Ministry Of Higher Education & Scientific Research

University Of Algiers 2
"Abou El Kacem Saadallah"

Faculty Of Foreign Languages
Department Of English

PEDAGOGICAL SUPPORT

COURSE: CURRICULUM ANALYSIS AND SYLLABUS DESIGN FOR DOCTORATE STUDENTS (D1)

Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the professional rank of Professor in English linguistics & didactics

Submitted by

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ACADEMIC YEAR
2020/2021

Course Syllabus

Curriculum Analysis and Syllabus Design

Doctorate Level: Year One

Course Description:

This course is a doctoral seminar that aims at understanding the different levels of planning and development that are involved in Curriculum design, developing a course or set of instructional materials based on the aims and objectives that have been established for a given program. The course contemplates the historical and ideological foundations of the field of curriculum studies.

Students will examine the different processes of curriculum development, syllabus design and course elaboration and how many aspects of a course are subject to ongoing revision each time the course is taught. The course is meant to consider curriculum as a tradition within educational discourse; determine developments in the field; various conceptions of curriculum and their effects on pedagogy; identify hidden assumptions in curriculum discourse; investigate the interrelationships between curriculum and life issues; how the curriculum is mediated by teachers in classrooms; how curriculum acts affect the lives of teachers and students; explore students personal views of curriculum and; possibilities for action in educational settings. The types of decision-making that will be examined in this course are also

involved in developing instructional materials and many of the examples that will be discussed apply to both course planning and materials design.

The course consists of thirteen doctoral seminars in which students will deal with a number of topics during two semesters, and each semester will last ten weeks.

Course Objectives

By the end of this course, students will have the requisite knowledge and skills to:

- develop an overview of the field of curriculum studies
- develop an understanding of how different curricular conceptions and models affect the policies and practices of education
- understand the importance, nature and function of theory in curriculum development
- develop personal perspectives/positions on the models, issues, ideas related to curriculum theory
- describe and account for the differences and relationships among various syllabus designs.
- demonstrate ability to develop a syllabus for a course that suits the individual needs of the student.
- rationalize the use of syllabus design and relationship to student needs and expected goals and outcomes of courses being designed.
- demonstrate ability to adopt, adapt, design and evaluate teaching materials.

Methods of Instruction:

Lectures and student-engaged discussions will form the foundation for the course. Students will use case studies and scenarios to build skills needed to demonstrate competency in the standards for this course. Cooperative learning, writing and research presentations will be employed to teach processes and skills. Students will have multiple opportunities to demonstrate writing skills and research strategies.

Course Requirements

Attend class as determined by the department calendar and course activities.

Participate in class discussions and comprehension activities as assigned.

Present research reports on course topics.

Complete reading assignments.

Seminars will consist primarily of discussions of ideas found in the readings. Each student will write a Reflective Essay on a topic to be chosen in class. The topics will focus on issues discussed in class.

The Reflective Essay will be due by the end of the second semester and Each student will present no more than a 10-15 minutes overview of his or her Reflective Essay.

Evaluation

Students will be evaluated through active engagement in assigned projects to check for knowledge, synthesis, and application skills for competencies assigned to this course. Writing assignments will be used to evaluate syntheses of readings and research. Students will reflect on their learning and experiences in the course through discussions.

Doctorate level: Year 1 /2020-2021
Course: Curriculum Analysis and Syllabus Design
Lecturer: Dr. Nesrine Aoudjit-Bessai

COURSE OUTLINE

FIRST SEMESTER

WEEKS	TOPICS
Weeks1/2	DEFINING THE CONCEPTS OF SYLLABUS AND CURRICULUM Conceptual misinterpretations/misusage
Weeks3/4	PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
Weeks5/6	CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT MODELS
Weeks7/8	SYLLABUS DESIGN COMPONENTS
Weeks9/10	TYPES OF SYLLABI: PRODUCT VERSUS PROCESS-ORIENTED SYLLABUSES

Doctorate level: Year 1 /2020-2021
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COURSE OUTLINE

SECOND SEMESTER

WEEKS	TOPICS
Weeks1/2	TEACHING MATERIALS: KEY CONCEPTS AND ISSUES
Weeks3/4	TEACHING MATERIALS DESIGN
Weeks5/6	RESEARCH ISSUES ON MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT
Week7	FEATURES OF GOOD MATERIALS
Week9	TEACHING MATERIALS EVALUATION
Week10	TEACHING MATERIALS ADAPTATION

Basic Readings

Aoudjit- Bessai, N. (2018). Discussing the Concepts of Curriculum, syllabus, Curriculum Development and Syllabus Design. Revue AFAK WA AFKAR, Volume 6, N ° 1, pp.273-291

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د. زوليخة بن صنافي

SEMINAR 1

DEFINING CURRICULUM /SYLLABUS

Introduction

When reading the existing literature on language education, one can easily notice that the terms curriculum and syllabus are sometimes used interchangeably, i.e. one can replace the other, sometimes differentiated and sometimes misused and misunderstood. Similarly, the concepts syllabus design and curriculum development are causing confusion among researchers and practitioners. The terms are familiar in school education, but more ambiguous in their usage in a higher education context (Fraser & Bosanquet, 2006, p. 269).

1. Curriculum /Syllabus

Nunan (2004) associated the disagreement among researchers and practitioners, about the terms curriculum and syllabus, with two main reasons. The first reason has to do with the differences between American English and British English. In America, syllabus and curriculum are used synonymously and refer to the same concept, i.e. the content of an individual subject.

However, the two terms represent two different concepts in British English. Curriculum represents a general concept that involves consideration of philosophical, social and administrative factors, and these latter contribute to the development and planning of an educational program. And syllabus is only a

subpart of the curriculum, it is concerned with the specification of the content to be taught. (Nunan, 2004, p.3)

The second reason is directly linked to the fact that the concept of curriculum has changed through time. In the early 20th century, the curriculum was traditionally defined as the course of study in a particular subject, or syllabus. Later, mainly with the rise of the school of progressivism, the curriculum is regarded as the foundation of the teaching-learning process whether it is a school, college, university or a training organization.

The curriculum should handle the training of teachers, specify the textbooks to be used, develop instructional goals and plans, and establish standards. Thus, the concept of curriculum has drastically changed and it is expected to play a crucial role in ensuring an efficient function in any educational institution or setting.

Nunan (2004, p. 3) suggests that a **curriculum can be broadly concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose, and experience and the relationship between teachers and learners**. Put differently, the term curriculum refers to the "entire instructional process including materials, equipment, examinations, and the training of teachers, (Stern 1984, p. 434).

Hence the curriculum is expected to deal with **all the pedagogical measures related to schooling or any other educational institution or system**, thus, we can speak of the school curriculum, or the university curriculum. **In its narrowest**

sense, the term curriculum refers to the course of study or content on a particular subject, such as the linguistics curriculum, or the physics curriculum. It is, therefore, used as a synonym of syllabus. This latter is more localized and restricted to what actually happens in the classroom between teachers and learners as they apply a curriculum to their situation.

Clarifying the concept of syllabus is not an easy task also. **If curriculum refers to "all aspects of planning, implementing, evaluating, and managing an educational program"** (Nunan, 2004, p. 3), **the syllabus is its result. It is a more concrete term, referring to the actual events in the classroom, i.e. the application of a syllabus to a given situation** (Candlin, 1984). However, as perceptions of syllabus change, so do definitions. Pienemann (1985) sees the syllabus as "the selection and grading of linguistic teaching objectives" (p. 23), while for Breen (1984) it is "a plan of what is to be achieved through our teaching and our students' learning" (p. 47). A closer examination of both definitions will show that they lack something. Pienemann's emphasis on linguistic objectives and neglecting the possible non-linguistic functions of a syllabus, and Breen's focus on achievement seems to overlook the relationship between what is taught and what is learnt.

Another disagreement exists between researchers and applied linguists as for **'syllabus design'**. While some approaches narrow the use of the term, others consider it in a broader perspective. **The narrow view restricts syllabus design to the selection and gradation of content, and thus separating**

syllabus design from methodology. Those who adopt a broader view question this strict distinction and wonder whether it is possible to separate content from tasks, mainly with advent of communicative language teaching (Nunan, 2004)

Hutchinson & Waters (1987) define syllabus as follow: "at its simplest level a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learnt ... it reflects an official assumption as to the nature of language and linguistic performance" (p. 80). This definition is a traditional interpretation of syllabus that focuses more on outcomes than on learning processes, it clearly separates syllabus design, which is concerned with the selection and gradation of content, from methodology, which deals with the specification of learning tasks, activities, teaching procedures and techniques. (Nunan, 2004)

According to the proponents of the broad approach, syllabus design should integrate both the content (i.e. what learners learn?) and methodology (i.e. how they learn it?). Yalden (1984) rejects this separation and maintains that syllabus is connected with learners' needs and aims and should integrate both content (the product) and methodology (the process) as it is clearly stated in the quote below:

"The syllabus replaces the concept of 'method', and the syllabus is now seen as an instrument by which the teacher, with the help of the syllabus designer, can achieve a degree of 'fit' between the needs and aims of the learner (as social being and as individual) and the activities which will take place in the classroom" Yalden (1984, p. 14)

Thus, following Yalden (1984), it is more convenient to follow the broad view and integrate both content and methodology when designing a syllabus rather than the narrow approach because today's language classes are more demanding in terms of tasks and learning by doing. Learners are willing to develop communicative skills, fluency, productivity, creativity and becoming active participants in the learning process. It is no longer possible to neglect learners' needs and aims and their individual differences, and the teaching materials that are selected, adapted, or developed should fit those needs and aims.

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Candlin, C. N. (1984). Syllabus design as a critical process, ELT Documents, No. 118, pp. 29-46, London: Pergamon & The British Council

Fraser, S and Bosanquet, A (2006) The Curriculum? That's just a unit outline, isn't it? Studies in Higher Education, Vol 31, No 3, p 269-284

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). English for Specific Purposes: A Learner-Centered Approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (2004). Task-Based Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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CURRICULUM

READING ASSIGNMENT 1:

Read the text selected from Wesley (2011, pp. 1-4). Curriculum from Theory to Practice, and answer the following questions (see Appendix 1)

- How does the author define curriculum?
- What is meant by Education?
- Explain in a reflective essay what distinguishes curriculum from education.
- What is the importance of curriculum?
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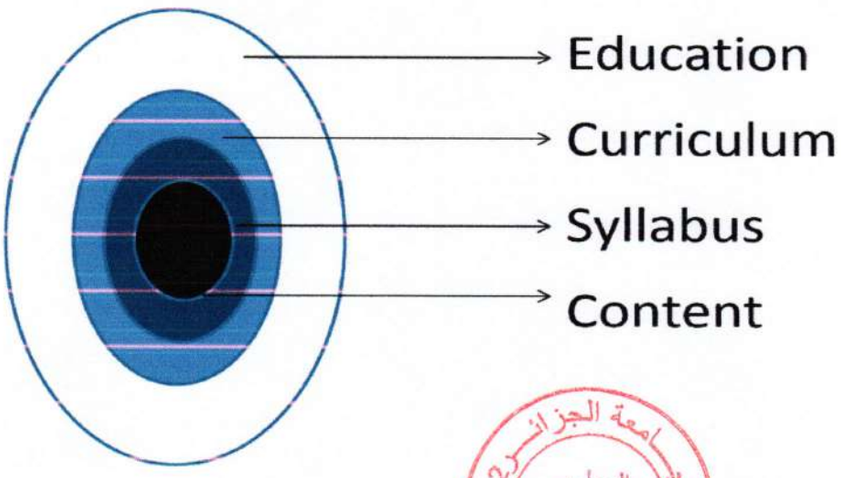
Rely on the figure below when answering the above questions:



READING ASSIGNMENT 2:

1. Read the below curriculum definitions.
2. Sort out the definitions according to the following categories through a tabular presentation :

a. Curriculum as a product-program, document, electronic media or multimedia.
b. Curriculum as program of study-usually courses offered, curriculum sequences of study in standards benchmarks, gateways.
c. Curriculum as intended learning –goals, content, concepts generalizations, outcomes.
d. Curriculum as experiences of the learner-activities planned or unplanned.
e. Hidden curriculum-what students learn that isn't planned

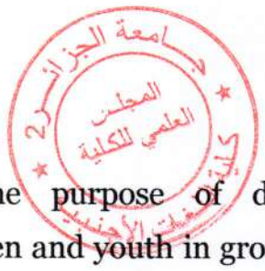
CURRICULUM DEFINITIONS COLLECTION:

Adapted from Dr. Robert Sweetland's notes. www.homeofbob.com

❖ **Bestor (1956)**: The curriculum must consist essentially of disciplined study in five great areas: 1) command of mother tongue and the systematic study of grammar, literature, and writing. 2) mathematics, 3) sciences, 4) history, 5) foreign language.

❖ **Albert Oliver (1977):** curriculum is "the educational program of the school" and divided into four basic elements: 1) program of studies, 2) program of experiences, 3) program of service, 4) hidden curriculum.

❖ **B. Othanel Smith (1957):** A sequence of potential experiences is set up in the school



for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting. This set of experiences is referred to as the curriculum.

- **Bell (1971):** the offering of socially valued knowledge, skills, and attitudes made available to students through a variety of arrangements during the time they are at school, college, or university.

- **Bobbit (1918):** Curriculum is that series of things which children and youth must do and experience by way of developing abilities to do the things well that make up the affairs of
adult life; and to be in all respects what adults should be.

- **Caswell and Campbell (1935):** curriculum is composed of all of the experiences children have under the guidance of the teacher."

- **Daniel Tanner and Laurel N. Tanner (1988):** "that reconstruction of knowledge and experience systematically developed under the auspices of the school (or university), to enable the learner to increase his or her control of knowledge and experience."

- **David G. Armstrong (1989**): "is a master plan for selecting content and organizing learning experiences for the purpose of changing and developing learners' behaviors and insights."

- **Goodman (1963):** A set of abstractions from actual industries, arts, professions, and civic activities, and these abstractions are brought into the school-box and taught.

- **Harnack (1968)**: The curriculum embodies all the teaching-learning experiences guided and directed by the school.

❖ **Hass (1980):** The curriculum is all of the experiences that individual learners have in a program of education whose purpose is to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives, which is planned in terms of a framework of theory and research or past and present professional practice.

