Curriculum Design
(ENG519)

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Lesson-01

ORIGINS OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DESIGN

Topic- 001: Overview

This topic gives a synopsis of the areas which will be the main focus throughout this course. Basically, it is an overview of language curriculum development processes and suggests that like other areas of curriculum activity, it is concerned with principles and procedures of the planning, delivery, management, and assessment of English language teaching and learning. Curriculum development process is seen as a combination of needs analysis, goal setting, format and presentation, principles, syllabus design, methodology, approaches to curriculum, professional development of teachers and testing and evaluation. In this topic, reference is made to the National Curriculum for English Language (NCEL, 2006) in the Pakistani context.

This topic also problematizes the notion of how language curriculum development is seen as a broader field of educational activity known as curriculum development or curriculum studies. Curriculum development focuses on determining what knowledge, skills, and values students learn in schools; what experiences should be provided to bring about intended learning outcomes; and how teaching and learning in schools or educational systems can be planned, measured, and evaluated. Language curriculum development refers to the field of applied linguistics that addresses these issues. It familiarizes us with an interrelated set of processes that focuses on designing, revising, implementing, and evaluating language programs.

Topic-002: Definitions

This topic focuses on defining two key terms: 1) language curriculum design (LCD) and 2) syllabus design. Syllabus design is one aspect of curriculum development but is not identical with it. A syllabus is seen as a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists all possible teaching content. Thus, the syllabus for a speaking course might specify:

- The kinds of oral skills that will be taught and practiced during the course
- The functions
- Topics or other aspects of conversation that will be taught, and the order in which they will appear in the course

Syllabus design is the process of developing a syllabus. 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 develop aims or objectives for a program, to address the needs, to determine an appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods, and materials, and finally, to carry out an evaluation of the language program that results from these processes.

Topic-003: Historical Background

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In this topic we will examine the development of curriculum in language teaching through its various stages in its history. The rationale why we are starting from historical perspective of the LCD (Language Curriculum Design) is that it will help us better understand how earlier approaches and issues to curriculum design shaped our understanding of the existing curriculum. The notion of LCD, as we know it today, really began in the 1960s. However, the issues of syllabus design emerged as a major factor in language teaching much earlier. In this lecture, our focus will be the main approaches to syllabus design that emerged in the first part of the twentieth century. We will also examine the approaches that laid the foundations for more broadly based curriculum design that is used in language teaching today.

If we look back at the history of language teaching throughout the twentieth century, much of the impetus for changes in approaches to language teaching came about from changes in teaching methods. The method concept in teaching - the notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning - is powerful and the quest for better methods has been a preoccupation of many teachers and applied linguists since the beginning of the twentieth century. Many methods have come and gone in the last 100 years in pursuit of the "best method".

Topic-004: Historical Perspective of Language Teaching Methods

Although there has been a preference for particular methods at different times, methods often continue in some form long after they have fallen out of favor; this observation is still true today, as we see, grammar translation method is still alive in some parts of the world.

The following chronology illustrates with dates the periods of greatest dominance:

- Grammar Translation Method (1800-1900)
- Direct Method (1890-1930)
- Structural Method (1930-1960)
- Reading Method (1920-1950)
- Audiolingual Method (1950-1970)
- Situational Method (1950-1970)
- Communicative Approach (1970-present)

Topic-005: Historical Role of Vocabulary Selection

All teaching, of course, demands a choice of what will be taught from the total field of the subject. The teaching of a language at any level and under any circumstances requires the selection of certain features of the language. Some features of language are excluded intentionally or unintentionally. Two aspects of selection received primary attention in the first few decades of the 20th century. These are:

- Vocabulary selection
- Grammar selection

Approaches to these two aspects of vocabulary selection laid the foundations for syllabus design in language teaching. However, the main questions confronted in the first few decades of the 20th century

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were what words should be taught and in which order. Thus, these core issues to vocabulary selection led to the emergence of lexical syllabus.

Lesson-02

ORIGINS OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DESIGN: APPROACHES TO VOCABULARY SELECTION

Topic-006: Early Approaches and Goals

Vocabulary is one of the most obvious components of language and one of the first things applied linguists turned their attention to. What words should be taught in second language and in what order? What can be derived from research on origins of LCD (Language Curriculum Design) is that students studying from any of the books in this study would spend a large amount of time. They might spend time to understand and use vocabulary that is probably of little importance. Some of the earliest approaches to vocabulary selection involved counting large collections of texts to determine the frequency with which words occurred, since it would seem obvious that words of highest frequency should be taught first. The earliest frequency counts undertaken for language teaching were based on analysis of popular reading materials and resulted in a word frequency list. Word frequency research revealed some interesting facts about vocabulary usage. For example, it was discovered that a small class of words (around 3,000) accounted for up to 85 percent of the words used in everyday texts but that it would take an extra 6,000 words to increase this by 1 percent. It was also found that about half the words in a text occur only once. However, recognizing 85 percent of the words in a text is not the same as understanding 85 percent of the text. One or two words per line will still not be understood, and these are often the key words in the text since they reflect the topic of the text and the new information in it.

Topic-007: Early Procedures of Vocabulary Selection

Criteria to determine word lists

The following criteria should be considered while determining the word lists:

Teach-ability: In a course that is taught by following the Direct Method or Total Physical Response Method, concrete vocabulary is taught early because it can easily be illustrated through pictures or by demonstration.

Similarity: Some items may be selected because they are similar to words in the native language. For example, English and French have many cognates such as table, page, and nation, and this may justify their inclusion in a word list for French-speaking learners.

Availability: Some words may not be frequent but are readily available in the sense that they come quickly to mind when certain topics are thought of. For example, *classroom* calls to mind *desk*, *chair*, *teacher*, and *pupil*, and therefore, these words might be worth teaching at early stage in a course.

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Coverage*:* Words that cover or include the meanings of other words may also be useful. For example, *seat* might be taught because it includes the meanings of *stool*, *bench*, and *chair*.

Defining power*:* Some words could be selected because they are useful in defining other words, even though they are not among the most frequent words in the language. For example, *container* might be useful because it can help define *bucket*, *jar*, and *carton*.

The procedures of vocabulary selection lead to the compilation of a basic vocabulary (now called a lexical syllabus). These procedures classify vocabulary of language course usually into different groups or levels such as the first 500 words, the second 500 words, and so on. Word frequency research has been an active area of language research since the 1920s and continues to be so because of the ease with which word frequencies and patterns of word distribution can be identified using computers. One of the most important lexical syllabuses in language teaching was Michael West's *A General Service List of English Words* (1953), which contains a list of some 2,000 words.

Topic-008: Historical Background to Grammar Selection and Gradation

The need for a systematic approach to selecting grammar for teaching purposes was also a priority for applied linguists from the 1920s. The need for grammatical selection is seen in the following examples which are some of the structures that can be used for the speech act of "asking permission":

- Can/may I use your telephone please?
- Please let me use your telephone.
- Is it all right to use your telephone?
- If it's all right with you, I'll use your telephone.
- Am I allowed to use your telephone?
- Do you mind if I use your telephone?
- Do you mind me using your telephone?
- Would you mind if I used your telephone?
- You don't mind if I use your telephone (do you)?
- I wonder if you have any objection to me using your telephone.
- Would you permit me to use your telephone?
- Would you be so kind as to allow me to use your telephone?
- Would it be possible for me to use your telephone?
- Do you think you could let me use your telephone?

Topic-009: Application of Principles of Selection and Gradation

The following principles have been used or suggested as a basis for developing grammatical syllabuses:

Simplicity and centrality*:* This recommends choosing structures that are simple and more central to the basic structure of the language than those that are complex and peripheral. By these criteria, the following would occur in an introductory-level English course:

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- The train arrived. (Subject Verb)
- She is a journalist. (Subject Verb Complement)
- The children are in the bedroom. (Subject Verb Adverb)
- We ate the fruit. (Subject Verb Object)
- I put the book in the bag. (Subject Verb Object Adverb)

The following would be excluded by the same criteria:

- Having neither money nor time, we decided buying a ticket to the opera was out of the question.
- For her to speak to us like that was something we had never anticipated.

Topic-010: Approaches to Gradation

The following approaches to gradation are possible:

Linguistic distance: This approach emphasizes first on those teaching structures that are similar to the native language. This is because the elements that are similar the learners' native language will be simple for them and the ones that are different will be difficult.

Intrinsic difficulty: This principle argues that simple structures should be taught before the complex ones and this is the commonest criterion used to justify the sequence of grammatical items in a syllabus.

Communicative need: Some structures will be needed early and cannot be postponed despite their difficulty (such as the *simple past* in English) since it is difficult to avoid making reference to past events for very long in a course.

Frequency: The frequency of occurrence of structures and grammatical items in the target language may also affect the order in which they appear in a syllabus, although as we noted, this sort of little information is available to syllabus planners. Frequency may also compete with other criteria. The *present continuous* is not one of the most frequent verb forms in English but it is often introduced early in a language course because it is relatively easy to demonstrate and practice in a classroom context.

In the 1940s, *beginners' courses* in English began to appear in which principles of vocabulary and grammatical control were evident and in which grammatical structures were organized into graded sequences. The methods in use at the time placed a major emphasis on the learning of "structures". Although both lexical and grammatical syllabuses have provided important guidelines for the development of language teaching textbooks and materials since the first such syllabuses appeared in the 1920s yet grammar syllabuses have been regarded as the core of a language course or program.

Topic-011: Assumptions Underlying Early Approaches to Syllabus Design

We can now examine the assumptions behind the approaches to syllabus design that emerged in the first part of the twentieth century and reveal the limitations that subsequent directions in syllabus design sought to address. These assumptions are as follows:

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- **The basic units of language are vocabulary and grammar**

The followers of traditions approached the teaching of English largely through its vocabulary and grammar. Although the role of speaking and pronunciation were not ignored during the actual teaching of the language, the priority in planning was vocabulary and grammar and these were seen as the main building blocks of language development. Once some system and order could be introduced into these areas through careful syllabus planning and specification, it was believed that language teaching could be put on a more rational and sound basis.

- **Learners everywhere have the same needs**

The focus in language teaching was on "general" English, hence the title of West's word list (1953). It was believed that the core vocabulary of the General Service List together with a grammatical syllabus of the type Hornby (1954) elaborated would serve as the basis for almost all language courses.

- **Learners' needs are identified exclusively in terms of language needs**

No matter who the learners are or the circumstances of their learning, it is assumed that mastery of English will solve their problems. The goal of English teaching is to teach them English - not to teach them how to solve their problems through English.

- **The process of learning a language is largely determined by the textbook**

The primary input to the language learning process that the learners received was the textbook; hence, the importance of the principles of selection and gradation are ways of controlling the content of the textbook and facilitating language learning.

- **The context of teaching is English as a foreign language**

Most of the early work by Palmer (1982), West (1953), and Hornby (1954) on the development of lexical and grammatical syllabuses was done in contexts where English was a foreign language, that is, where students studied English as a formal subject in school but had no immediate need for it outside of the classroom. The classroom and the textbook provided the primary input to the language learning process, hence the goal of syllabus developers was to simplify and rationalize this input as far as possible through the processes of selection and gradation.

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Lesson-03

FROM SYLLABUS DESIGN TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Topic-012: The Quest for New Methods

The teaching of English as a second or foreign language became an increasingly important activity after World War II. Immigrants, refugees, and foreign students generated a huge demand for English courses in the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States, and Australia. The role of English as a language of international communication had expanded rapidly by the 1950s. There was much greater mobility of people as a result of growth in air travel and international tourism. English was increasingly important in international trade and commerce. The role of English was supported by the growth of radio, film, and television.

The initial response of the English-language teaching profession was to explore new directions in methodology. It was assumed that in order to meet the changing needs of language learners, more up-to-date teaching methods were needed that reflected the latest understandings of the nature of language and of language learning. Linguistics was a source of theories about the organization and structure of language and these were eagerly applied in the cause of new "scientifically based" teaching methods. The 1950s and 1960s in language teaching were hence times of methodological excitement. In Britain, applied linguists developed a methodology that drew on the oral approach that had been developed in the twenties and thirties linked to a carefully graded grammatical and lexical syllabus. The methodology had the following characteristics:

- A structural syllabus with graded vocabulary levels.
- Meaningful presentation of structures in contexts through the use of situations to contextualize new teaching points.
- A sequence of classroom activities that went from *Presentation*, to controlled *Practice*, to freer *Production* (the PPP method).

Topic-013: Re-Evaluation of Teaching Methods and its Influence on Language Curriculum Development

But a missing element in the enthusiasm for new methods was a consideration of the extent to which teaching methods addressed learners' needs. One response to this concern was a re-evaluation of language teaching policy in many European countries in the 1970s with a view to determine such things as which foreign languages should be taught in the school system; at what year languages should be introduced into the curriculum and with what intensity (for example, two, four, or six class periods a week). The status of the teaching of classical languages was also being reviewed.

In 1969, the Council of Europe (a regional organization of European countries designed to promote cultural and educational cooperation), in order to promote the more effective learning of foreign languages within the community, decided that:

- If full understanding is to be achieved among the countries of Europe, the language barriers

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between them must be removed.

- Linguistic diversity is a part of the European cultural heritage and that it should, through the study of modem languages, provide a source of intellectual enrichment rather than an obstacle to unity.

Only if the study of modem European languages becomes general, will full mutual understanding and cooperation be possible in Europe?

Topic-014: The Role of English for ESP

In contrast to students learning English for general purposes for whom mastery of the language for its own sake or in order to pass a general examination is the primary goal, the ESP student is usually studying English in order to carry out a particular role such as that of a foreign student in an English-medium university, a flight attendant, a mechanic, or a doctor. Jupp and Hodlin (1975) describe the traditional pre-ESP response to this situation in the 1950s citing the example of a country that needs to teach foreign languages to key personnel dealing with trade or foreign business. Trainees are released for four hours daily for a year. Two language laboratories are equipped with materials and the trainees follow a state-of-the-art audiovisual course in "spoken colloquial English" based on selection and gradation by structural criteria with some additional *situational language*. However, the course takes no account of functional communicative needs or the-learner's own immediate situation. The English setting is largely a matter of an English family and some English surroundings; there is certainly no attempt to teach the English 'rules of use' in terms of situations and relationships. The concept of 'spoken colloquial English' is one largely based upon a structural description of written English and without reference to functional uses and roles (Jupp and Hodlin 1975).

Topic-015: Register Analysis and Discourse Analysis

Throughout the 1970s, the ESP approach in language teaching drew on *register analysis* and *discourse analysis* to determine the linguistic characteristics of different disciplines such as medicine, engineering, or science. Register analysis studies the language of such fields as journalism, medicine, or law for distinctive patterns of occurrence of vocabulary, verb forms, noun phrases, and tense usage.

- **The research process:** The vocabulary is primarily verbs and nouns and is presented in a context which discusses the five steps of research: formulating, investigating, analysing, drawing conclusions and reporting results.

- **The vocabulary of analysis***:* It includes high-frequency and two-word verbs needed in order to present information in an organized sequence, for example, *consist of*, *group*, *result from*, *derive*, *base on*, *be noted for*, etc.

Discourse analysis examines the communicative contexts that affect language use, for example, in social transactions, the relationship between the discourse and the speakers and listeners. For example, it looks at how the choice of verb tenses or other grammatical features affect the structure of the discourse. The analysis also looks at the relationship between utterances, for example, aspects of cohesion, and the discourse markers or cohesive devices that are employed.

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Identifying patterns of text organization was a focus of this approach. For example, a common discourse structure found in many scientific papers is the problem-solution structure.

Lesson-04

FROM SYLLABUS DESIGN TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Topic-016: Historical Overview of Needs Analysis Within ESP Movement

The learners' needs

An important principle of ESP approaches to language teaching is that the purposes for which a learner needs a language rather than a syllabus reflecting the structure of general English should be used in planning an English course. Rather than developing a course around an analysis of the language, an ESP approach starts instead with an analysis of the learner's needs. Different types of students have different language needs and what they are taught should be restricted to what they need. In ESP, learners' needs are often described in terms of performance that of what the learner will be able to do with the language at the end of a course of study. Whereas in a general English course, the goal is usually an overall mastery of the language that can be tested on a global language test, the goal of an ESP course is to prepare the learners to carry out a specific task or set of tasks. The student of ESP is usually studying to perform a role. The measure of success for students learning English for hotel waiters, or the English for food technology, is whether they can perform convincingly as hotel waiters in English or whether they can act appropriately as food technologists in English and pass exams in food technology, rather than exams in English.

Topic-017: The Munby Model

Munby (1978), in an influential book of the time, describes a systematic approach to needs analysis in ESP course design and focuses on two dimensions of needs analysis: 1) The procedures used to specify the target-level communicative competence of the student, and 2) Procedures for turning the information into a syllabus. The Munby model describes the kind of information needed to develop a profile of the learner's communicative needs. An example will illustrate how the model could be applied in carrying out a needs profile. If one were profiling the needs of restaurant staff such as waiters and waitresses, the following information might be revealed through applying the Munby model:

- **Personal:** Who the employees are, their age, nationalities, sex, educational background, work experience.
- **Purpose:** The kinds of outcomes expected such as the types of communicative skills the clients need to develop.
- **Setting:** The type of restaurant in which the employees work and the kinds of customers who use the restaurant.
- **Interactional:** The role and relationships such as waiter/waitress to variables customer, waiter/waitress to restaurant manager.

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- **Medium/ mode:** Whether spoken or written, face to face and channel dialects or both formal and casual styles.
- **Target level:** Whether basic, intermediate, or advanced level.
- **Anticipated:** For example, greetings, taking requests, clarifying communicative Information, describing menu items.
- **Key:** For example, unhurriedly, quietly, politely.

Topic-018: The Influence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

CLT was a response to changes in the field of linguistics in the 1970s. It was also a response to the need for new approaches to language teaching in Europe as a result of initiative by groups such as the Council of Europe. Linguistics moved away from a focus on grammar as the core component of language abilities to a consideration of how language is used by speakers in different contexts of communication. The capacity to use language appropriately in communication based on the setting, the roles of the participants and the nature of the transaction was referred to as communicative competence. Applied linguists sought to apply this notion to language teaching. As a grammatical syllabus is based on the notion of grammatical competence (the knowledge people have of a language that underlies their capacities to produce and recognize sentences in the language), therefore, a different type of syllabus would be needed to teach communicative competence. What would such a syllabus look like? An important book in 1976 by Wilkins (who was one of the members of a committee set up by the Council of Europe that formulated the Threshold Level) sought to answer this.

Topic-019: Emergence of Curriculum Approach in Language Teaching

The term ‘curriculum studies’ refers to a very broad field of inquiry that deals with what happens in schools and other educational institutions, the planning of instruction and the study of how curriculum plans are implemented. A curriculum in a school context refers to the whole body of knowledge that children acquire in schools. Rodgers (1989) comments:

“Syllabi, which prescribe the content to be covered by a given course, form only a small part of the total school program. Curriculum is a far broader concept. Curriculum is all those activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school. This includes not only what pupils learn, but how they learn it, how teachers help them learn through using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and in what kind of facilities.”

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Lesson-05

SITUATION/ENVIRONMENT ANALYSIS -I

Topic-020: Introduction to Situation/Environment Analysis

A language curriculum is a function of the interrelationships that hold between subject-specific concerns and other broader factors embracing socio-political and philosophical matters, educational value systems, theory and practice in curriculum design, teacher experiential wisdom and learner motivation. In order to understand the foreign language curriculum in any particular context, it is therefore necessary to attempt to understand how all the various influences interrelate to give a particular shape to the planning and execution of the teaching/learning process.

Situation analysis is an analysis of factors in the context of a planned or present curriculum project that is made in order to assess their political, social, economic, or institutional situation. Situation analysis complements the information gathered during needs analysis.

Topic-021: Example of Social and Political Factors Involved in Situation Analysis

Example: A team of foreign experts under contract to an international funding body is given a contract to write a new series of English textbooks for the state school system in an EFL country. They base themselves in an attractive small town in a rural setting and set up their writing project. They do a series of interviews with educational officials and teachers to determine students' language needs and make use of the latest thinking on language teaching and textbook design to produce an oral-based language course that reflects recommended language teaching methodology of the time. Textbooks are developed and provided to secondary schools at no cost and teachers are given the choice of using the new books or their old outdated government textbooks. After a period of initial enthusiasm, however, very few teachers end up using the new course and revert to using the old government-provided textbooks.

Comment: The project team members spent insufficient time familiarizing themselves with the local school situation. Most English teachers had a limited command of English. Teachers found the new materials difficult to teach because they required a high level of oral fluency in English and an English-only methodology that was difficult to implement in large classes. A more successful reception might have occurred if the introduction of the new materials had been gradual so that problems were addressed as they occurred. In addition, there could have been more provision for teacher training.

Topic-022: Example of Economic Factors Involved in Situation Analysis

Example: A large private university of an EFL country decides that instead of using commercial materials in its language institute, it will produce its own materials and publish them. It is hoped that they will compete on the market with materials produced by commercial publishers. A large amount of money is invested in setting up a materials writing team and the books are prepared. When they are finally published, however, it is found that a few other institutes or schools want to use them.

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Comment: Private universities in this country are highly competitive, and the fact that the materials were produced by one institution meant that other institutions did not want to use them. Some basic market research should have been carried out at the initial stages of the project to determine if there is a commercial market for the materials.

Topic-023: Project Factors

Curriculum projects are typically produced by a team of people. Members of the team may be specialists who are hired specifically for the purpose; they may be classroom teachers who are seconded to the project for a fixed period of time. The project may be carried out by teachers and other staff of a teaching institution as a part of their regular duties. Projects are completed under different constraints of time, resources, and personnel. Each of these variables can have a significant impact on a project. There should be sufficient members in the project to do the job and they should represent a balance of skills and expertise. Some projects are generously resourced while others operate on a shoestring budget. The time frame for a project needs to be carefully planned. If a curriculum development team takes on too ambitious a task for the time available, the quality of their efforts may be compromised. The working dynamics of the team are also essential to the smooth progress of the project. If the team members are highly committed to the project and share a common vision, it is likely to encounter fewer difficulties than one where the project team experiences internal feuds and power struggles. The following project factors need to be considered:

- Who constitutes the project group and how are they selected?
- What are the management and other responsibilities of the team?
- How are goals and procedures determined?
- Who reviews the progress of the project and performance of its members?
- What experience do members of the team have?
- How do members of the team regard each other?
- What resources do they have available and what budget to acquire the needed resources?
- What is the time frame of the project? Is it realistic, or is more or less time needed?

Topic-024: Institutional Factors

Schools are organizations and they develop a culture, ethos or environment which might be favorable or unfavorable that encourages change and the implementation of innovations. A school with a relatively open climate, where the teachers collaborate with each other and where the principal and senior teachers are supportive of teachers, is more likely to try to implement a change. In contrast, a school where the principal focuses on administrative matters and the teachers work in isolation or in narrow subject-based groups (where there is no mechanism to discuss and try to solve problems) is less likely to change.

A teaching institution is a collection of teachers, groups and departments, sometimes functioning in collaboration, sometimes with different components functioning independently, or sometimes with components in a confrontational relationship. Within an institution, there may be a strong and positive climate to support innovation, one where there is effective and positive leadership and where change is received positively. On the other hand, there may be a climate where teachers distrust one another and the administration has no firm commitment to the school. In some institutions, there is a strong sense of

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professional commitment and a culture of quality that influences every aspect of the institution's operations. In others, the driving force of the school may be monetary. As a cost-saving measure, heavy reliance is made on part-time teachers or teachers with little training and experience. They are not paid for lesson preparation time and consequently teach their classes and then depart for their next teaching assignment, perhaps in another school.

Institutional factors thus relate to the following kinds of questions:

- What leadership is available within the school to support change and to help teachers cope with change?
- What are the school's physical resources, including classroom facilities, media and other technological resources, and library resources?
- What is the role of textbooks and other instructional materials?
- What is staff morale?
- What problems do teachers face and what is being done about them?
- What administrative support is available within the school and what is communication like between teachers and the administration?
- What kind of reputation does the institution have for delivering successful language programs?
- How committed is the institution to attaining excellence?

Topic-025: Teacher Factors

Teacher is a key factor in the successful implementation of curriculum changes. Exceptional teachers can often compensate for the poor-quality resources and materials they have to work from. But inadequately trained teachers may not be able to make effective use of teaching materials, no matter how well they are designed. In any institution, teachers may vary according to the following dimensions:

- Language proficiency
- Teaching experience
- Skill and expertise
- Training and qualifications
- Morale and motivation
- Teaching style
- Beliefs and principles

Among the teacher factors that need to be considered in situation analysis are the following:

- What kinds of teachers currently teach in the target schools or institutions? What are their typical background, training, experience, and motivation? How proficient are they in English? What kinds of beliefs do the teachers typically hold concerning key issues in teaching?
- What teaching loads do teachers have and what resources do they make use of?
- What typical teaching methods do the teachers use and believe in?
- To what extent are teachers open to change?

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- What opportunities do they have for retraining through in-service or other kinds of opportunities?
- What benefits are the proposed new syllabuses, curriculum, or materials likely to offer teachers?

Lesson-06

SITUATION/ENVIRONMENT ANALYSIS -II

Topic-026: Learner Factors

Learners are the key participants in curriculum project and it is essential to collect as much information as possible about them before the project begins. This topic focuses on factors such as the learners' backgrounds, expectations, beliefs and preferred learning styles. The project designers may be operating from a set of assumptions about education, schools, teachers and students that are culturally bound and at odds with the beliefs and assumptions of the learners. Some of the relevant learner factors are given below:

- What are the learners' past language learning experiences?
- How motivated are the learners to learn English?
- What are their expectations for the program?
- Do the learners' views on language teaching reflect any culturally specific factors?
- Are they a homogeneous or a heterogeneous group?
- What type of learning approach do they favour (e.g., teacher-led, student-focused, or small-group work)?
- What type of content do they prefer?
- What expectations do they have for the roles of teachers, learners, and instructional materials?
- How much time can they be expected to put into the program?
- What learning resources will they typically have access to?

Topic-027: Adoption Factors

Any attempt to introduce a new curriculum, syllabus, or set of materials must take into account the relative ease or difficulty of introducing change into the system. Curriculum changes are of many different kinds. They may affect teachers' pedagogical values and beliefs, their understanding of the nature of language or second language learning, or their classroom practices and use of teaching materials. Some changes may be readily accepted while others might be resisted. Therefore, the following questions should be asked about any proposed curriculum innovation:

- What advantages does the curriculum change offer? Is the innovation perceived to be more advantageous than current practices?
- How compatible is it? Is the use of the innovation consistent with the existing beliefs, attitudes,

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organization, and practices within a classroom or school?

- Is the innovation very complicated and difficult to understand?
- Has it been used and tested out in some schools before all schools are expected to use it?
- Have the features and benefits of the innovation been clearly communicated to teachers and institutions?

Topic-028: Exemplification of Environment Analysis

Here is an example of an environment analysis on a course for young Japanese learners (aged six to nine years) who had lived in English speaking countries while their parents were posted there. During their time overseas, they learned quite a lot of English in much the same way as native speaking learners do. On their return to Japan, once a week for one and a half hours, they attended a special class to help maintain their English. They all could speak Japanese and were attending Japanese medium schools in Japan. The important constraints on the special second language maintenance class were as follows:

- There was a very limited class and contact time with English.
- There would be a drop in the learners' interest in learning English as they are identified more strongly with Japan and being Japanese.
- The learners knew that they could communicate more easily with each other in Japanese than in English.
- There was a range of levels of English proficiency with some learners appearing to be very proficient for their age.
- The learners had been learning English in much the same ways as native speakers acquire their first language.

These constraints could have the following effects on curriculum design:

- Parents should be guided in giving their children some extra contact with English.
- The activities should be fun so that the children look forward to do them for their own sake.
- Some of the activities should carry over to the next class so that the children look forward to continue them.
- The activities should be largely teacher-centred rather than group or pair work.
- Most of the activities should be meaning-focused. Language-focused activities should mainly involve correction.

Topic-029: Environment Constraints

Sometimes, it is necessary to consider wider aspects of the situation when carrying out an environment analysis. There may, for example, be institutional or government policies requiring the use of the target language in schools (Liu, 2004), or there may be negative attitudes towards the target language among learners in post-colonial societies. Dubin and Olshtain (1986) suggest a useful way of thinking about

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the wider environment that can have implications for language curriculum design. For example, the language curriculum in a situation where the target language is recognized as one of a country's official languages (the political and national context) then there are relatively few native speakers (the language setting); there are relatively few opportunities to use the language outside the classroom (patterns of language use in society); majority-language speakers doubt the target language's contemporary relevance (group and individual attitudes) will differ greatly from that in a situation where the target language provides employment and educational opportunities.

