CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Approach to the Literature Review

A search was made on the CD-ROM network at the University of Malaya Library (UML) of the following databases: Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC), Library and Information Science Abstracts (LISA) and Dissertation Abstracts Ondisc (DAO). The Index Database (INDXDB) at UML was also searched for conference papers presented in Malaysia or outside the country by Malaysians and also theses and dissertation collected at UML. Local newspapers cuttings were also searched from Huazi Resource and Research Centre and Jiao Zong Resource Centre.

The keywords that were used to retrieve the literature were school libraries, Chinese schools, Chinese education, national surveys, and various combination of these.

The findings from the literature are summarised in the following sections.

Development of Chinese Education in Malaysia

The literature on Chinese education in Malaysia was found to be mainly in the Chinese language. Very little research appears to have been done. No particular journal on Chinese education was found, and information was obtained mainly from books and newspaper cuttings.

The views of the Chinese community on the various issues of the nation in general and the Chinese school system in Malaysia in particular, are not widely known outside the
“Chinese-educated” public. Kua’s (1990) book entitled, A Protean saga: The Chinese schools in Malaysia introduced the history of the Malaysian Chinese schools to the general public, and also helped to show the deep love of the community for their language, education and culture.

According to Kua (1990), the misunderstanding of why the Chinese want to nurture their mother tongue and culture is the result of confused thinking regarding the root causes of racial polarisation in Malaysia.

Tan (1985) pointed out that interest in the Independent Chinese schools (ICS) revived in the early seventies. This change should be viewed against the background of major policy changes following the 1969 racial riots in Malaysia and their effects on the social and political atmosphere. In 1970, before the reinstatement of parliamentary rule, the Minister of Education announced a major change in policy. Beginning in 1971, English primary schools were to convert to using Bahasa Malaysia, as the medium of instruction. Six years later, all National secondary schools, including NTSS, would begin on a similar process of conversion. All public examinations would then be conducted only in Bahasa Malaysia. By 1983, tertiary institutions would also change over to Bahasa Malaysia as the main medium of instruction.

This change marked the realization of a long cherished aim to have the entire education system conducted only in the national language. However, it obviously entailed a difficult period of transition for staff and students as their command of the national language had to extend to its usage in the wide range of subjects taught in secondary schools and tertiary institutions. There were also problems with the lack of trained teachers and insufficient textbooks in Malay. In addition, the change came
immediately after a large-scale expansion of secondary education in the country, giving the schools and their teachers little time and opportunity to consolidate in terms of quality.

In 1971 the New Economic Policy, directed at the eradication of poverty irrespective of race and the restructuring of economic imbalances which corresponded with ethnic division, was initiated. The immediate objective of the second prong of this policy was to redress social and economic disadvantages inhibiting the development of the Malays and other indigenous communities, categorized officially as bumiputeras. The implementation of this policy has had a major impact on different spheres of social and economic life.

More generally the change in political climate in the seventies heightened the feelings of ethnic loyalty and sharpened awareness of cultural identity. One manifestation of this has been a swing back to enrolling children in Chinese primary schools since 1970. Greater interest in the ICS could be regarded as part of the same trend. Efforts by Chinese leaders in the early 1970s to save some of the ICS which were on the brink of closure due to falling enrollments, struck a responsive cord amongst many different groups within the Chinese community.

A survey conducted by Tan (1989) in early 1983 provided a fairly good picture of what the ICS were like then and how they had changed in preceding years. Firstly, the UCSCAM's suggestion that the ICS should use Chinese as the medium of instruction had been well received: 79% of the schools used Chinese as the medium of instruction in 1983 as compared to 37% in 1973. Concomitantly, the overwhelming majority of
students in 1983 chose to answer the UCSCAM examination papers in Chinese. Secondly, for the vast majority of the students, the decision to study at an ICS was not consequent to being rejected by the national system. For 91.6% and 76.1% of all students enrolled in lower secondary classes and upper secondary classes respectively, the ICS that they were attending was their first choice school. Thirdly, the value of the UCSCAM examinations was fairly well established in the minds of the students: 54.1% of students in lower secondary classes and 57.9% in upper secondary classes weighted the UCSCAM examinations as more important than those conducted by the government. However the government examinations remained important enough for 11 of the ICS to conduct additional classes in the afternoons specially to prepare students for these government examinations. Many students (56.7% of lower secondary and 35% at upper secondary level) still tried to get the best of both worlds by taking both the UCSCAM and the government public examinations.