❖ **Hilda Taba (1962):** "All curricula, no matter what their particular design, are composed of certain elements. A curriculum usually contains a statement of aims and of specific objectives; it indicates some selection and organization of content; it either implies or manifests certain patterns of learning and teaching, whether because the objectives demand them or because the content organization requires them. Finally, it includes a program of evaluation of the outcomes."

❖ **Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell:** "all the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers."

❖ **J. Galen Saylor, William M. Alexander, and Arthur J. Lewis (1974):** "We define curriculum as a plan for providing sets of learning opportunities to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives for an identifiable population served by a single school center for persons to be educated."

❖ Johnson (1967): Curriculum is a structural series of intended learning outcomes. Curriculum prescribes (or at least anticipates) the results of instruction. It does not prescribe the means... To be used in achieving the results.

❖ **Jon Wiles and Joseph Bondi (1989):** curriculum is a goal

or set of values, which are activated through a development process culminating in classroom experiences for students. The degree to which those experiences are a true representation of the envisioned goal or goals is a direct function of the effectiveness of the curriculum development efforts.

- **Krug (1957)**: Curriculum consists of all the means of instruction used by the school to provide opportunities for student learning experiences leading to desired learning outcomes.

- **Musgrave (1968):** the contrived activity and experience-organized, focused, systematic- that life, unaided, would not provide.

- **P. Phenix (1962):** The curriculum should consist entirely of knowledge which comes from the disciplines... Education should be conceived as a guided recapitulation of the process of inquiry which gave rise to the fruitful bodies of organized knowledge comprising the established disciplines.

- **Peter F. Oliva (1989):** "the program, a plan, content, and learning experiences."

CURRICULA / SYLLABI

READING ASSIGNMENT 3

As you read the quotes, see whether you can identify which writers are advocating a broad approach and which a narrow approach.

1 . . .I would like to draw attention to a distinction . . . between curriculum or syllabus, that is its content, structure, parts and organisation, and, ...what in curriculum theory is often called curriculum processes, that is curriculum development, implementation, dissemination and evaluation. The former is concerned with the WHAT of curriculum: what the curriculum is like or should be like; the latter is concerned with the WHO and HOW of establishing the curriculum.

(Stern 1984: 10-11)

2 [The syllabus] replaces the concept of 'method', and the syllabus is now seen as an instrument by which the teacher, with the help of the syllabus designer, can achieve a degree of 'fit' between the needs and aims of the learner (as social being and as individual)and the activities which will take place in the classroom.

(Yalden 1984: 14)

3 ... the syllabus is simply a framework within which activities can be carried out: a teaching device to facilitate learning. It only becomes a threat to pedagogy when it is regarded as absolute rules for determining what is to be learned rather than points of reference from which bearings can be taken.

(Widdowson 1984: 26)

4 We might ... ask whether it is possible to separate so easily what we have been calling content from what we have been calling method or procedure, or indeed whether we can avoid bringing evaluation into the debate?

(Candlin1984: 32)

5 Any syllabus will express—however indirectly—certain assumptions about language, about the psychological process of learning, and about the pedagogic and social processes within a classroom.

(Breen 1984: 49)

6 . . . curriculum is a very general concept which involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational program. Syllabus, on the other hand, refers to that subpart of curriculum which is concerned with a specification of what units will be taught (as distinct from how they will be taught, which is a matter for methodology).

(Allen 1984: 61)

7 Since language is highly complex and cannot be taught all at the same time, successful teaching requires that there should be a selection of material depending on the prior definition of objectives, proficiency level, and duration of course. This selection takes place at the syllabus planning stage.

(op. cit: 65)

SEMINAR 2

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

READING ASSIGNMENT:

Read the text in Appendix 2: Finney, D. (2002, pp. 70-79) "The ELT Curriculum: A Flexible Model for a Changing world". In Richards & Renandya "Methodology in Language Teaching" and answer the following questions:

- Explain what is meant by: philosophy, education, philosophy of education, and objectives.
- Explain and illustrate Clark's educational value system.
- What are the major components of a Curriculum?

Philosophy of Education

Philosophy of education is the study of questions such as 'What is education?' 'What is the purpose of education?', 'What does it mean to know something?' 'What is the relationship between education and society?' The philosophy of education recognizes that the development of a civil society depends on the education of the young as responsible, thoughtful and enterprising citizens which is a challenging task requiring deep understanding of ethical principles, moral values, political theory, aesthetics and economics; not to mention an understanding of children themselves.

Most of the prominent philosophers in the last 2000 years were not philosophers of education but have at some point considered and written on the philosophy of education. Among them are Plato, Aristotle, Rousseau, Dewey, Adler, Confucius, Al Farabi, Tagore and many others. These philosophers have been key voices in the philosophy of education and have contributed to our basic understanding of what education is and can be. They have also provided powerful critical perspectives revealing the problems in education.

Philosophy and curriculum

What is the connection between philosophy and curriculum? For example, when you propose the teaching of a particular body of knowledge, course or subject, you will be asked, "What is your philosophy for introducing that content?" If you are unable to answer the question, you may not be able to convince others to accept your proposal. Philosophy is the starting point in any curriculum decision making and is the basis for all subsequent decisions regarding curriculum. Philosophy becomes the criteria for determining the aims, selection, organization and implementation of the curriculum in the classroom.

Philosophy helps us answer general questions such as: 'What are schools for?' 'What subjects are of value?', 'How should students learn the content?' It also helps us to answer more precise tasks such as deciding what textbooks to use, how to use them, what homework to assign and how much of it, how to test and use the results.

SEMINAR 3

PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNINGS FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

What are the three philosophical underpinnings for curriculum development?

- **CLASSICAL HUMANISM**: The Focus is on the content of what is to be taught by, or transmitted to the learner.
- **RECONSTRUCTIONISM:** The Focus is on the objectives of the teaching-learning program.
- **PROGRESSIVISM:** The Focus is on bringing the learner to progress towards self-fulfillment, focus on learner needs, interests and development processes

✓ Classical Humanism

Skilbeck (1982, p.17) indicates that the orientation of classical humanism 'is always towards achieving or recapturing a standard.' It is the standard that 'constitutes both an ideal to be striven for and a heritage

to be transmitted.' Such a value aims to promote broad intellectual capacities and mastery of controlled knowledge through conscious understanding, unit-by-unit learning and deliberate practice. In language learning and teaching, this type of curriculum focuses on mastery of the language, often with the intention of eventually using the language to read literary texts.

The syllabus would be language-focused, accuracy-focused, and most probably grammatically

structured. The methodology associated with this might be grammar-translation. This is supported by Clark's statement (1987, p.7) that classical humanism favours a methodology that emphasizes 'conscious study and deliberate learning' under the teacher's presentation of knowledge elements (i.e. language) and rules, which are divided and sequenced from the simple to the more complex. Learners are expected to produce the ends of the instruction in new contexts, for example, create new sentences using grammatical items and vocabulary learnt in class. A student must formally acquire a body of knowledge for future use. The traditional processes of learning are similar too - learning the rules, memorizing, recombining what has been learnt in new contexts and so on. It may be for this reason that in oriental societies the grammar translation approach is still part of current practices.

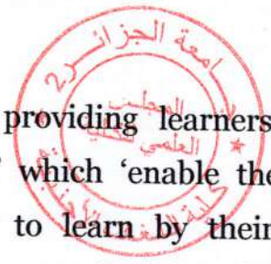
✓ RECONSTRUCTIONISM

Clark (1987, p. 15) states that reconstructionists express a special concern with 'the practical aspect of education' and he emphasizes 'the promotion of an ability to communicate,' indicating that reconstructionism gives rise to a 'objective-driven' curriculum, in which predetermined objectives in terms of learners' needs are achieved by learners through activities. He (1987, p. 18) further implies that the methodology related to reconstructionism lays stress on 'rehearsal of eventual global end-objectives' based on the performance of 'various part-skills of a particular behaviour.' The development of notional-functional syllabuses is an example of such a value.

White (1988, p.75) notes that a notional-functional syllabus sets objectives according to two elements, notions or concepts (e.g. time or space) and functions, with which the use of language is classified. Thus the syllabus is no longer determined solely by grammatical content, but also takes into account the communicative functions and notions that learners may wish to learn. The methodology associated with such syllabuses encourages activities to rehearse end-objectives so that learners could eventually achieve objectives. Learners practice notions and functions in realistic activities, like practicing saying greetings. Widdowson (1990, p.132) states that the subject language of notional-functional syllabuses is taught as 'units of communicative performance for accumulation.' Such a syllabus is often cyclical. In my own teaching context, notions and functions figure in the syllabuses and are dealt with in progressively detailed ways in successive years. So, for example, pupils in the first year might practice friendly greetings and interactions in the context of their classmates, while in year five they might be participating similar functions in the context of a formal job interview. The teaching method can be set to focus on rehearsal in class for possible future use.

✓ <u>PROGRESSIVISM</u>

In Clark's (1987, p. 49) view, Progressivism offers a 'learner-centered approach to education, which attempts to promote the pupil's development.' The central idea of it is 'growth through experience,' which learners acquire with their creative problem-solving capacities. Education is viewed 'as a



means of providing learners with experience' which 'enable them to learn how to learn by their own efforts.' He goes further to indicate that progressivism allow the teacher and learners to decide what to learn and how to learn it.

The methodology under such a value focuses on providing opportunities for learners' spontaneous learning through engaging in communicative activities. It is clear that learners' experience and creativity are valued. The teacher and learners can participate together the common teaching and learning activity. In language learning this value appears to be very close to Breen's 1987 view of process syllabus where learners' learning process should be valued.

Breen (1984, p. 52) notes that process approach is an alternative, which 'provides a change of focus from content toward the process of learning in the classroom.' In other words, the focus is on the means as well as the ends. For Nunan (1988, p. 40), the process approach means the activities 'through which knowledge and skills might be gained.' White (1988, p. 46) takes a rather more extreme view when he says that 'content is subordinate to the learning process and pedagogical procedures.' This is an overstatement of the balance in my view. Breen was making the point that the method through which objectives were achieved was as important as the objectives, not necessarily more important.

Learners need to learn something – words, structures, patterns – as well as learning effectively. The change in focus from wholly product-oriented syllabuses design to an approach which acknowledged the

oriented syllabuses design to an approach which acknowledged the importance of learners, teaching and learning, was an important landmark in education generally.

Breen (1987, p. 168) summarizes the process syllabus as not only offering 'a means whereby the selection and organization of subject-matter become part of the decision-making process' but also presenting 'a framework within which teacher and learners decide how they should best work upon subject-matter.' This is a learner and learning-centered approach to teaching and learning where content and method are closely harmonized.

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SEMINAR 4

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT/ MODELS

Introduction

Developing a curriculum is a challenging and demanding process. It requires considering the different elements or components that need to be integrated in the curriculum framework and the sequence in which they will be dealt with. For this reason, we can find different curriculum models in the literature, namely the Tyler's model, the Taba's model and the Skilbeck's model. Some of these models share certain similarities and common components, while others vary tremendously, some models are labeled as 'prescriptive' and follow a linear or cyclical sequence and others are considered to be 'descriptive' as they simply describe the process of developing the curriculum.

1. Tyler's Model

This model was introduced in 1949 by Tyler in his classic book: *Basic principles of curriculum and instruction*. It is one of the most famous models for curriculum development. The model was based on objectives or goal attainment and gave special attention to the planning phases. Tyler identified four principles for curriculum development:

(a) **The selection of objectives**: defining appropriate learning objectives is important to establish a goal that all educators in a given institution are striving towards, the focus should be

on what learners need to understand and what they are expected to do.

(b) **The selection of learning experiences**: establishing useful learning experiences and identifying what steps need to be taken to allow learners to meet their goal will be done by determining what classes/activities should learners take and participate in, and what resources need to be available.

(c) **The organization of the learning experiences:** It is essential to figure out the order of steps that need to be accomplished.

(d) **Evaluation:** it consists in assessing the curriculum and revising those aspects that did not prove to be effective.

It is important to answer the four questions following this order systematically because answering the latter questions presumes answers to the previous question in that linear order (Marsh, 2007).

STAGES PROCESS QUESTIONS

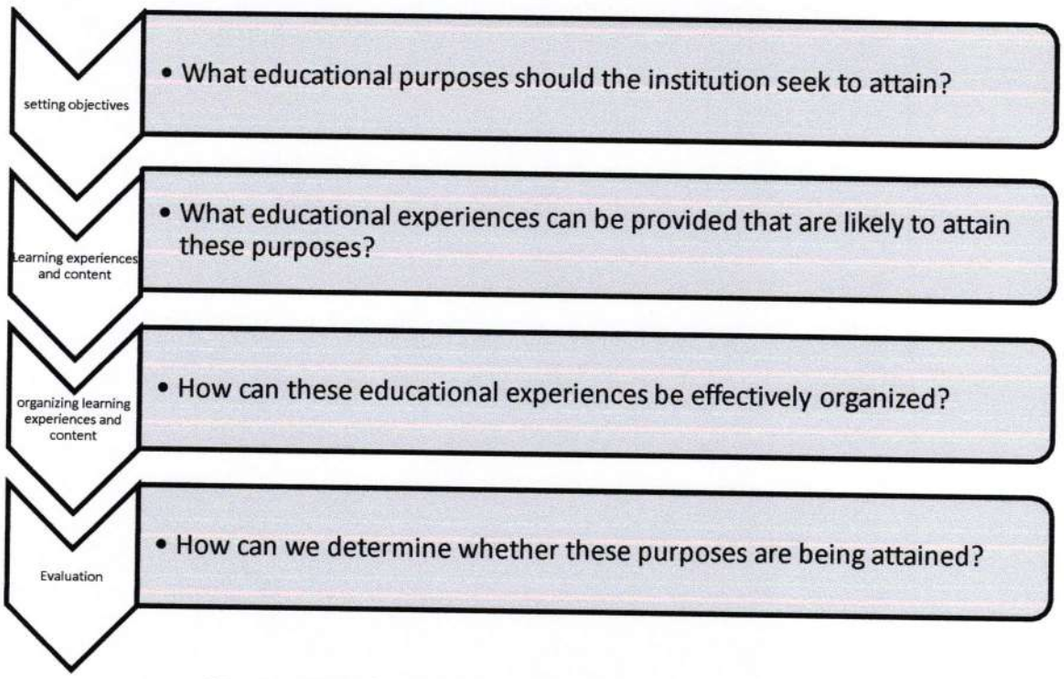

Figure: Tyler's Model of Curriculum Development

TASK A: Answer the following

1) **What is the role of objectives in Tyler's model?**
2) **Why do objectives have to be screened by philosophy and psychology?**
3) **Give 3 specific examples of 'learning experiences' according to the Tyler Model,**
4) **What are elements? Give specific examples**
5) **What is the purpose of evaluation?**