Topic-030: Understanding the Constraints

In order to understand a constraint fully, it is usually necessary to examine the nature of the constraint in the environment you are working in, and to examine previous research on the constraint. For example, let us look briefly at the constraint of class size. If this constraint is considered to be important for the particular course being designed, it is useful to know exactly how large the classes are. Do they contain 40 students or 140 students? Is it possible to change class sizes?

There has been considerable research on examination of teaching large classes. This research has looked at the relative merits of group work and teacher-centered activities, the effect of class size on learning, and individualization.

There have been many articles and books on activities and techniques for large classes (Coleman, 1989), and on the principles of group work. Good curriculum design must take account of research and theory so that it provides the best possible conditions for learning that the state of the art allows.

Some of the major constraints investigated by research and analysis include the time available, cultural background, the effect of the first language on language learning and special purposes. The following section looks at time as an example of an important constraint in the environment, and provides information that would be useful in helping to plan the length of a course. This investigation of the time constraint provides a model of the application of the steps in environment analysis that can be applied to other constraints.

Topic-031: Steps in Environment Analysis

The steps in environment analysis can be as follows:

Step 1: Brainstorm and then systematically consider the range of environment factors that will affect the course.
Step 2: Choose the most important factors (not more than five) and rank them, putting the most important first.
Step 3: Decide what information you need to fully take account of the factor. The information can come from investigation of the environment and from research and theory.
Step 4: Consider the effects of each factor on the design of the course.
Step 5: Go through steps 1, 2, 3, and 4 again.

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Environment analysis involves looking at the local and wider situation to make sure that the course will fit and meet the local requirements. There is considerable research data on many of the important environment factors including class size, motivation, learners of mixed proficiency, and special purpose goals. Good environment analysis draws on both analysis of the environment and application of previous research and theory. In some models of curriculum design, environment analysis is included in needs analysis.

Lesson-07

NEEDS ANALYSIS -I

Topic-032: Introduction to Needs Analysis

The aim of this lecture is to critically examine what needs to be learned and what the learners want to learn. Needs analysis is directed mainly at the goals and content of a course. It examines what the learners know already and what they need to know. Needs analysis makes sure that the course will contain relevant and useful things to learn. Good needs analysis involves asking the right questions and finding the answers in the most effective way.

One of the basic assumptions of curriculum development is that a sound educational program should be based on an analysis of learners' needs. Procedures used to collect information about learners' needs are known as needs analysis. Needs analysis, as a distinct and necessary phase in planning educational programs, emerged in the 1960s as a part of the systems approach to curriculum development. It was a part of the prevalent philosophy of educational accountability. In this lesson, we will examine approaches to needs analysis and consider the purposes of needs analysis, the nature of needs, whom needs analysis is intended for, who the target population is, who collects information, what procedures can be used, and how the information collected can be used?

Topic-033: The Purposes of Needs Analysis

Needs analysis in language teaching may be used for a number of different purposes, for example:

- To find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, tour guide, or university student.
- To help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students.
- To determine which students from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills.
- To identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel important.
- To identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do.
- To collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing.

Topic-034: What are Needs?

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The term 'needs' is not as straightforward as it might appear, and hence the term is sometimes used to refer to wants, desires, demands, expectation, motivations, lacks, constraints, and requirements. Needs are often described in terms of a linguistic deficiency, that is, as describing the difference between what a learner can presently do in a language and what he or she should be able to do. This suggests that needs have objective reality. Porcher (1977,as in Brindley, 1984) offers a different perspective: "Need is not a thing that exists and might be encountered ready-made on the street. It is a thing that is constructed, the center of conceptual networks and the product of a number of epistemological choices (which are not innocent themselves, of course)."

What is identified as a *need* is dependent on judgment and reflects the interests and values of those making such a judgment. Teachers, learners, employers, parents, and other stakeholders may thus all have different views as to what needs are. For example, in considering the needs of immigrants, representatives of the majority population may see the immigrants' needs as achieving cultural and linguistic assimilation as quickly as possible and hence may want a needs analysis to identify the language skills immigrants require surviving, and ultimately assimilating into the dominant culture.

Topic-035: The Users of Needs Analysis

A needs analysis may be conducted for a variety of different users. For example, in conducting a needs analysis to help revise the secondary school English curriculum in a country, the end users include:

- Curriculum officers in the ministry of education who may wish to use the information to evaluate the adequacy of existing syllabus, curriculum, and materials.
- Teachers who will teach from the new curriculum.
- Learners who will be taught from the curriculum.
- Writers who are preparing new textbooks.
- Testing personnel who are involved in developing end-of-school assessments.
- Staff of tertiary institutions who are interested in knowing what the expected level of the existing students will be and what problems they face.

With small-scale needs analysis such as that carried out by a single teacher on his or her class, the audience might consist of the teacher, other teachers, and the program coordinator. In cases of large-scale needs analysis, there will be multiple audiences for the results of a needs analysis. Determining the likely audiences is an important first step in planning a needs analysis in order to ensure that the information they need is obtained and that the needs analysis will have the impact it is designed to have.

Topic-036: The Target Population

The target population in a needs analysis refers to the people about whom information will be collected. Typically, in language programs there will be language learners or potential language learners, but others are also often involved depending on whether they can provide information useful in meeting the purposes of the needs analysis. For example, in conducting a needs analysis to determine the focus of an English program in public secondary schools in an EFL context, the target population might include:

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- policymakers
- ministry of education officials
- teachers
- students
- academics
- employers
- vocational training specialists
- parents
- influential individuals and pressure groups
- academic specialists
- community agencies

In determining the target population, an important issue is that of sampling. In some cases, the population is small enough for every learner to be included in the sample. In other cases, this approach is not feasible and so decisions must be made about the size of the sample to be included in a needs analysis. Sampling involves asking a portion of the potential population instead of the total population and seeks to create a sample that is representative of the total population. Elley (1984) points out that a number of factors influence the approach to sampling, such as the homogeneity of the population in terms of the kinds of skills, attitudes, or knowledge being sought or the need to study subgroups within the sample - for example, based on sex, language group, or other factors. Where the target population is large, specialized advice is often needed to determine what approach to sampling best suits the purpose of the study and the sources of information available.

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Lesson-08

NEEDS ANALYSIS -II

Topic-037: Administering the Needs Analysis

Planning a needs analysis involves deciding who will administer the needs analysis and collect and analyze the results. Needs analyses vary in their scope and demands, from a survey of a whole school population in a country to a study of a group of thirty learners in a single institution. Sometimes a team of personnel is assembled specifically for the purpose of doing the analysis; at other times two or three interested teachers may be the only ones involved. In some language programs, informal needs analysis is a part of a teacher's ongoing responsibilities.

Topic-038: Procedures for Conducting Needs Analysis

A variety of procedures can be used in conducting needs analysis and the kind of information obtained is often dependent on the type of procedure selected. Since, any one source of information is likely to be incomplete or partial, a triangular approach (i.e., for collecting information two or more different sources of information should be sought). For example, when a needs analysis of the writing problems encountered by foreign students enrolled in American universities is conducted, information could be obtained from the following sources:

- Samples of student writing
- Test data on student performance
- Reports by teachers on typical problems students face
- Opinions of experts
- Information from students via interviews and questionnaires
- Analysis of textbooks teaching academic writing
- Survey or related literature
- Examples of writing programs from other institutions
- Examples of writing assignments given to first-year university students

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Topic-039: Task Analysis and Case Studies

This refers to analysis of the kinds of tasks the learners will have to carry out in English in a future occupational or educational setting and assessment of the linguistic characteristics and demands of the tasks. For example, a hotel employee might have to perform the following tasks in English:

- Greet hotel guests
- Inquire about their accommodation needs
- Inform them of accommodation available at the hotel
- Help them make a suitable choice of accommodation
- Handle check-in procedures

The emphasis of target situation analysis is on the nature and effect of target language communications in particular situations (for example, in offices, on assembly lines, in meeting rooms, in content-area classrooms). Expert analysis of communication establishes standards against which current performance can be gauged. Once target tasks have been identified, their linguistic characteristics are determined as a basis for designing a language course or training materials.

Topic-040: Designing the Needs Analysis

Designing a needs analysis involves choosing from among various options discussed above and selecting those that are likely to give a comprehensive view of learners\ needs and that represent the interests of the different stakeholders involved. Decisions have to be made on the practical procedures involved in collecting, organizing, analyzing, and reporting the information collected. It is important to make sure that the needs analysis does not produce an information overload. There needs to be a clear rationale for collecting different kinds of information that will actually be used. The procedures of needs analysis are:

- Literature survey
- Analysis of a wide range of survey questionnaires
- Contact with others who had conducted similar surveys
- Interviews with teachers to determine goals
- Identification of participating departments
- Presentation of project proposal to participating departments and identification of liaison person in each department
- Development of a pilot student and staff questionnaire
- Review of questionnaires by colleagues
- Piloting of questionnaires
- Selection of staff and student subjects
- Developing a schedule for collecting data

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- Administration of questionnaires

Topic-041: Making Use of the Information Obtained

The results of a needs analysis will generally consist of information taken from several different sources and summarized in the form of ranked lists of different kinds. For example, it might result in lists of the following kind:

- Situations in which English is frequently used
- Situations in which difficulties are encountered
- Comments most often made by people on learners' performance
- Frequencies with which different transactions are carried out
- Perceived difficulties with different aspects of language use - preferences for different kinds of activities in teaching
- Frequencies of errors made in different types of situations or activities on common communication problems in different situations
- Suggestions and opinions about different aspects of learners' problems
- Frequencies of linguistic items or units in different texts or situations

Topic-042: Evaluating Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is a kind of assessment and thus can be evaluated by considering its reliability, validity and practicality. Reliable needs analysis involves using well-thought-out, standardized tools that are applied systematically. Instead of observing people performing tasks that learners will have to do after the course, it is better to systematize the observation by using a checklist or by recording and apply standardized analysis procedures.

Valid needs analysis involves looking at what is relevant and important. Consideration of the type of need that is being looked at and the type of information that is being gathered is important. Before needs analysis begins, it may be necessary to do a ranking activity to decide what type of need should get priority in the needs analysis investigation. The worst decision would be to let practicality dominate by deciding to investigate what is easiest to investigate.

Topic-043: Example in Need Analysis

The example is taken from Richards's book (2001) and it involves NNES (non-native English speaking students).. In Auckland University, New Zealand, a needs analysis was conducted and the purpose of this analysis was to understand whether the current courses meet the needs of the students. It is conducted in 1997 in the largest university of New Zealand where the population was roughly 26000. During that year the strength of non-native English speaking student was increasing and the university faced the challenge to enhance the language proficiency of newly arrived students. In order to conduct needs analysis, the university got insight from previous surveys as well as two new questionnaires were designed.

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These questionnaires mainly addressed the issues and problems faced by the students. With the help of this survey, the university gathered information about the problems faced by ESL learners. The questionnaires were used to gather demographic information and information about different language skills. In the light of this survey, some suggestions were made which focused on developing reading habits among NNES. Some changes in the syllabus were also proposed in the light of this survey.

Topic-044: Issues in Needs Analysis

There are several issues in needs analysis that have been the focus of continuing debate. Three are as follows:

- Common core and specialised language
- Narrow focus – wide focus
- Critical needs analysis

We see that needs analysis makes sure that a course will be relevant and satisfying to the learners. This is such a basic requirement that it is worth giving a careful thought. To neglect the needs of the learners is to run the risk of producing a course that does not meet the basic requirements.

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Lesson-09

TWENTY PRINCIPLES -I

Topic-045: Introduction to Twenty Principles-I

This lesson aims to critically analyze how learning can be encouraged with the framework of language curriculum design. The purpose of this lesson is to provide a sensible basis to guide teachers and help them design courses based on certain principles.

These principles must be based on research and theory, and must be general enough to allow variety and flexibility in their application to suit a wide range of conditions in which language is taught. The principles have been divided into three groups. These three groups represent the three major divisions of the central circle in the curriculum design diagram.

Topic-046: Introduction to Twenty Principles-II

The first group of principles deals with **content and sequencing**. These principles are concerned with what goes into a language course and the order in which language items appear in the course. The aim of these principles is to make sure that the learners are gaining something useful from the course. It is possible to run a language course which is full of interesting activities and introduces the learners to new language items, but provides a very poor return for the time invested in it. This poor return can occur because many of the lessons do not contain anything new to learn, because the new items have very little value in the ordinary use of the language, or because they set out interference conditions which result in a step backwards in learning rather than a step forwards.

The second group of principles deals with **format and presentation**. These principles are concerned with what actually happens in the classroom and during the learning. Most practically, they relate to the kinds of activities used in the course and the ways in which learners' process the course material. It is in this aspect of curriculum design that teachers may have their greatest influence on the course.

The third group of principles deals with **monitoring and assessment** and to some degree evaluation. In each of these groups, the principles have been ranked in order of their importance i.e. the first principle in the group is the most important of that group; the second principle is the next most important and so on.

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Topic-047: First Group of Twenty Principles: Content and Sequencing (Principles 1-2)

Content and sequencing

Principle 1: Frequency

A language course should provide the best possible coverage of language in use through the inclusion of items that occur frequently in the language so that learners get the best return for their learning effort.

Many years of research on vocabulary frequency, the frequency of grammatical structures, and English for Special Purposes (ESP) has resulted in a substantial amount of information about the frequency of occurrence of various types of items and of the coverage of text provided by knowledge of the most frequent items. The most striking figures are of vocabulary. The data on vocabulary guide us that knowing 10 items provides coverage of 25% of written text, 100 items 50 %, 1,000 items 70% and 2,000 items over 80%.

It is possible to state a few general rules about frequency, coverage and types of items:

- A small number of high-frequency items will cover a large proportion of a text.
- After the few most frequent items are known, a very large number of low-frequency items must be known to cover the remainder of the text.
- Typically, high-frequency items are simple in their form (but not necessarily in their meaning).

These rules can be applied to the selection of material for language courses in the following ways:

- A language course should give most attention to the high-frequency items of the language.
- Low-frequency items should be dealt with only when the high frequency items have been sufficiently learned. It may be more efficient to teach the learners strategies for learning and coping with low frequency items rather than for the teacher to present the low-frequency items themselves.

Principle 2: Strategies and autonomy

A language course should train learners how to learn a language so that they can become effective and independent language learners.

There has been considerable research on the characteristics of good language learners (Wong Fillmore, 1983 and Naiman, 1996) and on the strategies that can lead to effective language learning. Learning and coping strategies can include the following:

- Learning strategies (deep processing of language and content, vocabulary learning cards, word part strategies, mnemonic strategies, e.g. keyword, predicting, notetaking strategies)
- Gaining input (peer interaction strategies, strategies for controlling the teacher)
- coping strategies (inferring vocabulary from context, coping with complex sentences)

Topic-048: First Group of Twenty Principles: Content and Sequencing (Principles 3-4)

Principle 3: Spaced retrieval

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Learners should have increasingly spaced, repeated opportunity to give attention to wanted items in a variety of contexts.

The evidence to support this principle comes from studies of the effects of repetition on learning (Kachroo, 1962; Saragi *et al.*, 1978) and the levels of processing theory (Craik and Tulving, 1975).

A few course books check to make sure that they provide repetition but these are exceptional. It is too difficult and time-consuming for an individual teacher without the text available on a computer to do such checking. The simplest and possibly the most useful way to check is to test frequently whether wanted items are learned.

Another possibility is to choose a small group of very useful, but likely to be neglected items and to keep a note of the repetition of these. The group should probably not contain more than 20 items to make checking manageable.

Principle 4: Language System

The language focus of a course needs to be on generalizable features of the language system.

This principle does not imply that all of the attention of the teacher and learners is directed towards formal features of the language. What it means is that where attention is directed to language features these features should be predominantly regular features. A good command over these features will enable the learners to make "creative" use of the language. That is, to say or write and understand things that they have not met or produced before, and to understand things that they have not met or produced before. If the teacher wants to check that this principle is being applied in a particular lesson, then the teacher should ask this question, "Will today's work help the learners to deal with tomorrow's task?" If the answer is yes, then the principle is being applied.

To check if the principle is being applied in a course, a teacher needs to look at the learning goal of a particular lesson and then to evaluate that goal in terms of the uses that the learners will make of the language. This evaluation needs to check that the goal of the lesson is allowing the learner to make the widest possible use of the language features involved. If a course does not do this well, teachers can change the focus of the course by adapting the exercises and activities.

Topic-049: First Group of Twenty Principles: Content and Sequencing (Principle -5-6)

Principle 5: Keep moving forward

A language course should progressively cover useful language items, skills and strategies.

This principle means that the course should have explicit language teaching goals and that there should be some way to ensure that there is opportunity for the goals to be achieved.

This principle is applied in a variety of ways by different language teaching methods. Aural-oral courses and many others assign particular structures, functions, or vocabulary to particular lessons. Good examples of this can be found in courses like the Cambridge English Course which lists the items to be learned in each lesson in its very detailed table of contents.

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In order to check if a course is progressively covering useful items, skills and strategies, it is necessary to have lists of useful items to check the course against. This point is taken up in more detail in the section on attainment goals.

The most effective way of making sure that the principle of progressive coverage is applied is to make sure that each learning task has a goal which fits to the plan for the course. Before using a new task, teachers should decide what the learning goal of the task is. When doing this, it should be remembered that learning goals can include language items, content material (ideas), skill elements including the development of fluency with language and skill items that have already been met before, and discourse features such as text structure or dialogue maintenance strategies. It is often useful to inform learners about the learning goal of the task. If a course includes activities that do not have an obvious learning goal or that have a goal that does not fit the overall goals of the course, it is worth adapting or replacing the task accordingly. An additional way of keeping the course directed towards learning goals is to have regular goal-directed tests. These can have a positive effect on the teaching and learning.

Principle 6: Teach-ability

The teaching of language items should take account of the most favorable sequencing of these items and should take account of when the learners are most ready to learn them.

Pienemann et al. (1988) and others have conducted research into the sequence in which language items are learned in second language acquisition and into the effects of this sequence on teaching a second language.

The psychological complexity of a structure depends on the amount of rearranging that is needed when the message that the speaker wants to communicate is expressed in language. For example, if a speaker wants to ask someone a question about the arrival of a friend (the message), it is necessary to express this idea in language: “When will John arrive?” This sentence however has a particular word order which has to be learned. We know from studies of young native speakers of English that it is likely that the order of ideas in the message is: “John arrives when?” Between this order and “When will John arrive?” two rearrangements are needed. This means that the sentence “When will John arrive?” is more psychologically complex than “Will John come?” Notice also that the rearrangement needed to produce “Will John come?” is also needed, along with another rearrangement, to produce “When will John come?” The learning of the rearrangement to produce “Will John come?” can be considered a prerequisite to learning “When will John come?”

On the basis of this kind of analysis and on evidence from second language acquisition studies, Pienemann and Johnston (1987) have made a sequenced list of structures. The sequence of the items in the list is the same as the sequence in which second-language learners learn them.

Topic-050: First Group of Twenty Principles: Content and Sequencing (Principle 7-8)

Principle 7: Learning Burden

The course should help the learners to make the most effective use of previous knowledge.

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Much of the previous knowledge that is brought to second-language learning comes from the learners' first language. The effect of this knowledge on second-language learning has been a matter of debate with some arguing that the first language has a major effect on second-language learning (Lado, 1957; Ringbom, 1987) and others arguing that second-language learning like first-language learning occur without the influence of other languages.

Part of the reason for the debate has been that second-language learning occurs in a variety of circumstances. Where the language is learned as a foreign language with little opportunity for contact and use outside the classroom, the effect of the first language is more noticeable. Where the classroom is only one of a range of sources for second-language input as with second-language learning of English in countries such as New Zealand, Australia, Britain and the United States, first-language influence is less noticeable.

There is plenty of evidence however those aspects of the first language can help learning. This help can occur at all levels within the language, with pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and discourse. It can also occur with aspects of language skill and with content knowledge.

Principle 8: Interference

The items in a language course should be sequenced so that items which are learned together have a positive effect on each other for learning, and so that interference effects are avoided.

Research has shown that items which have loose indirect connections with each other (indirect free associates) are learned more effectively if they are learned at the same time. Items which have strong meaning relationships (opposites, near synonyms, free associates) interfere with each other and thus make learning more difficult (Higa, 1963; Nation, 2000). In view of this evidence and the very large body of evidence on paired associate learning, it is surprising that courses still present opposites and alternative expressions of the same idea (near synonyms) together. Unfortunately the order of items within the course reflects the associations in the curriculum designer's mind rather than what will help learning.

The easiest solution to this sequencing problem is to let the occurrence of items in naturally occurring spoken or written texts determine the order in which they occur in the course. This takes the control of sequencing away from the curriculum designer and thus avoids the word association that the curriculum designer may bring to sequencing.

If a course book presents closely related items together, a teacher can attempt to overcome this by helping the learners master the most useful of these before the pairs or groups of items are met. So if hot and cold are presented together in the course book, the teacher can help the learners master hot before the book introduces hot and cold. If one item in a pair is already well known, interference is unlikely to occur. The more secure the learning of the first item, the less chance there is of interference when the second item is met.

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Lesson-10

TWENTY PRINCIPLES -II

Topic-051: Second Group of Twenty Principles: Format and Presentation (Principle 1-2)

Principle 1: Motivation

As much as possible, the learners should be interested and excited about learning the language and they should come to value this learning.

This principle stresses the importance of the learners' attitude to what they are studying. Motivation is a very important determinant of the amount of time, involvement and effect that learners give to learning. The best motivation is "intrinsic", springing from within the learner, rather than "extrinsic", coming from some outside integrative or instrumental reward.

Intrinsic motivation can develop as a result of extrinsic motivation. Learning for reasons of gain can result in a genuine love of learning and involvement in the activity. If learners are not interested in learning, it is worthwhile beginning by looking at ways to attract them and involve them in learning. The following ways can be considered in this context:

- Make the subject matter of the lessons relevant and interesting to them. Surveys of wants and attitudes can help gather information to guide this.
- Give the learners some control and decision-making over what they do. A negotiated or partly negotiated syllabus is one way to do this.
- Set tasks with clear outcomes and with a high possibility of the learners completing them successfully.
- Set many short achievement tests to encourage the learners to work and to show them that they can be successful learners.
- Show the learners how to keep records of their progress so that they can see their continuing success. These records can include speed reading graphs, standardised dictation scores, number of graded readers completed and movement through the levels, scores on split-information tasks and writing-accuracy graphs.
- Help the learners become autonomous learners (Crabbe, 1993; Cotterall, 2000) by explaining the rationale and goals of particular classroom activities, by the teacher modelling autonomous behaviour and by learners modelling autonomous behaviour for each other.

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- Reward learners' efforts through publication in a class newsletter, through praise and through attention from the teacher.
- Use tasks that contain built-in challenges such as competition, time pressure, memory and hidden puzzle-like solutions (Nation, 1989).
- Encourage learners to set achievable and realistic individual goals.

Principle 2: Four Strands

A course should include a roughly even balance of the four strands of meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, meaning-focused output and fluency activities.

This principle is concerned with the relative amount of time given to the four main strands of a language course – meaning-focused input; language focused learning, meaning-focused output and fluency development.

The rough rule of thumb is that on average equal time should be given to each of these four strands in the total language experience of the learner. That means that time in class and out of class can be considered if, during these times, the learner is gaining appropriate language activity that can be classified as fitting into these strands. For example, if a learner is doing a lot of graded reading outside class time and is gaining truly comprehensible input outside of class time, this would mean that the time allocation for meaning-focused input could be met outside class and so the time in class could be given to language-focused learning, meaning-focused output and fluency development.

Topic-052: Second Group of Twenty Principles: Format and Presentation (Principle 3)

Principle 3: Comprehensible input

There should be substantial quantities of interesting comprehensible receptive activity in both listening and reading.

In a very practical and well-conducted experiment, Elley and Mangubhai (1981) replaced part of drill-based English lessons for Fijian learners of English with self-directed reading of interesting children's books. Eight months later, with four English classes per week, it was found that the learners in the experimental group had made 15 months' progress on a variety of proficiency measures of English. The large amounts of reading that the learners did were not in addition to their usual English course. It replaced about one-third of the usual course. Other experiments, although not as large-scale or as well-designed as the Elley and Mangubhai study, indicate a similar effect for large quantities of listening. The theoretical justification for such an approach to language learning rests on the idea that learners need to build up and are capable of building up an understanding of the language system before they are called on to produce language (Nord, 1980).

The requirements of such an approach to learning are that the learners have access to large quantities of interesting reading or listening material at a roughly suitable level and that although the use of such material may be monitored by the teacher it is not the excuse for quantities of carefully checked follow-up exercises. There are various ways in which teachers can build up class sets (not all of the same title) of reading texts. Here are some of them:

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- Seek funding from an embassy of an English-speaking country to finance such a library. A request like this has more chance of being successful if it contains a list of the required books, their total cost, and information about where they can be obtained.
- Get each learner to buy one text each and then organise a system for temporarily exchanging the books amongst the members of the class so that each learner can read the books belonging to other learners in the class.
- Build up a reading box of material taken from newspapers, written by learners, written by a group of co-operating teachers, and put on cards or in plastic bags.
- Place a book in a glass-covered case. Each day turn one page so that the learners can read more of the story each day.

Topic-053: Second Group of Twenty Principles: Format and Presentation (Principle 4)

Principle 4: Fluency

A language course should provide activities aimed at increasing the fluency with which the learners can use the language they already know, both receptively and productively.

Fluency is a part of the skill goal of language learning. Fluency activities do not aim to teach new language items but aim to give the learner ready access to what is already known.

The importance of fluency in language use is highlighted in first-language research on the relationship between vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. One of the several possible explanations for a lack of success of many studies is showing that pre-teaching vocabulary results in improved comprehension that is not sufficient just to know the meanings of new words in a text. It is also necessary to be able to retrieve these meanings quickly and fluently when their forms are met in the text. Many learners of English as a foreign language experience this difficulty. Their language knowledge of vocabulary and sentence patterns may be substantial (the result of several years' learning) but their ability to access and use this knowledge fluently is extremely low.

Fluency is often contrasted with accuracy (Brumfit, 1984), and is seen as a way of making consciously studied material become available for less conscious use. Ellis (1987) sees fluency activities as a way of making features of learners' "careful" style of language use become available in other less monitored styles.

Fluency activities depend on several conditions to achieve their goal. In various techniques, learners work in pairs with one acting as the speaker and the other as listener. The speaker talks for four minutes on a topic while her partner listens. Then the pairs change with each speaker giving the same information to a new partner in three minutes, followed by a further change and a two-minute talk.

From the point of view of fluency, this activity has these important features. First, the user is encouraged to process a large quantity of language. This is done by allowing the speaker to perform without interruption and by having the speaker make three deliveries of the talk. Second, the demands of the activity are limited to a much smaller set than would occur in most uncontrolled learning activities. This can be done by the teacher's control as is the case in most receptive fluency activities such as reading graded readers or listening to stories, or can be done by choice, planning or repetition by the learner. In activity the

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speaker choose the ideas, language items and way of organizing the talk. The four- and three-minute deliveries allow the speaker to bring these aspects well under control, so that fluency can become the learning goal of the activity. Third, the learner is helped to reach a high level of performance.

Topic-054: Second Group of Twenty Principles: Format and Presentation (Principle 5-6)

Principle 5: Output

The learners should be pushed to produce the language in both speaking and writing over a range of discourse types.

While no writer about language learning would deny the value of large quantities of comprehensible input, there are several who say that it is not sufficient in itself for language learning. While input is undoubtedly very important and should precede output, there are strong arguments for making sure that learners are given the chance to produce language. Swain (1985) argues that the language knowledge needed to comprehend language is not the same as the language knowledge needed to produce language. For example, a learner of English needs only minimal knowledge of the article and preposition systems of English in order to gain a satisfactory understanding of spoken or written English. If the learner wants to speak or write; however, then there are decisions about the choice of articles (or their omission) and the choice of appropriate prepositions that need to be made. These decisions require much more knowledge for language production than they do for language reception. Swain describes this difference as having to move "from a purely semantic analysis of the language to a syntactic analysis of it" (1985).

