

Durham E-Theses

A study of educational planning in Brunei Darussalam

Mohamad P. A. D. P. Abdullah

How to cite:

Abdullah, Mohamad P. A. D. P. (1986) A study of educational planning in Brunei Darussalam. Masters thesis, Durham University.

Use policy

The full-text may be used and/or reproduced, and given to third parties in any format or medium, without prior permission or charge, for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes provided that:

- a full bibliographic reference is made to the original source
- a <https://etheses.durham.ac.uk/id/eprint/7096/> is made to the metadata record in Durham E-Theses
- the full-text is not changed in any way

The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.

Please consult the [full Durham E-Theses policy](#) for further details.

A STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

IN

BRUNEI DARUSSALAM

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author.
No quotation from it should be published without
his prior written consent and information derived
from it should be acknowledged.

MOHAMAD P.A.D.P. HAJI ABDULLAH

**Thesis submitted to the University of Durham
in fulfilment of a Degree of
Master of Arts in Education.**

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION * UNIVERSITY OF DURHAM

1 9 8 6



14 MAY 1987

Thesis
1986/AED

DEDICATED TO:

MY WIFE, SITI MORGAYAH HAJI ABAS;

MY DAUGHTER, MONA NURDIYANA;

AND

MY SON, MOHAMMAD NURULFAIZ .

ABSTRACT**A STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
IN BRUNEI DARUSSALAM****BY****MOHAMAD P.A.D.P. HAJI ABDULLAH**

This study is concerned with the weaknesses and problems of educational planning in Brunei Darussalam up to 1985. It also reviews the literature on educational planning. The discussions in this study also leads to a recommendation to formulate the determinants and criteria for more effective planning in Brunei Darussalam and the proposed structure of the Brunei Darussalam education system.

The study is divided into seven chapters in addition to the introduction. The chapters are concerned with the political and socio economic setting, historical development, education system, literature on educational planning, educational planning in Brunei Darussalam, determinants and criteria for more effective planning, and lastly the recommendations and conclusion.

It is not been possible to make a study of other problems of educational planning in Brunei Darussalam because of lack of resources and information.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my great gratitude to the Government of His Majesty the Sultan And Yang Di Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam for the provision of scholarships throughout my whole education from primary school to University.

I also would like to place on record my gratitude at being able to pursue my present studies within the School of Education in Durham University. To my Supervisor, Mr.R.F.Goodings, Director of Higher Degrees in the School of Education, University Of Durham, I must express my appreciation for the great interest shown and the valuable help I have received from him. He has always been encouraging, understanding and intellectually stimulating in the course of my study, making it possible for me to overcome many academic and personal problems.

My sincere thanks also go to my family in Brunei Darussalam especially my father and my mother who have given encouragement for me to undertake this course and to my relations and friends who have rendered assistance in the collection of data and in sending materials and press cutting on Brunei Darussalam.

Finally, I must express my profound appreciation to my wife, Siti Norgayah Hj. Abas for her understanding, and patient support throughout.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF FIGURES	vii
INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER:	
I - POLITICAL AND SOCIO ECONOMIC SETTING:	
Brief History of Brunei Darussalam	18
Geography	25
Population	26
System of Government	28
Social and Economic Background	35
II - HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT:	
Historical Development of Education in Brunei Darussalam	50
Education Policy of 1962 and 1972	63
The Aim and Objectives of the Education Commission Report of 1972	56
The Development of Teachers' Education from 1950s to 1970s	72
III - EDUCATION SYSTEM:	
The Structure of Brunei Darussalam Education System	81
Existing Education System and Its Development	105

	Administrative Organisation of Education Department	120
	Administration of the School	141
IV -	LITERATURE ON EDUCATIONAL PLANNING:	
	Introduction	147
	Definition of Educational Planning	149
	Approach to Integrating Educational Planning with Development Planning	154
	Educational Planning Techniques	161
	The Planning Organisation	168
	Conceptual Framework for Educational Planning	172
	Educational Planning Development	188
V -	EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN BRUNEI DARUSSALAM:	
	Introduction	197
	The Organisation of Educational Planning	199
	Planning Implementation	209
	Conclusion	211
VI -	DETERMINANTS AND CRITERIA FOR MORE EFFECTIVE PLANNING IN BRUNEI DARUSSALAM:	
	Factors in Educational Planning	214
	A New Planning Division	224
VII -	RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION.	237

BIBLIOGRAPHY	293
APPENDICES:	
1.1 Ministries and Departments	304
2.1 Number of Schools, Teachers and Students by Type of Schools and Level of Education, 1975	306
2.2 Number of Schools, Teachers and Students by Type of Schools and Level of Education, 1976	307
2.3 Teacher Training: Enrolment by Year of Study and Age, 1975	308
2.4 Teacher Training: Enrolment by Year of Study and Age, 1976	309
2.5 The Total Number of Teachers in Brunei, 1973 - 1982	310
2.6 Secondary School Teachers by Qualification, 1982	311
3.1 Enrolment by Type of School	312
3.2 Number of Teachers by Level of Education, 1974 - 1984	313
3.3 Number of School, Teachers and Students by Type of School and Level of Education, 1982	314
3.4 Number of School, Teachers and Students by Type of School and Level of Education, 1983	315
3.5 Number of School, Teachers and Students by Type of School and Level of Education, 1984	316
3.6 Number of Students by Level of Education, 1974 - 1984	317
3.7 Statistics on Education, March 1985	318
3.8 Primary School Curriculum, 1983	319
3.9 Secondary School Curriculum, 1983	320
3.10 1983 Allocation for OCAR Items	323

3.11 1983 OCSE Allocations for Section,
Schools and Educational Institution
(For Purchasing Equipment, Furniture,
Audio-Visual Aids, etc.)

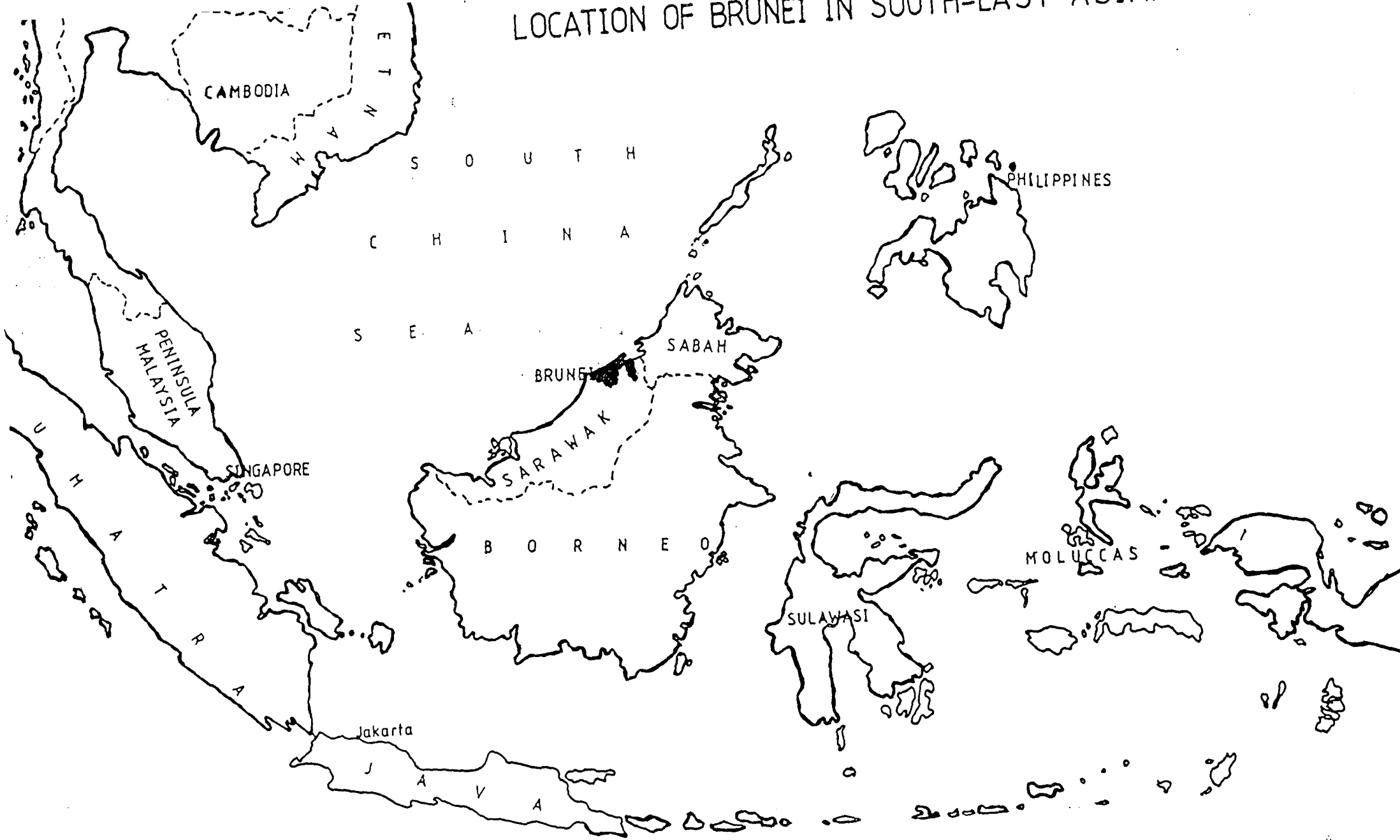
324

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.1	Map of Location of Brunei in South East Asia	ix
1.2	Map of North East Borneo	x
1.3	Map of South East Asia	xi
1.4	Population by Racial, Group and Net Annual Addition	27
1.5	Government Cabinet and Non-Cabinet Ministers	30
1.6	Economically Active and Inactive Population by Sex, 1981	40
1.7	Employment by Major Industry and Sex, 1981	41
1.8	Employment by Occupational Group, Sector and Sex, 1981	42
1.9	Foreign Workers: Absolute Numbers and As A Proportion of Total Employment in 1981 by Major Occupational Group	45
1.10	Employment of Foreign Workers by Sector and Broad Occupational Category, 1981	46
2.1	Primary School Enrolment, 1951 and 1959	58
2.2	Number of School and Educational Institution by Type of School and Level of Education, 1969 - 1981	61
3.1	Structure of Education System in Brunei Darussalam	82
3.2	Course Structure for Teachers of Lower Secondary, English and Malay Medium	96

3.3	Course Structure for Preparatory Schools and Malay Upper Primary Teachers (Standard 3 - 6)	97
3.4	Malay Lower Primary Teachers Course (Standard 1 - 3)	98
3.5	Number of Teachers, 1982	107
3.6	The Transition From the Existing System Towards Bilingual System	112
3.7	The Administrative Structure of the Department of Education in 1951	121
3.8	The Administrative Structure of the Department of Education as of 1966	123
3.9	The Administrative Organisation Structure of the Department of Education as of 1974	125
3.10	The Administrative Structure of Department of Education, 1984	128
3.11	Development Fund for Education, 1960 - 1978	133
3.12	Educational Recurrent Provision and Expenditure, 1973 - 1983	134
3.13	Provision for Recurrent Expenditure, 1982	136
3.14	Provision for Recurrent Expenditure, 1983	137
6.1	The Recommended Structure for National Educational Planning Committee	233
6.2	Recommended Model of Educational Planning at the Macro Level	235
7.1	Proposed Structure of Formal Education	241
7.2	Recommendation on Organisational Structure at School Level in Brunei Darussalam	268

LOCATION OF BRUNEI IN SOUTH-EAST ASIA.



NORTHWEST Borneo

1:6,336,000

SOUTH

CHINA

SEA

LABUAN SABAH

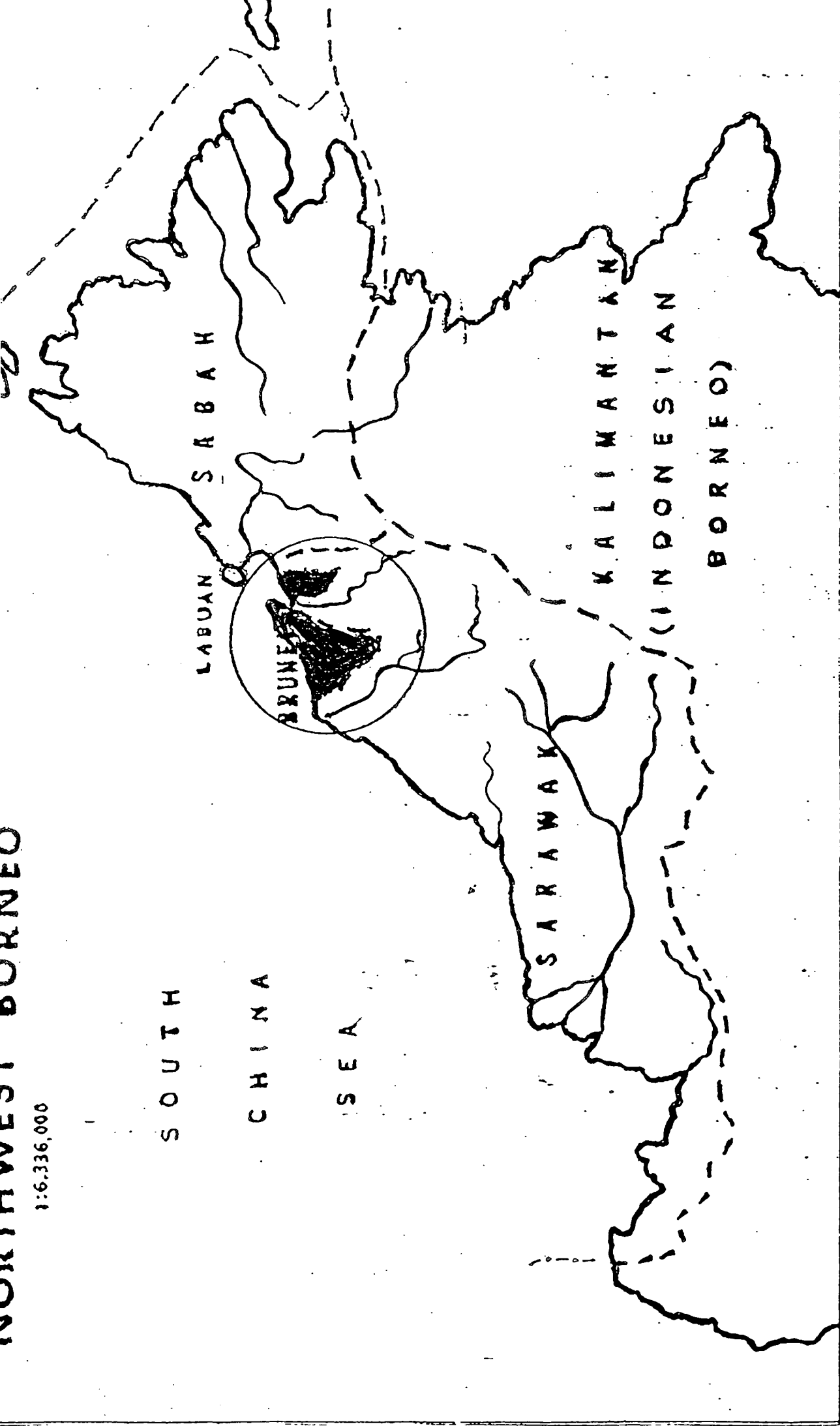
BRUNEI

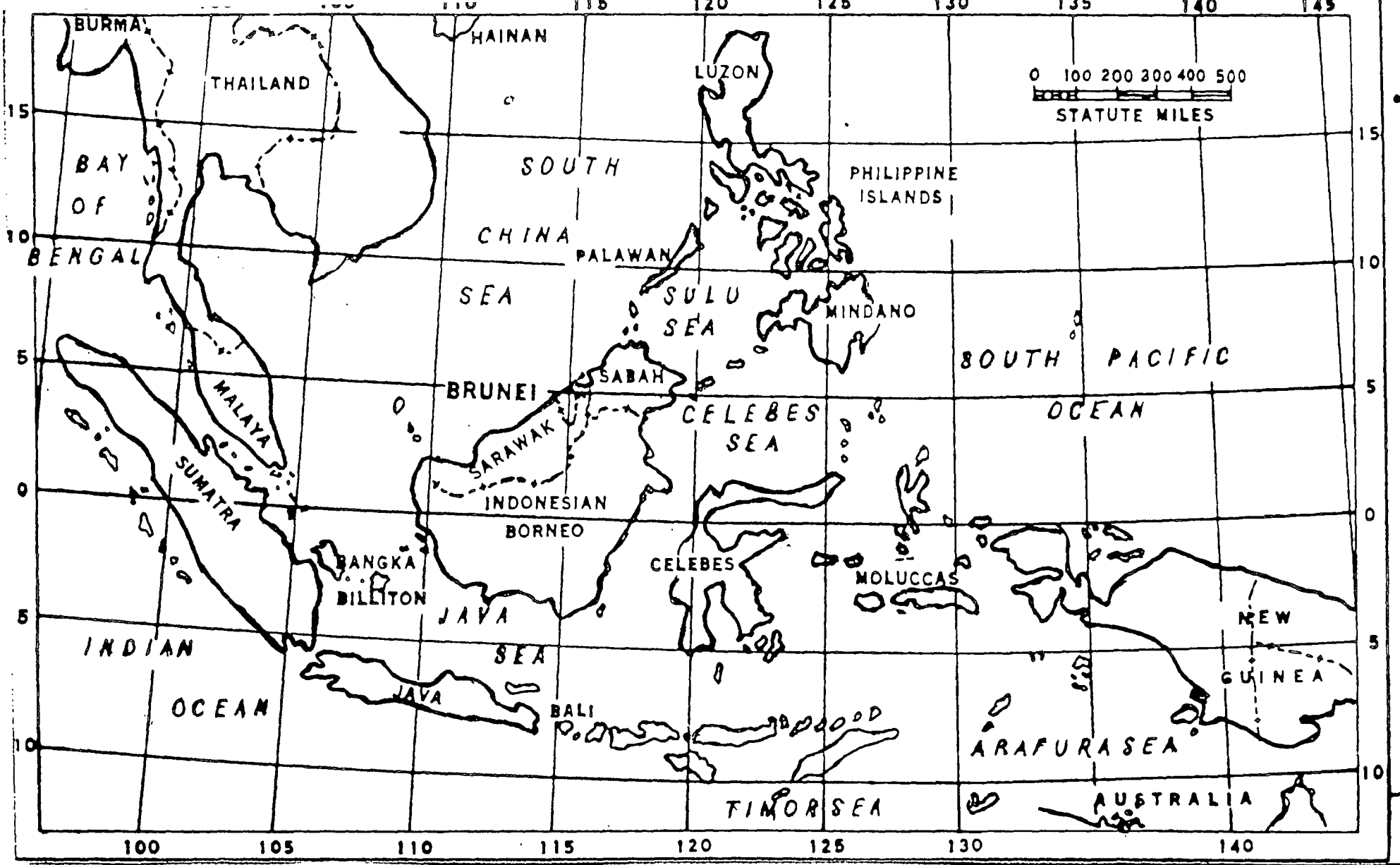
SARAWAK

KALIMANTAN

(INDONESIAN

BORNEO)





INTRODUCTION

Brunei's history recorded in Chinese historical annals dates back to the 6th century. As an Islamic Malay Sultanate, Brunei attained political supremacy under Sultan Bolkiah, the 5th Sultan of Brunei who lived between 1473 and 1521. Succeeding Bruneian Sultans maintained territorial sovereignty over the island of Borneo and the southern part of the Philippines archipelago throughout the 16th, 17th, 18th and the first half of the 19th century.

Western colonial and commercial activities in the South East Asia region during the last three centuries has drastically affected the balance of power in this region. These external events as well as the power struggles within Brunei undermined Brunei's political sovereignty and reduced the country to its present minute size.

Formal diplomatic contacts between the British and the Bruneian Government had their origin in 1847 when the



first Anglo-Bruneian Treaty of Trade and Supression of Piracy was signed. This was followed by a series of other treaties signed in 1888, 1906, 1959, 1971, 1978, and 1979.

Constitutional monarchy is the political framework upon which the present system of Government is based. The Sultan as the Head of State has absolute authority over the state's administration. The present public administrative bureaucracy is a cluster of 54 Government agencies which are divided among 9 Ministries.

In term of overall development, Brunei Darussalam has been fortunate in being able to implement most of its socio-economic development programmes without much difficulty because of the country's strong finacial position over the past 31 years. This strong financial position is likely to be maintained for the next couple of decades. However, despite the absence of financial constraint, the effectiveness and the progress of the National Development Plan has been affected to some extent by the severe shotage of skilled as well as unskilled labour. This serious manpower constraint has been partly overcome by the influx of foreign workers, totalling about 24,000, a

figure that represents more than one third of the total labour force.

This manpower problem is in a sense related to the pattern of educational development in Brunei Darussalam in the past. Before the arrival of the British in Brunei Darussalam only a relatively small proportion of the population benefited from the ecclesiastical-oriented Islamic education that was available. In 1913, however, formal secular education was introduced by the British in the country. The first vernacular schools were very basic in their function. They were at the primary stage only, the curriculum concentrated on the basic skills or the 3Rs. Writing was in the Roman and Malay-Arabic alphabet, but mainly in the former. Gradually Chinese schools were established by the Chinese immigrants and English schools by the missionaries. The first Chinese school was opened in 1916 and the first English school was opened by Anglican missionaries in 1931. The first girls' school (Malay medium) was opened in 1930. The development of secular education progressed rather slowly in the 1920s and 1930s and was temporarily disrupted by the second world war when the Japanese occupied Brunei between 1941 and 1945. However in the

1950s, 1960s and 1970s educational expansion progressed at a much faster rate. More schools were built, more teachers were trained locally and the recruitment of expatriate teachers was also intensified.

Some changes were also introduced in the 1970s through the formation of an Education Council in 1973, the setting up of a Planning, Research and Guidance Unit (PRGU) in 1974, and the establishment of a Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) in 1976. By virtue of its status as a policy making body, the Education Council was vested with the authority to scrutinize draft educational plans, to review plan implementation and to ensure that educational policy and plans were properly implemented. The Planning, Research and Guidance Unit (PRGU) was responsible for preparing educational plans, conducting educational research and providing career guidance services to secondary schools. The Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) was established to deal with curriculum matters which were previously handled by both the primary and secondary sections of the Department of Education. The Department of School Inspectorate was established as an autonomous body in 1974 and operated independently of the Department of Education. It focused its

responsibility on performance appraisal of teachers and school administrators and recording and reporting problems arising from the implementation of educational programmes. The Department of School Inspectorate submitted its findings and recommendations to the Education Council. Until recently, the Examination Office operated autonomously as the secretariat to the Board of Examination. Since May 1983 the autonomy of the Department of School Inspectorate and the Examination Office has been officially withdrawn and both offices are now operating under the instruction of the Director of Education. Most of these developments and changes are not a result of systematically planned effort. Furthermore, no in-depth study or serious evaluation has been done to find out whether these changes have brought about the significant qualitative outcomes which were anticipated.

Despite the expansion of education during the last decades, manpower problems persist. The Department of Education is still experiencing a shortage of science, mathematics and English language teachers for the primary and secondary schools and specialist lecturers for the first Brunei Darussalam University and Institute of Education. Education specialists are also

needed in areas such as primary and secondary education, administration, supervision, evaluation, research, planning, guidance, curriculum and educational television. The quality of academic achievement of students, measured by the results of the Ordinary and Advanced level examination, is still far from satisfactory, particularly in subjects such as Science, Mathematics, and English. In government schools, the drop out rate is about 5 per cent for Form III, 36 per cent for Form V and 65 per cent for Form VI. Repetition rates are about 25 per cent for Form III, 30 per cent for Form V and 27 per cent for Form VI.

It is better to put forward in this introductory chapter the possible reasons for the high percentage of failure in public examinations. There are:-

- a. Increase in the number of examination candidates;
- b. Low quality of teachers;
- c. Rules of the Brunei Junior Certificate of Education (BJCE) Examination;
- d. Medium of instruction;
- e. Family background.

In the first possible reason there seems to be 'some correlation between the percentage of passes and the total number of candidate sitting for the examination' as found by the 1977 Public Examination Committee.¹ This committee found that as the number of candidates sitting for the examination increased, there was a lowering of the percentage of passes in the BJCE Examination.

However, a study by Isaac² on American schools showed that 'the larger the school, the higher the percentage of dropouts'. This can be applied to a large number of candidates taking a public examination from a particular school. Because of inadequate numbers of teachers in Brunei Darussalam, an increase in the number of pupils in a school will inevitably increase the pupil teacher ratio. This is indeed happening in many schools in the heart of the capital of Brunei Darussalam (Bandar Seri Begawan) which have forms of up to 36 pupils. This number is clearly too large. It is impossible for the teacher in such circumstances to give adequate attention to the individual pupil. The children become discouraged and also are often denied the opportunity to participate in extra curricular activities.

As for the second possible reason, locally trained teachers have comparatively low academic qualifications. The local teachers form the bulk of the teaching force in the state. The contract teachers from outside the country usually have long teaching experience as well as high academic qualifications before recruitment to the state.

It is only since 1975 that the minimum entry qualification for the Teacher Training College was raised to four ordinary level passes. Prior to 1975 the entry qualification was very low, i.e. in the 50s it was Primary VI, in 60s it was the Lower Certificate of Education. Although now the minimum entry requirement is four ordinary levels very often the four passes are in subjects such as Art, Religious Education, Malay Language and Malay Literature. Credit passes in Geography, History, Mathematics and Science are seldom included in the entrants' qualifications. The reasons for this are:-

- a. Very few students pass in the subjects Mathematics, Science, History and Geography;
- b. Students with passes at credit level in those subjects opt for further studies at the Duli Pengiran Muda Al-Muhtadeebillah College (Sixth Form College) which is a stepping

stone to further studies abroad on a Government scholarship.

With the increase in the number of students sent abroad for studies on Government scholarships, there is also an increase in the number of local teachers who hold high academic qualifications since some of these students have taken courses in education.

Turning to the third possible reason, very often BJCE Examination candidates fail the examination not wholly because of poor performance but partly because of the rigidity of the rules and regulations of this examination. According to the rules of the BJCE examination,

'candidate must enter and sit for a total of not fewer than six and not more than eight subjects'.³

In almost every school in Brunei Darussalam the curriculum contains the following eight subjects in order to meet the maximum eight subjects allowed by the BJCE examination regulations. These are Malay Language, English Language, History, Geography, Religious Education, Mathematics/Modern Mathematics/Modular Mathematics, Integrated Science, and Art/Home Science/Needlework/Woodwork/Agricultural

Science. A candidate has to pass the following subjects, Malay Language, English Language, History/Geography/Religious Education, Mathematics and Science before being awarded a certificate.

If the candidate fails any of these five subjects, he fails the examination as a whole. To some pupils English Language, Mathematics and Science are not easy subjects and many fail them even at the second attempt. The Public Examination Committee 1977 claimed that,

'the overall results had been affected by the results in English Language, Integrated Science and Modern Mathematics.....'.⁴

The groupings of the subjects in the examination regulations are too rigid. The fact that Religious Education, History, and Geography are grouped together makes it impossible for any subject other than Integrated Science to be taken from group seven by the candidate.

In the fourth possible reason, the failures in the English medium are partly due to the inability of the candidates to understand the questions and above all

to communicate in writing in a language which is not their mother tongue.

In the final possible reason, the environment and home background of pupils is seen as increasingly important as a determinant of educational performance. Paul Bellaby stressed that,

"The more prestigious the father's occupation, and the higher his and/or his wife's educational level, the greater the likelihood that the child would succeed in climbing the educational ladder. Being a girl, especially a working class girl made things more difficult".⁵

Most parents have high hopes for their children. If parents are well placed they hope their children will do as well; if they are poor they hope their children will do better. More prosperous parents, however, can provide advantages to assist their children's success in school and after. Also important, the parents offer a model and example of achievement, firmer expectations of success and a richer, more diversified home environment for the child.

The relationship between parental socio-economic status and the rates of dropouts in Brunei Darussalam is no exception to the relationship found in every other country.

Part of the above problem could be due to the lack of planning in education in the country. Of course, planning is not the panacea for all educational problem in Brunei Darussalam. However, if judiciously and systematically employed, it may help to mitigate some of the problems. Futhermore, for overall improvement of the quality of education in Brunei Darussalam, the educational system will have to be planned in its entirety. This means that educational planning will have to be given a major role and responsibility for guiding the future development of education.

The idea of systematic educational planning did not appear on the Bruneian educational scene until 1974. In that year, a Planning, Research and Guidance Unit was set up within the Department of Education in response to the recommendation of the 1972 Education Commission. Unfortunately from the beginning the PRGU faced many difficulties because it was instituted in haste and without adequate organisational preparation.

No qualified educational planners were assigned to it to carry out the planning tasks. There was inadequate administrative and support staff. The necessary organisational structures for carrying out planning activities were absent. The roles, responsibilities and functions implied in the concept of educational planning have never been explicitly defined and stated. As a result, the planning unit (PRGU) could not function as it should and was not able to implement its planning tasks in accordance with the requirement of systematic educational planning. Since its establishment little progress has been made to strengthen the staff of the PRGU.

Educational expansion in Brunei Darussalam has not been guided by any systematic planning. This deficiency prompted the 1972 Education Commission to recommend the establishment of the PRGU within the Department of Education. The planning of education thus became the responsibility of the Department of Education. However, because of its ineffectiveness, the PRGU was dismantled in 1980. Another body, called the Educational Planning and Development Division (EPDD), was set up within the Department of Education and charged with the responsibility of planning the development of education among other things. It is 10

years since the Department of Education was given the mandate to plan the development in Brunei Darussalam through initially a Planning, Research and Guidance Unit and later through the Educational Planning and Development Division. If that responsibility had been carried out properly, the Department of Education would have accumulated more than 10 years of invaluable training experience. Unfortunately, apart from some adhoc and sporadic planning exercises, there has been hardly any comprehensive, systematic and long term planning to date. Futhermore, such planning as there is faces the problem of effective implementation. Even though the planning organization had been set up, concerted and systematic planning was not carried out because of the lack of planning leadership as well as unresolved manpower and other problems.

As far as can be discovered, no study has been conducted to examine this problem in detail by officials of the Department of Education. The need to conduct research relating to this particular educational problem prompted the present study.

Apart from the fact that this study is carried out to assess the problem of educational planning in Brunei

Darussalam, it is hoped that the findings will increase the awareness of the authority directly concerned with educational planning of the need to plan the educational system in its entirety, including the development of an appropriate organizational and administrative machinery, as well as the need to carry out research so as to generate continuous information for planning and policy decisions.

While Brunei Darussalam has been fortunate in having more financial resources than most developing countries, its educational development could probably be carried out more effectively if it were guided by careful planning. Some part of the educational problems such as those relating to manpower shortages, high wastage rates, underutilized physical facilities, imbalance in the distribution of finance and the lack of coordination and integration between different types and levels of education can be attributed to the lack of planning. It is, of course true that these problems are also related to the wider socio-economic problems of the country. As such, educational planning by itself cannot solve all the problems. To be effective in solving the problems, educational planning and policies have to be accompanied by

appropriate planning and policies in other socio-economic spheres.

References

1. Brunei Board of Examination., Report of the Public Examination Committee. Brunei, 1977, p. 7.
2. Isaac, D.A. A study of predicting High School Dropouts. In Elizabeth Halsall. The Comprehensive School. Pergamon, 1973,. p. 117.
3. Brunei Board of Examination., Regulation for the Brunei Junior Certificate of Education Examinations. Brunei. 1979. p. 3.
4. Brunei Board of Examination., Report on Public Examination Committee op cit pp. 27-28.
5. Bellaby. P., The sociology of comprehensive schooling, Methuen, 1977, p. 107.

CHAPTER I

POLITICAL AND SOCIO ECONOMIC SETTING

THE BRIEF HISTORY OF BRUNEI DARUSSALAM

To many westerners who have had the opportunity of reading about the natural beauty of South East Asia through books, magazines or other forms of the media, perhaps the name of Borneo brings back uneasy memories. It conjures up a vision of head hunters, tales of piracy and tribal groups using blowpipes for hunting.¹ Those days are long past and the tradition of animal hunting has begun to die away too.

Perhaps, it may further surprise many people that Borneo (the third largest island in the World), which is located at the centre of South East Asia, no longer comprises a single political entity.² The island is made up of three separate political units. The greater part of Borneo, to the south, is part of

Indonesia and is known as Kalimantan. To the north west lies Sarawak and to the north east is Sabah.³ Both these countries joined the Federation of Malaysia in 1963 and are commonly known as East Malaysia. To the north of Sarawak is the small independent state of Brunei Darussalam.

No historian can determine exactly the date of the discovery of Brunei Darussalam. Archeological relics indicate that the oil rich Muslim sultanate in the vast Malay archipelago was already a well-established civilization as far back as the sixth or seventh century. Various documents and some early reports by Chinese historians state "documents of 518, 523 and 616 A.D. relate the visits the envoys to PO LO, YEO-PO-TI, a country of 45 sailing days from China".⁴ Numerous names have been given to Brunei Darussalam. The English adventurers and travellers during the early years named Brunei Darussalam, Burni, Bourni, Counee, Borney Borne and Borneo. Most probably the actual name of Brunei is a Sanskrit word which means "Seaform".

The history of Brunei showed that the country played a major role in the propagation of Islam. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, Islamic

missionaries from Brunei travelled to Celebes, Tidore and Tenade (parts of the Indonesian Republic). This was also said to be the beginning of the Brunei's expansion as a regional power. According to the State of Brunei Annual Report of 1974:

"Brunei was made famous and powerful by two Sultans. The first was Sultan Bolkiah, the fifth Islamic Sultan of Brunei and the son of Sultan Sulaiman. The second was Sultan Hassan, the tenth Islamic Sultan who was also known as 'Al Marhom Di Tunjang'." ⁵

It is believed that during the reign of Sultan Bolkiah, Brunei power extended to the Philippines and Seludong, and old name of Manila. During Sultan Hassan's reign Brunei's rule covered the whole island of Borneo and the area north of Borneo. Many visitors from the West who came to Brunei during Sultan Hassan's reign reported that Brunei was already producing brass cannon of superior quality to any found in the Malay archipelago.

Brunei's influence was also acknowledged by western travellers who visited Brunei. The first European who came to the country was Antony Pigafetta. He visited Brunei in 1521, and was greatly impressed by the splendour of the court and the size of the town, the population of which he estimated at 120,000. But the

State of Brunei Annual Report for 1974 suggests that Pigafetta's account is perhaps an exaggeration.

"Nevertheless, it is believed that at the beginning of the sixteenth century Brunei was a powerful kingdom. During Pigafetta's visits it was under the rule of Sultan Abdul Kahar, who was said to be about forty years of age about that time."⁶

This statement is supported by archeological works and the discovery of relics in Brunei and neighbouring Sarawak which indicate that Brunei was an old established Malay state. It is further supported by historical data especially in Chinese history, which shows that Brunei had a wide connection with her neighbours on the Asian continent around the sixth or seventh century A.D.⁷

From 1530 onward, European visitors to this part of the world were courting Brunei's influence, especially when they realised the enormous influence the kingdom then had.

The British influence began in 1609 but it was not until 1701 that a trading post was established in Banjarmasin (part of the Indonesian Republic). But their influence did not expand beyond this post, and the British failed to gain power in southern Borneo until the mid 19th century. In 1847, a treaty for

commercial relations and the mutual suppression of piracy was concluded between the British and Brunei. Provisions of this treaty were modified in 1856 to clarify jurisdiction over British subjects for crimes committed in Brunei. In 1888, the Sultan of Brunei agreed that foreign relations were controlled by the British Government, and in 1906, under a further agreement, a British Resident was appointed whose duty was to advise and assist in the administration of the state except in matters concerning local customs and religion.⁸

Between 1906 and 1941, a new form of government emerged to include a state council. Oil was discovered though the field was not actively developed because of economic recession in England and many other parts of the world. Production was further interrupted by the second world war.

During the second world war (1941 to 1945), the Japanese occupied Brunei. The social and economic development of Brunei returned to normal after the war. However, progress was made under the initiative and leadership of Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddin, the 28th Sultan of Brunei. During that time Brunei advanced

into the modern world in the economic, social and political fields.

But "On 4th October, 1967 the Sultan of Brunei, His Highness Sir Omar Ali Saifuddin, after seventeen years of benevolent and progressive rule, of his own free will, abdicated and was succeeded by his son, the then crown prince".⁹ The new Sultan (the present Sultan) is the twenty-ninth of his line, and His Highness's coronation took place in the new magnificent palace on August the first, 1968. He took the name of His Highness Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Mu'izzaddin Waddaulah.

The present characteristics of the country are a result of Brunei's past social, cultural and religious patterns and traditions. Some of these historical legacies are worth mentioning here because of their strong and direct influence on the present social, religious and cultural patterns of life and the system of Government. Firstly, on the evidence of Chinese historical annals, Brunei Darussalam has always been a Malay sultanate eventhough it later became an Islamic Malay Sultanate. Secondly, because the Malays constitute the dominant racial group in the country, Malay has been declared the official language since

1959 and the Malay culture as the basis upon which the national identity is to be developed. Thirdly, there has always been a tradition of strong Islamic consciousness among the Brunei Malays. To preserve this consciousness Islam has been declared the state religion. In recognition of the role of Islam the Sultan had declared that the national ideology is to be equated with the acceptance of Islam as a complete way of life. Finally, to preserve and revive Malay customs and traditions the Department of 'Adat Istiadat Negara' (Custom and Tradition Department) and the Historical Centre have been established for achieving these ends.

GEOGRAPHY

Geographically, Brunei Darussalam is located on the north-west coast of the island of Borneo and faces the South China Sea. The total area is 2,226 square miles (5765 sq. km.). Its latitudinal position is between 4°4" and 5°3" north and 114°4" and 115°2" east respectively. The two territorial enclaves of Brunei Darussalam are wedged into the north-east of the state of Sarawak. As an equatorial country, Brunei Darussalam shares the climatic characteristic and seasonal variations of countries lying within the equatorial region. The temperatures is around 80 degrees fahrenheit with some variations during the year. Average annual rainfall is slightly more than 100 inches. These factors have combined to produce an exuberant equatorial forest. Topographically, Brunei Darussalam is mainly hilly undulating in the east and south, and low-lying in the west and along the coast.

POPULATION

The population of Brunei Darussalam increased from about 136,000 in 1971 to 193,000 in 1981 (see Figure 1.4). The natural rate of population growth per annum is about 2.7 per cent. Using 1980 statistics the racial composition is made up of 61.2 per cent Malays, 20.7 per cent Chinese, 11.8 per cent other indigenous groups most of whom live in villages while the majority of the Chinese live in the five main towns or commercial centres (Bandar Seri Begawan, Kuala Belait, Seria, Tutong Town and Bangar Town). Most of the Europeans work with the Brunei Shell Petroleum (BSP) and Brunei Liquefied Natural Gas (BLNG) Company in the Belait District. They live in the housing estate provided by their employers. The main concentrations of population are within the outskirts of Bandar Seri Begawan (capital of Brunei Darussalam) which is rapidly becoming important as an administrative, commercial, cultural and educational centre, as well as within the municipalities of Seria and Kuala Belait.