2. Taba's Model

Another model of curriculum development was proposed by Hilda Taba (1962) in her book Curriculum development: Theory and practice. Unlike Tyler who followed a deductive approach to curriculum development (i.e. as the model proceeds from general (needs of the society) to the specific (specifying instructional objectives), Taba adopted an inductive approach starting with specifics and building up to a general design. She held the view that the curriculum should be designed by the teacher rather than handed down by higher authority. The teacher is expected to begin the process by developing teaching-learning units for his/her students instead of developing a general curriculum framework. Taba's model can be summarized in seven major steps as it is illustrated in the table below:

Stage 1	**Diagnosis of learners 'needs and expectations of society**	the teacher, who is also the curriculum designer, starts the process by identifying the needs of students for whom the curriculum is planned
Stage 2	**Formulation of learning objectives**	After the teacher has identified needs that require attention, he/she specifies the objectives to be accomplished
Stage 3	**Selection of content**	The selected objectives suggest the subject matter or content of the curriculum. Content and objectives should match.
Stage 4	**Organization of content**	A teachers cannot just select content but must organize it in a certain sequence taking into consideration the maturity of the learners, their academic achievement and their interests
Stage 5	**Selection of learning experiences**	The teacher selects instructional methods that will involve the learner with content
Stage 6	**Organization of learning experiences**	Just as the content must be graded, so must the learning experiences and

		activities. Often their grading depends on the subject matter
Stage 7	**Determination of what to evaluate and how to evaluate it**	Evaluation procedures require to be designed to evaluate learning outcomes and determine what objectives have been attained

Table: Taba's Model of curriculum development

TASK B: Answer the following

1) Explain why Taba's model is called the grass-roots model.
2) Do you think teachers should be the main decision-makers in the development of a curriculum? Why?
3) To what extent are teachers involved in developing curricula in your country?

3. Skilbeck's Model

This model was introduced by Skilbeck (1984) in his book *School-based curriculum development*. The school-based curriculum development (SBCD) begins with situational analysis and its main concern is to identify the situation or the context in which the curriculum is used as it is stated by Skilbeck: "the planning, design, implementation and evaluation of the program of students' learning by the educational institution of which those students are members" (p.2). Thus, this model is based on the assumption that the major focus of the curriculum designer must be the individual school and its teachers, i.e. that school-based curriculum development is the most effective way of promoting genuine change at school level. The model has five major components as it is shown in the table below:

Stage 1	**Situational analysis**	a review of the situation (an analysis of the interacting elements that constitute it). Internal factors such as: teachers, students, institutional structures, external factors such as: societal expectations and changes, community values
Stage 2	**Goal formulation**	Goals derive from the situation analysis
Stage 3	**Program-building**	the selection of content to be learnt , the grading of teaching-learning experiences, the deployment of staff and the choice of suitable supplementary materials and resources
Stage 4	**Interpretation and implementation**	
Stage 5	**Monitoring, assessment, feedback and reconstruction**	Evaluating the curriculum and determining to what extent it meets its objectives.

Table: Skilbeck's Model of curriculum development

This model is dynamic and its elements are flexible, interactive and modifiable. It does not require a linear progression through its components, teachers can begin at any stage and activities can develop concurrently.

ADAPTED FROM Clark, J.L. (1987). Curriculum Renewal in School Foreign Language Learning. Oxford: OUP

READING ASSIGNMENT

Read the two texts below and answer the following questions:

1. **Why do you think that in the vision it is emphasised that South Africa should be *free of violence, discrimination and prejudice*?**
2. **What are the goals of the curriculum framework of South Africa?**
3. **How are these educational goals similar or different from those of your country?**

TEXT 1: Educational Philosophy

The initial task of curriculum planners is the identification of an educational vision or philosophy which will form the basis of planning. It reflects the desires of the nation and the major theme paving the way for the future. The vision statement or philosophy provides guidelines for curriculum developers in organising and incorporating programmes and activities into the curriculum. The philosophic vision is usually derived through discussions with various persons in the country and also from reading the literature. Then it is reformulated in the light of realities to enable the vision to be achieved through a process of learning in schools rather than remaining an ideal that is unachievable.

The educational philosophy of an educational system is a reflection of *national policies.* For example, the use of one language of instruction to unite the different communities; free primary education to reduce drop-outs and a common national curriculum to reduce varying interpretations. The educational philosophy will also reflect *national priorities* such as the development aspects of the nation, socio-cultural needs of the people and levels of achievement of the children at different cycles. Development needs have to be identified in relation to the priorities. For example, does the country want more graduates or should the emphasis be on basic education?

In relation to socio-cultural needs, the culture of peace, conflict resolutions etc. could emerge as important aspects that should be highlighted in the school curriculum. The needs of disabled persons and adults who have

lost opportunities for learning have to be incorporated too. Opportunities for vocational and career education have to be provided in the curriculum. Therefore, the vocational interests of students have to be assessed.

In addition, curriculum planners should not only study current *best practices*, customs, and beliefs about education in the local schools but should compare these to the educational research literature on best practices in teaching, learning, and curriculum design. Levels of achievements relate to the understanding of concepts at different grades by children to enable them to complete the skills needed to move on to higher grades. These have to be identified in order to bring quality to learning and avoid wastage in the learning programmes.

TEXT 2: The Vision of South Africa's Curriculum Framework 2005

The curriculum framework is a set of principles and guidelines which provides both a philosophical base and an organizational structure for curriculum development initiatives at all levels, be they nationally, provincially, community or school-based. The vision for South Africa encompasses a prosperous, truly united, democratic and internationally competitive country with literate, creative and critical citizens, leading productive, self-fulfilled lives in a country free of violence, discrimination and prejudice. The realization of this vision requires appropriate, lifelong education, training and development to empower people to participate effectively in all the processes

of a democratic society and to excel in fields like human and natural resource development, human and natural sciences, the arts and technology.

The primary task of educational policy makers is the establishment of a just and equitable education and training system which is relevant, of high quality and is accessible to all learners, irrespective of race, colour, gender, age, religion, ability or language. A priority for both national and provincial education departments is, therefore, the creation of a transformative, democratic, open learning system, fostering in all its users, a strong commitment to lifelong learning and development.

The curriculum framework serves as a strategic intervention designed to facilitate and guide the development of a transformed education and training system in a practicable and sustainable way. It takes as a point of departure, that successful modern economies and societies require citizens with a strong foundation of general education, the desire and ability to continue to learn to adapt to, and develop new knowledge, skills and technologies, to move flexibly between occupations, to take responsibility for personal performance, to set and achieve high standards, and to work cooperatively.

SEMINAR 5
SYLLABUS DESIGN

Nunan (2004, p.176) defines the syllabus as 'a public document' that should comprise a comprehensive list of content items, i.e. structures, words, topics, themes, functions, notions in addition to process items, i.e. tasks and activities. The objectives of the syllabus should be clearly stated and should match with the curriculum goals as the syllabus is a subpart of the curriculum. The syllabus may also specify a time schedule and designate a favored approach or method of teaching. Nunan (2004, p. 177) describes some characteristics of a syllabus as the following:

Characteristics of a syllabus

1. Consists of a comprehensive list of
   - content items (words, structures, topics, ...)
   - process items (tasks, methods)
2. Is ordered (easier, more essential items first)
3. Has explicit objectives (usually expressed in the introduction)
4. Is a public document
5. May indicate a time schedule
6. May indicate a preferred methodology or approach
7. May recommend materials

Nunan (2004, p.177)

The syllabus is thus a blueprint or a road map that is going to regulate what happens in the classroom between the teacher and his/her students. Following Richards and Rodgers (1995, p. 21), the syllabus is "the first component of the level of design" and the other components deal with the use of the syllabus "in the system by the learners and teachers as they interact with the instructional material." (p.21)

Stern (1983, p. 23) maintains that **a theory of language (structuralism, functionalism, interactionism) and language learning (behaviourism, mentalism, constructivism) is implicit in the practice of language teaching and becomes tangible and explicit in the syllabus. A syllabus will thus mirrors a particular view of language and language learning.** Several proposals for syllabus design can be found in the literature, and although each differs somehow in its point of reference, they will all generally overlap meet in their main dichotomies, i.e. **product-oriented / process-oriented syllabuses (a dichotomy introduced by Nunan 2005), Type A / Type B syllabuses (White's distinction 1988) or synthetic / analytic syllabuses (Wilkins' dichotomy 1976).**

A product oriented syllabus focuses on the specific knowledge and skills that learners should master and acquire as a result of instruction. The learner is presented with a series of isolated linguistic units such as grammatical structures or vocabulary. These are taught individually in a linear sequence, and the learner is expected to makea synthesis of

the separated parts and develop the whole system (Wilkins, 1976).

As an example of product-oriented syllabuses is the grammatical syllabus which is considered to be the most common and traditional syllabus. It is characterized by the assumption that language is a system composed of a set of grammatical rules that the learner is expected to learn these rules then apply to practical language use. The syllabus input is graded in terms of simplicity and complexity.

A process-oriented syllabus focuses on the learning experience itself (Nunan, 2004). **The learner is presented with chunks of language and he is expected to analyze language and to break it into meaningful entities. In other words, the learner is required to negotiate meaning and make sense of the language by engaging him in a bank of activities and tasks. This category of syllabuses attempts to answer or address the question of how language is learned, and the starting point is the learning processes learners go through while acquiring knowledge and skills and the communicative purpose for which language is used.** (Nunan, 2004, p. 42)

An example of process-oriented syllabuses is the task-based syllabus which is concerned more with the classroom processes that stimulate learning than with the language knowledge or skills that are supposed to be mastered. This syllabus consists of specification of the tasks and activities that the learner will engage in class in the target language.

Deciding about the theoretical assumptions underlying the syllabus is the first step in the design process. The next step consists of deciding what to include in the syllabus or its components. The suggested components are adapted from Richards and Rodgers' (1995, p.28) framework for syllabus design:

(i) goals and objectives;

(ii) defining content and specifications for selection and grading of content;

(iii) a specification of the role of learners: the kind of learning activities set for the learner, the degree of control learner have over the content, the recommended patterns of learner groupings, the view of the learner as a processor, performer, initiator, problem solver;

(iv) a specification of the role of teachers: the types of functions performed by the teacher, the degree to which the teacher determines the content, the degree of teacher control over learning, the nature of interaction.

(v) on between teachers and learners;

(vi) a specification of the role of materials: their primary goal, their form, their relation to other sources of input, the assumptions the materials make about teachers and learners. Materials are defined as being anything used to facilitate the teaching/ learning process including coursebooks, videos, handouts, flashcards, websites, and videos. It the syllabus that determines what kind of materials will be selected and how they will be exploited in the classroom. Therefore, the materials are not regarded as an alternative to the syllabus, but a tool among others used to fulfill the objectives of the syllabus.

Materials are the most tangible and visible aspect of the syllabus.

(vii) The last component deals with assessment: what do teachers test? And how?

REFERENCES:

Nunan , D. (2004). Syllabus Design. Oxford: OUP.

Wilkins, D.A. (1976). Notional Syllabuses. London: OUP.

SECOND SEMESTER

WEEKS	TOPICS
Weeks1/2	Teaching Materials: Key Concepts and Issues
Weeks3/4	Teaching Materials Design
Weeks5/6	Research Issues on Materials Development
Week7	Features of Good Materials
Week9	Teaching Materials Evaluation
Week10	Teaching Materials Adaptation

SEMINAR 1

TEACHING MATERIALS

KEY CONCEPTS & ISSUES

(1) What is a textbook? In what ways have textbooks changed?

Haines (1996, in Richards, 2001, p. 250) listed the following differences.

BEFORE	NOW
Author and academic centered	Market let
Uncertain global market	Specific fragmented markets
European focus	Pacific rim/Latin American focus
Sell what is published	International or local culture
Culture and methodology of origin	Indigenous learning situations
English for its own sake	English for specific purposes
UK/US publisher dominance	Rise in local publishing
Native speaker expertise	Nonnative speaker competence
Culturally insensitive	Culturally sensitive
Low risk/competition	High-risk/competition
Little design	Design rich
Artificial texts and task	Authenticity
Single-volume titles	Multi-component/multimedia

(2) What are materials?

(3) What role does a textbook (or a set of materials) play in language teaching and learning? Can we teach language without a textbook? If yes, how?

Richards (2001, p. 254-256) listed the following merits and disadvantages of commercial textbooks.

Advantages

- Follow systematic structure and syllabus
- Help standardize instruction
- Maintain high quality
- Provide a variety of resources
- Efficient and convenient
- Train teachers
- Provide visually appealing content

Disadvantages

- Contain inauthentic language
- Contain distorted contents
- Cannot cater for different needs
- May deskill teachers

(4) What do these terms usually refer to *syllabus, curriculum and course*?

A curriculum is concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose, and experience, and the relationship between teachers and learners. (Nunan, p. 3, 1988). Curriculum development is a more comprehensive process than syllabus design. It includes the processes that are used to determine the needs of a group of learners, to determine an appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods and materials, and to carry out an evaluation of the language program.

A syllabus is more localized and is based on the accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and students apply a curriculum to their situation. (Nunan, p. 3, 1988). A syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists what will be taught and tested. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001)

A course is an organized program of language instruction.

REFERNCES

Nunan, D. (1988). Syllabus Design. London: OUP

Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (2001). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching (p. 204). New York: Cambridge University Press.

SEMINAR 2

TEACHING MATERIALS DESIGN

EXAMINING SYLLABUSES

1. Theoretical assumptions behind syllabuses

Views on the nature of language:

- Structural vs. functional perspectives of language;
- What are the basic units of language?

Views on the process of language learning:

- Synthetic vs. analytic perspectives of language learning;
- Behaviourism vs. cognitive perspectives of language development;
- Formal vs. informal perspectives of language learning (i.e., learning vs. acquisition)

Views on language education :

- Process-oriented vs. product-oriented educational perspective;
- Instrumentalistic vs. humanistic perspectives of language education;
- Knowledge-based vs. skill-based language teaching.