There are clearly other differences too. Speaking and writing require the retrieval of form and the development of productive skills. Biber's (1990) research shows the different occurrences and clustering of formal features in different text types. To gain a balanced coverage of the formal features of the language, it is necessary to make use of language across a representative range of discourse types.

Courses which aim at all four skills can be checked to see that about 25 per cent of the total learning time is given to activities involving language production. It is also worthwhile checking that either writing or speaking is not being neglected at the expense of the other. It is also worth checking that learners have to produce language in both formal and informal settings, for transactional and interactional purposes and in a variety of social roles and power relationships. Munby (1978) provides a useful list of equal and unequal relationships.

Principle 6: Deliberate Learning

The course should include language-focused learning in the sound system, vocabulary, grammar and discourse areas.

Language-focused learning can occur when the learners' attention is on language items not because the learner wants to receive or communicate a message in a normal way, but because the learner wants to learn some part of the language system. Language-focused attention can be directed towards the sound system, the spelling system, the vocabulary, the grammar system and discourse patterns.

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Reviews of research on language-focused learning (Ellis, 1990; Spada, 1997) show that some language-focused learning in a language course has the following effects:

- It can speed up learning.
- It can help learners overcome barriers to their language development.
- It can have a positive effect on meaning-focused learning.

In general, courses containing appropriate amounts and types of language focused learning achieve better results than courses which do not include such learning.

The following activities are all examples of language-focused learning:

- Dictation
- Listening for particular words or phrases
- Repetition and substitution drills
- Memorizing dialogues and poems
- Analysing cohesive devices
- Learning to guess from context clues
- Sentence-completion activities
- Sentence combining and transformation
- Guided composition
- Distinguishing minimal pairs
- Focusing on sounds, intonation and stress
- Learning vocabulary on cards
- Parsing
- Re-arranging words in the right order to make sentences
- Getting feedback on errors

Most courses need to reduce the amount of language-focused learning rather than increase it. Generally it should take up about 25 per cent of the time in a language course. For most items, language-focused practice does not lead directly to the implicit knowledge of language that is needed for normal communication. It is therefore very important in a language course that language-focused learning is seen as a support rather than a substitute for learning through meaning-focused activities.

Topic-055: Second Group of Twenty Principles: Format and Presentation (Principle 7-8)

Principle 7: Time on Task

As much time as possible should be spent on using and focusing on the second language.

This principle is based on the research finding that one of the best indicators of how much will be learned is how long the learners spend on appropriate learning activities. The more time learners spend on language learning, the more they learn. The principle gains some support from the correlation between lengths of time spent living in a country where the foreign language is spoken and proficiency in the language.

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Research on the proportion of time the teacher uses the foreign language in the classroom shows that (1) teachers have an inaccurate idea of how much information they give in the foreign language and how much in the first language, (2) learners are not worried to have all the lessons completely in the foreign language, (3) if there is a policy to maximize the use of the foreign language and if teachers receive some training on how to do this then teachers can devote all of the class time to the foreign language without using the first language.

Principle 8: Depth of Processing

Learners should process the items to be learned as deeply and as thoughtfully as possible.

The "levels of processing" hypothesis (Craik and Lockhart, 1972) proposes that the single most important factor in learning is the quality of mental activity in the mind of the learners at the moment that learning takes place.

Items that are repeated without thoughtful attention will not be learned as quickly or retained as long as those that are related to past experience result in some meaning-directed effort, or are thoughtfully analyzed. Another way of expressing this principle is to say that "the quantity of learning depends on the quality of mental activity at the moment of learning".

Many teachers apply this principle without really being aware of it. They do it to keep the attention and interest of their learners. Applying the principle only requires a small change to normal teaching procedures.

Topic-056: Second Group of Twenty Principles: Format and Presentation (Principle 9-10)

Principle 9: Integrative Motivation

The course should be presented so that the learners have the most favorable attitudes to the language, users of the language, use of the language, the teacher's skill in teaching the language and their chances of success in learning the language.

Recent research and thinking about second-language learning have given an important role to "affective" factors. Affective factors refer to feelings and attitudes and include such things as motivation, shyness about speaking a strange language (or "language anxiety"), opinions about native speakers of the second language and attitudes towards the teacher. If learners have negative attitudes towards the language and its users, or if they feel personally threatened by having to use the language, this will make it difficult for them to progress in learning the language.

Some of these affective factors may be influenced by the teacher and by the way the course is organized. For example, if the learners are confident users of current technology but the teacher does not make use of this technology, learners may develop unfavorable attitudes to the course. This may be one reason for the teacher to adapt the course book.

Among the range of motivation factors, the two that have received the most attention from researchers are **integrative motivation** and **instrumental motivation**. While the interests of researchers

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have not always had immediate relevance to teachers, Dörnyei (2001) addresses the question of how teachers can motivate learners and suggests that motivational teaching practice has four principal aspects:

- Creating basic motivational conditions
- Generating initial student motivation
- Maintaining and promoting motivation
- Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation.

Principle 10: Learning Style

There should be opportunity for learners to work with the learning material in ways that most suit their individual learning style.

Learners approach activities in a variety of ways depending on their personality, their previous learning experience, their expectations of how they will be tested on what they learn, and their view of the nature of the learning task.

Not all learners will feel comfortable with the same way of learning, and learners may learn more effectively if they can choose a style of learning that most suits them. An effectively designed language course allows for these individual differences and provides choices and flexibility in the way activities can be done. The following list suggests some of the choices that could be made available:

- Group size: learning individually or with other learners
- Speed and intensity: learning at a slow, thoughtful pace or at a fast and intensive pace
- Medium: learning through aural input or written input
- Representation of information: learning through language or through pictorial or diagrammatic representation
- Mental process: learning holistically or through analysis
- Understanding: learning through doing or through understanding
- Use of first language: learning through translation or through the second language
- Source of control: learning through activities planned and provided by the teacher or through self-access and negotiated procedures.

A course should take account of individual differences and learning styles in two ways: (1) by providing opportunities for learners to work to their strengths, and (2) by providing opportunity and training for learners to try other ways of learning. An effective language course not only produces effective learning but also produces effective learners.

Topic-057: Third Group of Twenty Principles: Monitoring and Assessment (Principles 1-2)

Principle 1: Ongoing Needs and Environment Analysis

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The selection, gradation, presentation and assessment of the material in a language course should be based on a careful consideration of the learners and their needs, the teaching conditions, and the time and resources available.

This principle stresses the importance of doing environment analysis and needs analysis during the planning of a course. It emphasizes various aspects of language teaching. These aspects are how to select and grade lexical or grammatical material. Overall, this principle analyzes that how well a language program caters various needs of the learners. It also touches upon the element of time and resources. In order to monitor a program, we, as language teachers, need to ensure the time and resource element.

Principle 2: Feedback

Learners should receive helpful feedback which will allow them to improve the quality of their language use.

Feedback is a term from communication theory. After a message has been sent, the sender may receive information about various aspects of the message. Did the message say what it was supposed to say? Was it clearly received? Did it bring about the required action or response in the person who received it? All this information going back to the sender is called feedback. The receiver of a message may also get feedback about the degree of success of his understanding of the message. Feedback from language use can come from the sender herself, from the people who receive the message, and from an observer of the communication process.

Topic-058: Using the List of Principles

The previous discussion of the twenty principles has attempted to explain the principles and to indicate their application in curriculum design. The list of principles, however, has a much wider range of uses:

- It can be used to guide the design of language teaching courses and lessons.
- It can be used to evaluate existing courses and lessons.
- It can be used to help teachers integrate and contextualise information gained from keeping up with developments in their field. For example, when reading articles from journals such as *TESOL Quarterly*, *Language Learning*, *Applied Linguistics* or *RELC Journal*, teachers can try to decide what principle is being addressed by the article and how the article helps in the application of a principle.
- It can provide a basis for teachers to reflect on their practice and professional development. It may provide a basis for action research within their classrooms. It can help them answer questions like "Is this a good technique?", "Should I use group work?", and "Do my learners need to speak a lot in class?
- It can act as one of many possible reference points in teacher training courses.

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Lesson-11

PLANNING GOALS AND LEARNING OUTCOMES -I

Topic-059: Planning Goals and Learning Outcomes

Needs analysis seeks to provide answers to the questions regarding the needs and requirements of the students and situation analysis seeks to identify the role of contextual factors in implementing curriculum change. In this lesson, we will consider another crucial dimension of decision making in curriculum planning i.e. determining the goals and outcomes of a program.

Several key assumptions about goals characterize the curriculum approach to educational planning. These can be summarized as follows:

- People are generally motivated to pursue specific goals.
- The use of goals in teaching improves the effectiveness of teaching and learning.
- A program will be effective to the extent that its goals are sound and clearly described.

These principles appear to be self-evident and uncontroversial. Most language programs describe their goals in terms of aims and objectives. The nature of aims and objectives, however, is not necessarily straightforward because they refer to knowledge, skills, and values that educational planners believe learners' need to develop. While deciding on goals, planners choose from alternatives based on assumptions about the role of teaching and of a curriculum. Therefore, formulating goal is not an objective scientific enterprise but a judgment call. For this reason, the nature of goals in the design of educational programs has aroused considerable controversy and debate in the curriculum literature and continues to do so.

Topic-060: The Ideology of the Curriculum: Academic Rationalization

In developing goals for educational programs, curriculum planners draw on their understanding both of the present and long-term needs of learners and society as well as the planners' beliefs and ideologies about schools, learners, and teachers. These beliefs and values provide the philosophical underpinnings for educational programs and the justification for the kinds of aims they contain. At any given time, however, a number of competing or complementary perspectives are available concerning the focus of the curriculum.

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This justification for the aims of curriculum stresses the intrinsic value of the subject matter and its role in developing the learner's intellect, humanistic values, and rationality. The content matter of different subjects is viewed as the basis for a curriculum, and mastery of content is an end in itself rather than a means to solve social problems or providing efficient means to achieve the goals of policy makers. The role of schools is to provide access to the major achievements of a particular cultural tradition and to know the insights gained from studying enduring fields of knowledge. Academic rationalism is sometimes used to justify the inclusion of certain foreign languages in school curricula, where they are taught not as tools for communication but as an aspect of social studies.

Topic-061: The Ideology of the Curriculum: Social and Economic Efficiency

This educational philosophy emphasizes the practical needs of learners and society, and the role of an educational program in producing learners who are economically productive. People can improve themselves and their environment through a process of rational planning. Social, economic, and other needs of society can be identified and planned by task analysis, by forming objectives for each task, and by teaching skills as discrete units (Uhrmacher, 1993). It is an ends-means approach. Bobbitt (1990), who was one of the founders of curriculum theory, advocated this view of the curriculum. Curriculum development was seen as based on scientific principles, and its practitioners were "educational engineers" whose job was to discover the total range of habits, skills, abilities, forms of thought. Bobbitt concluded that an appropriate metaphor for curriculum development was factory and production. In language teaching, this philosophy leads to an emphasis on practical and functional skills in a foreign or second language.

Socioeconomic ideology stresses the economic needs of society as a justification for the teaching of English. Successful economies in the twenty-first century are increasingly knowledge-based, and the bulk of the world's knowledge is in the English language. In a recent debate over standards of English in Japan, poor standards of English were cited as one reason for Japan's economic malaise in the late 1990s.

Topic-062: The Ideology of The Curriculum: Learner Centeredness

This curriculum perspective emphasizes the roles schools and learners can and should play in addressing social injustices and inequality. Curriculum development is not seen as a neutral process. Schools likewise do not present equal opportunities for all (Freire 1972 and Apple 1986) but reflect the general inequalities in society. Schools must engage teachers and students in an examination of important social and personal problems and seek ways to address them. This process is known as "empowerment." Teachers must empower their students so that they can recognize unjust systems of class, race or gender and challenge them. The most persuasive and currently popular representatives of this viewpoint are associated with the movement known as critical theory and critical pedagogy.

Topic-063: The Ideology of the Curriculum Social Constructionism and Cultural Pluralism

This philosophy argues that schools should prepare students to participate in several different cultures and not merely the culture of the dominant social and economic group. This particular philosophy defines the role of schools where there is no inequality on the basis of gender, race or age. Learning is an inclusive process where roles of schools and learners are integrated.

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Cultural pluralism defines the role of various cultures and to what extent it is important to look at the culture of the native speakers while designing the course. Cultural pluralism leads to the bilingual education in some parts of the world.

Banks (1983) argues that students in multicultural societies such as the United States need to develop cross-cultural competency or what is sometimes termed intercultural communication.

Lesson-12

PLANNING GOALS AND LEARNING OUTCOMES -II

Topic-064: Stating Curriculum Outcomes: Aims

In curriculum discussions, the terms goal and aim are used interchangeably to refer to a description of the general purposes of a curriculum and objective to refer to a more specific and concrete description of purposes. We will use the terms aim and objective here. An aim refers to a statement of a general change that a program seeks to bring about in learners. The purposes of aim statements are:

- To provide a clear definition of the purposes of a program.
- To provide guidelines for teachers, learners, and material writers.
- To help provide a focus for instruction.
- To describe important and realizable changes in learning.

Aims statements reflect the ideology of the curriculum and show how the curriculum will seek to realize it. The following statements describe the aims of teaching English at the primary level in Singapore:

Our pupils learn English in order to:

- communicate effectively in both speech and writing, in everyday situations to meet the demands of society.
- acquire good reading habits to understand, enjoy, and appreciate a wide range of texts including the literature of other cultures.
- develop the ability to express themselves imaginatively and creatively.
- acquire skills to make critical and rational judgments.
- negotiate their own learning goals and evaluate their own progress.
- acquire information and study skills to learn the other subjects taught in English.
- cope effectively and efficiently with change, extended learning tasks, and examinations.
- acquire knowledge for self-development and for fulfilling personal needs and aspirations.
- develop positive attitudes toward constructive ideas and values that are transmitted in oral and/or written forms using the English language.

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- develop sensitivity to and an appreciation of other varieties of English and the culture they reflect.

These statements reflect several of the philosophies discussed in the preceding sections. The examples of aim statements are taken from different kinds of language programs.

Topic-065: Stating Curriculum Outcomes: Objectives-I

Aims are very general statements of the goals of a program. They can be interpreted in many different ways. For example, consider the following aim statement:

Students will learn how to write effective business letters for use in the hotel and tourism industries.

Although this provides a clear description of the focus of a program, it does not describe the kinds of business letters students will learn or clarify what is meant by effective business letters. In order to give a more precise focus to program goals, aims are often accompanied by statements of more specific purposes. These are known as objectives. (They are also sometimes referred to as instructional objectives or teaching objectives). An objective refers to a statement of specific changes a program seeks to bring about and results from an analysis of the aim into its different components. Objectives generally have the following characteristics:

- They describe what the aim seeks to achieve in terms of smaller units of learning.
- They provide a basis for the organization of teaching activities.
- They describe learning in terms of observable behavior or performance.

The advantages of describing the aims of a course in terms of objectives are:

- They facilitate planning: once objectives have been agreed on course/ planning, materials preparation, textbook selection, and related processes can begin.
- They provide measurable outcomes and thus provide accountability: given a set of objectives, the success or failure of a program to teach the objectives can be measured.
- They are prescriptive: describe how planning should proceed and how to do away with subjective interpretations and personal opinions.

The following statement is an example of an aim:

Students will learn how to understand lectures given in English.

The following statement is an example of an objective:

Students will be able to follow an argument, theme, or thesis of a lecture.

Students will learn how to recognize the following aspects of a lecture: cause-and-effect relationships, comparisons and contrasts premises used in persuasive arguments and supporting details used in persuasive arguments.

Topic-066: Stating Curriculum Outcomes: Objectives-II

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Objectives are more specific and descriptive when compared to aims. Objectives have various characteristics. They help to describe learning outcomes, and give clear directions to teacher and students about a particular activity. For example, the objective of an activity given to the students was: *the student can understand and respond to simple questions over the telephone*. To achieve this objective, the students will know how to use useful conversational expressions. A more precise objective would be:

Students will use conversation expressions for greeting people, opening and closing conversations.

Objectives should be feasible, and should describe outcomes that are attainable in the time available during a course.

The following objective is probably not attainable in a 60-hour English course:

Students will be able to follow conversations spoken by native speakers.

The following is a more feasible objective:

Students will be able to get the gist of short conversations in simple English on topics related to daily life and leisure.

Topic-067: Criticisms on the Use of Objectives

Although in many institutions the use of objectives in course planning is seen as a way of bringing structure to the process of course planning, the use of objectives either in general form or in the form of behavioral objectives has also attracted some criticism. Rest of this topic will discuss this criticism.

Objectives turn teaching into a technology. It is argued that objectives are linked to an efficiency view of education (one based on the assumption that the most efficient means to an end is justified). There is a danger that curriculum planning becomes a technical exercise of converting statements of needs into objectives. In the process, the broader goals of teaching and learning (e.g., to provide meaningful and worthwhile learning experiences) may be lost.

Comment: This criticism is more applicable to the form of objectives known as behavioral objectives. To ensure that the curriculum addresses educationally important goals, objectives should be included that address meaningful and worthwhile learning experiences. One way to do this is to include objectives that cover both language outcomes and non-language outcomes.

Objectives trivialize teaching and are product-oriented. By assuming that every purpose in teaching can be expressed as an objective, the suggestion is that the only worthwhile goal in teaching is to bring about changes in the students' behavior.

Comment: Objectives need not to be limited to observable outcomes. They can also describe processes and experiences that are seen as an important focus of the curriculum.

Objectives are unsuited to many aspects of language use. Objectives may be suitable for describing the mastery of skills, but less suited to such things as critical thinking, literary appreciation, or negotiation of meaning.

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Comment*:* Objectives can be written in domains such as critical thinking and literary thinking but will focus on the experiences the curriculum will provide rather than specific learning outcomes.

Topic-068: Competency-Based Program Outcomes and the Nature of Competencies

An alternative to the use of objectives in program planning is to describe learning outcomes in terms of competencies, an approach associated with Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT). CBLT seeks to make a focus on the outcomes of learning, a central planning stage in the development of language programs. Traditionally, in language teaching planners have focused to a large extent on the content of teaching (as reflected in a concern for different types of syllabuses) or on the process of teaching (as reflected in a concern for different types of teaching methods). Critics of this approach argue that this concern with content or process focuses on the means of learning rather than its ends. CBLT shifts the focus to the ends of learning rather than the means. As a general educational and training approach, CBLT seeks to improve accountability in teaching through using instruction to measurable outcomes and performance standards.

CBLT first emerged in the United States in the 1970s and was widely adopted in vocationally oriented education and in adult ESL programs. By the end of the 1980s, CBLT had come to be accepted as "the state-of-the-art approach to adult ESL by national policymakers and leaders in curriculum development as well" (Auerbach 1986). In 1986, any refugee in the United States who wished to receive federal assistance had to be enrolled in a competency-based program (Auerbach 1986). CBLT has recently re-emerged in some parts of the world (e.g., Australia) as the major approach to the planning of language programs.

Mrowicki (1986) describes the process of developing a competency-based curriculum for a refugee program designed to develop language skills for employment. The process included:

- Reviewing existing curricula, resource materials, and textbooks
- Needs analysis (interviews, observations, survey of employers)
- Identifying topics for a survival curriculum
- Identifying competencies for each of the topics
- Grouping competencies into instructional units

Examples of competencies as given by Mrowicki (1986) are:

Topic: housing

1. Identify common household furniture/rooms.
2. Answer simple questions about basic housing needs.
3. Ask for simple information about housing, including rent, utilities, and date available.
4. Report household problems and emergencies.
5. Request repairs.
6. Arrange time for repairs.

Topic: shopping

1. Read a limited number of basic signs.

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2. Ask the price of items.
3. State basic food (or other) needs.
4. State intention to purchase items.
5. Request correct change when incorrect change is received.
6. Read abbreviations for common weights and measure.
7. Ask for food using common weights and measures.
8. State clothing needs, including color and size.
9. Differentiate sizes by reading tags and tape measure.

Topic-069: Criticism on the Use of Competencies

The use of competencies in program planning is not without its critics. These criticisms have been discussed below:

Tollefson (1986) argues that no valid procedures are available to develop competency specifications. Although lists of competencies can be generated intuitively for many areas and activities, there is no way of knowing which ones are essential. Typically, competencies are based on intuition and experience, a process similar to the one used to develop statements of objectives. In addition, focusing on observable behaviors can lead to a trivialization of the nature of an activity. Therefore, competencies related to effective performance on a job will tend to include such things as reading directions or following orders on a job, but not to change or question the nature of the job.

Hidden values underlying competency specifications CBLT is based on a social and economic efficiency model of curriculum design that seeks to enable learners to participate effectively in society. Consequently, as Tollefson and others have pointed out, the competencies selected as a basis for instruction typically represent value judgments about what such participation involves.

These criticisms essentially argue for a different curriculum ideology than CBLT such as a learner-cantered or social-reconstructionist model. CBLT is not necessarily linked to the ideology exposed by Tollefson. As with the use of objectives, appropriately described and chosen competency descriptions can provide a useful framework for course planning and delivery, though they may be more appropriate for certain types of courses than others. They seem particularly suitable to programs that seek to teach learners the skills needed to perform specific tasks and operations, as found in many kinds of ESP programs.

Topic-070: The Standard Movement

Standards are descriptions of the targets students should be able to reach in different domains of curriculum content. Throughout the 1990s there was a drive to specify standards for subject matter across the curriculum. These standards or benchmarks are stated in the form of competencies.

The TESOL organization undertook to develop school standards for ESL for grades K-12. These are described in terms of competencies: "The standards specify the language competencies TESOL students need in elementary and secondary schools in order to become fully proficient in English, to have unrestricted access to grade-appropriate instruction in challenging academic subjects, and ultimately to lead rich and productive lives" (TESOL 1997). The standards are framed around three goals and nine standards.

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Topic-071: Non-language Outcomes and Process Objectives

A language curriculum typically includes other kinds of outcomes apart from language-related objectives of the kind described above. If the curriculum seeks to reflect values related to learner centeredness, social re-constructionism, or cultural pluralism, outcomes related to these values will also need to be included. Because such outcomes go beyond the content of a linguistically oriented syllabus, they are sometimes referred to as **non-language outcomes.** Those that describe learning experiences rather than learning outcomes are also known as **process objectives.** Jackson reports that a group of teachers of adult immigrants in Australia identified eight broad categories (given below) of non-language outcomes in their teaching (Jackson 1993):

- Social, psychological, and emotional support in the new living environment
- Confidence
- Motivation
- Cultural understanding
- Knowledge of the Australian community context
- Learning about learning
- Clarification of goals
- Access and entry into employment, further study, and community life

Objectives in these domains relate to the personal, social, cultural, and political needs and rights of learners. If these are not identified, they tend to get forgotten or overlooked in the curriculum planning process.

Non-language outcomes represent more than desirable or optional by-products of the language learning process. They are essential prerequisites for on-going and meaningful involvement with the process of language learning and learning in general. Non-language outcomes are thus teaching and learning issues strongly related to issues of access and equity for non-English-speaking background learners and workers. It is important that the development of knowledge and learning skills represent a significant component of the adult ESL curriculum.

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Lesson-13

COURSE PLANNING AND SYLLABUS DESIGN

Topic-072: Course Planning and Syllabus Design: The Course Rationale

A starting point in course development is a description of the course rationale. This is a brief written description of the reasons for the course and the nature of it. The course rationale seeks to answer the following questions:

- Who is this course for?
- What is the course about?
- What kind of teaching and learning will take place in the course?

The course rationale answers these questions by describing the beliefs, values and goals that underlie the course. It would normally be a two- or three-paragraph statement that has been developed by those involved in planning and teaching a course and that serves to provide the justification for the type of teaching and learning that will take place in the course. It provides a succinct statement of the course philosophy for anyone who may need such information including students, teachers, and potential clients. Developing a rationale also helps provide focus and direction to some of the deliberations involved in course planning. The rationale thus serves the purposes of:

- Guiding the planning of the various components of the course.
- Emphasizing the kinds of teaching and learning the course should exemplify.
- Providing a check on the consistency of the various course components in terms of the course values and goals.

The following is an example of a course rationale:

This course is designed for working adults who wish to improve their communication skills in English in order to improve their employment prospects. It teaches the basic communication skills needed to communicate in a variety of different work settings. The course seeks to enable participants to 'recognize their strengths and needs in language

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learning and to give them the confidence to use English more effectively to achieve their own goals. It also seeks to develop the participants' skills in independent learning outside the classroom.

In order to develop a course rationale, the course planners need to give careful consideration to the goals of the course, the kind of teaching and learning they want the course to exemplify, the roles of teachers and learners in the course, and the beliefs and principles the course will reflect.

Topic-073: Describing the Entry and Exit Level

In order to plan a language course, it is necessary to know when the program will start and the level learners may be expected to reach at the end of the course. Language programs and commercial materials typically distinguish between elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels, but these categories are too broad for the kind of detailed planning that program and materials development involves. For these purposes, more detailed descriptions are needed for students' proficiency levels before they enter a program and targeted proficiency levels at the end of it. Information may be available on students' entry level from their results on international proficiency tests such as TOEFL or IELTS; or specially designed tests may be needed to determine the level of students' language skills. Information from proficiency tests will enable the target level of the program to be assessed and may require adjustment of the program's objectives if they appear to be aimed at too high or too low a level.

An approach that has been widely used in language program planning is to identify different levels of performance or proficiency in the form of band levels or points on a proficiency scale. These describe what a student is able to do at different stages in a language program.

Topic-074: Choosing Course Content

The question of course content is probably the most basic issue in course design. Given that a course has to be developed to address a specific set of needs and to cover a given set of objectives, what will the content of the course look like? Decisions about course content reflect the planners' assumptions about the nature of language, language use, and language learning, what the most essential elements or units of language are, and how these can be organized as an efficient basis for second language learning. For example, a writing course could potentially be planned around any of the following types of content:

- Grammar (e.g. using the present tense in descriptions)
- Functions (e.g. describing likes and dislikes)
- Topics (e.g. writing about world issues)
- Skills (e.g. developing topic sentences)
- Processes (e.g. using prewriting strategies)
- Texts (e.g. writing a business letter)

Similarly, a speaking course could be organized around:

- Functions (expressing opinions)
- Interaction skills (opening and closing conversations, turn taking)

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- Topics (current affairs, business topics)

The choice of a particular approach to content selection will depend on subject-matter knowledge, the learners' proficiency levels, their current views on second language learning and teaching, conventional wisdom, and convenience. Information gathered during needs analysis contributes to the planning of course content, as do additional ideas from the following sources:

- Available literature on the topic
- Published materials on the topic
- Review of similar courses offered elsewhere
- Review of tests or exams in the area
- Consultation with teachers familiar with the topic
- Consultation with specialists in the area

Topic-075: Determining the Scope and Sequence

Decisions about course content also need to address the distribution of content throughout the course. This is known as planning the scope and sequence of the course. Scope is concerned with the breadth and depth of coverage of items in the course, that is, with the following questions:

- What range of content will be covered?
- To what extent should each topic be studied?

For example, in relation to the course on listening and speaking skills, one area of potential content identified was "describing experiences." About how much will be included in relation to this topic? And should two, four, or six class periods be devoted to it? The sequencing of content in the course also needs to be determined. This involves deciding which content is needed early in the course and which provides a basis for things that will be learned later.

Topic-076: Planning the Course Structure

The next stage in course development involves mapping the course structure into a form and sequence that provide a suitable basis for teaching. Some of the preliminary planning involved will have occurred while ideas for course content were being generated. Two aspects of this process; however, require more detailed planning i.e. selecting a syllabus framework and developing instructional blocks. These issues are closely related and sometimes inseparable but also involve different kinds of decisions.

In choosing a particular syllabus framework for a course, planners are influenced by the following factors:

- Knowledge and beliefs about the subject area: a syllabus reflects ideas and beliefs about the nature of speaking, reading, writing, or listening.
- Research and theory: research on language use and learning as well as applied linguistics theory sometimes leads to proposals in favour of particular syllabus types.

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- Common practice: the language teaching profession has built up considerable practical experience in developing language programs and this often serves as the basis for different syllabus types.
- Trends: approaches to syllabus design come and go and reflect national or international trends.

Topic-077: Planning the Course Structure: Lexical and Situational Syllabus

Lexical syllabus: It identifies a target vocabulary to be taught, normally arranged according to levels such as the first 500, 1,000, 1,500, 2,000 words. Vocabulary syllabuses were among the first types of syllabuses to be developed in language teaching. Today, there is a large degree of consensus in English-language teaching concerning targets for vocabulary teaching at different levels and textbook and materials; writers tend to keep materials within target vocabulary bands.

