A Glimpse of the Past and the Present: A Generic Review of the Philippine Educational System and the K+12 Curriculum Implementation

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ABSTRACT

This study discusses the history and current state of the Philippine educational system. The features of the Pre-colonial, Spanish, American, and Japanese eras and how they influenced the country's educational system were presented in a brief and concise form. This paper addresses the challenges observed in the past, as well as obstacles the country faces in implementing the K-12 curricula. Recommendations and suggestions were made based on the key assessment features of the implementation of the curriculum through observed results in the academic and non-academic outcomes and facilitators or barriers to the K-12 curriculum. This study forwards recommendations on the enhancement of the present curriculum.

INTRODUCTION

The present study examines Philippine education, including its history, facts, and statistics as well as the operation of the educational system. The Philippines recently underwent a significant revamp, bringing basic education up to par with that of other Asian nations by increasing it from 10 to 13 years. As a result, it is anticipated that young graduates in the Philippines will compete more fiercely for domestic and international jobs. The American model is most similar to the Philippines' current educational system. Although bilingual math, science, and literary instruction (in English and Tagalog) were implemented under Ferdinand Marcos in 1974, English remained the major language of instruction. With courses given in practical skills like auto repair and bartending, the government's focus on vocational education changed with the founding of the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) in 1994. The goal of education is to increase the capacity of the educational system to reach all students. Nonetheless, most Filipino students are educated in government-funded schools in the Philippines, which confront several difficulties including low-quality results, sizable class numbers, teacher shortages, a lack of resources, unsustainable curricula, and legislators with conflicting views. To suggest that the education issue still presents a significant problem for parents, teachers, and children alike, particularly for those who are poor, is an understatement. This crisis is not brand-new; it has existed for a while. Nonetheless, the pandemic has brought to light the systemic flaws and the rising social divide. In this day and age, education has required a lot of its participants, but at what cost?

Ironically, to meet these demands, many families have remained in poverty, scholastic performance and general well-being have suffered, and worst of all, millions of youngsters have been held behind.

Therefore, the purpose of this systematic literature review is to examine the research on the K-12 curriculum from 2012 – 2022 to give insight to policymakers and researchers with respect to the following research questions:

1. What are the factors that serve as facilitators or barriers to K-12 curriculum implementation? To what extent are the factors invariant across contexts and conditions?

2. What are the academic and non-academic outcomes of the K-12 curriculum?

3. What policies can further be implemented to improve the present curriculum?

Background
Pre–Colonial and Colonial History
Children were taught the fundamentals of education in the ancient Philippines. This type of education was both academic and vocational in nature. Fathers taught sons to be warriors, hunters, fishermen, miners, lumberjacks, and shipbuilders. While mothers, taught their daughters cooking, gardening, serving, and other housekeeping skills. It is said that in ancient Panay, a barangay school called Bothoan was run by a teacher who was usually an elderly man. Reading, writing, arithmetic, and weapon use were among the subjects taught to children in this barangay school. Then came the foreign invaders. The European educational system was introduced to the

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archipelago with the arrival of Spain. Missionaries established primary schools, colleges, and universities in our country. During their reign in the Philippines, Spain's main goal was to convert native Filipinos into obedient and God-fearing Christians. As a result, religion was made a compulsory subject at all levels, from primary school to university. The first schools were parochial schools established in parishes by missionaries. In addition to religion, native children were taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and some vocational and practical art subjects in these schools. The missionaries later established colleges for both boys and girls. These colleges served as the equivalent of today's high schools. History, Latin, geography, mathematics, and philosophy were among the subjects taught to the students. During the Spanish period, there was no co-education. Boys and girls went to separate schools. The short-lived Filipino Independence movement, which founded the rebel First Philippine Republic, was sparked by Spain's defeat in the Spanish-American War. After a brief closure, the schools that Spain had supported for more than three centuries were reopened on August 29, 1898, by the Interior Secretary. There was the founding of the Burgos Institute, the first law school in the nation, the Academia Militar, the nation's first military academy, and the Literary University of the Philippines. Public education was required to be free and mandatory in all schools across the country under the First Philippine Republic, according to Article 23 of the Malolos Constitution. The Philippine- American War, however, slowed its development.