Some of these assumptions are competing against each other, some are just taking different perspectives about the same issue. Before actually starting the work of syllabus design, the designers should have had some assumptions, albeit they might be eclectic.

2. Components of syllabuses

Having decided on the underlying assumptions about language and language teaching, the next thing to do in syllabus design is to decide what to include in the syllabus. Below is a list of possible components of syllabuses.

Syllabus Components	
● Aims/Goals	- General statements about what must be accomplished by the end of the course.
● Objectives/Targets/requireme	- Specific statements about what content or skills that students must master in order to attain the goals.
● Non-language outcomes	- Affect cultivation, such as confidence, motivation, interest
● Learning contents	- Learning strategies, thinking skills, inter skills, etc. - Cultural understanding - Knowledge: vocabulary list, grammar items - Skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing
● Implementation	- Functions and notions - Topics - Culture - Approaches/methodologies - Teaching principles

● Assessment/Evaluation: Who, what, how and for what purposes	- Teaching suggestions - Recommendation of textbooks/materials - Who should carry out assessment/evaluation? - What should be evaluated? - How is evaluation best done? - For what purposes should evaluation - be done? - Proficiency tests

3. Types of syllabuses

Grammatical/structural syllabus

The syllabus input is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity. These syllabuses introduce one item at a time and require mastery of that item before moving on to the next.

Functional-notional syllabus

The syllabus input is selected and graded according to the communicative functions that language learners need to perform at the end of the language programme. The functional-notional syllabuses reflect a broader view of language provided by philosophers of language and sociolinguistics.

Functions: the communicative purposes for which we use language, such as identifying, agreeing, offering, approving, inquiring, greeting, advising, apologizing, denying, suggesting, warning, persuading.

Notions: the conceptual meanings expressed through language: such as time, direction, equality, cause, frequency, existence, ownership, duration, size, location.

Topical/content-based syllabus

The content of language learning might be defined in terms of situations, topics, themes, or other academic or school subjects. The stimulus for content syllabuses is the notion that, unlike science, history, or mathematics, language is not a subject in its own right, but merely a vehicle for communicating about something else.

Task-based syllabus

Both task-based and procedural syllabuses share a concern with the classroom processes which stimulate learning. These syllabuses consist of a list of specifications of the tasks and activities that the learners will engage in class.

Integrated syllabus (Multi-syllabus)

Product-oriented vs. process-oriented syllabuses

Product-oriented:

The focus is on the knowledge and skills which learners should gain as a result of instruction.

Process-oriented: The focus is on the learning experiences themselves.

Synthetic vs. analytic syllabuses?

Synthetic: The different parts of language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up.

Analytic: Learners are presented with chunks of language which may include structure of varying degrees of difficulty. The starting point for syllabus design is not the grammatical system of the language, but the communicative purpose for

which language is used. One major assumption for analytic syllabuses is that language can be learned holistically.

GRAMMATICAL SYLLABUSES

(1) Theoretical assumptions

Language is system which consists of a set of grammatical rules. Learning language means learning these rules and then applying them to practical language use. The syllabus input is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity. These syllabuses introduce one item at a time and require mastery of that item before moving on to the next.

(2) Main components

A. A list of grammatical items selected according to the following criteria (Wilkins, 1976; Richards, 2001).

Simplicity
Regularity
Frequency
Contrastive difficulty/linguistic distance

Learnability: what items can be learned at what time? Are students ready to learn certain rules, for example?

Intrinsic difficulty

Communicative need: How often is an item needed in communication?

B. A list of lexical items to be learned (Wilkins, 1976; Richards, 2001, p. 4-14)

Frequency:

Teachability: How easy is it to teach the words? For example, concrete nouns and verbs can be

easily demonstrated by objects or actions. Therefore they have a higher degree of teachability.

Defining power: some words are frequently used to define other words, e.g., container.

Similarity: cognates among languages are easier to learn, for example, table in French and English.

Range: in a frequency count, range is a measure of the distribution of linguistic items throughout a sample, and generally expressed as a measure of the number of texts or samples in which a linguistic item occurs. E.g. in how many texts does a word occur?

Availability: When students are asked to think of the words that can be used to talk about a particular topic, they will be able to think of some words immediately. Those words which they remember first and most easily are said to have high availability.

Coverage: the degree to which a word can be used to replace other words. E.g. "food"

(3) Positive aspects

- Teaching a language through teaching its grammar is a familiar approach many teachers and - students. In many contexts, both teachers and students expect to see grammar in materials.

- Grammar is an important component of language proficiency.

- The system of grammar provides a convenient guidance for syllabus design.

(4) Negative aspects

- It misrepresents the nature of language.

- Language learning does not necessarily occur in a simple additive fashion.

- It is difficult for the syllabus designer to control input and yet at the same time provide language samples for the learner to work on which bear some semblance at least to the sort of language the learner will encounter outside the classroom.

REFERNCES

Doctorate level: Year 1 /2020-2021
Course: Curriculum Analysis and Syllabus Design
Lecturer: Dr. Nesrine Aoudjit-Bessai

ASSIGNMENT

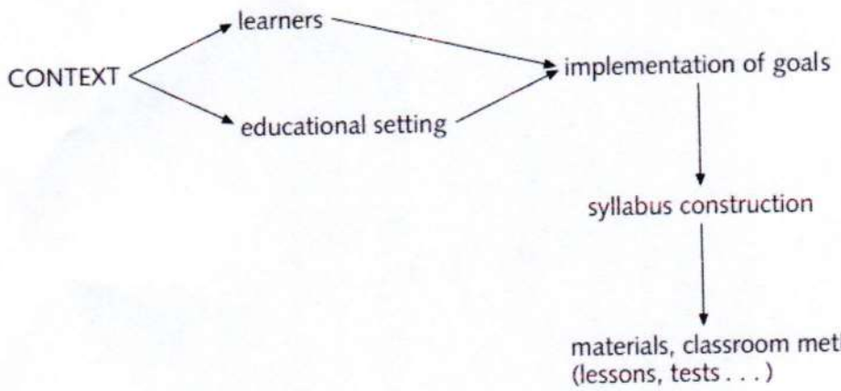

Figure : The framework of language teaching taken from McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013, p. 6)

TASK: Examine the figure above and answer the following:

a) What is meant by "Framework"?

b) Can materials be separated from methods? Explain how they are embedded within a professional context.

c) What does the figure above illustrate?

Doctorate level: Year 1 /2020-2021
Course: Curriculum Analysis and Syllabus Design
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READING ASSIGNMENT

Read the extract below taken from McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013, p. 5-6) and provide a summary of the different components of the framework of language teaching and explain in what ways they are embedded or linked.

"In simple terms, the overall goals of a language teaching programme usually derive from an analysis of the reasons why a group of learners in a particular environment needs to learn English: these goals may be stated in general, educational, or very specific terms. They may, on the one hand, be set out in the large-scale categories of a national language policy with many associated implications for the development of the curriculum. For instance, the aim of English language teaching in Malaysia was earlier stated to be 'to create a society that is able to utilize the language for effective communication as the need arises, and as a key to wider experiences. For those furthering their studies, the skills learned should become an instrument with which they may cope with the necessities of using the language'. The new guidelines for language teaching in Japanese schools include such statements as 'to develop understanding of language and culture through a foreign language . . . to develop a positive attitude towards communication in a foreign language, and a basic practical communication ability in hearing and speaking'. Alternatively, at the other end of the scale, a course may be organized to address a particular learning need for, say, the identifiable purposes of a small group. For instance, a course may be designed 'to meet the needs of learners who need to improve their ability to communicate when socializing, telephoning, making business presentations and taking part in meetings', or 'to help international postgraduate students in English-medium universities develop the writing skills necessary for writing dissertations'. There is, then, a whole spectrum of possibilities for defining the goals of language teaching, for a country, an age group, a whole school, a class or an individual; and whether for general educational purposes, business, scientific development, cultural appreciation or many other reasons.

To define what is meant here by 'framework' we start from the view that materials and methods cannot be seen in isolation, but are embedded within a broader professional context. This is represented in figure 1.1, which shows in a very simplified form the typical stages of planning an English language program.

Whether goals are stated in terms of a national language policy, or in the more

specific environment of, say, a particular school or college, the possibilities for actually implementing them will be directly related both to the learners themselves – their needs, characteristics and so on – and to the whole educational setting in which the teaching is to take place. Obviously, as we shall see in our subsequent discussion, goals need to be realistic for each circumstance. There is little use, for example, in planning for a multimedia example, a pupil's mother tongue may be more, or less, significant depending on whether more than one native language is represented in the classroom, or perhaps on the educational philosophy of that particular environment.

For the moment we can list here the key characteristics of 'the learner', indicating how they might affect planning and noting that they form part of our common frame of reference as language teachers, wherever we work.

Some of these are characteristics of whole groups or subgroups of learners; others are individual and less open to generalization. Again, some can be known in advance and incorporated at the initial planning stage, in principle at least. Others are more appropriately assessed in the classroom environment itself, and as such are more obviously susceptible to teacher reaction and influence.

We consider the learner's:

- Age: this will particularly affect topics chosen and types of learning activity, such as the suitability of games or role play.
- Interests: as with age, this may help in the specification of topics and learning activities.
- Level of proficiency in English: teachers will wish to know this even where their classes are based on a 'mixed proficiency' principle rather than streamed according to level.
- Aptitude: this can most usefully be thought of as a specific talent, in this case for language learning, as something that learners might show themselves to be 'good at', perhaps in contrast to other subjects in a school curriculum. (It can be measured by formal aptitude tests, although they are not very frequently used.) The relationship between aptitude and intelligence is not clear, and is certainly not direct.
- Mother tongue: this may affect, for instance, the treatment of errors or the selection of syllabus items – areas of grammar or vocabulary and so on.
- Academic and educational level: which help to determine intellectual content, breadth of topic choice or depth to which material may be studied.
- Attitudes to learning, to teachers, to the institution, to the target language itself and to its speakers. This is directly related to the following point.
- Motivation, at least in so far as it can be anticipated. Obviously a whole range of factors will affect this.
- Reasons for learning, if it is possible to state them. With school-age pupils this may be less significant than with many adult learners, where it is often possible to carry out quite a detailed analysis of needs.
- Preferred learning styles: which will help in the evaluation of the suitability

of different methods, for instance, whether problem-solving activities could be used, or whether pupils are more used to 'rote learning', where material is learned by heart. Personality: which can affect methodological choices such as a willing acceptance of role play and an interactive classroom environment, or a preference for studying alone, for example.

Many of these factors will affect the learners' needs (for a recent book on needs analysis see Long, 2005)Setting That aspect of the context that we refer to as setting is to be understood here as the whole teaching and learning environment, in a wide sense: it is the factors falling under this heading that will determine whether the aims of a language programme, defined with reference to the learners' needs and characteristics, are actually feasible and realistic. In certain situations, the setting itself may be so significant that it provides the foundation for the specification of aims. This might be the case, for instance, in a country with a single political or religious ideological base, where the education system is primarily an expression of that ideology. In the majority of circumstances, however, the setting is more likely to condition the way in which goals are carried out, and indeed the extent to which they can be.

For most EFL/ESL teachers, therefore, the following factors, in some combination and with varying degrees of significance, will influence course planning, syllabus design, the selection of materials and resources, and the appropriateness of methods:

- The role of English in the country: whether it is a regular means of communication or primarily a subject taught in the school curriculum, where, in turn, it may or may not be the first foreign language. This relates to the linguistic environment, and to whether English is spoken outside class in the community or alternatively never heard.
- The role of English in the school, and its place in the curriculum.
- The teachers: their status, both at national and institutional levels, their training, mother tongue, attitudes to their job, experience, expectations (for a discussion of teachers' needs and wants, see Masuhara, 2011).
- Management and administration: who is responsible for what level of decision, particularly which are the control points for employment of staff, budgets, resource allocation and so on. Additionally, the position of teachers in the overall system needs to be understood, as does the nature of the hierarchy in any particular institution.
- Resources available: books and paper, audio-visual material (hardware and software for cassette and video), laboratories, computers, reprographic facilities and so on. Design and choice of teaching materials will lack of resources, heavy workload and the pressure of exams may still be realities in many teaching contexts (e.g. Hu, 2003; Pham, 2007 to name two).

The conclusion in Gaies and Bowers (1990) still sounds pertinent that 'by coming to grips not only with new ideas but with the evidence of what happens

when they are introduced into the local context, [teachers] equip themselves with the tools for establishing an appropriate methodology that can set realistic national objectives for teacher training and education' (181).

Consider the following short case study of a fairly typical teaching environment. Note how the factors associated with the learner and the teaching situation can affect the organization of the language programme, the materials, the teachers and the methodology. For instance, most aspects are determinedby decisions taken at some distance from the teacher, although teachers' views may have some effect. Again, the classes are on the whole conditioned by the examination system, but a minority of pupils are able to select classes in line with their own interests, which in turn means that teachers may be less bound by coursebooks and able themselves to be more autonomous in choice of materials and methods. In other words, there is a complex set of factors in operation, and the teacher in the classroom is the focus of a variety of pressures and influences, both direct and indirect.

Teacher X works in a secondary school, with pupils ranging in age from 12 to 16. She teaches 30 periods a week, two of which are options selected by older pupils according to their interests. Course materials consist in the main of set textbooks graded according to age and proficiency level and focused heavily but not exclusively on accuracy. Materials are written by a Ministry of Education team according to Ministry guidelines, and teachers' opinions are solicited annually by an Area Language Teaching Adviser. It is government policy to revise materials every eight years.

Average class size is 40 pupils. The pressure of the examination system ensures satisfactory attention, though – since there is little opportunity for travel – learners do not readily perceive the relevance of learning materials to their own lives. The school has a language laboratory and a very small collection of books (mainly stories) written in English. Classrooms are basic but adequate. Very few supplementary English language teaching materials are available, though teachers are encouraged to make their own small-scale resource materials, and to share ideas at local teachers' centres. The school has one computer, so far without Internet access.

This teacher has been to Britain once, on a three-week summer school. She corresponds regularly with an English schoolteacher.

language items to be included in the programme and so on. Finally, 'procedure' refers to techniques and the management of the classroom itself.

The English language teaching profession nowadays has available a range of different types of syllabus from which a choice will be made for a specific situation. So however diverse our teaching contexts, our courses will be based on one, or a combination of, these principles of organization. Although syllabuses typically are written and published documents, their circulation is often restricted to the

particular situation for which they have been drawn up.