Elementary level*:* 1,000 words Intermediate level, an additional 2,000 words Upper Intermediate level, an additional 2,000 words Advanced level. An example of a course planned systematically around lexical targets is *Collins Cobuild English Course* (Willis and Willis, 1988), on which Willis (1990) comments:

"The 700 most frequent words of English account for around 70% of all English text. That is to say around 70% of the English we speak and hear, read and write is made up of the 700 most common words in the language. The most frequent 1,500 words account for 76% of text and the most-frequent 2,500 for 80%. Given this, we decided that word frequency would determine the contents of our course. Level 1 would aim to cover the most frequent 700 words together with their common patterns and uses. Level 2 would recycle these words and go on to cover the next 800 to bring us up to the 1,500 level, and Level 3 would recycle those 1,500 and add a further 1,000. Because vocabulary is involved in the presentation of any type of language content, a lexical syllabus can only be considered as one strand of a more comprehensive syllabus."

Situational syllabus: It is organized around the language needed for different situations such as at the airport or at a hotel. A situation is a setting in which particular communicative acts typically occur. A situational syllabus identifies the situations in which the learner will use the language and the typical communicative acts and language used in that setting. Situational syllabuses have been a familiar feature of language teaching textbooks for centuries (Kelly, 1969) and are often used in travel books and books that focus on mastering expressions frequently encountered in particular situations. An example of a recent situationally organized textbook on English for travel is passport which contains the following situational syllabus:

1. On an airplane
2. At an immigration
3. At a bank
4. On the telephone
5. On the street
6. In the city
7. At home
8. At the doctors'
9. In an office
10. In a restaurant
11. In a cafe
12. In a bar
13. On a bus
14. In a store
15. At the post office
16. At the cinema
17. In a hotel
18. At the airport

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Situational syllabus has the advantage of presenting text and teaching language of immediate practical use. However, they are also subject to the following criticisms:

- Little is known about the language used in different situations, so selection of teaching items is typically based on intuition.
- Language used in specific situations may not transfer to other situations.
- Situational syllabuses often lead to a phrase-book approach.
- Grammar is dealt with incidentally, so a situational syllabus may result in gaps in a student's grammatical knowledge.

The role of situations in syllabus design has recently re-entered language teaching, albeit in a different form from traditional situational syllabuses, with the emergence of communicative approaches to syllabus design and ESP. ESP approaches to curriculum development attribute a central role to the situation or setting in which communication takes place and to the following elements of the situation (Munby, 1978; Feez, 1998):

- The participants
- Their role relations
- The transactions they engage in
- The skills or behaviours involved in each transaction
- The kinds of oral and written texts that are produced
- The linguistic features of the texts

Topic-078: Planning the Course Structure: Topical and Competency Based Syllabus

Topical or content-based syllabus: It is organized around themes, topics, or other units of content. With a topical syllabus, content rather than/ grammar, functions, or situations is the starting point in syllabus design. Content may provide the sole criterion for organizing the syllabus or a framework for linking a variety of different syllabus strands together. "It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct effort to teach the language separately from the content being taught" (Krahnke, 1987). All language courses, no matter what kind of syllabus they are based on, must include some form of content. But with more approaches to syllabus design, content is incidental and serves merely as the vehicle for practicing language structures, functions, or skills. In a typical lesson in a grammar-based course, for example, a structure is selected and then content is chosen to show how the item is used and to provide a context for practicing the structure. In a topic-based syllabus, in contrast, content provides the vehicle for the presentation of language rather than the other way around. Maximum use is made of content to provide links and continuity across the skill areas. Claims made for the advantages of courses based on content-based syllabuses are:

- They facilitate comprehension.
- Content makes linguistic form more meaningful.

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- Content serves as the best basis for teaching the skill areas.
- They address students' needs.
- They motivate learners.
- They allow for integration of the four skills.
- They allow for use of authentic materials.

Competency-based syllabus: It is based on a specification of the competencies learners are expected to master in relation to specific situations and activities. Competencies are a description of the essential skills, knowledge, and attitudes required for effective performance of particular tasks and activities. For example, the work-skills curriculum in Mrowicki (1986) is organized according to topics and competencies.

The curriculum's language competencies are divided into topic and cross-topic areas. A topic refers to the context in which language is used. For example, the competency "Report basic household problems" is found in the topic "Housing." A cross-topic is a topic which can occur in other topic areas. For example, the competency "Read and write dates" from the cross-topic "Time and Dates" also occurs in the topics "Shopping" (reading expiration dates of food), "Health" (reading appointment times), "Banking and Bills" (reading the date due on bills), etc. (Mrowicki, 1986).

Examples of competencies related to the topic of "telephoning" are:

- Read and dial telephone numbers.
- Identify oneself on the telephone when answering and calling.
- Request to speak to someone.
- Respond to request to hold.
- Respond to offer to "take message.

Competency-based syllabuses are widely used in social survival and work-oriented language programs.

Topic 79: Planning the Course Structure: Text-Based and Integrated Syllabus

Text-based syllabus: It is built around texts and samples of extended discourse. As already noted, this can be regarded as a type of situational approach because the starting point in planning a syllabus is analysis of the contexts in which the learners will use the language.

This approach starts with the texts which are identified for a specific context or which have been identified by students. This approach is often used when an overall context for language learning has been defined, such as in a specific workplace or a university or other further study context. Units of work are then developed in relation to the texts. For example, the spoken texts identified for a group of engineers in a workplace were: spoken instructions to field staff, presentations of report findings at meetings and telephone negotiations with contractors (Burns and Joyce 1997).

A text-based syllabus is a type of integrated syllabus because it combines elements of different types of syllabuses. The following are examples of text types that can be used in planning a text-based syllabus (Feez 1998):

Exchanges simple exchanges relating to information and goods and services

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	complex or problematic exchanges casual conversation
Forms	simple formatted texts complex formatted texts
procedures	Instructions -procedures
	protocols
information texts	descriptions
	explanations Reports
	directives
	texts that combine more than one text types
story texts	Recounts narratives
persuasive texts	opinion texts expositions

An integrated syllabus*:* Decisions about a suitable syllabus framework for a course reflect different priorities in teaching rather than absolute choices. The issue is, which foci will be central in planning the syllabus and which will be secondary? In most courses there will generally be a number of different syllabus strands, such as grammar linked to skills and texts, tasks linked to topics and functions, or skills linked to topics and texts. In arriving at a decision about which approach to syllabus planning to take, the course planners need to decide between macro-level and micro-level planning units in the course. For example, a reading course might first be planned in terms of reading skills (the macro-level planning category) and then further planned in terms of text types, vocabulary, and grammar (the micro-level planning category). A syllabus might be organized grammatically at the first level and then the grammar presented functionally or the first level of organization might be functional with grammar items selected according to the grammatical demands of different functions. In practical terms, therefore, all syllabuses reflect some degree of integration.

Topic-080: Developing Instructional Blocks

A course also needs to be mapped out in terms of instructional blocks or sections. An instructional block is a self-contained learning sequence that has its own goals and objectives and that also reflects the overall objectives for the course. Instructional blocks represent the instructional focus of die course and may be very specific (e.g., a single lesson) or more general (e.g., a unit of work consisting of several lessons). Planning the organizational structure in a course involves selecting appropriate blocks and deciding on the sequence in which these will appear. In organizing a course into teaching blocks, one seeks to achieve the following:

- To make the course more teachable and learnable.
- To provide a progression in level of difficulty.
- To create overall coherence and structure for the course.

Two commonly used instructional blocks are planning by modules and by units.

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Topic-081: Preparing the Scope and Sequence Plan

Once a course has been planned and organized, it can be described. One form in which it can be described is as a scope and sequence plan. This might consist of a listing of the module or units and their contents and an indication of how much teaching time each block in the course will require. In the case of a textbook, it usually consists of a unit-by-unit description of the course cross-referenced to the syllabus items included.

Lesson-14

GOALS, CONTENT AND SEQUENCING

Topic-082: Goals, Content and Sequencing: Introduction

When we talk about goals, content and its sequencing, we naturally look at them in the environment they take place. While deciding the goals, we need to take into account various needs of the students. As teachers, we need to consider the principles of language teaching. Making sensible, well justified decisions about content is one of the most important parts of curriculum design.

Topic-083: The Units of Progression in the Course and Their Significance

The units of progression in a course are the items that are used to grade the progress of the course. For example, if the starting point of a course was language items, and, in particular, vocabulary, the units of progression would be words, and at a broader level, word frequency levels which are similar to those used in grading the levels of simplified readers. Similarly the academic word list is presented in ten sub-lists ranging from the most frequent to the least frequent (Coxhead, 2000). If the starting point of a course was topics, then the units of progression would also be topics with progress through the course being marked by an increasing number of topics covered. Long and Crookes (1993) call units of progression as "units of analysis" and argue that the choice of the unit of analysis should be one of the starting points of curriculum design. Harden and Witte (2006) explore the different kinds of progression from a historical perspective, noting that "the notion of progression has undergone remarkable changes throughout the history of foreign language teaching methodologies".

The units of progression can be classified into two types – those that progress in a definite series, such as vocabulary levels, and those that represent a field of knowledge that could be covered in any order,

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such as topics. The order of items within a field is determined by pedagogical considerations and constraints such as keeping the learners' interest, making use of available resources, and allowing for recycling of material.

Topic -084: The Units of Progression in the Course and Their Significance: Grammar Functions

There are several frequency counts of verb form usage in English which can act as the basis for the selection and sequencing of items in a course (George, 1963). George suggests that a reasonable basis for Stage 1 of a course (1,500 to 2,000 words over roughly two years of five periods of English per week) would consist of the following verbs:

- Imperative
- Don't + stem (Imperative)
- Simple Present Actual and Neutral
- Verb + to + stem
- Simple Past Narrative and Actual
- Past Participle
  This group of items accounts for 575 of every 1,000 successive verb forms in written English.
  Stage 2 of a course could add the following items:
- Simple Past Neutral and Habitual
- Past Perfect from Simple Past Narrative
- Stem+ing in Free Adjuncts
- Noun + to + Stem
- Simple Present Iterative and Future
- Verb + to + Stem (Stem dominant)
- Verb + Noun + to + Stem
- Noun + Preposition + Stem+ ing
- Stem+ed = Adjective in a Noun Group
- Stem+ing = Adjective in a Noun Group
- Stem+ing = Noun
- Can + Stem (immediately and characteristically able)
- May + Stem (possibility and uncertainty)

There is no standard list of language functions that is accompanied by frequency data. The most widely available list of functions can be found in Van Ek and Alexander (1980) and is organized under the six headings of:

- Imparting and seeking factual information
- Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes

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- Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes
- Expressing and finding out moral attitudes
- Getting things done (suasion)
- Socializing

Topic-085: The Units of Progression in the Course and Their Significance: Discourse, Skills, Sub-Skills and Strategies

Discourse as the basis for units of progression is more likely to be used in pre university courses where learners systematically cover a range of relevant genres such as recounts, information reports and arguments. Attention to elements of spoken discourse, such as ellipsis between speakers and negotiation of discourse, may occur early in language courses but is rarely the unit of progression for a course.

Some courses use skills and subskills as their units of progression. Reading courses for example may focus on skills such as finding the main idea, reading for detail, notetaking, skimming, reading faster, and reading for inferences.

There are three major ways of defining subskills. One is to look at the range of activities covered by a skill such as speaking and to use these as a starting point for defining subskills. For example, speaking can be divided into interactional speaking and transactional speaking (Brown, 1978). Transactional speaking can be divided into monologue, dialogue, etc.

Another way is to look at the skill as a process and to divide it into the parts of the process. This is a typical way of approaching writing, dividing the writing process into parts. One possible division of the process is: (1) having a model of the reader, (2) having writing goals, (3) gathering ideas, (4) organizing ideas, (5) turning ideas into written text, (6) reviewing what has just been written, and (7) editing the written text. Process divisions can be applied in other skills.

A third way of dividing up a skill is to use levels of cognitive activity. The most well-known approach of this kind can be found in what is popularly known as Bloom's taxonomy. Bloom divides cognitive activity into six levels of increasing complexity: (1) knowledge, (2) comprehension, (3) application, (4) analysis, (5) synthesis, (6) evaluation. These levels have often been applied to the construction of reading comprehension activities.

Topic-086: The Units of Progression in the Course and Their Significance: Ideas

A good language course not only develops the learners' control of the language but also puts the learners in contact with ideas that help the learning of language and are useful to the learners. The ideas content of a course can take many forms. The following list is adapted from Cook (1983). The ideas about the content of a course can be as under:

- Imaginary happenings: The course could follow the typical activities or adventures of a group of learners or native speakers.

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- An academic subject: Examples would be linguistics or the special purpose of the learners such as agriculture, tourism, commerce or computing.
- Learner survival needs: These can arise from suggestions by the learners or investigation by the teacher. They may include topics like shopping, going to the doctor, getting a driver's licence, and making friends. Ek and Alexander (1980) provide a detailed list of topics under 14 main headings covering daily use of language.
- Interesting facts: These might include topics like the discovery of penicillin, whales and solar power.
- Culture: Adaskou, Britten and Fahsi (1990) divide culture into aesthetic which includes the study of literature, sociological which looks at norms of behaviour and cultural values, semantic which looks at word meaning and the classification and organisation of experience, and sociolinguistic which involves the appropriate use of language.

However, all four aspects of culture could contradict and threaten the local culture. Witte (2006) see for a description of seven stages of "cultural progression" (sociological) moving from explicit knowledge of inter-related aspects of the native and non-native cultures (such as housing, eating, school) to markedly different conceptualizations between the cultures (such as notions of cleanliness and politeness) to understanding the culture from an insider's view and gaining a distanced view of one's own culture.

Topic-087: Task-Based Syllabus

With the shift to communicative language teaching in the 1970s there was an increasing emphasis on using language to convey a message, and as a result increasing attention was given to the use of tasks in the classroom. The realization that many so-called communicative language courses were still largely based upon a sequence of language forms in turn generated interest in task-based, rather than task-supported syllabuses. Published experimentation with task-based syllabuses largely began with the work of Prabhu (1987), and the interest in this type of syllabus may be a result of the links that teachers and curriculum designers see between this approach and their own teaching and planning activity. All the same, the use of task-based syllabuses remains the exception rather than the rule, although tasks themselves are widely used.One of the questions that arise is: what is a task? Many different definitions have been proposed. Ellis provides nine different definitions, one of which is especially succinct and useful for teachers: "A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective". Here is a sample task from Prabhu (1987) which demonstrates how the learner needs to focus on and understand the meaning of the language in order to complete the task successfully.

Topic-088: Sequencing the Content in a Course: A Linear Approach

The lessons or units of a course can fit together in a variety of ways. The two major divisions are whether the material in one lesson depends on the learning that has occurred in previous lessons (a linear development) or whether each lesson is separate from the others so that the lessons can be done in any order and need not all be done a modular arrangement.

Topic-089: Sequencing the Content in a Course: A Modular Approach

We have been looking at linear approaches to sequencing and ways of ensuring repetition within a linear approach. The second major type of approach, a modular approach, breaks a course into independent

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non-linear units. These units may be parts of lessons, lessons or groups of lessons. Each unit or module is complete in itself and does not usually assume knowledge of previous modules. It is not unusual for a modular approach to be accompanied by criterion-referenced testing with a high level of mastery set as the criterion.

In language courses, the language could be divided into modules in several ways. The modules could be skill-based with different modules for listening, speaking, reading and writing, and sub-skills of these larger skills. The modules could be based on language functions, or more broadly situations, dealing with the language needed for shopping, emergency services, travel, the post office and the bank. Modular courses often have some kind of division into obligatory or core modules, and optional or elective modules, or a division into level 1 modules and level 2 modules and so on.

Ellis (2003) proposes a modular approach for task-based language courses. In his proposal there are two unconnected modules. At beginner levels the sole focus is on a communicative, meaning-focused module. From intermediate level onwards, attention is also given to a language- (or code-) focused module, with the intention of "drawing attention to form in order to destabilize learners' interlanguage" (Ellis, 2003) and thus avoiding fossilization of language errors. This approach suggests a way to deal with the concerns mentioned above about a lack of attention to accuracy in some task-based language courses.

Lesson-15

FORMAT AND PRESENTATION

Topic-090: Format and Other Parts of the Curriculum Design Process

The aim of this part of course is to choose the teaching and learning techniques and design the lesson plans. It is at the format and presentation part of the curriculum design process that the data gathered from needs, environment analysis and the principles chosen to maximize learning come together in activities that involve the learners. Most of the decisions made regarding constraints, needs, principles, content and sequencing will only be indirectly observable through the format and presentation of the lessons. But these decisions must come through into the lesson format, or the work done on these aspects of curriculum design has been wasted, and the course might not suit the environment or learners for which it is intended, and might not apply what is known about teaching and learning.

Topic-091: Guidelines for Deciding on a Format

Format and presentation must take account of the environment in which the course will be used, the needs of the learners, and principles of teaching and learning. A problem facing the curriculum designer is how to communicate the reasons why each lesson is like it is. If both teachers and learners are aware of the goals of each activity, why they are useful goals, how the activity should be best presented to achieve the goal, and what kind of learning involvement is needed, and the signs of successful involvement then learning is more likely to be successful. There is plenty of evidence to show that teachers and learners do not share the same view of parts of a lesson, and that the learners sometimes do activities in ways that defeat the purpose of the activity. Information about the lesson can occur in several different places in a course. Probably, the most useful place is in the headings and instructions for each activity in a lesson.

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If the lessons always follow the same format then the introduction to the course book can include some explanation of the goals and how they are best reached. In some course books, for example, *The Cambridge English Course* (Swan and Walter, 1985), a detailed table of contents ("a map of the book") indicates the various new points of focus. Many courses have a special teacher's book, which then gives the teacher the responsibility for informing the learners of the goals and how to learn.

Topic-092: The Four Strands: Meaning Focused Input and Meaning Focused Output

Meaning-focused input involves having the opportunity to learn from listening and speaking. Krashen (1981) would call it learning from comprehensible input. The conditions which are needed for such learning are a low density of unknown items in the language input, a focus on the meaning of the message, and a large quantity of input. In language courses, the most important way of providing a large amount of comprehensible input is to have an extensive reading program. This involves the learners in reading books which have been specially written for learners of English in a controlled vocabulary. There are many series of such books. They are excellent resources for meaning-focused input.

For learners at elementary and intermediate levels, an extensive reading program is an essential part of any general English course. A listening equivalent of such a course is also needed. Many graded reading books are now accompanied by a CD. Learners can listen while they read, or read first and listen later. Where the listening is not accompanied by visual clues, it is more difficult to learn from listening than from reading.

Repeated listening is thus a very useful activity, and Elley (1989) found that he had to provide three listening opportunities for the same story to be able to measure reasonable learning from listening input. Another major source of meaning-focused input in a course comes from interacting with others.

One person's output can be another person's input. An advantage of interactive listening is that the listener can negotiate the meaning of the input with the speaker. That is, they can ask the meaning of words or constructions and they can ask for a repetition of poorly heard material. They can also control the speed of the input by asking the speaker to speak more slowly. A course can usefully include material which trains the learners in such negotiation. This training can include learning the phrases which are needed to seek information about input, and which can control the speed and repetition of the input. Meaning-focused output involves learning through speaking and writing.

Learning by input alone is not sufficient because the knowledge needed to comprehend input does not include all the knowledge which is needed to produce output. A well-balanced language course spends about one quarter of the course time on meaning-focused speaking and writing.

Meaning-focused speaking should involve the learners in conversation and also in monologue. The conversation can have a largely social focus and can also be used for conveying important information. That is, there should be practice in both interactional and transactional language use. The conditions for meaning-focused output are similar to those for meaning-focused input. There should be a focus on the message (that is getting the listener or the reader to understand), the task should be demanding but not too demanding, and there should be plenty of opportunity for such activity.

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Topic-093: The Four Strands: Language Focused Learning and Fluency Development

Language-focused learning involves a deliberate focus on language features such as pronunciation, spelling, word parts, vocabulary, collocations, grammatical constructions and discourse features. Language-focused learning is an efficient way of quickly learning language features. It is an important part of any language course and about one quarter of the course time should be spent on such learning. In most courses too much time is spent on such learning, and this means that there is less opportunity for learning through the other three strands of the course. The answer is not to completely remove language-focused learning from the course, but to make sure that there is an appropriate amount of it.

Language-focused learning can have two major effects. It can result in deliberate conscious knowledge of language items. This explicit knowledge can be helpful in making learners aware of language features which they will meet in input. This awareness can help learning from input. Language focused learning can also result in subconscious implicit knowledge of language items. This is the kind of knowledge which is needed for normal language use. Deliberate learning of vocabulary items can result in both kinds of knowledge (Elgort, 2007). For most grammatical features however deliberate learning is likely only to contribute to conscious knowledge. Such conscious knowledge can be useful when learners have time to check their production as in writing, but it is also useful as a stepping stone to implicit knowledge when the items are later met in meaning-focused input or fluency development activities.

Here are some of the activities which could occur in the language focused learning strand of course – intensive reading, pronunciation practice, guided writing, spelling practice, blank-filling activities, sentence completion or sentence combining activities, getting feedback on written work, correction during speaking activities, learning vocabulary from word cards, memorizing collocations, dictation and the explicit study of discourse features.

The fourth strand of a course is a fluency development strand. Fluency involves making the best use of what is already known. Thus, the fluency development strand of a course does not involve the learning of new language features, but involves becoming fluent with features that the learners have already met before. The conditions for the fluency development strand are: (1) easy, familiar material, (2) a focus on communicating messages, (3) some pressure to perform at a faster speed, and (4) plenty of opportunities for fluency practice.

There needs to be fluency practice in each of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening fluency practice can involve listening to stories, taking part in interactive activities, and listening to lectures on familiar material. Speaking fluency activities can involve repeated speaking where learners deliver the same talk several times to different listeners, speaking on very familiar topics, reading familiar material aloud, and speaking about what has already been spoken or written about before. Reading fluency activities should involve a speed reading course within a controlled vocabulary.

Such courses can bring about substantial fluency improvement with just a few minutes practice two or three times a week for most learners. Such courses need to be within a controlled vocabulary because they should not contain vocabulary which is unfamiliar to the learners. It is very difficult to develop fluency when working with material which contains unknown language features. Other reading fluency activities include repeated reading where the learners read the same text several times, and extensive reading

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involving very easy graded readers. Writing fluency activities involve the learners in writing about things where they bring a lot of previous knowledge. A very useful activity in this strand is ten-minute writing. In this activity, two or three times a week, the teacher gets the learners to write under timed conditions that are for exactly ten minutes. The teacher does not mark any of the errors in the writing but comments on the content of the writing perhaps suggesting what the learners should write more about next time. The learners record the number of words per minute they have written on a graph. Their goal is to increase the number of words per minute written. Other writing fluency activities include linked skills activities.

Linked skills activities are very effective for fluency development in all of the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. A linked skills activity involves learners working on the same material while moving through a series of changes, for example, from listening to the material, to talking about it, and then to writing about it.

Topic-094: Activities and Conditions for Four Strands: Busy Work and Comprehension Questions

Most language-learning programs only make use of a small number of different kinds of teaching techniques or activities. There is nothing wrong with this, because if there is too great a variety of teaching activities, the teacher may have to spend a lot of time explaining to the learners how the activity is done before they actually get on to doing the activity. When deciding whether a course is likely to be effective or not, it is useful to look very closely at a few of the major activities used in the course to see how they help learning and how much of the work involved in them is just busy work which is not making an effective contribution to useful learning. Let us look at some examples of this analysis, focusing on some very commonly used activities.

A very common activity in courses which focus on reading involves the learners answering comprehension questions of various kinds. These kinds can include pronominal questions, true/false questions, and multiple-choice questions. This kind of activity fits into the meaning-focused input strand, because the focus of the activity is on understanding messages. If the learners have to write original answers to pronominal questions, this part of the activity would fit into the meaning-focused output strand. How can such questions help vocabulary learning? Clearly, vocabulary learning is not the main goal of comprehension questions, but questions can be designed so that they also help vocabulary learning as well as provide feedback about comprehension. Questions help vocabulary learning if the answer to the question involves the use of target vocabulary, if the question itself includes the target vocabulary, and if the answer to the question involves the target vocabulary being used in generative ways. That is, the way the word is used in the question or the answer is not an exact copy of the way in which it is used in the text.

Topic-095: Following a Set Format

When designing the format of a lesson, the curriculum designer needs to consider environment factors such as the length of time available for each lesson, the teachers' skill and role in the lesson, and the size of a typical class.

Deciding on the format of a lesson involves combining practical and principled considerations. Too often principles are ignored because of practical pressures. What occurs in a lesson and the order in which it should occur? The principles at work in this lesson format seem to be:

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- There should be learning from comprehensible input as a basis for later activities.
- Language-focused learning will contribute to the production of output.
- Learners should have to produce language with a focus on the message.
- Repetition is an important aid to learning and material should be recycled in a lesson.
- Learners' interest can be engaged through short activities, attractive presentation using pictures, and a degree of unpredictability regarding the types of exercises.
- Learners need not know why they are doing a particular activity.

Each lesson in this particular course has a set format with the three main sections but there is variety within some sections. The length and number of sections in a lesson may depend upon time constraints such as the usual length of a school lesson in the school or country where the lesson is taught.

Topic-096: Blocks and Threads

In a very interesting book entitled *Planning from Lesson to Lesson* (1995), Woodward and Lindstromberg describe two ways of planning a lesson. One way is called a "block" lesson where the lesson has a set format and is a separate block largely complete within itself. Typical block formats include the type of lesson with listening and reading input, language-focused activity, and meaning-focused output. Another block format involves an experience-providing stage, a guided practice stage, and then a fluency-development stage. "Blocks" of these kinds provide support for the lesson planner in that once the type of block is chosen as being suitable for the goals that the teacher wants to achieve, the lesson itself requires very little planning because its parts are predictable and the later parts build on the previous parts of the lesson.

The other way of planning a lesson is by making use of "threads". Threads are activities that run through a series of lessons. Threads are activities that can be used again and again with minimal planning and only small changes. For example, a teacher or curriculum designer might set up an interview thread that appears in a large number of lessons. In each lesson, the class interviews a different learner from the class. The types of questions remain the same and all that changes is that a different learner is interviewed each time. After the initial preparation and allocation of times, little further planning is needed. Alternatively, the learners interview each other in pairs with the members of the pairs changing for each lesson.

Topic-097: Techniques and Activities

A large variety of techniques and activities can be drawn on when designing lessons. These can be divided into four major types, each type having its own cycle of activities, favored learning goals, and principles of learning. Sometimes, of course, an activity can be a combination of two or more types (a guided activity involving pair- or group-work, for instance) and sometimes two or more types are used in sequence (such as an experience activity before an independent activity). Experience activities try to keep as much as possible of the knowledge needed to perform the activity within the learners' previous experience.

This can be done in several ways:

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- The teacher, curriculum designer or materials writer carefully controls the language, ideas, skills, etc. so that they will be largely already familiar to the learners. Simplified or graded reading texts are like this.
- The knowledge needed to do the activity is provided through previous lessons or previous activities within a lesson. Speaking activities near the end of a lesson, or the listening activities at the beginning of a lesson may be like this. This results in a lesson format that builds up to a final activity or set of activities that are the main point of the lesson.
- The teacher helps the learners to share and recall previous experience to make the following activity easier. This results in a lesson format that may begin with teacher-led discussion or group work and ends with what otherwise may have been quite a demanding task. Examples include discussion of a topic followed by each learner writing about it, and semantic mapping of a topic followed by speaking about it.

Topic-098: Tasks and Presentation

The arguments that task-based learning advocates like Long and Crookes (1992) presented against other types of syllabus are mostly arguments about the presentation of material rather than the selection of content. As mentioned earlier, tasks can be present in either a task supported or a task-based syllabus. In a task-supported syllabus, the task is likely to be the final stage in a conventional *Present–Practice–Produce* unit of work; the task may be designed to focus on the language structure that has been presented. In a task-based syllabus, however, the task is likely to be the unit. Willis (1996) describes the task-based learning framework as consisting of three phases: pre-task, the task cycle and language focus. Considerable variety and variation are possible within this framework, and the task need not focus on a specific language structure.