The United States took a different approach, guided by what the Americans saw as their primary goal in coming to the Philippines: "to educate and train in the science of self-government." As a result, it was not surprising that the United States saw education as one of its top priorities in the Philippines. Even as US troops were establishing a foothold in Manila in 1898, schools were being established. Unlike the Spaniards, who neglected to spread their language, the Americans made it a point to teach the Filipinos English. The first teachers of the Filipinos were American soldiers.

In January 1901, free primary education was established, as was a school for Filipino teachers. It advocated for the recruitment of qualified teachers in the United States. It ended compulsory religious education. The Americans provided opportunities for bright young Filipino students to pursue higher education in American colleges and universities. These Filipinos became known as "pensionados" because their education in the United States was paid for by the Philippine government. Hundreds of Filipino pensionados could study in the United States until 1928. The future civic, business, and political leaders of our country emerged from the ranks of these pensionados. Filipinos flocked to public and private schools in large numbers, hungry for education. Attempts were made to discourage the use of English and replace it with Japanese when the Japanese invaded the Philippines in 1942 as part of the Second World War. Nonetheless, there were few students enrolled in school during this time because parents believed their kids were safer at home. Schools and churches were also used as propaganda tools for the Japanese. Nippon-go, the Japanese language, was made a compulsory subject in all schools. In government and private offices, classes in Nippon-go were opened to propagate the Japanese language and culture. Japanese Catholic priests were sent to the Philippines to help promote the idea that Japan, being an Asian country, was a friend of all Asian people including the Filipinos. The Department of Instruction was likewise started by the Japanese; in 1947, it changed its name to the Department of Education. In 1946, when the Japanese had left, the Philippines attained complete independence.

It was assumed that the most fundamental objective of education is the development of an individual's potential which will simultaneously improve society. Educational policies have been geared toward the accomplishment of better manpower production through the understanding by the students of land reform, taxation, economic production, anti-drug and anti-pollution, and conservation education. To accomplish these goals, value and work-oriented curricula were encouraged. However, many parents and teachers were still confused because they did not understand the philosophy, operations, and evaluations of this innovation in education. The concept of an average layman or teacher in the "new society" was always associated with the advent of Martial Law. This must be redirected to a functional definition of wholesome integration of our economic, social, and moral lives for the Philippines.

With the country's independence celebration in 1946, barely eight decades ago, came every aspect of the educational system in line with the new status of a new nation seeking to achieve and maintain political and economic independence, as well as to fashion a nation truly united of social and cultural diversities.

Overview Transition and Features of the K – 12 Curriculum
Education is essential in almost every country around the world. Even though each country has its own educational system, most countries have a similar concept or equivalent qualification. The education system in the Philippines is unique in that it incorporates influences from its colonial history. The Philippines, the only Asian country with a 10-year basic education cycle, recently switched to a 12-year cycle in June 2012. The k-12 educational policy refers to this curriculum shift (Cristol, 2014). A 12-year program is found to be the best period for learning under basic education, according to the Department of Education of the Republic of the Philippines. It is also the globally accepted standard for students and professionals. The K to 12 Program took nearly six years to implement. The Philippines has embarked on this ambitious reform in order to align its education system with the majority of other systems worldwide and increase national

competitiveness. The K-12 program is viewed as critical to ensuring that all Filipinos have the basic skills needed to play a full and productive role in society. It is also motivated by concerns that overseas workers will lose out to migrant workers from other countries due to shorter basic education requirements (Patrinos, 2016).

Despite calls to halt the program, the government has maintained that the new educational system provides opportunities for both Filipino students and the national economy. In fact, the government listed three of the many practical advantages of a 12- year education cycle. A thirteen-year education is required by law in the Philippines. These thirteen years span kindergarten through grade twelve, also known as the K-12 program. Following that, students can choose whether to continue their education. As a pre-university educational system, the K-12 curriculum was implemented to in line with the rest of the world.

