

Connecting global and local relationships with the ‘Kibung Framework’

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This paper examines the relationships between global education policies at global and local levels that have driven the outcomes-based curriculum reform into Papua New Guinea (PNG). It reports on evidence from a qualitative case study that investigated the implementation of the outcomes-based English curriculum into two lower secondary schools in Port Moresby, PNG. Data were collected from 10 teachers and 90 students through classroom observations, document analysis, field notes, structured interviews, post-observation interviews, and focus group discussions. Findings revealed challenges in the implementation of the global curriculum reform agenda as there was little alignment between policy intentions and classroom practices. Thus, findings also highlighted a need for collaborative professional development programs to help sustain the curriculum changes required for classroom implementation. A co-constructed approach called the ‘Kibung Framework’ is presented in this paper as a strategy to assist with the implementation of mandated global curriculum policies into local practices.

Keywords: Papua New Guinea; outcomes-based curriculum; Kibung Framework; professional development; global education relationship

INTRODUCTION

When global agendas drive educational changes, there are bound to be challenges despite good intentions. The Universal Basic Education (UBE) and Education for All (EFA) policies drove Global Education Reform Movements (GERMs) in education systems in the global north and south around the 1990s (Kuehn, 2015; Robertson, 2015; Sahlberg, 2012). Pacific Island countries (PICS), being recipients to educational aid, were also influenced by the GERMs (Daudau, 2010; Joskin, 2013; Ruru, 2010). Thaman (2005) cautioned that there are positives and negatives when examining globalization and aid issues in the PICs. Nevertheless, the global agenda pushed for a common education model and curricula to meet market-oriented needs, which, arguably, was considered relevant from a developmental perspective (Kuehn, 2015; Robertson, 2015; Sahlberg, 2012; World Bank, 2005).

However, research revealed that driving global education reform into local contexts is not simple and straight forward (Fullan, 2016; Kuehn, 2015). There is contention that one worldview for driving global issues can be problematic because “no one shoe size fits all” (Koya-Vaka’uta; 2016; OECD, 2017) because there are different factors and actors involved (Bentley, 2010; Fullan, 2016; Joskin, 2013). Teachers, being main actors, need special consideration prior to implementing reform agendas (Fullan & Hargreaves, 2013; Sanga, 2016) enabling professional development (PD) to implement the change (Fullan, 2016; Ucan, 2016).

This article reports on one aspect of a larger research project that explored the implementation of curriculum reform into Papua New Guinea (PNG) (Joskin, 2013). This paper: 1) explores how the notion of relationality is evident in the implementation of global reform on a local level; 2) reports on how PNG responded to the global agenda; and, 3) offers the Kibung framework as a relational way to implement the global outcomes-based curriculum reform agenda within the PNG context.

GLOBAL POLICY CLIMATE DRIVING LOCAL CURRICULUM CHANGE

Over the last 25 years there have been numerous discussions on the need for countries to provide quality basic education to children in line with obligations under the *Convention on Children's Rights* (UNESCO, 2005; UNICEF, 2007). The discussion relates to the statement that education is a right for all people, as captured in Article 26 of *The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (UN, 1948). This led to a global agenda for the provision of Universal Primary Education (UPE) and prominence to UBE (UNESCO, 2005).

The UBE policy was re-ignited by the international educational reforms of the mid-1990s, which propelled the matter onto the world stage (Fullan, 2016; UNESCO, 1996). EFA also became a global agenda, reiterating calls for countries to provide access to basic education to increase enrolment rates (Bentley, 2010; Fullan, 2016). Consequently, GERM spread through the global policies of EFA, UBE, and UPE (Robertson, 2015; Sahlberg, 2012). The three policies resonated with number two of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which aimed to "Achieve Universal Primary Education.

Seemingly, global education policies that drive change go through a top-down decision-making process. For instance, global policies instigate changes that influence the decisions of Education Ministries, who then require changes within their local systems (Fullan & Hargreaves, 2013; OECD, 2017). This type of process occurred in the Pacific Region (Daudau, 2010; Joskin, 2013; Ruru, 2010). Top-down changes requires political will and administrative processes to drive global change agendas.

OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM

The discussion here focuses on the spread of the OBE model and curriculum as a global policy. The term OBE, here, refers to both the model and curriculum. The OBE model and the OBC were global reform policies driven under the framework of the UPE, UBE, and EFA policies. OBE is an educational concept that is perceived and applied differently in local contexts (Killen, 2000; Spady, 1994). Its advocate, Spady (1994; 1998) asserts that OBE has three main premises: 1) education theory, 2) instructional strategy, and, 3) systems theory. Those involved in the implementation of the OBE need to have understandings of the three features because each can influence implementation processes (Joskin, 2013).

As a theory of learning, the OBE affiliates with certain assumptions about teaching and learning within systemic structures (Killen, 2000; 2012; Spady, 1994; 1998). Killen (2000) describes OBE as being a collaborative teaching approach within an education system that needs administrators, teachers, and students to all aim for "desired results of change" (p. 2). The OBE posits that successful learning promotes even more successful learning. In addition, OBE highlights that students have different learning abilities, and schools and teachers facilitate learning environments. These propositions are echoed in

other learning theories, such as constructivism, social constructivism, and behaviorism (Hall, 2013; Joskin, 2013).

As an instructional strategy, the OBE informs pedagogical approaches deemed suitable for classroom practices (Killen, 2012; Spady, 1998). Teachers need clarity for developing curriculum instruction and assessment to measure learning practices and OBE resonates with student-centered teaching and learning, discouraging direct instructions or teacher-centered practices in classroom learning (Hall, 2013; Joskin, 2013). Arguably, OBE principles accord with constructivism and social constructivism theory. OBE asserts that students need to be self-directed and responsible learners while also working collaboratively with peers and teachers to achieve common learning goals; that is, to use experiences from social environments to create new knowledge during classroom interactions (Creswell, 2009; Killen, 2012). Critics argue that those OBE traits also accord with behaviorist theory, especially when social environments condition students into acquiring new knowledge or classroom behavior (Hall 2005; Joskin, 2013).

Spady (1998) argues that a genuine OBE system requires holistic changes because it exists within a wider social systems. Thus, Killen (2000) argues that, for OBE to be successful, there needs to be an alignment of systemic processes, including classroom practices, theories behind the OBE, and collaboration among stakeholders to embed changes locally. Interestingly, Spady (1994) stressed that centralized education systems should take charge of decisions for adopting and implementing OBE.

The UN MDGs chartered a “global blueprint for education development” (Coxon & Tolley, 2005, p. 42); the recommendation being for the same set of policies to be applied globally (World Bank, 1995). Seemingly, since OBE had potential to be used as “a systems approach” (Hall, 2005, p. 305), it could be implemented in both developed and developing nations; for example, as educational aid to some PICs, (Sanga, 2005; Thaman, 2005). Thus, Solomon Islands developed science OBE curricula for primary education (Daudau, 2010); PNG developed all subject curricula for primary and secondary levels in the 2000s (Joskin, 2013; Nongkas, 2007); and Fiji developed teachers’ college materials (Ruru, 2010). While, educational aid was welcomed by those PICs countries; the sustainability of OBE was a concern because aid supports were tied to projects with time frames (Maha, 2009). In short, the OBE rode on the mantra of global developmental frameworks and was seen to be a “quick fix solution” for educational issues in developing countries.

INTRODUCING THE CASE: PAPUA NEW GUINEA

PNG is a developing Melanesian Pacific nation with an education system strongly influenced by history (Joskin, 2013; Thomas, 1976). Traditional societies in the 1800s had diverse informal learning systems. Generally, contents for teaching and learning were needs-based according to local contexts, and lessons were informally conducted (Nongkas, 2007; Narokobi, 1983; Smith, 1975). Teaching strategies consisted of stories, life experiences, wisdoms of tribal elders, and specialists of respective Indigenous knowledge (McLaughline & O’Donoghue, 1996 as cited in Nongkas, 2007).

Formal education was introduced in the 1880s through Christian missionaries and the colonial administrators. Two different learning goals were set by the respective education providers and, consequently, two different approaches to curriculum development and implementation that continued till 1970, when PNG established a unified education system during the self-government and pre-independence periods (Joskin, 2013).