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Lesson-16

PROVIDING FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING -I

Topic-099: Providing for Effective Teaching: The Organizational Factors

The organizational culture of a school refers to the ethos and environment that exist within a school (the kinds of communications and decision making that take place, and the management and staffing structure they support). Several aspects of a school's organizational culture were discussed, including the extent to which the school's organizational culture facilitates or hinders the reception of new ideas and practices. A school's organizational culture is revealed in the way the following questions are answered:

- What are the school's goals and mission?
- What is the school's management style?
- What shared values do staff have?
- What are the decision-making characteristics of the school?
- What roles do teachers perform?
- How are teaching and other work planned and monitored?
- What provision is made for staff development?
- How are courses and curriculum planned?
- How receptive is the school to change and innovation?
- How open are communication channels?

Topic-100: The Organizational Factors: Quality Indicators in an Institution

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Language teaching institutions vary greatly in terms of how they view their educational mission. Some schools are committed to provide quality educational services. They have a clearly articulated mission. The following characteristics are indicators of the quality of an educational institution (Morris, 1994):

- There are clearly stated educational goals.
- There is a well-planned, balanced, and organized program that meets the needs of its students.
- Systematic and identifiable processes exist for determining educational needs in the school and placing them in order of priority.
- There is a commitment to learning, and an expectation that students will do well.
- There is a high degree of staff involvement in developing goals and making decisions.
- There is a motivated and cohesive teaching force with good team spirit,
- Administrators are concerned with the teachers' professional development and are able to make the best use of their skills and experience.
- The school's programs are regularly reviewed and progress toward their goals is evaluated.

Topic-101: The Organizational Factors: A Sense of Mission and a Strategic Plan

What goals does the institution have? Does it exist to serve an important educational purpose that provides the rationale for the range of courses and services it offers? A useful format for articulating a school's sense of mission is in the form of a mission statement. Such a statement should be developed collectively by those who have a commitment to the success of the institution. Once it is developed, a mission statement can serve as a reference point to assess proposals for new initiatives or programs within an institution and to provide a basis for evaluation of its performance over time.

Topic-102: The Organizational Factors: Quality Assurance Mechanisms, a Sound Curriculum and Flexible Organizational Framework

Quality assurance refers to systems a school has in place to ensure the quality of its practices. For example, how does one ensure that the best staff is employed? Is there a transparent recruitment process or is staff recruitment made through personal networks? What process is in place to select and review textbooks? Are textbooks chosen by teachers on the basis of quality and relevance or because of other factors? What systems are in place to ensure that test and other forms of assessment are sound and fair? Are grades sometimes adjusted up or down by the administration based on unknown criteria? Factors relevant to creating a culture of quality assurance in an institution are as follows:

- A formulated policy on quality assurance has been articulated and is familiar to all staff.
- Reasonable and acceptable standards have been determined for all aspects of quality, such as employment, publicity, materials, facilities, and teachers' dress codes.
- Systems in place to ensure that quality are regularly assessed and corrections are made where necessary.
- A reward system is in place to ensure that those who attain high quality in their work are recognized.

A sound curriculum is reflected in the following features of a school's programs:

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- The range of courses offered corresponds to the needs of learners.
- The curriculum is coherent: The courses represent a rational approach to achieve the school's mission.
- Courses have been developed based on sound educational principles with due attention to recognized curriculum development processes.
- Course descriptions including aims, goals, syllabuses, and course organization, have been developed.
- Teaching materials and tests are of high quality. They have been carefully selected or developed, and are regularly reviewed and revised.
- Mechanisms are in place to monitor the quality of teaching and learning.
- The curriculum is subject to ongoing review and renewal. There is ongoing interest in identifying strengths and weaknesses and bringing about improvements in all aspects of the curriculum.

Topic-103: Organizational Factors: Good Internal Communications

One of the important elements of organizational factor is good internal communication and professional treatment of teachers. Good quality teaching can affect the whole structure of an organization. The internal communication needs to be transparent and clear between administrations, teachers, and supporting staff. There are various factors to ensure the transparency of the system:

- Regular meetings
- Transparent admin system
- Shared decision making
- Clear guidance for staff
- Feedback on program aspects
- Regular communication
- Informal gatherings

In ESL domain, teachers need to have special skills and expertise. In order to ensure good internal communication, it is important to give teachers professional treatment like reward and guidance about the teachers' role and responsibilities.

Topic-104: The Organizational Factors: The Teaching Context

The last set of factors that affect the quality of teaching in a program relate to the context of the institution in which teachers work.

Size and staff structure

The size of a school and its administrative structure influence many aspects of a teacher's work. Working in an institute with a staff of five teachers is very different from working in one with a staff of one hundred. In the former case, the teachers are likely to be a closely knit team whose members know each other well. In the latter case, teachers may work more independently and may not feel that their individual contribution is crucial to the success of the program.

Equipment

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Schools vary greatly in the amount they have invested in equipment and technology. Some schools make extensive investments in such things as computers, cassette/CD players, video recorders, overhead transparency (OHT) machines, and photocopiers, recognizing that these are essential tools for teachers and can have a positive effect on teaching staff.

Support staff

Adequate support staff can also help teachers. In this context these questions are very important to ask: Is there secretarial or administrative staff to help with typing, time-tabling, duplicating, and administration? If not, what percentage of teachers' time is spent on non-instructional chores and at what cost?

Teacher Work Space

One way of determining how seriously a school regards its teachers and the work they do is the work space it provides for its teachers. Is there a staff room for teachers where they can interact with colleagues, carry out lesson preparation, mark assignments, and prepare teaching materials and handouts?

Teacher resource room

Teachers need access to a good range of current ESL textbooks, resource books, materials, and magazines located in a resource room or similar facility in order to update their professional knowledge and get new ideas to feed into their teaching.

Topic-105: The Teachers: Skills

Language teaching institutions vary greatly in the type of teachers they employ. Some situations merely make a choice between native speakers of English and non-native speakers of English with varying levels of English-language proficiency. Within both groups, there may be further choices possible based on teaching experience and professional qualifications in TESL/TEFL. Views concerning the appropriate qualifications of language teachers have changed in recent years as the field of TESOL has become more demanding. There is a much greater awareness today that an expert language teacher is a highly skilled professional.

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Lesson-17

PROVIDING FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING -II

Topic-106: The Teachers: Qualifications

In describing teachers' skills, it is possible to compare teachers in terms of their training (trained or untrained) and experience (novice or experienced). The training dimension refers to possession of a professional qualification in language teaching; experience dimension refers to classroom experience. Initial teacher training typically sets out to give teachers what can be called basic technical competence. This consists of an introductory understanding of the subject matter of TESOL, mastery of basic classroom teaching processes as well as approaches to teaching the four skills. For example, the UCLES certificate in Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA), a widely taught initial qualification for language teachers, focuses on six areas of basic teaching skills:

- Language awareness
- The learner, the teacher, and the teaching/learning context
- Planning for effective teaching of adult learners of English
- Classroom management and teaching skills
- Resources and materials for teaching
- Professional development

Topic-107: Support for Teachers

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If teachers are expected to teach well and to develop their teaching skills and knowledge over time, they need ongoing support. This may take a number of forms:

- Orientation
- Adequate materials
- Course guides
- Division of responsibilities
- Further training
- Teaching release
- Mentors
- Feedback
- Rewards

Topic-108: The Teaching Process: Teaching Models

Different models of teaching make different assumptions about the nature of language and of language learning, the roles of teachers, learners, instructional materials, and different assumptions about the processes of language learning and teaching. In language teaching programs, teaching models are often based on particular methods or approaches. For example:

- The communicative approach: The focus of teaching is on authentic communication, extensive use of pair and group activities that involve negotiation of meaning and information sharing. Fluency is a priority.

- The cooperative learning model: Students work in cooperative learning situations and are encouraged to work together on common tasks and to coordinate their efforts to complete tasks. Rewards systems are group-oriented rather than individual-oriented.

- The process approach: In writing classes, students take part in activities that develop their understanding of writing as a process. Different stages in the writing process (planning, generating ideas, drafting, reviewing, revising, editing) form the focus of teaching.

Topic-109: The Teaching Process: Teaching Principles

In any group of teachers, there are some principles that are shared as well as some that are held by individual teachers. As teachers plan lessons and teach, they draw on a teaching philosophy as well as their personal principles to help them shape and direct their teaching (Richards, 1998). Opportunities for teachers to clarify their teaching principles can help focus on issues concerning choice of teaching methods, activities and materials, the purposes underlying different teaching strategies and criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of lessons. Leung and Teasdale (1988) comment: "Clearly there can be effective teaching without teachers making explicit theories which underlie their practice. However, we would contend that other things being equal, privileging and developing the intellectual frameworks which inform teaching offers a principled way of conceptualizing teaching as purposeful action."

Topic-110: Maintaining Good Teaching

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Quality teaching cannot simply be assumed to happen. It results from an active and ongoing effort on the part of teachers and administrators to ensure that good teaching practices are being maintained. This involves the establishment of shared commitment to quality teaching and the selection of appropriate measures to bring it about. The following strategies address this issue:

- Monitoring
- Collecting information
- Formal and informal tools
- Observation
- Peer feedback
- Identification and resolution of problems
- Shared planning
- Course planning
- Materials
- Lesson planning
- Documentation

Topic-111: Self-Study of the Program

Self-study involves a study of a program's practices and values as part of the process of self-evaluation and review. It is part of the process of demonstrating a commitment to quality and to long-term goals and professional development. By undertaking self-study, a language program declares itself interested in the assessment of its quality and the outcome of its teaching mission, and committed to long-term change and professional growth (Carkin, 1997). A self-study should be undertaken every three to five years and it should involve teachers, administrators, and students in a process of examining all aspects of a school's operations. Guidelines for conducting self-study have been published by TESOL, NAFSA and CTESOL.

Topic-112: The Learning Process

Learning is not the mirror image of teaching. The extent to which teaching achieves its goals will also dependent on how successfully learners have been considered in the planning and delivery process. The following factors may affect how successfully a course is received by learners:

- Understanding of the course
- Views of learning
- Learning styles
- Motivation
- Support

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Lesson-18

CURRICULUM DESIGN AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS -I

Topic-113: Curriculum Design and Instructional Materials: Introduction

Teaching materials are a key component in most language programs. They provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use. Much of the language teaching that occurs throughout the world today could not take place without the extensive use of commercial materials. These may take different forms: (a) printed materials such as books, workbooks, worksheets, or readers (b) non-print materials such as cassette or audio materials, videos, or computer-based materials (c) materials that comprise print and non-print sources such as self-access materials and materials on the Internet. In addition, materials that are not designed for instructional use such as magazines, newspapers, and TV materials may also play a role in the curriculum.

Topic-114: Role of Instructional Materials

An instructional material, in any form, makes the basic component of language curriculum design. It serves as an input in a language teaching classroom and provides supplementary support for language teachers. It also provides a background for teachers to plan lessons. There are various uses of instructional material in second language teaching. The role of instructional material for learners is that it is a source to provide contact with language. It also plays vital role in ESP courses as it helps in providing language source for special courses.

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Cunningsworth (1995) summarizes the role of materials (particularly course books) in language teaching as:

- A resource for presentation materials (spoken and written)
- A source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- A reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on
- A source of stimulation and ideas for classroom activities
- A syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined)
- A support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence

Topic-115: Authentic Versus Created Materials

When plans regarding the role of materials in a language program are made, an initial decision concerns the use of authentic materials versus created materials. Authentic materials refer to the use in teaching of texts, photographs, video selections, and other teaching resources that were not specially prepared for pedagogical purposes. Created materials refer to textbooks and other specially developed instructional resources. Some have argued that authentic materials are preferred over created materials because they contain authentic language and reflect real-world uses of language compared with the contrived content of much created material. Allwright (1981) thus describes a language course for foreign students at a British university in which one of the guiding principles was: "Use no materials published or unpublished, *actually* conceived or designed as materials for language teaching." Such an imperative seems to reflect a very low opinion of the abilities of materials writers to create pedagogically useful language learning resources. Advantages claimed for authentic materials are:

- They have a positive effect on learners' motivation because they are intrinsically more interesting and motivating than created materials. There is a huge supply of interesting sources for language learning in the media and on the web and these relate closely to the interests of many language learners.
- They provide authentic information about the target culture. Materials can be selected to illustrate many aspects of the target culture including culturally based practices and beliefs and both linguistic and non-linguistic behavior.
- They provide exposure to real language rather than the artificial texts found in created materials that have been specially written to illustrate particular grammatical rules or discourse types.
- They relate more closely to learners' needs and hence provide a link between the classroom and students' needs in the real world.
- They support a more creative approach to teaching. In using authentic materials as a source for teaching activities, teachers can develop their full potential as teachers, developing activities and tasks that better match their teaching styles and the learning styles of their students.

However, critics of the use of authentic materials point out that created materials can also be motivating for learners. Published materials are often designed to look like teenage magazines and other kinds of

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real-world materials and may be *just* interesting and motivating for learners. Authentic materials often contain difficult language and unneeded vocabulary items, which can be an unnecessary distraction for teachers and learners. Since they have not been simplified or written to any lexical or linguistic guidelines, they often contain language that may be beyond the learners' abilities.

Created materials may be superior to authentic materials because they are generally built around a graded syllabus and hence provide a systematic coverage of teaching items.

Using authentic materials is a burden for teachers. In order to develop learning resources around authentic materials, teachers have to be prepared to spend a considerable amount of time locating suitable sources for materials, developing activities and exercises to accompany the materials.

In many language programs, teachers thus use a mixture of created and authentic materials because both have their advantages as well as limitations. Furthermore, the distinction between authentic and created materials is becoming increasingly blurred because many published materials incorporate authentic texts and other real-world sources

Topic-116: Textbooks

Commercial textbooks together with ancillaries such as workbooks, cassettes, and teachers' guides are perhaps the commonest form of teaching materials. In language teaching, textbooks are used in different ways in language programs. For example, a reading textbook might be the basis for a course on reading skills, providing both a set of reading texts and exercises for skills practice. A writing textbook might provide model compositions and topics for students to write about. A grammar textbook might serve as a reference book and provide examples as well as exercises to develop grammatical knowledge. A speaking text might provide passages for students to read and discuss. A listening text together with audiocassettes or CDs might serve as the primary listening input in a listening course.

The use of commercial textbooks in teaching has both advantages and disadvantages, depending on how they are used and the contexts for their use. Among the principal advantages are:

- They provide structure and a syllabus for a program. Without textbooks, a program may have no central core and learners may not receive a syllabus that has been systematically planned and developed.
- They help standardize instruction. The use of a textbook in a program can ensure that the students in different classes receive similar content and therefore can be tested in the same way.
- They maintain quality. If a well-developed textbook is used, students are exposed to materials that have been tried and tested, that are based on sound learning principles, and that are paced appropriately.
- They provide a variety of learning resources. Textbooks are often accompanied by workbooks, CDs, cassettes, videos, CD-ROMs, and comprehensive teaching guides, providing a rich and varied resource for teachers and learners.
- They are efficient. They save teachers' time, enabling teachers to devote time to teaching rather than material production.
- They can provide effective language models and input. Textbooks can provide support for teachers whose first language is not English and who may not be able to generate accurate language input on their own.

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- They can train teachers. If teachers have limited teaching experience, a textbook together with the teacher's manual can serve as a medium of initial teacher training.
- They are visually appealing. Commercial textbooks usually have high standards of design and production and hence are appealing to learners and teachers.

As with all examples of created materials, however, there are also potential negative effects of commercial textbooks. For example:

- They may contain inauthentic language. Textbooks sometimes present inauthentic language because texts, dialogues, and other aspects of content tend to be specially written to incorporate teaching points and are often not representative of real language use.
- They may distort content. Textbooks often present an idealized view of the world or fail to represent real issues. In order to make textbooks acceptable in many different contexts, controversial topics are avoided and instead an idealized white middle-class view of the world is portrayed as the norm.
- They may not reflect students' needs. Because textbooks are often written for global markets, they may not reflect the interests and needs of students and hence may require adaptation.
- They can deskill teachers. If teachers use textbooks as the primary source of their teaching, their role can become reduced to that of a technician whose primary function is to present materials prepared by others.

Topic-117: Evaluating Textbooks

With such an array of commercial textbooks and other kinds of instructional materials to choose from, teachers and others, who are responsible for choosing materials, need to be able to make informed judgments about textbooks and teaching materials. Evaluation, however, can only be done by considering something in relation to its purpose. A book may be ideal in one situation because it matches the needs of that situation perfectly. It has just the right amount of material for the program; it is easy to teach; it can be used with little preparation by inexperienced teachers, and it has an equal coverage of grammar and the four skills. The same book in a different situation, however, may turn out to be quite unsuitable. It contains too little material; it is not sufficiently challenging for teacher and students, and has elements in it (such as a grammar syllabus) that are not needed in the program. Before one can evaluate a textbook, therefore, information is needed on the following issues:

The role of the textbook in the program

- Is there a well-developed curriculum that describes the objectives, syllabus and content of the program or will this be determined by the textbook?
- Will the book or textbook series provide the core of the program, or is it one of several different books that will be used?
- Will it be used with small classes or large ones?
- Will learners be expected to buy a workbook as well or should the textbook provide all the practice students need?

The teachers in the program

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- How experienced are the teachers in the program and what is their level of training?
- Are they native speakers of English? If not, how well do they speak English?
- Do teachers tend to follow the textbook closely or do they use the book simply as a resource?

Topic-118: Criteria for Textbook Evaluation

Cunningsworth (1995) proposes four criteria for evaluating textbooks, particularly course books:

1. They should correspond to learners' needs. They should match the aims and objectives of the language learning program.
2. They should reflect the uses (present or future) that learners will make of the language. Textbooks should be chosen that will help equip students to use language effectively for their own purposes.
3. They should take account of students' needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes, without dogmatically imposing a rigid method.
4. They should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, they mediate between the target language and the learner.

Cunningsworth (1995) presents a checklist for textbook evaluation and selection organized under the following categories:

- Aims and approaches
- Design and organization
- Language content
- Skills
- Topic
- Methodology
- Teachers' books
- Practical considerations

Based on the factors in each situation, questions specific to that situation need to be generated around the main issues involved in textbook evaluation and selection:

- Program factors - questions relating to concerns of the program
- Teacher factors - questions relating to teacher concerns
- Learner factors - questions relating to learner concerns
- Content factors - questions relating to the content and organization of the material in the book
- Pedagogical factors - questions relating to the principles underlying the materials and the pedagogical design of the materials, including choice of activities and exercise types

Topic-119: Adapting Textbooks

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Commercial textbooks can seldom be used without some form of adaptation to make them more suitable for the particular context in which they will be used. This adaptation may take a variety of forms.

- Modifying content: Content may need to be changed because it does not suit the target learners, perhaps because of factors related to the learners' age, gender, social class, occupation, religion or cultural background.
- Adding or deleting content: The book may contain too much or too little for the program. Whole units may have to be dropped, or perhaps sections of units throughout the book omitted. For example, a course may focus primarily on listening and speaking skills and hence writing activities in the book will be omitted.
- Reorganizing content: A teacher may decide to reorganize the syllabus of the book, and arrange the units in what she considers a more suitable order. Or within a unit, the teacher may decide not to follow the sequence of activities in the unit but to reorder them for a particular reason.
- Addressing omissions: The text may omit items that the teacher feels unimportant. For example a teacher may add vocabulary activities or grammar activities to a unit.
- Modifying tasks: Exercises and activities may need to be changed to give them an additional focus. For example, a listening activity may focus only on listening for information. It is adapted so that students listen a second or third time for a different purpose. Or an activity may be extended to provide opportunities for more personalized practice.
- Extending tasks. Exercises may contain insufficient practice and additional practice tasks may be added.

The ability to be able to adapt commercial textbooks in these ways is an essential skill for teachers to develop. Through the process of adaptation, the teacher personalizes the text, making it a better teaching resource, and individualizes it for a particular group of learners. Normally, this process takes place gradually as the teacher becomes more familiar with the book because the dimensions of the text that need adaptation may not be apparent until the book is tried out in the classroom. When a number of teachers in a program are teaching from the same textbook, it is useful to build in opportunities for teachers to share information about the forms of adaptation they are making.

Topic 120: Course Book, Learners and Teacher

The use of instruction material in a classroom defines the relationship between course book, learners and teachers for designing and developing instructional materials. Text books form essential component of language curriculum design. There are various views about the role of books in LCD. Prabhu (1989) believes that teaching is a process where teachers know what their learners need, so textbook seems ineffective in this regard because it leaves out the learner. Allwright (1981) agrees to Prabhu's view that books do not allow students to engage in the negotiation process.

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Lesson-19

CURRICULUM DESIGN AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS -II

Topic-121: Preparing Materials for a Program: Advantages and Disadvantages

In cases where institutionally developed materials are being considered for a language program, both the advantages and the disadvantages of setting up a materials development project should be carefully considered at the outset.

Advantages

Advantages of building a material-development-component in a program include:

- Relevance: Materials can be produced that are directly relevant to students' institutional needs and that reflect local content, issues, and concerns.
- Develop expertise: Developing materials can help develop expertise among staff, giving them a greater understanding of the characteristics of effective materials.

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- Reputation: Institutionally developed materials may enhance the reputation of the institution by demonstrating its commitment to providing materials developed specifically for its students.
- Flexibility: Materials produced within the institution can be revised or adapted as needed, giving them greater flexibility than a commercial course book.

Disadvantages

Disadvantages also need to be considered before embarking on materials development.

- Cost: Quality materials take time to produce and adequate staff, time as well as resources need to be allocated to such a project.
- Quality: Teacher-made materials will not normally have the same standard of design and production as commercial materials and hence may not present the same image as commercial materials.
- Training: To prepare teachers for material writing projects, adequate training should be provided. Material writing is a specialized skill and potential materials writers need the opportunity to develop the necessary skills. Workshops can be developed for this purpose. The creation of writing teams that contain a balance of relevant expertise can also be useful.

Topic-122: The Nature of Materials Development

It is also important to understand the nature of materials development and the processes that are typically involved if quality materials are to be created. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) observe that "only a small proportion of good teachers are also good designers of course materials." Many teachers underestimate how commercial teaching materials are developed and the developmental processes that are normally involved. Preparing effective teaching materials is similar to the processes involved in planning and teaching a lesson. The goal is to create materials that can serve as resources for effective learning. The writer starts with a learning goal in mind and then seeks to create a set of activities that enable that goal to be reached.

In both materials development and classroom teaching, the goal is to develop a sequence of activities that leads teachers and learners through a learning route that is at an appropriate level of difficulty. It provides both motivation and useful practice. Good materials do many of the things that a teacher would normally do as part of his or her teaching. They should:

- Arouse the learners' interest
- Remind them of earlier learning
- Tell them what they will be learning next
- Explain new learning content to them
- Relate these ideas to learners' previous learning
- Get learners to think about new content
- Help them get feedback on their learning
- Encourage them to practice
- Make sure they know what they are supposed to be doing

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- Enable them to check their progress
- Help them to do better

Topic-123: Decisions in Materials Design

When deciding about the material design, the designer has to keep in view the scope, quality and nature of the material. It is important to take time before taking decisions about material design. There are two key decisions which researcher needs to take: a) choosing input resources and b) selecting exercise. In order to design material, the designer has to consider the following points:

- Developing aims
- Developing objectives
- Developing a syllabus
- Organizing the course into units
- Developing a structure for units
- Sequencing units

When the process of writing begins, further decisions need to be made about:

- Choosing input sources
- Selecting exercise types

Topic-124: Selecting Exercise Types

One of the most difficult decisions in writing is deciding on the types of exercises that will be used. The issue is how to create exercises that will engage learners in the use of skills and processes related to specific language teaching objectives. A review of the exercise types used in current commercial textbooks is a good starting point.

Exercises that develop "top-down" listening

- Listen to a part of a conversation and infer the topic being discussed.
- Look at pictures and then listen to conversations about the pictures and match them with the pictures. Listen to conversations and identify the setting.
- Read a list of key points to be covered in a talk and then number them in sequence while listening to the talk.
- Read information about a topic, then listen to a talk on the topic and check whether the information was mentioned or not.
- Read one side of a telephone conversation and guess the speaker's responses then listen to more conversation.

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- Look at pictures of people speaking and guess what they might be saying or doing then listen to their actual conversations.
- Complete a story then listen to how the story was really ended,
- Guess what news headlines might refer to, and then listen to news broadcasts about the events referred to.

Topic-125: Managing a Material Writing Project

Materials writing projects are of different scope and dimensions. Some may be the responsibility of an individual teacher; others may be assigned to a team of writers. The management of a team-based writing project involves addressing the following issues:

- Selecting the project team: How many people will take part in the project and what are their roles and responsibilities? In a small project, there may be two or three writers sharing responsibilities for all aspects of the project. In a large-scale project, however, the following people might be involved:
- Project Director: responsible for overall management of the project, for setting goals and ensuring that targets are met and for interacting with all parties involved.
- Writers: responsible for writing all components of the course.
- Media Specialist: responsible for audio visual materials and computer software.
- Editor: responsible for reviewing everything the writers have produced and preparing the final version of the materials for publication or duplication.
- Illustrator: responsible for preparing and selecting art and illustrations.
- Designer: responsible for the layout, type, style, graphics, and the overall format of the materials.

Lesson-20

CURRICULUM DESIGN AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS -III

Topic-126: Monitoring the Use of Materials

No matter what form of materials teachers make use of, whether they teach from textbooks, institutional materials, or teacher-prepared materials, the materials represent plans for teaching. They do not represent the process of teaching itself. As teachers use materials, they adapt and transform them to suit the needs of particular groups of learners and their own teaching styles. These processes of transformation are at the heart of teaching and enable good teachers to create effective lessons out of the resources they make use of. It is useful, therefore, to collect information on how teachers use course books and other teaching materials in their teaching. The information collected can serve following purposes:

- To document effective ways of using materials.
- To provide feedback on how materials work.
- To keep a record of additions, deletions, and supplementary materials teachers may have used with the materials.
- To assist other teachers in using the materials.

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Monitoring may take the following forms:

- Observation: classroom visits to see how teachers use materials and to find out how materials influence the quality of teaching and interaction that occurs in a lesson.
- Feedback sessions: group meetings in which teachers discuss their experience with materials.
- Written reports: the use of reflection sheets or other forms of written feedback in which teachers make brief notes about what worked well and what did not work well, or give suggestions on using the materials.
- Reviews: written reviews by a teacher or group of teachers on their experiences with a set of materials and what they liked or disliked about them.
- Students' reviews: comments from students on their experience with the materials.

Topic-127: Role of Materials in Language Classroom

Language material plays vital role in classroom. Material can offer pedagogical purpose to meet in language classroom. Before looking into the importance of instructional material, we need to see how will it meet learners' needs? How can a course book meet the needs of a specific group of students? These questions, posed by a teacher looking for the first time, try to figure out the role of preplanned materials and importance of resource. It also recalled concerns about the incoherence of many language programs when teachers create their own materials or pick and choose from a range of authentic and published materials and worksheets. In some cases commercial materials give freedom to teachers to choose material as it suits them and that's why it is considered more useful when compared to published material.

Topic-128: Preplanned Materials – Usefulness

Concern whether pre-prepared materials can meet individual learner's needs is a part of the dilemma teachers' face when they try to implement learner-centered language programs in a group setting. This is not a new issue. Over a decade ago, O'Neill (1982) questioned the assumption saying that each group is so unique that its needs cannot be met by materials designed for another group. Such a view not only presupposes it is possible to predict the language needs of students beyond the classroom but also ignores the common linguistic and learning needs of many learners. The process undertaken in establishing the *NSW Certificate of Spoken and Written English*, for example, tends to confirm this commonality by showing that teachers do not vary radically in the choice of language competencies assigned to the learners of a similar proficiency level.

Possible negative aspects of preplanned materials are given below:

- Each group of students is unique so pre-made material cannot meet the needs of another group of students.
- Text books reduce teachers' role.
- There are cultural prejudices.

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- Some materials fail to present appropriate and realistic language examples.
- The teacher will follow material exclusively and not pay attention to student's needs.

Possible positive aspects of preplanned materials are as follows:

- Source of information and support
- Suggestions for teachers
- An agent of change
- Convenient method of structuring the learning systems
- Collaboration among teachers

Topic-129: Effective Teachings Materials

Materials obviously reflect the writers' views of language and learning, and teachers (and students) will respond according to how well these match their own beliefs and expectations. If materials are to be a helpful scaffold, the underlying principles need to be made explicit and an object of discussion for both students and teachers. We will also look at the assumptions about language and learning which should underpin materials used in language classrooms. Individual end-users will of course weight these factors differently and so need to adapt the materials to their own context and that of the learners.

