) managing mind shifts (attitudes to change) in relation to paradigm shifts; 2. Management of the curriculum development process a) the curriculum development process ß assessment of existing curriculum, policies related to this; consultations; ß organizing changes in goals, content, process, evaluation systems; ß mechanisms and structures in effecting the change; b) implementation; ß piloting; ß evaluating and monitoring. 3. Effective leadership and management: a) leadership and management qualities for effective curriculum reform; b) advocacy of a decentralized educational system ß conducting consultancies; ß motivating local and indigenous advocacies; ß influencing public opinion; ß dealing with resistance; ß conflict resolutions; ß organizing support systems like media, networks, etc.	1. Competencies a) analysis of comparative country experiences (case studies); b) interactive approaches c) case studies, simulations, exploring and exploiting belief systems in relation to knowledge, domains and teaching process beliefs ß face to fact expert discussions; ß focused group discussions; ß simulations; ß modules; ß on-line training; 2. Management of the curriculum development process a) simulations; b) country case studies; c) expert discussions. 3. Effective leadership and management: a) case studies; b) expert discussions (face-to-face); c) interactive exercises; d) models.

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
2	Teachers	Teachers are the best testimonies to the success of any curriculum reform. They should be involved in the curriculum reform process from the beginning. N.B. teachers should be trained directly by curriculum development specialists so that training content and process does not get watered down at the level of the teacher.	1. Updates on changing trends in education: ß the knowledge domain; ß the teaching process skills (transactional flexibilities); ß teachers' belief systems related to: - the subject matter; - the teaching-learning processes; - evaluating learning outcome (alternatives); ß matching teaching styles with learning styles; ß managing the teaching/learning environment; ß the changing roles of teachers; ß the teaching-learning environments. 2. Specific concerns: ß integrative teaching and the integrated curriculum; ß interactive teaching-learning; ß content-based instructions; ß evaluations/ assessment of learning outcomes.	1. Interactive approach to training: ß training material; ß face-to-face; ß demonstrations; ß simulations; ß case studies. 2. immersion in model schools, possibly even in another country. 3. mentoring/coaching.
3	Principals, head teachers, district supervisors	Principals or heads of schools can only be empowered to supervise classrooms if they are enlightened about developments in education.	1. Updates on curriculum reforms and educational trends. 2. School-based management. 3. Advocacy.	1. Interactive approach. 2. Case-studies approach.
4	Supervisors, school superintendents and regional directors.	1. To be able to support any change, the superintendents should be as well informed as the teachers. 2. Supervisors and superintendents are instructional supervisors and instructional managers.	Updates on: ß instructional supervisors and management; ß changing focus of education; ß monitoring and evaluation; ß curriculum reform advocacy.	1. Interactive approach. 2. Case studies.

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
5	Bureau, regional directors and directors of training.	This is the group that rationalizes and peruses curriculum reform in the country.	Updates on: ß information focusing on curriculum; ß managing the curriculum reform process; ß monitoring and evaluating the curriculum reform implementation; ß managing curriculum conflicts.	1. Simulations. 2. Case studies. 3. Interactive approaches.
6	Policy makers in the educational system and relevant governmental institutions.	To support the whole process of curriculum reform, there should be political will from policy makers at the top.	1. Rationales for curriculum reform, 2. Governance (in a decentralized system), 3. Advocacy,	1. Comparative views from difficult countries, 2. Case studies, 3. Review of sample policies of different countries, 4. Lectures on political skills.
THAILAND				
1	Teachers and principals	To increase confidence in developing school-based curricula.	Develop skill and competencies for the development of the school-based curriculum.	A variety of training modules: a) face-to-face; b) cascade; c) printed and electronic materials; d) study visits and exchanges.
2	Supervisors and local governments	They have to give advice, monitor, evaluate and report how successfully schools develop and implement school-based curriculum.	(Same as above.)	(Same as above.)
3	Curriculum developers and policy makers	Need to be trained to be able to update educational trends as well as curriculum management processes.	Develop skill to update educational trends and curriculum management processes.	Training in experienced countries.