To align with the global agenda, PNG implemented the UPE, UBE, and EFA policies through the National Department of Education (NDoE) (NDoE, 1991; 2001). PNG implemented a two-tier reform of structural and curriculum in the 1990s onwards. The former had a 9-2-2 structure (elementary, primary, lower, and upper secondary) to enable accessibility to basic education (Joskin, 2013). The latter saw the OBE adapted to the PNG education system. Australia's developmental aid (AusAID) assisted PNG to change curricula through a Curriculum Reform Implementation Project (CRIP) (NDoE, 2003; 2006).

Arguably, the spread of OBE into PNG was influenced by global developmental discussions (Coxon & Tolley, 2005; NDoE, 2003; Joskin, 2013). PNG reformed their curriculum in 2000 onwards for elementary, primary, and secondary schools, with each level having its own respective curricula. However, some national educators argue that the reforms were done hastily, thus raising sustainability concerns (Franken & August, 2011; Guthrie, 2014; Maha, 2009). Interestingly, little is reported from independent researchers on PNG curriculum reform experiences, despite the vast Western literature available on global education reform. This article seeks to address this gap by reporting on research that has examined the implications of the rushed policies of curriculum implementation in PNG.

METHODOLOGY

Theoretical lens for examining relationality

Constructivist and interpretivist theories underpin meaning creation in this paper. The former asserts that learners construct knowledge through active participation, take responsibility for their learning processes, and use past knowledge to build new learning within formal instructional situations (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Creswell, 2009). The latter premises that knowledge is contextual but subjective and is embedded in peoples' interactions and their socio cultural relationships in societies.

The two theories also allow for investigations of social acts such as investigating the global education agenda within systemic structures (Neuman, 2006). The lenses show that people act towards things on the basis of the meanings given to those things. Meanings are also elicited from social interactions that people have with others and society. In addition, meanings are filtered and personalized through an interpretive process used by individuals in response to their experiences (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Creswell, 2009). Thus, in this study, the notion of relationality is examined through the connectivity of global reform policies with local systems.

This paper is derived from research conducted for my PhD thesis, which was grounded in a qualitative case study; a method used to investigate programs, implementation processes, and organizational change (Yin, 2009).

Three questions guided the investigation:

1. How can the notion of relationality be seen in global reform?
2. What global policies influenced reform in Papua New Guinea? And why?
3. How can global reform be sustained locally in Papua New Guinea?

Methods

Data were collected in two phases: Phase 1 involved a document investigation of global policy on curriculum reform and the OBE. This involved scanning the literature using the

key words “global educational reform”. Documents from the global literature reviewed were: OECD (2017), *Education Policy Implementation: A Literature Review and framework*, Fullan (2016), *The New Meaning of Educational Change* (5th Ed.), UNESCO (2009), *United Nations decade of education for sustainable development*, UNESCO (2005), *Understanding Education Quality in EFA Global Monitoring Report*, and UNESCO (1996), *Learning: The Treasures Within*, (Delors Report). I used content and thematic analysis to identify themes in these international documents.

Phase 2 probed local implementation of the global education reform policies. Evidence was drawn from multiple data source, which included focus group discussions, semi-structured interview, document analysis, post-observation interviews, and field notes taken at research sites. The cases investigated were two urban secondary schools—School 1 (S1) and School 2 (S2)—in Port Moresby, PNG. The former is located in the north-east of the city, the latter north-west. Both schools are level nine schools with accessibility to policy information about the education reform (NDoE, 2003; 2006). I obtained ethical clearance from both the Ethics Committee of the Education Faculty at Victoria University Wellington, and the NDoE in PNG. Staff participants signed consent letters, and parents of the observed grade nine classes signed consent letters for student participants, who were between 15 to 16 years old.

Ten teacher participants and 90 students were observed in Phase 2. The teachers were two school principals (P1-S1 and P2-S2), six focus group English teachers (FGT1-S1, FGT2-S1, FGT3-S1, FGT1-S2, FGT2-S2, and FGT3-S2), and two grade nine English class teachers (ET1-S1 and ET2-S2). The two observed grade nine classes were identified as C1 and C2. All were given code names to protect their identities.