Effective materials are likely to reflect the following:

- Language is functional and must be contextualized: materials must contextualize the language they present.
- Language development requires learners' engagement in purposeful use of language: Some explicit discussion of language at the whole-text level is presumably useful.
- The language should be realistic and authentic: the problem is to find authentic materials.
- Classroom materials will usually seek to include an audio visual component.
- In our modern technologically complex world, second language learners need to develop the ability to deal with written as well as spoken genres.
- Effective teaching materials foster learners' autonomy.
- Materials need to be flexible enough to cater individual and contextual differences.
- Learning needs to engage learners both affectively and cognitively.

Topic-130: Adopting and Adapting an Existing Course Book

Once a course book has been chosen, teachers may wish to make substantial changes to it. There are several reasons for doing this and these could be classified as responding to the environment, taking account of needs or putting principles into practice. Here are some of them:

- The course book does not include all the activities that the teacher has used successfully before.
- The course book material does not fit comfortably into the time available for the course.
- The course book contains content that is unsuitable for the learners' level of proficiency or age.
- The learners' knowledge and skill do not match that involved in the course book (Prabhu, 1989).
- The course book does not include language items, skills, ideas, discourse or strategies that the learners need.
- The course book does not apply principles that the teacher feels should be applied.

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- The course book does not involve the learners in the curriculum design process (Allwright, 1981). The teacher can do the following things to adapt a course book:

- **Add or omit content:** The teacher adds exercises to give extra practice to items that are frequently used in the language or which require extra time to learn. The teacher skips over confusing or unimportant parts of a lesson, for example teaching only one item in pairs of words that might interfere with each other.
- **Change the sequencing of the content:** The teacher introduces some items earlier in the course because they are needed at that stage.
- **Change the format:** Instead of beginning the lesson with a dialogue, the teacher puts it towards the end of the lesson and uses the other exercises in the lesson to prepare for it.
- **Change the presentation:** The teacher uses different techniques than those used in the book. For example a 4/3/2 fluency activity is used to practise some of the dialogues. The activity involves the students usually to be paired with one half as listeners and the other half as speakers. It involves three rounds. In the first round the speaker is given four minutes to talk about the given subject. Then after a short pause where the listeners are changed the speakers talk again on the same subject for three minutes. In the third round the procedure is repeated and the speaker is given two minutes to talk again about the same subject.
- **Add or omit monitoring:** The teacher encourages the learners to make tests to check each other's learning of what is in the lesson (Clarke, 1989).
- **Add or omit assessment:** The teacher introduces weekly tests to encourage learners to do homework or to let them see their progress. An example of the teacher adding content may be through the addition of an extensive reading component to the course. The teacher may decide to do this because she does not feel the course book is applying principles that the teacher believes are important.

In this case the principles are:

- **Comprehensible input:** There should be substantial quantities of interesting comprehensible receptive activity in both listening and reading.
- **Fluency:** A language course should provide activities aimed at increasing fluency with which learners can use the language they already know, both receptively and productively.
- **Time on task:** As much time as possible should be spent focusing on and using the second language.

Topic-131: Using Source Books Instead of Course Books

The proper role of course books in teaching is a matter of debate (Richards, 1985). Prabhu (1989) suggests that learners would be better served if teachers did not use course books but assembled their courses by drawing on a variety of source books such as conversation books, timed reading books, intensive reading books, listening texts, as well as teacher-made material. There are several reasons for doing this:

- A single course book does not meet the diverse needs of the learners in the class.
- Drawing material from a variety of sources allows the teacher to keep each lesson as close as possible to what the learners need.

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- Learners can have a strong say in what kind of topics and what kind of material they work with. This allows teacher and learners to negotiate the syllabus during the course (Breen, 1984 and Clarke, 1991).
- Teachers have the chance to make greater use of their professional skills such as material preparation, course planning, adaptation of activities and multi-level teaching in one class.
- The circumstances under which the course is taught make it difficult to find an appropriate textbook. For example, the teaching process has been divided up so that one teacher deals with reading, other deals with writing and so on.
- Current course books do not reflect state-of-the-art knowledge in applied linguistics.

The biggest problems faced by the teacher in a course is to draw on source books, to provide systematic coverage of the important language and skills content of the course, and to make it seem like one unified course rather than a set of unrelated bits. Such courses are often organized around themes to provide this unity. Learners sometimes complain of not seeing any obvious progress when they do not have a set course book.

Generally, the more trained and experienced teachers are the more likely they are to reject the idea of a single textbook. This means that they need to be aware of the various parts of the curriculum design process and need to be able to check that the greater freedom they have to draw on a variety of types of content, presentation and assessment.

Using Computers and the Internet

Technological innovations have always had an impact on teaching. The advent of the computer age has been no exception. It has had an impact on language teaching in four main ways:

- The use of computers and computer software in self-access centres and language-learning laboratories.
- The use of computer-mediated activities in the classroom, most obviously in the teaching of writing (DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001; Fedderholdt, 2001).
- The use of the internet as a source of information (Yang, 2001).
- The use of corpora such as the British National Corpus and the Corpus of Contemporary.

Obvious environment constraints include a lack of money to purchase equipment, schools without electricity and teachers' unfamiliarity with the technology. When the environment analysis and needs analysis favor the use of technology, the most important thing is that teachers consider how the use of technology fits with the course principles. One consideration is whether the new technology will contribute to the course goals more effectively than before. Salaberry (2001) suggests four major questions for teachers to consider about the pedagogical effectiveness and the use of technology:

- Does better technology result in better teaching?
- Which features of technology help teaching and learning?
- How can we use new technologies in the curriculum?
- Do new technologies result in an efficient use of human and material resources?

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There are now very useful computer-based and web-based learning tools available at sites like the Compleat Lexical Tutor (www.lextutor.ca), J.P. Loucky's site (www.call4all.us/home/index2.php) and Laurence Anthony's web site (www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/). There are also large corpora of English available for searching to find out how words are used and the collocations they take.

Topic-132: Evaluating a Course Book

Every year teachers choose course books to use in their courses and learners spend considerable amounts of money buying them. Once a course book has been chosen and bought, there is then an obligation to make use of it even if it turns out to be not very satisfactory. It is thus worth spending some time to look for the best book available and to see whether it is good enough to make the text for a course.

A systematic approach to course book evaluation can be based on the parts of the curriculum design process:

- Does the course book suit the environment in which it will be used?
- Does the course book meet the needs of the learners?
- Does the course book apply sensible principles of teaching and learning?
- Do the goals of the course book match the goals of the course?
- Does the content of the course book suit the proficiency level of the learners and reflect sensible selection and sequencing principles?
- Is the course book interesting and does it use effective techniques?
- Does the course book include tests and ways of monitoring progress?

Very early in the evaluation procedure, the teacher needs to decide what features are absolutely essential for the wanted course book. Any course book without these essential features would not be worth considering further. Here are some possible essential features:

- The book should be at the right vocabulary and grammar level for the learners.
- The book should focus on the language and skills that are the goal of the course.
- The book should be below a certain price.
- The book should be readily available.
- The size and number of lessons in the book should suit the length of the course.
- The book should not include behaviour and topics that would offend the religious or cultural sensitivities of the learners and their parents.

It is also useful to go systematically through the parts of the curriculum design process to find such features. The aim is to make a very short list of two or three absolutely essential features that can be used to quickly eliminate books that are not worth considering further. For example, if the course begins in a week's time then the availability of the book is essential. If there is time for orders to be placed and filled, availability is not an essential feature. Similarly, most course books are not too expensive, but if the learners are particularly poor or the school has a very limited budget, a low cost could be an essential feature.

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Topic-133: Evaluating the Evaluation Forms

A comparison of the evaluation forms designed by Tucker (1968) and Sheldon (1988) shows how current theories of second-language learning influence course book evaluation. An evaluation form that seemed adequate twenty or forty years ago now seems inappropriate. When examining the adequacy of an evaluation form, we can use the same criteria as we use for evaluating a test:

- Is the form reliable? Would different people using the same form on the same course book reach similar conclusions?
- Is the form valid? Does the form cover the important features of a course book? Is the choice of features to examine in agreement with our current knowledge of curriculum design and second language learning?
- Is the form practical? Is it easy to understand? Is it easy to use? Can it be used to evaluate a course book in a reasonably short time? Are the results of the evaluation understandable and usable?

Lesson- 21

APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DESIGN

Topic-134: Models of Curriculum

This lesson is based on a model of curriculum design which is represented by the curriculum design diagram. This diagram is intended to be easy-to remember so that teachers can use it whenever they face curriculum design issues like how adequate is the model? One way to answer this question is to compare it with other models to see where they overlap and where they don't. Curriculum design diagram is given below:

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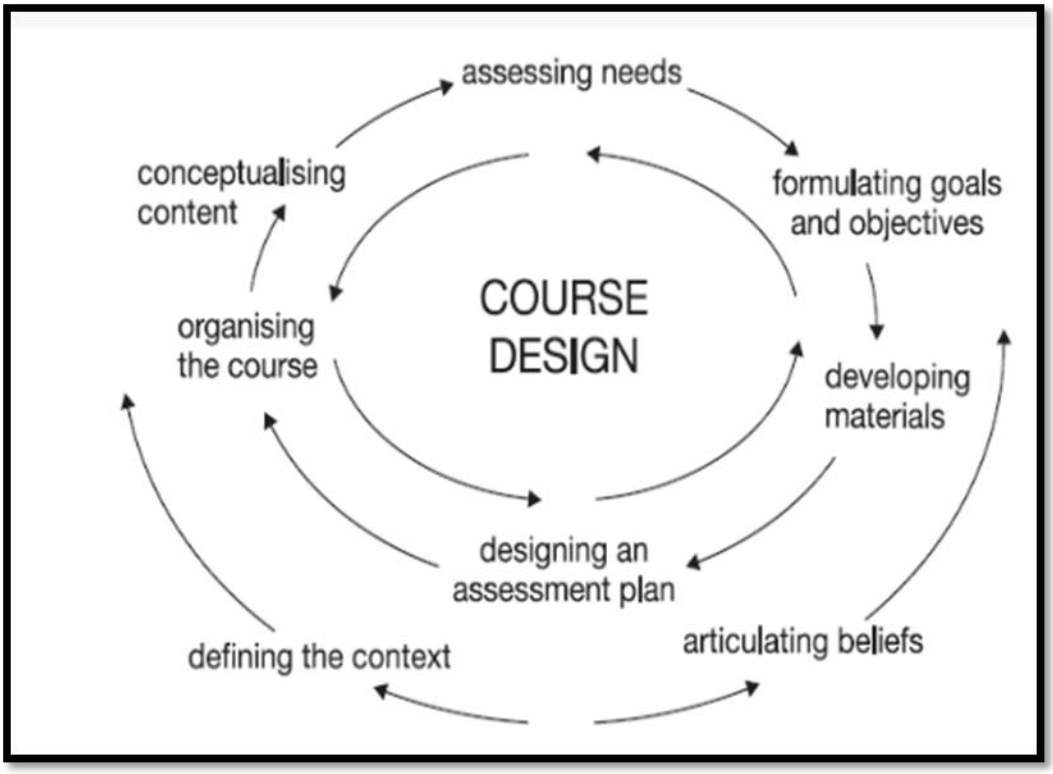

Monitoring and assessment and evaluation in the Language Curriculum Design model are included in one part of the Graves Model (2000) i.e. designing an assessment plan. In her book, Graves distinguishes evaluation from assessment, but deals with both in the same chapter. Clearly, there is a great deal of similarity between the two models. When looking at other models of curriculum design, it is worth doing such a comparison to see where the similarities and differences lie.

Principles, monitoring and assessment, and evaluation are not included in Murdoch's Model (2010). These are possible weaknesses of his model. However, in his discussion of his model, it is clear that he intends that principles should be considered when dealing with several of the parts of his model. There are numerous other models of curriculum design and it is interesting to compare them to see where their strengths and weaknesses lie.

Topic-135: Doing Curriculum Design

This book has taken the approach that curriculum design is best viewed as a process like writing where the curriculum design could begin at any of several places – needs analysis, materials writing, selection of principles, goals, etc. Some models of curriculum design see it occurring as a series of steps in a fixed order. Tessmer and Wedman (1990) describe this view as a "waterfall" model, where one stage of curriculum design (for example environment analysis) is done thoroughly and then the next stage of needs analysis is done thoroughly and so on. It is in the same way as the flow of water fills one container in a stepped-down series and then flows over to fill the next. If this does happen, it is probably rare. Most curriculum design occurs under constraints that make it almost impossible for a waterfall model to occur. For example, in many English courses the teacher does not know who the learners will be until the first day

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of class. Needs analysis before the course begins is thus virtually impossible. The teacher needs to come prepared for the first class and so deciding on the content, format and presentation of the material may be a first step. The decisions made for the first day may have to be revised after meeting the learners.

Topic-136: Starting Points

Curriculum designers and teachers can start from nothing and gather and write the material. Most often this happens because of copyright issues with courses that are likely to be published, or where there is no existing course. The curriculum designer or teacher is thus responsible for all parts of the curriculum design process.

Curriculum designers and teachers can draw on a bank of existing materials from which they select the most appropriate material for the course. Such a bank could include: (1) copies of activities prepared by themselves or other teachers for other courses or for previous deliveries of the course, (2) published supplementary materials such as graded readers, grammar activity books, conversation texts, speed reading courses and so on, (3) clippings from newspapers or magazines, recordings from the radio or TV or photocopied material from texts or course books. The curriculum designer or teacher chooses the bits and puts them together to make a course. The curriculum designer or teacher thus takes most responsibility for content, sequencing and goals.

Some curriculum statements and course books deliberately provide only some of the material needed for a complete course. Curriculum statements usually provide the content and sequencing, goals, and assessment parts of the course, and leave it to the teacher to decide on the materials to use to deal with format and presentation.

Topic-137: The Process of Curriculum Design

In most approaches the main parts of the curriculum design process described in the curriculum design model will be covered, but they may be covered at various times, at various degrees of thoroughness, in various orders, and by various people. We will look at the ways of going through the process of curriculum design – the waterfall model (given below), the focused opportunistic approach, and the layers of necessity approach.

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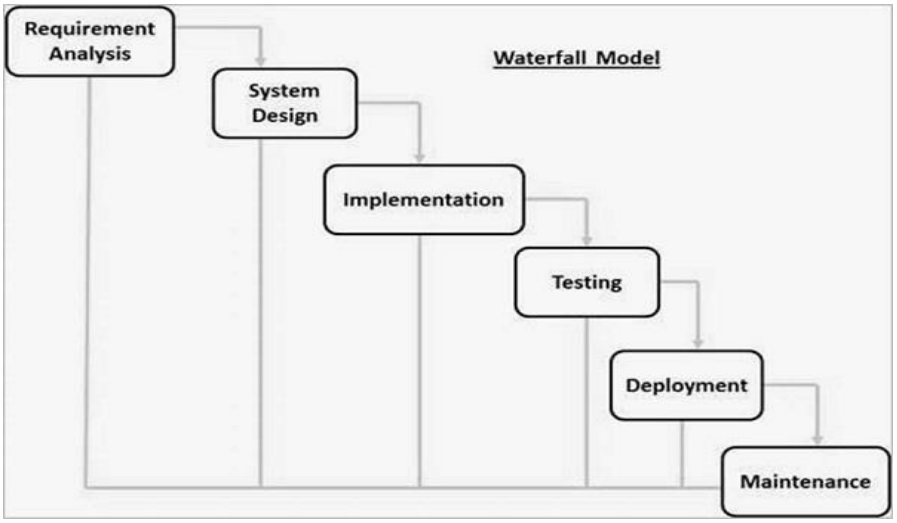

Let us begin where conditions might seem to be ideal for curriculum design, where there is plenty of time, access to the intended learners, a known teaching environment and plenty of resources.

Topic138: The Process of Curriculum Design: A Focused Opportunistic Approach

In a focused opportunistic approach, the format and presentation part of the curriculum design process is typically done first. That is, material is gathered or prepared to teach the course. Then, with each re-teaching of the course, one part of the curriculum design process is done thoroughly. Thus, it might be that a proper needs analysis is not carried out until the third or fourth re-teaching of the course. Tessmer and Richey (1997) warn against this approach, mainly from the point of view of efficiency in that working thoroughly on one aspect of curriculum design may result in wasted effort because the findings may not be able to be used in the other less-elaborated parts of the curriculum design process. The attractiveness of this model is that it allows a concentrated focus with possible high-quality improvements in a course. For example, if during one presentation of a course, assessment was focused on or there was a careful needs analysis done, then the improvements could be done well.

If the time and resources available are very limited, the curriculum designer might choose the least detailed layer. This layer would involve all the following steps:

- Decide on the most severe environmental constraint on the course and how it will affect the curriculum design.
- Decide on the most urgent necessity that learners have to meet at the end of the course.
- Make a short list of items to cover.
- Decide on a simple lesson format that will make use of available material.
- Gather the material for the course.
- Decide on a simple form of assessment

Topic-139: Deciding on an Approach

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We have looked at a range of starting points and different paths through the curriculum design process. Choosing which path to take will depend on the starting point, the time available for course preparation, the availability of needs analysis information, the availability of a usable course book, and the skill of the curriculum designer. We will assume that time is short and that only a small amount of needs analysis information is available.

Clearly, the least demanding approach is to choose an existing course book as a source of material and then apply a focused opportunistic approach to gradually improve and eventually replace it.

Whatever approach is chosen, the advantage of following a systematic approach to curriculum design involving all the parts of a model is that parts of the process are not missed out. Poor curriculum design misses important parts and does not deal with parts in a principled way.

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Lesson- 22

CURRICULUM APPROACHES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING: FORWARD AND CENTRAL DESIGN

Topic-140: Introduction to Curriculum Approaches in Language Teaching

The development and implementation of language teaching programs can be approached in several different ways, each of which has different implications for curriculum design. Three curriculum approaches are described and compared. Each differs with respect to when issues related to input, process, and outcomes are addressed. **Forward design** starts with syllabus planning, moves to methodology, and is followed by assessment of learning outcomes. Resolving issues of syllabus content and sequencing are essential starting points with forward design, which has been the major tradition in language curriculum development. **Central design** begins with classroom processes and methodology. Issues of syllabus and learning outcomes are not specified in detail in advance and are addressed as the curriculum is implemented. Many of the innovative methods of the 1980s and 90s reflect central design. **Backward design** starts from a specification of learning outcomes and decisions on methodology and syllabus are developed from the learning outcomes.

Topic-141: Input, Process and the Curriculum

In language teaching, *input* refers to the linguistic content of a course. It seems logical to assume that before we can teach a language, we need to decide what linguistic content to teach. Once content has been selected then it needs to be organized into teachable and learnable units as well as arranged in a rational sequence. The result is a syllabus. There are many different conceptions of a language syllabus. Different approaches to syllabus design reflect different understandings of the nature of language and different views as to what the essential building blocks of language proficiency are, such as vocabulary, grammar, functions or text types.

Criteria for the selection of syllabus units include frequency, usefulness, simplicity, learnability and authenticity. Once input has been determined, issues concerning teaching methods and the design of classroom activities and materials can be addressed. These belong to the domain of process.

Process refers to how teaching is carried out and constitutes the domain of methodology in language teaching. Methodology encompasses the types of learning activities, procedures and techniques that are employed by teachers when they teach and the principles that underlie the design of the activities and exercises in their textbooks and teaching resources. These procedures and principles relate to beliefs and theories concerning the nature of language, second language learning, and the roles of teachers, learners and instructional materials. Change in the ideas about language and language learning has caused change in the instructional practices associated with them. Throughout the twentieth century, there was a movement

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away from mastery-oriented approaches focusing on the production of accurate samples of language use to the use of more activity-oriented approaches focusing on interactive and communicative classroom processes.

Topic-142: Forward Design

Forward design is based on the assumption that input, process, and output are related in a linear fashion. In other words, before decisions about methodology and output are determined, issues related to the content of instruction need to be resolved. Curriculum design is seen to constitute a sequence of stages that occur in a fixed order – an approach that has been referred to as a 'waterfall' model (Tessmer and Wedman, 1990) where the output from one stage serves as the input to the stage that follows.

The traditional approach to developing a syllabus involves using one's understanding of subject matter as the basis for syllabus planning. One starts with the field of knowledge that one is going to teach and then selects concepts, knowledge, and skills that constitute that field of knowledge. A syllabus and the course content are then developed around the subject. Objectives may also be specified, but these usually have little role in teaching or assessing of the subject. Assessment of students is usually based on norm referencing, that is, students will be graded on a single scale with the expectation that they spread across a wide range of scores or that they conform to a pre-set distribution.

In language teaching, forward planning is an option when the aims of learning are understood in very general terms. such as in courses in 'general English' or with introductory courses at primary or secondary level where goals may be described in such terms as 'proficiency in language use across a wide range of daily situations', or 'communicative ability in the four language skills'. Curriculum planning in these cases involves operationalizing the notions of 'general English', or 'intermediate level English' or 'writing skills' in terms of units that can be used as the basis for planning, teaching and assessment. This is the approach that was adopted by the Council of Europe in the 1970s.

Topic-143: Forward Design: Word Lists, Grammar Syllabus, Corpora and Discourse Analysis

English language teaching has been strongly influenced by the use of lists as input to teaching. West's General Service List (1953) identified a core set of some 2,000 lexical items needed to sustain language ability. Hindmarsh (1980) identified 4,500 words grouped into seven levels, a similar total to the list included in the Council of Europe's Threshold Level (Van Ek and Alexander, 1975). Lists of the core set of grammatical items learners needed to master were also developed such as Hornby's Guide to Patterns and Usage in English (1954), which together with subsequent variants have provided the basis for the grammatical syllabuses underlying language courses and course books ever since. The communicative language teaching movement in the 1980s prompted attempts to shift from grammar and lexis as the primary components of a syllabus, to communicative units of syllabus organization. This led to proposals for a number of different syllabus models including notional, functional, lexical, text and task-based-models.

In recent years, most ESL/EFL professionals have adopted a preference for "authentic" materials, presenting language from natural texts rather than made-up texts. Corpora provide a ready source of natural or authentic texts for language learning (Reppen, 2010).

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Corpus analysis has revealed the importance of units beyond the level of vocabulary (e.g. phrases, multiword units and collocations) and provides information that can be used to update or replace the earlier generations of lists that have been used in syllabus design. O'Keefe (2007) suggests that course book dialogues, and even entire syllabi, can be informed by corpus data. Another approach that has been used to provide authentic input to teaching is through the use of discourse analysis – a procedure that is used to study the nature of different text types, the ways they are used, and their lexical, grammatical, and textual features. This is particularly important in the design of courses in English for Special Purposes (ESP) where the identification of the lexical, syntactic and textual structures of different genres is a pre-requisite to teaching specialized genres.

ESP curricula generally focus strongly on the description and illustration of communication and language use in the specialist field. Thus the language content of ESP courses is pivotal in ESP course design. Many courses are strongly focused on language content (as opposed to content of another nature, such as learning strategies). Many courses have this major objective that the students will have better understanding of communication and language use in the specialist field or target discourse community by the end of the course. Moreover, such courses generally aim to offer realistic descriptions of discourse derived from empirical investigations of communication and language use in the community or specialist field (Basturkmen, 2010).

Topic-144: Forward Design: Syllabus and Methodology

With a forward design approach, decisions about teaching processes or methodology follow from syllabus specification. Ideally, the planner starts with a theory of language and a syllabus derived from it and then looks for a learning theory that could be used as the basis for an appropriate pedagogy. In some cases there has been a natural link between input and process, between content and method, such as the natural link between structural linguistics and behaviorist learning theory that led to both the audiolingual method and situational language. However, in theory a syllabus does not necessarily imply a particular methodology. A structural syllabus can be embodied in an audiolingual as well as a task-based course, and there are many different ways in which a text-based or functional syllabus can be taught.

The audiolingual method, the audio-visual method and the structural situational method have already been cited as examples of forward design methods. More recent examples include Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and content based teaching/CLIL.

The impetus for the development of CLT came from a change in the understanding of the nature of language prompted by Hymes' notion of communicative competence. While the concept of communicative competence was embraced enthusiastically by the language teaching profession, an initial concern in CLT was with the operationalization of the notion of communicative competence and the development of a communicative syllabus to replace earlier grammar-based syllabus models.

The priority of syllabus specification over methodology in CLT is reflected in Munby's (1978) Communicative Syllabus Design – an influential book with a model for specifying the syllabus content of a course based on learners' communicative needs. Methodological issues are described as a 'dimension of course design which is subsequent to syllabus specification' (1978). The next step in curriculum

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development with the Munby model thus involves designing a methodology that is compatible with a communicative syllabus. The final stage in the process is the development of principles for assessment, which aim to measure how well learners can demonstrate communicative language ability (Wier, 1990).

Topic-145: Implementing a Forward Design Curriculum

In some contexts the planning and development of each stage in the curriculum development process is carried out by different specialists who have expertise in each process, such as specialists in syllabus design, methodology and assessment. Graves (2008) describes this as a 'specialist approach'. In the specialist approach, the potential for mismatch (i.e. lack of alignment between the different components of the curriculum) is great because each different group of people performs different curricular functions, uses different discourses, and produces different curricular products.

Topic-146: Central Design

While a progression from input, to process, to output would seem to be a logical approach to the planning and delivery of instruction, it is only one route that can be taken. With central design, curriculum development starts with the selection of teaching activities, techniques and methods rather than with the elaboration of a detailed language syllabus or specification of learning outcomes. Issues related to input and output are dealt with after a methodology has been chosen or developed or during the process of teaching itself. Clark (1987) refers to this as 'progressivism' and an example of a process approach to the curriculum.

We communicate, and if it is found useful, we can look at the product of our efforts and discuss what has occurred by examining the exponents and attempting to relate them to particular notions and functions, or to lexical and grammatical categories. But this is an after-the-event way of breaking up the flux and flow of a particular discourse, rather than means of predetermining what one may wish to say. This does not deny that the teacher and pupil may need to focus on particular elements of rhetorical, semantic, and grammatical content that arise in the discourse. It seems important to insist, however, that such focuses should arise out of language in use, rather than precede them, so that learners are enabled to discover rules of use, form-meaning relationships, and formal rules and systems against the backcloth of real contextualized discourse (Clark, 1987).

Research on teachers' practices reveals that teachers often follow a central design approach when they develop their lessons by first considering the activities and teaching procedures they will use. Rather than starting their planning processes by detailed considerations of input or output, they start by thinking about the activities they will use in the classroom. While they assume that the exercises and activities they make use of will contribute to successful learning outcomes, it is the classroom processes they seek to provide for their learners that are generally their initial focus.

Topic-147: Central Design in Language Teaching

Language teaching in the first part of the twentieth century was shaped by teaching methods which reflected a forward planning approach. Methods such as the *Audiolingual Method*, *Situational Language*

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Teaching, and early versions of *Communicative Language Teaching* had firm foundations in well-developed syllabuses, either grammatically based or with a more communicative framework as with CLT. But alternative bases for methods emerged in the second half of the twentieth century with the emergence of a number of instructional designs that rejected the need for pre-determined syllabuses or learning outcomes and were built instead around specifications of classroom activities. These new teaching methods and approaches started with process, rather than input or output and were often recognized by the novel classroom practices they employed. They reflected the central design approach – one in which methodology is the starting point in course planning and content is chosen in accordance with the methodology rather than the other way round.

Like other central-design proposals, there is no need for clearly defined outcomes or objectives. The purpose and content of a course 'will vary according to the needs of the students and their particular interests' (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). The fact that the natural approach was not input or output driven (i.e. not built around a pre-determined syllabus and set of learning outcomes) meant that it could not provide a framework for the design of instructional materials and textbooks. Hence, there are no syllabuses or published courses based on the natural approach.

Gategno's Silent Way (1972) can be understood as another example of central design in language teaching. Language input is not the starting point in the Silent Way. Rather than beginning with the development of a linguistic syllabus, Gategno was skeptical of the role of language analysis in teaching. Linguistic studies 'may be a specialization [that] carry with them a narrow opening of one's sensitivity and perhaps serve very little towards the broad end in mind' (Gategno, 1972). Gategno's starting point was a view of learning which saw it as a problem-solving, creative process of discovery. The method is intended to activate the learner's powers of awareness and capacity to learn. Both input and output are more or less taken for granted. Mastery of grammar and vocabulary and the ability to use language fluently and accurately, on the other hand, are at the core of language mastery in the Silent Way.