Therefore, one of the simplest ways of surveying the types of syllabus available is to examine the contents pages of published English language teaching textbooks, because they reveal the underlying principles and assumptionson which the writers have based their material. At one and the same time, they tell us something both about the approach and the design adopted, thus bringing together principle and practice in a directly observable way.

This is not a book about syllabus design as such, and it will not be necessary or appropriate to analyse each syllabus type in depth here."

Taken from McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013, p. 5-6)

Doctorate level: Year 1 /2020-2021
Course: Curriculum Analysis and Syllabus Design
Lecturer: Dr. Nesrine Aoudjit-Bessai

TASK

Try to characterize the approaches to materials design that the following two tables of contents represent.

Compare them with the textbook(s) you most frequently use: are your materials close to either of these approaches?

Lesson	Grammar	Vocabulary	Functional language	Pronunciation
1A Double lives p6	Stative & dynamic verbs Present simple & present continuous	Verbs with two meanings		
1B Britishness p10	Subject & object questions	Self-image		
1C First impressions p12		Describing people	Describing people	Intonation (lists)
1 Language reference p14				
2A Journeys p16	Present perfect & past simple 1	Phrasal verbs (separable & inseparable)		Word linking
2B Down under p20	Present perfect & past simple 2			
2C Getting around p22		Verb collocations (travel)	Travel	
2 Language reference p24				
3A Dream homes p26	Modals of obligation, permission & prohibition (present time) *Make, let & allow*	Accommodation		
3B Bedrooms p30	Modals of obligation, permission & prohibition (past time)	Verb collocations (sleep)		
3C Dinner date p32		Conversation fillers	Requests	Intonation (requests)
3 Language reference p34				
4A Luck of the draw p36	Past simple & past continuous	Idioms (taking risks)		*Was & were*
4B Coincidences p38		*Both & neither*	Talking about similarities & differences	
4C Twists of fate p40	Past perfect simple	Time linkers Injuries		
4 Language reference p44				
5A Hard sell p46	Comparatives 1 Comparatives 2	Adjectives (advertising) Adjectives (negative prefixes)		/s/, /z/ & /ɪ/
5B The office p50	Comparing nouns	Office activities		
5C Paperwork p52		Office supplies	On the phone	
5 Language reference p54				
6A Summer holiday p56	Future 1 (future plans) Future 2 (predictions)	Holidays 1 Holidays 2		
6B Perfect day p60	Present tenses in future time clauses			
6C Travel plans p62		Collocations with *sound*	Indirect questions	Word stress
6 Language reference p64				

	Reading & Listening	Speaking	Writing (in the Workbook)
1A	R *Liars!* L Radio review of TV programme: *How Michael Portillo became a single mum*	Discussing what people are most likely to lie about Talking about yourself ***Did you know?*** British political parties	A description of a best friend
1B	R *Are you British enough?* Devising a quiz about culture in your country	Discussing answers to a British culture quiz	
1C	L Three conversations in an office	Talking about first impressions	
2A	R *Lawyer gives up job to cycle around South America* L/R Three unusual journeys	Discussing travelling Talking about a film or book of a long journey	A description of a town or city
2B	R An excerpt from a web diary about a trip round Australia	Talking about Australia Planning a journey across your country	
2C	L Three conversations about trying to get somewhere	Talking about daily transport ***Did you know?*** New York & London taxis	
3A	R *Paradise Ridge* L Interviews with residents talking about disadvantages of living in Paradise Ridge L Interviews with people who live in unusual homes	Discussing where you live Designing a luxury holiday home	Advantages and disadvantages
3B	R *6 things you probably didn't know about beds and bedrooms*	Talking about sleeping & dreaming	
3C	L Three conversations at a dinner party	Describing a recent dinner party ***Did you know?*** Food in Britain	
4A	R *Lottery winners and losers*	Inventing a story about a lottery winner	A narrative: Lottery winner
4B	L Conversation: discussing things in common	Identifying & discussing coincidences	
4C	R *The world's luckiest man* L Three bad luck stories	Inventing a bad luck story ***Did you know?*** Superstitions in Britain	
5A	R *Catch them young* L A phone call: credit card telesales	Planning & presenting an advertisement for a mineral water Carrying out a market research survey	An advertisement
5B	R *Office stereotypes*	Planning an office party	
5C	L Ordering office supplies over the phone	Roleplay: phone conversation ordering office supplies ***Did you know?*** London's Mayfair district	
6A	R Questionnaire: *What kind of holiday person are you?* L Six short interviews at the airport	Roleplay: making plans with other holiday makers Planning a holiday for a family group	An extract from a holiday brochure
6B	R *Emerald Tours*	Discussing the perfect day out ***Did you know?*** Cork–European capital of culture	
6C	L Enquiring about flights over the phone	Discussing the different ways men & women think	

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LESSON		GRAMMAR/FUNCTION	VOCABULARY	PRONUNCIATION	READING
UNIT 1 IDENTITY page 7		Video podcast I What does *family* mean to you?			
1.1	Who do you think you are? page 8	question forms including subject versus object questions and questions with prepositions	family	intonation patterns in question forms	read and understand a text about a BBC programme that reveals family histories
1.2	Men and women page 11	review of verb tenses: present and past simple versus present and past continuous	relationships; collocations with *take, get, do, go*	stressed syllables	read a BBC blog about the differences between men and women; read and answer a questionnaire about what women really think
1.3	Tell me about yourself page 14	talking about yourself	interview advice; phrases to introduce questions		read tips on successful interviews
1.4	Second Life page 16		things you can do in Second Life; phrases to describe an avatar		
UNIT 2 TALES page 19		Video podcast I When is it OK to tell a lie?			
2.1	Fact or fiction? page 20	present perfect versus past simple	types of story; focus on prepositions (with expressions of time, nouns and fixed expressions)	strong and weak forms of the present perfect	read a text about whether Hollywood films use fact of fiction
2.2	What really happened? page 23	narrative tenses	the news		read an article about conspiracy theories; read short news stories
2.3	I don't believe it! page 26	telling a story	collocations with *say* and *tell*; sequencers	polite intonation	read a text about how to tell if someone is lying
2.4	Hustle page 28		crime collocations; narrative phrases		
UNIT 3 CONTACT page 31		Video podcast I Can new technology help communication?			
3.1	You're going where? page 32	the future (plans): the present continuous, *going to, will, might*	communication	*going to* in fast speech	read an article about teenage communication
3.2	Getting connected page 35	the future (predictions): will, might, may, could, going to, *likely to*	future time markers; idioms		
3.3	In other words ... page 38	dealing with misunderstandings	types of misunderstandings; phrases to clarify/ask someone to reformulate	intonation: dealing with misunderstandings	read a short story about a misunderstanding
3.4	The virtual revolution page 40		internet communication; phrases for discussing preferences		
UNIT 4 JOBS page 41		Video podcast I Is your job a 'dream job'?			
4.1	Millionaires page 44	modals of obligation: *must, have to, should*	personal qualities; confusing words		read an article about millionaires; read and do a survey about whether you have got what it takes to be a millionaire
4.2	Dream job page 47	*used to* and *would*	strong adjectives	stressed syllables	read about childhood dreams; read job advertisements
4.3	That's a good idea page 50	reaching agreement	business collocations; phrases to give opinions, comments on other opinions and suggestions	sentence stress	read about a programme called *The Apprentice* broadcast on the BBC
4.4	Gavin and Stacey page 52		office conversation; phrases to describe routines		
UNIT 5 SOLUTIONS page 55		Video podcast I Are you good at solving problems?			
5.1	Machines page 56	comparatives and superlatives	technology	main syllable stress in words/phrases	read an article about how technology changed the world; read an essay about the advantages and disadvantages of technology
5.2	Ask the experts page 59	question tags	words related to questions; wors building: adjectives	falling/rising intonation in question tags	read a book review
5.3	It's out of order page 62	polite requests	problems and solutions	polite intonation in requests	read a short text about PC anger in the workplace
5.4	Top Gear page 64		presentation phrases to describe a machine		

IRREGULAR VERBS page 127 LANGUAGE BANK page 128 VOCABULARY BANK page 148

LISTENING/DVD	SPEAKING	WRITING
listen to someone describing their family history	talk about family events: talk about people in your life	write an email of introduction; learn to use formal and informal styles
listen to a set of instructions and do a test	discuss the differences between men and women	
listen to a set of interviews; learn to understand and use DVD-word responses	talk about type of interviews and interview experiences; role-play an interview	
BBC **The Money Programme: Second Life:** watch and understand a documentary about life online	discuss and create a new identity	write answers to a questionnaire
listen to a radio programme about important roles in films	talk about life experiences; talk about your life story	
listen to news reports	talk about an important news story/event	write a news report; learn to use time linkers: *as soon as, while, during, until and by the time*
listen to people telling anecdotes; learn to keep a story going	tell a true story or a lie	
BBC **Hustle:** watch and listen to a drama about a burglar and a famous painting	discuss fictional crime dramas; tell a narrative	write a short newpaper article
	discuss attitudes now in comparison to ones you had earlier in life	write messages; learn to use note form
listen to predictions about the future of communication	talk about how things will change in the future	
listen to telephone conversations involving misunderstandings	learn to reformulate and retell a story about a misunderstanding; role-play resolving a misunderstanding	
BBC **The Virtual Revolution:** watch and understand a documentary about the impact of the internet	talk about communication preferences	write a memo
	discuss the qualities needed for different jobs; complete a survey and discuss the results	
listen to two people describing dream jobs gone wrong	talk about past habits	write a covering letter; learn to organise your ideas
listen to people making decisions in a meeting	learn to manage a discussion; participate in a meeting and create a business plan	
BBC **Gavin and Stacey:** watch and understand a comedy programme about a man's first day in a new job	describe a day in your life	write about daily routines
	discuss how technology has changed the world; talk about different types of transport and their uses	write an advantages versus disadvantages essay; learn to use discourse markers
listen to peole answering difficult general knowledge questions	do a short general knowlege questionnaire; answer questions on your area of expertise	
listen to conversations about technical problems: learn to respond to requests	role-play asking and responding to requests	
BBC **Top Gear:** watch and understand a programme about a race between a car and two people	present and describe a new machine	write an advertisement for a new machine
COMMUNICATION BANK page 158	AUDIO SCRIPTS page 164	

Source: A. Clare and J. Wilson, Contents pages from *Speakout Intermediate Student's Book*. Pearson Longman, 2011. Reprinted with permission of Pearson Education Ltd.

SEMINAR 3

RESEARCH ISSUES ON MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

Major controversies in the field of materials development in language teaching:

QUESTION ONE: **Do learners need a coursebook?**

ANSWER: YES

WHY?

- convenient form of presenting materials
- achieve consistency and continuation
- give students a sense of system, cohesion and progress
- help learners revise
- help teachers prepare for lessons

ANSWER: No

WHY?

- superficial and reductionist in its coverage of language points and in its provision of language experience
- cannot cater for the diverse needs
- impose uniformity of syllabus and approach
- removes initiative and power from teacher (deskill teachers, jack richards)

2) Should materials be learning-focused or acquisition focused?

- The debate about conscious learning vs. subconscious learning is reflected in materials development
- Most language textbooks aim at explicit learning of language plus practice: explicit learning of discrete features of the language
- Some materials aim at facilitating informal acquisition of

communicative competence through activities such as storytelling, discussions, projects, games, simulations and drama performance.

- Currently, most coursebooks still follow an approach of form-focused instruction, with communicative activities added.

3) Should texts be contrived or authentic?

CONTRIVED TEXTS:

- Materials aiming at explicit learning usually contrive examples of the language which focus on the features being taught. These examples usually are short, easy texts or dialogues. It is believed these examples help the learners by focusing on the target feature.

AUTHENTIC TEXTS:

- Contrived texts over-protect the learners and do not prepare them for the reality of language use, whereas authentic texts can provide meaningful exposure to language as it is usually used. It has a strong motivating effect on the learners.

4) Should materials be censored?

- In order to avoid giving offense, publishers and writers try to avoid taboo topics in materials writing, such as sex, drugs, alcohol, religion, violence, politics, history and pork, which could distress or embarrass the learners.
- However, some argue that published materials are too bland. The world in the EFL coursebooks is "safe, clean, harmonious, benevolent, and undisturbed". Provocative texts which stimulate an affective response are more likely to facilitate learning than neutral texts.

5) Other controversies include whether materials should:

- be driven by theory or by practice
- be driven by syllabus needs, learners' needs or market needs
- Cater for learner expectations or try to change them [some people claim the purpose of education is to change the learner].
- cater for teacher needs and wants as well as those of learners
- aim for language development only or should also aim for personal and educational development
- aim to contribute to teacher development as well as language learning.

Some trends in recently published materials:

- There is a similarity between new coursebooks from different publishers.
- There is a return to a greater emphasis on language form and the centrality of grammar.
- More books are making use of corpus data reflecting actual language use.
- There are activities that require investment by the learners in order for them to make discoveries.
- There are more interactive learning packages that make use of different media to provide a richer experience of language learning.

Adapted from Tomlinson, B. (1998). *Materials Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

SEMINAR 4

FEATURES OF GOOD MATERIALS

- **Materials should achieve impact**

Good materials should attract the learners' curiosity, interest and attention. Of course they should also make sure the learning really takes place when the learners use the materials. It is not necessarily enough that learners enjoy the materials. Materials can achieve impact through:

- Novelty: being new
- Variety: different activities/tasks, different texts, different voices, etc.)
- Attractive layout: attractive colors, photographs, space
- Appealing content: topics of interest to the target learners; topics which offer the possibility of learning something new; engaging stories; universal themes; local references.

- **Materials should help learners to feel at ease**

Layout of presentation: lots of white space.

The students should be able to relate the texts and illustrations to their own culture.

The materials try to help the students learn rather than testthem.

- **Materials should help learners to develop confidence**
- **Materials should meet learners' needs:** What is covered in the materials should be relevant and useful to the learner.
- **Materials should require and facilitate learner self-**

investment Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught

- **Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use: The learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input.**
- **Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.**
- **Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction (teaching) are usually delayed:** Research into SLA shows that it is a gradual rather than an instantaneous process and that this is equally true for instructed learning (formal learning). So it is important for materials to recycle instruction and to provide frequent and ample exposure to the instructed language features in communicative use.
- **Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles:** Activities should be variable and should cater for all learning styles so all learners can benefit. Different styles of learning:
  - Visual
  - Auditory
  - Kinaesthetic
- **Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective factors: attitudes and motivation.**
- **Materials should maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement which stimulates both**

right and left brain activities: Enable the learners to receive information through different cerebral processes and in different states of consciousness so that it is stored in many different parts of the brain, maximizing recall.