Observation enabled me to collect data from naturally occurring situations (Yin, 2009), such as the two grade nine English classrooms. I used an audio-visual recorder to record four x 40 minutes’ classroom observations from both sites, giving me a total of 320 minutes recorded time. I also made field notes of physical and contextual settings. Additionally, I used triangulation to help me determine meanings of global reform policies being implemented locally.

I have both outsider and insider roles as an academic teaching at a tertiary institution in PNG. As an outsider, I was able to interpret the participants’ views through a Western theoretical lens because of my teaching experiences, grounded in my qualifications. This enabled me to give meaning to the notion of relationality as elicited from data. To avoid bias, I used a journal to record instances that would have influenced my interpretations. As an Indigenous person, I also had an insider’s role of being a former secondary school teacher, and of having common cultural and social practices (Narokobi, 1983). The two roles enabled me to give meanings from the constructivist and interpretivist lenses.

I applied a three-tier iterative approach to give interpretation to data (Neuman, 2006). Firstly, I examined two PNG education reform policies, the National Curriculum Statement (NDoE, 2003) and the grade 9 English Syllabus (NDoE, 2006), to determine policy intentions for the classroom implementation. Next, I interviewed the participants to determine if policy intentions were realized during classroom observations. The coding of themes was done both deductively and inductively. Themes were also guided by the research questions; thus there were preconceived themes initially before the labeling of codes to the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Charmaz, 2006).

Five similar themes were identified across the PNG policy documents (see Table 1).

Table 1: Sample document analysis of the PNG education policies

No	DA	DB
1	TA - Teaching Approach	TA - Teaching Approach
2	KLT - Knowledge of Learning Theory	KLT - Knowledge of Learning Theory
3	TU - Teachers' Understanding	TU - Teachers' Understanding
4	CD - Curriculum Design	CD - Curriculum Design
5	CTF - Curriculum Theoretical Framework	CTF - Curriculum Theoretical Framework

Codes: DA = National Curriculum Statement (NDoE, 2003), DB = English Lower Secondary Syllabus (NDoE, 2006)

These themes were then categorized into concepts to begin the inferential analysis process of interpretation while at the same time further reducing data. Hence, a micro-analysis process was used (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Three questions were used to reduce data at this second stage:

1. What theme is consistently seen in the policy documents and classroom practices?
2. What are the relationships between the themes in the data?
3. How can the themes be categorized?

Data analysis revealed three themes: factors facilitating change, little alignment, and suggestions to improve global agenda. The findings for each theme are discussed next.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Factors facilitating change

The findings from the Phase 1 literature reviews and Phase 2 focus group discussions, document analysis and literature reviews revealed that both external and internal factors initiated the PNG education reform (Joskin, 2013; NDoE, 2003; 2006; Maha, 2009). Firstly, global education policies drove education reform into PNG because of the requirement to expand learning opportunities (Bentley, 2010; Fullan, 2016). For instance, the signing of the EFA agreement in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990 and its reaffirmation in Dakar, Senegal in 2000, guided UN member countries to champion accessibility to basic education (World Bank Report, 1995; 2005, UNESCO, 2009). Hence, the global education reform waves reached the PNG's shores (Joskin, 2013; Nongkas, 2007). That contention is supported by the argument that the MDGs point two also influenced global reforms through the UBE and the EFA agendas by calling for countries to "Achieve Universal Primary Education" with PNG being signatory to that global direction (Coxon & Tolley, 2005; UNESCO, 2009).

Secondly, global development discussions around the UPE policies drove the 1990s educational reforms into PNG. The literature review showed that the reform agenda was pushed through the OBE model because of its potential to be used as "a systems approach" (Hall, 2005, p. 305). The OBE was packaged as educational aid to the PICs (Coxon & Tolley, 2005; Daudau, 2010; Hall, 2013; Ruru, 2010), and PNG was recipient to that partnership through the AusAID CRIP Project (Joskin, 2013; Maha, 2009; NDoE, 2003; 2006). This policy excerpt captures the relationship of OBE and global reform

discussions: “An outcome-based curriculum will help teachers to monitor student learning” (NDoE, 2003, p. 5).