Figure 1.4

POPULATION BY RACIAL GROUP AND NET ANNUAL ADDITION
1971 - 1981

Year	Racial Groups					Net Annual Addition
	Malay	Other Indigenous	Chinese	Others	Total	
1971	89,268	8,552	31,925	6,511	136,256	-
1972	92,095	10,103	32,680	7,102	141,980	5724
1973	93,762	11,470	33,037	7,611	145,880	3900
1974	96,195	12,910	33,666	8,169	150,940	5060
1975	98,739	14,363	34,336	8,679	156,180	5240
1976	101,403	15,826	35,049	9,318	161,600	5420
1977	104,155	17,320	35,804	9,921	167,200	5600
1978	107,080	18,818	36,593	10,509	173,000	5820
1979	110,019	20,336	37,403	11,252	179,010	6010
1980	113,256	21,905	38,304	11,755	185,200	6190
1981	125,717	15,175	39,461	12,469	192,832	7603

Source: Statistics Section, Brunei Statistical Year Book 1979/80 and 1981/82, Bandar Seri Begawan: Economic Planning Unit, State Secretariat, p. 5.

SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

Over the centuries, Brunei Darussalam has been under three different systems of government. Until the early years of the 20th century, Brunei Darussalam was ruled by a traditional type of Malay aristocratic government. However, on the basis of the Anglo-Bruneian Agreements of 1906 and 1959, the British introduced a form of administration known as the Residency system. During this period, Residents were appointed by the British Government to be the chief administrators of Brunei Darussalam. They had control over all matters relating to the Government except those relating to religion.

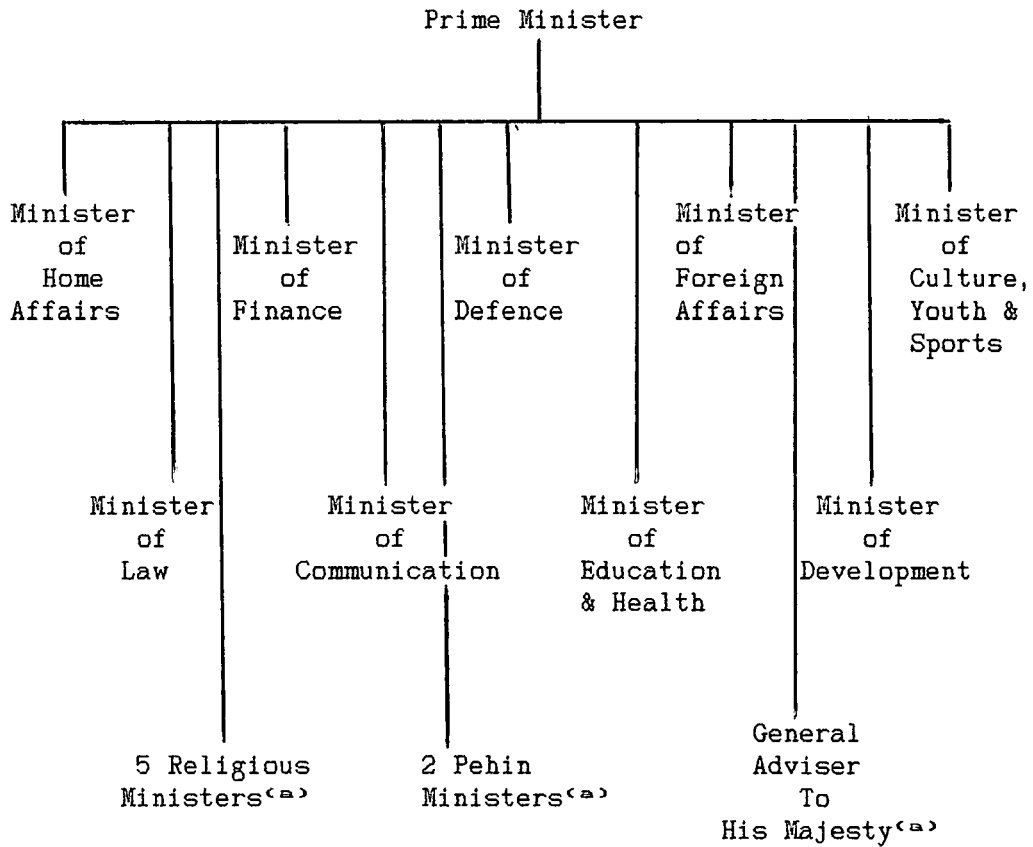
Since 1959, Brunei Darussalam has become a constitutional monarchy. Under the Anglo-Bruneian Agreement of 1959, Brunei Darussalam was granted internal self government. The British, however, were still responsible for Brunei's foreign affairs and security. The British Resident was replaced by a High Commissioner whose rule in Brunei Darussalam included giving advice on internal government administration and other matters, except matters relating to the religion, Malay customs and traditions. The advisory

role of the High Commissioner was finally withdrawn on the basis of the Anglo-Bruneian Treaty of 1971. A local has been appointed as the General Adviser to the Sultan. However, the British were still responsible for Brunei's foreign affairs, and the responsibility for defence and security was shared by both the Bruneian and the British Governments. On the basis of the Anglo-Bruneian Treaty of 1978, Brunei Darussalam became a fully independent state from January 1984.

Although Brunei Darussalam is a small country, the central administration is a huge bureaucracy. It is made up of fifty-four autonomous government agencies and nine Ministers (see Appendix 1.1.). Figure 1.5. provides a diagrammatic presentation of the ministerial structure of the government. Suffice it to say that the present Sultan, as head of state, has direct control over all state matters in addition to holding the posts of Prime Minister, Minister of Finance and Minister of Internal Affairs in the newly created ministerial administration which took effect from 1st January 1984, the day Brunei Darussalam became a fully independent nation. The other ministerial posts are the Minister of Defence, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Minister of Culture, Youth and Sports, the Minister of Law, the Minister of Communications,

Figure 1.5

GOVERNMENT CABINET AND NON CABINET MINISTERS



Note: ^(a) Non Cabinet Ministers

the Minister of Education and Health and the Minister of Development.

In addition to the public administrative network, there are also five State Councils which perform special functions, and several other councils, boards, agencies, corporations and committees. The State Councils and their respective functions are as follows:

a) Council of Succession

The function of this Council is to determine succession to the throne should the need arise.

b) Privy Council

When in session, this Council is presided over by the Sultan. The members of this Council are the "Wazirs", "Cheterias", and the "Menteris" who are appointed according to the tradition of the Royal custom "Adat Istiadat Di-Raja".

The function of this Council is to advise the Sultan on:

- i) Matters concerning royal prerogatives of mercy;
- ii) The amendment or revocation of any of the provisions of the constitution; and
- iii) The appointment of Malay customary ranks and the award of titles and honours.

c) Council of Ministers

When in session, this Council is presided over by the Sultan. The main function of this Council is to consider all executive matters and those which are to be tabled at the Council of State meeting.

d) Council of State

When in session, this Council is presided over by a Speaker appointed by the Sultan. The function of this Council is to introduce bills, pass laws, exercise

financial control and scrutinize government policies and their implementation. The Council meets once a year.

e) Religious Council

This Council acts as an advisory body to the Sultan on religious matters.

Among the five State Councils, the Council of Ministers and the Council of State have special significance in the overall administration since both Councils have decision-making powers on state matters. The Council of Ministers has a decision-making authority on all executive matters while the Council of State has the decision-making authority on the approval of the annual national budget, legislation, government policies and the national development plan.

Political activities and the formation of political parties are not prohibited by the government.¹⁰ However, because of the bitter experience of the 1962 abortive rebellion^(a) and the fact that the emergency law is still in force, there is very little political activity in Brunei Darussalam.

^(a) The "Parti Raayat" (People Party) were banned after an attempt to topple the government on the eighth of December, 1962. According to the Parti Raayat, their motive was to liberate Brunei from foreign rule, but government considered them 'rebels' who tried to overthrow the government.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Brunei Darussalam is a multi-racial and multi-cultural country. People of diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds live in relative harmony and enjoy many social benefits. As a welfare state, the Brunei Darussalam Government subsidizes the main items of consumption: rice, fuel and gas. There is no tax on personal income and education and medical services are provided free. The government plays an important role in the overall socio-economic development of the country through its five year National Development Plans (NDPs). So far three NDPs (1953-1958; 1962-1966; and 1975-1979) have been implemented and the present NDPs which was implemented in 1980 is due to be completed in 1985. Through the five year NDPs, the government has invested heavily in the public sector for the development and further enhancement of physical and social infrastructure, services and other facilities. This investment in the public sector is also expected to have positive effects on the development of the private sector.

The government policy for social and economic development has both short-term and long-term objectives. The long-term (20 years) objective is to

create an affluent, integrated and dignified society.¹¹ This general aim is to be achieved through the implementation of the following policies:¹²

1. To provide opportunities for the people of Brunei Darussalam to participate in all kinds of activities (including commerce, business and industry) irrespective of race and origin;
2. to provide a national system of education;
3. to develop and revive the growth of Brunei's Malay culture for the development of a national identity;
4. to propagate and promote Islam as an ideal way of life and to make it the foundation of national development;
5. to minimize disparity of income distribution and development within particular areas or districts or among social or racial groups;
and

6. to create and develop disciplined, dynamic and responsible youth as agents of change.

These long-term goals are the guiding principles for planning Brunei's five-year NDPs. In general, the following strategies have been adopted for implementing the present five year NDP and possibly the next five year NDP:

- a) To devote more funds and manpower resources to projects which will have greater implications on the development of Brunei Darussalam in the post independence era;

- b) to reduce sectional imbalance and to channel more resources to the productive employment of labour and capital in order to ensure that a six per cent economic growth rate per annum is achieved and maintained. The sectional imbalance is to be reduced through the rapid development of productive sectors such as agriculture, forestry, fisheries and manufacturing;

- c) to enable the government to participate in the productive sectors and to induce and encourage

the participation of the private sector, both local and foreign; and

d) to enable the Government to exert a greater influence on the economic and social development of the state. For this purpose greater emphasis is to be given to the establishment of more agricultural development schemes in rural areas as well as forestry, fisheries and industrial projects.

For many years Brunei Darussalam was and still is dependent on oil and natural gas industries. Little progress has been made in the agricultural, forestry, fisheries and industrial sectors. Close coordination between educational planning and socio-economic planning is essential in order to achieve the objective of economic diversification. To make education an economically-relevant undertaking, the kinds of education will have to be planned in line with the socio-economic development programmes and the educational system itself must be made as effective as possible for it to meet the objective of turning out the various categories of manpower needed. If planning at the national level is not properly

organised, coordination between the two kinds of planning will be difficult.

In 1981, the population of Brunei Darussalam was 192,831 and the total labour force was 70,690. Of this total labour force 68,128 were employed (see Figure 1.6). The three main industrial sectors employing a large proportion of workers are:

- i) Community, social and personal services with a total workforce of 29,282;
- ii) wholesale and retail trades, restaurant and hotels with a total workforce of 7,363; and
- iii) construction with a total workforce of 12,644.

Sectors such as agriculture, forestry, fishing and manufacturing employed between 3,000 and 4,000 each. The distribution of employment by industrial sector and sex is given in Figure 1.7. The distribution of employment by occupation, sector and sex is given in Figure 1.8.

The distribution of employment figures reflects the existing imbalance of the overall economic

Figure 1.6

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE AND INACTIVE POPULATION BY SEX, 1981

Economically active and inactive population	Male	Female	Total
Employer	881	70	951
Employee	48,313	14,198	62,511
Self employed	3,375	899	4,256
Family worker	186	224	410
Total employed	52,737	15,391	68,128
Unemployed	1,122	1,440	2,562
Not economically active	10,897	36,882	47,779
Not stated	25	31	56
Total not economically active	12,044	38,353	50,397
Grand Total	64,781	53,744	118,525

Source: Economic Planning Unit, State Secretariat, 1982

Figure 1.7

EMPLOYMENT BY MAJOR INDUSTRY AND SEX, 1981

Industry	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	2,478	957	3,435
Mining and Quarrying	3,478	385	3,863
Manufacturing	2,223	560	2,783
Electricity, Gas & Water	1,776	185	1,961
Construction	12,089	555	12,644
Wholesales & Retail trade, Restaurant and Hotel	4,953	2,410	7,363
Transport, Storage and Communication	3,849	680	4,529
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Service	1,377	633	2,010
Community, Social and Personal Services	20,327	8,955	29,282
Unknown	187	71	258
Total	57,737	15,391	68,128

Source: Economic Planning Unit, State Secretariat Brunei, 1982.

Figure 1.8

EMPLOYMENT BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUP, SECTOR AND SEX, 1981

Occupational Group	All Sectors			Private Sector			Public Sector		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Professional, Technical and Related Workers	6,588	3,250	9,838	2,353	734	3,087	4,235	2,516	6,751
Administrative and Managerial Workers	1,936	125	2,061	1,094	67	1,161	842	58	900
Clerical Workers	3,721	3,968	7,689	1,353	2,019	3,372	2,368	1,949	4,317
Sales Workers	2,755	1,317	4,072	2,726	1,289	4,015	29	28	57
Transport and Communication Workers	4,930	32	4,962	3,058	22	3,080	1,872	10	1,882
Service Workers (including members of the army)	10,129	4,628	14,757	2,122	2,441	4,563	8,007	2,187	10,194
Agricultural, Forestry Workers, Fishermen, Hunters and Trappers	4,721	1,107	5,838	2,089	559	2,648	2,642	548	3,190
Production and Related Workers, Equipment Operators and Labourers not classified elsewhere	17,947	964	18,911	13,697	779	14,476	4,250	185	4,435
All Occupation Groups	52,737	15,391	68,128	28,492	77,910	36,402	31,726	24,245	31,726

Source: Economic Planning Unit, State Secretariat Brunei, 1982.

development. In terms of distribution by occupational categories, four occupations that absorbed a large proportion of the labour force were:

1. clerical workers,
2. service workers,
3. production and related workers, and
4. professional, technical and related workers.

About 44,130 of the workers were locals and the rest were foreigners. The majority of the foreigners were employed in the private sector with major concentrations in the construction industry, transportation and other service industries.

In Brunei Darussalam in general problems appear because of a manpower shortage. Because of the shortage of indigenous workers, Brunei Darussalam has recruited a large number of foreign workers. All of the three previous five year national development plans have been successfully implemented largely because of the inflow of a large number of foreign workers, especially from Sarawak (East Malaysia). On the basis of good economic growth prospects over the next ten to fifteen years and the continuing shortage

of indigenous labour, more foreign workers are likely to enter Brunei's labour force.

The fact that about 36 per cent of the total labour force are foreign workers clearly indicates the seriousness of the shortage of skilled, semi - skilled and unskilled workers in Brunei Darussalam. The distribution of foreign workers in 1981 by occupational group is shown in Figure 1.9 and by sector and occupational category in Figure 1.10.

Although the Brunei Darussalam government is unlikely to experience financial problems with regard to the implementation of future NDPs, the shortage of local skilled manpower will persist. The problem could, however, be mitigated to some extent if appropriate skilled foreign workers could be induced to work in Brunei Darussalam.

Apart from the above, there are other problems which the Government must take into consideration in planning socio-economic development. The Malays in villages and the Chinese-in-town pattern of social grouping is the most difficult social problem to solve. If this problem is not systematically reduced through social restructuring it could worsen the

Figure 1.9

FOREIGN WORKERS: ABSOLUTE NUMBERS AND AS A PROPORTION OF TOTAL EMPLOYMENT IN 1981 BY MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL GROUP

	Total number of foreign workers	Foreign workers as a % of total employment
Professional, technical and related workers	2,896	30
Administrative and managerial workers	552	29
Clerical workers	1,021	14
Sales workers	1,138	34
Transports and communication workers	1,106	40
Agricultural, forestry workers, fishermen, hunters and trappers	698	25
Production and related workers, equipment operators & labourers	8,723	54
All occupations	20,118	36

Source: C. Colclough and M. Godfrey, Brunei Manpower Masterplan, British Council, 1982. Table 1.1, p. 10.

Figure 1.10

EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGN WORKERS BY SECTOR AND BROAD OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, 1981

Occupational Category	Government	Mining	Other Sector	Total
Scientist/Engineers/Architects	106	369	461	936
Technicians	88	69	310	467
Doctors/Dentists/Veterinarians	64	1	19	84
Nurses/Midwives/Medical Assistants, etc.	114	4	75	193
Teachers	483	6	322	811
Other Professional and Technical	185	104	235	524
Administrators and Managers	37	41	514	592
Other Clerical Workers	106	71	877	1,091
Sales and Service Workers	1,723 ^(a)	22	4,226 ^(b)	6,170
Agricultural Worker	282	1	746	1,127
Production Supervisor and Foremen	15	183	294	505
Construction Workers	65	26	5,190	5,429
Other Production Workers	49	327	3,464	3,886
Material Handlers/Equipment Operators	75	155	1,794	2,080
Labourers	277	42	675	1,007
Total	3,669	1,421	19,202	24,902 ^(c)

Source: C. Colclough and M. Godfrey, Brunei Manpower Masterplan, British Council, 1982. Table 5.1, p. 46.

- Notes:
- (a) Includes 1,450 'protective service workers', mostly Gurkhas.
 - (b) Includes 1,007 'cooks, waiters, etc.', 933 amahs and 866 salesmen/and shop assistants.
 - (c) Total includes 610 unallocated to sectors because of lack of information.

social, economic and cultural polarizations in the future. In recent years the Government appears to be taking steps to solve this problem. The establishment of resettlement schemes by the government appears to be a move in the right direction. However, more will have to be done to improve the quality of the settlements and the integration of the various communities.

The land area of Brunei Darussalam is very small for any extensive agriculture. However, this fact does not preclude many other options for developing the agricultural sector, provided agricultural programmes are carefully planned. Similarly, the limited size of Brunei's territorial water does not provide a sound economic basis for the development of a modern fishing industry.

The lack of appropriate technology, skilled manpower and raw materials are factors that contribute to the difficulty of developing and diversifying the non-oil sector of the economy. The economy appears to be heavily dependent on the oil and gas industries and on foreign workers.

Apart from the above, Brunei Darussalam is not strategically located in relation to trading centres and commercial routes as is, for example, Singapore. Because of this, costs of transportation of raw material are high. Furthermore, the potential market for any industrial product is small. There are problems which planners face in trying to bring about economic viability once oil is exhausted.

In view of the bright prospect for economic growth in future and the increasing demands for labour for most occupational categories, it is essential that the educational system should be planned to make it efficient, relevant and responsive to the socio-economic needs of the country. For achieving these ends that planning must be given an important role in education. Education must contribute to increasing the supply of educated manpower in those areas which are important for national development.

References

1. Hulton W., 'Brunei: Paradox or Paradise?' Singapore Airlines Magazine. January 1979. p.21.
2. Human Relations Areas Files Staff, Country Survey Series, North Borneo, Brunei, Serawak (British Borneo), New Heaven: Human Relations Area Files, 1956. p. 19.
3. Jones, L. W., The Population of Borneo, A Study of the People of Serawak, Sabah and Brunei, London: The Athlone Press, 1966. p. 3.
4. Colonial Report, State of Brunei 1925. London: HMSO, 1926. p. 5.
5. Colonial Report, op. cit., p. 1.
6. Colonial Report, op. cit., p. 1.
7. Government of Brunei, State of Brunei, Annual Report 1974. Information Section, State Secretariat, Brunei. p. 383.
8. Government of Brunei, State of Brunei, Annual Report 1976, The Information Section, State Secretariat, Brunei. p. 436.
9. Government of Brunei, State of Brunei, Annual Report 1976, op. cit., p. 494.
10. Brunei Information Department., Briefing 1981, Bandar Seri Begawan: State Secretariat, 1982. p. 135.
11. Chua Peng Siong, Focus on National Development Plan 1975-1979 Bandar Seri Begawan: Information Department, State Secretariat Brunei, 1982), p. 4.
12. Chua Peng Siong, op. cit., p. 4.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN BRUNEI DARUSSALAM

Formal education in Brunei Darussalam was not introduced until 1912. The traditional society lacked schools but it did not lack education because everywhere in the country there were procedures for transmitting to the young the knowledge which, in traditional society, they needed to assume their roles as adults. Education for the Malays, who are the main race in the society, had been a religious type of education. Islamic religious instruction was conducted in "Suraus" (i.e. small mosques) or at the instructors' own homes. In some cases, the instructor would go from house to house to give tuition. The nature of the lesson was essentially learning to repeat the Arabic formulae correctly, studying the Arabic alphabet for the purpose of reading the Arabic

prayers and text and memorization. The child was also taught to read the Koran which is the holy book of the Muslim religion, and a few basic tenets of Islam. The result of such teaching was Brunei Muslims who strongly believed and conscientiously practised the Islamic faith.

Malay-medium vernacular education was introduced in 1912, 8 years after the arrival of the British Resident. The first school was opened in Brunei Town with an enrolment of 53 boys¹. To increase the enrolment the British Resident introduced a School Attendance Act in 1939. This Act gave the British Resident the authority to enforce compulsory schooling for all Malay boys between the ages of 7 and 14 who lived within two miles of a Government vernacular school.²

In 1914 the school faced a serious problem of staffing that caused its closure, at least for a time until a new teacher could be found. The year 1915 marked a growing interest among a few people in education. The report for that year recorded an initiative taken by a local Malay who had started a class in his own house to cater for a dozen children in Muara.³

Educational opportunity was at first limited to boys, but in 1930, this opportunity was extended to girls. In 1935 there were 15 Government primary Malay medium schools in the state. Five years later, 8 more schools were built bringing the number of schools in the state to 23 with a teaching force of 56 teachers of whom, however, only 8 were trained.

The period before World War II shows a slow but steady development of education. By 1940 there were about 1706 children in schools. Most parents appeared to be reluctant to send their children especially their daughters to school. To overcome such attitudes, the Government took stern action in 1939.⁴ An enactment was made which stated that "any person who fails to comply with the requirements of the section on the occasion of the withdrawal of any child for whose attendance at school he is responsible shall be guilty of an offence and liable to a fine not exceeding five dollars, or in default of payment to imprisonment for a period of not exceeding fourteen days". Such measures did not immediately change the situation. Until 1946 the Government continued to encounter difficulties "to make parents understand the obligation to send children to school regularly".⁵ A school attendance officer was thus appointed in 1947

to relieve teachers from the duty of investigating cases of non-attendance.

This reluctance to send children to school can be explained if we look at the socio-economic and cultural conditions of the time. Most Malay parents could not appreciate the benefits to be gained from education. They were largely engaged in activities such as fishing and farming which were the main source of income. Children even in their early teens constituted an additional labour force and were strongly encouraged to work for the family.

The discovery of a workable oilfield in 1929 gave added importance to the state and its revenues increased. But it was not until 1947, when income from the oilfields was first received, that rapid progress began. The demands of the oil industry brought in skilled workers from outside Brunei. As a result there was a need for English medium education to cater for the children of these foreigners. The British Malaya Petroleum Company opened a primary English medium school in 1933.

The revolution in China in the early twentieth century had enormous repercussions on overseas Chinese. One

of the effects of the revolution was to stimulate the development of education. The Chinese community in Brunei started a Chinese vernacular school in 1916. By 1939 there were five such schools.

Educational development in Brunei was temporarily disrupted by the Japanese occupation from 1941 to 1945. During the Japanese occupation several educational changes took place. The Department of Education was under the control and administration of Japanese military officers. No Bruneian were allowed to take part in the Department or in the administration and inspection of schools. All school teachers were forced to learn to read and write Japanese, following which Japanese was introduced into the curriculum of the school.

The teaching of Japanese was fully supervised by the military. By 1944 additional teachers' courses were organised for teachers and headmasters for Brunei Darussalam. All Government officers were also force to learn the Japanese language.

The Japanese occupation ended when the allied forces landed in Brunei Darussalam in June 1945. After the war, social and economic development in Brunei

Darussalam slowly returned to normal. Temporary school buildings were erected in towns and in the rural areas. In the meantime a five year plan for the replacement and rebuilding of Malay vernacular schools was drawn up.

By 1950 the educational facilities provided by the state were as follows:

- a) Brunei Government Malay vernacular schools and English schools were wholly supported by State funds.
- b) There was a school for the children of senior staff at Seria (oil town) wholly supported by the British Malayan Petroleum Company.
- c) A Catholic English school was established, independent but with Government aid and as in the case of the Seria English School supported by the British Malayan Petroleum Company.
- d) Chinese vernacular schools were set up, independent but receiving grant in aid from the Government.
- e) The British Malayan Petroleum Company trade school was wholly supported by the company.

In 1954, the Sultan in Council approved a Development Plan for Education 1954-1960. The year 1955 saw the setting up of an advisory committee on education and in 1956 the Brunei Teachers' Training Centre was established in Brunei Town. It was in this year that the school enrolment first exceeded 10,000.⁶ The slow increase in school enrolment was not so much due to a reluctance of parents to educate their children but to the flexibility of the School Attendance Act. The Act provided an exemption that 'No child shall be compelled to attend any school which shall be distant more than two miles from his usual place of residence.' Since communication was difficult in those days, parents who were keen and conscientious concerning their children's education had often to make a considerable effort in order to get them to school.

Today, every child of 5 years old is expected to be in school and facilities are provided for the children to continue in schools until the age of 13 or 14. Although there has been no amendment to the School Attendance Act, attendance at school has become practically universal. Though there are still a few children who are not sent to school or who leave school before completing primary education, the

number of these children is very small and those leaving school early are usually girls. Some girls leave early to provide domestic help in their houses or to be married. Those who do not attend school at all usually live in very isolated areas.

In 1951 the English medium preparatory classes were started with 9 pupils. However, by 1959, enrolment at Government English medium preparatory classes had increased to 540. In the same year there were 2,256 pupils attending Government Malay Medium schools of which 1,852 were boys and 404 girls. The figure multiplied rapidly and reached 3,175 in 1954 and 5,797 in 1958. In 1959 also there were 3,459 pupils attending Chinese medium schools and 2,324 pupils attending English medium mission schools (see Figure 2.1) The expansion of school enrolment was followed by an expansion in school building. There were 29 schools in 1951 and the number had grown to 52 in 1958. However not all the schools were in permanent buildings. In remote or rural areas schools were built by villagers using jungle materials. In fact it was the government policy at that time that "any Malay village community desiring a school could erect their own school building and teachers quarters with jungle materials aided by small Government grants with

Figure 2.1

PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT 1951 AND 1959

Year/Type of School	1951			1959		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Malay Vernacular School	1852	404	2256	4590	2574	7164
Government English School	6	3	9	385	155	540
Chinese Vernacular School	899	584	1483	1944	1555	3459
English Mission Schools	635	323	958	1313	1011	2324

Source: Government of Brunei, Annual Reports 1958 and 1959 and Colonial Report, State of Brunei 1951, 1954 (HMSO)

voluntary village labour being used"⁷ The Government however promised that "if after three years the school was successful and functioning, a permanent new school building and permanent new teacher's quarters would be built at the Government's expense."⁸ Such a policy was designed to meet the growing demand for schools from village people.

Although the pace of educational development was slow in the 1920s and 1930s and was temporarily disrupted by the Japanese occupation in World War II, educational expansion and development gathered momentum in the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s. In 1981, there were 347 schools, 4 technical schools and 2 teachers' colleges in the state. During that year more primary schools were built. There are now 151 Government primary schools, the majority of which operate two sessions: the morning session being for the Malay medium classes and the afternoon session being for the English medium preparatory classes.

Malay medium secondary classes were introduced in 1966. In 1981 statistics show that there were then 17 Government secondary school comprising 10 Malay medium secondary schools and 7 English medium secondary school; 2 teachers' colleges; 3 trade schools; one

agricultural training centre and one sixth form centre. See figure 2.2.

A remarkable and important development was the introduction of English as a second language into the curriculum of Malay vernacular education. In 1951 reports stated that the introduction of English language had a great value since it bridged the gap between the Malay and the English education systems.⁹ The Annual Report 1952 stated two objectives of incorporating the teaching of English language into the curriculum of the Malay vernacular school.

- "a) It prepares children for entry into English school; and
- b) it gives those who do not 'make the grade' an opportunity to study it on a progressive basis as a second language."¹⁰

About 1958 Malay vernacular education began to develop rapidly. The number of children attending schools doubled in that year. School administration was organised whereby parent committees were set up in most large schools. The committee was responsible for advising the Government on the organisation of school meals and school activities. In addition to this both parents and teachers were represented on the four District Advisory Councils. In these Councils,

Figure 2.2

NUMBER OF SCHOOL AND EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1969 - 1981

SCHOOL/INSTITUTION	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
<u>GOVERNMENT SCHOOL:</u>													
Kindergarten/Preschool											107	111	112
Primary/Preparatory	104	112	115	116	121	120	122	128	135	137	141	148	151
Secondary	10	11	12	15	16	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17
Technical	-	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4
Teacher Training	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Higher Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	115	124	130	137	141	140	144	149	156	159	270	282	286
<u>PRIVATE SCHOOL:</u>													
Kindergarten	13	13	14	14	13	13	14	17	19	25	26	31	33
Primary	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	18	18	20	20	21	24
Secondary	11	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Vocational ^a	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Teacher Training	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Higher Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	41	40	41	41	40	40	42	46	48	56	57	63	68
Grand Total	156	164	171	178	181	180	186	195	204	215	327	344	353

Source: Statistic Section, Economic Planning Unit, Brunei Statistical Yearbook 1979-80, Brunei Darussalam, Table 10.2, p. 87 and 1981-82 Table 10.2, p. 87.

NOTE: @ operated by Brunei Shell.

educational matters were discussed, and the resolutions forwarded to the State Education Officer for further consideration by the Education Advisory Committee and the State Council.

THE EDUCATION POLICY OF 1962 AND 1972

A serious effort to improve and revise the educational system was made in 1959. The Government had appointed a Commission to review the education system led by two Malaysian educationalists, Aminuddin Baki and Paul Chang. Their report (also known as the Aminuddin Baki/Paul Chang Report) was submitted to the Government in 1959. It took nearly two years for the Government to consider the report. It was approved by the Council of Ministers in October, 1962. Its recommendations became the basis of the 1962 Education Policy.

The policy proposed by Aminuddin Baki and Paul Chang, 1959 was that the aim should be to set up a national education system using the Malay language as the only medium of instruction for all schools throughout the State. There were various reasons why they arrived at this recommendation. First, the majority of the population at that time was Malay. It seemed reasonable, therefore, to develop an education system in the Malay language. Secondly, both authors of the report had seen the difficulties experienced by the Malays in their attempt to create a national system of education.

The policy proposed a system which would have the following general aims:-

- a) "providing the country with the necessary manpower qualified to work in administrative, commercial, industrial and other fields;
- b) establishing a common national identity for the people of Brunei whose loyalty is undivided; and
- c) providing equal opportunities of education, increasing the standard of education of the people and giving general education to all groups of people of Brunei in order to turn them into an educated community which is a precondition of the success of democracy in Brunei in the future."''

If the above aims had been implemented or at least some of them had been, the education system would have become somewhat better integrated. In view of the rapid development of education in Brunei, another Education Commission was appointed by the Government in 1970. The Education Commission of 1970 made recommendations for a new education policy which was subsequently known as the 1972 Education Policy. The main aims of the new education policy are as follows:-

- a) "to make Malay the main medium of instruction in national primary and secondary schools as soon as possible in line with the requirement of the Constitution;

- b) to raise the standard of the usage of English in the primary and secondary school in this country;
- c) to place more emphasis on religious tuition (Islam) in line with the requirement of the Constitution;
- d) to provide a continuous education for all Brunei children for a period of nine years: six years in the primary school and three years in the lower secondary school;
- e) to ensure, by the provision of syllabuses of common content that the students' education is comparable in all schools;
- f) to make secondary education accessible to all on the basis of their needs and abilities;
- g) to provide all Brunei children with every possible opportunity to make themselves useful in the development of the country in order to meet the needs of the country so that all the needs of the country would be fulfilled by Brunei people themselves; and
- h) to promote by means of the above, a national identity upon which a sense of loyalty to Brunei rests, as well as generating the necessary efficiency and flexibility in the education system to meet the developmental needs of the country."¹²

The most recently established high level committee called the "educational problem study committee" was appointed by the Sultan in August 1982 to investigate the problems and to evaluate the implementation of the 1972 education policy. At the present time the committee is in process of carrying out this task.

THE AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE EDUCATION COMMISSION
REPORT OF 1972

The publication of the Education Commission Report of 1972 was only a "continuation" of the Aminuddin Baki/Paul Chang report of 1959. It is noteworthy that "the Government of His Highness the Sultan of Brunei realises the need for a sound system of education in order interalia to produce skilled manpower to tackle the development of the country in line with the needs, aspirations and status of Brunei Darussalam".¹³ The Committee was appointed by His Highness the Sultan of Brunei Darussalam and it outlined solutions for the obstacles hindering the creation of an ideal national system of education. In this latest education commission report, the importance for Brunei of having her own system of education without delay is emphasized.

The need to introduce a national system of education was clearly enunciated in the Brunei Education Commission Report of 1972.

The eight aims recommended by the Commission are, with a few exceptions, similar to the aims mentioned

in the Aminuddin Baki/Paul Chang Report of 1959. This is clearly seen to be so when the Commission notes that "the education system of 1962, with certain modifications is still valid for immediate implementation."¹⁴

The Commission also had recommended that the teaching of foreign languages, particularly the English language, as subjects in the national school was to be continued. However, it indicated that those subjects should be integrated into the national curriculum. In the case of Chinese language, the status of the language within the curriculum was to be similar to that of other languages offered in the national schools.

With regard to Islamic religious knowledge, the Commission stressed that "the education system as required by the policy, must take into full consideration the question of the role of religious education within the system which does not entail other subjects in accordance with the spirit of Islam".¹⁵ For non Muslim students the existing practice is to be continued. However, if they do not wish to attend the lessons in Islamic Religious

Knowledge, they can opt for moral/civic education instead.

The major steps as recommended by the Education Commission Report of 1972 are as follows:

a) REORGANISATION OF THE EDUCATION STRUCTURE.

Under this plan an Education Council was to be formed. Its members would include "the Director of the Language and Literature Bureau, the Commissioner of Labour, the senior officer of the Economic and Statistical Section of State Secretariat/National Planning Unit, the Chairman of the Public Service Commission, the Head of the Religious Affairs Department and the Director of the Education Department himself. The Secretary of the Council should be the Head of the Education Planning, Research and Guidance Unit." The Council would become the highest authority in the education structure whose main function would be to see that the national system of education as required by the Education Policy of 1962 amended in 1972 should be carried out according to plan and to submit the education plan for the country to the Government from time to time before its implementation.

Another major reform recommended by the Education Commission Report of 1972 was to establish a Planning, Research and Guidance Unit within the Education Department. "This unit should be established primarily to assist in strengthening and streamlining the existing system of education in line with the national aims and objectives."¹⁷ For example in providing for an adequate supply of fully qualified, trained and dedicated teachers as well as adequate classrooms and schools based on an effective pupil/teacher ratio, it would be essential to formulate a plan to be backed by projects and programmes with strict timetables for implementation. Such a plan should be in line with the aims and objectives of the future National Development Plan. This unit is headed by the Head of the Planning, Research and Guidance unit.

b) THE ABOLITION OF THE POSTS OF ENGLISH AND MALAY SUPERINTENDENTS OF BOTH SECONDARY AND PRIMARY EDUCATION SECTION.

Another major reform proposed for the education structure was the abolition of the posts of English and Malay Superintendents of both secondary and primary education. The reason for the abolition of these two posts was simply that the names themselves

were no longer relevant in the national system of education. In their place the offices of superintendent of secondary and primary education were created.

c) THE CURRICULUM OF THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

The Education Commission Report of 1972 emphasized that in order to carry out the Education Policy of 1962 as mentioned in the Aminuddin Baki/Paul Chang Report of 1959, the curriculum in the national system of education must be geared towards the primary aim. In order to achieve this aim, the Education Commission has entrusted a newly created unit, that is the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit with the responsibility of carrying out this enormous task.

d) THE EDUCATION POLICY.

The Education Commission Report of 1972 clearly indicated the education policy which Brunei should adopt. The education policy suitable to Brunei was first mentioned in the Aminuddin Baki/Paul Chang Report of 1959 and adopted by the Brunei Government in

1962 as the new education policy for a national system of education. Such a system was again given unanimous support from the Education Commission in its report of 1972 which stated that "as the education policy of 1962 remains, therefore, the policy and the education required by it must be implemented without delay."¹⁸ It is therefore worthwhile quoting here the essence of the education policy of Brunei so as to provide a clear picture. "It must be noted that the education policy of this country and the education system as required by the policy, must also take account of the fact that this country is a country where 'Bumiputras' constitute the majority of the population, where Malay is the official language and Islam is the State religion. It is a developing country, with an economy heavily dependent on primary products in the form of petroleum and gas. Finally it is also a constitutional monarchy with the Monarch as the symbol of unity and the constitution as an expression of His Highness the Sultan's desire to give the people liberty according to the law and social justice."¹⁹

Under the new policy the system of education which was inherited from the British Colonial Governments' Education Policy has been discontinued.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN BRUNEI

During the period of the early 1950s Malay vernacular schools had experienced problems of acute shortage of teachers. The problem existed because the number of pupils completing primary five was comparatively small. It is to be noted that the main source of teacher supply was the primary five school leavers. In 1951 there were only 16 women teachers of whom only 3 were trained. During that time Brunei did not have a teacher training college of its own and had to depend on teachers trained in colleges overseas. There was only one Teacher Training College for women in Malaya ie the Malay Women's Teacher Training College in Melacca. But that college could only accept one or two teachers from Brunei every year.

The general shortages of teachers inevitably affected the development of education in Brunei. The Annual Report 1950 recorded,

"..... during the year there were numerous requests, mostly from rural areas asking the Department of Education for permission to open schools, unfortunately, they had to be turned down because of the lack of teachers."²⁰

The supply of Malay vernacular school teachers was determined by the number of pupils completing their primary education. Those who joined the teaching profession were appointed as probationary teachers before they went for teacher training. During the period of probation they were attached to a school but were required to attend teacher training classes (teacher preparatory class) organised every Saturday morning. Four subjects were taught, that is, Arithmetic, Geography, History and Malay Language and also theory and practice of teaching. At the end of each year they sat for an examination and those who passed the examination were selected for the teacher training course either in Malaya or Sarawak. In Malaya (now West Malaysia) they attended Sultan Idris Training College (for men) or Malay Women's Training College, Melacca (for women). In Sarawak (now East Malaysia) they attended the Batu Lintang Training Centre. By 1952, 25 Brunei male teachers were trained at Sultan Idris Training College, 19 from Batu Lintang Training Centre and 3 from the Malay Women's Training College, Melacca.