Priority number	Priority target group for capacity-building	Rationale	Assessment needs – Competencies areas	Training approaches, methodology
VIET NAM				
1	Educational experts: a) at national level (e.g. NIES, guidance and monitoring departments, etc.). b) at local level (e.g. guidance and monitoring departments, key teachers, etc.).	1. Capacity building for the development of the local curriculum. 2. Capacity for evaluation and monitoring. 3. Capacity for implementation.	1. Capacity building for the development of the local curriculum: a) identifying suitable contents, approaches for local needs and characteristics; b) establishing good relationships between the National Core Curriculum and local contents (in terms of plan, etc.). 2. Capacity for evaluation and monitoring: a) developing suitable, reliable instruments for evaluation and monitoring; b) developing criteria, indicators of evaluation; c) evaluation and monitoring of the local curriculum. 3. Capacity for implementation: e.g. teaching methods (active, practical, integrative ways, etc.).	For educational experts at the national level: a) face-to-face training workshops; b) study visits; c) self-training (with support); For educational experts at the local level: d) face-to-face training workshops; e) study visits; f) exchanges; g) training courses; h) self-training (with support).

ANNEX

1

Evaluation of the Seminar by the Participants

Overall, the participants rated the seminar as very good and considered that it had achieved the three objectives (mentioned above) either well or very well. The only comment made with regard to the objectives was the need for a clear delineation between the curriculum reform process and the curriculum development process.

The participants considered the country presentations at the start of the seminar to be useful because they 'allowed to identify emerging issues and experiences from other countries (especially the countries that have a similar situation' and because if gives 'greater confidence about [one's] own country's curriculum development.'

The majority of participants regarded the presentation on 'Changing focus on Curriculum development', by the resource person as very useful in relation to the overall seminar and of very good quality. The desire was expressed to 'learn about experiences that other countries (e.g. European countries) have had in changing the focus of curriculum development', and the lesson that have been learned from these experiences.

The workshops were evaluated as being very useful or useful, in particular workshop 4 on the identification of capacity building needs was regarded as very useful. The quality of the workshop organization was overall rated as good. Again it was mentioned that 'it was not clear whether everyone understood that we were looking at the curricula reform process rather that at the curricula development process.'

In terms of the methods of work, the time allocate to the different components was rated as sufficient, with a little more time requested for the presentation and discussion of the country reports. The fieldtrip was also appreciated and regarded as very useful. The participants further suggested that 'more presentations by the

resource person should have been provided' and that a 'theoretical development in curriculum' would have been useful.

Furthermore, the following other subject areas/issues in curriculum development were identified by the participant as discussion topics for future seminars.

- Development of performance testing;
- Defining benchmarks for each level;
- Translating curricula change into classroom practice;
- Advocacy of curricula change;
- Moral education;
- Curricula integration strategies;
- Curricula leadership;
- Exchange of instructional materials;
- Special workshop on assessment and evaluation;
- Development of training modules.

Overall, the opportunity to share ideas in a constructive and flexible manner was highly appreciated.

ANNEX
2

Welcome Address

The Vice-Minister of Education, H.E. Mrs Bounpheng Mounphoxay, opened the Vientiane Seminar on 9 September 2002 with the following welcome address:

Excellencies,
Distinguished guests,
Ladies and Gentlemen,

On behalf of the Ministry of Education, I wish to extend a cordial and warm welcome to all the guests participating in the opening ceremony on Building the Capacities of Curriculum Specialists for Educational Reform. At the same time, I would like to express my deep gratitude to the Japanese Government who offered substantial funding support for this workshop. And I would also like to give special thanks to the UNESCO Principal Regional Office (UNESCO-PROAP) and the International Bureau of Education (IBE) for deciding to organize the meeting in Vientiane. I hope you will all enjoy your time in Lao PDR.