Thirdly, the findings from the Phase 1 literature reviews and Phase 2 focus group discussions and document analysis done on the NDoE policies (1991; 2001; 2003; 2006) also revealed that there was connectivity between global reform agenda and the PNG education system. The issue of accessibility to basic education was stressed as a significant factor driving global education reform (Bently, 2010; Joskin, 2013), as illustrated in this participant’s remark:

The reform that they’re trying to bring about in our system. (Focus group teacher 1–School 1)

The word, “reform” indicates global relationships, while the pronoun “they” is representation of the development partners (AusAID/CRIP), and the NDoE. This policy curriculum quote also corroborates the notion of “accessibility” driving global reform discussions into PNG:

The Education Reform will result in enrolling more girls and boys into school and retaining them, giving them a higher quality, more relevant education in context and making it more cost effective. (NDoE, 2003, p. 3, lines 16–20)

Internally, PNG had internal issues that dated back to the pre-independence era of the 70s (Matane, 1986; Tololo, 1975). Therefore, the bi-lateral developmental aid relationship with Australia was a welcome gesture for PNG (Maha, 2009; Nongkas, 2007). Thus, the AusAID project (CRIP) facilitated the PNG curriculum reform in the 2000s (NDoE, 2003; 2006). Furthermore, deeply embedded systemic practices of top-down decision-making processes hastened the global agenda locally (Guthrie, 2014; Joskin, 2013). Consequently, PNG was seen to be adhering to global requirements of implementing the UPE and EFA policies, and opening up accessibility to basic education through a reform OBC (Joskin, 2013; Maha, 2009).

Moreover, findings from Phase 2 also suggest that stakeholders in the local context had little say on how to implement the reform agenda because they were on the edges of decision-making formalities. That view was heard from a participant:

We had to go ahead and implement it because our superiors said so. (Focus group teacher 2–School 1)

The remark echoed passiveness and compliance to top-down leadership and management styles (“superiors”) of a bureaucratic organization (“implement”) (Nongkas, 2007). Arguably, the PNG education reforms occurred more because of global political lobbying than rational thinking (Joskin, 2013; Matane, 1986; Nongkas, 2007). In summary, both external and internal factors motivated the PNG education reform. While the reform looked good, there were systemic issues.

No one size shoe fits all

PNG met global requirements through enactments of the education and curricula reform (NDoE, 2003; 2006). However, findings from the Phase 2 of document analysis, classroom observations, post-observation interviews, and field notes showed disparity between policy intentions and observed practices (Joskin, 2013). This revelation is important for others to consider within relationships of global agenda. Table 2 below gives an example of a mismatch.

Table 2: Comparing Policy Intentions with Classroom Practice

Policy Intention	Observation finding
A student-centred approach allows teachers to be more flexible in determining the most effective ways to help all students. (NDoE, 2003, p, 20)	Four observed lessons from Classroom 2 in study site 2, and two from Classroom 1 in study site 1 indicated all teacher-centred, grammar lessons taught in isolation. (Field notes)

(Source: Joskin 2013, p. 250).

Evidence from eight English lesson observations indicated that Teacher-Centered Lessons (TCLs) were still prevalent, despite the national policy indicating implementation of the OBC in the local context, which should have reflected a more student-centered approach. However, the eight observations still resonated with past teacher training experiences (Nongkas, 2007) and with historical learning practices of regurgitating facts (Joskin, 2013). This finding contradicts both global and national policy intentions for implementations of student-centered classroom practices (Hall, 2005; 2013; NDoE, 2003; 2006). The TCLs describe traditional approaches of teacher “talk and chalk” instruction. Thus, this reveals knowledge gaps.

Moreover, observations also noted direct transmission of teaching which implicates the teachers’ worldviews of being sources of knowledge, while students were passive learners. Evidence suggests that teachers acquired this worldview from their own training and work experiences (Joskin, 2013; Nongkas, 2007). For instance, one participant said:

I’m still in the old system. (Focus group teacher 1–School site 1)

The meaning is probably of individual defiance at institutional levels, of not knowing how to implement the reform curriculum. Moreover, it could also show teachers being overwhelmed by the reform agenda. One school principal corroborated the interpretation; when asked as to how the OBC was implemented; he reported that:

Teachers sort of find their way through it. (Principal 2–School site 2)

Both citations projected the agony teachers experienced when trying to implement reform agendas locally (Joskin, 2013).