As part of the K-12 reforms, a parallel education system known as the Alternative Learning System, or ALS, was established. In cases where children are unable to attend and complete formal basic education, ALS exists as a substitute for traditional education. This could include remote communities without schools, for example. ALS takes a more relaxed approach to education, encouraging self-study and offering flexible learning schedules based on student availability. Mobile ALS teachers manage the teaching, which is typically done in community (barangay) centers, libraries, or at home. The government of the Philippines improves educational equality through ALS.

The provision of one year of kindergarten schooling for every child in the Philippines prior to entering elementary school was central to the K-12 reforms. In the Philippines, the elementary school consists of grades 1-6. The K-12 elementary school reforms included a curriculum that is better suited to the needs of Christian and Muslim students; Muslim children now have the opportunity to learn Arabic. In the Philippines, the junior high school consists of grades 7 through 10. In the Philippines, senior high school (SHS) covers grades 11-12 and was introduced in 2016 as part of the K to 12 programs. Students will be able to specialize in one of four tracks, in addition to the core curriculum: Academic (including business, STEM topics, and humanities), Technical-Vocational- Livelihood (including TESDA courses in cookery and welding), Sports, and Arts & Design.

Students are assessed to determine their strengths and interests to help them choose a learning path. These include an aptitude test, a career assessment exam, and activities to assist students in deciding on a specialization. The tracks available vary depending on the resources available in the area and the student's interests. The senior high school program was created to bridge the gap between school and work by partnering with local businesses to provide technical and vocational courses, and students can gain work experience while studying. The SHS curriculum also includes entrepreneurship courses, giving students the option of starting their own

business instead of going to college after graduation. Tertiary education in the Philippines typically lasts four or five years, with some subjects taking up to eight years. Postgraduate studies can last two years or more. Classes begin in June and end in March of the following year at most universities, with a few following a trimester pattern. Colleges are tertiary institutions that typically offer a few professional or specialized courses like Computing, Maritime Studies, or Nursing. Universities must provide at least six four-year undergraduate courses, including Basic Science, Mathematics, Liberal Arts, and Social Sciences. Colleges and universities can be public or private, and the latter can be religious or secular.

When changes are made to our educational system in order to find a solution to our educational ills, some pressure groups intervene and claim that it is "unrealistic and expensive," which is not a valid reason. To energize the lives of the citizens, courage, and energy for action must be maintained. Since pre-colonial times, education in the Philippines has come a long way. While educational standards are high, young aspiring graduates can always benefit from expanding their knowledge.

Aims

The purpose of this literature review was to examine the research on the Philippine educational system and the K-12 curriculum, the factors that affect the implementation, outcomes, and the challenges and obstacles the educational system of the country faces in the past and at present.

METHODOLOGY

A systematic literature review was conducted that included 18 peer-reviewed studies and unpublished reports from 2012 to 2022 related to the Philippine Educational System and the K – 12 curricula. A systematic review of the literature (Xiao & Watson, 2017) using the PRISMA preferred reporting items for systematic reviews as a guide (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, & Altman, 2009). PRISMA is consistent with recent methodological guidance for conducting high-quality systematic reviews (Alexander, 2020). The systematic literature review's main goal is to describe the state of the research literature in the field of K-12 curriculum in the Philippines. There are various types of descriptive systematic literature reviews (Xiao & Watson, 2017), and this study used a textual narrative synthesis approach.

The textual narrative synthesis approach extracts data and writes commentaries about identified studies, such as study characteristics, context, quality, and findings, using a standardized review process. A textual narrative synthesis, using this common reporting framework, enables the researcher to compare similarities and differences across studies to draw conclusions (Xiao & Watson, 2017). The textual narrative synthesis approach was chosen for several reasons, including the following: (a) it is generally regarded as more rigorous than the narrative review, and (b) it fits with an analysis of both qualitative and quantitative studies.