Apart from the obvious and expected outcome that almost all students are ethnic Chinese, 97.8% who received their early education in Chinese primary schools would still continue to study in the ICS. Their command of Chinese was understandably much better than Bahasa Malaysia or English. This was clearly indicated in the students' examination performance as well as their own subjective assessments of levels of fluency in each language, and this was an important reason for studying at an ICS.

In 1992, the UCSCAM conducted several surveys on all the 60 ICS in order to assess the teaching and curriculum in ICS. The surveys included the background information of students: their educational background, learning conditions, language ability, the relationship between the schools and the families, and also the economic
ability, the relationship between the schools and the families, and also the economic background of the families. From the findings, it showed that the quality of the students' background was higher as compared to ten years earlier. Most of the students had attended pre-school and normally they were from NTPS(C). Basically, their Chinese, Mathematics and English had reached a certain standard.

For their language ability, the findings showed that few students could manage three languages; most of them could only manage well in Chinese. The result was the same as the survey done in 1983.

There is no doubt that students in ICS could manage well in Chinese. The findings also showed the students preferred Chinese textbooks and the Chinese medium of instruction which enabled them to gain knowledge easily and faster.

In 1985, Jiao Zong conducted several national surveys of the current status of National-type primary schools (Chinese) (NTPS(C)) including students, teachers, economic conditions, school facilities, out-door activities, etc. The aim was to collect the statistical data in order to facilitate the development of NTPS(C) (Jiao Zong 1985).

Approximately half of the NTPS(C) were built on land owned by the Board of Directors and approximately one-third of the land belonged to the government, while the rest belonged to the private sector. Although, the NTPS(C) were government assisted schools, the findings showed that the NTPS(C) was not totally aided by the government and the survival of NTPS(C) depended on the Chinese themselves.
It is said that "wherever there is a Chinese, there is a Chinese school", and the findings of the Jiao Song survey showed that over 60% of NTPS(C) were Grade C (schools with less than 300 students) schools and were spread throughout the country.

The findings also showed that a lack of teachers was the biggest problems faced in NTPS(C). Between 1983 and 1985, the total number of temporary teachers were between 3000 to 4000.

The findings also showed that the population of pupils in rural schools kept on decreasing as most of the pupils shifted to urban areas. As the population of pupils in urban areas increased, this led to the schools facing problems of shortage of teachers. However the rural schools faced the problem of closure due to the lack of pupils.

Other problems faced by NTPS(C) included inadequate financial aid provided by the government to cover the general expenses, and poor facilities, especially in the rural areas.

In developing the NTPS(C), the problem of the lack of trained teachers has existed for many years. Deputy Education Minister Datuk Dr. Fong (1995) stated that the ratio of trained teachers and students was about 1:300, which showed that the lack of teachers had reached an "emergency" level (南洋商报 1995年7月20日) [Nanyang Siang Pau 20 July 1995].

The secretary of National Union of Teaching Professional, Mr. Sivasubramanian stated if the problems were not solved, schools would face a shortage of twenty thousand teachers within five years (星洲日报 1995年7月30日) [Sin Chew Jit Poh 30 July 1995]. He also stated that apart from the teachers, there were also shortage of five
hundred principals in NTPS(C) (星洲日报 1995年8月12日) [Sin Chew Jit Poh 12 August 1995]

In order to overcome the problem, many suggestions have been put forward.

Deputy Education Minister Datuk Dr. Fong (1995) stated that the Ministry of Education would organize afternoon classes if necessary, to train more teachers, and the maximum age for entry into the teachers’ training course would be raised to 35 years old (星洲日报 1995年3月6日) [Sin Chew Jit Poh 6 March 1995].

The consultant of Jiao Zong stated that if the Teachers Training College would accept the ICS students, it would overcome the problem (中国报 1995年6月3日) [China Press 3 June 1995].

The Ministry of Education planned to reopen the Vocational Teachers’ Training Course in the middle of the year so that the temporary teachers had a chance to take the proper training courses (星洲日报 1995年7月30日) [Sin Chew Jit Poh 30 July 1995].

Thus, Chinese education in Malaysia has had a long and distinguished history, but is facing many challenges today.