In 1954 Batu Lintang Training Centre agreed to increase the annual quota for Brunei teachers from 10 to 20. The opening of Kent College in Sabah (East

Malaysia) in 1955 contributed to the training of women teachers for Brunei. In that year 6 women teachers were sent.

In 1958, through the cooperation of the Federation of Malaya Government, Brunei teachers were accepted to be trained at Kota Baharu Teacher Training College in Malaysia. Ten places were reserved for Brunei teachers annually.

In 1952 the Government of Brunei was considering the feasibility of starting its own teacher training college, but the idea did not materialise until 1956. The first Brunei Teacher Training Centre was opened in 1956 using the 'kajang' - temporary classrooms in Brunei Town. It received 21 students from Batu Lintang Training College who become first and second year students.

Later in the year the centre moved to its permanent building, a wing of the Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddin College (a secondary school in Brunei Town). By 1957 the centre became fully residential and in that year the annual intake was twenty male teachers and this increased to twenty four in 1959. The staff of the training college in 1953 consisted of a paid full time

acting principal, a senior lecturer seconded from Malaya and an experienced local teacher.

Eventhough a local teacher training centre was established in 1956, the Government still continued sending student teachers overseas (Malaya).

Until 1963 the Teacher Training College was mainly responsible for training Malay primary school teachers. In 1964 the Centre began to offer a course for preparatory English school teachers. Students attending the course for preparatory English school teachers were chosen from those who had passed the Malaysian Lower Certificate of Education examination. By 1965 another course for lower secondary English medium school teachers was introduced. The course "was designed on the lines of those offered at Kirby and Brinford Lodge Training Colleges in Britain."² The entry requirement was a Cambridge School Certificate or G.C.E. 'O' level.

By 1966 the centre offered three types of courses:-

1. A three year course in the Malay medium for Malay probationer teachers with seven or

eight years education in the Malay medium and a minimum of one year training service.

2. A three year course in the English medium for students with three years secondary education in English medium.
3. A three year course in the English medium for students with five years secondary education in the English medium.

However, an important decision was made in 1966 when the Government agreed to phase out the three year Malay medium course by the end of 1968. It was anticipated that by 1970 all those untrained probationer teachers would have become trained teachers. At that time the Government's long term objective was to "phase out the courses for L.C.E. students and make the minimum qualification for training, the possession of G.C.E. 'O' Level passes in either the Malaysian Certificate of Education examination or the Cambridge School Certificate examination."²²

In 1971, in order to raise the quality of teachers, the entry requirement was raised to a pass in the Cambridge School Certificate or Malaysia Certificate of Education or G.C.E. 'O' level passes in at least

four subjects. The courses were now devised to meet the need for general purpose teachers for Malay primary, English preparatory and lower secondary schools. In 1971 also the Teacher Training College moved to a new permanent building.

To ensure the quality of future teachers, since 1975 every applicant to the College has been required to possess 4 'O' levels. Though the entry requirement is still maintained, the College has imposed certain selective measures by giving preference to those candidates having 'O' level in Science, Mathematics, and English Language. The College hopes to attract more students with that subject background to meet the shortages of teachers in those subjects, particularly in the Malay medium schools. This hope may not be realised as students with Science and Mathematics or English Language prefer to continue their studies in the Sixth Form Centre or choose other professions.

Since 1975 selection to either one of the courses offered, primary (Malay), preparatory (English), lower secondary (English and Malay) and teachers of English for Malay primary school has been based on the students' qualifications. Under this organisation all students have to follow a common course in the first

year and specialise in the second and third years. Through specialisation it is hoped to produce teachers with better qualities and enable them to gain more experience in their own fields.

The increased number of applicants to the College every year does not mean that better quality teachers will be produced in the future. This is because hardly any of the applicants have 'O' levels in subjects for which there is a shortage of teachers such as Mathematics or Science. Secondly, a number of candidates simply see the profession as an opportunity for employment. They are more attracted by the handsome salary than by any sense of vocation or commitment to the profession.

References

1. Government of Brunei, State of Brunei, Annual Report, 1972, The Information Section, State Secretariat, Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei. p.231.
2. Mundrell, E.B. Report in the State of Brunei 1915. (Federal Malay State Printing Office KL 1916) p 9.
3. Pengilley, E.E. State of Brunei, Annual Report on the Social & Economic Progress of the People of Brunei for the Year 1939. p 24.
4. Pengilley, E.E. Op cit
5. Peel, W.J. State of Brunei, Annual Report on Brunei for the Year 1946. (Malayan Union Government Press, KL 1948) p 36.
6. UNESCO. World Survey of Education, Volume II. Primary Education. Paris 1958. p 1139.
7. Brunei Department of Education Annual Report 1957, Brunei. p 5.
8. Brunei Department of Education Annual Report 1957 op cit
9. Barncroft, J.C.H., Annual Report on Brunei 1951 p 24.
10. Barncroft, J.C.H., Annual Report on Brunei 1952 p 40.
11. Government of Brunei, Report of the Education Commission, Bandar Seri Begawan: State Secretariat, 1972. p 3.
12. Government of Brunei, Op cit p 9.
13. Government of Brunei, Op cit p 1.
14. Government of Brunei, Op cit pp 9-10.
15. Government of Brunei, Op cit
16. Government of Brunei, Op cit pp 13-14.
17. Government of Brunei, Op cit p 13.

18. Government of Brunei, Op cit p 8.
19. Government of Brunei, Op cit p 5.
20. Government of Brunei, State of Brunei, Annual Report 1950. p 27.
21. Brunei Department of Education, Triennial Report, 1965, Brunei. p 125.
22. Brunei Department of Education Op cit p 126.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATION SYSTEM

THE STRUCTURE OF BRUNEI DARUSSALAM EDUCATION SYSTEM

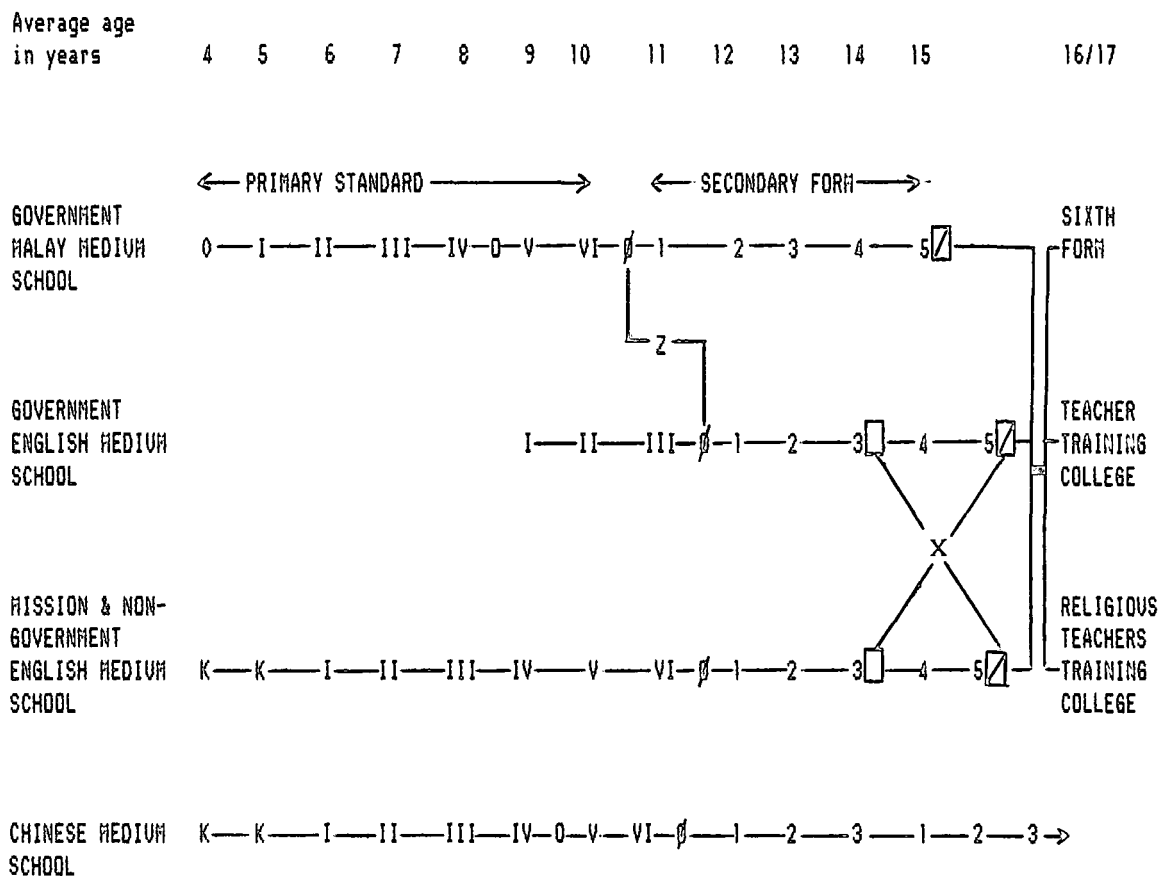
A diagrammatic structure of the present education system is given in Figure 3.1. Schools are classified according to the medium of instruction namely, Malay, English and Chinese. Including the two teachers' training colleges, the total number of schools is 353 (1981). This modest figure which represents schools throughout the state is comparatively large when the size and the total population of the state is considered. Brunei has an area of 2226 sq. miles and a population reaching only about one quarter of a million.

THE MALAY SCHOOLS

The Malay schools are administered by the Government. Kindergarten or pre-school classes are held in primary schools. Government kindergarten have been introduced into Brunei since 1979 to cater for 5 year old

Figure 3.1

STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION SYSTEM IN BRUNEI DARUSSALAM



Key:

O : Common Entrance Examination (for entry into English Medium Schools)

∅ : Primary Certificate of Education - P.C.E.

∅ : Malay Standard Six Examination

∅ : Chinese Primary Standard Examination

□ : Brunei Junior Certificate of Education Examination (English & Malay)

▣ : Ordinary Level - Brunei/Singapore Cambridge Examination (English & Malay)

X : Trade/Vocational School - leading to City and Guild Examination

Z : Science School

→ : For Further Studies - Home or Abroad

children. The 1972 Education Commission Report recommended that kindergartens should be provided for children aged 4 to 6. This recommendation has only been partially implemented.

The primary education in the Malay medium is of 6 year's duration (i.e. Standards I-VI). At the end of Standard IV, when the pupils are 8 years old, they sit for selection examinations called the Common Entrance Examination for entry into the preparatory section of the Government English medium school. Those who fail to enter the Government English school will remain in the Malay medium schools throughout their school lives. Also the Religious Affairs Department examination is used for selecting pupil for religious preparatory school. Pupils who are not selected for the above two types of education continue their primary education in the Malay medium school for another two years (Standard V & VI). The curriculum of the primary school consists of the following subjects: Malay Language, English, Mathematics, Science, Geography, History, Art, Islamic Religious Knowledge and Civics. Compulsory activities include physical education, singing and cultural activities.

The secondary course in the Malay secondary school is of 7 year's duration, i.e. from Form I to Form VI

Upper. Before the pupils can proceed to the secondary school, however, they have to sit the Preparatory Certificate of Education examination (PCE). Promotion to Form I after a repeat year is automatic irrespective of the pupil's examination result. From Form I to Form III promotion is also automatic but from Form III to IV and from Form V to VI Lower depends on the pupil's examination result in the Brunei Junior Certificate of Education examination (BJCE) and Singapore Cambridge Certificate of Education (SCCE). This SCCE examination is administered by the Brunei Board of Examination but the Certificates are issued and endorsed by the Overseas Cambridge Examination Syndicate and the Ministry of Education Singapore. A pupil who fails to meet the requirement for promotion in these two examinations is allowed to repeat the particular examination for another year and if he fails again he has to leave school at the end of Form III when he is only about 14 years old. At the end of Form VI Upper the pupils sit for the Singapore Cambridge Higher School Certificate examination.

THE ENGLISH SCHOOL

The English medium school receive pupils who are successful in the Common Entrance Examination and

offers a three year preparatory course leading to secondary education starting with Form I. The pattern of secondary education is similar to that of the Malay school except that the examinations taken at the end of Form V and Form VI Upper are administered by Brunei Cambridge Examination Syndicate stationed in Cambridge, England.

English medium preparatory classes were introduced by the Government in 1951. All subjects are taught in English except Malay Language and Islamic Religious Knowledge. The curriculum of the preparatory classes is similar to that of the Malay medium primary school.

English medium secondary education was introduced in 1953, long before Malay medium secondary education was established (1966). Several changes have occurred in Government schools during the last 10 years. In 1975, a Sixth Form Centre was set up for all Malay and English sixth formers who, previously, would have continued their sixth form education in either the Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddin College (for English medium students) or Paduka Seri Begawan Sultan Malay College (for Malay medium students). This bilingual Sixth Form Centre is administrated by one principal and successful students are sent overseas to Malaysia,

Singapore, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United Kingdom for further studies.

In 1978, a new science school was opened and this admits the 'cream' of those who pass the Primary Certificates of Education examination from all government Malay and English schools and mission schools throughout the state. Those accepted from the mission schools must be Malay in race and of Brunei Darussalam citizenship.

THE GOVERNMENT RELIGIOUS SCHOOL

Religious education in Brunei Darussalam is not controlled by the Department of Education but by the Religious Affairs Department. This education is of three categories:

- a) A session of religious education before or after normal school hours for pupils who are interested.

There are two sessions in schools in Brunei. The morning session is from 7.25 am till 12.45 or 1.00 pm. The afternoon session is from 1.15 pm till 5.30 pm. Pupils from the morning school session may, if they are interested, attend the afternoon religious

education classes and pupils from the afternoon school session may attend the morning religious education classes.

- b) Religious education is taken as a subject in Government Malay and English medium schools and in non-Government schools where there are Muslim children studying.

- c) Religious preparatory schools are attended by pupils who have been selected from Malay medium primary schools. The preparatory programme is of 2 year's duration and instruction is given in English, except Malay Language, Islamic Religious Knowledge and Arabic. The curriculum of the religious preparatory schools consists of Malay, English, Arithmetic, Islamic Religious Knowledge, Arabic, History, Geography, Science, Art, and Health Education.

- d) Religious secondary schools are known as "Arabic secondary schools". Religious secondary education may be followed in the "science stream" which uses English as the medium of instruction or in the "Arabic stream" which uses Arabic as the medium of

instruction. The subjects taught in the "science stream" are Malay, English, Mathematics, Science, Geography, History, Arts and Islamic Religious Knowledge or Arabic; while the subjects taught in the "Arabic stream" are Islamic Religious Knowledge, Koran, Hadith, Fekah, Tauhid, Tafsir, Mustalahal Hadis, Usul Fiqh, Faraid, Arabic, Malay, English and Islamic History.

- e) The "science stream" secondary education programme follows a 3-2-2 pattern: lower secondary level (Form I to Form VI), upper secondary level (Forms IV and V), and higher secondary level (lower sixth form and upper sixth form). The "Arabic stream" secondary education programme follows a 2-2 pattern: upper secondary level (Lower Sixth Form and Upper Sixth Form). At the end of the lower secondary level, pupils take the Brunei Junior Certificate of Education examination. Pupils who are admitted into the "science stream" take the Brunei Cambridge General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level and Advanced Level examinations at the end of Form V and Upper VI Form respectively. Pupils who are admitted into the "Arabic

stream" take the Certificate of Religious Education examination (considered as equivalent to the Singapore Cambridge G.C.E. 'O' Level) at the end of Form V and the Certificate of Religious Higher Education examination (considered as equivalent to the Singapore Cambridge G.C.E. 'A' Level) at the end of Upper Sixth Form.

THE MISSION SCHOOLS

Mission and other unassisted schools offer a two year kindergarten and 6 year primary education (Standards I-VI) as in the Malay primary school. Private kindergarten classes have been in operation for many more years than have the Government kindergarten classes.

At the secondary level the pattern is the same as in the Government English schools. Students from the schools will also enter the Government Sixth Form Centre although their entry will be subject to their academic qualification and availability of space since priority will be given to students from Government schools. The curriculum of these missionary schools is subject to the approval of the Department of Education.

THE CHINESE SCHOOLS

Prior to 1970, all Chinese schools were assisted by the Government. However, a quota of pupils from these schools is now given places in the Government English schools depending on their results in the Government PCE examinations. Chinese kindergartens, like other privately owned kindergartens, cater for children aged 4 and 5. And the pattern of the primary and the lower secondary education is the same as that of the mission schools. But the upper secondary consists of another 3 years after which the successful students go abroad for further studies usually to Taiwan or the Singapore Chinese medium University which is called Nanyang University. And, like the mission schools, the curriculum of the Chinese schools is subject to the approval of the Department of Education.

THE VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

There are three Government engineering and building trade schools providing a 4-year course leading to a Certificate of the City and Guilds Institute (London). Most of the students are dropouts from Form III and Form V Malay and English medium schools.

These vocational schools aim to produce skilled workers of a good standard.

BRUNEI SHELL'S TRADE SCHOOL

This Trade School was established in the late 1950s mainly to provide industrial training for Shell's employees. Today, it still offers a variety of courses for Shell's technicians and artisans and school leavers who wish to acquire industrial skills. The minimum entry qualifications accepted by the school are good passes in certain subjects at the Brunei Junior Certificate of Education level and General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level, depending upon the type of courses to be followed.

AGRICULTURAL TRAINING CENTRE

The Agricultural Training Centre is jointly operated by the Government through the Agriculture Department and by Brunei Shell. It offers young farmers and agricultural technicians courses which are of 2 year's duration. A 3 year full-time National Diploma of Agriculture course was introduced in 1983. Applicants must have obtained good passes in certain subjects at the Brunei Junior Certificate of Education level to gain admittance to the young farmers and the

agricultural technicians courses and good passes in certain subjects at the General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level to gain admittance to the National Diploma of Agriculture course.

RELIGIOUS TEACHERS TRAINING COLLEGE

This Religious Teachers Training College is under the direct administration of the Religious Affairs Department. It produces religious education teachers for all schools in the state. It admits candidates with four GCE Ordinary Level subjects but usually these candidates come from the Malay medium school. The professional training courses are of 3-year full-time duration. At present, only citizens can apply for admission to this College.

TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGE

The Hassanal Bolkiah Teacher Training College is a bilingual, co-educational and residential College. It had produced more than two thousand trained teachers for schools at all levels by 1979 and plays an important part in the educational development of the country.

This College provides three different levels of professional training course for teachers. The courses offered are as follows:-

- 1) A course for teachers of English language in Malay medium primary schools;
- 2) A course for teachers in English preparatory schools; and
- 3) A course for teachers of primary and lower secondary Malay or English medium schools.

These courses are of 3 year's full-time duration. All first year students are required to take similar subjects. Second and third year students who intend to teach in lower secondary school must take Education, Malay, English, Physical Education and two areas of teacher specialization. To teach in primary and English preparatory schools requires Education, Malay, English, Physical Education, Mathematics, Science and two other areas of specialization. The English medium teacher requirements are practically the same as those for the primary and English preparatory teachers. The English medium teacher has only one area of specialization and there are more

courses offered in this language than in any other area.

Since 1983 various in-service courses have been conducted in this College, such as traditional Malay band courses for primary and secondary school teachers and computer courses for secondary school teachers and college lecturers.

There are twelve Departments in the College. These are Education, Malay Studies, English Language, Geography, History, Mathematics, Science, Physical Education, Islamic Religious Knowledge, Music, Art and Craft, Domestic Science, and Environmental Studies.

At present, only citizens who have at least four Ordinary Level passes can apply for admission to this College.

A new development took place in August 1984 when His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam announced a change in the name of the College from Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Teacher Training College to Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Institute of Education. The change took effect from 1 January, 1985.¹ And from that date the Institute of Education

provides a four-year Bachelor of Education degree course specializing in primary education.

SOME ASPECTS OF TEACHER TRAINING

Educational Studies

The general structure of the course in the training college is shown in Figures 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4. It consists of professional studies, curriculum and main subject studies. In this it differs from the normal pattern in teacher education institutions in England where the structure of courses commonly consists of academic studies, professional studies (or curriculum/teaching studies), environmental studies and school experience.

The structure of courses in the Brunei Teacher Training College indicates that it contains too much of everything. There are vast areas of educational studies which have no really justifiable place in the course. With the modest academic abilities of the students, we need to identify those areas that are significant for the practical business of teaching and to restrict the courses to these. Even if it were possible to attempt to cover all subjects in the teachers course, the result would be superficiality

Figure 3.2

COURSE STRUCTURE FOR TEACHERS OF LOWER SECONDARY, ENGLISH AND MALAY MEDIUM

YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3
<p>1. PROFESSIONAL STUDIES</p> <p>1.1. Principles of Education</p> <p>1.2. Teaching Practice (4-6 weeks)</p> <p>2. CURRICULUM STUDIES</p> <p>2.1. Basics</p> <p>2.1.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>2.1.2. English Language</p> <p>2.1.3. Religious Ed/Civics</p> <p>2.1.4. Mathematics</p> <p>2.2. Electives (one to be taken each term. Non-credit)</p> <p>2.2.1. Activities</p> <p>2.2.2. Games</p> <p>2.2.3. Library Management/ Utilisation</p> <p>3. MAIN SUBJECTS (choose two)</p> <p>3.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>3.2. English Language</p> <p>3.3. Mathematics</p> <p>3.4. Science</p> <p>3.5. History</p> <p>3.6. Geography</p> <p>3.7. Art & Craft</p> <p>3.8. Home Science</p> <p>3.9. Physical Education</p> <p>3.10. Religious Education</p> <p>3.11. Music</p>	<p>1. PROFESSIONAL STUDIES</p> <p>1.1. Principles of Education</p> <p>1.2. Teaching Practice (4-6 weeks)</p> <p>2. CURRICULUM STUDIES</p> <p>2.1. Basics</p> <p>2.1.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>2.1.2. English Language</p> <p>2.2. Electives (one to be chosen each term. Non-credit)</p> <p>2.2.1. Activities</p> <p>2.2.2. Games</p> <p>2.2.3. Library Management/ Utilisation</p> <p>3. MAIN SUBJECTS</p> <p>3.1. The two main subjects taken during 1st year will be taken in 2nd year.</p>	<p>1. PROFESSIONAL STUDIES</p> <p>1.1. Principles of Education</p> <p>1.2. Teaching Practice (one term)</p> <p>2. CURRICULUM STUDIES</p> <p>2.1. Basics</p> <p>2.1.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>2.1.2. English Language (Non-credit for Malay Medium)</p> <p>2.2. Activities (non-credit)</p> <p>3. MAIN SUBJECTS</p> <p>3.1. The two taken in 1st and 2nd year are continued in the 3rd year.</p>

Figure 3.3

**COURSE STRUCTURE FOR PREPARATORY SCHOOLS AND MALAY UPPER PRIMARY TEACHERS
(STANDARD 3 - 6)**

YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3
<p>1. PROFESSIONAL STUDIES</p> <p>1.1. Principles of Education</p> <p>1.2. Teaching Practice (4-6 weeks)</p> <p>2. CURRICULUM STUDIES/ SUBJECTS</p> <p>2.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>2.2. English Language</p> <p>2.3. Mathematics</p> <p>2.4. Science</p> <p>2.5. History</p> <p>2.6. Geography</p> <p>2.7. Art and Craft</p> <p>2.8. Religious Education/Civic</p> <p>2.9. Physical Education</p> <p>2.10. Library Management/ Utilization (non-credit)</p> <p>2.11. Music</p> <p>2.12. Co-curricular Activity (non-credit)</p>	<p>1. PROFESSIONAL STUDIES</p> <p>1.1. Principles of Education</p> <p>1.2. Teaching Practice (4-6 weeks)</p> <p>2. CURRICULUM STUDIES/ SUBJECTS</p> <p>2.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>2.2. English Language</p> <p>2.3. Mathematics</p> <p>2.4. Environmental Studies (science/ geography/ history)</p> <p>2.5. Art and Craft</p> <p>2.6. Religious Education/Civic</p> <p>2.7. Physical Education</p> <p>2.8. Library Management/ Utilization</p> <p>2.9. Music</p> <p>2.10. Co-curricular Activity (non-credit)</p> <p>3. MAIN SUBJECTS (for personal advancement only)</p> <p>3.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>3.2. English Language</p> <p>3.3. Mathematics</p> <p>3.4. Science</p> <p>3.5. History</p> <p>3.6. Geography</p> <p>3.7. Art and Craft</p> <p>3.8. Home Science</p> <p>3.9. Physical Education</p>	<p>1. PROFESSIONAL STUDIES</p> <p>1.1. Principles of Education</p> <p>1.2. Teaching Practice (one term)</p> <p>2. CURRICULUM STUDIES/ SUBJECTS</p> <p>2.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>2.2. English Language</p> <p>2.3. Mathematics</p> <p>2.4. Environmental Studies (science/ geography/ history)</p> <p>2.5. Art and Craft</p> <p>2.6. Religious Education/Civic</p> <p>2.7. Physical Education</p> <p>2.8. Co-curricular Activity (non-credit)</p> <p>3. MAIN SUBJECTS</p> <p>One subject taken during 2nd year will be taken in the 3rd year.</p>

Figure 3.4

MALAY LOWER PRIMARY TEACHERS COURSE (STANDARD 1 - 3)

YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3
<p>1. PROFESSIONAL STUDIES</p> <p>1.1. Principles of Education</p> <p>1.2. Teaching Practice (4-6 weeks)</p> <p>2. CURRICULUM STUDIES/ SUBJECTS</p> <p>2.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>2.2. English Language</p> <p>2.3. Mathematics</p> <p>2.4. Environment Studies (Science/ Geography/ History)</p> <p>2.5. Activities (Art and Craft/Maths/ Science/ History)</p> <p>2.6. Physical Education, Movement dance</p> <p>2.7. Religious Education/Civic</p> <p>2.8. Music</p> <p>2.9. Co-Curricular Activity (non-credit)</p>	<p>1. PROFESSIONAL STUDIES</p> <p>1.1. Principles of Education</p> <p>1.2. Teaching Practice (4-6 weeks)</p> <p>2. CURRICULUM STUDIES/ SUBJECTS</p> <p>2.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>2.2. English Language</p> <p>2.3. Environment Studies (Science/ Geography/ History)</p> <p>2.4. Activities</p> <p>2.5. Physical Education, Movement dance</p> <p>2.6. Religious Education/Civic</p> <p>2.7. Music</p> <p>2.8. Co-curricular Activities (non-credit)</p> <p>3. MAIN SUBJECTS (for personal advancement only)</p> <p>3.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>3.2. English Language</p> <p>3.3. Mathematics</p> <p>3.4. Science</p> <p>3.5. History</p> <p>3.6. Geography</p> <p>3.7. Art and Craft</p> <p>3.8. Home Science</p> <p>3.9. Physical Education</p>	<p>1. PROFESSIONAL STUDIES</p> <p>1.1. Principles of Education</p> <p>1.2. Teaching Practice (one term)</p> <p>2. CURRICULUM STUDIES/ SUBJECTS</p> <p>2.1. Malay Studies</p> <p>2.2. English Language</p> <p>2.3. Activities</p> <p>2.4. Religious Education/Civic (non-credit)</p> <p>2.5. Physical Education/Civic (non-credit)</p> <p>2.6. Co-curricular Activity (non-credit)</p> <p>3. MAIN SUBJECTS</p> <p>One subject taken during 2nd year will be taken in the 3rd year.</p>

and a timetable so crowded and fragmented that thorough training and genuine higher education alike would become impossible.

Basic studies are compulsory so as to compensate for the inadequate academic qualifications of the student.² While there is a great advantage in the provision of languages and mathematics, it is more difficult to see the justification for the provision of religious education. After all, every student has already received this education right up to 'A' level. The eighty minutes per week which are devoted to this subject could instead be devoted to some other more relevant to the professional competence of the teacher.

Main Subjects Studies

For secondary courses, main subjects studies should be given more emphasis since they are the subjects to be taught later in schools. Extra emphasis on content is more essential in the secondary courses than it is in the preparatory and primary courses where the main subjects are for personal development only.

For intending primary teachers in Brunei, the provision of main subjects studies is of great

benefit. They help to improve the students' academic knowledge of any one or two of the subjects that they elect to pursue. However, in some cases, it has been said among college tutors that students teach least effectively in the area of their own main subject. One reason is that they tend to use subject matter which is familiar to them, regardless of its suitability for primary school children.

Professional Studies

In colleges of education the overall course offered to students should be regarded as providing professional education for students entering into the teaching profession. Its objectives are primarily professional ones involving theoretical study and practical activity. The professional skills for teachers are, however, associated both with the overall educational process of innitiation, in which judgements of worthwhile activities are made, and within this process with the skills and judgements necessary for teaching. Professional studies have a role to play in relation to practical experience since they act as a bridge between academic and practical activity. A curriculum course in mathematics may be concerned with the development of mathematical concepts, may be involved with the methods by which this subject can be

taught in schools, may be involved with experimental work in schools, and it may lead to a study of the psychological theories relevant to this aspect of mathematics, such that both tutor and students become concerned in the study for its own sake.

It can be argued that the professional studies curriculum in Brunei Teacher Training College needs to be reorganised. The low of prestige of the profession causes many of the students to enter the training college with 'reluctance', these students when qualified may have negative attitudes towards teaching and this is detrimental to the schools. In view of this, it is imperative that the curriculum studies emphasize development towards positive attitudes to teaching.

It has been agreed that the root of the low standard of education in Brunei Darussalam is at the primary level. Pupils are not receiving the right kind of education because of the failure of most primary teachers to bring out the pupils' maximum learning potential. In many cases, because of automatic promotion at the primary level, some pupils are found to have very poor ability in the 3Rs when they reach the lower secondary school and, in fact, some are not fit to be in the secondary school at all. Perhaps the



college should place more emphasis on subjects such as the principles and practice of school and classroom organisation and communication skills, or the principles and practice of classroom interaction and instruction skills, with special reference to a particular subject.³

NON FORMAL EDUCATION

Apart from formal education, non-formal education and training programmes are also available in Brunei. With the exception of the Department of Education and the Brunei Shell Company, most of the non formal education and training programmes have been implemented by the Government departments in the last couple of years. Other Government departments and authorities beside the Education Department which conduct non formal education and training programmes are:

- 1) The Welfare, Youth and Sports Department which periodically holds a variety of courses for youth leaders and youth and sports officers;
- 2) the Telecommunications Department which runs its own Training Centre to provide further

training and upgrading of the skills of its staff;

- 3) the Agricultural Department which runs an Agricultural Training Centre that offers a 3 year full-time National Diploma of Agriculture course and a 2 year full-time young farmers technician course;
- 4) the Public Works Department which periodically holds short in-service courses, seminars and workshops;
- 5) the Museum Department which runs an Arts and Handicrafts Training Centre;
- 6) the Medical and Health Services Department which runs its own Nursing School and offers a 3 year full-time nursing course;
- 7) the Establishment Department which periodically holds a variety of short in-service courses for Government staff; and
- 8) the Armed Forces which operate a Young Soldiers' School which offers an education programme leading to the General Certificate of Education Ordinary level.

All the above non-formal education and training programmes are planned, funded and implemented separately by the individual Government departments concerned. They are not co-ordinated and integrated

with plans for formal education and socio-economic development. While the lack of co-ordination and integration of non-formal education with formal education has so far not created serious shortcomings, future efforts to co-ordinate and integrate these programmes would be beneficial in the long run.

The Department of Education has its own administrative section called the Adult Education Section to plan and implement its non-formal education programme. This section is part of the Technical Education section. Some of the non formal education programmes administered by the Adult Education section are literacy classes and domestic science classes conducted in Malay, commercial subject classes conducted in Malay and English, Malay language classes, English language classes and Ordinary and Advanced level subjects classes conducted in Malay and English. Teachers for these classes are selected from Government and non-Government schools and are paid a teaching allowance by the Adult Education section of the Education Department. Students attending these classes pay only nominal registration fees.

THE EXISTING EDUCATION SYSTEM AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

Today every child age 5 and over, citizen or non-citizen, is in a school of his or her parents' choice either in the Malay, English, Chinese or religious stream. The total population of students attending school numbered 57.9 thousand in 1982. The Government of His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di Pertuan also provides facilities for pupils to undertake Islamic Religious Education from the first primary class.

Currently, approximately 70 per cent of primary school pupils and 80 per cent of those at secondary level attend Government schools. Most of these children are Brunei citizens although a limited number of permanent residents also attend on a nominal fee paying basis.

The Government also administers two religious schools for children aged 10 who spend two years in the preparatory stream before proceeding to one of the two Arabic secondary schools. Enrolments at these are relatively small consisting of about 100 pupils per annum.

Non-Government schools consist of mission, private and Chinese schools where English is the medium of instruction for the two former and Chinese language for the last category.

The increased parental emphasis on the value of high educational attainment together with the natural population growth has combined to produce throughout the country a high rate of expansion - 30.0 per cent between 1972 and 1982. Primary/preparatory increased by 3.4 per cent (1,030), secondary by 45.9 per cent (5,571) and teacher training by 75.4 per cent (291) (Appendix 3.1). The number of students going for tertiary education overseas also increased. During the 10 year period (1972 - 1982), the number of teachers increased by 69.5 per cent (1,606). The percentage of citizen teachers in the total teacher population in 1982 was 72.1. The majority of them are employed in the Government schools. Figure 3.5 indicates that 81.6 per cent of the teachers are trained and 93.5 per cent of those employed in the Government schools possess a teaching qualification.

To upgrade the standard of teaching as well as to be in line with the introduction of the National Education System (with emphasis on teachers' proficiency in English language), a formal in-service

Figure 3.5

NUMBER OF TEACHERS, 1982

Type of School	Total	Citizen	Trained	Untrained	% Trained
Government	3,204	2,547	2,998	206	93.5
Non-Government	714	277	199	515	27.9
Total	3,918	1,094	3,197	721	81.6

Source: Education Paper No. 5B, Economic Planning Unit, Ministry of Finance, Negara Brunei Darussalam, September 1954, p. 6.

training course for serving primary school teachers was introduced in July 1984 with an initial intake of 75 teachers. The course is divided into 3 stages, namely, Certificate, Advanced Diploma and Degree level. Overseas in-service training is also given to a number of teachers and officers to upgrade both their professional standards and academic qualifications.

In October, 1985 the first Brunei Darussalam University began to operate with two faculties: Education and Arts. The establishment of this University does not imply an end to Brunei students going overseas for further studies on Brunei Government scholarships because admission to this University will depend on availability of course as well as meeting the academic qualifications required.

January 1985, however, saw the implementation of a new National Education System which abolished the divisive organization of primary education. In the new system children will no longer be subjected to examination at Standard IV. Instead, a standardized test at this level is aimed at checking the performance of pupils, and the results will not channel the children into the highly demanding English medium school or the Malay medium school. Rather, they will enter a bilingual

system of education which ensures to every child the possibility of studying in bilingual schools. In reality this bilingual system does not entail major differences from the old English medium system for all the important subjects such as Maths, Science, Geography and History are taught in English while subjects such as Art, Physical Education, Religious Knowledge and, of course, Malay Language and Malay Literature are taught in Malay.

The main objectives of the next Five Year Development Plan (1985 - 1990) that are to be implemented by the Education Department could be summarised as follows:

- 1) "To introduce and implement a bilingual system of education in the Government primary schools in 1985. This is to strengthen the Malay language as the national language and medium of instruction while at the same time upgrading the standard of English language among students in the Government primary and secondary schools;
- 2) to place more emphasis on Islamic religious tuition in line with the requirements of the Constitution;
- 3) to provide a continuous education for all children in Brunei Darussalam for a period of 9 years, 6 years in primary school and 3 years in the lower secondary schools;
- 4) to make education accessible to all on the basis of their needs and abilities; and
- 5) to equip school leavers with knowledge and skills appropriate to the needs of the Country."⁵

The above five objectives of the present National Five Year Development Plan (1985 - 1990) are in line with the 1972 Education Policy which has not been satisfactorily implemented. However, unless serious consideration is given to the above objectives they will again lack full implementation.

BILINGUAL SYSTEM

Having identified the present and future needs of the country, especially in terms of its manpower requirements, a new education policy was introduced and implemented early in 1985, that is, the Bilingual Education System. In this new system, Malay language and English language will be used as a medium of instruction for the appropriate subjects and begin with Primary V. It is hoped in the future that the Bilingual System will begin at Primary I.

The main aim of the new Bilingual System is to strengthen the Malay language as the national language while at the same time upgrading the usage of the English language. It is imperative for students to be proficient in the English language to enable them to continue their studies overseas.

The proposed Bilingual Education System does not entail major structural changes and reorganisation but pupils will no longer be selected to enter the English stream or continue in the Malay stream after the completion of Primary IV. The selection examination will be replaced by a standardization test for the purpose of promotion to Primary V. As the first stage of implementation, bilingual classes will be introduced at Primary V in 1985 (Figure 3.6). By January 1985, the Preparatory I English medium and the Standard V Malay medium classes will no longer exist.

The recently introduced curriculum with the aim not only of imparting skill and knowledge but also of instilling and inculcating values and norms which will contribute to national unity with the concept of 'Bruneian identity', Malay Muslim Sultanate, and a disciplined society, will still be in use except for some unification in the medium of instruction. Those subjects which are dependent on English language as the medium of instruction for the purpose of overseas higher studies, namely, English Language, Mathematics, Science, History, Geography and the theoretical aspects of Physical Education are taught in English. The others are taught in Malay.

Figure 3.6

THE TRANSITION FROM THE EXISTING SYSTEM TOWARDS BILINGUAL SYSTEM

AGE	ENGLISH MEDIUM	MALAY MEDIUM	ENGLISH MEDIUM	MALAY MEDIUM
12	Prep III		Prep III	
11	Prep II		Prep II	Standard VI
10		Standard V		Standard V (Bilingual)
9		Standard IV		Standard IV
8		Standard III		Standard III
7		Standard II		Standard II
6		Standard I		Standard I
5		Kindergarten		Kindergarten

Source: Education Paper No. 5B, Economic Planning Unit, Brunei Darussalam, September 1984, p. 36.

The new primary school curriculum co-ordinates the Malay and English medium curricula and ensures that pupils in both mediums follow similar curricula and period allocations (Appendix 3.9). It also puts more emphasis on the 3Rs (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic) besides giving an early exposure to English language to pupils in the lower primary. Previously, the period allocation for English language was not fully implemented, particularly in the earlier part of primary education. The main changes incorporated in the new curriculum include:

- 1) Introduction of music as a subject in the school timetable;
- 2) civic and moral education is introduced specifically for non-Muslim students (Muslim students take religious lessons);
- 3) equal period allocations in Mathematics for both Malay primary and English preparatory; and
- 4) History and Geography are introduced at Primary I.

The secondary school curriculum was also modified and updated. The co-ordinated curriculum of the English and Malay media is primarily to ensure that students

from both media have similar standards and modes of studies. The Form I and III students have to take 7 compulsory subjects with the 8th being chosen from a range of 8 optional subjects (Appendix 3.9). Physical Education is a compulsory but non-examination subject. Streaming of students into Science, Arts and the Technical streams begins at Form IV. Previously streaming was limited to either Arts or Science. The addition of a Technical stream is intended to widen the educational base for students so as to cater for the differing needs of the country.