Topic-148: Implementing a Central Design

Each of the innovations referred above offers different versions of the idea of a classroom as focused on the learner or as a learning community, a notion which has been theorized in greater detail and depth by Wenger (1998) and others. From this perspective, learning takes place in a context and evolves through the interaction and participation of the participants in that context. Learning is not viewed as the mastery of pre-determined content but as constructing new knowledge through participating in specific learning and social contexts and through engaging in particular types of activities and processes.

Yet in other respects, the approaches described above are disparate groups that reflect very different assumptions about the nature of second language learning and the role of instruction in language teaching. What they have in common, however, is the priority they attribute to learning processes, classroom participation, and the role of the teacher and the learners in creating opportunities for learning. The syllabus or learning input (rather than being something that is predetermined or prescribed and regarded as essential in initiating curriculum development) is rather an outcome of teaching and learning. In the older method-based proposals referred above, testing has the role of assessment of learning (i.e. achievement testing)

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while in the more recent proposals, a more dynamic role for assessment is assumed – assessment for learning – where teaching and assessment inform each other at every stage of the teaching/learning process.

Lesson-23

CURRICULUM APPROACHES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING: BACKWARD DESIGN

Topic-149: Backward Design

The third approach to curriculum design is to begin with a specification of learning outputs and to use these as the basis for developing instructional processes and input. Following Wiggins and McTighe (2006) and continuing with the analogy of forward and central design used above, the term backward design will be used to describe this approach. Backward design starts with a careful statement of the desired results or outcomes: appropriate teaching activities and content are derived from the results of learning. This is a well-established tradition in curriculum design in general education, and in recent years has re-emerged as a prominent curriculum development approach in language teaching. It was sometimes described as an 'ends-means' approach, as seen in the work of Tyler (1949) and Taba (1962), who viewed instruction as the specification of ends as a pre-requite to devising the means to reach them. The process consists of seven steps:

- Step 1: diagnosis of needs
- Step 2: formulation of objectives
- Step 3: selection of content
- Step 4: organization of content
- Step 5: selection of learning experiences
- Step 6: organization of learning experiences
- Step 7: determination of what to evaluate and of the ways of doing it

The role of methodology was to determine which teaching methods were most effective in attaining the objectives and a criterion-referenced approach would be used for assessment. There is no place for individually-determined learning outcomes: the outcomes are determined by the curriculum designer.

Topic-150: Significance of Needs Analysis within Backward Design Approach

The use of classroom activities and processes as the starting point in instructional planning is strongly was criticized by Wiggins and McTighe (2006), who argue for starting with a clear description of learning outcomes as the basis for curriculum planning. In backward design, they recommend the following three steps:

- Identify desired results.

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- Determine acceptable evidence of learning.
- Plan learning experiences and instruction.

The planning process begins with a clear understanding of the ends in mind. It explicitly rejects as a starting point the process or activity-oriented curriculum in which participation in activities and processes is primary. It does not imply any particular pedagogical approach or instructional theory or philosophy. A variety of teaching strategies can be employed to achieve the desired goals but teaching methods cannot be chosen until the desired outcomes have been specified. From this perspective many of the central-design methods or activity-oriented approaches discussed above fail to meet the criterion of good instructional design. In language teaching, a number of curriculum approaches and procedures have been advocated that reflect the principles of backward design.

Needs Analysis (identifying learning outcomes or objectives) is often seen to depend upon a systematic analysis of the learners' communicative needs. It emerged in the 1960s as a part of the systems approach to curriculum development – an aspect of the prevalent philosophy of educational accountability from which the use of objectives was also derived (Stufflebeam, 1985).

Informal needs assessment deals with the informal negotiation that takes place between class teachers and students in the form of chats with either individual students, groups of students or the whole class in order to select a focus for the class. It is a necessary component of information retrieval on students' learning needs and should be recorded. It can subsequently be used as input for aims and objective setting and for devising course outlines (Shaw and Dowsett, 1986).

The steps involved are:

- Identify learner's communicative needs.
- Develop statements of learning objectives.
- Identify linguistic content and skills needed to attain the objectives.
- Prepare course plans.
- Select materials and teaching methods.

Topic-151: Competency-based Instruction within Backward Design Approach -I

Competency-based Instruction (CpBI) is another widely used example of backward design. With CpBI the starting point of curriculum design is a specification of the learning outcomes in terms of 'competencies' – the knowledge, skills and behaviours learners involved in performing everyday tasks and activities and which learners should master at the end of a course of study.

Competency-based education has much in common with such approaches to learning as performance-based instruction, mastery learning and individualized instruction. It is outcome-based and is adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and the community. Competencies differ from other student's goals and objectives in that they describe the student's ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life. Thus, CpBI is based on a set of outcomes that are derived from an analysis of tasks typically required of students in life role situations.

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Topic-152: Competency-Based Instruction within Backward Design Approach II

An example of how this approach was used in developing a vocational curriculum for refugees and immigrants in the US is given in Mrowicki (1986). The process consisted of:

- Needs analysis.
- Identify topics for the survival curriculum (e.g. banking, health, shopping).
- Identify target tasks, design tasks.
- Identify competencies for each topic.
- Group competencies into instructional units.
- Identify the language knowledge and skills needed for each instructional unit (e.g. the 4 skills, vocabulary and grammar).
- Choose instructional materials.

Competency-based approaches to teaching and assessment offer teachers an opportunity to revitalize their education and training programs. Not only will the quality of assessment improve, but the quality of teaching and student learning will be enhanced by clear specification of expected outcomes and the continuous feedback that competency-based assessment can offer.

Like other backward design approaches, CpBI makes no assumptions about teaching methods, since any set of classroom activities can be used that enables students to master the desired competencies. However, since student learning is assessed on the basis of performance and the ability to demonstrate mastery of pre-specified skills and behaviors, teaching is generally based on helping learners acquire the communicative skills needed for specific situations, tasks and activities. As with other backward design approaches, needs analysis is the starting point in curriculum development.

Topic-153: Subject-centered Design

In this system, the main focus is on curriculum development (not human development) with subject specialists developing "high standards" for student uniformity (what our society believes all students should know and be able to do at grade-level check points). Teachers are told what and how to teach.

The main goal and purpose is to standardize students, to make them alike with a "core curriculum. A large amount of meaningless testing is imposed on teachers to inflict on students. Teachers have big classes that restrict teachers from getting to know each child well enough to form a close relationship. Parents are usually not involved except to help their child with the teacher-assigned homework. Teachers spend much time imparting the state curriculum. They focus on what students don't know and can't do. Students are required to do teacher-assigned homework. Students are not encouraged to ask questions. Learning merely to pass tests is shallow and temporary.

Topic-154: Learner-centered Design

The concept of learner-centeredness has been invoked with increasing frequency in recent years. The philosophy of learner-centeredness has strong links with experiential learning, humanistic psychology and task-based language teaching. This approach places the learner at the center of the pedagogic process

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and sees education not as a matter of receiving information but of intelligent inquiry and thought (Gibbons, 2002).

A learner-centered curriculum will contain similar elements to those contained in traditional curriculum development, that is, planning (including needs analysis, goal and objective setting), implementation (including methodology and material development) and evaluation. However, the main difference between learner centered and traditional curriculum development is that in the former the curriculum is a collaborative effort between teachers and learners. Therefore, learners need to be systematically taught in order to implement a learner- centered approach to pedagogy. In other words, language programs should have dual goals: language content goals and learning process goals.

Learner-centered curriculum will allow students to participate more fully in the arrangement of their own learning experiences in such a way that two key objectives are realized. One, students will participate in the shaping of curriculum thereby addressing the imperatives of many contextual issues that include a new situational/personal culture. Two, student involvement is arranged so that students engage in meta-learning i.e. providing them the opportunity to learn about design and construction of purposeful learning activities.

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Lesson-24

CURRICULUM APPROACHES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING: A FLEXIBLE MODEL

Topic-155: ELT Curriculum: A Flexible Model for a Changing World

Teachers and planners, when presented with alternative ways of addressing an issue, often ask the question: 'Which approach is the best?' The assumption underlying this lesson is that there is no best approach to curriculum design and that forward, central and backward design might work well but in different circumstances. They might also work concurrently in same circumstances.

In fact, design goes backwards and forwards whatever the starting point is. It's not that curriculum designers don't think of goals when designing a syllabus; it's just that a content item is not expressed as a goal. Similarly, a central design has a broad outcome in mind, even though it might not be specified in detail. A backward design will often take account of the process of teaching an item in formulating the outcome, and it will often have content built into it. All three may be thought of at the same time, rather than being linear. However, each approach makes different assumptions about the context for the curriculum, for example:

- Whether intended for large-scale or small-scale implementation
- The role of instructional materials and tests
- The level of training of teachers
  - The roles of teachers and learners
- Teachers' proficiency in English
- The demands made on teachers
- The level of teacher-autonomy assumed for teachers
- The amount of support provided for teachers

A forward design option may be preferred in circumstances where a mandated curriculum is in place; where teachers have little choice over what and how to teach,; where teachers rely mainly on textbooks and commercial materials rather than teacher-designed resources; where class size is large and

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where tests and assessments are designed centrally rather than by individual teachers. Since forward design can be used to develop published materials, there will generally be a wide range of teaching resources and materials to choose from. Forward design may also be a preferred option in situations where teachers may have limited English language proficiency and limited opportunities for professional development, since much of the planning and development involved can be accomplished by specialists rather than left to the individual teacher.

Central design approaches do not require teachers to plan detailed learning outcomes to conduct needs analysis or to follow a prescribed syllabus; hence they often give teachers a considerable degree of autonomy and control over the teacher learning process. However, in the case of method-based approaches, teachers may be required to understand the obscure theory underlying the method as well as ways to master techniques and procedures that may initially prove difficult. Or they may simply adopt the practices without worrying about their claims and theoretical assumptions since they offer a supposedly 'tried and tested or expert-designed' teaching solution. Adoption of a central design approach may also require a considerable investment in training, since teachers cannot generally rely on published course-book materials as the basis for teaching. With post-method and learner-community approaches, teaching strategies are developed according to the teacher's understanding of the context in which he or she is working as well as on his or her individual skill and expertise in managing the instructional process and in developing teaching materials and forms of assessment. High levels of professional knowledge as well as of language proficiency are probably a prerequisite.

A backward design option may be preferred in situations where a high degree of accountability needs to be built into the curriculum design and where resources can be committed to needs analysis, planning, and materials development. Well-developed procedures for implementing backward design procedures are widely available, making this approach an attractive option in some circumstances. In the case of large-scale curriculum development for a national education system, much of this development activity can be carried out by others, leaving teachers mainly with the responsibility of implementing the curriculum. In other circumstances, such as a private institute developing company specific courses, a much more bottom-up approach may be adopted and the work required is carried out by a well-trained and skillful individual teacher or group of teachers working together.

Topic-156: ELT Curriculum: Content Model

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 Humanis*t 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.

However, as Kelly (1989) points out the model is inadequate as the basis for curriculum design because it is unable to cope with 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 process itself.

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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.

The content or syllabus is a selection and learning experiences include drilling of grammatically correct sentences, explanations of theory and memorization of lists of vocabulary and assessment based on the learner´s ability to produce grammatically accurate language.

Topic-157: ELT Curriculum: Objectives Model

Reconstructionism's main purpose of education is to bring about some kind of social change. Its origins lie in the movement for scientific management of education and the work of behavioral psychologists in the first half of the twentieth century, who defined learning as a process of observable changes in behavior which could be measured.

The clearest definition of behavioral objectives has three essential characteristics:

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

The attraction of the model is that it provides:

- Clarity of goals: The objectives of learning programme are clear to both the teacher and the learners, which facilitates the selection of learning materials and activities.
- 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.
- 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.

Topic-158: ELT Curriculum: Process Model

The purpose of education from the point of view of the process model is to enable the individual to progress towards self-fulfillment. It is concerned with the development of understanding learning process, and not just the passive reception of knowledge or the acquisition of specific skill.

The goals of education are not defined in terms of particular ends or products, but in terms of the process and procedures by which the individual develops understanding and awareness and creates possibilities for future learning. Content is based on principles derived from research into learning development, and the overall purpose of the educational process is to formulate the objectives related to the procedural principles.

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The analysis by Clark and White (2007) shows that language teaching has not been entirely isolated from the educational mainstream, but has been influenced by philosophical trends and broad educational developments.

Topic-159: ELT Curriculum: New Pragmatism

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 the context and without clarification of the principles and processes of curriculum design. In the opinion of Dubin and Olshtain (1986), three areas are central to the concept of a communicative curriculum:

- Sociolinguistics
- Cognitively based view of language learning
- Humanistic approach in education.

Topic - 160: Tyler's and Wheeler's Models

Tyler's Model

Tyler's model for curriculum designing is based on the following questions:

- What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
- What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
- How can these educational experiences be effectively organised?
- How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

The model is linear in nature, starting from objectives and ending with evaluation. In this model, evaluation is terminal. It is important to note that:

- Objectives form the basis for the selection and organisation of learning experiences.
- Objectives form the basis for assessing the curriculum.
- Objectives are derived from the learner, contemporary life and subject specialist.
- Evaluation is a process by which one matches the initial expectation with the outcomes.

Topic-161: Kerr's Model

Most of the features in Kerr's model resemble those in Wheeler's and Tyler's models. However, Kerr divided the domains into four areas (Urevbu, 1985):

- Objectives
- Knowledge

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- Evaluation,
- School learning experiences

The points that we should note about the model are:

- The four domains are interrelated directly or indirectly.
- Objectives are derived from school learning experiences and knowledge.

In Kerr's model, objectives are divided into three groups:

- Affective
- Cognitive
- Psychomotor

The model further indicates that knowledge should be (Urevbu, 1985):

- Organised
- Integrated
- Sequenced
- Reinforced

Evaluation in Kerr's model is the collection of information for use in making decisions about the curriculum. School learning experiences are influenced by societal opportunities, the school community, pupil and teacher relationships, individual differences, teaching methods, content and the maturity of the learners. These experiences are evaluated through tests, interviews, assessments and other reasonable methods. In his model, Kerr asserts that everything influences everything else and that it is possible to start an analysis at any point (Urevbu, 1985).

Topic-162: Spiral Model

In 1960s, Jerome Bruner put forward a theory of cognitive growth which looked to the influence of environmental and experiential factors in a child's education. It suggested that each child's intellectual ability develops in stages through changes in how the mind is used. Bruner's position was that young children need to learn the underlying principles of different concepts – the structure of ideas – rather than memorizing their related facts and data.

The spiral curriculum is predicated on cognitive theory advanced by Jerome Bruner (1960), who wrote "we begin with the hypothesis that any subject can be taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development." In other words, even the most complex material, if properly structured and presented, can be understood by very young children. Bruner hypothesized that human cognition occurred in three relatively discreet stages: 1) Enactive, or actually manipulating and interacting with objects, 2) Iconic, or manipulating images of the objects or phenomena, and 3) Symbolic, or the

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manipulation of representations of the actual objects or phenomena. Key features of the spiral curriculum based on Bruner's work are:

- The student revisits a topic, theme or subject several times throughout their school career.
- The complexity of the topic or theme increases with each revisit.
- New learning has a relationship with old learning and is put in context with the old information

Lesson-25

TYPES OF SYLLABI IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Topic-163: Structural Syllabus

Krahnke (1987) considers the structural syllabus as the most familiar syllabus type. It has a long history, and a major portion of language teaching has been carried out using some form of it. The structural syllabus is based on a theory of language that assumes that the grammatical or structural aspects of language form are the most basic or useful. He further holds that a structural (or formal) syllabus is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structure (usually grammatical) of the language being taught.

Rationales for the formal syllabus

Breen (1987) sets forth three rationales:

- The first argument is that it is well established and it is informed by a long tradition of linguistic analysis.
- The second major justification for the formal syllabus is that it presents learners with a subject matter which is systematic and rule-governed. When we learn something new, we can begin to see patterns and regularities within it and that will reduce the 'learning load' it (i.e. new learning) demands of us.
- A third justification for the formal syllabus is that because the linguistic system is analysable in certain ways, these analytical categories or schemas can be incorporated in a plan for teaching the system, and further it may be that the same analytical categories or schemas make it easier for the learner to uncover how the new language works.

Merits

Karanke (1987) mentions the positive characteristics of structural syllabus. Structure or grammar is the most general component of communicative competence.

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- Its content is relatively easy to describe. Noun, verb, imperative, plural, and gerund are terms that are generally shared within the language profession, and there is general agreement about what they mean.
- Structural knowledge is the most measurable component of the communicative competence. Because of the relative fitness of structural knowledge and its relatively clear definition, measurement tasks are easily prepared to determine how much students have not learned.
- While structural knowledge does not seem to be used directly by learners, some evidence (Higgs & Clifford, 1982) suggests that it can prevent later fossilization or cessation of learning. Generally students who ultimately achieved high proficiency in a new language were students who had earlier received instruction in the form of the language.
- Instruction in language structure offers a basis for teachers or others to provide learners with feedback on the accuracy of their production.
- Structural syllabi are naturally valuable and culture-free.

Drawbacks

Apparently the structural syllabus violates most, if not all, of the types of reward that should be catered for foreign language teaching materials as suggested by Stevick (1972) which can be summarized on the following grounds:

- Relevance of the content to the student's own language needs.
- Completeness or inclusion of all the language necessary for the stated aims.
- Authenticity of the materials both linguistically and culturally.
- Satisfaction of the students with their day to day progress in the classroom.
- Immediacy of the usage of the students has learned in the classroom.

Breen (1987) also mentions several notorious weaknesses associated with structural syllabi:

- Usability, applicability, or transferability of structural knowledge: Structural knowledge may be teachable, and there is some evidence (Hartwell, 1985) that is learnable, but there is almost no evidence that it affects behaviour in language use to any great degree.
- Learning a language vs. learning facts of a language: It can mislead learners into thinking they are learning a language when, in fact, they are learning facts or information about a language.
- Sequencing or grading problems: A strictly structural syllabus prevents students from producing structures they have not been taught. Either the students have to be severely limited or controlled in their use of the new language until the needed structures have been taught or their errors must be tolerated or ignored until the appropriate instruction appears in the sequence.

Topic-164: Situational Syllabus

Palmer and Hornby (1937) believed that a grammatical or structural syllabus was neither efficient nor effective for language learning. Since this model offers language samples outside their social and cultural contexts, it makes transfer of learning from the classroom to the real world quite difficult. The

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limitations attributed to the structural syllabus led to an alternative approach where the point of departure became situational needs rather than grammatical units.

The underlying premise is that language is related to the situational contexts in which it occurs. The designer of a situational syllabus tries to predict those situations in which the learner will find him/herself, and applies these situations as a basis for selecting and presenting language content. Unlike structural/formal syllabus, situational syllabus offers the possibility of selecting and sequencing different real life situations rather than different grammatical items or vocabulary topics. In other words, it is designed in such a way as to provide realistic situation based on a communicative view of language and experimental theory of language learning.

Types of situational syllabus

Alexander (1976) differentiates three types of the situational syllabus based on type of information:

Limbo Situation: In this type, the information of the specific setting is of little importance, for example, the topic of introducing someone at the setting of a dialogue taking place at the stadium. It can be said that the setting is considered irrelevant, i.e. unimportant, because the main important thing is the language focus.

Concrete Situation: The information is about the specific and concrete setting and the language associated with it, for example, the topic of ordering a meal at a restaurant.

Mythical Situation: The information depends on fictional story line, frequently with a fictional cast characters in a fictional place.

Merits

- It has the potential advantage of tapping students' knowledge of the world as an aid to learning and also of providing realistic materials.
- It also may serve the purpose of bridging cultural gap by various conversations and topics that are implied with typical social conventions and customs of the countries and people the learners are interested in.
- It is manageable to take situational syllabus as a foundation upon which we can incorporate many other syllabus types, for instance, grammatical/structural, functional/notional syllabi, etc.
- Situational syllabus will have a countless resource to utilize, so as to construct and design a variety of courses without worrying about repetition and boredom.

Drawbacks

Too much use of predetermined and artificial situations can lead to lack of transfer because students are led to pre-learned routines and patterns of language use rather than creative and negotiated uses of language. It is difficult to create authentic language instructional purposes because:

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- The actual patterns of use of native speakers in many situations are still unknown and intuition is not a reliable guide.
- In addition, even when accurate native speaker norms are available, it's extremely difficult to write focused and natural dialogues.
- A third problem with authenticity in situational content is its tendency to become outdated.
- This syllabus may reflect unwanted foreign language values; in other words, it is not culture-free.
- Like structural syllabus, this syllabus also presents sequencing problem.

Topic-165: Functional/Notional Syllabus

A functional-notional syllabus is based on learning to recognize and express the communicative functions of language and the concepts and ideas it expresses. In other words, this kind of syllabus is based more on the purposes for which language is used and on the meanings the speaker wanted to express than on the forms used to express them. Hedge (2000) highlights how the 'communicative revolution' in the 1970s urged educators to go beyond structural analysis of language provided by linguists and start to consider what 'communicative ability' in a language entailed. It became apparent that developing such ability required a different view of language.

Underlying theories

The notional-functional approach draws on theories and descriptions of language that emphasize the functional and social aspects of competence. These syllabuses consist of a list of functions (e.g. apologizing and requesting) and notions (e.g. past time and possibility) together with the linguistic exponents required to realize them in communication.

The methodology employed was typically still accuracy based. Thus, this approach still involves what White (1988) termed *a type A approach*, i.e. one where the objectives are defined in advance and that is essentially 'interventionist' and 'other-directed'. The functional view of language went beyond the sentential level, and highlighted the importance of discourse in context (Malinowski, 1923). The importance of context in defining the illocutionary force of any utterance was acknowledged, and it was stressed that knowledge of the structure of written or spoken texts was more useful to language learners than isolated albeit grammatically correct sentences.

Merits

The learners learn how to use language to express authentic communicative purposes.

- Learners may be motivated by the opportunity to use language to express their own purposes, ideas and emotions.
- It caters more readily the teaching of the pragmatic aspects of language, such as the linguistic devices needed to display politeness, and also to the teaching of cultural/ceremonial topics, such as when and how to greet people.

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- According to Richards and Rodgers (2001) one of the strengths of notional functional syllabus which has helped the emergence of communicative approaches to language teaching is that it considers the needs of the learners and the meanings that they need to convey.
- It also emphasizes the fact that the students and their communicative purposes are at the very core of the teaching program.

Drawbacks

- Functions and notions are quite abstract and some learners may have difficulties thinking of communicative functions outside a specific context.
- Different kinds of structures are often used to express the same communicative function, so that it is difficult to follow a progression from simpler to more complex structures.
- Regarding pragmatic considerations, Raine (2010) states that in NFS the content is not arranged or based on the formal structures of language, but they are arranged based on the functions. For this reason, it is difficult to use them for the creation of new sentences.
- Another shortcoming can be ascribed to grading. White (1988) states that there are no clear-cut criteria for grading of functions and it mainly depends on the material designer's intuition.

Topic-166: Skill-based Syllabus

The skill-centered approach to course design has widely been applied in a number of countries, particularly in Latin America. Students in universities and colleges in Latin America have the limited but important need to read subject texts in English, because they are unavailable in their mother-tongue. As Richards (2001) puts it, in a "skill-based syllabus", the content of the language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Skill-based syllabi group linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, and so on. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skill. A possible secondary purpose is to develop more general competence in the language learning. Krahnke (1987) defines a skill as a specific way of using language that combines structural and functional ability but exists independently of specific settings or situations.

Underlying theories of skill-based syllabus

As Richards (2001) puts it "approaching a language through skills is based on the belief that learning is a complex activity such as " listening to a lecture" involves mastery of a number of individual skills or micro-skills that together make up the activity. Brown (1995) points out that the selection of skills is based on the authors' perception of their usefulness whereas the sequencing of skills is usually based on some sense of chronology, frequency or relative usefulness. The general theory is that the learning of complex behaviors such as language is best facilitated by breaking them down into small bits (skills), teaching the bits, and hoping that the learner will be able to put them together when actually using them (Cunnigsworth, 1995).

Merits

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Richards (2001) claims made in support of skills-based syllabuses are:

- They focus on behaviour or performance.
- They teach skills that can transfer to many other situations.
- They identify teachable and learnable units.
- Skills-based syllabuses have the advantage of focusing on performance in relation to specific tasks and therefore provide a practical framework for designing courses and teaching materials.
- Krahanke thinks that (1987) skill-based content is most useful when learners need to master specific types of language uses, either exclusively or as part of broader competency.

Drawbacks

- Karahnke (1987) criticizes this syllabus on the ground that the ability to perform specific tasks in a language is dependent on or independent of overall language proficiency.
- Auerbach (1986) holds that since skill-based instruction is too limited in scope, it may program students for particular kinds of behaviour or isolate them from achievements and ambitions that the competency doesn't prepare them for (e.g., education rather than entry-level employment).
- According to Willis (2005), a skills-based syllabus is not much more than a list of skills and micro-skills to be practiced.
- The list of skills could not be understood in the same way by all likely participants. If a syllabus' aim is to understand common uses of basic verb tenses, there will at least be approximate agreement about what is meant.

Topic-167: Content Based Syllabus

Content-based instruction refers to an approach in which teaching is organized around the content rather than around a linguistic syllabus (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Krahnke (1987) defines content-based syllabus as the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught. Content-based syllabus is considered as a sub-category of process-oriented and an analytic syllabus (Nunan, 1988). While Ellis (2003) believes that content-based instruction is a kind of task-based approach, Nunan (1988) maintains that content-based syllabuses are unlike task-based syllabuses which are based on linguistic criteria, the experiential content is derived from subject area.

This content may come from other subjects on the school curriculum, such as science, history, environmental studies, or it might be generated from an analysis of students' interests and needs (Nunan, 2004). Snow (1988) believes that the rationale behind the integration of language and content is that language is learned most effectively for communication in meaningful, purposeful social and academic contexts. In real life, people use language to talk about what they know and what they want to know more about, not to talk about language itself. Another underlying rationale is that the integration of content with language instruction provides a substantive basis for language teaching and learning. Content can provide both a motivational and a cognitive basis for language learning.

Merits

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In comparison with analytic syllabuses which are little more than random collection of tasks, content-based syllabuses enjoy a logical and coherent selection and grading content. Nunan (2004) sees the followings as the advantages of a content-based syllabus:

- Learners learn other aspects of school learning alongside language itself.
- It shares the advantages of analytical syllabuses.
- It integrates all the four language skills.
- It actively involves students in the phase of learning.
- It utilizes authentic tasks.
- For all these reasons, it can raise motivation and heighten the engagement of the learner in his or her own learning process.

Drawbacks

- Ellis (2003) believes that content-based courses might not result in learners achieving high levels of grammatical and sociolinguistic accuracy.
- Brown (2007) argues that teachers can be easily deterred by the demands of content knowledge and discouraged by the amount of preparation they must do. Furthermore, they do not feel that they are qualified to teach content area.
- Short (1993) mentions that the difficulty with assessment centres on isolating the language features from the content objectives in order that one do not adversely influence the other.

Topic-168: Task-Based Syllabus

According to Krahnke (1987) "The primary theory of learning underlying task-based instruction is Krashen's acquisition theory". Acquisition theory argues that the ability to use a language is through exposure to the language and participation in using it. Nunan (2001) also asserts that task-based syllabuses offer a specific realization of communicative language teaching and differs from the previously proposed syllabuses like structural, functional and notional syllabuses on the ground that task-based syllabuses start with needs analysis. This needs analysis results in a list of the target tasks that the learners need to carry out in real-life situations such as going through a job interview, completing a credit card application, and finding one's way from a hotel to a subway station.

Definition of a task

Skehan (2003) defines task as an activity in which: a) Meaning is primary. b) Learners are not given other peoples' meaning to repeat. c) There is some sort of relationship to comparable real world activities. d) Task completion has some sort of priority. e) The assessment of the task is in terms of outcome. Nunan (1988) cites Candlin (1987) who mentions the characteristics of a good task, some of which have been listed below. A good task should:

- Promote attention to meaning, purpose, negotiation.
- Encourage attention to relevant data.
- Draw objectives from the communicative needs of learners.

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- Define a problem to be worked through by learners, centered on the learners but guided by the teacher; and provide opportunities for meta-communication and meta-cognition (i.e. provide opportunities for learners to talk about communication and about learning).