The Development of School Resource Centres

The available literature on the development of school resource centres is very limited. Only five books on the status or development of resource centres were found in the library by the researcher, the other information was gathered from journal articles and conference papers.

Two books, which represented different editions written by Lowrie (1972) and Lowrie and Nagakura (1991) entitled School Libraries: International Developments were
referred to. The first edition of Lowrie (1972) stated the publication was not only to foster development but also to help implement the objectives of the International Association of School Librarianship.

After 18 years, the second edition was published since many changes had taken place. Automation and technology had invaded librarianship in all countries. Resource sharing and networking were common phrases used locally and internationally. The second edition of Lowrie's 1972 book, *School Libraries: International Developments* (Lowrie and Nagakura, 1991) contains a chapter each devoted to school library development in twenty-four countries.

The book entitled *School Librarianship* edited by Cook (1981), provided a description and analysis of school library development in Australia and New Zealand. The book contains twelve chapters related to the development of school libraries of the two countries.

*Recent Advances in School Librarianship* by Carroll (1981), a book considered the first in what might be a series of books on recent advances in school librarianship in the world which could be written for each decade or suitable period of time hereafter, provided a description of school libraries in many countries.

Another book entitled *The Barefoot Librarian: Library Developments in Southeast Asia with Special Reference to Malaysia* written by Wijasuriya, Lim and Nadarajah (1975), was perhaps the first book about Southeast Asian libraries by the Southeast Asians themselves. However, only small sections of the chapters mentioned school libraries development in Southeast Asia.
The information that follows on the development of school resource centres was retrieved from journal articles and conference papers.

Lowrie (1989) stated the decades of 1960s and 70s were highlights of school resource centre development. As legislation implementing school libraries was passed, national and local subsidization was evident and generous. Library schools flourished and offered specialization in the field, producing many school librarians or teacher librarians. Audio-visual equipment and materials became an integral part of materials centres. Standards and guidelines were developed, and the concept of integration into the total school curriculum and educational program was accepted.

In order to survey the development of school libraries in each of the countries, several countries had conducted surveys. Some of the surveys are mentioned as below.

Kwong (1990) stated that the development of school libraries in Hong Kong was not given much attention in the early history of education. The findings present only a silhouette of the situation of school libraries in Hong Kong. However, there were clear indications that if a school library was to succeed, a good policy for its development and for the role it played in the curriculum had to be established and reviewed.

Shaw (1991) stated that the role of the school library in Bhutan, was first recognized in 1984, when library periods were introduced as part of the formal curriculum and schools that did not already have libraries were helped to set them up. It also discussed problems specific to the stocking, maintenance, and administration of school libraries and presented a tentative judgment on achievements to date in the context of recent modernization in Bhutan.
Leung and Davis (1991) concluded in a study on school libraries in Taiwan that economic conditions in a country must reach a certain level before national attention could focus on improvement of school libraries. School libraries in turn had their impact on national development by enhancing the quality of education. This is similar to the Maslow's theory that human beings have to satisfy their basic physical needs before they will go on to higher levels of mental and spiritual gratifications.

Bawa (1993) stated that in South Africa there were 19 different education departments each with its own policy, funding and administration of education. The provision for school libraries within the respective departments mirrored the fragmented education structure. The country as a whole had no coherent policy document for national development for the provision of media and access to media for all South Africans.

Fagbeja (1993) stated that the school library had been recognized as an integral part of school system as well as education system in Nigeria, was due to the efforts by the governments, institutions, and national associations. Some recommendations were also made by Fagbeja (1993) that could further enhance the provision and development of school libraries.

In the development of the school library, the job of the school staff and administrators had quadrupled in size and complexity since 1945. Morrill (1995) described the expansion of job descriptions to suit educational trends and incorporate changing technology. Figure 1 shows a few highlights from national policy statements, standards and the professional literature on the school librarians' job descriptions (Morrill 1995).
Figure 1

Highlights of School Librarians’ Job Descriptions.

1945
"Among the functions of school libraries are to provide reading centres, library skill centres, and a centre for information provision.” --- School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow (ALA).