UNIVERSITY OF BRUNEI DARUSSALAM

The History of the Establishment

About the middle of 1974, students who had graduated with 'A' levels in the Malay medium stream of the secondary schools began to feel dissatisfied because of the lack of opportunities for them to proceed to higher education and in particular to university education. In recognition of this, the Government of His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam took an initiative to overcome the problem.

On 14th August 1979, His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam, in his address at

the Koran reading competition, made the following announcement:-

"In order that the development programme should succeed my government will have a great need for manpower with quality, deep knowledge and wide experience, and possessing characteristics of sincerity and loyalty to Negara Brunei Darussalam. To achieve this objective my government will explore the possibility of providing facilities for higher education in the state of Brunei Darussalam by obtaining views and advice from experts of higher education bodies in the United Kingdom,"⁴

Following the address by His Majesty, the Education Council and the Department of Education set up a Committee to look into the establishment of a university. The members of this Committee proposed by the Education Council at its meeting of 8th May 1976 were agreed by the government of His Majesty.

Following the meeting on 8th May 1976, steps were taken to invite expert consultants from the United Kingdom. For this purpose a working committee was formed and on 6th October 1976, the Deputy Controller, Education and Science Division of the British Council in London arrived in Brunei Darussalam to discuss the issue of appointing the necessary consultants. Arising out of this discussion on 18th March 1977 a group of experts arrived in Brunei Darussalam to study the

possibility of setting up a University in the country. The group submitted an interim report which was studied by the Committee, and later presented to the Government.

In the meantime, the Education Council had presented to the Government proposals on the following matters relating to the establishment of the University:

1. A proposed site for the university;
2. Appointment of the Vice-Chancellor and his officers;
3. A training scheme for officers to be appointed for the university;
4. Constitution and statutes; and
5. A scheme of service for the university.

Due to unforeseeable circumstances, planning for the establishment of the university in Brunei Darussalam was temporarily postponed right up to the time when the Education Council was dissolved on 1st January 1984. After this, planning for the establishment of the university was taken over by the Ministry of Education and Health.

By the grace of Allah and with the consent of His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam together with encouragement of the Minister

of Education and Health and consensus of the senior officers of Ministry of Education and Health, and the Department of Education the university project was reactivated.

A number of universities in the United Kingdom were approached for the purpose of 'linkage'. On Sunday, 18th November 1984, a meeting of the principal officers of the Department of Education under the Ministry of Education and Health was held to examine the feasibility of establishing the University of Brunei Darussalam.

His Majesty, in his address on the occasion of the national level Koran reading competition held in the capital on 23rd April 1985, stressed that the university should be established by the end of 1985.

On 27th June 1985, University College, Cardiff signed a Statement of Intent with the Faculty of Education, and on 6th July 1985, the University of Leeds signed a Letter of Exchange to start the Faculty of Arts.

The University of Brunei Darussalam will also obtain assistance and cooperation from the University of Malaysia for the Malay medium courses.

In His Majesty's address opening the Islamic Propagation Centre on 16th September 1985, His Majesty announced the University of Brunei Darussalam would begin its first academic session on 28th October 1985.

The Courses

The University of Brunei Darussalam offered courses in two media of instruction. That is Malay and English, in two faculties: the Faculty of Arts and the Faculty of Education. In the Faculty of Arts there are two degree programmes:-

- a) Business Management and Public Administration.
- b) Social Policy and Planning.

And in the Faculty of Education there are four degree courses:-

- a) Education;
- b) Chemistry;
- c) Mathematics; and
- d) Physics.

The degree is awarded after 4 years of study. The University has a semester and unit system: each year is divided into two semesters, and within each semester there are individual courses which are

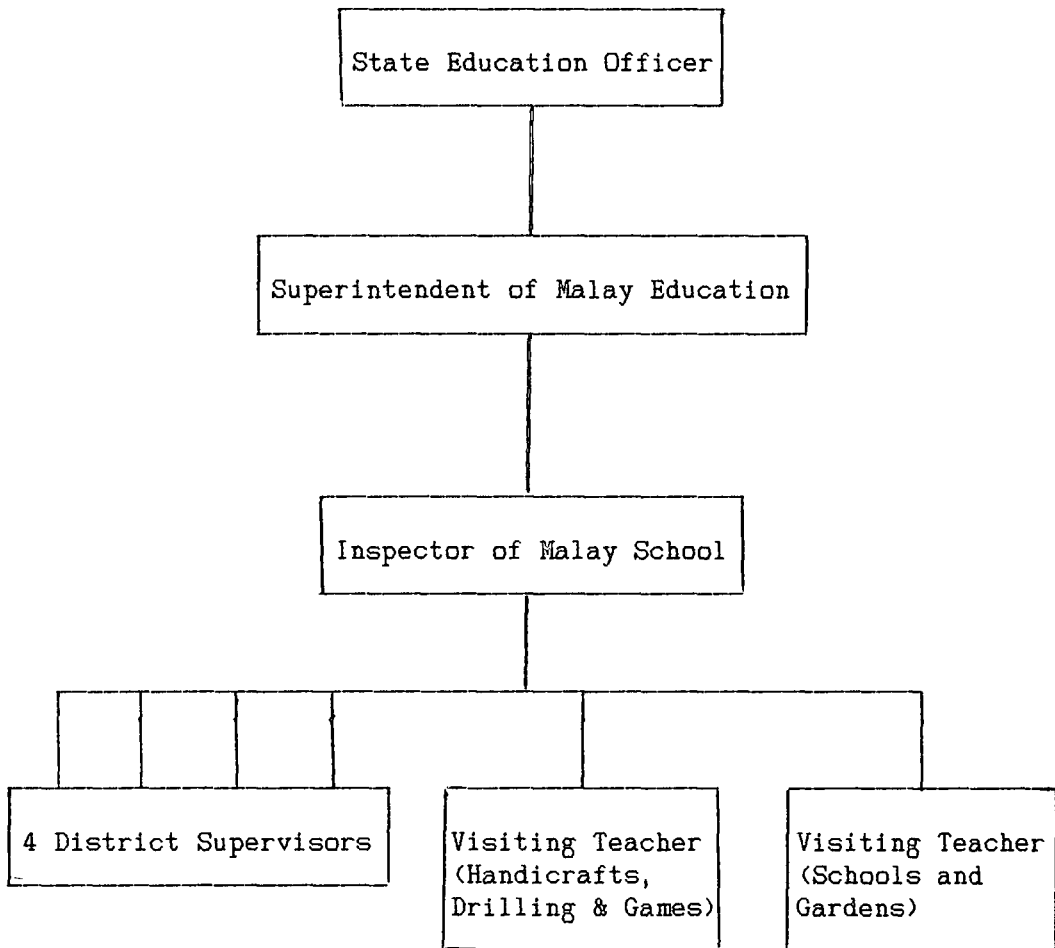
assigned unit values. Students register for minimum and maximum numbers of units each semester, and there is a minimum unit requirement for progression from one academic year to the next.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The Department of Education has undergone three organisational changes since its formation as a Government department in 1951. These organisational changes have been made in response to the increase in responsibility, task specialisation and the increase of staff in the Education Department. The organisational structure of the Department in 1951 was headed by the State Education Officer, assisted by a superintendent of Malay education. The schools were divided into three groups, roughly corresponding to the main administrative districts in the State, i.e., Brunei Muara, Tutong, Kuala Belait and Temburong. The District Supervisors, the Headmasters of the primary schools and the visiting teachers were all responsible to the Superintendent of Malay education who was in turn responsible to the State Education Officer. The State Education Officer was himself responsible to the British Resident. This structure was maintained until 1966. The organisational structure of the Department of Education in 1951 is shown in Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7

THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION IN 1951



Source: Abu Bakar Hj. Apong, Development of Education in Brunei During Self-Government Period with Special Reference to Primary Education, Unpublished (M.A) dissertation, University of Lancaster, 1980, p. 8.

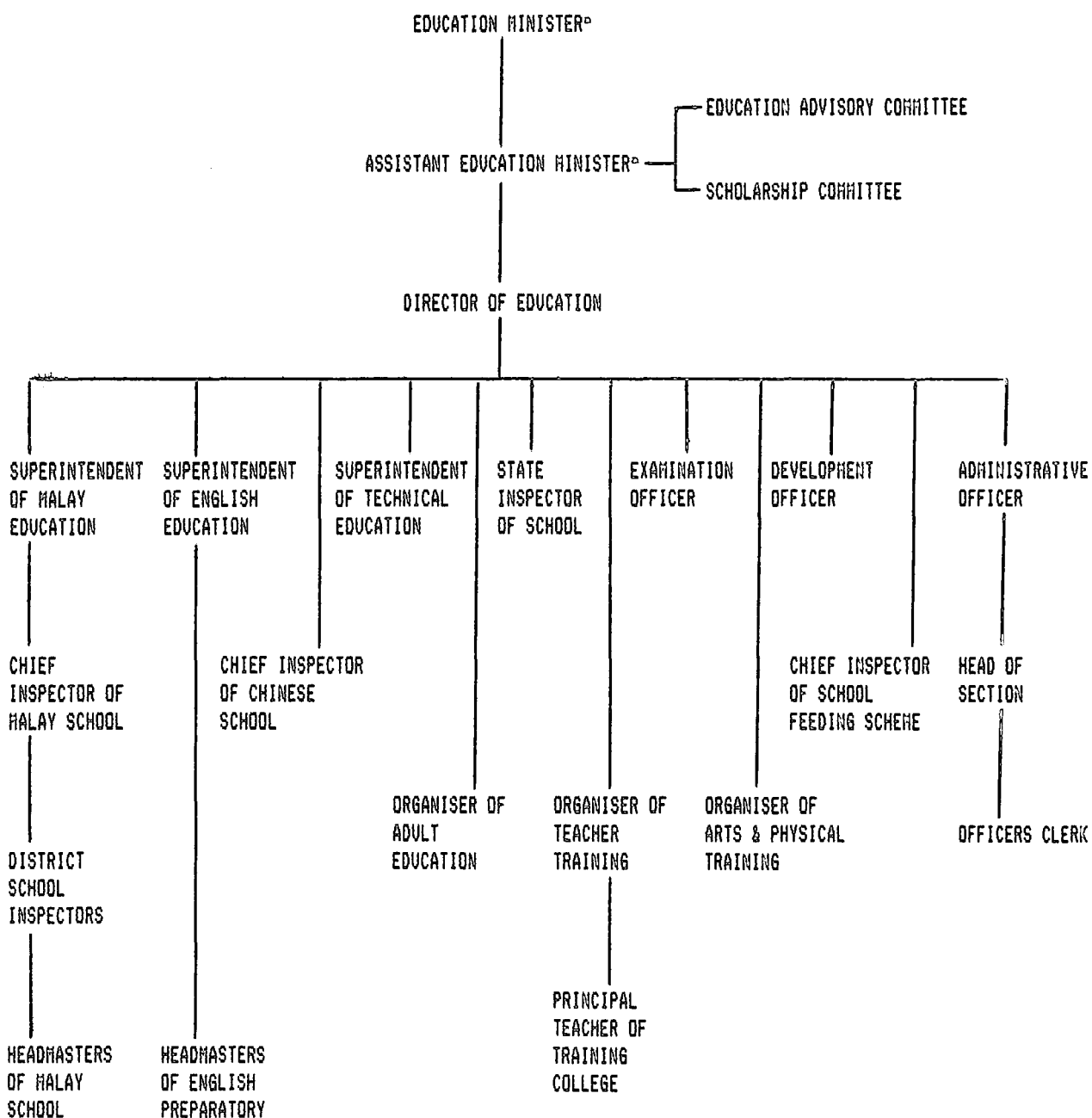
The new organizational structure shown in Figure 3.8. was set up in 1966. In this new structure, the designation of State Education Officer was changed to that of Director of Education. A new post of Superintendent of English Education was created. And more school inspectors and organisers were appointed to cope with the increasing responsibilities of the Department of Education.

The 1966 structure of the Department of Education clearly indicates an attempt to apply the concept of division of labour. The Superintendent of English Education was to take care of Government English medium preparatory schools introduced in 1951. The creation of the posts of organizers, officers and additional inspectors was in line with the increasing specialization of educational tasks and an expanding service. An education Advisory Committee and a Scholarship Committee were also introduced in that year.

Following the recommendation of the Report of the Education Commission, 1972 (see Chapter II), two years later, in 1974, another administrative structural reorganisation was carried out. Basically there were five major changes:

Figure 3.8

THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AS OF 1966



Source: Brunei Darussalam Education Department, Education Journal, Issue 1, Volume 1, 1974, p. 23.

NOTE: ^a Since 1966, the posts of the Education Minister and the Assistant Education Minister have not been filled.

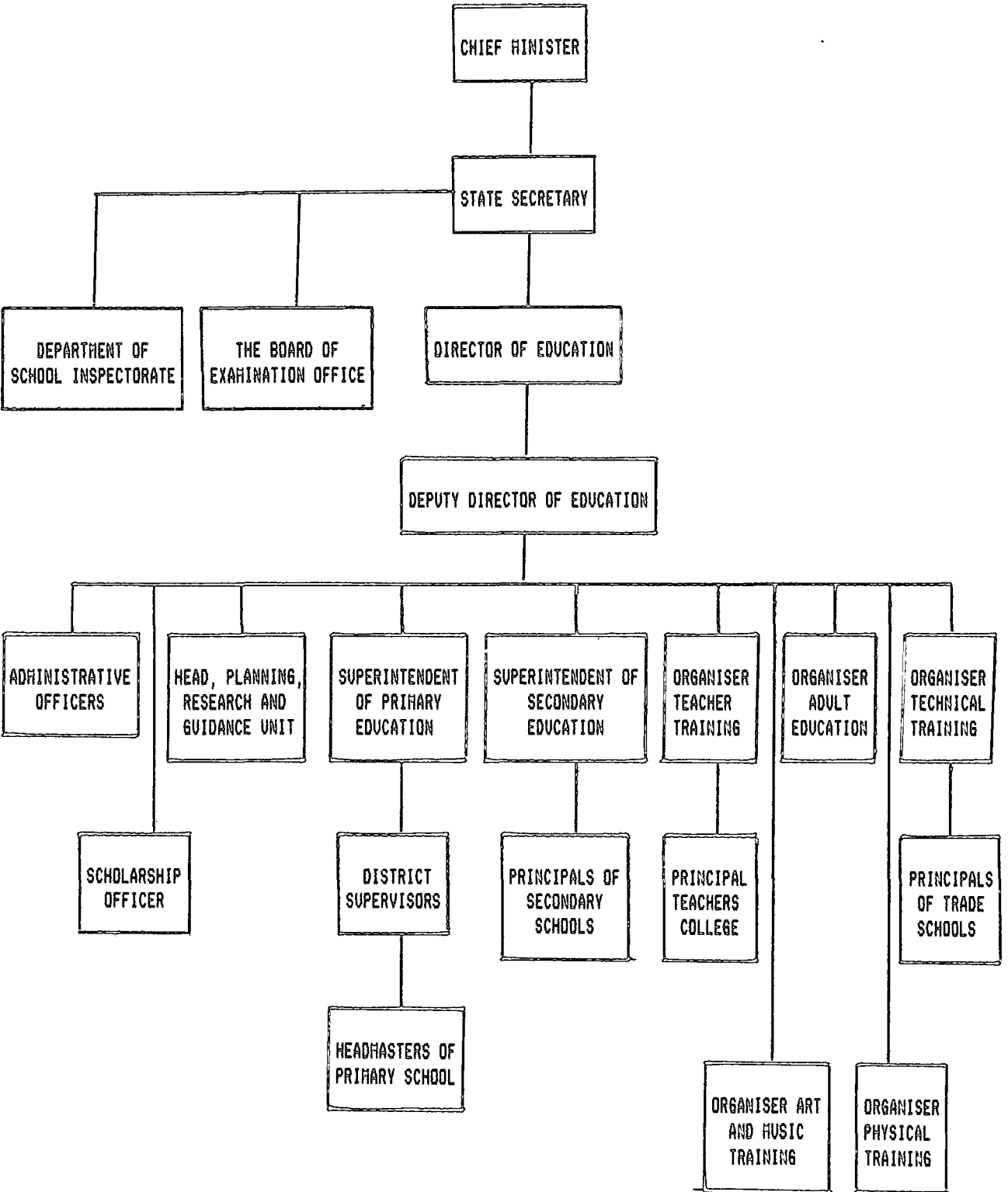
- a) the formation of an Education Council to replace the Education Advisory Committee;
- b) the establishment of an Inspectorate Department;
- c) the establishment of a Planning, Research and Guidance Unit within the Department of Education;
- d) the posts of Superintendent for Malay and for English education were abolished and replaced by the post of Superintendent of Primary Education and Superintendent of Secondary Education;
- f) the examination section became another department known as the Board of Examination Syndicate.

The new organisational structure can be seen in Figure 3.9. The Department of School Inspectorate and the Board of Examination office were directly linked to the State Secretariat. The Director of Education had no authority whatsoever over the activities of these two departments. However, since May 1983 these two departments have been placed under the direct control of the Director of Education.

The changes in the administrative structure within the Department of Education in 1983 improved the

Figure 3.9

THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION STRUCTURE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AS OF 1974



administration in general. The far-reaching effects of the reorganisation can be seen from the establishment of two separate departments, that is, the Inspectorate and the Examination Department. Under this structure the school inspectors can inspect any school, but neither the school nor the Department of Education will be given the reports of the inspection. The report will be submitted to the Chairman of the Education Council who will then channel it to the Director of Education directly or through the State Secretariat. As a result of this procedure the report received by the Director of Education often comes too late for effective action to be taken. Similarly, the creation of the Board of Examination as a separate department was a result of the difficulties which often arise with regard to public examinations. The criteria set up for the public examinations were sometimes different from those developed by the Department of Education.

The organisational structure of 1974 created a clearer division of responsibility. New bodies were established such as the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit; Teachers Training Section; Technical Education Section; Secondary Education Section; Primary Education Section; Physical Training Section; Arts and Music Training Section; and Adult Education

Section. The Planning, Research and Guidance Unit was responsible for three different tasks:

1. educational planning;
2. educational research; and
3. vocational research.

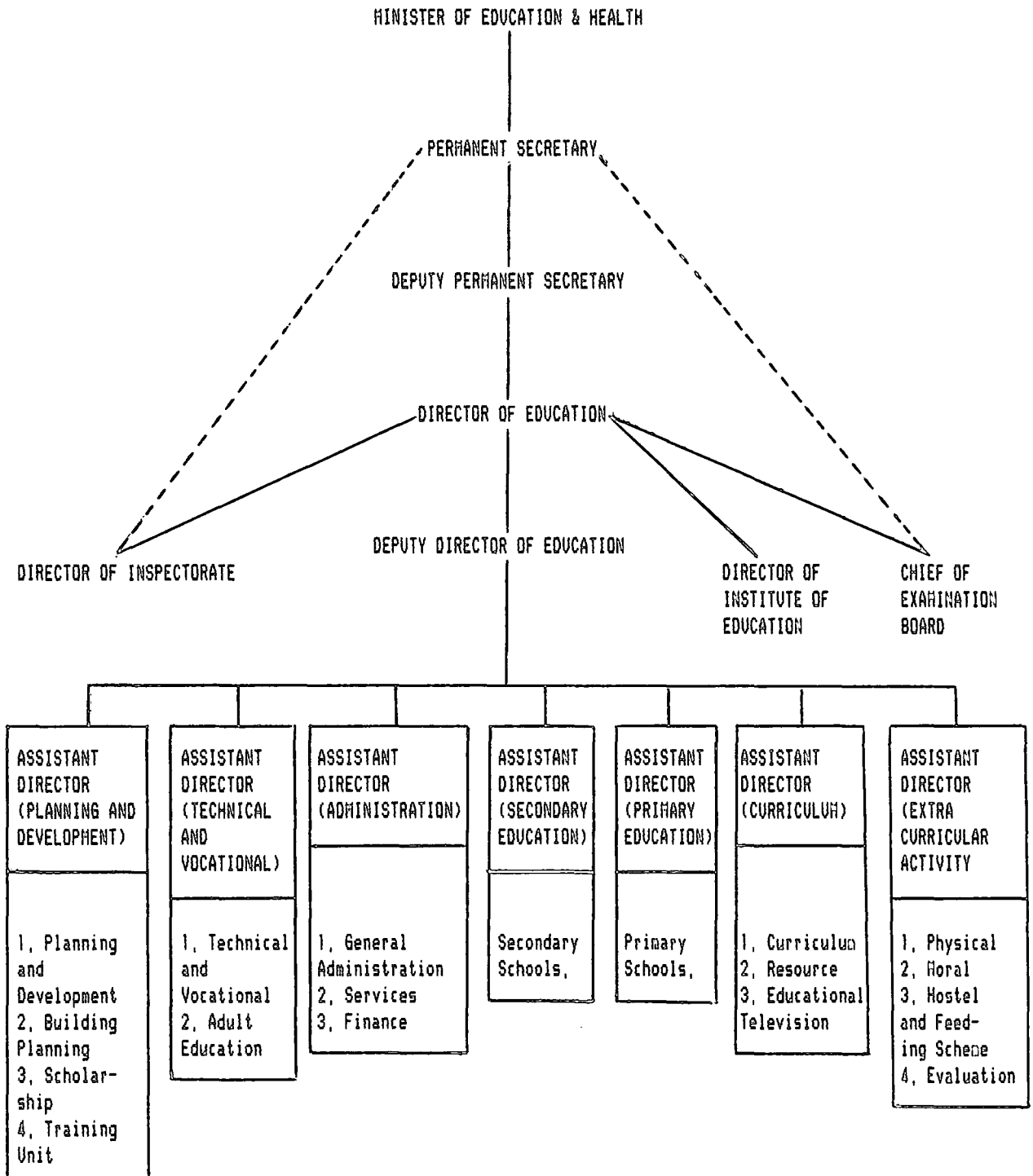
The present administrative organisational structure as shown in Figure 3.10 is the end product of a third reorganisation of the Department of Education which took place in 1980 plus some further changes made in 1983 and the changes following the introduction of the Cabinet type of Government at the beginning of 1984.

Apart from other changes, the reorganisation resulted in the appointment of 4 assistant directors of education, each of whom is responsible for a particular administrative division. Recently, another 2 assistant directors of education were appointed for the newly created divisions called the Extra Curriculum Activities Division, and the Curriculum Division. For details see Figure 3.10.

Like other heads of Government departments in Brunei Darussalam, the Director of Education is responsible directly to a Minister, that is, the Minister of

Figure 3,10

THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION 1984



Education and Health. The Minister is in turn directly responsible to the Ministerial Cabinet. In dealing with matters connected with the education service and the implementation of educational development, the Education Department has many interdepartmental links with other Government departments.

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

All education expenditure in Brunei Darussalam, except for private schools, is largely financed by the Government of His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam. In 1983, a sum of 211.2 million dollars was approved by the Government for the educational budget, which was about 10 per cent of the national budget or about 3 per cent of the National income.

In the Department of Education, the budgeting process normally begins during the first quarter of the year. The budgeting procedure begins when colleges, schools, training centres, sections and units within the Department of Education are instructed by the Director of Education to prepare their individual budget proposals and submit them on or before a deadline fixed by the Director of Education. And the draft

budget made by Education Department is finalized some time before mid-year.

Budgeting in the Education Department is normally focussed on three major categories of requirements, namely:

- i) additional staff required;
- ii) school materials and equipment; and
- iii) minor works.

The main budgeting method used is the calculation of unit costs for all the items requested which is then used to prepare an expenditure projection by taking into account increases in enrolment, increases in materials required and inflation. The departmental budget is, therefore, the aggregate for all the budget proposals received from schools, colleges, sections and units of the Department of Education. The finance section of the Department of Education coordinates the individual budgets and they are incorporated with the departmental budget. This departmental budget is later submitted by the Director of Education to the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education and then the Ministry submits it to the Ministry of Finance for detailed scrutiny, coordination and incorporation into the draft national budget. The

final version of the national budget is discussed and approved by the Cabinet.

Once the education budget is approved, the Director of Education is given a letter of authority by the Finance Ministry authorizing him to use the budgetary allocation stated in the Treasury Warrant. Basically, the Warrant contains three main categories of allocations, namely:-

- i) personnel emoluments including allowances and bonuses;
- ii) other charges annually recurrent (OCAR); and
- iii) other charges of special expenditure (OCSE).

The Treasury Warrant is part of the National Development Fund and is controlled by the Economic Planning Unit.

The Director of Education is the only executive vested with the authority to sign the vouchers. With regards to indent, however, he may choose to delegate the authority for signing such indents to other officers.

Figure 3.11 shows the amount of development funds allocated to the Department of Education for the period 1960 - 1978. The Figure shows that the amount allocated in the 1970s was far greater than the amount allocated for the 1960s. Expenditure in 1973, 1974 and 1977 has been particularly heavy because of the implementation of three major building projects, namely, the government trade school complex, the technical centre complex and the sixth form centre complex.

Figure 3.12 gives the annual provision as well as actual recurrent expenditure for the 10 year period (1973-1983). A large proportion of the recurrent expenditure was staff salaries, allowances, gratuity payments and school materials and equipment. There has been a rapid increase in total provision in the 1980s over the 1970s due to an increase in demand for school materials, textbooks, equipment and facilities as well as an increase in other recurrent expenditure arising out of routine operations, maintenance and rising costs of materials and equipment, labour and service charges. Except for 1974 and 1979, the actual expenditure of the Department of Education has been within the budgetary allocation.

Figure 3.11

DEVELOPMENT FUND FOR EDUCATION
1960 - 1978

Year	Provisions (Million B\$)	Expenditure (million B\$)
1960	1.59	NA
1961	0.50	NA
1962	1.01	NA
1963	0.70	NA
1964	1.12	NA
1965	1.54	NA
1966	3.01	NA
1967	6.51	NA
1968	1.93	NA
1969	1.92	NA
1970	1.55	NA
1971	68.20	NA
1972	4.78	1.8
1973	71.07	62.08
1974	52.24	51.97
1975	6.30	4.82
1976	13.15	12.75
1977	17.06	20.45
1978	25.29	11.98

Sources: 1960 - 1971 figures are taken from Report of the 1972 Education Commission, pp. 45 - 46; 1972 - 1977 figures are taken from the Department of Education Annual Reports, 1972 - 1977; and 1978 figures are taken from Brunei Statistical Yearbook, 1978/79.

Note: NA means data are not available.

Figure 3.12

EDUCATIONAL RECURRENT PROVISION AND EXPENDITURE, 1973-1983

Year	Provisions (million B\$)	Expenditure (million B\$)
1973	60.43	50.02
1974	53.99	58.40
1975	45.19	41.88
1976	53.45	47.30
1977	58.73	62.97
1978	74.57	70.62
1979	90.41	82.79
1980	112.40	111.95
1981	158.19	134.32
1982	172.44	NA
1983	211.24	NA

Sources: The Department of Education Annual Report 1973-1977, Brunei Darussalam (for 1973-1977 figures);

The Brunei Statistical Yearbook 1978/79 and 1979/80 (for 1978 -1981 figures);

The Education Warrant 1982, Brunei Darussalam (for 1982 figures);

The Education Warrant 1983, Brunei Darussalam (for 1983 figures).

Note: NA means data are not available.

Figure 3.13 and Figure 3.14 give a detailed breakdown of the recurrent expenditure provision for 1982 and 1983 respectively. From these Figures it can be seen that the financial resources allocated to school materials, library reference books and refresher courses formed only a small proportion of the total allocation. This highlights the low priority given to such items which are essential for the qualitative improvement of education. In analyzing the 1983 education budget, it can be observed that the budget is allocated according to three main categories of expenditure:-

- i) salaries;
- ii) other charges annually recurrent (OCAR);
and
- iii) other charges special expenditure (OCSE).

A detailed examination of the twenty-nine items listed under other charges annually recurrent (OCAR) expenditure indicates that the available resources are primarily utilized for maintaining the day-to-day operation and recurrent needs of the educational system (for details see Appendix 3.10). The OCAR expenditure is thus dominated by maintenance costs incurred by the Department of Education. A further observation is that as with the OCAR expenditure, the

Figure 3.13

PROVISION FOR RECURRENT EXPENDITURE, 1982

Category of Expenditure	Provision (million B\$)	Percentage
1. Staff salary, bonus, allowances and other charges.	80,854,019	46.9
2. Other charges annually recurrent (OCAR)	75,380,900	43.7
2.1. School Materials	4,900,000	2.8
2.1.1. Preschool	50,000	
2.1.2. Primary/Preparatory	1,400,000	
2.1.3. Secondary	2,500,000	
2.1.4. Technical	750,000	
2.1.5.	200,000	
2.2 Library Reference Books	215,000	0.1
2.2.1. Primary	65,000	
2.2.2. Secondary	50,000	
2.2.3. Technical	20,000	
2.2.3. Teacher Training	80,000	
2.3. Scholarship (overseas)	35,000,000	20.2
2.4. Refresher courses	169,000	0.1
2.5. Other items	35,429,000	20.5
3. Other Charges Special Expenditure (OCSE)	16,207,527	9.4
Total Provision	172,442,246	100.00

Source: Department of Education 1982 Warrant, Brunei Darussalam.

Figure 3.14

PROVISION FOR RECURRENT EXPENDITURE, 1983

Category of Expenditure	Provision (million B\$)	Percentage
1. Staff salary, bonus, allowances and other charges	92,147,286	43.6
2. Other charges annually recurrent	87,207,500	41.3
2.1. School materials	5,475,000	2.6
2.1.1. Preschool	75,000	
2.1.2. Primary/Preparatory	1,500,000	
2.1.3. Secondary	2,700,000	
2.1.4. Technical	1,000,000	
2.1.5. Teacher Training	200,000	
2.2. Library reference books	215,000	0.1
2.2.1. Primary	65,000	
2.2.2. Secondary	50,000	
2.2.3. Technical	20,000	
2.2.4. Teacher Training	80,000	
2.3. Scholarship (overseas)	40,000,000	19.0
2.4. Refresher Courses	214,000	0.1
2.4. Other items	40,987,525	19.5
3. Other Charges Special Expenditure	31,892,070	15.1
Total Provision	211,246,856	100.00

Source: Department of Education 1983 Warrant, Brunei Darussalam.

OCSE expenditure is mainly channelled towards meeting the cost of purchasing equipment, furniture, teaching aids, etc. For details see Appendix 3.11.

FINANCIAL ARRANGEMENTS

The various schools' sections are annually allocated funds for school management and development. However, management of this fund is not the responsibility of school heads although they play the most important role in the preparation of the schools' budget proposal.

Until 1983 principals of secondary schools and technical schools were allowed a recurrent allocated fund to purchase school materials. But since 1983, every purchase for a school, even for minor items has had to be forwarded to the relevant Assistant Director who, when the request is approved, will then issue an indent. The invoice for the purchase is certified by the principal and payment is made to the supplier when the indent and invoice are sent to the Treasury by the Administrative Section of the Education Department.

The disadvantages of this central control purchasing system are enormous. It also has had negative effects

both on management and the development of the school system.

The situation is complicated by the fact that very often school materials have to be purchased from Government approved suppliers only and not from the supplier that the schools would prefer. While this procedure ensures control of expenditure it can also cause delay in the supply of the material concerned. This problem is aggravated further by Brunei's dependence on external sources of supply for almost everything. In this respect "the Education Commission feels that there should be adequate delegation of responsibility to principals and headmasters where finance is concerned. The delay in the delivery of textbooks and other school materials has, inter alia, been caused by its inadequacy. An arrangement has to be found whereby, while adequate control of expenditure is maintained, transactions that are vital to the progress and performance of schools can be completed effectively and expeditiously".⁶

PHYSICAL MAINTENANCE OF THE SCHOOLS

Major and minor repair to the school buildings are the responsibility of the Public Works Department while electrical maintenance is the responsibility of the

Electrical Department. The involvement of another department to maintain the school building especially a very small repair seems illogical. These two Departments are servicing 56 Government schools as well as all Government housing. But maintenance in classrooms and laboratories can be a matter of urgency. Such work is far more likely to be undertaken quickly if the head of the school or the officers of the Education Department were empowered to arrange for it to be done privately.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOLS

The school heads, unlike school heads of many other countries are not appointed as a result of having made an application for the post. They are promoted from among existing assistant heads or senior teachers without prior application. This promotion is the responsibility of the Director of Education on the recommendation of the Assistant Director of Education concerned. Promotions are based on seniority and merit although sometimes these two factors are not considered important and may be neglected. The Public Service Commission has nothing to do with the promotion scheme because the post of a school head is not a permanent position, and carries a responsibility allowance only.

However, this is not true of the appointment of the Director of the Institute of Education whose post is permanent.

As seen in the Structure of the Education Department, the school head is directly responsible to the Assistant Director of Education concerned. The primary school head is directly responsible to the Assistant

Director of Primary Education through the District School Supervisors; the Secondary Schools principal is directly responsible to the Assistant Director of Secondary Education while the technical school/college principal is directly responsible to the Assistant Director of Technical Education. However, the Director of the Institute of Education is directly responsible to the Director of Education.

Government policy prior to independence was to replace expatriates with locals especially in strategic and important positions such as heads of Government schools. The last expatriate secondary school principal, an English man, was replaced by a local in 1981. This replacement of expatriate school principals resulted in the appointment of inexperienced school principals some of whom had been in the teaching profession for less than 5 years and whose only experience was as assistant or deputy principal.

Teachers have security of tenure, but they can be transferred from one school to another. This transfer is under a directive from headquarters and neither the teacher nor the headmaster has any choice in this directive.

Thus, the Director of Education has the power to transfer his staff from one place to another but he has no say in their appointment nor in their dismissal. However, he and the school principal have some say regarding renewal or termination of contracts of contract teachers and can make recommendation to the Public Service Commission. This Commission will act on the recommendation from the Director of Education (whose recommendation is based on the reports made by the school principal).

In any school in other countries, the role of headteacher become more relevant and effective if they play a role in the selection of the staff of the schools since they know best what the school requires. In many parts of the world, school heads are given a role in the selection of their own teachers and other ancillary staff.

The above procedure also obtains in the mission and private schools of Brunei where the headteacher, as a member of the school governing body, takes part in the appointment process. Members of staff of Government schools, however, ranging from teachers to the sweepers and cooks of the hostel are appointed by the Public Service Commission and Establishment Department without any involvement of the school head except in

so far as far as he or she may request an additional member of staff.

In relation to the recruitment of teaching staff, the country depends on expatriate teachers mainly for the Institute of Education. These expatriates are recruited from various countries including the United Kingdom, Malaysia, India, Philippines, Singapore and others. Almost 50 per cent of the lecturers of the Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Institute of Education and 60 per cent of teachers in secondary schools are expatriates.

Candidates for teaching posts in Brunei may be interviewed in the country from which they come or they may be sent to be interviewed locally. In this case the return fare is paid for by the Brunei Government. Sometimes officials from the Education Department are sent overseas together with members of the Public Service Commission to interview applicants but they do not have the authority to decide there and then, on the result of the interview. Instead, they have to go back to Brunei first and make their report and recommendation to the Public Service Commission. The whole procedure takes months because among other things the applicant is first of all censored by the Security Department. In fact, the time lag is such

that by the time the applicants receive their letter of acceptance many have found other jobs elsewhere.

References

1. Brunei Department of Education, Annual Report, 1983 - 84, prepared by Planning and Development Section, Education Department, Ministry Education and Health. August 1985. p 23.
2. Brunei Teacher Training College, Principal Letter. 1978.
3. Westhill College of Higher Education, Prospectus 1979 -1980.
4. University of Brunei Darussalam Prospectus 1985/86.
5. Brunei Economic Planning Unit., Five Year Development Plan, 1985 - 1990, Ministry of Finance, Brunei Darussalam, 1986. Chapter II, p 3.

CHAPTER IV

LITERATURE ON EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to survey some of the literature on Educational Planning. Aspects of particular interest are definition of educational planning, approach to integrating educational planning with development planning, educational planning techniques, the planning organisations and educational planning development,

Such literature is useful in that it affords direction for aspects of planning to be investigated, generates criteria for evaluating the practice of planning and enables a recommendation to be formulated for making proposals for the development of educational planning in Brunei Darussalam.

It is worthwhile considering some quotations which illustrate the basic thinking with regard to why planning is necessary in Education:

Hicks H.J. and Gullet C.R. stated that,

" Planning coordinates the activities of the organisation towards defined and agreed upon objectives. The alternative is random behaviour. Although there is some chance that activity can be coordinated without planning, the probability is very high.....that unplanned activity will be random, dysfunctional, and not directed towards organisational objectives".¹

They added,

Planning brings a higher degree of rationality and order into the organisation than would be present without planning".²

And Mukerji S.N. stated,

" The importance of planning in all kinds of organisational efforts is commonly recognized. Without planning, there can be little intelligent direction of activity. In fact, the activity will be largely meaningless and ineffective. It is through planning that purposes are established and that coordinated means for accomplishing the purposes are developed".³

DEFINITION OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The literature on educational planning is full of attempts to define the term 'educational planning'. Beeby considers these many attempts as inevitable in view of the amorphous state of the family of activities related to the planning of educational development⁴. As a broad concept, planning is equally susceptible to many interpretations depending on which aspects of the concept are being emphasized.

In the Oxford Dictionary, one of the meanings, of 'to plan' is "to devise or design (something to be done, or some action, etc., to be carried out); to arrange beforehand".

Among the frequently quoted definitions are those given by the following authors:-

According to McMeekin,⁵ "educational planning is the continuous process of providing information to decision makers on how well the educational system is accomplishing its goals and how the cost-effectiveness of such accomplishment can be improved". This definition suggests that planning is an activity which makes use of cost-effectiveness analysis to provide

information to decision makers about the performance and accomplishment of the educational system. It also suggests that planning is a continuous process. Unless it is carried out on a continuous basis, it would not be possible to generate continuous feedback on how well the educational system is accomplishing its goals. In the absence of feedback and cost effectiveness analysis, the decision makers will be deprived of the information that tells them about the efficiency of the educational system. It is clear that McMeekin's definition places emphasis on the role of educational planning as an information-flow system.

Eides⁶ considers educational planning from another point of view. In his opinion, educational planning must be conceived primarily as "a function of information criticism, continuously involved in critical analysis of current practice, procedures and policies." This appears to be a narrow definition of planning. In reality, educational planning is far more complicated and wide ranging an activity than that suggested by Eides.

Beeby⁷ on the other hand, suggests that "educational planning is the exercise of foresight in determining the policy, priorities and costs of an educational

system, having due regard to economic and political realities, for the system's potential for growth and for the needs of the country and of the pupils served by the system." This definition indicates that many factors must be taken into account in planning. Specifically, there are the priorities of the educational system, the policy and costs required to achieve these goals, the needs of the pupils, the needs of the country, and the economic and social framework within which the educational system operates.