Ladies and Gentlemen,

The twenty-first century is the century of advanced science and technology. Especially, the use of information communication technology (ICT) will have great effects on people's lives by changing the lifestyle, the ways of thinking and acting in order to improve the material and spiritual welfare of human beings. A great attempt has been made by the researchers and scientists to study the best ways to utilize natural resources in the interests of the people and of sustainable development.

Although the twenty-first century is the century of highly advanced science and technology, the quality of human resource development in terms of knowledge, qualification and health for participating in production for poverty alleviation, and coping with multiple challenges is limited. Therefore, I would like to call for the support of every country in searching for the causes of the problems. Every country agrees that only education can help to gradually tackle the problems through educational reform by improving the curriculum and ensuring its quality and relevance to the real situation in each country. At the same time, the curriculum of each country should be networking.

In the Lao PDR, we started educational reform in the interests of the renovation process in a market-oriented economy in 1991. The Government focused on improving education at all levels, from kindergarten up to vocational and higher education. In addition, the Government has adopted the strategic plan of education development for year 2001–2020, directed to complete compulsory primary education, and also to develop the secondary level up to higher education in a pyramidal shape, and provide appropriate

vocational skills for the Lao people in improving their quality of life. In addition, the National Assembly has promulgated the law of education in 2001, which stipulated that all sectors of society should contribute to education, and special emphasis should be placed on the physical and spiritual stimulus of the teachers. In order to accomplish our strategic plan of education adopted by the Government, the Ministry of Education has exerted all efforts to fulfil its commitments.

The total population of Lao PDR is 5.3 million, of which 1.2 million go to school. The total number of the teachers and education administrators all over the country is 47,400. The number of the schools and institutes is 10,500. The curricula of the whole education system have been renovated according to the policy of education for development of manpower to serve all national economic sectors. At the same time, printed and non-printed instructional materials are developed and distributed to the students in the cities as well as remote areas. Over last decade of educational reform, learners could achieve the goals of education for holistic development covering moral, intellectual, physical, aesthetic and work skills. The teachers, as facilitators, are also trying to use student-centred strategies through a variety of participatory teaching techniques for discovering and constructing knowledge. Concerning educational content, apart from fostering a spirit of patriotism, solidarity among the ethnic minorities, awareness of laws and politics, and respect for the national culture, education for international understanding and culture of peace is also implemented. Under globalization, Lao education puts special emphasis on the prevention of HIV/AIDS, drug abuse and other risk behaviour, as well as conservation of nature and respect for the finest national culture.

Nevertheless, the education in Lao PDR still faces difficulties in terms of its budget owing to suffering from the world economic downturn of the late 1990s. Unlike other countries, Laos is short of qualified, experienced human resources, which hampers our education and our ability to expand equally to other countries. Therefore, when UNESCO's Principal Regional Office for Asia and Pacific, and International Bureau of Education chose our country to organize the meeting, it gives us a great opportunity to learn and exchange ideas and lessons with you. This will help us to develop our education, take further steps to catch up to international standards, and be connected to a network to fulfil the tasks of: 'learning to know, learning to do, learning to be, and learning to live together'. I am convinced that this workshop will produce a general outcome that each country will decide to implement.

Once again, I would like to express my deep gratitude to the Government of Japan, to UNESCO's Principal Regional Office for Asia and Pacific, and the International Bureau for Education for supporting the realization of this workshop. I would also like to extend special thanks to the guests, especially those who have travelled a long distance to join this workshop. Again, sincere thanks to the invited guests for your time in joining this opening ceremony.

Distinguished guests, ladies and gentlemen,

Now the time has come for a very auspicious moment. It is a great privilege for me to declare this workshop officially open, and I would like to take this occasion to wish all of you good health. All the best wishes for the success of the workshop.

Thank you

ANNEX
3

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