1960
"Included in the standards for school library programs will be an expanded treatment of the use of audiovisual materials.” --- Standards for School Library Programs (ALA)

1969
“Perhaps, in looking at our profession objectively, the key word which should prevail is service.” --- Richard Cornell, A View of the Profession, AVANEWS

1975
“The role of the LMS will be expanded to assist in curriculum development and implementation.” --- Standards for School Libraries (ALA)

1979
“The media specialist carries out caring, teaching, and curriculum functions intimately related to the life of the school.” --- Ralph L. Peterson, A Place for Caring and Celebration: The School Media Centre (ALA)

1985
“Overall, the role of the school librarian will increasingly become that knowledge manager.” --- Christopher Dede, The Future of School Libraries. School Library Media Quarterly

1988
“Library media specialists frequently perform the three roles of information specialist, teacher, and instructional consultant in concert with each other…” --- Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs (ALA)

1988
“The first responsibility of the [media specialist] is to set in place the three foundation stones of a successful program: warehousing, direct services, and resource-based teaching.” --- David V. Loertscher. Taxonomies of the School Library Media Program (Libs. Unlimited)

1990
“It is now evident that library media programs that sufficed a decade ago are no longer viable. Students must have access to information at all times, be able to think critically, integrate ideas from several sources, and use all those ideas to solve often complex problems or questions.” --- Jan Buchanan. Flexible Access Library Media Programs (Libs. Unlimited)

1993
“With tremendous competition for limited resources and a lack of clarity as to program purposes, frustration, identity crises, and burnout are logical outcomes.” --- Philip Turner

1994
“The library has to go beyond its technical role of ‘Book Centre’ and see itself instead as a ‘Human Communications Centre.’” --- Fred D’Ignazio (Morill 1995)
The Role of School Resource Centres

Vias (1989) defined the SRC as `a systematically organized collection of carefully and purposefully selected book and non-book teaching-learning materials in particular, and information carrying materials in general, that are used to provide appropriate and timely information, programmes and services to pupils and teachers of the school in order to strengthen the methods used and opportunities provided for the mastery of basic skills. In addition, they should assist in improving the quality of education provided so that firm foundations may be laid for the creation of an informed society that will consider life-long learning as part of its life-skills (Vias 1989).

A school library is defined as a library attached to a school below the third level of education, and serving primarily the pupils and teachers of such a school, even though it may also serve as a public library (International Organization of Standards 1991). It is an organized facility which serves the entire school community. The school resource centre is integral and supportive of the school curriculum, for it provides a wide range of resources and services to meet the educational, informational and recreational needs of the students, teachers and administrators (Singh 1996).

The SRC therefore does not exist in a vacuum but is an integral part of the wider school community. It exists to provide a dynamic teaching and learning environment and therefore is curriculum based in its collection building, organisation, services and programmes (Vias 1992).

In Malaysia, the SRC stands to play a key role in the successful implementation of the national education policy. The national education policy, as embodied in the Razak
Report (1956) and the Education Act of 1961, place heavy emphasis on the creation of national unity (Oli Mohamed 1980).

According to Otiike (1987), the role of a school library can be described as a support for learning programmes; to act as an information centre; to provide recreation; to support the teaching programmes; to support research programmes; to support professional development; and to maintain a current awareness programmes.

The school library is a place where students can explore classroom subjects in greater depth, expand their imagination, investigate areas of personal interest, and develop their ability to think clearly, creatively and critically about the resources they have chosen to read, hear or view. The school library provides a setting where students can develop the skills they will need as adults in an information rich world - the skills of locating, retrieving, analyzing, evaluation, using, and communicating information and ideas (American Association of School Librarians 1990).

The school resource centres today are no longer traditional reading rooms and study halls; they are evolving to become facilitators of information services and gateways to the wider information world. Teacher-librarians are no longer servants of change, but are becoming enablers of change and change masters through active participation in information dissemination, teaching, staff development and instructional consultancy (Singh 1996).

School libraries also provide opportunities to pursue lifelong learning. The skills and attitudes towards resource centres are best developed at the school. A child who grows up to enjoy and appreciate libraries is more likely to become a life-long library user
than one who has never been exposed to libraries during the developmental stage of his or her life. A good foundation provided by school resource centres will ensure that students become better users of academic libraries, public libraries and special libraries in their later years (Singh 1996).