The 1972 UNESCO Education Commission^e defines educational planning as "a combination of ways and means for implementing policy". In this definition, educational planning is viewed from the methodological aspect. It reminds educational planners of the need to be competent in as many techniques of planning as possible so that a variety of techniques is utilized in the implementation of educational plans. It is appropriate that the 1972 UNESCO Education Commission brings out the importance of methodology in educational planning in its definition, because one of the persistent problems of planning experience by many developing countries is effective use of available

methodologies for the formulation and implementation of educational plans.

Anderson and Bowman⁹ define educational planning as "the process of preparing a set of decisions for future action pertaining to the process of education". As they themselves have indicated elsewhere in their article,¹⁰ this definition does not imply that educational planners should be directly involved with decision making. It simply means that planners are expected to work out alternative courses of action and means of accomplishing the goals of the educational system and the goals of national development. The term 'decision' used in this definition refers not only to the objectives of planning, but also to strategy, alternative means of implementation, evaluation techniques, cost estimation and time scale of the educational plans. The all embracing nature of the term 'decisions' must, therefore, be well understood to avoid possible misinterpretations.

Prakash¹¹ defines educational planning as a task involving "the preparation of implementable projects required to achieve not only their specific educational goals but also the overall goals of national development within the existing constraints".

In this definition, Prakash draws the attention of educational planners to the importance of considering the existing constraints which may be financial, human, administrative or methodological.

APPROACHES TO INTEGRATING EDUCATIONAL PLANNING WITH DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

Several approaches are commonly cited for planning the development of education. These are the social method approach, manpower approach, capital output ratio approach, aggregate approach, the human resources assessment approach and cost benefit approach.

SOCIAL METHOD APPROACH

The social method approach is a method which assesses educational needs in terms of current demand for education at the different levels and projects on the basis of increases in population and age distribution, long term social goals and preferences for education. The financial implications of this approach are very significant because the funds required for educational expansion by using this approach are relatively large. This is the traditional approach and may work satisfactorily in a rich country.

MANPOWER APPROACH

The second approach may be called the manpower approach. It may be described as an attempt to derive

educational output from a set of economic growth projections. And it is based on the fact that, the main link with economic development is through the knowledge and skills it produces in the labour force. This approach assumes that one of the most important functions of the educational system is the production of qualified manpower to meet the needs of the economy.

Two main limitations that are frequently associated with the manpower approach are:

- a) The approach overlooks the fact that substitution possibilities exist between occupation in the production of output and between different kinds and levels of education in the performance of the function that defines a given occupation.¹²
- b) The manpower requirement has little to say about primary education. It offers practically no guidelines for primary school development.

As the approach is mainly concerned with middle and high level manpower, it offers "no useful clues about

the educational requirement of people who would constitute the vast majority of the nation's future labour force, namely, semi-skilled and unskilled workers in the cities and the vast majority of workers in rural areas."¹³

CAPITAL OUTPUT RATIO APPROACH

The third approach is called the capital output ratio method. It relates the stock of educated people and the flow of children and students completing education at the different levels directly to the national output of goods and services without passing through the intervening stage of making manpower forecasts.¹⁴

AGGREGATE APPROACH

The fourth approach is the aggregate approach or social demand approach. This approach is simply the procedures by which the educational agencies try to anticipate the future demand for education by the society. It allows for the free exercise of student preferences because it is difficult to force people to study subjects in which they are not interested. Despite the usefulness and simplicity of the social

demand approach, it has several defects. These include:-

- a) It does not provide any guidance as to which educational demand should be given priority.
- b) Forecasts of the social demand for education are usually subject to considerable degrees of uncertainty, especially in the long run.
- c) The approach ignores the larger national problem of the resources that are allocated to education.
- d) The approach tends to over-estimate popular demands, to under-estimate costs, and to lead to a spreading of resources over too many students, thereby reducing quality and effectiveness to the point where education becomes a dubious investment.

HUMAN RESOURCES ASSESSMENT APPROACH

The fifth approach is called the human resources assessment approach. This approach is a comprehensive one. It starts from the position that education is one

of the main sources of human resource information, other resources being measures in the field of manpower, employment, training and health.

COST BENEFIT APPROACH

The sixth approach is called the cost benefit approach. This approach is essentially a technique for making choices between different projects and programmes. By a systematic comparison of costs and benefits, the approach is based on the assumption that education is a form of investment and that the profitability of different types and levels of education can be compared by means of estimates of rates and return.¹⁵ The rate and return approach thus enables educational planners to be cautious in the choice between alternative investment patterns that yield different combinations of benefits in relation to cost. It also has several limitations.

- a) The approach measures only the direct economic benefit reflected in the extra lifetime earnings of individuals created by additional education while the cultural and social benefits of education as well as the

indirect economic or spill over benefits are ignored.¹⁶

b) The approach tells the planners and decision makers only half of what they need to know. It tells them in what direction to put more resources to get the best yield, but it does not tell them how far to go in this direction.¹⁷

c) The rate of return analysis focuses attention only on those types and levels of education which generate a high rate of return. It does not make adequate allowance for consistency within the educational system.¹⁸

The social demand, manpower and rate and return approaches are essential for macro planning.¹⁹ These approaches have been widely applied in the 1960s by many developing countries.

Many writers advocate a synthesis of these approaches into a workable and systematic framework. So far efforts at reconciling these approaches are not particularly encouraging. But these approaches remain

as useful tools for setting broad quantitative targets for educational development.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING TECHNIQUES

Apart from the above approaches, there are many other techniques may be used for planning purposes. Among the many planning techniques are educational mapping technique, system analysis and its variants such as:-

1. The management system approach;
2. The cooperative systems approach; and
3. The technical system approach.¹⁹

EDUCATIONAL MAPPING TECHNIQUE

Basically, the educational mapping technique is employed to provide:

- i) a catalogue of the educational needs of a society or a community;
- ii) an inventory of available facilities and utilized and under-utilized facilities; and
- iii) guidelines as to how the available facilities could be used more effectively as well as where new facilities need to

be provided and where these facilities can be utilized to the greatest advantage.

SYSTEM ANALYSIS

A system analysis according to Sergiovanni, T.J. and Carver F.D.²⁰ is

"an attempt to define carefully and map each of the interdependent parts of the whole so that one part can be manipulated with full awareness of the effects on each of the other parts internal to the system and effects of this system on its environment. System analysis assumes that administrators emphasize control of performance towards specific goals, as well as channelling human and material resources with maximum efficiency toward those goals. Moreover, a key aspect of system analysis is the evaluation of progress toward goal achievement, thus goals need to be operationalised so that they are readily measured".

As an ideal planning technique, Sergiovanni and Carver claim that system analysis will help the school executive more clearly,

"to identify the nature and scope of his problems, to generate operational and specific goals and objectives, to evaluate these goals and to arrange them in priority, to search for all alternative solutions within the limit of available resources, to examine each of these alternatives or options in terms of performance criteria, to assign each alternative or option a weighting score of some kind and finally to select the best

alternatives. This process, when linked to others like it, forms building blocks for long and short range planning."²¹

THE THREE VARIANT SYSTEM ANALYSIS

1. The Management System Approach

The management system approach can be used to provide decision and action plans within the limitations of given inputs such as the available resources, talents, competing value systems, needs, pressures and other constraints.²² The management system approach is suggested when the problem under study and goals being considered are more administrative than instructional, when problems are long range, when the primary locus of authority is with school executives rather than with teachers and when centralized decision making seems appropriate.

2. The Cooperative System Approach

Like the management system approach, the cooperative system approach also can be used to produce decisions and action plans within the limitation of given inputs such as the available resources, talents, predominant and competing value systems, needs, pressures and other constraints.²³ The cooperative system approach

is suggested when problems and goals are more instructional than administrative, when problems are long range, when the primary locus of authority is with teaching and support professionals rather than with school executives and when decentralised decision making seems appropriate.²⁴

3. The Technical System Approach

The technical system approach can be described as "a method which may be used in conjunction with planning effort of both the management and cooperative variety. This is a supportive approach usually associated with short term projects with clearly defined goals and definite time constraints".²⁵

THE VARIATIES OF SYSTEMATIC FORCAST TECHNIQUE

There are three varieties of systematic forcast techniques, namely:-

- a) the computerized projection;
- b) the Delphi technique; and
- c) the alternative futures or Scenerio technique.

a) The Computerized Projection

The computerized projection is developed out of the computer's new capacity for storage and retrieval of data. Hamilton describe this approach as follows:

"In computer projections, current conditions are chosen and rates of change and direction are then programmed with variables introduced to ascertain their effects. Successive cycling of information into the computer will project various combinations of variables to influence the projection of any specific trends population growth, economic conditions and sociological trends. The accuracy of the projection, of course, depends upon the ability of analysts to select the possible combination of variables."²⁶

b) The Delphi Technique

This technique is another device for developing projections about what is likely to happen and also about what is desired and expected. It is used to "forecast development and timing of future events. It relies primarily on the pooled 'expertise' of a number of selected authorities. A group of from 40 to 100 carefully selected experts are sent questionnaires about when they expect a certain event to occur. This is then followed up by subsequent questionnaires listing the results of the first questionnaires etc.,

until there is a clear agreement among the experts on tendencies".²⁷

c) The Alternative Futures or Scenerio Technique

The alternative futures technique was described by Hamilton as a,

"Highly technical approach to planning. It depends upon a group of scholars who look sociologically at certain trends and predict where these trends might lead the country or world. The scholars then write scenarios or descriptions of what society will be like if certain trends converge at certain points in the future The alternative futures approach does not predict which future is most likely, but it only points to alternative pictures of what the world might be like if certain combinations of trends come together. It is up to the planner then to make his decision based upon whichever scenerio he selects and his prediction of how this will affect him, his business or his profession."²⁸

DECISION TREE

The decision tree is a planning device for projecting "the effects of a decision beyond a single time period. Information gained from the result of a decision in a given year will have an influence upon the choice of a course of action in the following year. By using the decision tree the impact of choices in one time period upon succeeding time periods can thus be estimated".²⁹

Like the planning approaches mentioned earlier these techniques also have inherent advantages and disadvantages. The basis for choosing any one of these tools will depend on the objective planners have in mind. Educational planners will have to know these approaches and techniques thoroughly and be competent in as many of them as possible for the performance of their task. The application of these planning approaches and techniques could generate a range of useful information to guide planning and decision making with regard to education.

PLANNING ORGANISATION

The great majority of countries in Asia today are engaged in some form of educational planning. Some Asian countries have already established the necessary machinery for planning and have prepared educational plans.

By 1968, the UNESCO survey shows that there was a growing tendency among many countries to centralise the responsibility for educational planning, give due recognition to the need to integrate educational plans with socio-economic plans and at the same time provide opportunities for the participation of the public.³⁰

In Indonesia, educational planning is administered by one unit in the Ministry of Education, that is the Research and Planning Division, while the Bureau of Planning, which is under the control of the cabinet, is the responsible organ for overall planning.³¹ In Iran there is a planning committee in each of the various ministries. The proposed plan from each ministry is considered by the plan organisation, which is the agency responsible for overall planning in the country. As far as education is concerned, the planning is a cooperative enterprise on the part of

the social affairs section of the economic division of the plan organisation on the one hand, and the Ministry of Education and the Institution of Higher Learning on the other.³² In Thailand, the National Education Council is responsible for the planning of education; while in Vietnam there are two central bodies for educational planning, but in the Ministry of Education there is a planning department and a study and research bureau capable of formulating policy on education.³³ In Malaysia, educational planning is administered by one division in the Ministry of Education called the Educational Planning and Research Division.³⁴ There are other countries in Asia such as Laos and Burundi³⁵ which do not have a formal planning organisation at all, their educational plans being prepared by an ad hoc commission.

Evidence provided by the 1968 UNESCO survey shows that there were then many countries intending to centralise the responsibility for educational planning.

The setting up of educational planning units automatically raises many questions and problems, namely, the problem of understanding the purpose of educational planning, the question of recruiting the

staff, the definition of role, the description of responsibilities, the statement of objectives and function of the planning unit, the need to estimate the unit's operating budget, the allocation of appropriate resources for the unit and the question of the appropriate practice that the unit should adopt. The Asian experience as documented by UNESCO's Regional Office in Bangkok²⁶ provides ample illustrations of the problems that can arise. For example, it is observed that the necessary support for planning activities is often lacking if staff members of the planning unit have little understanding of the purpose of educational planning. If the planning unit is to function smoothly and effectively, it must be provided with a cadre of knowledgeable and competent planners. Clear descriptions of roles, responsibilities and the functions of the planning unit are equally important in determining the direction, purpose, and mission of the operation. A clear understanding of the planning process as the basic framework for the planning of education is essential for all who are involved in educational planning.

Apart from the above, there is also a need to foster a close working relationship between the planning unit

and other government agencies as well as other units within the Education Department itself.

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The aim of this section is briefly to set out a broad conceptual framework within which an educational plan can be formulated.

Education imaginatively conceived and built upon social and institutional relevance, can be an effective force in the process of social and economic development. Expenditure on education is a necessary complementary investment for healthy economic growth. Lack of appropriate educational investment may result in bottlenecks in development in the form of manpower shortages. On the other hand, increasing educational expenditure, unrelated to the social and economic needs of a country and unaccompanied by other investment, does not necessarily increase the rate of development. In fact, unless educated people can be utilized for the purpose of development, such educational expenditure hampers development by depriving the other sectors of the economy of resources where they could be more fruitfully invested.

THE MANPOWER APPROACH

A more practical approach which can be of immediate application has to be used. It is for this reason that the manpower approach to educational planning has become popular in recent years and has received official endorsement almost everywhere in the developing countries. In a sense, the term 'manpower approach' has been unfortunate because it gives the impression that in this approach educational needs are being determined by economic considerations alone. This need not be the case as will be shown later. But the emphasis is definitely on the relationship of education to economic growth.

The economic development makes great demands on educated manpower of various types and the ability of the educational system to meet such manpower needs of the economy is of crucial importance. This further implies that estimating future manpower requirements is an essential part of such an approach to educational planning. Parnes, H.S. explained.³⁷

"So long as one grants that manpower consideration are one of the elements that ought to influence educational decisions, then all such decisions if they purport to be national, involve manpower forecasts Thus the question is not whether forecasts are to be made, but the extent to which they are going to be as systematic as possible and are

going to be based on all the evidence that can be marshalled.....

The second point to be made concerning the manpower forecasts that underlie educational planning is that they do not, or at least they should not purport to be pure unconditional forecasts. That is they are not so much predictions of what will happen in the manpower fields as indications of what must happen if certain targets for economic growth are to be realised."

Stripped to its essentials, the estimation of manpower requirements involves a close analysis of the present situation, and using this as a base line, a forward estimate of manpower requirements based on economic growth targets. Such an estimation of future manpower requirements will help specify the type and quantity of education required in the future to meet certain development targets set out in the development plan. Thus, many educational priorities will have to be determined this way and this is not unreasonable especially in developing countries where resources are scarce and the need for certain types of manpower are urgent for economic advances.³²

Since an adequate supply of the necessary skilled and educated manpower is a prerequisite for carrying out the various development projects set out in the development plan, and the educational system is called upon to meet these manpower needs, a more conscious

integration of educational planning with development planning is essential if plans are to be mutually consistent and supportive towards meeting a nation's social and economic objectives. This further implies that appropriate machinery will have to be set up, if it does not already exist, to make such integrated planning possible.

Viewed this way, educational planning aims to provide the economy with the necessary manpower to carry out the task of development. This aim is an important one. But the idea that education can be planned solely in economic terms is misleading. It is wrong to assume that the only role of education is to make people more economically productive. Education is also desired for the enrichment and development of the individual to live a more satisfying life. But to view education this way cannot, of course, exclude vocational considerations, at the same time it is not limited to them. The objective should be to develop the individual's ability to function effectively as a member of the community, to prepare him for productive activity not only for the purpose of satisfying his desire for economic goods but also for the psychological satisfaction which creative activity brings.³⁹ Just as education has both vocational and

cultural significance to an individual, so it serves both economic and non-economic ends so far as society is concerned. The goals of modern society are not only economic progress but also cultural, social and political. But if one of the major goals of society is rapid economic progress, then educational programmes must be designed to provide the people with the skills, knowledge and competence required for a productive economy. But if we accept the idea that education should be organised and planned on the basis that it places no limit on the freedom of choice of individuals, then we must also be prepared to forego the goal of rapid economic growth. For if education is not planned to meet certain crucial manpower needs, it loses much of its driving force in development and may lead to the paradoxical situation, which exists in many developing countries, of having both educated manpower shortages and surpluses at the same time. This could lead to further unemployment simply because a slow growing economy cannot create jobs fast enough to absorb all the educated people into productive employment.⁴⁰ But to accept this economic, or manpower criteria for planning does not mean that the cultural, social and political objectives are neglected. In fact, most plans do give a large place to social, cultural and political objectives and the demographic

trends that underlie such needs even though manpower considerations rank high.⁴¹ Social objectives such as mass literacy are, of course, not totally unrelated to economic development. Mass literacy can be used as a tool to introduce the whole population to the age of science, it could be a potent stimulus to social and economic advance. This does not, however, entirely dispose of certain genuine problems that may arise in a society of resource-scarcity and where priorities have to be set. Economic considerations, for example, may dictate that education be given to a small elite who are to take up posts in the high technological and scientific fields, whereas, social demands and the aim of social equality and political cohesion may dictate that priority be given to universal primary and secondary education or mass literacy. If the economic criteria has over-riding importance, then the choice is obvious. But often social and political considerations may dictate that the second option be chosen. This is not necessarily wrong, given its objectives and ideals but the cost is much greater in terms of the faster economic growth that the country may have to forego. In reality, the choice may not be as stark as this, a compromise between the two in the light of the country's many objectives and aspirations can be made.⁴²

In most countries, social and cultural considerations probably loom large in the provision of primary and secondary education and certain types of adult education. But in the provision of higher education, especially in developing countries where there are critical shortages of high level manpower of certain types, there is a necessity to relate such education broadly to future patterns of job and the need for certain types of manpower. This is important in that there must be enough educated workers to carry on the task of development without which funds for more education will be curtailed. It is also important from the point of view of the individual who sees education as the means for obtaining a job. Decisions for individuals about future courses of study will be more realistic and more in line with the demand for their qualifications if the educational system itself is broadly related to the needs of the economy.

Educational requirements for social and economic development can only be translated into quantitative terms for planning purposes if they are viewed in terms of those objectives which a country has defined. If for social, cultural and political or even economic reasons, a country holds as its objectives to give six years of primary education to all school-age children,

or to eliminate illiteracy within, say, 15 years, a quantifiable need for education can be roughly established. Or if the economic targets calls for certain types of manpower, there is again the possibility of establishing the educational needs. This is, of course, an oversimplification, for even in the manpower estimation the uncertainty of the relationship between manpower and the most appropriate education makes the translation of manpower needs into educational needs controversial. The uncertainties are increased by the inexactness of forecasting techniques and the lack of complete data even in the most advanced countries. Such problems should prevent the planner from assuming an air of exactness.

In spite of the many problems, decisions with regard to education have to be made somehow, for no government believes that market forces can be relied upon to determine the allocation of educational resources. And such decisions are likely to be more realistic and enlightened if they are made in the light of a careful analysis of the economic and social needs and the best evidence that can be gathered.

PRIORITY AND BALANCE

Manpower considerations will help set many of the priorities in educational expansion. But there is a need to look into the question of balance at the same time. For example, assigning priority to University education does not mean priority can be confined to that level of education alone. It also implies that some priority has to be given to the preceding level of education in the form of a sufficiently broad base of secondary school education to support the university level. To give a hypothetical example if only 20 out of 100 primary school children proceed to the secondary school and only one out of 20 secondary school children proceed to the University to earn the degree, a kind of educational pyramid is automatically established in the ratio of 1: 20: 100 (University: Secondary: Primary); to achieve one student in the University will require 20 at the secondary level and 100 at the primary level. Viewed this way, any rapid expansion of tertiary education must entail an increase in the retention of children in the total educational system. In fact, this is not the complete picture. To run the primary school, teachers are required and this will make further demands on secondary schools graduates who are to be trained as

teachers, and the secondary educational level will in turn make demands on university graduates to teach them. As a result, when initial manpower targets a set for qualified people at any level, the educational system not only changes its direction but expands as a whole.⁴³ The planner must be fully aware of this kind of interdependence of the various kinds and levels of education and the dynamic of the total educational system. To forget this would result in bottlenecks and inefficiency which minimise the effectiveness of educational planning. The planner should seek priorities by taking the inter-relationship of various levels into consideration so as to get a proper balance in the educational system.

Related to this structural balance is the balance between arts-based and science-based education and the balance between general and vocational education. Where secondary education is terminal for most students (as it is in most developing countries), a secondary curriculum too narrowly concerned with preparing students for tertiary education seems to be a mistake. There is a clear need in such countries for more vocational and technical education at the secondary level. Having said that, it should also be obvious that narrow specialisation and full time pre-

employment vocational education should not be pushed too far in secondary schools. The lack of qualified teachers and facilities may eventually result in students of questionable quality being turned out. Instead, cautious expansion in this area plus an orientation of secondary education towards one that is more broadly based to include science and mathematics or even technical subjects would be a more effective way of increasing the quality, quantity and flexibility of secondary school graduates than a narrowly specialised vocational education of poor quality.

This suggests that adult education and training facilities, and especially industrial training facilities, should be written into educational planning. Industrial training and certain forms of adult education more directly related to people's jobs could be a more efficient way of providing vocational training than schools. Too often educational planning falls into the traditional pattern of concentrating almost solely on the school system, leaving out the potential role of a wide variety of adult education and training facilities in complementing the formal educational system in meeting manpower needs. There may be some superficial recognition of such facilities

but they are seldom consciously planned into an effective educational training programme.⁴⁴ The formal education system is assumed to be the sole provider of the future manpower needs of the economy. This is not only quite unrealistic but is a narrow view of educational planning for social and economic development. In the short run, at least, it is quite unrealistic to expect the vocational or professional institutions at the tertiary level in most developing countries to be able to meet all the demands for such manpower. Secondly, general education at the secondary and primary educational levels seldom produces fully trained labour ready for effective use in the economy. Thirdly, the vast majority of the labour force in the developing countries is so uneducated and unskilled that unless various forms of adult education and industrial training are provided to upgrade their quality, there is little possibility of substantially increasing the productivity of the labour force quickly. All these factors point to the necessity of increasing adult education and training facilities in one form or another.

One consequence of the narrow view of educational planning is that adult education and training facilities are not fully explored and utilized or

expanded in time to meet the vocational and training needs. In more recent years attention has been drawn to the necessity to plan for this aspect of education and training, and in fact, in some of the more recent educational plans attempts are being made to incorporate this aspect into the total educational plan.⁴⁵

Most developing countries have invested in a great variety of such forms of educational activity. Such investments have often been ineffective through the lack of planning and co-ordination with the development programmes. There seems to be a need here to bring the several parts together under an overall co-ordinating and planning body so that the integration of such activities with the development programmes can be better achieved.

COMPREHENSIVENESS OF THE PLAN

The inter-relatedness of the various levels and types of education necessitates that plans for education be comprehensive. It is when education is planned comprehensively and the various areas are dovetailed into one another that the balance between the various

levels and types of education can better be achieved and bottlenecks avoided. Moreover, comprehensive educational planning will better enable the planners to determine the relative importance of each area of education and also to consider a number of alternatives with a view to selecting the most efficient mix which is a move towards "optimization, a hallmark of good educational planning".⁴⁶

TIME SCALE OF THE PLAN

Various time scales for the short term, medium term and long term plans have been suggested and used. But the argument that since certain types of manpower take as long as 15 to 20 years to produce, an educational plan must, of necessity, be a long term perspective plan appears to take too rigid a view of planning for future manpower needs. It has excluded from consideration:

- (1) that the terminal years of schooling at each level can be adjusted in training and curricula and to some extent in the size of the classes;

(2) that the development of certain types of manpower through industrial training can be carried out in a remarkably short time;

(3) that incentives can be used to influence the flow of students into certain branches of studies especially at the university and college level on the basis of crucial manpower needs.

All these suggest that there should also be a short-term plan. It is true, however, that in the short term the size and orientation of the educational system is fairly inflexible. Hence the modification and expansion of the educational system to meet high level manpower needs such as technologists, scientists, doctors, graduate teachers, etc. which require a longer period of time to 'process' will largely be longer term measures.

CONCLUSION

While educational planning is not completely new, the old concept of planning on a year to year basis to meet social demands for education and for limited

sectors of the educational system has changed and new dimensions have entered:

- 1) manpower considerations in addition to social and cultural considerations are included;
- 2) a longer time perspective is added;
- 3) comprehensive rather than piece-meal planning is being advocated; and
- 4) the integration of educational planning with development planning has become essential.⁴⁷

The plan that finally emerges will only be realistic if the likely costs involve are within the means of the country concerned. It should not be so burdensome as to prevent the integrated development of education and other development programmes. At the same time the size of the total education system should be such that the educational requirements of the overall development targets can be met as far as possible. In the manpower approach to educational planning, this will involve: (1) the choosing of a lower growth target thereby scaling down the educated manpower requirement and hence the educational requirement; and (2) the corresponding scaling down of the budget for other development programmes.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING DEVELOPMENT

Educational planning has developed most rapidly during the last two decades. In many developed and developing countries planning has been applied to serve education in the past and present. It should be recognized that educational planning is not a product of the 20th Century. It has its own historical background.

Fletcher⁴⁸ and Coombs⁴⁹ have suggested that the Spartans planned their education about 2500 years ago to meet social, economic and military objectives; the Chinese during the Han Dynasty and the Incas in Peru planned their education to suit their particular public purposes. Plato offered the idea of the need to have an educational plan to develop Athenian leadership and to serve the political purposes of the state.

Coombs⁵⁰ summed up the features of the simplistic educational planning that has been practised in most places for many generation prior to the Second World War as short range in outlook, fragmentary, non-integrated and non-dynamic.

Modern educational planning has attracted international attention and impressive intellectual interest since May 1956 when the second American Meeting of Ministers of Education was held at Lima. The meeting agreed that, to solve the quantitative and qualitative problems facing the American countries in the educational sphere, the use of planning techniques was to be recommended.⁵¹

In 1958, a Regional Seminar on Educational Reform in South East Asia was held in New Delhi (India) to study the specific problems of educational planning and administration.

In 1960 despite the extreme world wide shortage of educational planning personnel, UNESCO sent out a total of more than 150 short term mission and over 190 long term resident advisory experts on educational planning covering 80 countries.

Educational planning gained further stimulus and impetus with the various developments in the 1960s. In 1960 the eleventh session of the UNESCO General Conference approved the establishment of regional centres for the training of educational planners, administrators and supervisors. And between 1960 and

1963 in cooperation with the developing nations themselves UNESCO established regional training centres in Santiago de Chile (for Latin America); in New Delhi, India (for Asia); in Beirut (for the Arab States); and in Dakar (for New African Nations). These new regional training and research centres were set up to meet the need to help each country to train its own indigenous planning experts in order to become self sufficient in the future.

To provide the norm for these regional centres and to give impetus to research, in 1963 UNESCO established the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in Paris (with the cooperation of the World Bank, the Ford Foundation and the French Government).

Over the years IIEP has developed into a research and training centre for educational planners and educational administrators from many parts of the world. The IIEP also produce a wide range of publications to distribute to many developing countries.

"The IIEP particular sought to collect, creat and disseminate this new knowledge through a wide ranging publication programme which included research, reports and instructional material aimed at bridging the communication gap between researchers and practitioners and at remedying the world wide shortage of good training material. By 1969 six years after

the Institute's creation a large number of such publications, translated into various languages, were in wide circulation and use throughout the world."⁵²

In the 1960s and 1970s the idea of educational planning spread from the west to developing countries through IIEP publications. The education authorities or planning agencies adopted and applied the educational training model from the west to solve their educational problems. From the planning experience of the last two decades, developing countries are aware that not all the planning models developed in the West are applicable to developing countries.⁵³

Although educational planning is still a new field of specialization, it has become an important and significant educational activity in many developing countries. For example, a survey carried out by UNESCO in 1968 showed that 85 per cent of the developing nations had drawn up formal education plans, and of these only 10 per cent were attempting the development of educational plans for the first time.⁵⁴

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) played a notable role in the developed countries. Its direct training activities

are limited but its researchers in Western Europe, North America and Japan have done creative work on the more theoretical and methodological frontiers of educational planning and have developed programmes of assistance throughout the developing countries.

The planning activities of the developing countries as well as the many case studies have generated substantial data, information and practical experience which are invaluable for future planning initiatives.

References

1. Hicks H.G. and Gullett, C.R., The Management of Organization, 3rd Ed., Tokyo: McGraw-Hill Kogakusha Ltd., 1976, p. 266.
2. Hicks, H.G. and Gullet, C.R. Op cit, p. 268.
3. Mukerji, S.N., Administration of Education, Planning and Finance: Theory and Practice, Baruda: Archaya Book Depot, 1970, p. 179.
4. Beeby, C.E., Planning and the Educational Administrator. Paris, UNESCO: IIEP, 1967 p 9.
5. McMeekin, R.W. Educational Planning and Expenditure Decision in Developing Countries: With A Malaysian case study. New York: Praegar publishers, Inc., 1975, p 3.
6. Eides, K., politics of long range planning: The strange world of planner, in Thomas Green, Educational Planning Perspective: Forecasting and policy making, survey: IPC Business publishers, 1971. pp 21-22.
7. Beeby, C.E., Op cit p 82.
8. Faure, E., Learning to be: Education for Today and Tomorrow, UNESCO, Paris, 1972. p 71.
9. Anderson, C.A. and Bowman, M.J., Theoretical consideration in Educational Planning, in the world year book of education 1967(ed), Beredy, G.Z.P. and Lauwerys, J.A. Educational Planning. Evan. 1967. p 15.
10. Anderson, C.A. and Bowman, M.J., Op cit.
11. Praksha, V., Training of Educational Planners, in UNESCO regional office of Education in Asia, Bulletin No 16, June 1975 p.172.
12. Ahmed, B. and Blaug, M. (eds), The Practice of Manpower Forecasting, London, Elsevier Scientific 1973.
13. Coombs, P.H. What is Educational Planning? UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1970 p. 41.

14. UNESCO., Economic and Social Aspect of Educational Planning, UNESCO, Paris 1963. p. 26.
15. Woodhal, M. assisted by Ward, V., Economic Aspect of Education, NFER, 1972. pp. 72-73.
16. Rajadurai, J.P., A Study of Educational Planning in Singapore", unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Malaya, 1981. pp. 68-69.
17. Coombs, P.H., Op cit p. 47.
18. Chew Sing Buan, Planning in Education, in F.H.K. Wong (Ed), Readings in Malaysian Education, Kuala Lumpur: University of Malay Press, 1977 pp. 259-264.
19. Coombs, P.H. Op cit p. 45.
20. Sergiovanni, T.J. and Carver, F.D., The New School Executive: A Theory of Administration, 2nd Ed. New York: Harper and Row, 1980. pp. 284-304.
21. Sergiovanni, T.J. and Carver, F.D., Op cit p. 290.
22. Sergiovanni, T.J. and Carver, F.D., Op cit p. 292.
23. Sergiovanni, T.J. and Carver, F.D., Op cit p. 298.
24. Sergiovanni, T.J. and Carver, F.D., Op cit p. 298.
25. Sergiovanni, T.J. and Carver, F.D., Op cit p. 285.
26. Hamilton, N.K., New Technique for Effective School Administration, New York: Parker Publishing Co. Ltd., 1975 p. 91.
27. Hamilton, N.K., Op cit p. 91.
28. Hamilton, N.K., Op cit p. 92.
29. Philip, H.M., in Economic and Social Aspect of Educational Planning, UNESCO, 1963. pp. 32-37.
30. UNESCO., Op cit.
31. UNESCO., Op cit p. 11.
32. UNESCO., Op cit p. 11.
33. UNESCO., Op cit p. 12.

34. Ministry of Education, Kuala Lumpur, Education in Malaysia, 1980, Eric 1981.
35. UNESCO., Op cit.
36. UNESCO., Op cit.
37. Parnes, H.S., "Manpower analysis in Educational planning," in Blaug(ed) Economic of Education 1, Selected Readings, Penguin, 1969. p 266.
38. Vaizey, John, Education in the modern world. London: Weidenfield and Nicholson, 1975. p 67
39. Parnes, H.S. Forecasting educational needs for social and economic development. OECD Paris 1961/63.
40. Curle, A., Educational strategy for developing societies: a study of educational and social factors in relation economic growth. Tavistock publication, London, 1963. p 131
41. OECD., An experiment in planning by six countries, MRP, Paris 1965
42. Vaizey, J., Op cit pp 67-68
43. Vaizey, J., Op cit pp 69-70
44. Report of the Education Review Committee, Government printer, 1960, report of higher education planning committee, Government printer. Kuala Lumpur 1967
45. OECD., MRP Country report, especially Turkey, 1965. For comment on this see Hollister, R., "An evaluation of the first stage of the MRP" OECD 1967 p 37
46. Hanson, J.W., Developing the plan, in education and the Development of Nations, ed. Hanson, J.W. and Brenbeck, C.S. New York, London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966. pp 317-331
47. Coombs, P.H. What do we still need to know about Educational Planning?, in the world years books of education, Educational Planning, Evan, 1967. pp 59-60

48. Fletcher, B.A., The Development of the Idea of Planning in Education, in J. W. Hanson and C. S. Brembeck, (eds), Education and the Development of Nation,: New York: Holt. Rivehart and Winston, 1966, pp. 309 - 317.
49. Coombs, P.H., Op cit pp. 17 - 19.
50. Coombs, P.H., Op cit, p. 19.
51. UNESCO., Educational Studies and Document 45, Element of Educational Planning - UNESCO, Paris, 1963. p. 10.
52. Coombs, P.H., Op cit. p.48.
53. UNESCO, Op cit.
54. Coombs, P.H., Op cit, p. 48.

CHAPTER V

THE EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
IN BRUNEI DARUSSALAM

INTRODUCTION

The initiative to introduce systematic educational planning in Brunei Darussalam was first taken in 1962 when the recruitment of educational planners was proposed in the Diver Report.¹ Then the Director of Education brought up the proposal again in 1969. Unfortunately, both proposals to introduce planning in education failed because the Budget Committee rejected them on the grounds that it was too soon to introduce educational planning in the Brunei Darussalam education system. They also thought many other important educational matters required urgent attention and should be given first priority.²

In 1972, however, the Education Commission recommended the establishment of a Planning, Research and Guidance

Unit charged with the responsibility of educational planning, research and guidance.³ But this Unit was only set up within the Department of Education in 1974. Among other things the Unit was entrusted with the responsibility of planning the development of education in Brunei Darussalam. However, not much was done by the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit to develop educational planning in Brunei or to apply the idea of systematic planning in education in the country.

In December 1980, the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit was dismantled and a new division called the Educational Planning and Development Division was set up. Despite this reorganisation, systematic educational planning still does not exist in the country. This does not mean no educational planning has been undertaken in Brunei Darussalam. Some form of educational planning has been going on for some years past.

THE ORGANISATION OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The Education Commission 1972 observed that,

"the existing administrative machinery (of the Department of Education) is first of all, characterized by the lack of proper planning in terms of systematically formulated projects and programmes with strict timetables for their execution".⁴

The 1972 Education Commission further observed that,

"planning towards the achievement of the aims and objectives as agreed could never be successful as long as the present organisation of the Education Department continues. The Education Department with its many sections, working in closed watertight compartments, is too unwieldy to make coordination possible".⁵

It was on the basis of these observations that the 1972 Commission recommended, among other things, the adoption of systematic educational planning and the establishment of a planning organisation in Brunei Darussalam. In 1974 the Government finally decided to establish the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit as a new unit within the Department of Education.

The 1972 Education Commission, however, realized that educational planning and its implementation could not be carried out successfully by merely creating a

planning organisation. It recommended that the Department of Education undertake several important organisational, staffing and administrative reforms to facilitate the practice of systematic educational planning and its implementation.

Firstly, it recommended that organisational and staffing changes be made in the Department of Education. The Commission considered that without a competent administrative machinery no programmes or projects could be adequately and properly implemented. The Commission pointed out that,

"important as the preparation, evaluation and revision of educational plans is, their implementation is even more so. Even the best of educational plans can come to grief if inadequately implemented, while even a technically defective plan can be made to yield good results if the implementation is honest and efficient".⁶

In connection with the proposed organisational and staffing changes and administrative reforms, the Commission made the following recommendations:

- a) The Department of Education should be orientated to the aims and objectives of the system of education;

- b) the administrative staff should be educated in the meaning and philosophy of the plan before its implementation;
- c) the staff of some sections should be strengthened;
- d) the division of authority and responsibility between the various officers and sections of the Department of Education charged with the implementation of the educational plan should be defined clearly;
- e) adequate delegation and devolution of authority to different officers and levels should be provided to enable them to take prompt and effective action; and
- f) competent educational administrators for the Department of Education, schools and educational institutions should be recruited since the success of educational planning as well as its implementation would depend mainly upon the character, ability and zeal of persons who were recruited to man the different posts in educational administration.

The Commission further recommended that the existing system of recruitment, incentives and promotion of the

personnel of the Department of Education should be reviewed as a whole. The existing practice of promotion by seniority should be abolished and replaced by a system based on qualifications, efficiency and dedication.

The Commission also recommended that opportunities should be provided for the public to participate at appropriate stages of plan preparation and implementation since the successful execution of the educational projects and programmes also depended, in large measure, on the active and willing cooperation of the public.

While some changes have been made, for example, the establishment of the Education Council in 1973, the establishment of the Curriculum Development Centre in 1976 and the introduction of a revised primary school curriculum in January 1983, most of the 1972 recommendations have not been carried out. It is not surprising, therefore, to discover that the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit could not do very much to promote the practice of systematic educational planning and formulate educational plans.

The 1972 Education Commission also made recommendations about the position and responsibilities of the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit (as can be seen in Figure 3.11). From this Figure it is clear that the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit's organisational position was on the same level as other sections of the Department of Education. As a result, the head of the education section concerned had no direct authority over the other sections of the Department of Education. The head of the section could communicate directly with the heads who were responsible for other sections and request cooperation. The effectiveness of this procedure depended on the relationship between the head of Planning, Research and Guidance Unit and the heads of other sections. In most cases cooperation was unsatisfactory particularly if materials or information requested were perceived as an additional burden by the sections concerned.

To ensure a better cooperation and relationship between the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit and the other sections within the Department of Education, the roles of the all sections in the Education Department should have been clarified. Unfortunately, no such role clarification was made. Without role

clarification it was difficult for the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit which was directly involved with educational planning to fulfill its obligations.

The Planning, Research and Guidance Unit is responsible for:

1. Educational planning which involves:-
 - a) the formulation of plans, either short term, or medium term, and their revision;
 - b) the recommendation of policies, measures and an appropriate machinery for implementation of plans; and
 - c) the evaluation of the plans when they have been implemented.
2. Conducting educational research; and
3. The administration of career guidance in schools. 7

The type of responsibilities entrusted to the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit also created problems. While educational planning and research were quite closely related, career guidance on the other hand was an odd responsibility for the Unit to handle. It would have been more appropriate if career

guidance had been delegated to some other section of the Department of Education.