Discussions here imply that the global education agenda was not systematically and effectively managed locally in PNG (Guthrie, 2014; Joskin, 2013). OBE was claimed to have practical systems theory attributes that could be adaptable in systems (Spady, 1998; 1994). However, the situation in this local PNG context revealed that OBE was not conducive as a systems theory attribute (Spady, 1998). Furthermore, the findings from Phase 2 from the lesson observations, and literature reviews also uncovered that the government needed to resource and train practitioners well before accepting OBE. Preparations were considered inadequate as this quote shows:

Where are the materials to help us? (Focus group teacher 1–School site 2)

The NDoE used the following interventions to support the implementation of the OBC

- National Curriculum Statement (2003)
- English Syllabus, Lower Secondary School (2006)
- Official notification letters
- School inspector’s visits

- Train of trainers' workshop
- Curriculum personnel school visits

Findings from Phase 2 classroom observations, focus group discussions, document analysis, field notes and literature reviews also revealed that the interventions seemed minimal and not effective for successful implementation of the OBC. Hence, in situations like this, PD should be a priority when implementing any reform agenda into local contexts, because teachers are the ones who make educational changes become realities (Fullan, 2016).

Lastly, evidence from the literature review, focus group discussions, classroom observations, post-observation interviews, and field notes from Phase 2, and literature reviews in Phase 1 suggest using PD as an intervention strategy to sustain global reforms locally. This is appropriate as critics argued that the PNG education reforms were carried out hastily (Franken & August, 2011; Guthrie, 2014; Maha, 2009). This argument raises sustainability concerns (Joskin, 2013; Ucan, 2016) because Pacific scholars also realize the importance of teachers' roles and call for continuous support to be given to teachers when reflecting on education theories and practices in Oceania (Sanga, 2016; Koya-Vaka'uta, 2016). To support the use of teachers' PD, Fullan (2016) stresses that, "educational change depends on what teachers do and think" (p. 97), therefore, this paper offers the Kibung Framework as a way to connect global education reform locally.

Kibung Framework

Kibung is an indigenous term in "Tok Pisin", a Melanesian Pidgin spoken in PNG (Franken & August, 2011; Joskin, 2013). *Kibung*, pronounced /ki:bung/, means coming together to have discussions. The term captures "relationality", and literally, embraces the connectedness of humanity (Narokobi, 1983; Sanga, 2016), where people of common interest meet and *toktok* (talk) about issues (Joskin, 2013). *Kibung* involves people who are related through social relationships or genealogy. In the PNG context, relationships are forged through family ties, work, whom you know (*wantokism*), education, extended families, kinship, villages, and nationhood (Joskin, 2013; Narokobi, 1983). The notion of *kibung*, a PNG cultural practice, is embedded within the broader *wantok system* practices of the Melanesian countries of the Pacific (Joskin, 2013; Sanga, 2016). Thus, *Kibung* is an appropriate metaphorical PD framework for supporting global agenda locally.

The Kibung Framework (KF) is a general overview for using PD to improve curriculum implementation locally. The notion of the KF resonates with Western discussions of using PD as an intervention strategy to help facilitate educational change (Fullan, 2016; Hall & Irving, 2010; Joskin, 2013). The KF allows for dialogue and is premised on the idea of a two-way communication process between *wantoks* (people) who have working relationships within Western-based systems (Narokobi, 1983; Sanga, 2016). Moreover, Kibung resonates with one of the beliefs in Western policy development and implementation (Hall, 2013); that is, with a "co-construction" approach of policy and implementation between government and stakeholders working together to embed policy reforms (Hall, 2005; Hall & Irving, 2010). Hence, as Figure 1 demonstrates, the KF offers a co-construction approach between central administration (governance level), the experts (external partners), and teachers (local implementers) to embed curriculum mandated changes locally (Hall & Irving, 2010; Joskin, 2013).