School Resource Centres in Malaysia

To date, four official surveys of SRCs are known have been carried out and have been published by the Ministry of Education. They are:

a. Survey of 247 English medium secondary schools in 1964 (Walker 1964);

b. Survey of 919 primary and secondary schools of all language media in 1969 (Ministry of Education, Malaysia 1972), but excluding the Independent Chinese secondary schools;

c. Survey of 4592 schools in 1973 (Ministry of Education, Malaysia 1974) and;


Of these surveys, the most comprehensive was in 1977, jointly undertaken by the Ministry of Education and the Library Association of Malaysia in connection with the compilation of a blueprint for school library development.
The findings of the 1977 survey showed that there was a uneven development among the schools. On the whole, the secondary schools were better equipped with facilities and resources than the primary schools.

In the 1977 survey, as well as in all previous official surveys, the major problems confronting the majority of the school libraries were identified as:

a. lack of time for teacher-librarians to manage their libraries;

b. inadequate book collection;

c. ineffective use of resources; and

d. insufficient funds for the purchases of materials.

According to the survey undertaken in 1969, centralized school library facilities existed in only 4.9 per cent of the primary schools and 18.8 per cent of the secondary schools. Most of the libraries were converted from classrooms and tended to be furnished with desks and benches, very much in the manner of the classroom or the school canteen. Most teachers assigned the responsibility for the library had little formal training in the techniques of school library provision and use, while only 11.2 per cent of the schools reported having clerical help in their libraries. Financial provision was woefully inadequate. Fees ranging from RM0.20 to RM6.00 per pupil were payable annually, but in many instances the sums collected were used for sports or other purposes (Wijasuriya 1975).

All these surveys were confined to schools in Peninsular Malaysia (Wong 1991).

In 1980, a case study of two primary schools in Malacca which had established the Library Resource Centre was carried out by Wong and Abdul Rafie Mahat (1980).
The data collection was mainly based on personal observations and interviews. The study examined:

a. the existing conditions of the two schools library resource centres with regard to only the audio-visual resources in terms of premises, staffing and management, utilization, acquisition and organization of materials, and

b. the major problems confronting the two schools in the provision of such resources.

The findings showed that commendable efforts had been made by the two schools in establishing the library resource centre. In each school, the centre was provided with reasonably adequate space and furniture and serious efforts were being made to raise funds for improving its resources and facilities. The significance of these efforts could be better appreciated when viewed against the general background of development of library and audio-visual services among schools in this country. The findings also showed that the two centres were still at the initial stage of development. Their resources were, on the whole, still limited and yet to be properly organized for effective use; their management needed improvement, and the utilization of their resources did not seem to be as extensive as expected (Wong and Abdul Rafie Mahat 1980).

To date no survey has been carried out on Chinese Schools. As such, this research aims to establish a framework of the current status of SRCs in Chinese schools throughout the country.
Need for Statistics

The most effective way to assess the current status of a library is by a systematic collection and analysis of the statistical data. Early in 1972, the International Standards Organisation introduced a standard ISO 2789- International Library Statistics. The purpose of the ISO 2789 was to standardize the measurement or the collection of statistics data of a library (台灣國立中央圖書館 1992) [The Central National Library, Taiwan 1992].

Statistics are useful for making decisions, setting policy, describing conditions, and assessing performance. Statistics presented about a topic are less likely to be ignored than general information (Garland 1993).

Good decisions tend to be based on sound experience and on reliable data. The analysis which statistics can assist us plays a useful part in moving from those piles of data which we dutifully accumulate, to the decisions we know have to be made (Hannabuss 1992).

Libraries have been gathering statistics for years. There have been figures about loans and borrowers, data about acquisitions and spending, information about overdues and requests. Most of these statistics are enumerative. This means that they are cumulated in the course of work often in a manner simple to understand and execute (Hannabuss 1992).

School library statistics are generated at several separate levels and for many different, though related, uses. The most basic statistical records are maintained and used in individual schools and in school systems to measure growth and progress in school
library programs, and to justify requests for appropriate for materials, personnel, quarters and equipment, and supplies (Williams 1966).

A study done by Frank E. Williams examined the purpose of collecting statistical data on school library media centres by state agencies in the United States (Williams 1989). The six most frequently cited reasons for collecting statistical data were to assist in financial planning and justification; to compare libraries; to secure data for research; to use for program planning and collection development; to show the adequacy of present conditions, and to measure library use (Williams 1989).

From the findings of Williams (1989), we can conclude that SR Cs need hard statistical data to make a case for good management. It also shows that sound decision making requires information based on facts, not casual observation.