The Planning, Research and Guidance Unit was ineffective for various reasons:

- a) Lack of adequate organisational preparation at the time the planning organisation was established;
- b) the lack of clarity of roles;
- c) inadequacy of authority delegated to it;
- d) lack of appropriate personnel and leadership;
- e) wide range of responsibilities;
- f) lack of physical resources; and
- g) absence of a good communication network.

The two most serious problems faced by the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit were staffing and ineffective leadership. Apart from the appointment of the head of the section and a handful of junior officers and clerical staff, the unit was understaffed throughout the period of its existence. No trained planners, researchers and other appropriate staff were recruited for the task of planning, research and career guidance. Graduates from other fields of education were appointed to posts in this

Unit. The Unit had also a problem of leadership. None of the appointed heads of the Unit were specialists in educational planning, research or career guidance. Without effective leadership, it was difficult for the Unit to become an efficient planning organisation.

The lack of adequate preparation at the time the planning organisation was established was another problem. Limited office space, the non availability of modern facilities for planning and the absence of a staff recruitment scheme were some of the constraints which had adverse and far reaching consequences for the proper functioning of the Unit. Because of its ineffectiveness, the Planning, Research and Guidance Unit was abolished in 1980 and a new planning body, the Educational Planning and Development Division (EPDD) was set up. As one of the Divisions of the Department of Education, the EPDD's organisational position is at the same level as the other divisions.

The EPDD comprises of four units, namely:-

- a) Planning and Development Unit;
- b) Building Development Planning Unit;
- c) Scholarships; and

d) Training Unit.

The EPDD is, therefore, responsible for a wide range of responsibilities. It deals with educational planning and its development, formulation and implementation of building development programmes, the administration of internal and external scholarship awards and the administration of the Training Unit.

While most of the above activities are related to educational planning, the division should focus its attention on the more crucial and central aspects of planning, for example, on the quantitative and qualitative development of education, the integration of socio-economic planning with educational planning and the integration of formal and non-formal education. Unfortunately, partly because of the shortage of staff, the role of the EPDD has been extremely limited. The wide range of duties that the EPDD is expected to perform and the organisational structure of the EPDD itself have also distracted its attention from the central concerns of planning.

If systematic educational planning is to be effective in Brunei Darussalam, the problem of the shortage of specialist staff will have to be solved first. Good

leadership, political support and adequate financial resources will also be important in the attempt to develop systematic educational planning in the country.

PLANNING IMPLEMENTATION

As has been stated in the previous section, the Educational Planning and Development Division could not function properly because of a number of unresolved problems, weaknesses and constraints. Despite its failure to practise and promote systematic educational planning, the educationalists and school administrators have been practising some form of planning. Such planning takes the form of preparing annual budgets, scheduling curricula and planning for new buildings. Occasionally, a study of a specific educational problem has been made by ad hoc committees.

It appears that the kind of planning that has been practised in Brunei Darussalam possesses features of the kind of planning that has been practised in most countries for many years prior to the Second World War. It is short range in outlook, extending only to the next budget year except when buildings or facilities have to be provided or a major programme added, in which case the planning horizon would be moved forward a little. It is fragmentary in its coverage of the educational system, the parts of the system are planned independently of one another. It is

largely of the reactive kind and is performed as a once and for all rather than as a continuous process. Very rarely is any consideration given to the need to plan for increasing the efficiency, relevance, productivity and quality of the educational system.

Although nonformal education has been implemented by the Education Department and by several Government departments, no attempt so far has been made to integrate the development of informal education and training programmes with the planning of formal education. Considering the enormous potential of non-formal education and training programmes in supplementing formal education, more attention should be given to the planning of non formal education.

In view of the limitation of educational planning in Brunei Darussalam, steps will have to be taken to improve its sophistication and effectiveness. To achieve this, a nucleus of educational planning specialists will have to be trained and the planning organisation will have to be reorganised so as to enable it to focus its attention on crucial planning tasks.

CONCLUSION

The introduction of systematic educational planning in Brunei Darussalam has not been successful due to too many problems and weaknesses. The problems have been partly caused by the failure of the Education Department to implement some of the crucial recommendations of the 1972 Education Commission relating to educational planning. The Educational Planning and Development Division could not function effectively as a planning agency mainly because of its staffing, leadership, organisational and other problems.

Until the present, most of the planning of the educational administrators working at the departmental, schools and educational institutional levels has been of the ad hoc kind. Planning has been limited to the preparation and execution of routine administrative tasks, budgeting, the formulation of new building development programmes and programming the quantitative expansion of the formal educational system.

Educational planning in Brunei Darussalam can, therefore, be said to be still in its infancy.

Although the idea of educational planning has already been introduced in Brunei Darussalam through the establishment of the Educational Planning and Development Division, much still remains to be done.

References

1. Government of Brunei., Report of the Education Commission, Bandar Seri Begawan: State Secretariat, 1972. p 13.
2. Government of Brunei., Op cit, p. 13.
3. Government of Brunei., Op cit, pp. 13 and 15.
4. Government of Brunei., Op cit, p. 11.
5. Government of Brunei., Op cit, p. 11.
6. Government of Brunei., Op cit, p. 16.
7. Government of Brunei., Op cit, p. 43.

CHAPTER VI

DETERMINANTS AND CRITERIA FOR MORE EFFECTIVE PLANNING IN BRUNEI DARUSSALAM

This chapter suggests various determinants and criteria for effective educational planning in Brunei Darussalam.

FACTORS IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

It is important that, in an attempt to improve the effectiveness of planning in Brunei Darussalam, to take into consideration a large number of factors. The factors to consider are as follows:

1. Educational planning should be comprehensive. It should embrace the whole educational system in a single vision and try to extend this vision to important types of informal education and training in order to achieve harmonious development of the total educational system. However this attitude is not easy to achieve. Serious obstacles in the form of "habits, rules and regulations, doctrines and philosophies, and not least the bureaucratic attitudes, prerogatives and self-perceptions that grew out of an outmoded,

regulation oriented administrative system by its very nature inhibits good planning and efficient action".¹

An important type of informal education and training increasingly recognizes such objectives as improving the literacy rate in the country, updating the knowledge and increasing the skill of workers. Coordination between the planning of formal and informal education programmes should become an important feature of educational planning in Brunei Darussalam.

It is also important that educational planning should not concentrate exclusively on the quantitative expansion of the existing formal education system but should also expand its vision to include qualitative changes. Qualitative changes are important if the educational system is to play its role effectively and efficiently.

2. Educational planning should take a longer term (ten to fifteen years), short term (one or two years) and a medium term (four to five years) perspective. Obviously, its plans will grow less precise the further ahead it looks.

Chew points out that:

"By choosing appropriate time scales to coincide with those of the national development plans, we would, in fact, facilitate the integration of educational and economic plans. The short term (say 1 year) could be the basis for formulating annual budgets to fit into the national budgets, and the medium term plan (say 5 years) and the long term plan (say 15 years) could be integrated with the respective medium term and long term development plans;

The three plans should not be separated into water tight entities. The short term plans should be formulated in the light of the long term perspective plan. The total plan should be reviewed continuously and adjusted as new developments and information arise".²

It is clear that short term and long term plans are essential, because the production of certain types of manpower, the implementation of qualitative changes and the attainment of qualitative targets involve a long time scale.

3. Educational planning should be combined with the broader economic and social planning development activities of a country. This integration is essential -

"if education is to contribute most effectively to individual and national development, and to make the best use of scarce resources, it cannot go its own way, ignoring the realities of the world around it".³

"The constant liaison may also prevent a great effort by one sector being largely wasted as a result of lack of coordinated policy in another section. This kind of consideration implies the need for some sort of mechanism at the interministerial level, preferably as part of the national planning authority, for coordinating the policies and efforts of the various ministries and bodies".⁴

"From the point of view of national accounting and the financing of the plan (socio-economic development plan), decisions taken on educational matters cannot, therefore, be isolated from the whole; the educational development plan is part of the country's overall plan for economic and social development".⁵

4. Educational planning should be an integral part of educational management.

"To be effective, the planning process must be closely tied to the process of decision making and operations. If isolated in a back room it becomes a purely academic exercise whose chief effect is to frustrate those involved."⁶

This, however, requires the education authority in Brunei Darussalam to accept educational planning as an integral part of educational management. So, to be effective it is recommended that the education authority must be prepared to accept the planning function as a vital part of the educational organisation. And organisational and administrative arrangements, attitudes and behavioural patterns of

personnel in the Education Department in Brunei Darussalam will have to change if planning is to have the desired effects.

5. Educational planning must be concerned with the qualitative aspects of educational development, not merely with quantitative expansion.

6. Educational planning must be flexible and able to adapt to changing circumstances. Flexibility in planning is also necessary in view of the incompleteness of the planning methodologies, such as the lack of accuracy of long term manpower forecasts.

7. Educational research has to be undertaken continuously in Brunei Darussalam, to provide information and data about the educational system. Information and data should be collected relating to schools, colleges and other higher institutions, types of education, wastage, educational performance, pupils, administrative and classroom situations, teaching effectiveness, supply, adequacy and quality of physical facilities, the supply and qualifications of teachers, quality and relevance of syllabuses and textbooks, data derived from manpower studies and quantitative data on the preparation of educational

plans. The data collected should be coherent, available on a regular basis, complete, accurate and accessible.

Those who are asked to carry out research for planning purposes must have basic skills in educational research. It is recommended that some form of training be provided for them.

8. Since educational planning is a complicated and important responsibility, the officers employed in the educational planning division will have to be trained locally and overseas before they can carry out their specialised job effectively. A sufficient number of professional educational planners must be recruited if the educational planning in Brunei Darussalam is to function efficiently and smoothly.

9. Effective communication and coordination between the unit of educational planning and other relevant agencies must be established so that there is the coordination and close relationship needed to make educational planning effective in Brunei Darussalam.

10. Continuous assessment aimed at improving the planning approaches and methodologies must be given

serious consideration. At present, various techniques are available for both macro and micro planning. It is the responsibility of the local educational planners to modify and adapt the available planning tools to suit the planning needs in Brunei Darussalam.

11. Educational planning in Brunei Daruussalam requires its own clear strategy which inspires the whole of educational development and fits it to the special circumstances of the country. This strategy requires pursuing long term objectives.

"There is no standardized strategy prefabricated to fit all countries, all must fashion their own. A nation or an area within a nation at an early state of development and with limited resources, for example, might find it necessary to adopt a strategy which, for the time being, places heavier emphasis on work oriented adult education as against general cultural education for adults; on secondary education as against primary education (for example in order to bring the two into better balance); and greater emphasis on science teaching in secondary education and on engineering training in the universities to favour technological development..."^e

12. Educational planning in Brunei Darussalam can only work best when,

- a) political and educational leaders genuinely believe in its necessity, give it their

strong support, and make serious use of it in their decision making, and

- b) all others with a serious concern for the educational system, lower level administrators, teachers, students and parents should be given an opportunity to participate in the process of formulating educational plans for the future.

13. The approaches which have been outlined in a previous Chapter must now be synthesized into a more coherent, unified approach.

14. Since education is a close personal concern of almost everybody in Brunei Darussalam, it will be very important for the planners to be sensitive to a wide range of opinion. For example, the Minister of Education is sensitive to opinion within Brunei Darussalam society and can relay general directives to the planners which will guide their work in formulating a plan.

15. The public in Brunei Darussalam should also be involved both in the preparation of the plan and in its implementation. The planners must invite public cooperation and encourage an understanding of the

objectives of the plan. The public mentioned here would be representatives of private education, teachers unions, parents, and former students. Such people should be invited to contribute their ideas concerning the content of the plan. In order to enlist help in the preparation of plan, it is essential to publish summaries in the media about the condition, needs and objectives of the educational system.

16. In the preparation of the educational plan, the planner must define first its educational objectives.

"Educational objectives vary from country to country, depending upon tradition, local conditions, stage of development reached, and type of new society proposed to be createdfor instance in all the Asian countries, a major objective of national development is to convert the traditional, rural agricultural societies into modern, urbanised and semi-urbanised industrialised societies".⁹

Brunei Darussalam must use those objectives which are relevant to the national needs.

The above are various factors in educational planning which the Brunei Darussalam education authority should take into consideration in planning the development of education in the country. Such planning as has already taken place in Brunei Darussalam has not been

effective partly because the above factors have been largely ignored.

**RECOMMENDATION FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A NEW
PLANNING DIVISION**

In order to be more effective in the development of educational planning in Brunei Darussalam, it is recommended that a new Educational Planning Division be established within the Ministry of Education and Health, rather than in one of the existing units of the Education Department.

As mentioned earlier, the Educational Planning and Development Division could only deal with limited aspects of Educational Planning. In view of this, the need for setting up a new educational planning division appears necessary. It is suggested that the main functions of this new educational division should be:

1. responsibility for general planning;
2. research;
3. evaluation; and
4. coordination of matters relating to educational policy and its implementation.

This new division should be called the Educational Planning and Research Division. (EPRD)

In order to implement the above recommendation and to make the new planning organisation effective and viable, certain steps need to be taken.

First, EPRD should be suitably located within the administrative structure of the Ministry of Education and Health so that its organisational position will reflect its authority, status, responsibilities and duties. It is necessary for EPRD to be vested with sufficient authority if it is to carry out the responsibility of planning the development of education effectively. Furthermore, its main task in the Ministry would be the preparation, evaluation and revision of the educational plan. It should also function as the secretariat of the national advisory body.

Second, it is suggested that the Division should be a permanent organisation with a high status within the Ministry. It should be staffed by senior officers who have experience in educational administration, technical knowledge in planning and comparative education, mastery of the principles and techniques of research and familiarity with the social, economic and cultural problems of the country.

Third, coordination and cooperation with other agencies concerned with planning are essential.

Ideally, the EPRD should function in close association with other agencies such as:

- (a) Other agencies responsible for the collection of educational statistics and preparation of educational documents;
- (b) other bodies dealing with educational research in the country;
- (c) any organisation that may be set up for demographic and manpower studies; and
- (d) the planning divisions within other ministries dealing with education in some form or another.

Fourth, EPRD's operational objectives should be stated in detail to guide the division's operations and adequate resources should be provided for the achievement of these objectives. EPRD's objectives should be carefully defined to avoid wastage of resources and overlap with other divisions in the Ministry.

The following operational objectives are suggested for EPRD:

- a) To ensure that educational planning is integrated with socio-economic planning;
- b) to ensure that the planning of informal education is given as much importance as the planning of formal education;
- c) to ensure that the planning activities in the educational system are conducted systematically and follow the guidelines provided by the division;
- d) to ensure that educational planning is comprehensive, equitable and flexible;
- e) to carry out research related to the various parts of the educational system and prepare evaluation reports;
- f) to carry out activities related to its role as an educational information centre;
- g) to establish close relationships with relevant agencies;
- h) to provide training for the members of its staff as well as for the relevant staff in the Ministry or Department of Education;
- i) to be responsible for coordinating, monitoring and reviewing plan implementation;

- j) to prepare educational plans that incorporate short term, medium term and long term targets.

Fifth, prior to setting up EPRD, it will be necessary to provide for its basic organisational requirements.

These will include:

- a) the recruitment of key personnel and other relevant staff;
- b) the provision of adequate working space and facilities;
- c) the provision of an adequate budget; and
- d) the establishment of an appropriate salary, career and incentive structure for staff of the EPRD.

One of the main problems of educational planning in Brunei Darussalam will be the recruitment of qualified local educational planners. The reason is that few educationalists in Brunei Darussalam have had experience of educational planning.

Sixth, it is important that trained and qualified educational planners should staff the new EPRD, if the EPRD is to function effectively. It is therefore, essential that the recruitment of staff for EPRD

should be carefully considered especially the recruitment of the Head of the EPRD and the specialist staff. The head or assistant head must be selected from graduates who have specialised in educational planning and administration. The specialist staff such as planners, researchers, and statistical officers must be selected from graduates who have specialised in education. The staff of the EPRD will have to be carefully selected on the basis of relevant qualifications, experience, ability, and dedication. This may mean that some staff will have to be recruited from other countries. At the same time the Brunei Darussalam education authorities should send some of members of the staff and some education officers for overseas training or provide an opportunity for them to be attached to an International educational planning organisation such as the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in Paris or other relevant agencies in other countries. Specific training is essential because the specialised staff of the educational planning division should have:

- a) a theoretical understanding of educational planning;

- b) knowledge of the socio-economic, political and cultural situation of the country;
- c) a broad knowledge of education systems;
- d) basic theoretical understanding of educational research and information management systems; and
- e) basic theoretical understanding of educational administration, economy, and educational psychology.

The broader the knowledge they possess, the better equipped they will be to carry out their responsibilities.

Seventh, if educational planning is to be effective, it will have to be accepted as an integral part of the educational management of the Ministry of Education or Department of Education. Coombs, P.H. observed that,

" planning works best when a) the political and educational leaders genuinely believe in its necessity, give it their strong support and make serious use of it in their decision making, and b) all others with a serious stake in the educational system... lower level administrators, teachers, students, parents and employers - have been given a fair chance for their voices to be heard in the process of formulating plans for the future".¹⁰

Finally, for effective educational planning in Brunei Darussalam, the education authority as a whole also requires well trained and well qualified administrators and educators. The educational administrators should be trained in educational administration and management to ensure that the system functions smoothly and efficiently. The educators in the various institutions should have professional skill in teaching and be able to implement the educational programme and projects. At present among the personnel of the Department of Education and the teaching profession there is a shortage of high level administrators and graduate teachers.

THE COMMITTEE SYSTEM

In addition to EPRD, a committee which will be responsible for educational planning must be established in the Ministry of Education. The committee could be called the 'National Educational Planning Committee'.

The Minister of Education and Health of Brunei Darussalam would be the appropriate person to be the chairman of this committee, because the Minister is

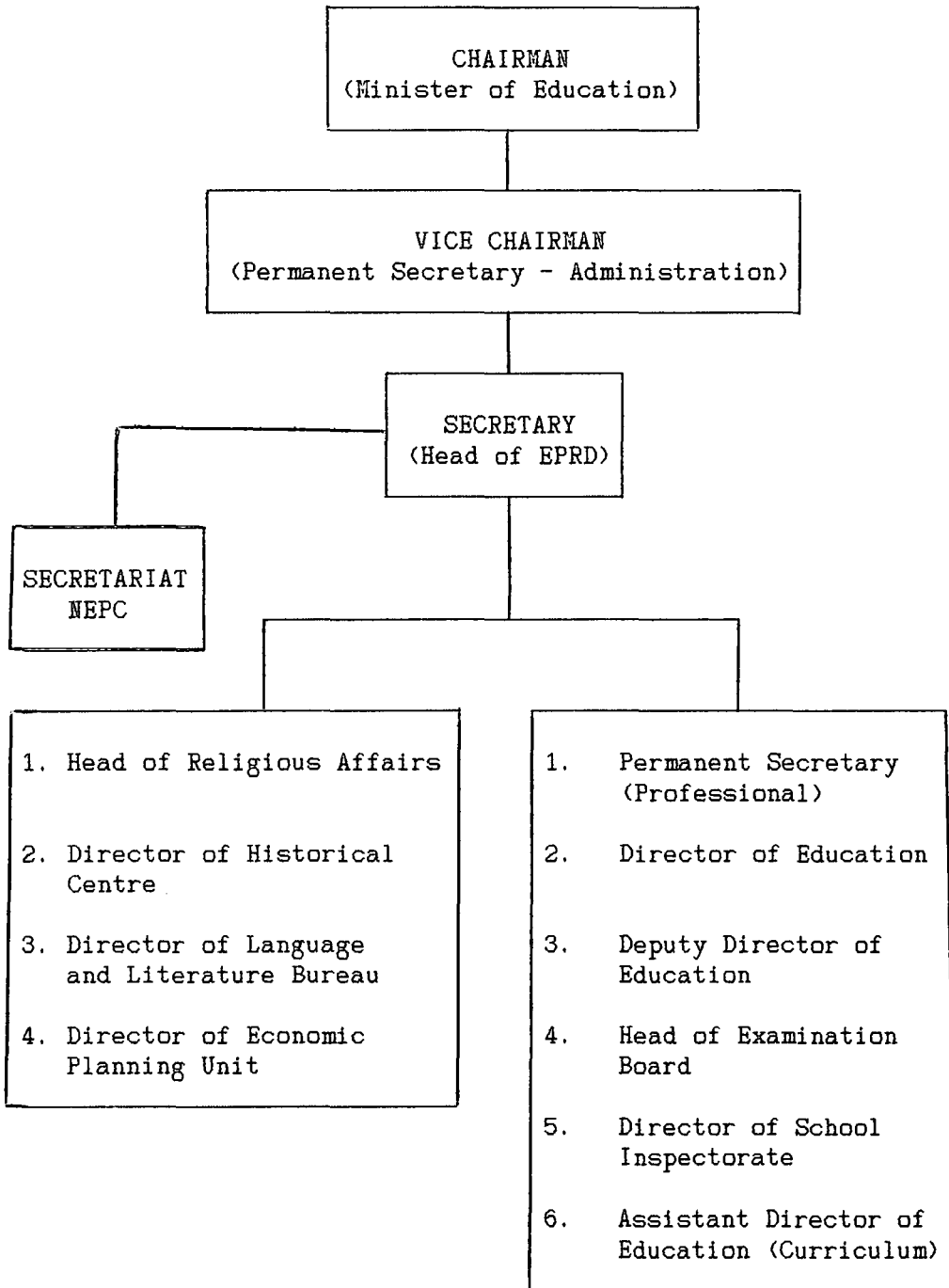
the principal decision maker. The Permanent Secretary (Administration) should be the vice chairman. The committee members should be drawn from various agencies concerned with education, that is the Head of Religious Affairs, the Director of the Historical Centre, the Director of the Language and Literature Bureau, and the Director of the Economic Planning Unit. A further standing committee of officials might consist of the Permanent Secretary (Professional), the Director of Education, the Deputy Director of Education, the Head of Examination Board, the Director of School Inspectorate, the Assistant Director of Education (Curriculum), and the Head of Educational Planning and Research Division as secretary.

This suggested National Educational Planning Committee (NEPC) should be recognized as the supreme educational policy making body. The secretariat of this committee would be the new Educational Planning and Research Division whose head is the secretary of the high powered decision making body (NEPC). The proposed structure for the National Educational Planning Committee is shown in Figure 6.1.

With the establishment of the NEPC, all the proposals to NEPC from other divisions in the Ministry or

Figure 6.1.

THE RECOMMENDED STRUCTURE FOR NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL PLANNING COMMITTEE

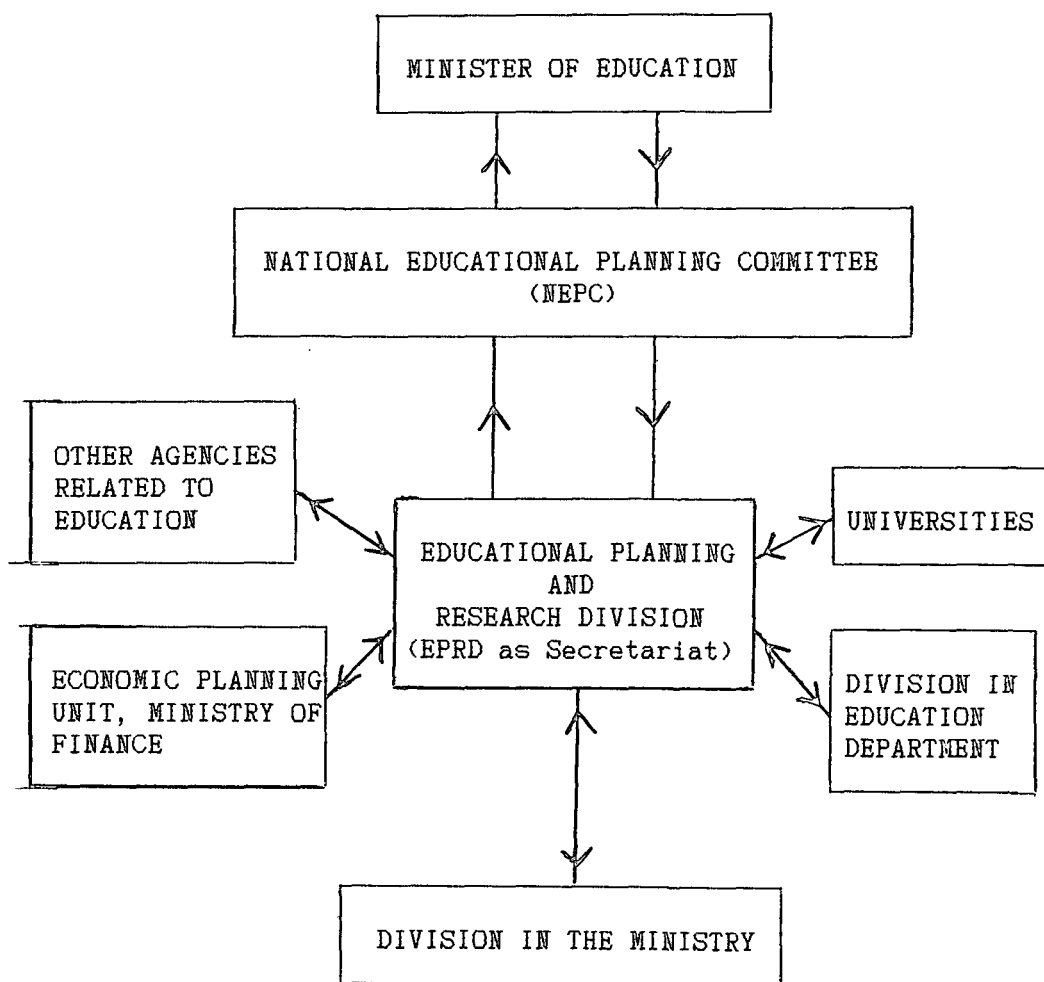


Note: Minister of Education is also Vice Chancellor of the University of Brunei Darussalam.

Department of Education should be channelled through EPRD. And it would be the responsibility of EPRD to analyse such proposals and forward them to NEPC with an EPRD recommendation. With this authority EPRD would perform an overall coordinating function of the macro planning activity. In performing this function the EPRD would also cooperate with other agencies concerned with education (see figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2

RECOMMENDED MODEL OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AT THE MACRO LEVEL



References

1. Coombs, P.H.. What is Educational Planning?, UNESCO: IIEP, PARIS 1970. pp. 51-52
2. Chew Sing Buan. Planning in Education, in F.H.K. Wong (ed), Readings in Malaysia Education, Kuala Lumpur: University of Malaya Press, 1977. p. 256
3. Coombs, P.H. Op cit p. 33.
4. Chew Sing Buan. Op cit p. 259.
5. Poignant, R. "Role of Educational Plan in Economic and Social Development Programmes", in OECD, Organisational Problems in Planning Educational Development, OECD, Paris 1966. pp. 23-35
6. Coombs, P.H. Op cit p. 33
7. McMeekin, R.W., Educational Planning and Expenditure Decision in Developing Countries: With A Malaysian case study, New York: Praegar publishers, Inc., 1975. pp. 58-61
8. UNESCO, Educational Planning - A World survey of problems and prospects. UNESCO, Paris 1970. p. 14
9. UNESCO, Educational Planning in Developing Countries With special reference to Asia, 1963. p. 14.
10. Coombs, P.H. Op cit. p. 52.

CHAPTER VII

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL SYSTEM

We have seen from the previous Chapter that the Brunei Darussalam education system is in great need of improvement. There are many possible ways of improving the situation but on the basis of research into the educational systems of many developing countries, it appears that one method of fruitful reform would be to adopt the comprehensive school system, which has been implemented very successfully in many countries of South East Asia.

The proposed structure of comprehensive education would be as follows:-

- a. Compulsory education to begin at the age of six and the minimum leaving age for all children to be sixteen.

- b. All pupils to receive 9 years of education comprising six years of primary education and three years of lower secondary education.
- c. On completion of six year of primary education, the pupils would not be required to take an entrance examination for admission into lower secondary education, that is, they would automatically proceed to the three forms of the secondary school.
- d. In Forms two and three the pupils would receive both a general and pre-vocational education which would help them discover their own interests and help them select the type of education best suited to their own ability.
- e. The course should consist of a core curriculum and the pre-vocational education would comprise subjects such as Agriculture, Commerce, Home Economics and the Industrial Arts.
- f. On the basis of the results of a Lower Certificate of Education examination, pupils

would be selected for academic, technical or vocational education.

In this system pupils advance up the educational ladder from Standard one to Standard six in the primary school, through a process of automatic promotion. It is also suggested that common syllabuses should be used for all types of primary school. This would ensure that whatever language is used as the medium of instruction, all pupils will follow the same course content.

If the proposed recommendation is approved by the Government each school would have to conduct its own evaluation of its pupils. A centralized assessment would have to be conducted for pupils in grade three and grade five. These assessment tests would be necessary to measure pupils' attainment so that remedial teaching could be provided to correct pupils weaknesses in the primary school before they enter secondary schools.

On completion of primary education at the age of 11 plus, the pupils would be given automatic promotion for another three years, that is, from Form one to Form three at the lower secondary level. This would

mean that every child would be provided with a minimum of nine years of schooling.

It is recommended that a comprehensive type of education should be provided at the lower secondary level. This would mean that in addition to the academic subjects taught at the lower secondary level, subjects of a pre-vocational nature such as Industrial Arts, Home Economies, Agricultural Science and Commercial Studies would also be included in the curriculum. The aim of introducing pre-vocational subject at this level in the curriculum is not to train pupils for special vocational skills but rather to expose them to practical subjects.

The proposed structure within the comprehensive school system is indicated in Figure 7.1. The most important thing to note about the comprehensive education system is the fact that no selection examination takes place at the age of eight. There can be no justification for requiring a child to take an examination at the age of eight the results of which will determine what kind of future he or she will have. It is impossible to predict at the age of eight how a child's abilities and interests will develop.

Figure 7.1

PROPOSED STRUCTURE WITHIN THE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Expected ages
as at 1st.
January

27	H I G H E R	ISCED Level 7 Higher Degrees e.g. Ph.D., M.A., M.Sc., Dip. Ed. 1-3 years ISCED Level 6 e.g. M.B.B.S., B.A., B.Sc 3 - 6 years	3					
26				3	2			
25					3	2	1	
24					3	2	1	6
23					2	1	5	5
22					1	4	4	4
21					3	3	3	3
20					2	2	2	2
19					1	1	1	1
18			S E C O N D A R Y	ISCED Level 4 (Form Six)	2	Arts & Science Schools	ISCED Level 5 DIPLOMA (Award from Colleges Polytechnics and Universities) 1-3 years	3
17	1	2						
16	2	1						
15	P R I M A R Y	ISCED Level 3 (Upper Secondary)	2	Arts & Science Schools	Technical Schools	Vocational Schools		
14			1					
13			3					
12	U N I V E R S A L E D U C A T I O N	ISCED Level 2 (Lower Secondary)	2	Comprehensive Schools				
11			1					
10			6					
9			5					
8			4					
7			3					
6		ISCED Level 1 (Primary)	2					
			1					

ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education)

Dearden' explained this succinctly in his Philosophy of Children's Learning. He said,

"Just as you cannot teach bladder control before certain psychological developments have occurred, so also, it is assumed that you cannot teach maths before the appearance of interest. What is really being urged is that you ought not to, so that it is not a matter of maturation at all but of value judgements. The ambiguity concerning 'readiness' is therefore, now seen to be between i) 'not ready' because you could not succeed even if you tried, and ii) 'not ready' because in the light of various value-judgements left unstated, it would be undesirable to try yet, though in fact you could try and could have 'some' sort of success."

In the proposed comprehensive system there would be no public examination at all until about the school leaving age. There would be no rigid demarcation at the secondary level into junior and senior secondary school systems as exist at present in the Brunei Darussalam secondary school system. Under the proposed comprehensive school system, pupils would leave school at a minimum age of 16. Under the present Brunei Darussalam system children may leave at the age of 13 or 14.

On the basis of the Lower Certificate of Education examination results pupils would be selected for academic, technical, agricultural, commercial or trade

school. Thus, by the time they complete post-comprehensive education, an education beyond the initial 9 years - the majority of pupils will have received training for a specific calling and will also then be about 17 or 18 years of age, a suitable age for employment in the Government or private sector.

It is also essential to have streaming in the upper secondary school and this streaming should be made on the basis of the Lower Certificate of Education examination results except that 'academic, technical, agricultural or trade schools' should be classified into two broad fields of general and technical education and vocational education.

It is also recommended that a comprehensive arts and science education should be introduced basically comparable to the present system of upper secondary education where the pupils are prepared for a academic type of education and sit the school certificate examination, with provision for some of them to go into the 6th form, colleges and universities.

It is recommended that a comprehensive technical education should be introduced similar to that of the

existing technical schools except that the course should be reduced to 2 years, and the core subjects should be the same as for the arts and science streams but should also include 'electives' such as Building Construction, Engineering, Workshop Practice, Building Drawing, Electrical Technology and Surveying.

It is recommended that post-comprehensive agricultural education should be introduced, the course to be of two year's duration. The core subjects should also be similar to those of the arts and science stream and the 'electives' include Agricultural Science, Biology and Chemistry.

A two year post-comprehensive commercial education should be introduced but this course should be academic in nature and the core subjects be similar to the core subjects in the arts and science stream but the 'electives' should include such subjects as Commerce and Principles of Accounts.

SCHOOL CURRICULUM

As mentioned earlier the head of a school in Brunei Darussalam has very little control over various important matters including the curriculum. The school

curriculum is controlled by the Government as indicated by the Education Policy of 1972 which laid down, as one of its objectives,

"to ensure, by the provision of syllabuses of common content that the standards of education are comparable in all schools".²

The rigid control is particularly obvious in primary education. The secondary schools are 'more free' in their choice of subjects within, of course, the limitations of facilities available (facilities such as teachers, space and materials), and limitations laid down by the Examination Board. The following five subjects: English Language, Mathematics, Science, Malay Language, and Religious Education are compulsory subjects for all secondary students.

Perhaps, as far as Brunei Darussalam is concerned, it is better that there is not complete freedom of curriculum choice and method of teaching in the classroom.

In England, in contrast,

"no teacher can ever be wholly controlled with regard to what he teaches and how he chooses to teach".³

The school heads and teachers of the British schools are free to choose their syllabus and their textbooks and the teachers are free to employ their own method of teaching.

"curriculum freedom may be said to date from 1926 in the primary schools and from 1945 in the secondary schools, in that those were the years when government shed the power to decide what was taught....".⁴

It is interesting to note that developments in England since the mid 60s constitute the resumption of considerable central control of the curriculum.⁵

Brunei Darussalam cannot adopt such a system, at least not just yet, for it would be disastrous if the teachers were allowed this freedom. The academic quality of the teachers, and of some primary head teachers for that matter, is in question here.

There is a formidable practical problem in allowing greater freedom to teachers to choose their own curricula and this difficulty is even greater in contemporary open classrooms where the pupils rather than the teachers choose the materials to use. In such a situation a teacher, whose background of academic knowledge is inadequate, is very quickly pushed by pupils to the limit of his own resources and, hence, may become insecure. Futhermore, Brunei Darussalam is

a developing and very young independent nation, and the Government needs to inculcate whatever it believes to be right for its people through the school curricula.

The present education system is designed in such a way that it is not fully committed to educating citizens with the relevant knowledge and skill, and above all with the necessary attitudes to national unity and brotherhood on which our future happiness and prosperity depends. So it is recommended that the curriculum requires reorganisation and should contain subjects which were recommended in the proposals for the comprehensive school system. For example Agricultural Studies should be taught in rural schools, and Technical Studies should be taught in more schools. As Paul Streeten said;

"The government should try to reduce the exodus of young men to the urban world by the modernisation of agriculture and the growth of rural schooling must be kept in step. However, there will be a danger that the high priority on agricultural, vocational and technical education is believed to be the strategic condition of development. Unfortunately, just providing the three types of education above is not enough to accelerate development. Equally important is the provision of employment opportunities for technicians and agriculturists both in the public and private sectors. But as long as the public sector rewards 'academic' qualification and penalises technical, the wrong incentives will be perpetuated in the education system".⁶

Also in the curriculum, Religious Education should be made compulsory for all the Muslim children, and Moral Education should be provided so that the pupils will be exposed to Brunei culture, tradition and other values of Brunei Darussalam society.

It is also suggested the primary school curriculum should first, emphasize the development of basic skills which is the elements of reading, writing and arithmetic. Reading especially should be a major preoccupation of the primary school since reading is the key to much of the learning that will come later and to the possibility of independent study.

Secondly, it should develop an understanding of the world around the child, in terms of study of local events and environments which includes History, Geography, Civics and Science in their basic forms.

Thirdly, it should emphasize Physical Education, Health Education, Art and Crafts.

Finally, Religious Education for Muslim pupils, and Moral Education for non - Muslim pupils must also be developed at this stage.

A change in curriculum if approved by the Government will effect changes in many other sections which are relevant to education.

First, a new syllabus will in a way affect the content of all syllabuses. They have to be revised to suit pupils of different ages and abilities; to promote the development of the nation in all aspects.

Secondly, the Institute of Education and the University of Brunei Darussalam will have to modify their pre-service courses so as to correspond to the needs of the new curriculum and syllabuses. In the meantime in-service courses have to be conducted all over the country in order to supplement the existing knowledge of the teachers.

Thirdly, suitable textbooks on the newly introduced or revised syllabuses will have to be produced because most Brunei Darussalam teachers cannot teach without using textbooks. Students also depend on textbooks as the majority of them do not have any other resource for learning the subjects they have to study.

Fourthly, evaluation of the new curriculum is essential to find out whether it is suitably

organised. If it is not, then it will be essential to make the appropriate amendments.

Fifthly, class and personal timetables, will need to be amended.

Sixthly, the opinion of parents and students will also have to be considered. If the response is unfavourable, then it is a reasonable assumption that either the syllabus is unattractive, dull, and irrelevant as far as the community is concerned, or it may be too difficult for children to follow, or the method of teaching is too abstract and uninteresting due to lack of preparation, teaching apparatus and textbooks.

Finally, a new subject introduced in the curriculum has to be planned in relation to future developments so that students taking it can follow the subject up to college or university level. The syllabus taught in the school should make possible the continued study of the subject at university or other institution of higher education.

IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOL TERM

In Brunei Darussalam all Government schools are closed for the whole of the Muslim fasting month which every year falls in a different month of the international calendar year. This is because the Muslim fasting month always consists of 30 days. Consequently, schools in Brunei Darussalam are closed for termly holidays as well as during the fasting month. This particular month may fall before an important public examination, during the first month of the first school term, etc. As it is assumed that the children's work stops during school vacations, it is undesirable for schools to close prior to major examinations. Furthermore the teachers' schedule of work is so variable year by year that it affects the teaching procedures and hence the learning process of the pupils. Any form of interruption in the pupils' learning process should be avoided if education is to make progress.