- **Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.**

Adapted from Tomlinson, B. (1998). *Materials Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

SEMINAR 5

TEACHING MATERIALS EVALUATION

1. Why do we evaluate materials?

- We carry out systematic evaluations of materials currently in use in order to find out to what degree and why they (do not) facilitate language learning so that we can identify the popular and successful features of existing materials, which will help us to produce better materials.
- We evaluate existing materials with a view to choosing suitable materials for language programmes.
- We evaluate the materials that we have already chosen or that have been chosen for us so that we can adapt the materials in order to make them better suit the needs of the students and the needs of teaching.
- We also evaluate the materials produced by ourselves so that necessary revisions can be made.

2. Principles in materials evaluation

There are two principles in materials evaluation: effectiveness and efficiency (Ellis 1998, in Tomlinson 1998).

Effectiveness principle: Is a course book effective in meeting the needs of the learners? To answer this question, the evaluator needs to compare what the learners knew and were able to do before they used the course book with what they know and are able to do after they have used the book;

Efficiency principle: Does a course book meet the needs of the learners more effectively than some alternative course books? To investigate efficiency, it is necessary

to compare the learning gains evidenced by using one course book with the gains evidenced by another course book.

3. Approaches to materials evaluation

A) *Ad hoc* impressionistic evaluation vs. systematic evaluation

An *ad hoc* impressionistic evaluation is based on intuitions, impressions, and experience of using materials.

In an ad hoc evaluation, valid methodological considerations may give way to eye-catching appearance.

Ad hoc impressionistic evaluation can be biased by misconceptions about what 'desirable' materials should look like. Both classroom teachers and specialized researchers can have these misconceptions. Think about why.

A systematic evaluation is based on specification of objectives, principles and procedures adopted or embedded in materials. A systematic evaluation is best done in a longitudinal fashion, which has three stages: pre-use evaluation, whilst-use evaluation and post-use evaluation.

Systematic evaluation needs more theoretical background in language learning and more expertise in materials development.

B) Internal evaluation vs. external evaluation

An internal evaluation focuses on the internal accountability of the materials, e.g. the theoretical assumptions behind the materials; the intended objectives and the extent to which the objectives have been realized; the justification of language selection and grading; the design of activities and tasks.

An external evaluation examines the extent to which a set of materials meets the needs of a particular group of learners, the syllabus, and the examination, i.e. whether a set of materials is suitable for a group of students.

N.B.: McDonough & Shaw (1993) distinguishes between "external evaluation" and "internal evaluation", both of which focus on the evaluation of materials "as they are", rather than relate what's in the materials to the needs of the students. So both types belong to internal evaluation outlined above.

4. Frameworks and checklists for materials evaluation

In order to make materials evaluation more operable and easier to conduct, many frameworks or checklists have b

een developed.

PHASE ONE: Initial questions

I. What do the materials aim to do and what do they contain?

1. subquestions
2. subquestions
3. subquestions

II. What do the materials make your learners do while they are learning?

III. How do the materials expect you to teach the learners in the classroom?

IV. Are the materials the only resource in classroom language learning?

PHASE TWO: Your learners and the materials

I. Are the materials appropriate to your learners' needs and interests?

II. Are the materials appropriate to your learners' own approaches to language learning?

III. Are the materials appropriate to the classroom teaching/learning process?

IV. Seven design features of materials for classroom work

V. Discovering learners' criteria for good materials

B) Dougill's framework **(Dougill 1987, in Sheldon 1987, ELT Document 126)**

FRAMEWORK

THE UNITS

SUBJECT-MATTER

FORM

COURSE COMPONENTS

C) Littlejohn's framework for analyzing materials (Littlejohn 1998, in Tomlinson 1998, pp.214-6)

Publication

1. Place of learners' materials in the set
2. publication form: worksheets vs. bound book; durable vs. consumable
3. Subdivision of materials into sections;
4. Subdivision of sections into sub-sections
5. Continuity
6. Route (whether teaching order is predetermined; i.e. can a section be skipped)
7. Access (how access into the materials is supported, for example, whether there are contents lists, wordlists, and indexes)

Design

1. Aims
2. Principles of selection
3. Principles of sequencing
4. Subject matter and focus of subject matter
5. Types of learning/teaching activities

6. Participation: who does what with whom

7. Learner roles

8. Teacher roles

9. Role of materials as a whole

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14. Types of learning/teaching activities

15. Participation: who does what with whom
16. Learner roles
17. Teacher roles
18. Role of materials as a whole

Adapted from Tomlinson, B. (1998). *Materials Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

SEMINAR 6

MATERIALS ADAPTATION

1. Why do we need to adapt materials?

Despite the great effort that textbook writers make to meet the needs of the intended users, textbooks are subject to adaptation when they are actually used in the classroom. After all, most commercial textbooks are not written for any particular class. What makes the matter worse is that sometimes the teachers are compelled to use certain materials, that is, materials imposed by authorities. In a word, in most ELT cases, teachers have to adapt the materials they are using if they want their teaching to be more effective and more interesting. Materials adaptation should be based on the results of materials evaluation. Of course different materials have different potential areas for adaptation. The following are some common deficiencies of existing ELT materials:

- fail (unable) to fulfil the goals and objectives specified by national or local syllabuses or curricula
- fail to fulfil the goals and objectives of schools where the materials are used
- cannot be finished in the time available
- require facilities or equipment or other supporting materials that are not available
- not engaging the learners' personality
- detrimental to the learners' culture
- not cater to the learners' interests

McDonough and Shaw (1993, p.86) have listed more reasons for materials adaptation. The most

important reason is that there is mismatch between what is needed and what is provided by materials.

2. Principles of materials adaptation

Grant (1987) has listed the following principles for materials adaptation:

1) Making dialogues communicative

2) Making learning activities relevant and purposeful

3) Meet your learners' needs, both external and psychological

4) Use models of real, authentic language

Very often, adaptation involves supplementation, that is, teachers add materials from other resources to the textbook they are using. It is believed that authentic materials are better than non-authentic materials for supplementation. So teachers who make a point of collecting authentic materials find it much easier to adapt textbooks. This is especially true in ELT contexts where authentic English materials are not always readily to hand.

What should be avoided in materials adaptation?

1) Teachers should not adapt materials too casually, e.g. based on his or her own preferences or tastes;
2) Materials adaptation should not be done at the expense of completeness and overall framework of the materials.
3) Materials deleted or added should not go beyond a reasonable proportion, otherwise consider alternative materials.
4) Teachers should not adapt materials only to cater for the needs of exams or tests.

3. Level of materials adaptation: Textbook adaptation can be done at three levels:

1) Macro adaptation

This is ideally done before the language programme begins. After comparing what is covered in a

textbook and what is required by the syllabus or examination, the teacher may find that certain areas or even whole units of the book can be omitted, and certain contents need to be supplemented. Macro adaptation is very important because it helps to avoid waste of time and energy of the teacher and the students as well. It also helps the teacher to see in advance what he or she needs to supplement so that he or she can keep an eye on materials that could be used.

2) Adapting a unit

This could be reordering the activities, combining activities, omitting activities, rewriting or supplementing exercise material, etc. Unit adaptation helps to make the classroom teaching more smooth and cohesive. It also helps the teacher to better fulfil the aims of a unit.

3) Adaptation of specific activities

Occasionally an activity is regarded as valuable, but it is not well-designed or it is not feasible in a particular class. If the teacher does not want to give up the activity, he or she needs to adapt it.

4. Specific adaptation

Maley (1998:281, in Tomlinson, 1998) suggested the following options for materials adaptation:

- **Omission:** the teacher leaves out things deemed inappropriate, offensive, unproductive, etc., for the particular group.
- **Addition:** where there seems to be inadequate coverage, teachers may decide to add to textbooks, either in the form of texts or exercise material.
- **Reduction:** where the teacher shortens an activity to give it less weight or emphasis.

- **Extension:** where an activity is lengthened in order to give it an additional dimension. (for example, a vocabulary activity is extended to draw attention to some syntactic patterning.)
- **Rewriting/modification:** teacher may occasionally decide to rewrite material, especially exercise material, to make it more appropriate, more "communicative", more demanding, more accessible to their students, etc.
- **Replacement:** text or exercise material which is considered inadequate, for whatever reason, may be replaced by more suitable material. This is often culled from other resource materials.
- **Re-ordering:** teachers may decide that the order in which the textbooks are presented is not suitable for their students. They can then decide to plot a different course through the textbooks from the one the writer has laid down.
- **Branching:** teachers may decide to add options to the existing activity or to suggest alternative pathways through the activities. (for example, an experiential route or an analytical route.)

Adapted from Tomlinson, B. (1998). *Materials Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Introduction

What Is Curriculum and Why Does It Matter?

EVERYONE WHO discusses teachers, schools, or education uses the term *curriculum*. The word is unavoidable. Few people, however, stop to think about what curriculum means or what it takes to create a good curriculum. Even fewer people ask questions about what curriculum is *for*, what should serve as the proper foundation for curriculum making, and how we should go about making curriculum decisions. These decisions should tie knowledge together, build community, and serve the common good. This book is about these questions and these goals. The best place to start is by making a distinction between curriculum and education.

■ Curriculum versus Education

Curriculum is the heart of education. The reason is twofold. First, curriculum is about what should be taught. Second, it combines thought, action, and purpose. "Education" is an abstract, nebulous concept that takes place through families, churches, the media, and many other cultural influences that surround children.[1] Curriculum, however, is a specific, tangible subject that is always tied to decision making within institutions, whether they are schools, churches, nonprofit agencies, or governmental programs. Unlike education, curriculum requires those who discuss it to address what subject matter should be taught. Education is frequently discussed without regard to subject matter, but every discussion of curriculum must address subject matter in one way or another. At the same time, subject matter is only one source of content

for curriculum making. Social scientific studies in education often focus so exclusively on process that they seriously neglect, if not downright ignore, curriculum. This tendency to discuss "education" without addressing curriculum is a significant barrier that curriculum specialists, teachers, and indeed the general public must overcome if we expect to create good schools.

In addition to subject matter, curriculum raises numerous questions about sources of content for curriculum making. For example, any curriculum must address *why* subject matter should be taught. Because of its history and etymology, curriculum is inevitably a teleological term. This *why* aspect of curriculum must take into account questions of purpose and ultimate goals. Unlike much "education" debate today, curriculum cannot be discussed—let alone created—without addressing this question of purpose. Subject matter is of course one of the sources of knowledge that must be included in a curriculum. At the same time, however, subject matter—think of history, literature, or science—is primarily a tool that teachers and curriculum makers use to achieve the larger goals embedded in any curriculum. The topic of curriculum raises these questions not only because of its history, but also because the term is tied to institutions, which must communicate their reasons for existence if they expect to flourish.[2]

Education is almost always discussed as if it were a modern social science disconnected from ultimate ends. Our modern, empirically driven culture deinstitutionalizes "education," stripping it of its teleological roots. It is much more difficult, however, to do this with curriculum. Curriculum has retained its institutional identity in the face of our modern world. Concentrating on curriculum can help us to rediscover the deeper ideals that were once foundational to education.

Recognizing this distinction between curriculum and education also helps us to become more effective teachers, more thoughtful curriculum makers, and more astute consumers of educational rhetoric. Focusing on curriculum enables us to become better citizens because of the renewed sense of purpose that deliberations about curriculum can provide, whether they take place in schools, homes, churches, legislatures, or anywhere else. Distinguishing between education and curriculum can help us to realize that much of what passes for talk about "education" today is shallow and devoid of meaning, if not deceptive.

Curriculum is distinct from education in other ways as well. Curriculum forces us to think about ethics, whereas education is frequently discussed as if it can be divorced from questions of right and wrong. Curriculum is about the substance of what should be taught (an ethical matter), whereas "education" is often presented as if it can or should be a social science disconnected from the moral question of curriculum. "Education" is analyzed in this way whether the conversation takes place in elementary schools, high schools, community colleges, universities, think tanks, the legislature, or the media. We often find people with backgrounds in economics, psychology, and political science making pronouncements about "what must be done" in education. Rarely, however, do these "experts" address the moral question of curriculum. The basis for their claims about "education" almost always derives from their standing as specialized researchers who explain social phenomena, not as citizens who contribute to curriculum deliberation.[3]

Explanations about social phenomena have real value. By themselves, however, they do not provide us with what we need to make good curriculum decisions. The source can be economics, psychology, sociology, history, or any other intellectual specialty, but the result is the same. Explanations can be *useful* in making curricular decisions, but they are not sufficient in and of themselves for making curriculum. The attempt to separate education as a social science from curriculum as a moral practice is not only impossible, but dangerous. Trying to create a science of education divorced from curriculum is equal to training someone how to fire a weapon but failing to teach them when and why to do it.

Now is a momentous time, however, in intellectual history. Recent changes in social science and moral philosophy indicate that the twenty-first century will be a time of reintegrating the social sciences and moral philosophy.[4] Specialists in curriculum (or curriculists as this text refers to them) and others who make curriculum decisions need to pay attention to what is happening in other fields that integrate theory and practice. One example is medicine.[5] There was a time when discussions of medicine attempted to be "objective" and value-free, but no longer. Recent debates about healthcare reform illustrate this point powerfully. Like medicine, education and curriculum cannot be "objective" or value-free. The language that surrounds so-called scientific debates about education does not do a good job integrating theory

and practice, nor does it succeed at combining social science and moral philosophy. This book will make the case that the language of curriculum deliberation has a much better chance of succeeding at this task.

A major goal of *Curriculum* is to help anyone interested in educational improvement to recognize when rhetoric about education is masking the underlying *curricular* issues that are the essence of education. Many people—in the media and elsewhere—make pronouncements using the word *education*, when in reality they are making assertions about curriculum without even realizing it. Often these assertions about "what must be done" in the name of education are incomplete, hollow, and doctrinaire. This book addresses this problem by providing an introduction to five curricular traditions and then offering a deeper vision for what curriculum is, can, and should be. The goal is for readers to reenvision what can and should be done in the name of education by infusing our approach to education with a richer conception of curriculum. A significant first step is to think and speak more clearly about curriculum at all levels.