In Malaysia, the Education Planning and Research Division of the Ministry of Education has undertaken continuous work of data gathering and compilation of Educational Statistics of Malaysia every year. The objective of gathering statistics is to provide a quantitative scenario about the status and development of the Malaysian education system, especially for the ease of those who are directly involved in areas concerning planning, research, evaluation and policy formulation as well as its implementation (Ministry of Education, Malaysia 1992). However their statistics are at a macro-level and do not include detailed statistics of school libraries.

Beginning in 1979, the National Central Library of Taiwan has carried out continuous work on national survey of all types of libraries so as to gather the statistical data. The aim was to provide a quantitative scenario about the current status and
development of all type of libraries in Taiwan (台湾国立中央图书馆 1992) [The National Central Library, Taiwan 1992].

National Surveys

In searching through ERIC and LISA, using the terms “school libraries” and “national survey”, only seven and nine articles respectively were retrieved. However, national surveys have been widely conducted and used. The following sections illustrate the use of national surveys.

Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs (AASL and AECT 1988) is based on the premise that teachers, principals and teacher-librarians must form a partnership and plan together to design and implement the program that best matches the instructional needs of the school. Teachers, principals and teacher-librarians become partners in a shared goal -- providing successful learning experiences for all students. For this partnership to take place, it is necessary that principals understand the role of the teacher-librarian as well as the role of the library resource centre within the total school program. Wilson and Blake (1993) conducted a national survey to determine principals’ perceptions and knowledge of the role of teacher-librarians.

Facilities design is not new for either school library media specialists or public librarians who work with children. In 1975, Media Programs: District and School, provided library media specialists with a very comprehensive list of recommendations about facilities, including suggested square footage, to be considered in planning a school
library media centre. Information Power includes these same areas for consideration. In 1991, the Library and Management Association (LAMA) of ALA formulated guidelines for the design of children's facilities in public libraries in its Checklist of Library Building Design Considerations, although these are not as extensive as those of Information Power (Truett 1991). In 1991 Truett conducted a national survey of school library media specialists and children's young adult librarians about their facilities. The information gathered from the survey appears to be self-evident and could be very useful to those building new facilities or, more likely, renovating older library media centres.

With increasing demand for facilities and the rising costs attached to private day-care centres, in addition to the Head Start programs already in place for disadvantaged and at-risk young children, numerous states have funded pre-kindergarten services within the public schools for four-year-olds. This influx of four-year-olds in schools across the country has caught many school library media specialists ill-prepared to offer developmentally appropriate services. Thomas and Cooper (1995) conducted a national survey regarding the school library media specialist and the pre-kindergarten child. The survey explored how librarians were serving this population, and in what ways. The findings indicated both lack of adequate trained staff and not enough titles within the collection (Thomas and Cooper 1995).

An analysis of secondary school libraries in Israel conducted by Yitzhaki and Shoham (1990) in 1983/84 which was the first full-scale study in Israel. It contained information about school libraries' resources: collection size, number of new acquisitions, number of seats, library opening hours, the number and qualifications of the school librarians, and also library circulation and visits.
librarians, and also library circulation and visits.

With few exceptions, little concern or interest has been raised in the literature of school librarianship and education on the lack of or need for statistics about school library media centres. Garland (1993) conducted a national survey to query both state education agencies and individual elementary and middle school library media centre and circulation statistics they regularly collect. Garland (1993) stressed the importance and usefulness of statistics for supporting library media programs.

**Methodology Used in National Surveys**

Questionnaires are often used in surveys as the primary data-collection instrument (Busha 1980). The questionnaire may have been the first known instrument used by a library researcher to gather data about libraries. The first recorded use of a library questionnaire was by Adlber Blumenschein who used it to study the European libraries during the eighteenth century (Walker 1994).

The postal questionnaire is the most popular instrument used in national surveys. As the population is usually widely dispersed, it saves time and is easier to gather information that is needed. One problem of using postal questionnaires in national surveys is that it is very difficult to estimate and control the return of questionnaires.

As we approach the twenty-first century, there are still many surveys and research that are conducted through questionnaires despite the emergence of other data collecting methods. For international and national surveys, the questionnaire is still very popular due to its ease of administration.
The next chapter describes the methodology used to conduct this survey of Chinese school resource centres.