Therefore, it is recommended that all schools in Brunei Darussalam should be open during the Muslim fasting month. Perhaps, it would be a good idea to follow the British system of dividing the school year

into three terms with a vacation period at the end of each term.

CLASSROOM SUPERVISOR

Brunei Darussalam is a developing country where formal education is only 75 years old. The teaching profession there is of low quality especially in the primary schools. The great majority of the teachers have only had secondary education with one or two years teacher training. Since initial training very few of these teachers have had in-service training because of insufficient provision for such purposes. There are very few qualified graduate teachers and a very large number of those teachers who are teaching in the secondary, technical and higher institutions come from abroad notably the United Kingdom, India, Singapore, Malaysia, Sri Lanka and the Philippines.

As stated in the previous Chapter the medium of instruction in the majority of the schools is English (which is not the mother tongue of the pupils and most of the teachers), consequently the teaching process is difficult. Furthermore, new curricula are developing faster than the in-service courses can cope with. For

instance, Modern Mathematics and Integrated Science were introduced without adequate in-service courses for the teachers concerned. Hence, in the context of the low quality of the teachers particularly in the primary schools and the frequent unfamiliarity of the teachers with the new curricula, it is recommended that class supervisors are needed so that educational quality is constantly monitored. The class supervisor could be the school principal, headteacher or senior teacher.

One could argue that the principal or headteacher would not be the most appropriate person to act as supervisor to help teachers with the problems of a new, sophisticated and demanding curriculum. This may be true in some cases but it is believed that generally the principal or headteacher can be a helper and a guide due to his broad experience in seeing many teachers at work in differing situations. He is able to see good teaching being done, and although he may not always be an expert in the subject concerned, yet he is able to give some guidance concerning the problems encountered by the teachers.

As a trusted supervisor, the principal or headteacher can have a thorough discussion with class teachers in

staff meetings especially organised for the purpose. The teachers will have a chance of not only of listening to the reasons for curriculum change, but also asking questions in order to clarify doubts. These sessions may involve much time and energy but are essential in the implementation phase. As Hullman Sinaga has put it,

"The nature of teaching is such that unless the individual teacher both understands and accepts the planned qualitative changes, no significant change will occur".⁷

Fred Engelhardt has stated that by means of supervision it is hoped to maintain the highest possible standard of instruction, to put into effective operation the practices decided upon, and to promote professional growth among the teachers.⁸

James Curtin defines the purposes of supervision as follows:

1. "To set a proper classroom environment for learning.
2. To develop and utilize methods and materials which will ensure the steady progress of each child.
3. To provide the school or school system with a clearly defined supervisory programme that will ensure the attainment of instructional goals.
4. To develop evaluative procedures that will appraise the effectiveness of the programme.

5. To develop the attitude in the entire professional staff that supervision must be cooperative and that no teacher fulfills his professional obligation unless he works in concert with others to improve instruction.
6. To develop the attitude that instructional improvement is directly related to the self-improvement of all members of the professional staff.
7. To provide specific help to teachers with day to day problems.
8. To develop a sound working relationship in which teachers feel secure and confident."⑨

The above are some of the qualities that will contribute to making a Bruneian school principal and headteacher efficient in his administration and supervision. But how many principal and headteachers possess those qualities? Unfortunately, at the present time only a very few of the principals do. In these circumstances, it is necessary to train the heads in the necessary skills.

FORMATION OF A NATIONAL SCHOOL

The recent Department of Education proposal to form a National Primary School where the medium of instruction will be Malay throughout is to be welcomed. It is to be hoped that this proposal will come into effect as soon as possible because of the obvious benefits of the use of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction.

Educators have recently strongly supported the use of the mother tongue during the first year of the child's education. As the child's first language, the mother tongue is the means of communication and it, therefore, helps the child in the process of learning and the teacher in teaching. In the early days at school the child faces the problem of acquiring concepts and skills of communication with the teacher and the pupils. Taiwo said that,

"The mother tongue offers some relief to the complex situation, so that the teacher and the learner may concentrate on the new knowledge which is being acquired. Communication in a foreign language is difficult and it could mislead as to the nature of the child's difficulty".¹⁰

The skill in the mother tongue can be used in the learning of other languages. Lloyds'' findings among

Welsh speaking pupils suggested this is so. He maintained that there was no interference of Welsh in the learning of English. Though caution is needed in generalising his findings, nevertheless other evidence shows that mastery of the vernacular language helps in acquiring other languages.

It has been proved in many developing countries where the medium of instruction in the schools is in a foreign language, that there is a connection with the high rate of wastage. Dalton wrote that,

"Anyone familiar with secondary education in the former colonies will be aware of the considerable wastage of pupils during the course and the high failure rate at the final examination due to poor basic schooling and the resulting inability to come to terms with the language in at least some of the secondary schools".¹²

And a report by UNESCO on the use of vernacular languages in education stressed that,

"It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue".¹³

With regard to the mission school and the Chinese schools, it is recommended that they should be converted into national vernacular schools in stages as soon as possible. Transforming the mission and the Chinese schools into the national type of schools

would meet the objectives that underlie the Education Commission Report of 1972. It is also probable that such a solution would be the best possible way to avoid future clashes between the Malay and the Chinese. The latter would be able to adapt themselves to local custom, culture and tradition and at the same time develop loyalty and support for Brunei Darussalam. It is, therefore, very important that Brunei Darussalam should establish a national system of education as soon as possible.

The ultimate aim in adopting the Malay language as the sole medium of instruction is that Brunei Darussalam must have its own independent education system not subject to the influence of any other country. To achieve that end, it is recommended that the following steps should be taken:-

- a. One Committee should be established, which would be responsible for setting up the national school;
- b. An invitation should be extended to an educational expert from Malaysia or Indonesia to advise the appropriate committees concerning syllabuses from primary

one to Form Six Upper. These syllabuses should be written in the Malay language. These two countries mentioned have educationalists who are expert and experienced in creating a national system of education;

c. Brunei Darussalam has to produce its own textbooks written by local teachers and others. If this cannot be achieved sufficiently quickly then the necessary publications could be obtained from either Malaysia or Indonesia or other countries which use the Malay language as the medium of instruction in their education systems. Other books could be provided by translating appropriate English textbooks into the Malay language;

d. The existing office of the Board of Examinations which conducts public examinations for Brunei Darussalam should be provided with adequate manpower as well as relevant facilities for these tasks;

PRIORITIES BETWEEN LEVELS OF EDUCATION

The problem remains of determining priorities between the levels of education; between science and technology and the liberal arts; between formal education and non-formal education and so forth. In ordinary circumstances it is impossible to give priority simultaneously to the primary, and the secondary and tertiary levels education. It is for this reason that education policy must be devised in relation to the more general policy for national development.

Harbison suggested an order of educational priorities which provides a starting point for the consideration of priorities in Brunei Darussalam:

Highest priority to secondary general education on a free basis, because there are relatively few places in existing secondary schools, and their high fees constitute a financial and social bottleneck, a barrier to general higher education.

2nd priority to sub-professional and technical education.

3rd priority to teacher training.

4th priority to the expansion of higher studies in science and engineering, to raise the proportion of students in these two fields

5th priority to general adult education or basic education, because the population is largely illiterate

6th priority to primary education.

7th priority to pre-employment vocational schools".¹⁴

EDUCATION SYSTEM AND POLICY

The 1972 Education Policy with its eight principal aims which are stated in Chapter II must be implemented as soon as possible so that Brunei Darussalam can eventually succeed in its aim of attaining national identity. The 1972 Education Commission stated in its recommendations that,

"the Education system should be moulded to create a formula of national identity, the content, form and existence of which should be based on the true traditions of Brunei, in line with progress and national aspiration".¹⁵

However, in the implementation of the 1972 Education Policy, the Government should change its present habit of launching new initiatives without sufficient preparation. On almost every occasion the education system is changed on the spur of the moment. The Education Commission agrees that no plan in the world will be successful unless it is carefully articulated in terms of projects and programmes with strict timeTables for their implementation. The Commission

also recommended the establishment of a Planning, Research and Guidance Unit within the Education Department. Despite the formation of this Unit the Sixth Form Centre was set up in 1975 without proper buildings, manpower or materials. The new Science School was formed with the same lack of preparation in 1978. During this year also the pre school system was started in all Government schools. Its introduction was so sudden that even the headmasters and the teachers involved did not know what to do with the pupils. The parents sending their children to school for the first time, on reaching the school's doorstep are shocked to discover that no adequate preparations have been made for their education.

It is the time for Brunei Darussalam to introduce changes into the education system and its policy. And if the educational system is to play a significant role in support of a national policy, the system should have objectives which support and supplement the objectives of the national policy. It is, therefore, imperative to know from time to time what society expects from education because no society will remain static and its needs and expectations will change. William Platt has stressed that,

"The reciprocal influence of education on society and society on education lend

importance to studying the content of educational objectives and the process by which they are arrived at. In the past, schools and universities were expected mainly to give continuity to any given societal pattern, but today they are also expected to help reshape society".¹⁶

In drawing up the new education policy especially for a developing country like Brunei Darussalam where both material and human resources are limited, certain fundamental objectives must be observed so as to promote and maintain the well being of the nation. The basic objectives proposed by George Bereday are:

"Education must provide for the fullest possible development of the individual and for the collective needs of society. The following aims should be a part of the ultimate educational policy of every country: the ultimate achievement of universal literacy; the educating of individuals capable of making wise, independent decisions; preparing men and women to make a full contribution to the economic and social life of the community, preparing individuals for life in a world society, with a full appreciation of their individual responsibilities and the responsibilities of their country to fellow men throughout the world".¹⁷

These objectives are generalised and long term.

Similarly the objectives identified at a conference held by the Organisation For Economic Cooperation and Development in Paris in 1969 were also broad. The C

onference suggested that educational policy and objectives should include four important elements:

- a. "achieving wider and more effective participation in education;
- b. designing an educational curriculum relevant to changing social, economic and political needs;
- c. ensuring flexibility of both educational structure and content;
- d. increasing the efficiency of the system".¹⁸

But in a developing country which has reached a certain stage of technological and social development it is more helpful if objectives can be enunciated more specifically and in such a way that they can be understood by the majority of the people.

J.D.Chesswass has proposed the following sequence for the formation of proposals for education policy in a developing country. Brunei Darussalam could usefully consider this in implementing its National Education Policy:

- a. "A strategy for the future linked closely with proposed national development, social, economic, cultural and political development;
- b. Within that strategy, objectives which education should be aiming at;
- c. The content of educational courses needed to achieve those objectives;

- d. The method by which the students will learn and be helped to learn those contents;
- e. The structure of the educational system through which the students will pass in the process of learning the contents of the various courses by the methods proposed;
- f. The number of students proposed for each course, preferably expressed in the long, medium and short term".¹⁹

THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

It is now an appropriate time for the Government of Brunei Darussalam through the Ministry of Education and Health to reorganise the management of schools.

Modern education needs modern techniques of management. Schools should not suffer further as a result of the trial and error method of school organisation and administration. Educational administrators, including secondary school principals and primary school headteachers should be required to attend advanced specialised courses particularly in administration, subject specialization and other disciplines and methods.

Failure to introduce reform and to give due consideration to new methods of organising schools will increase the problems of students leaving school early, students failing to make the grade and students wishing to follow inappropriate courses. With regard to the school organisation it is worthwhile putting forward some principles recommended by Rudyard K. Bent and Henry H. Kroneinberg which can be applied usefully in the organisation of secondary schools in Brunei Darussalam:

1. "The administrative unit should be sufficiently large to include enough pupils to provide for the educational programmes.....,
2. The administrative unit should include sufficient financial resources to provide for competent personnel and high quality educational services. There should be available from local, state or national resources sufficient revenue to support an adequate educational programme.
3. The programmes of the administrative units should be flexible. They should be altered whenever social, economic or other changes occur that influence the type of educational programmes the unit should provide.
4. The school plant should be centrally located with reference to the population and should be easily accessible to all the students it serves. The problem of transporting students to and from school should be studied when a new plant is to be established.
5. Every youth should have access to a free publicly supported high school. An adequate educational programme should be provided for rural youth as well as for urban youth.

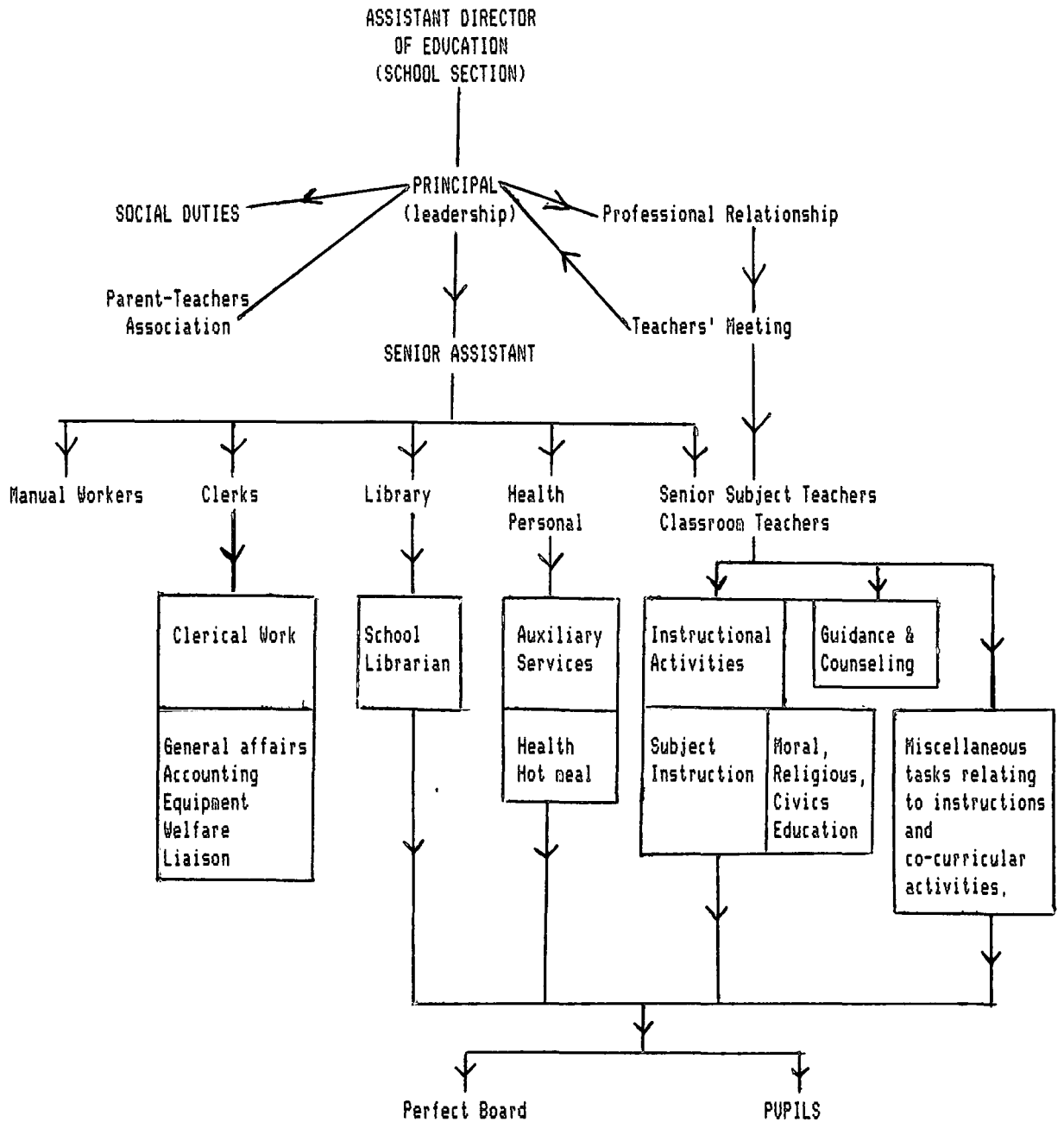
6. A school's structural organisation should be carefully undertaken. The welfare of the pupils should be given primary consideration in the type of organisation.
7. State aid should be provided in order to help equalise educational opportunities and to promote local interest. State aid should be provided depending upon the school needs of the community and upon its ability to support an adequate educational programme".²⁰

The above principles would, if implemented, meet the various demands for secondary education in Brunei Darussalam in relation to both the present and planned development of the country. The principles of organising secondary education must also include some solution to the problems associated with discrimination in education, the rapid rate of technological development in the country, and the question of recruiting well qualified specialist teachers and educational administrators into the teaching profession. The recommended model for the organisation structure at school level in Brunei Darussalam is shown in Figure 7.2.

It is recommended that the modern trend of education in Brunei Darussalam should be to encourage the school to achieve all its educational objectives and not just

Figure 7.2

RECOMMENDATION ON ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE AT SCHOOL LEVEL IN BRUNEI DARUSSALAM



merely concentrate on obtaining favourable examination results. And the educational administrators should have a concern for society's educational, social and cultural values. Unfortunately, in Brunei Darussalam today many secondary school principals and primary school headteachers resemble factory managers and office executives in their methods of managing the schools. Many teachers, too, are still in the habit of treating students like raw material to be fashioned into shapes, expecting results from them but without considering their educational needs and their personal problems. They show even less concern for trying to understand students as individuals. Such an attitude is not desirable for educationalists to adopt especially in a newly independent country like Brunei Darussalam, which is greatly concerned about social integration, equality of educational opportunity, student participation and moral values. Secondary school principals, primary school headteachers and other educational administrators need to consider the main purposes of school administration and organisation in a developing independent nation.

Since the administrative function in the schools is usually carried out by a fairly young and inexperienced headteacher, it is imperative that prior

to the appointment into the role of headship he is given adequate training to prepare him for the world of management which, in a school situation, is tremendously complicated. However, as well as receiving relevant training, it is equally important that the school head should be working in an atmosphere of confidence and this can only be achieved if he is given sufficient authority and independence to enable him to be innovative and to function effectively. It is now the right time for the Ministry of Education to give serious thought to providing some form of authority to the secondary school principal and the primary school headteacher. The arrangements in England could offer guidance here. The headteachers in England are given clearly defined authority in the school where they are appointed by the Local Education Authority. As stated in the Model Articles of Government of Schools (1944), the Headteacher

"..... shall control the internal organisation, management and discipline shall exercise supervision over the teaching and non-teaching staff, and shall have the power of suspending pupils from attendance for any cause which he considers adequate, but on suspending any pupil he shall forthwith report the case to the Governors, who shall consult the Local Education Authority."²¹

In a country where education is treated as a vital institution there should be no doubt about what qualities are essential in the heads of schools. Based on the particular needs of Brunei Darussalam society it is recommended that some of the essential personal characteristics and the educational qualifications generally required for heads of school are as follows:

1. He should be capable of setting a good example - a person possessing high moral standards and unquestionable integrity, honesty and sincerity;
2. In Brunei Darussalam where school children come from a variety of socio-economic backgrounds a principal or headteacher must be capable of treating all children with consideration and respect;
3. The country needs principals or headteachers who are able to communicate well, able to mix and be friendly with the staff and parents, able to understand and appreciate their problems;
4. Since he is heading a school it is important that a headteacher should possess a degree of intelligence which the staff will respect;

5. A Principal must have a strong interest in the profession. He is the leader who should be able to inspire and encourage his staff in performing their function;
6. A principal must possess initiative. The principal is the agent of change, and one who should be able to use his initiative to help people understand change and allay their fears;
7. A principal must be able not only to adapt himself to changes but he must also be able to adapt his system of administration to changing situations;
8. A principal or headteacher must have both academic and professional qualifications. These two qualifications should be such as to gain the respect of his staff, and of any knowledgeable members of the community;
9. A principal is a teacher, a leader, a supervisor and must have administrative skills.

Instead of the central purchasing system (as mentioned in Chapter III), it is recommended that the secondary school principal and primary school headteacher should be allocated a certain amount of funds which he can

spend himself. Purchases by the schools can be checked by the school heads forwarding detailed proposals of expenditure the year before.

It is recommended that the school heads should be trained before being placed into the role and it is also recommended that school heads should be appointed to the permanent establishment and paid a salary commensurate with the responsibility being vested in them. The current practice of giving them an allowance of B\$200 per month is quite inadequate especially when the school is large as is generally the case in almost all secondary schools in Brunei Darussalam. Except for the status and the challenge, many school heads at present would prefer being an ordinary classroom teacher if they were given the choice.

It is also recommended that the Government should revise the financial regulations. At present purchases in excess of B\$5,000 have to be put out to tender. This regulation was last revised 30 years ago. But today this value is totally inadequate when purchases of relatively expensive school materials are to be considered. The limit should be raised to at least B\$10,000 to take account of the increased cost

of materials over the last 30 years. Both these recommendations if approved by the Government should result in an adequate supply of materials which will lead to an improvement in the teaching and learning situation.

TEACHER TRAINING CURRICULUM

Some aspects of teacher training in Sultan Hassanah Bolkiah Institute of Education clearly need to be reorganised.

One of the innovative measures that could be introduced by the Institute is microteaching. According to Stone and Morris²², microteaching is one of the most important developments in the field of teaching practice. The principle of microteaching employs a scaled down piece of teaching involving role playing student teachers as pupils. The teaching is scaled down in term of length and size of class. In general four or five students make up the micro class. The trainee prepares a six to eight minute lesson which should be self-contained and not just an introduction to a long lesson by concentrating on a single concept. The trainee then teaches the micro

class and the lesson is recorded on videotape. The student teacher's supervisor is present and at the end of the lesson all the people present will complete an evaluation from which the supervisors appraise the lesson, and everyone will be involved in a discussion to point out the strengths and weakness of the lesson within a positive atmosphere. Suggestions as to key points are made in the discussion and the student teacher can play back the videotape to observe his performance in the light of the discussion. When necessary the trainee may modify his lesson plan and reteach to a new micro class or repeat the whole process again.

Stones and Morris found microteaching useful. In their evaluation of the effectiveness of a large scale simulation at Brigham Young University involving over 700 students in the initial course in teacher training, 88 per cent of the random sample considered that the simulation exercise had very definitely indicated the areas in which that they could improve their teaching. In another random sample 87 per cent rated the microteaching exercise as excellent.... The evaluators who observed the lesson and advised the students also found it valuable and thought that the time, effort and expense necessary to provide each

student with one microteaching experience was justified. They all considered, however, that it would be better to provide more than one experience.²³

The professional studies should also include the teaching of reading²⁴. The purpose of this course must be to acquaint teacher with to how to deal with teaching reading, and especially in helping those who find reading difficult. The cause of a child's inability to learn to read may, rarely, be a specific defect; most usually it is a complex combination of a great number of factors. In infant and junior schools, when a child has problems of some kind, time and time again it shows up in reading difficulty. So there is a need to plan a curriculum course so that sufficient time is given to the teaching of reading, including practical work with children.

In almost all educational institutions, it is important that some kind of programme for teaching children with special educational needs is incooperated into the curriculum. No course of this kind has been included in the training of Brunei Darussalam teachers. Since it is believed that no child is ineducable, and based on the Declaration of Human Rights with regard to education²⁵, the

Institute of Education should introduce some aspects of the principles and practice of programme development for mentally handicapped children.

It is claimed that teaching practice is valuable to the student teacher. This is true but in the Brunei Darussalam context the recurrent system of teaching practice is not appropriate, especially in the case of the secondary course. As mentioned earlier, the academic quality of the students entering the Teachers Training College is somewhat low and some school heads are reluctant to accept some of the trainees to practice in their schools for the simple reason that they could have a detrimental effect on the pupils who were in the classes which they taught. To give them full responsibility for a class, after only one and a half terms training is alarming although there are some students who are capable teachers. The students admit that they need more time for academic and professional studies before they are exposed to the school situation. The worst situation is when students who have chosen the primary courses are sent for teaching practice in secondary schools or vice versa. In some cases, due to the chronic shortage of teachers, these trainees are sent to schools and function as full time teachers.

In view of this problem, whenever possible there should be what is called 'attachment teaching' where the trainee is attached to the school teacher for the particular subject, with the teacher 'supervising' the trainee's teaching almost all the time. The teacher does not necessarily leave the classroom and whenever required by the trainee, he can demonstrate how a particular lesson should be conducted. This relationship is valuable; the teacher 'checks' on the trainee's activities to the benefit of the trainee and the pupils' are completely taught. School heads are requested to send confidential reports on student teachers and, therefore, it is necessary that these heads observe at least a couple of lessons to form their judgements. Although all these supervisions can cause anxiety among the trainees due to lack of freedom, we feel it is necessary in the circumstances to check on their performance.

Since there dangers of 'inefficiency' in the teaching practice, the microteaching programme has a very important place here. Real teaching practice in schools can be provided perhaps in the third year, or at least in the last term of the second year. However there should be some time left for returning to the college to enable the trainee to evaluate his first

experience and have a second period of practice possibly in another school. If after a significant period in school there is time for study and for reflection, as well as perhaps for the recovery of confidence, this can be invaluable. The return to the college after the practice makes possible the use of the student teacher's own experience for developing both his theoretical and his practical insights. The following pattern of teaching practice in Brunei Darussalam is recommended:-

1st year - 1st school term

2nd year - 3rd school term

3rd year - 2nd school term

This type of pattern is recommended because the college and schools have different terms.

THE NEED FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR TEACHERS IN BRUNEI

In-service training for teachers in Brunei Darussalam is essential. As mentioned earlier the quality of education at present is unsatisfactory and the present quality of the teachers is partly to blame for this situation.

After their initial training only a very small number of teachers have had any formal in-service training of any kind. Most of the in-service education is undertaken by teachers in order to upgrade their professional status and increase their salaries. The teachers join adult education classes (conducted by the Education Department) and study subjects for the Ordinary or Advanced Level examination to obtain certificates so that they can claim a better salary scale. The subjects they study may not necessarily be those that they teach in schools, but any subjects that are interesting and in which they feel they can pass.

Other in-service courses are taken overseas and these are mostly certificate awarding courses for higher qualifications, again benefiting the teachers in terms of salary increments and status promotion, as well as personal educational development. Unlike the first, this course is always at the Government's expenses and very often it is taken on Government directive.

In 1972 a project centre was established to conduct in-service courses following the introduction of Modern Mathematics, Integrated Science and Nuffield Science into the secondary school curriculum. There

are ad-hoc in-service courses for the teachers concerned. In 1974 the Malay and English Language Project Centres started refresher courses for Malay and English Language primary teachers. But in March 1978 these centres were closed.

Ever since the closure of the project centres, the Teacher Training College (Institute of Education) which is supposed to conduct in-service and refresher courses has so far only provided a very few courses. In 1979, when the government launched the pre-school system in all government primary schools, the teachers concerned were given in-service courses only after the programme had started.

The provision of in-service education for the teachers in Brunei Darussalam, appears to be unsatisfactory. There is urgent need for more in-service courses. The teachers cannot be blamed for their lack of initiative in taking in-service courses of one sort or another. Apart from those that are motivated by salary increment and promotion prospects, most of the teachers do not understand the meaning or the benefit of in-service courses; they do not realise that their professional knowledge needs to be regularly upgraded and refreshed. There is inadequate

information to inform the teachers, especially in the rural areas, that there is more to teacher education than initial training. Until the introduction of television into Brunei Darussalam in 1976, teachers were quite unaware of changes taking place all over the world, changes which affect the teaching of many subjects in the school curriculum. It is now the teacher's responsibility to know and be able to interpret important pedagogical developments taking place in every part of the world. If he is to remain a major source of knowledge, he must keep abreast with current developments.

Primary school teachers should realise that they are teaching children who are rather different in their ways of thinking from those of ten or fifteen years ago. They must keep up to date in their knowledge of children and in their approaches to learning. Almost every school in Brunei Darussalam, either primary or secondary, is supplied with modern educational technology of one sort or another by the Education Department. Not only must the teacher learn how, when and where to use these aids, but he must also become acquainted with the new philosophy of education that is implied by these new aids to learning. In some schools, where there is generous provision of new

aids, their value is lost because the teachers do not know how to use them effectively.

The Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Institute of Education (the only national provider of in-service courses), and for that matter the Education Department, should accelerate the in-service programmes and should not be satisfied with the present provision. Since the teachers are quite unaware of their needs in this respect, it is the responsibility of the Education Department to encourage the teachers to undertake in-service or refresher courses whenever necessary. Perhaps the James Committee suggestion can be implemented. The Committee suggested that, for in service training,

".....as an interim target teachers should be entitled to a minimum of one term or the equivalent in every seven years and as soon as possible to be raised to one term every five years".²⁶

Whatever programme is implemented by the Brunei Darussalam Department of Education, it is important that ways of meeting the in-service needs of the teachers are considered. L.R. Davies²⁷ categorised these needs into four headings:-

- a. personal intellectual needs,
- b. personal professional needs,

- c. the needs of the school, and
- d. the needs of the education system.

A consideration of these needs is imperative so as to ensure that efforts both in terms of energy and finance will simply not be wasted because the courses provided do not meet the participants' requirements. A course attended one evening only can be of more value to the participants than one of one week or one term if it is relevant.

A well organised course requires some kind of follow up. This was considered essential at a seminar held in Bristol School of Education in 1974,

"Almost by definition such activities and courses should be followed up in schools. Many of the seminar group felt that the gap between the intention and the reality of follow up activities in school was the single most significant failure of provision within the in-service field today".^{2e}

It is unfortunate that though in many countries teachers centres are expanding in Brunei Darussalam the only such centre is now discontinued and is performing a different function. In the light of the in-service training problems and inadequacy existing in Brunei Darussalam, this centre is needed more now than ever before. It should be re-opened and provision

made for larger numbers of students. As the James Committee suggested, there should be "a country wide network of centres". These should be based in all parts of the country and should become "the forum for exchange of information and experience, between new and experienced teachers, teacher trainers and advisers. They would cover most of the day to day training requirements...of the school they served, and many of them would house, or arrange, more substantial courses".²⁹

It is the experience of many teachers all over the world, that one of the factors in lack of interest in in-service courses is the problem of distance. It is probable that one year full-time courses on secondment, working for a qualification and usually entailing residence away from home, would be much more popular if they were held in local centres where daily commuting was possible. In some areas it may be feasible to arrange courses through video tape recorders and radio cassette recorders for teachers since most schools in the state possess this equipment. Such a scheme works quite efficiently in Malaysia and would be applicable in Brunei Darussalam especially in the thinly populated areas.

The Education Department and Ministry of Education and Health in Brunei Darussalam needs to recognise the needs of the teaching profession, and to meet these needs satisfactorily. And the Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Institute of Education should provide an extended range of in-service courses.

LABOUR FORCE

The requirements of the present economy are different from those in the past. As technology changes rapidly, so job skills change equally fast. The labour force that any developed and developing country today needs is one that is flexible and able to adjust to new situations. Work techniques today are mainly based on science and engineering and it is to these subjects that the present education system has to give due regard. If we are to meet the requirements of a growing economy with a qualified personnel the education system has to provide a basic education from which to develop specialisms at a variety of levels. Education must also meet the needs of the individual in terms of development as a human being. Professor L.T. Lewis has expressed this;

"the progress of a nation depends first and foremost on the quality of the people as thinking, actively motivated individuals,

sharing generally accepted values and attitudes and objectives possessing the knowledge and skills, relevant to the attaining of those objectives".³⁰

Again, planners of education must include schemes for re-training present workers (including teachers) as well as initial courses of education and training. Developing countries such as Brunei Darussalam and Singapore have a strong faith education. They feel it is the key factor to technological progress and a higher standard of living for their people. Hansons says,

"Education is the greatest instrument man has devised for his own progress the national purpose of education is to create a good society and a good life for all its members and to use all the intellectual and moral resources man has developed, all the resources he is capable of developing, in the pursuit of this goal."³¹

This educational goal will not be achieved unless,

".... the effectiveness of education consists in planning the curriculum according to the national goals of a country. Curriculum is in other words, a function of a nation's philosophy of education. If the one is clearly formulated, the other can hardly remain unplanned or ignored."³²

Brunei Darussalam is very young independent state. There is still a very long way to go before many, if not all of the undesirable influences can be

discarded. Whilst it is necessary to search for our own identity it is imperative for us to survive in this world of science and technology by adhering to some of the western influences. We should retain those that are desirable and beneficial and discard those that can easily be replaced by our own that are equally good or even better. Our society must be perpetuated and to do this we must try to ensure that our future generations will find little that they wish to change in their education system.

CONCLUSION

Finally, it is high time that the Brunei Darussalam educational planners ensure that resources available are properly deployed. Having achieved successfully nine years free and universal education, the other aspects of education mentioned in the recommendations should receive consideration for implementations. Perhaps it is appropriate to conclude this thesis by quoting J.D. Ridge and Charles Hummel who said,

"An investment is good when the money is well spent. Education can be justified as an investment only when the money spent on it is wisely used. It is a good investment when it is relevant and meaningful, and it is based on long term planning, a proper choice of priorities, an adequate supply of trained teachers, a sufficiency of suitable resource material and a curriculum that promotes the development and character and ability. Without these it represents a waste of resources".³³

"A society and especially the ruling class perpetuates itself by transmitting to the future generations its system of values, its codes of behaviour and attitudes, its knowledges and its truths. It is by education that people are gathered to the fold, formed in a particular mould and integrated with the social system".³⁴

Reference

1. Dearden, R.F., The Philosophy of Primary Education. Routedledge and Kegan Paul. New York 1968. p 30.
2. Pehin Dato Hj Jamil., Scheme for the Implementation of a new Education Policy 1972. Published by Language and Literature Bureau, Brunei. 1976. p 123.
3. Gatherer, W.A., The British Educational Scene: Selected Aspect. In M.G Hughes(ed). Administering Education International Challenge. Athlone Press 1975. p 181.
4. Raison, T., The Act and The Patnership. An Essay on Educational Administration in England. London: Bedford Square Press, 1976. p 16.
5. Coffield, F. and Goodings, R.F., Sacred Cows in Education. Essays in Reassessment. Edinburgh University Press for the University of Durham. 1983. p 48.
6. Streeten, P., The Frontiers of Development. Macmillan. p 151.
7. Sinaga, H., The Inspector and Curriculum Development, Planning, Implementation and Evaluation, Urban and Rural: Report of The Commonwealth a regional Seminar/Workshop on Educational Administration and Supervision. 1975.
8. Engelhardt, F., Public School Organisation and Administration. Ginn, 1931. p 297.
9. Curtin, J., Supervision of Today's Elementary Schools. New York: The MacMillam Co, 1964. p 10.
10. Taiwo. C.O., The Mother Tongue As a Mean of Promoting Equal Access To Education in Nigeria. UNESCO. Paris. 1972.
11. Lloyd, G., Deprivation and The Bilingual Child. Studies of Infant School Children. School Council Publication. 1977.
12. Dalton, R.H.F., Education On The Move. A Hand Book of British Tropical Commonwealth. Staples Printers. 1968. p 42.

13. UNESCO., Paris. The Use of Vernacular Language in Education. Monograph on Fundamental Education. Paris. 1953. p 47.
14. Harbison, F., Educational Planning and Human Resource Development. UNESCO: IIEP, 1967 p 18.
15. Government of Brunei., Report of the Education Commission 1972, Bandar Seri Begawan, State Secreteriat.
16. Platt, W.J., Research for Educational Planning. UNESCO: IIEP, 1970. p 14.
17. Bereday, G.Z.F., Essay on World Education: The Crisis of supply and demand. London: Oxford University Press, 1969. p 317.
18. OECD., Development of Secondary Education: Trend and Implications. Paris 1969. p 177.
19. Chesswass, J.D., Methodologies of Educational Planning for Developing Countries. Vol 1, UNESCO: IIEP, 1969. p 38.
20. Bent, R.K. and Kroneinberg, H.H., Principles Of Secondary Education, McGraw Hill, 1966. p 64.
21. Howarth, S.B., The Head's Legal Guide, Croner Publication Ltd. 1985. p 35.
22. Stone, E. and Morris, S., Teaching Practice, Problem and Perspective: a reappraisal of the practical professional element in teacher preparation. London: Methuen, 1972.
23. Stone, E. and Morris, S., op cit.
24. Stone, E. and Morris, S., op cit.
25. Francious, L., The Right For Education. UNESCO. Paris 1968.
26. DES Teacher Education and Training, A Report by the James Committee. HMSO. 1972 p 3.
27. Davies, L.R., Seminar on In-Service Education and Training. The University of Bristol School of Education. British Journal of In-Service Training. Vol 1 Autumn 1974. p 12.
28. Davies, L.R., op cit p 14.

29. The James Report, op cit p 16.
30. Lewis L.J., Education and National Development - Academic Diploma Paper. University of London, Institute of Education 1970.
31. Hanson J.W. Educational Tasks For A Nation, in Education and Its Development Of Nations. J.W. Hanson and Cole S. Brembecks, Holt Rinehart and Winston 1966. pp 32-33.
32. Lulla B.P. Need for Curriculum Planning in India, Educational Psychology Vol. 6. NO.4 Oct. 1966. p.187.
33. Ridge, J.D., New Horizons In The Supervision Of Education. Commonwealth Foundation. Quality of Education For National Development - The Role Of The Adviser. Report Of The Regional Symposium held in Fiji, August/September 1973. p 55.
34. Hummel, C., Education Today For The World Of Tomorrow. IBE Studies and Surveys In Comparative Education. UNESCO. 1977.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abu Bakar Haji Apong., The Development of Education in Brunei During Self-Government Period with Special Reference to Primary Education. Unpublished M.A. (Ed) Dissertation, University of Lancaster, 1980.

Anderson, C.A., and Bowman, M.J., Theoretical consideration in Educational Planning. in the World Year book of education 1967(ed), Beredy, G.Z.P. and Lauwerys, J.A., Educational Planning. Evans, 1967.

Armitage, P., Smith, C. and Alper, P., Decision models for educational planning, London: Allen Lane. The Penguin Press 1969.

Barker, B., Rescuing the Comprehensive Experience. Open University Press, 1986.

Barncroft, J.C.H., Annual Report on Brunei 1951.

Barncroft, J.C.H., Annual Report on Brunei 1952.

Beeby, C.E., Planning and the educational administrator, Paris, UNESCO: IIEP, 1967.

Beeby, C.E., Qualitative aspects of educational Planning, UNESCO: IIEP, Paris, 1969.

Bellaby, P., The Sociology of Comprehensive Schooling. Methuen. 1977.

Bent, R.K. and Kroneinberg, H.H., Principles of Secondary Education. McGraw Hill, 1966.

Bereday, G.Z.F., Essay on World Education: the crisis of supply and demand. Oxford University Press, 1969.

Brunei Board of Examination., Report of the Public Examination Committee. Brunei. 1977.

Brunei Board of Examination., Regulation for the Brunei Junior Certificate of Education Examination. Brunei. 1979.

Brunei Department of Education., Annual Report 1957.

Brunei Department of Education., Triennial Report. 1965.