One of the main reasons schools struggle is because states have spent a great deal of time and money on the creation of efficient systems of education but have ignored the most significant ingredient in any school: its curriculum. Spending money to create large systems of schooling while ignoring curriculum would be like dedicating billions of dollars to create a new space shuttle but allocating little time or money to the path the ship will take, the purpose of the space program, or the characteristics of the people who will pilot the ship.

Perhaps we have ceased to engage in meaningful deliberations about curriculum because we have stopped asking deeper questions about the purpose of schooling. If that is the case, curriculum can help us to raise these questions again. We cannot, must not, and should not continue to evade discussions of curriculum by allowing social science researchers to make assertions about what must be done in education while at the same time dismissing the term, topic, and moral practice of curriculum making. That is one of the central arguments of this book. Educators at all levels—and especially curriculum specialists—need to learn how and why to ask challenging *curricular* questions, which are inevitably moral, social, and political in nature. Asking curricular questions in the face of rhetoric from empirical specialists can be difficult, but asking them is essential if we are to provide a liberating

curriculum to all young people. Not only curriculum specialists, but also members of the general public need to learn to ask curriculum questions.

■ Curriculum Questions

What should be taught, to whom, under what circumstances, how, and with what end in mind? Put more concretely, what should be taught to these students, in this school, at this time, how, and to what end? What process should we use to decide what our curriculum ought to be within a particular school, college, or university context? These are *curriculum* questions. They are *not* questions that can be answered only with economics, psychology, political science, history, biology, mathematics, or any other intellectual specialty. They also cannot be answered only by looking at the skills that employers want their workers to possess. Curriculum questions can only be answered through thoughtful inquiry into *curriculum*. This point seems so obvious, but it is often forgotten in heated debates about schooling.

Curriculum is at the center of every controversial issue within teaching and schooling today. Debates rage on with regard to moral education, sex education, religious education, state-mandated testing, intelligent design, whole language versus phonics in the teaching of reading, prayer in schools, and other hot-button topics. What is the common theme that unites these debates? At their foundation, they are curricular in nature. Partisan advocates for one view or another may discuss these issues as if they are about education, but in reality they are about curriculum and education *at the same time*. They are curricular because they are ethical and teleological, leading us inevitably to the subject of purpose.

What is curriculum? What is it *for*? *Who* is it for? Who should make curriculum decisions? How should these decisions be made? How should we structure the decision-making process? What should we do to make a good curriculum, and what should people who specialize in curriculum development (or curriculum deliberation) do in order to make curriculum better? What characteristics, or virtues, should these people possess? Dealing with these questions is essential if an educational institution expects to be effective—and indeed successful—in any long-term, substantive way.

Theoretic debates routinely take place in state legislatures or in the U.S. Senate, but at some point any abstract

political battle must come into contact with real-world practical decision making in classrooms and schools. This book is about this transition that always takes place between theoretic visions for what curriculum "must do" or "should do" and the practical, decision-making world of classrooms and schools. Good curriculum making takes into account both of these extremes as well as all points in between.

What should be the nature of this transition between vision and classroom decision making? How should we take theoretic plans for what curriculum must or should do and turn these plans into an enacted curriculum within a particular classroom, school, or school district? What should be the internal and external characteristics of the curriculists who have worked to understand this transition and, as a result, can help it to take place more smoothly?

In addressing these questions, the purpose of this book is twofold. It begins by describing five curriculum traditions that have been powerful for hundreds of years. I have attempted to discuss these five traditions in a manner that presents their strengths and weaknesses as fairly as possible. Nevertheless, readers should recognize that the deliberative tradition, discussed in chapter 6, is the one that I believe provides the best foundation for high-quality curriculum and teaching. Whether they are reading this book for a course or on their own, I hope readers will find a way to challenge my view that a deliberative tradition provides the best way forward. Secondly, this book uses specific cases, drawn from my background as a curriculum specialist and teacher, to show how the deliberative tradition operates in practice. The case studies provide students of curriculum with the opportunity to discuss and deliberate about the unique, contextual problems that always surround curriculum decisions.

■ Why Curriculum Matters

Another hope I have for this book is that readers will discover that curriculum turns out to be a quite exciting subject, despite the reputation it may have as a boring topic. Instead of merely a lesson plan or a list of boring topics, curriculum turns out to matter as a subject, a field of study, and a moral practice. In this respect, curriculum shares many characteristics with philosophy, specifically moral philosophy. People write books, take courses, share views, and engage in disagreements about what curriculum is and should be. For

these reasons, curriculum is a subject that will never go away, especially in our modern society that relies on institutions, credentialing, and structure. Curriculum also parallels philosophy because both fields attempt to see knowledge, reality, and practice in their entirety. Both aim to see the relationships between the various fields by concentrating on the "big picture" while at the same time developing specialization in one area, for example, continental philosophy in the field of philosophy or science curriculum in the field of curriculum. In addition, curriculum and philosophy both rely upon reason and logic, but both also can be tied closely to matters of religion and faith.

Curriculum matters as a specialized field of study as well. Universities, national and state departments of education, local school districts, and individual schools rely upon curriculum specialists. If curriculum specialists are to be employed in these roles, they need specialized preparation that will help them and the institutions they serve. In our world of competing interest groups and conflicting views on a host of social and political topics, curriculum specialists must be creative, thoughtful, and socially astute people who understand the various levels of curriculum planning and execution. During their preparation in graduate school or as undergraduates, the best curriculum specialists have studied state curriculum guidelines, but they also know how to take these documents and shape them appropriately within specific institutional contexts. Making this transition between curriculum as an abstract document and curriculum as a living classroom force requires that curriculists be taught how and why curriculum is as much a moral practice as it is a body of knowledge.

Curriculum is about taking a subject, preparing it for classroom use, and following through so that it makes a lasting impact on students. This shift from curriculum as an abstract body of knowledge to curriculum as a social force requires those who make curriculum decisions to address questions of teleology, ethics, and local circumstances. Specialized knowledge of one area outside of curriculum—whether it be mathematics, history, or chemistry—is essential but not sufficient when the task is curriculum making. The sooner we liberate curriculum from the idea that it is nothing but subject matter sequentially organized in an abstract way, the sooner we will be on our way to realizing the ideal of a liberating curriculum for all.

APPENDIX 2

CHAPTER 7

The ELT Curriculum: A Flexible Model for a Changing World

Denise Finney

INTRODUCTION

It is clear that it is no longer enough to teach merely the structures and rules of a language – the myriad approaches to curriculum design which have sprung up in the last four decades under the umbrella of 'the communicative approach' have illustrated the shortcomings and lack of relevance of the grammar-systems model of language teaching. Language is communication, and as teachers we must develop in our learners the ability to communicate effectively in a wide range of professional and social contexts. But is it possible to *teach* a language within the four walls of a classroom? I think not – and so we also need to help our learners to learn how to learn and to keep on learning. I would like to quote the famous educator Carl Rogers, who makes a strong plea for learner- and learning-centred learning as the only possible model for education in a world that is changing faster than ever before:

> We are, in my view, faced with an entirely new situation in education where the goal of education, if we are to survive, is the *facilitation of change and learning*. The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has realized that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of *seeking* knowledge gives a basis for security. Changingness, a reliance on *process* rather than upon static knowledge, is the only thing that makes any sense as a goal for education in the modern world. (Rogers, 1983, p. 120)

In this paper, I will briefly survey three dominant models of curriculum design which are rooted in educational traditions and see how they relate to the field of English language teaching (ELT). I will then propose a model for curriculum design which provides the teacher with the security of a coherent framework within which there is the flexibility to respond to the changing needs of learners and which recognises learners as active participants in

the language learning process. This integrated, mixed-focus model is concerned both with the *products* of learning in which teachers *equip* the learners with the "knowledge, skill or pattern of behaviour envisaged as educational ends" (Prabhu, 1987, p. 190) and with the *processes* of learning, which Prabhu refers to as the "enabling procedure . . . a process of developing the learner's capacity to extend and adapt what is learnt in the face of varied and emerging demands" (ibid.).

Curriculum: A Definition

The term *curriculum* is open to a variety of definitions; in its narrowest sense it is synonymous with the term *syllabus*, as in specification of the content and the ordering of *what* is to be taught; in the wider sense it refers to all aspects of the planning, implementation and evaluation of an educational program, the *why, how* and *how well* together with the *what* of the teaching-learning process. A.V. Kelly, in his survey of curriculum theory and practice, makes a strong case for understanding *curriculum* as 'the overall rationale for the educational programme of an institution' and argues that any definition must include the following:

> the intentions of the planners, the procedures adopted for the implementation of those intentions, the actual experiences of the pupils resulting from the teachers' direct attempts to carry out their or the planner's intentions, and the 'hidden learning' that occurs as a by-product of the organization of the curriculum, and, indeed, of the school. (Kelly, 1989, p. 14)

From the field of applied linguistics, a similar definition of curriculum is proposed by Richards, Platt and Platt in the Longman *Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (1992, p. 94):

An educational programme which states:

a. the educational purposes of the programme (the ends)
b. the content, teaching procedures and learning experiences which will be necessary to achieve this purpose (the means)
c. some means for assessing whether or not the educational ends have been achieved

These definitions also imply the *who*, the participants within the curriculum design process: the planners, the administrators, the teachers and the learners.

Although there has been a long history of research and development of curriculum theory and practice within the field of education in general, the field of Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language (ESL or EFL) has largely ignored or been isolated from mainstream developments, informed rather by research in linguistics and applied linguistics. In recent years, there has been an increasing awareness by ESL/EFL practitioners and theorists that indeed there are parallels (Stern, 1983; Richards, 1984; Nunan, 1988; Johnson, 1989), and that curriculum theory has much to offer:

> Changes in thought on language and language learning and changes in educational policy constantly impinge on language pedagogy, and curriculum change frequently occurs. Unfortunately, language pedagogy has not yet much use of the available collective wisdom in curriculum theory to cope with curriculum decisions in an economical and effective way.
>
> Educational theory provides a broad framework and essential concepts for language pedagogy (Stern, 1983, pp. 442, 446).

Models of Curriculum Planning

Both Clark (1987) and White (1988) refer to the framework developed by Skilbeck (1982) to explore the 'value systems' underlying educational traditions, and relate it to language teaching. The three traditions are identified as Classical Humanism, Reconstructionism and Progressivism, which they relate to the structural grammar/systems approach, the notional-functional syllabus, and the process-procedural approach, respectively.

THE CONTENT MODEL: CLASSICAL HUMANISM

The central focus of the curriculum in this model is the content of what is to be learned by, or transmitted to, the learner. In the Classical Humanist tradition, the content is a valued cultural heritage, the understanding of which contributes to the overall intellectual development of the learner; and, from the point of view of epistemological objectivism, the content is knowledge which has been identified and agreed to be universal, unchanging and absolute. This model has been the dominant philosophy underlying the history of the Western educational system for centuries, derived from theories of knowledge going back to Aristotle and Plato. Its attraction lies in the fact that most people, when challenged, would have fairly definite ideas of what they consider as essential to a 'good' education, for example, literature, ethics/religion, the physical sciences, the biological sciences, history, a second language, with a resultant ability in the learner "to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgements, to discriminate among values" (Hirst, 1965, p. 2). Undoubtedly, this owes much to the power this model holds over us as products of a largely content-based curriculum.

However, as Kelly (1989, pp. 45–46) points out, the model is inadequate as the basis for curriculum design because it is unable to cope with a discussion of the wider purposes of education, and does not take into account the abilities or problems of the individual learner or the complexities of the learning proces itself. In the era of globalisation and the growth of multicultural societies, it cannot justify the transmission of one particular culture; within the ethos of 'education for all' it is unable to take account of the widely differing needs of a massive student population, where the 'educated' are no longer an elite trained to rule the next generation of workers; as the basic premises of science no longer rest on objective, logical, value-free theories but are shaken by the discoveries and uncertainties of quantum physics, the foundations of universal knowledge are no longer secure and an educational philosophy based on these foundations is no longer acceptable.

That is not to say that 'content' has no role whatsoever in curriculum design, only that as a model it is too simplistic, and too much a product of an earlier, very different society, to be the central planning factor for curricula today.

In the field of English language teaching, this model underpins the grammar-based curriculum, where the syllabus is concerned with the grammar and vocabulary of the language. If we return to Richards's definition of curriculum, then the *purposes* of the programme are to transmit knowledge of the language system to the learners and to ensure that they master the grammar rules and vocabulary of the language; the *content*, or the syllabus, is a selection and sequencing of individual grammar points and lexis; the *teaching procedures* and *learning experiences* will include drilling of grammatically correct sentences, explanations of theory and memorization of lists of vocabulary; and *assessment* is based on the learner's ability to produce grammatically accurate language. The starting point for the grammar-based curriculum, then, is the target language as a relatively fixed concept and it largely ignores factors such as context, appropriacy of use, modes of discourse or individual learner needs; as such, it reflects an essentialist (or objectivist) approach to meaning.

With the advent of the communicative approach to language learning in the late 1960s and 1970s, this approach to language curriculum design has increasingly fallen out of

favour. Although it still has a place in content for syllabus design, as a basis for planning a curriculum, the grammar-based approach is not the primary factor.

THE OBJECTIVES MODEL: RECONSTRUCTIONISM

The starting point for this model of curriculum planning is no longer the content, but the *objectives* of the teaching-learning program; as such, it relates to the second educational tradition identified by Skilbeck (1982), Reconstructionism, where the main purpose of education is to bring about some kind of social change. Its origins lie in the movement for the scientific management of education and the work of behavioural psychologists in the first half of the twentieth century, who defined learning as a process of observable changes in behaviour which could be measured. It was the influential curriculum designer R. W. Tyler who promoted the use of behavioural objectives as the basis for curriculum design in the 1930s, long before the movement really took off in the 1960s, when Mager (1962) published *Preparing Instructional Objectives*, and gave the clearest definition available of behavioural objectives, as having three essential characteristics:

1. They must unambiguously describe the behaviour to be performed.
2. They must describe the conditions under which the performance will be expected to occur.
3. They must state a standard of acceptable performance (the criterion).

Today, there is a welter of terms used to describe intended learning outcomes: performance indicators, learning objectives, performance objectives, expected outputs which are particularly relevant to the business ethos and the emphasis on public or client accountability which form some of the constraints within which educational development takes place.