Inclusion and Criteria

The researcher included peer-reviewed studies and gray literature (e.g., reports, dissertations) written in English from 2012 to 2022 related to the Philippine elementary and secondary (K-12) educational context. Studies could be qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods. Because this field of study is still in its infancy, gray literature that was not peer- reviewed was included. Only searching traditional peer-reviewed articles would almost certainly result in an underrepresentation of relevant research. The gray literature would capture a broader range of findings, reducing the risk of publication bias. The researcher included only literature that described the research methodology used to gather data for the study to ensure we captured research studies rather than white papers or other advocacy reports. Research questions were also considered, but the quality of the research questions or methodology was not judged at this point. Studies were excluded from the systematic review if they did not (a) focus on K-12 students; (b) have common learning expectations and demonstrate mastery or proficiency; and (c) relate to any of the systematic review's research questions. The emphasis was on these key elements of the educational system and the K -12 because they are widely regarded as the hallmarks of the educational system's change, though there is still a lack of uniformity regarding the term and definition of K-12. This enabled the collection of research studies investigating K-12 approaches, even if they used slightly different terminology.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Several major research databases were used in the study, including ERIC, JSTOR, PsycINFO, ProQuest's dissertation abstracts, and Google Scholar. The researcher also conducted forward and backward searches for other studies that fit within the search parameters using reference

Figure 1: Flow chart of the Literature Identification Process.

lists from relevant research. Figure 1 depicts a flow diagram of the culling process, as well as the total number of studies removed at each stage. It began by identifying all potentially relevant research studies using key search terms, yielding a total of 66 studies for review. Then the abstracts were reread for those studies and excluded any that did not fit into the K-12 context. Most of the studies were excluded from this category. Finally, 21 studies were retrieved for a more thorough examination. Eighteen of the 21 studies were included in the final review because they related to the research questions in this study.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

RQ1. What are the factors that serve as facilitators or barriers to K-12 implementation? To what extent are the factors invariant across contexts and conditions?

Each of the 18 studies that were assessed produced conclusions that were relevant to the K–12 implementation in the Philippine educational system.

In this review, the researcher made the decision to categorize the variables that had an impact on the Philippine educational system and K–12 implementation as facilitators and barriers. Although there are different approaches to examining the available literature, we concentrated on comprehending the forces that drive and restrain change according to Kurt Lewin's change model from 1951. A crucial initial step in comprehending the change process in schools is to examine the motivating (facilitators) and inhibiting (barriers) forces. This gives one lens through which to examine barriers and supportive components at various phases of implementation.

Also, several of the research studies looked at in this systematic literature review assessed implementation challenges and facilitators, making it simpler to connect the dots and synthesize the results across studies and situations. Table 1 summarizes the facilitators and barriers to implementation with respect to the five focal elements of K-12 from the 2012 working definition, as previously discussed. The factors that affect K-12 implementation were relatively consistent across studies, as noted by the reference to multiple studies within each element. Some important facilitators across the key elements included: Education for All (EFA), an empowered individual who has learned via a program that is rooted in strong principles and focused on excellence, according to the K–12 Education vision, teachers' dedication, course tracking and offerings fit for the interest and needs of the students, and timely monitoring and evaluation plan. Key barriers across K - 12 elements included the tuition costs, home-school distance, books, tables, seats, laboratories, Tech-Voc equipment, a specialized instructor in the key courses, computer labs, audio-visual equipment, and financial concerns, lack of seminars, training, and readings relevant to the areas of expertise and the K–12 curriculum of teachers, heavy teacher workload, misconceptions about the K–12 curriculum, curriculum implementation, teacher preparation, administrator support, and stakeholder collaboration.
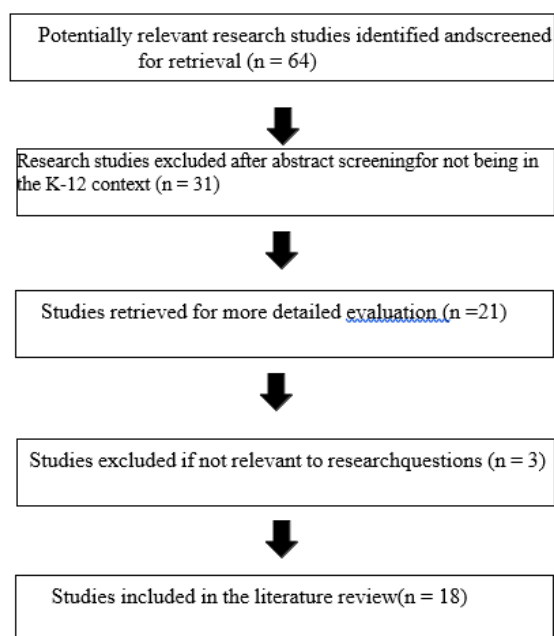
Table 1: Factors that Affect the K – 12 Curriculum