Brunei Department of Education., Annual Report 1972. Borneo Printers & Trading (PTE) Ltd. Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei

Brunei Department of Education., Annual Report 1973. Borneo Printers & Trading (PTE) Ltd. Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei.

Brunei Department of Education., Educational Statistics of Brunei Darussalam 1973-1982. Prepared by the Research, Evaluation and Statistic Unit, Ministry of Education and Health, Brunei Darussalam 1982.

Brunei Department of Education., Journal VOL 1, 1974.

Brunei Department of Education., Annual Report 1976-1977. Borneo Printers & Trading (PTE) Ltd, Bandar Seri Begawan, Brunei.

Brunei Department of Education., Annual Report 1983-1984. prepared by Planning and Development, Section, Education Department, Ministry of Education Health. August 1985.

Brunei Department of Education., The Education System of Negara Brunei Darussalam, 1985. Prepared by Curriculum Development Centre, Brunei Darussalam. 1985.

Brunei Economic Planning Unit., Brunei Statistical Year Book, 1975/76, State Secretariat. Star Trading and Printing, 1977.

Brunei Economic Planning Unit., Brunei Statistical Year Book, 1982/83, Ministry of Finance, Brunei Darussalam, 1984.

Brunei Economic Planning Unit., Fifth National Development Plan, 1986-1990, Ministry of Finance, Brunei Darussalam. 1986.

Brunei Information Department., Briefing 1981, Bandar Seri Begawan: State Secretariat, 1982.

Callaway, A., Educational planning and unemployed youth, UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1971.

Chesswas, J.D., Methodologies of Educational Planning for Developing Countries Vol 1 UNESCO: IIEP, 1969.

Chew Sing Buan., Planning in Education, in F.H.K.Wong(ed), Readings in Malaysia Education. Kuala Lumpur: University of Malaya Press. 1977.

Chua Peng Siong., Focus on National Development Plan 1975-1979 Bandar Seri Begawan: Information Department, State Secretariat Brunei, 1982.

Coffield, F. and Goodings, R.F., Sacred Cows in Education. Essays in Reassessment. Edinburgh University Press for the University of Durham, 1983.

Colclough, C. and Godfrey, M., Brunei Manpower Masterplan, British Council, 1982, (Unpublished report)

Colonial Report., State of Brunei 1925. London: HMSO, 1926.

Coombs, P.H., What is Educational Planning. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1970.

Coombs, P.H., Major Problems Facing Educational Planning In the Next Decade. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1967.

Coombs, P.H., What do we still need to know about Educational Planning?. in The World Years books of Education. Educational Planning, Evans, 1967.

Curle. A., Educational strategy for Developing Societies: a study of educational and social factors in relation economic growth. Tavistock publication, London, 1963

Curle. A., The Professional Identity of Educational Planners, UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1969.

Curtin, J., Supervision of Today's Elementary Schools, New York: The MacMillan Co., 1964.

Dalton, R.H.F., Education on the Move. A Hand Book of British Tropical Commonwealth. Staples Printers. 1968.

Davies, L.R., Seminar on In-Service Education and Training. The University of Bristol School of Education. British Journal of In-Service Training. Vol 1 Autumn 1974.

Dearden, R.F., The Philosophy of Primary Education. Routedledge and Kegan Paul. New York 1968.

DES., Teacher Education and Training, A Report by The James Committee. HMSO. 1972.

DES., The Educational System of England and Wales, Revised Edition. October 1985.

Engelhardt, F., Public School Organisation and Administration, Ginn, 1931.

Eides, K., Politics of long range planning: The strange world of planner, in Thomas Green, Educational Planning Perspective: Forcasting and policy making, survey: IPC Business publishers, 1971.

Faure, E., Learning to be: Education for Today and Tomorrow. UNESCO, Paris 1972.

Fisher, C.A., South East Asia: A Social, Economic and Political Geography. 2nd Edition, London: Methuen 1966.

Fletcher, B.A., The Development of the Idea of Planning in Education. in J. W. Hanson and C.S. Brembeck, (eds), Education and the Development of Nation, : New York: Holt. Rivehart and Winston, 1966.

Francious, L., The Right for Education. UNESCO. Paris 1968.

Further, P., The planner and lifelong education, UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1977.

Gatherer, W.A., The British Educational Scene: Selected Aspects. In M.G.Hughes(ed). Administering Education: International Challenge. Athlone Press 1975.

Government of Brunei., State of Brunei, Annual Report 1950.

Government of Brunei., Report of the Education Commission, Bandar Seri Begawan: State Secretariat, 1972.

Government of Brunei., State of Brunei, Annual Report, 1972. The Information Section, State Secretariat, Brunei.

Government of Brunei., State of Brunei, Annual Report 1974. The Information Section, State Secretariat, Brunei.

Government of Brunei., State of Brunei, Annual Report 1976. The Information Section, State Secretariat, Brunei.

Government of Brunei., State of Brunei, Annual Report 1977. The Information Section, State Secretariat, Brunei.

Green, T., Educational Planning in Perspective: Forecasting and Policy Making. IPC Business Press Ltd, 1971.

Hamilton, N.K., New Techniques for Effective School Administration, New York: Parker Publishing Co. Ltd., 1975.

Hanson, J. W., Developing the plan, in Education and the Development of Nations. ed. Hanson, J. W. and Brenbeck, C. S. New York, London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966.

Hanson J.W., Educational Tasks for A Nation, in Education and Its Development of Nations. ed. Hanson, J.W. and Brembecks, C.S. New York, London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston 1966.

Harbison, F., Educational Planning and Human Resource Development, UNESCO: IIEP, 1967.

Hartley, H.J., Educational, Planning - Programme - Budgeting. A System Approach, New Jersey: Prentice - Hall. 1968.

Hicks, H.G. and Gullett, C.R., The Management of Organization, 3rd Ed., Tokyo: McGraw-Hill Kogakusha Ltd., 1976,

Howarth, S.B., The Head's Legal Guide, Croner Publication Ltd. 1985.

Hulton, W., Brunei: Paradox or Paradise?. Singapore Airlines Magazines. January 1979.

Human Relations Areas Files Staff., Country Survey Series, North Borneo, Brunei, Serawak (British Borneo), New Heaven: Human Relation Areas Files, 1956.

Hummel, C., Education today for the world of tomorrow. IBE Studies and Surveys in Comparative Education. UNESCO, 1977.

Hunter, G., Higher education and development in south east asia: high level manpower. Volume III, part 1. UNESCO: IAU, Paris 1967.

IIEP., Educational Planning: An Inventory of Major Research Needs. UNESCO, Paris 1965.

IIEP., Educational Planning: a Bibliography. UNESCO, Paris 1967

IIEP., Administrative Aspects of Educational Planning, UNESCO, Paris 1970

Isaac, D.A., A Study of Predicting High School Dropouts. in Elizabeth Halsall. The Comprehensive School. Pergamon 1973.

Jones, L.W., The Population of Borneo, A Study of the People of Serawak, Sabah and Brunei, London: the Athlone Press, 1966.

Lewis L.J., Education and National Development - Academic Diploma Paper. University of London, Institute of Education 1970.

Lloyds, G., Deprivation and the Bilingual Child. Studies of Infant School Children. School Council Publication. 1977.

Lulla B.P., Need for Curriculum Planning in India, Educational Psychology Vol 6. NO.4 Oct 1966.

Lyons, R.F., Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning: Lessons from Latin America. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1965.

Malaysia Ministry of Education., Education in Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur. 1980, Eric 1981.

McKinnon, K.R., Realistic educational planning. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1973.

McMeekin, R.W., Educational Planning and Expenditure Decision in Developing Countries: With A Malaysian case study, New York: Praeger publishers, Inc., 1975.

Miller, T.W.G., Education in South East Asia, Sydney: Ian Novak, 1968

Montgomery, J.D., Alternatives and decision in educational planning. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1976.

Mukarji, S.N., Administration of Education, Planning and Finance: Theory and Practice, Barode: Archarya Book Depot, 1978.

Mundrell, E.B., Report in the State of Brunei 1915. Federal Malay State Printing Office KL 1916.

Nozhko, K., Educational Planning in USSR. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1968.

OECD., An experiment in planning by six countries, MRP, Paris 1965

OECD., MRP Country report, especially Turkey, 1965. For comment on this see Hollister, R., An evaluation of the first stage of the MRP. OECD 1967.

OECD., Development of Secondary Education: Trends and Implications. Paris 1969.

Parnes, H.S., Planning Education for Social and Economic Development. OECD Paris 1961/63.

Parnes, H.S., Forecasting educational needs for social and economic development. Paris, OECD 1962.

Parnes, H.S., Manpower analysis in Educational planning, in Blaug(ed) Economics of Education 1, Selected Readings, Penguin. 1968.

Peel, W.J., State of Brunei, Annual Report on Brunei for the Year 1946. Malayan Union Government Press, KL 1948.

Pehin Dato Hj Jamil., Scheme for the Implementation of the New Education Policy. 1972. Published by Language and Literature Bureau, Brunei. 1976.

Pengilley, E.E., State of Brunei, Annual Report on the Social & Economic Progress of the People of Brunei for the Year 1939.

Philip H.M., Education and Development. in Economic and Social Aspects of Educational Planning, UNESCO.

Platt, W.J., Research for Educational Planning: notes on emergent needs. UNESCO: IIEP, 1970.

Poignant, R., Role of Educational Planning in Economic and Social Development Programmes. in OECD, Organisational Problems in Planning Educational Development, OECD, Paris 1966.

Poignant, R., The relation of educational plans to economic and social planning. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1967.

Praksha, V., Training of Educational Planners. in UNESCO regional office of Education in Asia, Bulletin NO 16, June 1975.

Raison, T., The Act and the Partnership. An Essay on Educational Administration in England. London: Bedford Square Press, 1976.

Rajadurai, J.P., A Study of Educational Planning in Singapore, unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Malaya, 1981.

Report of the Education Review Committee, Government printer, 1960, report of higher education planning committee, Government printer. Kuala Lumpur 1967

Richmond, W.K., Educational Planning: Old and New Perspectives. London: Michael Joseph, 1966.

Ridge, J.D., New Horizons in the Supervision of Education. Commonwealth Foundation. Quality of Education for National Development - The Role of The Adviser. Report of the Regional Symposium held in Fiji, August/September 1973.

Rowley, C.D., The Politics of educational planning in developing countries. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1971.

Ruscoe, G.C., The condition for success in educational Planning. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1969.

Sergiovanni, T.J. and Carver, F.D., The New School Executive: A Theory of Administration, 2nd Ed. New York: Harper and Row, 1980.

Sinaga, H., The Inspector and Curriculum Development, Planning, Implementation and Evaluation, Urban and Rural: Report of the Commonwealth Regional Seminar/Workshop on Educational Administration and Supervision. 1975.

Stone, E., and Morris, S., Teaching Practice, Problems and Perspectives: a reappraisal of the practical professional element in teacher preparation. London: Methuen, 1972.

Streeten, P.P., The Frontiers of Development Studies, Macmillan. 1980.

Taiwo. C.O., The Mother Tongue as a Mean of Promoting Equal Access to Education in Nigeria. UNESCO. Paris. 1972.

Tanner, C.K. and William, E.J., Educational Planning and Decision Making. Lexington Book, Toronto 1981.

UNESCO., The Use of Vernacular Language in Education. Monograph on Fundamental Education. Paris 1953.

UNESCO., World Survey of Education, Volume II. Primary Education. Paris 1958.

UNESCO., Educational Planning in Developing Countries. With special reference to Asia, 1963.

UNESCO., Economic and social aspects of Educational Planning. UNESCO, Paris 1963.

UNESCO., Elements of Educational Planning, educational studies and documents 45. UNESCO, Paris 1963.

UNESCO., Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning. IIEP, 1965.

UNESCO., Educational Planning - A World survey of problems and prospects. UNESCO, Paris 1970.

Vaizey, J. and Chesswell, J.D., The Costing of Educational Plans. IIEP, Paris 1967.

Vaizey, J., Education in the Modern World. London: Weidenfield and Nicholson, 1975.

Wheeler, A.C.R., Administrative Factors in Educational Planning. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1967.

Wheeler, A.C.R., Essential Economic Concepts for Educational Planning. UNESCO: IIEP, 1969.

Woodhall, M., Cost Benefits Analysis in Educational Planning. UNESCO: IIEP, Paris 1970.

Woodhall, M. assisted by Ward, V., Economic Aspect of Education, NFER, 1972.

Appendix 1.1

MINISTRIES AND DEPARTMENTS

A. Prime Minister's Office:

1. The Royal Brunei Police Force;
2. Religious Affairs Department;
3. Adat Istiadat Department;
4. Privy Council;
5. Council of Ministers;
6. Council of State;
7. Public Service Commission;
8. Audit Department;
9. Establishment Department;
10. Detention Camp;
11. Anti Corruption Bureau; and

B. Ministry of Finance:

1. Treasury Department;
2. Brunei Investment Agency;
3. Customs Department;
4. Government Store;
5. Economic Development Board; and
6. Economic Planning Unit, Computer and Statistics.

C. Ministry of Home Affairs:

1. Districts Office;
2. Immigration Department;
3. Labour Department;
4. Prisons Department;
5. Municipal Board;
6. Government Security;
7. Department of Cooperative Development;
8. Weights and Measures Department; and
9. Fire Brigades.

D. Ministry of Defence:

1. Royal Brunei Armed Forces; and
2. Gurkha Reserve Battalion (Non-Government).

E. Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

F. Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports:

1. Welfare, Youth and Sports Department;
2. Language and Literature Bureau;
3. Museum Department;
4. Broadcasting and Information Department; and
5. Historical Centre.

G. Ministry of Law:

1. Legal Department;
2. Judiciary; and
3. Government Printer.

H. Ministry of Communication:

1. Postal Services Department;
2. Civil Aviation Department;
3. Telecommunications Department;
4. Port Authority Department; and
5. Land Transport Department.

I. Ministry of Education and Health:

1. Department of Education; and
2. Medical and Health Services Department.

J. Ministry of Development:

1. Public Works Department;
2. Electrical Services Department;
3. Town and Country Planning;
4. Survey Department;
5. Resettlement Department;
6. Land Department;
7. Agricultural Department;
8. Fisheries Department; and
9. Forestry Department.

Appendix 2.1

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND STUDENTS BY TYPE OF SCHOOLS AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION
1975

TYPE OF SCHOOL	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	STUDENTS			TEACHERS		
		PERSONS	MALES	FEMALES	PERSONS	MALES	FEMALES
Total	185	46,219	24,287	21,932	2,596	1,582	1,024
Government:	144	35,299	18,388	16,911	2,151	1,451	700
Arabic Primary	1	117	53	64	16	11	5
Malay Primary	104	16,688	8,773	7,915	1,046	696	350
English Preparatory	18	6,443	3,178	3,265	259	148	111
Arabic Secondary	1	223	78	145	37	26	11
Malay Secondary	7	3,162	1,762	1,400	273	212	61
English Secondary	8	7,739	3,897	3,842	411	260	151
Vocational/Technical	2	314	307	7	61	61	-
Teacher Training	2	613	340	273	48	37	11
Non-Government:	41	10,920	5,899	5,021	445	131	324
Kindergarten	14	1,496	808	688	39	-	39
Primary	16	6,861	3,807	3,054	261	43	218
Secondary	11	2,563	1,284	1,279	155	88	67
Vocational/Technical	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Teacher Training	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Brunei Statistical Year Book 1975/76, Statistic Section, Economic Planning Unit, State Secretariat, Brunei, p. 89.

Appendix 2.2

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND STUDENTS BY TYPE OF SCHOOLS AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION
1976

Type of Schools	Number of Schools	Students			Teachers		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	194	48,620	25,312	23,308	2,758	1,652	1,106
Government:	149	36,685	18,977	17,708	2,253	1,514	739
Arabic Primary	1	130	60	70	6	4	2
Malay Primary	106	16,224	8,518	7,706	1,077	716	361
English Preparatory	21	6,984	3,457	3,527	298	163	135
Arabic Secondary	2	190	68	122	29	22	7
Malay Secondary ⁽¹⁾	7	3,636	2,124	1,512	273	218	55
English Secondary ⁽²⁾	8	8,652	4,181	4,471	457	291	166
Vocational/Technical	2	278	275	3	56	56	-
Teacher Training	2	591	294	297	57	44	13
Non-Government:	45	11,935	6,335	5,600	505	138	367
Kindergarten	17	1,850	971	879	58	-	58
Primary	18	7,486	1,071	3,415	298	52	246
Secondary ⁽³⁾	10	2,599	1,293	1,306	149	86	63
Vocational/Technical	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Teacher Training	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Brunei Statistical Year Book 1975/76, Statistic Section, Economic Planning Unit, State Secretariat Brunei, p. 99.

1. Malay/English Secondary Schools are included
2. Form Six Centre is included
3. Panaga Secondary School is not included

Appendix 2.3

TEACHER TRAINING: ENROLMENT BY YEAR OF STUDY AND AGE, 1975

Age in May, 1975	First Year		Second Year		Third Year		TOTAL TEACHER TRAINING		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
Under 17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	2
18	9	1	-	4	-	-	9	5	14
19	10	18	3	10	3	-	16	28	44
20	18	18	18	22	9	6	45	46	91
21	18	12	29	31	13	9	60	52	112
22	20	21	29	25	15	24	64	70	134
23	5	9	29	12	42	15	76	36	112
24	4	5	12	6	31	10	47	21	68
25 & Over	3	6	4	3	15	5	22	14	36
TOTAL:	88	91	124	113	128	69	340	273	613

Source: Brunei Statistical Year Book 1975/76, Statistic Section, Economic Planning Unit, State Secretarial Brunei, p. 101.

Appendix 2.4

TEACHER TRAINING: ENROLLMENT BY YEAR OF STUDY AND AGE, 1976

AGE IN MAY, 1976	Year I		Year II		Year III		TOTAL TEACHER TRAINING		
	NEW INTAKE	REPEATERS	NEW INTAKE	REPEATERS	NEW INTAKE	REPEATERS	H	F	T
	H F	H F	H F	H F	H F	H F	H	F	T
Under 17	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	-	-	-
17	1 -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1	-	1
18	9 6	- -	1 1	- -	- -	- -	10	7	17
19	12 18	- -	5 2	- -	- 2	- -	17	22	39
20	12 29	- -	10 15	- -	2 9	- -	24	53	77
21	19 18	- -	25 24	- -	17 25	- -	61	67	128
22	16 14	- -	22 10	- -	35 33	- -	73	57	130
23	10 7	- -	14 19	- -	32 22	- -	56	48	104
24	3 3	- -	7 9	- -	20 12	- -	30	24	54
25 & Over	1 -	- -	5 12	- -	16 7	- -	22	19	41
TOTAL;	83 95	- -	89 92	- -	122 110	- -	294	297	591

Appendix 2.5

THE TOTAL NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN BRUNEI 1973-1982

TYPE OF SCHOOL BY LEVEL	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
GOV'T SCHOOLS-UNDER EDUCATION DEPARTMENT;										
PRE-SCHOOL;										
MALAY	-	-	-	-	-	-	176	180	188	184
PRIMARY/PREPARATORY;										
MALAY	998	1038	1046	1077	1111	1106	926	933	968	1048
ENGLISH	264	282	259	298	342	379	375	399	466	490
SECONDARY;										
MALAY	290	294	273	161	156	126	122	130	137	123
ENGLISH	294	310	361	397	406	446	472	493	541	586
MALAY/ENGLISH	-	-	50	172	183	239	308	377	406	434
TECHNICAL (VOCATIONAL)	39	33	61	56	68	85	95	110	117	149
TEACHERS TRAINING	27	31	35	41	43	48	51	57	61	64
TOTAL										
UNDER EDUCATION DEPARTMENT;	1912	1988	2085	2202	2309	2429	2525	2679	2884	3078
GOV'T SCHOOL-UNDER RELIGIOUS DEPARTMENT;										
ARABIC PREPARATORY	4	16	16	6	6	12	17	15	12	23
ARABIC SECONDART	33	44	47	29	40	37	32	35	44	48
RELIGIOUS TEACHER TRAINING	11	11	13	16	18	18	23	24	24	28

Source: Educational Statistics of Brunei Darussalam 1973-1982, prepared by The Research, Evaluation and Statistics Unit, Department of Education, Ministry of Education and Health, Brunei Darussalam, p. 11.

Appendix 2.6

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BY QUALIFICATION, 1982

TYPE	TOTAL	DEGREE	DIPLOMA/ CERTIFICATE	'A' LEVEL	'O' LEVEL	OTHERS
Government Schools	1,159	401	22	194	523	19
Percentage (%)	100	34.6	1.9	16.7	45.1	1.6
Mission and Chinese Schools	189	113	5	35	28	3
Percentage (%)	100	59.8	2.6	18.5	14.8	1.6

Source: Education Paper No. 5B, Economic Planning Unit,
Ministry of Finance, Brunei Darussalam. September
1984, p. 34.

Appendix 3.1

ENROLMENT BY TYPE OF SCHOOLS

TYPE OF SCHOOL	(IN THOUSANDS)					
				PERCENTAGE INCREASE		
	1972	1977	1982	72-77	77-78	72-82
Kindergarten	1.2	2.1	7.2	(72.9)	(232.5)	(475.1)
(Percentage of all levels)	2.8	4.3	12.5			
Primary/Preparatory	30.6	32.1	31.7	(5.0)	(-1.6)	(3.4)
(Percentage of all levels)	68.7	63.9	54.7			
Secondary	12.1	15.2	17.7	(25.3)	(16.4)	(45.9)
(Percentage of all levels)	27.2	30.1	30.6			
Vocational	0.1	0.2	0.6	(88.0)	(136.1)	(343.1)
(Percentage of all levels)	0.3	0.5	1.1			
Teachers Training	0.3	0.5	0.7	(36.5)	(28.5)	(75.4)
(Percentage of all levels)	0.8	0.1	1.2			
TOTAL	44.5	50.3	57.9	(13.0)	(15.0)	(30.0)

Source: Education Paper No. 5B, Economic Planning Unit, Ministry of Finance, Negara Brunei Darussalam, September 1984, p. 30.

Appendix 3.2

NUMBER OF TEACHERS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION 1974-1984

YEAR	TOTAL	KINDERGARTEN			PRIMARY/ PREPARATORY			SECONDARY			VOCATIONAL			TEACHER TRAINING		
		TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
1974	2,484	41	-	41	1,584	903	681	784	534	250	33	33	-	42	31	11
1975	2,616	39	-	39	1,582	898	684	896	586	290	61	61	-	48	37	11
1976	2,758	58	-	58	1,679	935	744	908	617	291	56	56	-	57	44	13
1977	2,889	63	1	62	1,761	974	787	936	607	329	68	68	-	61	46	15
1978	3,072	106	4	102	1,828	997	831	987	646	341	85	85	-	66	51	15
1979	3,232	299	74	225	1,657	926	731	1,107	701	406	95	93	2	74	56	18
1980	3,408	324	76	248	1,671	911	760	1,214	761	453	118	115	3	81	58	23
1981	3,690	352	63	289	1,800	936	864	1,326	825	501	127	119	8	85	57	28
1982	3,918	348	46	302	1,922	978	944	1,396	860	536	160	152	8	92	62	30
1983	4,098	336	44	292	2,048	1,010	1,038	1,463	915	548	160	151	9	91	65	26
1984	4,295	363	40	323	2,131	1,019	1,112	1,526	939	587	188	179	9	87	63	24

Source: Education Department Annual Report 1983-1984, Brunei Darussalam, p. 71.

Appendix 3.3

NUMBER OF SCHOOL, TEACHERS AND STUDENTS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1982

TYPE OF SCHOOL	No. OF SCHOOL	STUDENTS			TEACHERS		
		MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
GRAND TOTAL	351	28,276	57,928	29,652	1,850	3,943	2,092
GOVERNMENT: TOTAL	290	20,471	41,772	21,301	1,291	3,229	1,937
MALAY PRE-SCHOOL	113	1,616	3,388	1,772	140	184	44
ARABIC PRIMARY	2	100	210	110	5	23	18
MALAY PRIMARY	113	6,438	13,792	7,354	366	1,049	682
ENGLISH PRIMARY	39	4,166	3,911	4,002	274	490	216
ARABIC SECONDARY	2	250	455	205	14	48	34
MALAY SECONDARY	8	2,767	5,743	2,976	207	581	374
ENGLISH SECONDARY	7	4,625	8,692	4,067	247	602	355
VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL	4	113	647	534	8	160	152
TEACHER TRAINING	2	396	677	281	30		62
NON-GOVERNMENT: TOTAL	65	7,805	16,156	8,351	559	714	155
KINDERGARTEN	32	1,866	3,836	1,970	162	164	2
PRIMARY	23	4,466	9,512	5,046	299	361	62
SECONDARY	10	1,473	2,808	1,335	98	189	91
VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TEACHER TRAINING	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Education Department Annual Report 1983-1984, p. 72.

Appendix 3.4

NUMBER OF SCHOOL, TEACHERS AND STUDENT BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1983

TYPE OF SCHOOL	No. OF SCHOOL	STUDENTS			TEACHERS		
		MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	SCHOOL
GRAND TOTAL	350	30,848	29,480	60,328	2,216	1,913	4,129
GOVERNMENT: TOTAL	288	22,028	21,364	43,392	2,015	1,346	3,361
MALAY PRE-SCHOOL	111	1,882	1,761	3,643	43	149	192
ARABIC PRIMARY	2	143	132	275	22	6	28
MALAY PRIMARY	112	7,918	7,142	15,060	744	448	1,192
ENGLISH PRIMARY	39	3,621	3,504	7,125	180	255	435
ARABIC SECONDARY	2	207	254	461	36	16	52
MALAY SECONDARY	8	5,267	2,482	7,749	357	162	519
ENGLISH SECONDARY	8	4,665	5,538	10,203	417	275	692
VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL	4	561	143	704	151	9	160
TEACHER TRAINING	2	246	408	654	65	26	91
NON-GOVERNMENT: TOTAL	62	8,820	8,916	16,936	201	567	768
KINDERGARTEN	29	1,961	1,741	3,702	32	143	175
PRIMARY	23	5,444	4,867	10,311	64	329	393
SECONDARY	10	1,415	1,508	2,923	105	95	200
VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TEACHER TRAINING	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Education Department Annual Report 1983-1984, p. 73.

Appendix 3.5

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND STUDENTS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION, 1984

TYPE OF SCHOOL	No. OF SCHOOL	STUDENTS			TEACHERS		
		MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
GRAND TOTAL	357	31,608	30,324	61,932	2,240	2,055	4,295
GOVERNMENT TOTAL	289	22,412	21,846	44,258	2,053	1,433	3,486
MALAY PRE-SCHOOL	112	1,896	1,891	3,787	38	162	200
ARABIC PRIMARY	2	198	157	355	22	6	28
MALAY PRIMARY	113	8,262	7,435	15,697	748	486	1,234
ENGLISH PRIMARY	38	3,870	3,713	7,583	172	257	429
ARABIC SECONDARY	2	229	294	523	42	19	61
MALAY SECONDARY	4	616	387	1,003	103	28	131
ENGLISH SECONDARY	8	4,512	5,378	9,890	425	301	726
MALAY/ENGLISH SECONDARY	4	2,016	2,065	4,081	261	141	402
VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL	4	601	147	748	179	9	188
TEACHER TRAINING	2	212	379	591	63	24	87
NON-GOVERNMENT: TOTAL	68	9,196	8,478	17,674	187	622	809
KINDERGARTEN	33	2,022	1,846	3,868	2	161	163
PRIMARY	25	5,652	5,086	10,738	77	363	440
SECONDARY	10	1,522	1,546	3,068	108	98	206
VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TEACHER TRAINING	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Education Department Annual Report 1983-1984, p. 74.

Appendix 3.6

NUMBER OF STUDENTS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION 1974-1984

YEAR	TOTAL	KINDERGARTEN			PRIMARY/ PREPARATORY			SECONDARY			VOCATIONAL			TEACHER TRAINING		
		TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
1974	45,824	1,373	753	620	30,747	16,092	14,655	12,906	6,709	6,179	197	197	-	601	325	276
1975	46,219	1,496	808	688	30,109	15,811	14,298	13,687	7,021	6,666	314	307	7	613	340	273
1976	48,620	1,850	971	879	30,824	16,106	14,718	15,077	7,666	7,411	278	275	3	591	294	297
1977	50,365	2,172	1,124	1,048	32,188	16,698	15,490	15,204	7,680	7,524	274	275	1	527	239	288
1978	52,124	2,661	1,378	1,283	33,053	17,169	15,884	15,571	7,820	7,751	306	292	14	553	210	323
1979	53,155	6,330	3,322	3,008	29,934	15,564	14,388	15,996	8,002	7,994	294	269	25	601	218	383
1980	54,857	6,760	3,509	3,251	30,513	15,966	14,547	16,532	8,183	8,349	459	388	71	593	225	368
1981	56,645	6,879	3,519	3,360	31,677	16,558	15,119	16,805	8,140	8,665	570	476	94	714	299	415
1982	57,928	7,224	3,742	3,482	31,682	16,512	15,170	17,698	8,583	9,115	647	533	113	677	281	396
1983	60,328	7,345	3,843	3,502	32,771	17,126	15,645	18,854	9,072	9,782	704	561	143	654	246	408
1984	61,932	7,655	3,918	3,737	34,373	17,982	16,391	18,565	8,895	9,670	748	601	147	591	212	379

Source: Education Department Annual Report 1983-1984, Brunei Darussalam, p. 70.

STATISTICS ON EDUCATION, MARCH 1985

SCHOOL LEVEL	No. OF SCHOOL	CL	PUPILS/STUDENTS			TEACHER		
			M	F	T	M	F	T
GOV'T SCHOOLS/COLLEGES:								
PRIMARY MALAY/(PRA-SEKOLAH)	117	1125	12,698	11,584	24,282	789	766	1555
PRIMARY ENGLISH	39	210	2,647	2,482	5,129	116	191	307
PRIMARY ARAB	1	10	227	-	227	15	-	15
TOTAL GOV'T PRIMARY	157	1345	15,572	14,066	29,638	920	957	1877
SECONDARY MALAY	4	50	666	469	1,135	96	31	127
SECONDARY ENGLISH	7	367	4,654	5,366	10,020	410	326	736
SECONDARY ARAB	1	14	269	49	318	47	2	49
SECONDARY MALAY/ENGLISH	4	153	1,638	1,702	3,340	243	123	366
TOTAL GOV'T SECONDARY	16	584	7,227	7,586	14,813	796	482	1278
VOCATIONAL	1	21	253	23	276	16	3	19
TEACHER TRAINING	2	32	303	397	700	75	21	96
TOTAL GOV'T SCHOOLS/COLLEGES	176	1982	23,355	22,072	45,427	1807	1463	3270
NON-GOV'T SCHOOLS								
<u>MISSION SCHOOL</u>								
KINDERGARTEN	7	23	530	442	972	-	32	32
PRIMARY	7	108	2488	2159	4647	14	130	144
SECONDARY	7	72	1186	1292	2478	57	66	123
TOTAL MISSION	21	203	4204	3893	8097	71	228	299
<u>CHINESE SCHOOL</u>								
KINDERGARTEN	8	47	766	764	1530	6	57	63
PRIMARY	8	129	2112	1976	4088	42	135	177
SECONDARY	3	33	494	396	890	33	35	68
TOTAL CHINESE	19	209	3372	3136	6508	81	227	308
<u>OTHER PRIVATE SCHOOL</u>								
KINDERGARTEN	17	95	961	986	1947	2	103	105
PRIMARY	10	99	1067	1044	2111	23	82	105
TOTAL PRIVATE	27	194	2028	2030	4058	25	185	210
TOTAL NON-GOV'T SCHOOLS	67	606	9604	9059	18,663	177	640	817
GRAND TOTAL	243	2588	32,959	31,131	64,090	1984	2103	4087

Source: Monthly Returns Education Department, prepared by Statistic and Planning Unit, Education Department, 5 August 1985.

EXCLUDING:

- (1) SPA/SMA Raja Isteri Anak Damit,
- (2) Maktab Teknikal Sultan Saiful Rizal
- (3) Pasokan Askar Muda, Berakas Kem,
- (4) Pusat Latihan Pertanian, Sinaut,
- (5) Tadika Pertama Kampong Air,

Appendix 3.8

PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM, 1983

A. Lower Primary Malay Medium (Standard 1 - 3)

Subjects	Period Allocation per week (30 mins. per period)
1. Malay Language	10
2. English Language	10
3. Arithmetic	10
4. General Studies (Geography, History, Science)	5
5. Islamic Religious, Civic and Moral Education	3
6. Physical Education	2
7. Art and Craft	2
8. Music	3

B. Upper Primary Malay Medium (Standard 4-6/English Preparatory
[Prep. I-III])

	<u>Malay Medium</u>	<u>English Prep</u>
1. Malay Language	10	5
2. English Language	10	15
3. Mathematics	10	10
4. Science	2	2
5. History	2	2
6. Geography	2	2
7. Islamic Religious, Civic and Moral Education	3	3
8. Physical Education	2	2
9. Art and Craft	2	2
10. Music	2	2

Source: Education Paper No. 50, Economic Planning Unit, Brunei Darussalam, September 1984, p. 37.

NOTE: The system for the English Preparatory is similar to that of the Upper Primary Malay Medium except for English Language.

Appendix 3.9

SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM, 1983

A. LOWER SECONDARY (Form I - III)

<u>A.1. Compulsory Subjects</u>	<u>No. of period per week (35 mins. per period)</u>
1. Malay Language	4
2. English Language	8
3. Mathematics	6
4. Integrated Science	6
5. History	3
6. Geography	4
7. Islamic Religious Knowledge/ Civic and Moral Education	3
<u>A.2. Optional Subjects</u>	
1. Agricultural Science	3
2. Home Science	3
3. Commercial Studies	3
4. Third Language	3
5. Metal Work	3
6. Woodwork	3
7. Art and Craft	3
8. Music	3

B. UPPER SECONDARY

B.1. Compulsory Subjects

B.1.1. Science Stream

1. Malay Language	4
2. English Language	6
3. Mathematics	5
4. 2 Pure Science subjects from Chemistry, Biology and Physics	10

B.1.2. Arts Stream

1. Malay Language	4
2. English Language	6
3. Geography or History	5

B.1.3. Technical Stream

1. Malay Language	4
2. English Language	6
3. Mathematics	5
4. Physical Science or Engineering Science or Physics	5

B.2. Optional Subjects

B.2.1. Science Stream

Three subjects from the following:

1. Biology	5
2. Chemistry	5
3. Physics	5
4. Agricultural Science	4
5. Additional Mathematics	4
6. Food and Nutrition	4
7. Geography	5
8. Computer Studies	4
9. Islamic Religious Knowledge	4

B.2.2. Arts Stream

Five subjects from the following:

1. Combined Science	6
2. Human and Social Biology	5
3. Agricultural Science	4
4. Geography	5
5. History	5
6. Economics	5
7. Arts	4
8. Musics	4
9. Islamic Religious Knowledge	4
10. English Literature	4
11. Malay Literature	4
12. Third Language	4
13. Neddlework and Dressmaking	4
14. Food and Nutrition	4
15. Mathematics	5
16. Principle of Accounts	4

B.2.3. Technical Stream

Four subjects from the following:

1. Physics or Engineering Science	5
2. Physical Science	5
3. Woodwork or Metalwork	4
4. Metalwork Engineering	4
5. Electricity and Electronics	4
6. Additional Maths	4
7. Computer Studies	4
8. Surveying	4
9. Geometrical and Building Drawing	4
10. Geometrical and Mechanical Drawing	4
11. Commerce	4
12. Commercial Studies	4
13. Principle of Accounts	4

Source: Education Paper No. 5B, Economic Planning Unit, Brunei Darussalam, September 1984, pp. 38-40.

Appendix 3.10

1983 ALLOCATION FOR OCAR ITEMS

ITEMS	ALLOCATIONS (Brunei Dollars)
1. Administrative (Head Office)	868,000
2. Maintenance and Running of Vehicles and Rivercrafts	950,000
3. Food and Accommodation for Refresher Courses	114,000
4. Curriculum Development Centre	60,000
5. Transport and Travelling of Staff	1,000,000
6. Maintenance (Schools and Hostels)	980,000
7. School Materials	5,475,000
8. Grants and Prizes	830,000
9. Education Day Grants	160,000
10. Village School Buildings (Special Grants)	15,000
11. Hostels Rations	12,000,000
12. Subsistence Allowance	730,000
13. Student Allowance	3,859,000
14. Reference Books for Libraries	220,000
15. Hire of Vehicles and Rivercrafts (Pupils Transport)	3,000,000
16. District and State Sports and Games	255,000
17. Teaching Allowance (Adult Education)	1,630,000
18. Scholarship (overseas)	40,000,000
19. School Feeding Scheme	13,000,000
20. Music and Arts Section	150,000
21. Maintenance and Minor Repairs (School and Quarters)	300,000
22. Maintenance- Replacement (Fire Extinguishers)	20,000
23. Wages (Daily Paid Staff and Overtime)	1,830,000
24. Maintenance- Replacement (Grass Cutting Machine)	50,000
25. Educational Television Unit	65,000
26. Maintenance and Equipment (Refresher Course)	100,000
27. Uniform (Carpenters, Mechanic and Foreman)	13,000
28. Expenses (Asian School International Soccer Games)	100,000
29. ETV Programmes and Publication	80,000
TOTAL	87,207,500

Source: Department of Education 1983 Warrant.

Appendix 3.11

1983 OCSE ALLOCATIONS FOR SECTION, SCHOOLS AND EDUCATIONAL
INSTITUTION (FOR PURCHASING EQUIPMENT, FURNITURE, AUDIO-VISUAL
AIDS, ETC.)

	ALLOCATION (Brunei Dollars)
1. Head Office	421,200
2. Building Development Planning Unit	40,000
3. Curriculum and Book Section	6,500
4. Music and Arts Section	110,000
5. Transport Section	373,000
6. Physical Training Section	67,000
7. School Feeding Scheme Section	502,820
8. Adult Education Section	34,335
9. Primary Education Section	438,000
10. Paduka Seri Begawan Malay College/Science School	23,000
11. Sultan Mohamad Jamalul Alam Secondary School	45,600
12. S.M.M.A. Secondary School	3,750
13. Ahmad Tajuddin Malay Secondary School	7,400
14. Muda Hashim Malay Secondary School	15,000
15. Sultan Hassan Malay Secondary School	8,400
16. Bunut Malay Secondary School	4,000
17. Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddin College	88,000
18. Anthony Abell College	45,000
19. Sekolah Tinggi Perempuan Raja Isteri	35,500
20. Perdana Wazir English School	43,425
21. Sufri Bolkiah English School	41,400
22. Sixth Form Centre	7,000
23. Sultan Hassan Bolkiah Teacher's College	24,500
24. Sultan Saiful Rizal Building School	142,030
25. Jefri Bolkiah Engineering School	337,720
26. Brunei Technical Training Centre	1,000,000
	31,892.070

Source: Department of Education 1983 Warrant.