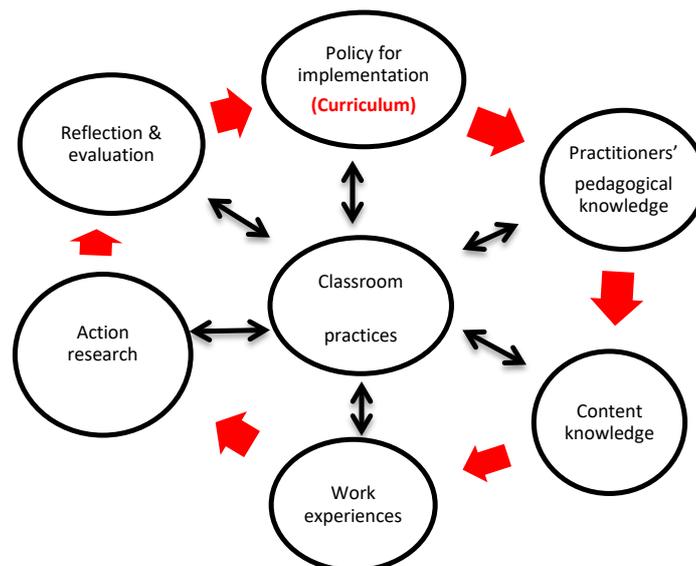


Figure 1: Kibung Framework for Professional Development

The KF has seven features: they have Tok Pisin names with the English version given:

1. *Bihainim lo* (Policy) – This refers to the curriculum that is circulated for institutional implementation.
2. *Kaikai blo tingting* (pedagogical knowledge) – refers to the teachers' worldviews. That is, the pedagogical knowledge or the personal belief systems making up teachers' cognitive abilities.
3. *Save blo tisa*_(subject content knowledge) – refers to the teachers' content knowledge for teaching subjects with relation to both theory and practice.
4. *Wok tisa*_(professional work experiences) – refers to worldviews that teachers have accumulated over their teaching years.
5. *Lainim samting* (professional development) – refers to the interactive process of continuous PD learning for teachers.
6. *Skelim pasin* (reflection and evaluation) – refers to teachers' reflection and evaluation skills developed through action research in the classrooms.
7. *Skulim sumatin* (classroom practices) – refers to teaching programs, lesson plans, teaching materials, assessment, extra-curricular activities, classroom management, professional development, and teachers' action research among other essential features needed for curriculum implementation at the local level.

In response to a need for contextually and culturally relevant PD model, the KF offers a tool centred on the notion of relationality to support implementation of global policy into local PNG school-based PD activities.

CONCLUSION

This paper revealed that global educational policies, namely UPE, EFA, and UBE, drove educational reform into PNG in the 1990s and, in the process, engulfed internal recommendations that had also asked for educational change. The reform consisted of re-structure and curriculum. The former encompassed accessibility to basic education, a

point stressed by these three global education policies, and MDG indicator two. The latter saw the outcomes-based curriculum packaged as educational aid and adapted into the PNG national education system, supported by the AusAID's CRIP project. Despite the good intentions of global education reform policies, the process of implementation has been challenging.

This paper offers the Kibung Framework as a connector to help overcome challenges because it provides a contextually relevant and relational way to implement global policies in any local PNG teaching and learning context. Consequently there are opportunities for future research into any area of the seven attributes of the Kibung Framework. Researchers, educators, or other stakeholders can investigate and document how elements of the Kibung Framework could support teachers' PD. PD sessions should be continuous and be built into school training programs so that it demonstrates a relational approach to human resource capacity building in PNG.

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BIOGRAPHY

I'm Anna Joskin and I work at the University of Papua New Guinea. My research interests are in areas of curriculum development and implementation, second language teaching and learning. I have a PhD in Education from Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand, an MA in "English Language Teaching", and a Post-Graduate Diploma in TESOL, from the University of Canberra, Australia. I also hold a BEd from the University of Goroka (PNG), and have 32 years of field experiences as a PNG educator. I believe in empowering Papua New Guineans through mentoring and training to transform individuals, and build human resource capacity.

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