Elements Of K-12 From 2012 Working Definition	Facilitators	Barriers
The new curriculum includes Kindergarten as well as 12 years of fundamental education, including 6 years of primary education, 4 years of junior high school, and 2 years of senior high school (Barcelo, 2019).	Emphasized Education for All (EFA) on a global scale.	Tuition costs, home-school distance, books, tables, seats, laboratories, Tech- Voc equipment, a specialized instructor in the key courses, computer labs, audio-visual equipment, and financial concerns.
K-12 programs show good educational quality, particularly in terms of globaleducation standards, ability to work abroad, and development of employment skills. Implementations of K–12 programs aimed at producing more educated pupils with fundamental skills for job and lifetime learning (Abragan, Aquino, Abarcas, & Bagongon, 2022).	Every graduate of the Enhanced K–12 Basic Education Program is an empowered individual who has learned via a program that is rooted in strong principles and focused on excellence, according to the K–12 Education vision from the Department of Education (DepEd, 2010).	Lack of seminars, training and readings relevant to the areas of expertise and the K–12 curriculum of teachers makes it difficult for them to develop the lessons and activities outlined in the recently introduced curriculum.
Before a student is admitted to college, two extra years are required for senior high school grades 11 and 12. As a result, the K–12 curriculu's implementation influences both secondary and primary education.s. DepEd Order No. 13 The Enhanced Basic Education Curriculum's implementationguidelines areoutlined in 2012, with an emphasis on the curriculum's design, the program's desired outcomes for Grades 1 through 10, various learning areas, the medium of instruction, time allotment, and class schedule, as well as assessment and rating of learning outcomes (Palestina, Pangan, & Ancho, 2020).	Teachers' dedication serves as an enabler in bringing about change in classroom practices	Heavy teacher workload needs to be addressed seriously. Leaders in the education sector can align programs and policies based on experiences and practices in the classroom as well as research-based inputs by carefully examining the facilitating and hindering variables in the processes of implementing the curriculum
The implementation of the new curriculum has raised several challenges rooted in the understanding of the new curriculum, the additional costs to every family, and the readiness of facilities, infrastructures, instructional materials, and teaching personnel. The Department of Education (DepEd) stated that K–12 "is the most comprehensive basic education reform initiative ever done in the country since the establishment of a public education system" (Trance & Trance, 2018).	Develop graduates capable of meeting today's issues through course tracking and offerings fit for the interest and needs of the students.	There are not enough materials and resources. The challenges faced by teachers and students have been substantiated by these experiences, which is consistent. Misconceptions about the K–12 curriculum also emerged and, the is awareness of the Importance of the involvement and contribution to the new curriculum's success of the teachers and students.

The risks and potential associated with the Philippine government's K+12 Expanded Basic Education program's widespread adoption across the nation cannot be ignored. The goal of educational reform is to guarantee that graduates meet the intended learning outcomes set out by the intended curriculum in order for them to be globally competent not only in the academic arena but also in the workplace (Jaca, Flores, & Jaluage, 2018).	A thorough and timely monitoring and evaluation plan, to meet the learning objectives of the Expanded Basic Education Program, content must be pertinent and contextualized. To adapt the curriculum to the demands of the learners, it must be revised often.	Curriculum implementation, teacher preparation,school resources, administrator support, and stakeholder collaboration were the five common themes that emerged among the concerns found.