The attraction of the model is that it provides:

1. *Clarity of goals*: The objectives of a learning programme are clear to both the teacher and the learners, which facilitates the selection of learning materials and activities.
2. *Ease of evaluation*: Where there are clearly specified objectives, the success of the learners, and of the programme, can easily and accurately be evaluated to the extent that the objectives have been fulfilled.
3. *Accountability*: In both formal and business sectors, the model provides clear methods for needs identification, establishing learning purpose and providing measurable 'products' of the educational programme.

Some severe criticisms of the approach have been summarised by Kelly (1989), and he points out that the most fundamental criticism is that philosophically it reduces people to the level of automatons who can be trained to behave in particular ways and precludes such concepts as autonomy, self-fulfilment and personal development. As such, it is too unsophisticated, and attempts to impose a linear process on something that is spiralling and cyclical. Kelly does acknowledge, however, that the objectives model can be appropriate in the area of vocational training and in subjects which require the transmission of particular skills.

Reviewing the role of behavioural objectives in foreign language learning, Tumposky (1984, p. 302) claims that "There has been a mixed, but largely negative, reaction to behavioral objectives from teachers of foreign languages, including teachers of ESL/EFL". She explores some of the same contra arguments as Kelly, emphasising the limits such objectives place on creativity and the cognitive and affective aspects of learning, in their reduction of education to an instrument for behavioural change. Her perspective

is very much that of the teacher and an interpretation of the objectives model in its narrowest sense. The objectives model, however, was the basis of the Council of Europe Threshold Level project in the 1970s, one of the most important movements in the transition from a grammar-based approach to a communicative approach to language teaching, which resulted in the notional-functional syllabus and an emphasis on needs analysis and the eventual ends of language learning rather than a narrow linguistic focus.

THE PROCESS MODEL: PROGRESSIVISM

Kelly sums up the objections to the contents and objectives models as "the fact that neither offers any real help with that decision which must precede all others, namely the choice of content and/or aims and objectives," and proposes the process model as an approach to curriculum planning which attempts to deal with this "value issue as the prime concern in educational planning" (1989, p. 84). The purpose of education from the point of view of the process model is to enable the individual to progress towards self-fulfilment. It is concerned with the development of understanding, not just the passive reception of 'knowledge' or the acquisition of specific skills. The goals of education are not defined in terms of particular ends or products, but in terms of the processes and procedures by which the individual develops understanding and awareness and creates possibilities for future learning. Content, then, is based on principles derived from research into learning development and the overall purposes of the educational process, which allows the formulation of objectives related to the procedural principles.

The model rests on concepts of learner needs, interests and development processes and is thus open to the criticism of subjectivity in the definition of these concepts, but, as the body of research in the field of developmental psychology expands, there is an increasing acceptance of its underlying philosophy. In practice, however, as a basis for national curriculum development projects, it is less attractive than the objectives model for large-scale curriculum development and planning related to government trends in the West towards vocational training to meet employment needs.

In the language teaching world, there has been a move towards the 'learner-centred curriculum' (Nunan, 1985, 1988; Candlin, 1984), and even towards a definition of a 'learning-centred curriculum' (Dickinson, 1987). Although these ideas inform much of the work done in curriculum research and development, as the central principle for curriculum design they are, as yet, peripheral rather than mainstream.

The analyses by Clark and White show that language teaching has not been entirely isolated from the educational mainstream, but has been influenced by philosophical trends and *broad* educational developments. Their view is echoed by Johnson in his introduction to *The Second Language Curriculum* (1989, p. xi), where he suggests that language teaching, after the "communicative revolution" and a period of "piecemeal reconstruction", is now characterised by "a growing interest in the curriculum process as a whole, attempts to put language teaching back in touch with educational theory in general and curriculum studies in particular".

Although Skilbeck's scheme neatly summarises the ideologies underlying curriculum models, the actuality of developments in ELT over the last three decades has not been so neat or coherent. Johnson refers to the communicative 'revolution', and a revolution cannot be achieved without a certain degree of chaos before reconstruction (Johnson refers to this period as "epitomised by the flowering of a thousand methods" (1989, p. ix) – and then consolidation. The move away from the structural grammar-systems approach began in the late 1960s, and the 1970s saw the proliferation of many different approaches under the umbrella of the communicative syllabus and a growing interest in curriculum design

rather than teaching methodology. The concept of 'communicative competence' was much debated and analysed, and finer distinctions were created. For a time, a communicative approach was equated with the notional-functional syllabus, but as other approaches were developed and presented as equally – or more – communicative, the concept began to be defined more by negation of what was clearly *noncommunicative*, that is, the structural approach. Henry Widdowson, a leading member of what is known as 'the London school' of applied linguists and author of a book titled *Teaching Language as Communication*, even went so far as to state: "there is no such thing as a communicative syllabus: there can only be a methodology that stimulates communicative learning" (Widdowson, 1984, p. 26).

For the ELT curriculum designer in the 1990s, informed by research in first and second language acquisition, theories of discourse and genre analysis, and developments in socio- and psycholinguistics, constrained by funding and public or client accountability, there is a need for a framework of curriculum design which allows flexibility but gives a clear direction in which to move.

The 'New Pragmatism': A Mixed-Focus Curriculum

In practice today, too often the claim to be using a *communicative* syllabus or curriculum approach is heard, without any real agreement of what the term *communicative* means in this context and without clarification of the principles and processes of curriculum design. In the opinion of Dubin and Olshtain (1986, p. 68), three areas are central to the concept of a communicative curriculum: "a view of the nature of language as seen by the field of ... sociolinguistics; a cognitively based view of language learning; and a humanistic approach in education". Their book on course design is one of several which contribute to the long overdue discussion of curriculum issues in language teaching. Through all the publications (Richards, 1984; Dubin & Olshtain, 1986; Nunan, 1988; Yalden, 1987; Johnson, 1989) runs an awareness of what previous models have contributed to current approaches; concepts which remain central include needs analysis, an emphasis on process as well as product, a focus on the learner and learning, evaluation at every stage, and, most important, the need for interaction between and integration of the different aspects of the design and implementation process.

In this section, I will examine some of the issues raised, and suggest that the framework most applicable to ELT today is an *integrated* approach which is essentially learner-centred and is an attempted "synthesis of the product-oriented ends-means model and the process-oriented approach" (Nunan, 1988, p. 20). This mixed-focus model is not without its difficulties, and a good deal of research will need to take place to establish an adequate theoretical base. It does, however, suggest the direction in which language curriculum development could move in the future. The following subsections broadly follow the framework proposed by Johnson (1989, p. xii):

> The framework I propose has three dimensions: that of policy, the aims of the curriculum, or what it seems desirable to achieve; pragmatics, the constraints on what it is possible to achieve; and finally the participants in the decision-making process, whose task it is to reconcile policy and pragmatics. Four stages of decision-making are identified: curriculum planning, ends/means specification, programme implementation, and implementation in the classroom ... 'evaluation' is not seen as a stage in itself, but as a necessary and integral part of each and all of the stages already mentioned.

CURRICULUM POLICY

The role of the policy maker who establishes the broad principles and purposes of the curriculum and expresses them in a curriculum design document is that of a juggler, keeping aloft the 'balls' representing the needs of the learners, the needs of the institution or planning committee, the needs, possibly, of society, or at least specific interest groups within society, and also the needs of the teachers and administrators, the implementers of the curriculum. These diverse needs encapsulate both opportunities and constraints which must be analysed and balanced in the expression of the controlling principles and educational goals of the program. In the integrated curriculum, the policy guides all other decisions but is itself open to modification; I return to the concept of curriculum *renewal*, which recognises that most planning does not begin from zero but from an evaluation of what already is in place.

NEEDS ANALYSIS

Needs analysis is now seen as the logical starting point for the development of a language program which is responsive to the learner and learning needs, but there has been some disagreement as to what is entailed. Brindley (1989, p. 64) suggests that two orientations are now generally recognised:

1. a narrow, product-oriented view of needs which focuses on the language necessary for particular future purposes and is carried out by the 'experts'
2. a broad, process-oriented view of needs which takes into account factors such as learner motivation and learning styles as well as learner-defined target language behaviour

He further suggests (p. 64) that both types of need analysis are necessary: 'one aimed at collecting factual information for the purposes of setting broad goals related to language content, the other aimed at gathering information about learners which can be used to guide the learning process once it is underway'.

The results of the needs analysis are applied in the development of programme objectives and in the choice of appropriate teaching methodology. The participants in the needs analysis ideally should include as many of the programme participants as possible, and ideally the learners themselves – where they are involved in the specification of course content, there is a greater likelihood that they will perceive it as relevant to their needs and can take an active role in course evaluation. In the integrated approach, needs analysis takes place not only at the pre-course planning stage, but also during the course, contributing to the development of teacher–learner negotiated learning objectives.

SYLLABUS DESIGN

Course content and procedures will usually be expressed in the form of goals or learning objectives; within language teaching there are a number of different ways of expressing objectives, and indeed considerable debate on the role and nature of objectives. Earlier in the paper, I discussed the drawbacks of *performance objectives*, but many would argue that there is a place for them in a language teaching syllabus, particularly where they are negotiated by the teacher and the learners and provide a means of ongoing feedback and a move towards self-direction and self-evaluation on the part of the learner. An alternative – or addition – to performance objectives is the formulation of *process-related objectives*, for example, from an English for academic purposes (EAP) course: 'the student will be able to select and apply reading strategies appropriate to his or her needs'. Another

form is *instructional objectives*, which are more related to methodology (e.g., 'To develop the learner's confidence in speaking'). The debate will – and should – continue: for both the teacher and the learner, objectives provide a guide and framework for what goes on in the classroom.

Course content is usually presented in the form of a syllabus, which I will take to mean 'a public document, a record, a contract, an instrument which represents negotiation among all the parties involved' (Yalden, 1984, p. 13). So far in this paper, several syllabus frameworks have been outlined within the discussion of different models of curriculum planning: the structural syllabus, the notional-functional syllabus, and the process syllabus in particular have been highlighted and have been treated as separate, mutually exclusive entities. However, one of the most widely used syllabus models is one that integrates aspects of all three, a *variable focus* (Allen, 1984) or *proportional* (Yalden, 1987) syllabus. The three principles which can inform language syllabus design, according to Yalden, are (1) a view of how language is *learned*, which would result in a structure-based syllabus; (2) a view of how language is *acquired*, which would result in a process-based syllabus; and (3) a view of how language is *used*, which would result in a function-based syllabus. By integrating all three, Yalden proposes a proportional syllabus, with a semantic-grammatical organisational base, a linguistic component based on language functions and themes based on learners' interests. In the early stages of language learning, one might place more emphasis on structure, before moving on to functions and then using tasks or topics to apply and creatively use the language. Allen's formulation of the variable focus syllabus is similar to this. He defines three components: structural, functional and experiential. The syllabus includes all levels all the time, but the emphasis changes at different stages of learning.

Structure/Function	Function/Skills	Task/Theme
Greater emphasis on structure and functions	Targeting specific functions	Remedial structural work
Introduction of learning strategies & techniques	Application through task-based and problem-solving activities	Task-based syllabus, focus on learning processes and strategies to encourage creative language use
Elementary levels	Pre-Intermediate levels	Intermediate and above

The advantages of this mixed-focus model are summed up by Yalden (1987, p. 120) when she states that it 'would seem to allow the syllabus designer the most freedom to respond to changing or newly perceived needs in the learners, and at the same time provides a framework for the teacher who may not be able or willing to 'go fully communicative'.' I would add that it provides the experienced teacher with a framework that allows for choice in how to implement the syllabus, and with further development can create space for learner–teacher negotiation in 'real-life' communication in the classroom.

METHODOLOGY

The syllabus provides the framework, but learning ultimately depends on the interaction between the teacher and the learners in the classroom, and on the teaching approaches, activities, materials and procedures employed by the teacher. From the perspective of communicative language teaching, learners' needs and wants inform the teaching–learning process, and the emphasis is on using the language in stimulating communicative activities.

The main point to be made in the context of an integrated approach to curriculum development is that teacher training and development is a necessary and ongoing process, involving the exploration of a range of materials, methods and approaches to learner training and evaluation. Teachers must be reflective, analytic and creative, open to new methods and ideas; the aim of teacher-training courses must be to develop teachers who are researchers, not just technicians and deliverers of the syllabus. In this way, teaching methodology can reflect curriculum goals, and teachers' experiences in turn contribute to the process of curriculum renewal.

EVALUATION

Evaluation must take place at all stages of curriculum planning and implementation, and involve all participants. The primary purpose of evaluation is to determine whether or not the curriculum goals have been met, which, in the case of a language programme, will be based on an assessment of the participants in the programme. Another purpose is to determine the effectiveness of the curriculum and to evaluate the language programme itself, which will focus on the teachers, the methodology, the materials and so on. The information gathered forms the basis of accountability to the client and also the basis for decisions regarding curriculum renewal. Brown (1989, p. 222) identifies it as 'the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum, and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within the context of the particular institution involved'.

In the integrated approach, both formative evaluation during the planning and implementation of the curriculum, and summative evaluation at the end of the program, are important and complementary.

CONCLUSION

In drawing parallels between curriculum processes in the educational mainstream and the world of English language teaching, this paper has tended to present 'ideal' versions of the applications of major types of curriculum models: content, objectives and process; the reality is likely to be a blend of all three. I would suggest that this is the most realistic approach, given the constraints operating on any educational enterprise: external expectations and client accountability, teacher preconceptions and experiences, learner preferences, and, not least, financial and administrative constraints. Certainly, it is the mixed-focus *product* and *process* model which best fits my own experience of the curriculum.

What has emerged from this brief survey of curriculum development in ELT is that there is a need for flexibility and openness to change and influences from the broader perspective of general educational theory, and for much more discussion and research before it can be said that there is a coherent model for ELT curriculum planning and development. It is clear, however, that there is growing support for Richards's (1984, p. 25) exhortation:

> The language teaching profession has yet to embrace curriculum development as an overall approach to the planning of teaching and learning. Our profession has evolved a considerable body of educational techniques, but little in the way of an integrated and systematic approach to language curriculum processes. Such an approach may be crucial, however, if we are to develop a more rigorous basis for our educational practices.

There is also a move in ELT toward consolidation and integration, informed by educational theory.

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