RQ2. What are the academic and non-academic outcomes of the K-12 curriculum?

Conclusions concerning the K–12 curriculum's results were drawn from ten studies. These results can be categorized according to their effects on three different aspects of students' learning: (a) academic accomplishment and progress; (b) intrinsic motivation and engagement; and (c) additional results that may be seen as either facilitators or barriers to students' learning. Evidence is categorized as having a positive or negative impact on the given outcome of interest for each of the 10 research. Each study assessed includes a three-level hierarchical grading of the quality of the evidence supporting causal inferences or drawing generalizations. The levels of evidentiary strength are described as follows:

Level 1: Evidence is primarily anecdotal or descriptive in nature; the study provides in-depth information about a specific setting; conclusions may not transfer across contexts (qualitative).

Level 2: The research design is insufficient to infer causation or support claims of generalization, but the evidence points to a relationship (correlational).

Level 3: Because the research was conducted using an experimental or quasi-experimental research design with matched treatment and control groups, the evidence points to a causal relationship and/or supports claims of generalization (causal).Only a few of these research studies fall into the Level 1 or Level 2 range in terms of the strength of the evidence, placing the majority at Level 3. This is due to several factors, including (a) small, unrepresentative samples chosen using purposeful or convenience sampling approaches; (b) variations in how K–12 programs are implemented across schools; and (c) worries about the quality and accuracy of the data. These factors are all influenced by the research's goals and the research design.

Table 2: Overview of the evidence, including study strength of evidence, for the effects of K–12 Curriculum on student outcomes

Criteria	Strength of Evidence
Academic achievement and progress	
Positive	
The Academic Performance Efficiency among Senior High Instructors and of Grade Eleven (11) Students in English and Math Curricula offered at Tawi-Tawi Regional Agricultural College both revealed a good correlation (Ahamad, Jauhari, Luddin, & Abdurahman, 2019).	Level 2
There was a significant difference in academic adjustment and performance when students are stratified according to the SHS strand. Moreover, moderation analysis showed that the SHS strand significantly moderates the relationship between academic adjustment and performance (Alipino, 2020).	Level 1
Negative	
Overall, the K to 12 graduates were college-unready (Mamba, Tamayo & Vecaldo, 2020).	Level 3
Intrinsic motivation and engagement	
Positive	
Students have a moderate level of extrinsic aspirations but very high levels of intrinsic motivation. Further, the study concluded that there is no correlation between extrinsic aspirations and academic performance but there is an extensive correlation between intrinsic aspirations and academic performance (Abun, Magallanez, Aboot, & Barroga, 2020).	Level 2

Students have a very strong external locus of control but had a low level of motivation. Results also showed that most of the respondents had very high levels of dropout intention and Weighted Point Average (WPA). Correlation revealed a weak positive association between locus of control and WPA (Alipio, 2020).	Level 2
Students have an extremely intrinsic motivation than extrinsic motivation. However, it also revealed that intrinsic motivation cannot directly affect the academic performance in Games and Sports as their field of specialization because extrinsic motivation showed a significant relationship to their academic performance in Games and Sports (Balacuit & Inabagan, 2019)	Level 2
Negative	
Male students have a higher motivation in Physics than female students in all other components of motivation (Torio, 2015).	Level 3
Other outcomes	
Positive	
Comparatively to their teacher-controlling counterparts, students who felt that their learning environment supported their autonomy also demonstrated much higher academic engagement in their oral communication classes. When teachers encourage their students, involve them in decision-making processes, and establish ground rules for the classroom, positive results in the learning environment are stimulated and negative consequences are avoided. Alternatives that teachers can use to enhance their educational strategies and increase student involvement include the introduction of new environments that foster autonomy (Espejo, 2018).	Level 3
Negative	
In this study, which involved 1,860 IPs enrolled at a public institution in the northern Philippines, it was examined how academic profile and college readiness related. The findings showed that the majority of respondents lacked preparation for college (Vecado, Tamayao, Mamba, Asuncion, Paat, & Pagulayan, 2020).	Level 3
The Mangsee National High School, specifically the parents of the Grade VII students encountered problems in the Implementation of the K – 12 Program, they all have a variety of opinions or thoughts about the said program. Some parents we're viewing this program in a negative viewed which is this will be another burden for them and for their children both physically and financially, but some parents overviewed the program positively and think that this will help the learners choose and decide the career which best suits their skills (Mohammad, 2016).	Level 1
According to the study by Bongco and David (2020), teachers encounter several conflicts when they attempt to understand and implement curriculum policies in their classrooms. These tensions include being confused yet appreciative, irritated yet adaptable, and helpless yet essential. The study's conclusion discusses how instructors' comprehension and application of curricular policies play a significant role in the success of curriculum implementation.	Level 1

RQ3 What recommendations can be implemented to improve the present curriculum?

Teachers, parents, and students who were heavily involved in implementing the K–12 programs in the Philippines had a variety of opinions and suppositions about whether this improvement helped the nation improve its educational system to meet the demands of the global market.

Students with the essential abilities and competencies could compete in their chosen fields of specialization thanks to the K–12 program. The K–12 programs included something that should be at the top of the government's list of priorities because it was seen to be the answer to every issue the nation is currently experiencing. Several studies had been done to determine what needed to be done to implement this new curriculum that offered many viewpoints.

Consequently, this essay would want to suggest the following:

1. Ensure that teachers had the competencies and skills required to cope with the children who were included in this new curriculum, the engagement of teachers in various training and seminars is needed to be maximized.

2. Ensure that the student's learning was supported by the new curriculum, school infrastructure, labs, and instructional materials had to be improved.

3. The curriculum implementation process continues to face difficulties; as a result, the Department of Education, administrators, and other stakeholders should assess the need for further development in certain areas. Moreover, policy interpretation may be complicated by system instability.

CONCLUSION

This literature review aimed to find implementation, student results, and the relationship between implementation and outcomes in the research on the K–12 curriculum and the Philippine educational system. This systematic review makes numerous important contributions to the ongoing debate about curriculum revisions. The literature on K-12 implementation and results is carefully reviewed and integrated in the first part of this synthesis, which also identifies themes that guide research, policy, and practice. To better actualize the equality ideals at the center of reform efforts, practitioners can better understand what is necessary for various circumstances by analyzing the degree of implementation and associated implications on student outcomes. The review also identifies gaps in the body of available information. For instance, it's important to comprehend how student learning fits into the curriculum, how schools view and assess competency, and how assessment works in competency-based systems. Thirdly, this research synthesis suggests areas that require more investigation. For instance, a good deal of study has been done on the variables (facilitators and barriers) that influence K–12 implementations. This study has shown that barriers can transform into facilitators that hasten and enhance implementation quality. We do not yet understand how different implementation profiles are affected by barriers and facilitators. The effects of the K–12 curriculum on students' academic and nonacademic outcomes and how those effects may vary by prior achievement, background factors, grade span, content area, and other factors arestill largely unknown. Considering the equity objectives, investigating how the K–12 curriculum is perceived and how it affects underrepresented student populations seems especially relevant. Examining how the K–12 curriculum affects underrepresented student populations seems especially pertinent given the equity goals.

Many believe that the K–12 curriculum and associated practices will raise student achievement and reduce equity gaps. This systematic review aims to highlight what is already known about the K–12 curriculum and what still needs to be investigated. This study's findings suggest that the implementation process is still plagued with problems. As a result of the system's instability, it should be also determined that there were significant differences in the implementation system's organization and coherence across and within the Department of Education, administrators, and other stakeholders.

LIMITATION AND RECOMMENDATION

This systematic literature review has limitations, just like any other study. Initially, certain papers were left out of the evaluation due to the inclusion and exclusion criteria that were used. This can result in a more constrained view of how the K–12 curriculum is implemented and what it achieves. The researcher made an effort to address this constraint by expanding the search criteria and incorporating gray literature (such as unpublished reports). The researcher also notes that the manner in which the research studies were assessed might impact the study results.

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