The psycholinguistic rationale for TBLT

Raya quotes Ellis (2009) that the psycholinguistic rationale for Task-based Learning and Teaching (TBLT) is that:

- Learners have their own built-in syllabus which directs how they gradually learn the L2 systems.
- The primary goal of any form of language instruction is the development of implicit knowledge, without this learner will not be able to communicate effectively.
- Implicit knowledge can best be achieved by providing learners with opportunities to experience the L2 as a communicative tool.
- The resultant learning is incidental rather than intentional.

Merits

As Krahnke (1987) says, "the intent of task-based learning is to use learners' real-life needs and activities as learning experiences, providing motivation through immediacy and relevancy...."

- In addition, task-based language instruction can be the vehicle for instruction in other types of content or knowledge at the same time as it addresses language acquisition" (Krahnke, 1987).
- Krahnke (1987) mentions that task-based learning "can also be valuable for learners who have a clear and immediate need to use the language for well-defined purposes.
- Task-based learning can be especially useful for learners who are not accustomed to more traditional types of classroom learning or who need to learn cognitive, cultural, and life skills along with the language" (Krahnke, 1987).
- Task-based syllabuses can be very useful in ESP courses.
- It also helps language learners to acquire language instead of learning it.
- In this regard, Nunan (2004) maintains that "in a task-based syllabus, grammatical and functional items will reappear numerous times in a diverse range of contexts".

Drawbacks

- It ignores addressing explicit meta-linguistic knowledge, or the ability to make descriptive or prescriptive statements about language and manipulate language as an end in itself. In Nation and Macalister's (2010) words, it focuses on fluency at the expense of accuracy.
- Another problem discussed by Krahnke (1987) is that task-based learning requires a high level of creativity and initiative on the part of the teacher.
- Krahnke (1987) also believes that the evaluation in task-based syllabuses can be difficult because the nature of tasks or tasks-based learning makes it difficult to measure learners' knowledge by the utilization of traditional discrete-point achievement tests.

Topic-169: Lexical and Cultural Syllabus

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Emergence of lexical syllabus was a reaction against traditional structural syllabus. The basic concept on which this syllabus rests is that students must be able to understand and use lexical phrases such as chunks, prefabricated patterns and collocations. In this regard, Lewis (1993) says that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes or "chunks," and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language.

Criteria for the selection of lexical items

- Frequency: By using language corpora, syllabus designer lists the most frequent expressions in the language.
- Teachability: The selected most frequent words will be piloted and the words which are difficult to manage in the classroom will be discarded.
- Authenticity: The lexical items selected in the Lexical Syllabus are taken from authentic texts produced by language users in their everyday lives.
- Coverage: This syllabus tries to select lexical items which are generic and are not context-specific
- Similarity: Where possible, lexical syllabus takes advantage of cognates or similar terms shared by both languages. For example, the terms "mother" and "father" are similar in all Indo-European languages.

Merits

Sinclair and Renouf (1988) list advantages of a lexical syllabus as follows:

- Practicality: Since it employs the most common words of the language, learners can benefit from them in their daily life.
- Efficiency: One of the advantages of a lexical syllabus is that it only offers to the learner the things that are worth learning.
- Utility: It does not solely present learners with a discrete list of lexical items to be memorized. What is important in this syllabus is to have the learners grasp the function and usage of those chunks. The emphasis shifts from constructing messages to delivering them, and delivering them to maximum effect, and to achieving communicative goals.
- Authenticity: All of the teaching materials are selected from authentic language use. For the reading materials, authentic documents for communication purposes are selected.
- Flexibility in implementation: The lexical syllabus is an independent syllabus. It is unrelated by any principles to any methodology, which ensures that lexical syllabus could adopt any other teaching practice. Certain methodological options can readily adapt to it.

Drawbacks

- The use of the inflected forms of the base-forms of words in word lists does not correspond (to some extent) to natural language use.
- A high percentage of words of high frequency are in fact function words which are not that useful to negotiate the intended message.
- In lexical syllabus, grammar seems to be dealt with intuitively or decided by the words used. When it comes to the instruction from the teachers, aspects concerned with grammar are not an easy question.

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- If learners need thousands discrete lexical items (each of which needs to be taught), it is impossible that every item needs to be formally taught in language classroom. The majority of language acquired by the learner must come from sources other than formal teaching (Lewis, 2002).

Cultural syllabus

Whether culture should be taught as a separate subject is a controversial issue in the field second language education. As it can be concluded that culture and language are inseparable and culture learning must be an integral part of language learning. Along the same line, Brown (2007) maintains that, "A language is part of a culture and culture is part of language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture".

Stern (1983) proposes a four-dimensional model in which he integrates four major areas or "syllabi": 1) Language Syllabus encompassing both structural and functional aspects of the language 2) Communicative/Experiential Syllabus which specifies "fields of experience" for project-based language activities; 3) the Culture Syllabus that contains topics and applications for the development of socio-cultural knowledge and awareness. A cultural syllabus often addresses the non-verbal as well as the verbal components of language and how these may be incorporated into language lessons by teachers.

Merits

Fleet (2006) enumerates the benefits of a cultural syllabus as follows:

- It increases communicative competence. Culture, as a part of the language syllabus, is instrumental in enhancing communicative competence. Peterson and Coltrane (2003) assert that "in order for communication to be successful, language use must be associated with other culturally appropriate behaviour".
- It allows more authentic language learning. The language learning experience becomes more real, more purposeful and more authentic for learners when they are taught the cultural contexts of the language itself (Peterson & Coltrane, 2003).
- It motivates learners to learn languages. Teaching about the target culture when teaching the target language boosts the interest of students and acts as a motivator.
- It instils an intercultural competence. If language students are taught the target culture and the language simultaneously, it may affect their perceptions and attitudes toward the target language.

Drawback

Stern (1992) identifies some major problems that might occur while implementing a cultural syllabus as follows:

- The vastness of the culture concept.
- The problem of goal determination and the lack of accessible information.
- Questions of syllabus design and the difficulty of adjusting according to an appropriate place to culture in a predominantly language oriented approach.
- Questions of teaching procedures and difficulty of handling substantive subject-matter in a mainly skill-oriented program.

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Lesson-26

NEGOTIATED SYLLABUS

Topic-170: Introduction to Negotiated Syllabus

A negotiated syllabus involves the teacher and the learners working together to make decisions at many levels of the curriculum design process. Negotiated syllabus is also called "process syllabus" (Breen, 1987). The word process in the term 'process syllabus' indicates that the important feature of this type of syllabus is that it focuses on how the syllabus is made rather than what should be in it.

Clarke (1991) sees the interest in negotiated syllabuses arising from humanistic methodologies like community language learning which are very learner-centered, needs analysis which focuses on learners' needs, work in individualization and learner autonomy, and learner strategy research which sees the learner playing a central role in determining how the language is learned. These are clearly strong reasons for having a negotiated syllabus. Breen and Littlejohn (2000) list situations where a negotiated syllabus is almost unavoidable:

- Where the teacher and students have different backgrounds.
- Where time is short and the most useful choices must be made.
- Where there is a very diverse group of students and there is a need to find common ground.
- Where initial needs analysis is not possible.

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- Where there is no course book.
- Where the students' past experiences must be part of the course.
- Where the course is open-ended and exploratory.

Topic-171: An Example of a Negotiated Syllabus

The class is a group of adult graduate students preparing for post-graduate university study through the medium of English. They come from a wide variety of countries and will do their post-graduate study in a wide range of disciplines.

- For the first two weeks of class the teacher follows a set programme involving a large variety of activities.
- At the end of the two-week period the teacher tells the class, "Now that you have settled in and have experienced some typical classes, it is time for you to take an active part in deciding what we will do for the next two weeks."
- The teacher and the class members list the activities and parts of the course on the board, and then working in small groups discuss what should be removed from the list, and what should be added to it. The groups report back and the list on the board is revised.
- The next step is to rank the items in the list and fit them into the class timetable. This again is done in small groups and then with the class as a whole. During this discussion the learners negotiate with each other and with the teacher.
- The resulting timetable with its activities then becomes the timetable for the next one or two weeks.
- The teacher sometimes calls on some of the learners to help with preparation of the material for the class in order to cope with the short class preparation time.

This is a somewhat conservative example of a negotiated syllabus. It is conservative or cautious because the class did not start with a negotiated syllabus from the very first day of class. There were several reasons for this. First, many of the learners came from backgrounds where teachers are highly respected and would feel very uncomfortable telling the teacher what to do. In the first two weeks the learners can come to realize that the teacher can be trusted and that it is reasonable to negotiate with him. Second, most of the learners had not experienced a pre-university course before and so the teacher wanted to show them some of the range of goals and activities available, several of which might be new to them. This initial time of experience would inform and enrich the learners' later negotiations because they would have more to draw on. Third, the teacher wanted to show what he saw as important for the learners and what he taught well. This was partly with the hope of influencing the later negotiation. Fourth, the teacher wanted to develop credibility with the class before passing much of the control to them.

After much trial and error, negotiation of a MA teaching methodology course was best done by presenting course members with a draft syllabus in which some items were non-negotiable, but in which there were many items and procedures (methods of learning, assignments, etc.) that were negotiable. Adding to the draft necessarily involved removing something from it to provide a place for the new topic. This use of a draft syllabus satisfied course members who felt uncomfortable with a completely negotiated syllabus. It also made negotiation more focused and efficient, and dealt very effectively with the wide range of experience (or lack of it) that course members brought to the course.

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Topic-172: Requirements for a Negotiated Syllabus

Breen (1987) describes the decisions to be negotiated in a negotiated (process) syllabus and the materials needed to make it work.

Negotiation procedure

How will the negotiation be carried out? When will it be done? How often will it be done? Who has the responsibility for organizing it? Who has the responsibility for checking that what is negotiated and is negotiation actually done?

Course planning: participation

Who will work with whom? The range of answers to this question includes individual work, pair work, groups working with the teacher, and the teacher working with the whole class.

Course planning: procedure

What kinds of activity will be worked on? The range of answers is many and may include role play, information gap tasks, guided writing, extensive reading, and oral drills. Additional decisions include how long each activity will be worked on; how it will be worked on and how the results of the activity will be assessed?

Topic-173: Syllabuses with Some Elements Negotiated

Breen's description of a negotiated syllabus is at one end of the scale. It is possible to have a syllabus within which some parts or some aspects are negotiated while others are left under the control of the teacher or curriculum designer (Clarke, 1989). There are several ways of dividing up the syllabus. Here are some of the possibilities.

- A fixed lesson or time of the day is set aside for negotiated activities. For example, an hour each Friday afternoon is used for activities that the learners and teacher have negotiated.
- One or more of the four types of decisions described above (participation, procedure, learning goals, evaluation) is open for negotiation. Clarke (1989) suggests that teachers should encourage learners to take over some of the assessment activity.
- The classes for one or more language skills, such as free-speaking activities, are planned through negotiation. For example, the learners negotiate the types of reading activities that they will do.
- One or more parts of the inner circle of the curriculum design diagram is open to negotiation.

Topic-174: Negotiating Assessment

Several of the reports focus on negotiation of assessment and evaluation, largely because this has direct effects on goals and ways of achieving these goals. Breen and Littlejohn (2000) point out that there are four major factors affecting feedback through assessment:

- The extent to which students are aware of the criteria being used.

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- The relative emphasis given to what they have achieved as compared with what they have failed to achieve.
- The coincidence between what the feedback focuses upon and what the students themselves have recognised as particularly difficult for them.
- Whether or not they believe they can act on the basis of the feedback in a way that solves a recognised problem.

This is a very insightful list and the teacher needs to keep these factors in mind when negotiating assessment. Smith (2000) describes a very effective way of negotiating assessment. The assessment is seen as including not only the results of tests and assigned tasks, but also participation in class, homework, and class projects

The idea of a negotiated syllabus raises questions about the role of the teacher and the role of the commercially produced text book (Richards, 1993).

Topic-175: Disadvantages and Advantages of a Negotiated Syllabus

The disadvantages of a negotiated syllabus are of two major types. The first is the result of a lack of knowledge or experience with such a syllabus. Learners may be reluctant to negotiate or to let their classmates negotiate because they feel it should be the teacher's expertise guiding the course. Gradual introduction of a negotiated syllabus can provide learner training to help overcome this problem. Learners may also not know enough of the range of options they could choose from and thus may make unimaginative choices. Teachers may feel that using a negotiated syllabus removes too much of their power and status. Learners may find it difficult to reach agreement about what they should be doing. The second major disadvantage is that a fully negotiated syllabus requires considerable teacher skill and time in accessing and producing resources. Where there are several teachers with similar classes, this load can be partly shared.

Some of the learner factors come from lack of knowledge. Some of the student and the teacher factors touch a core issue, namely, will a negotiated syllabus serve the needs of the learners well? Each of the problems does have at least one possible solution. If the advantages of implementing a negotiated syllabus are seen as being great, then the disadvantages need to be dealt with. Breen and Littlejohn (2000) have a very useful discussion of many of these factors.

Breen (1987) suggests using simple questionnaires, introduced and clarified through class discussion, to gather learners' opinions on what kinds of activities should be used in the course. Because these questionnaires are done at the local class level, changes are relatively easy to make within the course, and learners feel that their opinions are being considered and acted on.

The advantages of a negotiated syllabus come largely from its responsiveness to the "wants" and the involvement of the learners.

Breen (1987) argues strongly that all courses have to adjust in some way to the reality of the teaching situation and the negotiated syllabus gives clear recognition to this. Involving the learners in shaping the syllabus has a strong effect on motivation, satisfaction and commitment to the course. It changes from being the teacher's course to the learners' course. The actual negotiation process has its benefits. If

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the negotiation is carried out in English, then this may be some of the most involving meaning-focused activity in the programme. The negotiation also develops learners' awareness of the goals of language-learning activities and how these goals can be achieved. This understanding may then make them better learners.

Lesson-27

APPROPRIATE DESIGN: INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF COURSE UNITS -I

Topic-176: Appropriate Design: Internal Organization of Course Units

Before starting the discussion about the internal organization of course units, it is important to think about the role of language material designers; what are the various approaches that are being used to design materials? What techniques language material designer would apply to present materials in a coherent manner? Language materials streamline what is being taught in a particular course. Language material designers use various techniques and approaches to design material, for example, if a teacher is a material designer, s/he might be looking at how a particular course is suitable to the needs, situation, social and political contextual factors of the students? On the other hand, if the material designer is from education ministry, he might be more concerned about how course matches the syllabus. So the position of the material designer is very sensitive. Material designers are interested in two things: 1) What sort of activities are likely to promote effective performance and learning in language classroom? 2) How such activities might be constrained or elaborated, and organized in terms of a plausible course?

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Topic-177: Appropriate Design: Feeding and Bleeding of Course Units

It is important to think about the term "course unit". What is the difference between course unit and lesson? What approaches are employed to structure a course unit? Course unit actually denotes to the learning tasks included in a particular language syllabus. There are various types of course units. Traditional unit structure employed quiet an orthodox approach towards the structure of course units.

Traditional unit structure:

- Presentation
- Controlled exploitation
- Free exploitation
- Synthesis

There is an important dimension to the relationship between presenting material and designing exercises. Material designers need to ensure that the exercises are presented in a manner that shows coherent connection between various lessons.

Topic-178: Appropriate Design: Sequences of Activities in Course Units

There are various approaches to sequence the activities in a language course. Graham Low (2006) suggests two key approaches towards sequencing the activities in a course. The first one is the *writing-last solution*, in which a unit normally ends with the writing task for the students. The emphasis of this approach is primarily on acquiring the grammatical items. There is a slight problem attached with this approach towards sequencing the activities in a course unit. If the unit ends with the writing task, then the importance of listening and speaking activity is ignored. The solution to this approach is multiple presentation designs which involve presenting the four strands of language learning that are reading, writing, listening and speaking. The second approach is *storyline solution*, which creates a harmony throughout the unit while sequencing the activities in storyline situation. It is important to be aware of the elements of a story line; emotion and character so that students do not feel detached from it. The focus of this approach is on form and meaning of the language.

Topic-179: Appropriate Design: Criticism on Materials

There is criticism leveled against writing-last and storyline solution approach. These approaches are primarily taken as learner-as-observer syndrome because learners are always at the center of it. For example, in writing-last solution, Low (2006) states that if learners are unable to relate what is presented in a unit, s/he can be suffering from language learning syndrome. Low has presented a solution for this problem. He projects to use models and simulations so that students can become more attached with what is being taught. The second approach that is used to sequence the activities of a unit is a storyline situation. If the students are unable to identify strongly with the characters or the emotions, then it is important to use creative exploitation techniques or role-play exercises

Topic-180: Appropriate Design: Coherence of Course Units

Coherence is a systematic approach to aligning and sequencing specific ideas and the depth to which those ideas are examined, in order to help the development integrated understanding in learners.

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Coherence among course units while designing material is very important. Designing a balance between units is not straightforward; however, it is a blend of imagination, insight, understanding and analytical reasoning. A material designer has to be very critical and practical while designing material for a language course. Coherence among course units ensures more involvement of the students. A coherent curriculum should build ideas across time and disciplines by connecting ideas between relevant topics and by aligning the development of instructional materials, instruction, and assessment.

Topic-181: Beyond Language Learning: Perspectives on Materials Design Introduction

Material design is defined by Pardo and Tellez (2009) as: "It includes adaptation, creation of learning and teaching exercises; a task, an activity, a lesson, a unit or a module composed of several units." The main focus of material design is the outcome, i.e., how material affects learner's perceptions and perspective? It is important to keep in mind that how actual student will react to the material. It is further important to see that how material actually demonstrates learner's needs. The six areas that are examined under this notion are:

- General or subject knowledge
- View of what knowledge is and how it is acquired
- View of what is involved in language learning
- Role relations
- Cognitive abilities
- Values and attitudes presented in the material

Topic-182: Beyond Language Learning: Perspectives on Materials Design Input and Uptake by Learners

It is important to understand the term 'intake' and 'uptake' in language material design. It is observed that carefully selected material can contribute to learner's input intake and uptake. The term 'input' refers to the exposure of the language given to the students in the classroom through various sources, either written or spoken. There are various sources for delivering input in the classroom. Teacher is one of the primary sources to provide input to the students. The classroom environment, where students interact with each other also helps in establishing input. On the other hand, uptake refers to posing question to the students in order to assess what they have learned and internalized through the activities taking place in the classroom. Well-designed material exposes students to the modalities of the language. It not only enhances the input, but also the output; what students have actually learned from the particular activity or task. It also helps students to enhance the power of stimulation and reflection in learners. Materials are designed in a way that it makes students independent learners, who could think clearly and can question the knowledge acquired.

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Lesson-28

APPROPRIATE DESIGN: INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF COURSE UNITS -II

Topic-183: Beyond Language Learning: Perspectives on Materials Design

One of the most obvious ways in which materials may offer opportunities for additional learning is in the 'carrier content' that is used as a basis for language work. Most frequently, this carrier content is fictional in nature, involving imaginary characters in imaginary situations. Materials may; however, serve as a vehicle for several different types of content, such as that they address wider 'educational' goals. A common way of doing this is through the inclusion of texts which offer information about some aspect of the natural or social world or about famous people, as the preponderance of passages about volcanoes, wild animals and Elvis Presley in ELT materials shows. Cook (1983), however, outlines wider possibilities for 'real content' in materials including: i) another academic subject, ii) student-contributed content, iii) language itself, iv) literature, v) culture, and vi) 'interesting facts'. To Cook's list there would seem to be at

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least two other potential categories which we may add. The first is 'learning itself' and the second is 'specialist content'.

Little has yet been made of 'learning' as content for FLT (Foreign Language Teaching) materials but it seems likely that in the wake of the currently popular notion on 'learner training', we will see an increasing number of texts and tasks in course materials which deal with aspects of the learning process. An example of such a task is from one recent course book, where an attempt is made to integrate 'learning to learn' into 'learning English'.

Topic-184: Beyond Language Learning: Subject Knowledge

In the case of 'specialist content', however, there exists a wide selection of 'specific purposes' materials which include texts and tasks concerned with 'professional topics'. The principal problem with much of these, however, is that they are 'frequently of such a conventional or simpleminded nature as to fail to interest the learner' (Hutchinson and Waters, 1984). In other words, they generally present learners with aspects of their profession with which they are already familiar and therefore offer no opportunities for additional non-language learning. To remedy this, Hutchinson and Waters argue for the use of content about which the learners have 'a reasonable background knowledge' but with a new or unusual slant to it. Just how 'new or unusual' the material is, depends very much on each individual's own experience, but greater opportunities for additional learning outcomes may be provided through the design of materials which involve the learner in working with both the language and the content.

An example of an attempt to offer additional, special purpose learning is a recent course book for developing abilities in business correspondence through simulations. During the simulations, learners, working in groups representing companies, are required to make business decisions and then write letters to the appropriate 'company'. The following is an example of a role card from one simulation which the learners receive after their company (a soft drinks manufacturer) has decided to scrap their existing bottling machinery due to maintenance costs and order a new disposable bottle system.

Topic-185: Beyond Language Learning: Views about Language Learning

Stubbs (2014) points out that the selection, classification and relative weighting given to subjects in the school timetable may define for the pupil what counts as legitimate educational knowledge. In this respect one may view the publication of Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) materials in discrete self-contained textbooks as both a consequence and reinforcement of established subject divisions, since generally speaking FLT must not be seen to cross into the domains of other school subjects. This fact alone explains why much FLT material appears bland and content-less. It is not, however, in respect of boundaries between school subjects that the nature of FLT materials may be significant for a definition of knowledge. In connection with the study of teacher-pupil dialogue, Stubbs argues that we can see how knowledge is divided up into topics and presented to the pupils as discrete 'facts' or as more open-ended suggestions or hypotheses. In that teaching materials may be held to frame what goes on in the classroom, therefore, the organization of the materials themselves, as well as the kinds of activities and tasks found within them, will contribute towards forming the pupils' perception of the nature of school knowledge and how this knowledge is arrived at.

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Nowhere is this more evident than in the teaching of grammar. Despite the fact that grammarians typically feel unhappy about making definitive statements about what constitutes a correct' grammatical explanation, the image certainly held by most learners and probably most teachers is that it is indeed possible to make clear, unequivocal statements of grammatical rules. This image almost certainly derives from the tone and organization of most grammar books, which, in the main, admit no suggestion that the 'rules' given are but mere hypotheses.

Topic-186: Beyond Language Learning: Role Relations, Opportunities, Values and Attitudes

Learner interpretation is the key variable in determining actual, rather than possible, learning outcomes. In turning to an examination of how materials may relate to classroom role relations, however, one needs to consider a further level of complexity; this is the extent to which materials may account for the ways in which teachers and learners interact with each other. It requires no great insight to acknowledge that there are numerous factors which influence how teachers and learners perceive each other, and most of these are well beyond the nature of a particular set of materials. The crucial factor is thus not only how learners interpret what is provided in the materials, but also what actually happens in a particular classroom. Nevertheless, since the construction of teaching materials is a deliberate attempt to bring about certain kinds of interaction in the classroom, we believe it is important to consider materials in terms of what they may suggest for the learning of classroom roles.

One useful concept with which to examine role relations suggested by materials is Bernstein's (2004) notion of a 'frame'. It refers to the actual relationship between teachers and pupils and the range of choices which they have over what is done between them. Thus a strong frame will 'reduce the power of the pupil over what, when and how he receives his knowledge'. Whilst Bernstein himself does not consider either classroom interaction or teaching materials, Stubbs (2014) relates the concept of a frame to Sinclair and Coulthard's (2014) identification of a teacher initiates/pupil responds/teacher feedback (IRF) discourse structure in many teaching situations. In terms of language teaching materials it is not difficult to find numerous instances in which this kind of discourse structure is suggested for classroom work.

Topic-187: Beyond Language Learning: Notion of Going Beyond Language Learning

We have surveyed some alternative perspectives on materials design which look beyond the goals of language learning itself. We have been able to identify the various ways in which materials may contribute to learners' perceptions (of knowledge, language learning, and roles), to their affective and cognitive development, and to their general stock of information about the world. At various points in our survey, we have suggested aspects of materials which, as a profession, we may consider undesirable. Certainly, in citing specific examples from course books we have probably suggested learning outcomes which the individual authors in question would consider unintentional. But materials hold such a significant place in language teaching that it would seem important for us to 'get it right'.

In examining a specific set of materials - either already published or under development - there would seem to be a number of basic questions which we can use to focus our attempt to look beyond language learning. Each of these questions relates to the areas discussed in this lesson. These are summarized below:

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- Do the materials extend the learner's 'general' or ‘specialist’ knowledge?
- What view of knowledge do the materials present? What implications might this have for how learners attempt to learn?
- Do the materials develop the learners' understanding of what is involved in language learning and how they may help themselves?
- How do the materials structure the teacher-learner relationship? What ‘frame’, if any, is placed on classroom interaction?
- Do the materials develop the learners' general cognitive abilities? Is language learning presented as reproduction or as problem solving?
- What social values and attitudes do the materials present?

It is, of course, up to each individual to determine what he or she sees as appropriate and desirable 'non-language-learning' outcomes from classroom work, but the process of looking at materials from a number of different perspectives should sharpen our understanding of their complex nature. At the design stage, it is a salutary experience for authors, publishers, advisers and curriculum developers to look at materials under development and consider what overall impression they create. This will almost certainly identify aspects of the materials which need rethinking, supplementing or abandoning. It would, after all, seem unlikely that those features of materials which are unintentional will match the conscious expressed philosophies of their designers.

For those involved at the implementation stage of materials (teachers, course designers, and learners) rising to consciousness' the underlying nature of the materials they are using will probably necessitate similar courses of action. A frequent step taken by teachers when they find materials lacking in some way is to supplement them with other materials, either their own or published.

Lesson-29

CLASSROOM IMPLEMENTATION -I

Topic-188: Hidden Curriculum – Definitions

The idea of a ‘hidden curriculum’ was originally introduced in contrast with the ‘formal curriculum’ by Jackson (1986) to draw attention to the fact that schools do more than simply help transmission of knowledge between one generation and the next. Jackson (1986) refers a hidden curriculum to learning outcomes apart from those intended in the ‘manifest curriculum’. Hedge (2000) defines the hidden curriculum as the learning which goes on in covert ways beneath the surface of what the teacher sets out to teach. It encompasses the shaping of learners’ perceptions about learning, their own role in it, the nature of the subject they are studying, their teachers and so on, and their attitudes towards all of these.

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Farrel and Jacobs (2010) simply regard the hidden curriculum as "the knowledge, values, and beliefs that schools present to student". According to Wikipedia, hidden curriculum is a side effect of an education. It includes lessons which are learned but not openly intended such as the transmission of norms, values, and beliefs conveyed in the classroom and the social environment. Any learning experience may teach unintended lessons.

Barnes (1982) identified two common characteristics of the hidden curriculum: (1) What are actually revealed in the hidden curriculum "are all unintended, not part of any teacher's objectives" and (2) "they all tend to be what one might call 'social' learning, about what people expect of you, and how you can best cope with their demands"

However, some scholars approach the hidden curriculum from a different perspective. For instance, Johnson (1989) used the term 'hidden syllabus' and 'alternative curriculum' to refer to the fact that teachers may use the methods, materials, or activities that are not in conformity with the requirements stated in the 'official' curriculum. Nunan (1989) employed the term 'hidden agenda' to imply that "learners have their own agendas in the language lessons they attend. These agendas, as much as the teachers' objectives, determined what learners take form any given lesson or teaching/learning encounter". Besides the forms of address of the hidden curriculum mentioned above, readers may see terms like 'unofficial curriculum' or 'covert curriculum' elsewhere, which share the same meaning as the hidden curriculum and are in opposition to 'the official/explicit/manifest/overt curriculum'.

As a matter of fact the concept of a hidden curriculum is a very broad one. According to Burnes (1982), "the hidden curriculum operates not only in classroom but also in various school domains such as in school assemblies, in corridors, on the games field, and so on". But here, researcher would like to confine the range of the hidden curriculum to the domain of language classrooms in that more often than not, the hidden curriculum seems to appear most frequently at the classroom implementation level, for "classroom implementation is the final stage in the curriculum development process and also the most important because ultimately, learning acts determine curriculum outcomes" (Johnson 1989). Under this precondition, the working definition of the hidden curriculum can be *everything carried out by the teacher and the learner that is not planned or required by the official curriculum in a language classroom*.

Topic-189: Hidden Curriculum in Terms of Teachers and Learners

Teachers convey "socially-approved knowledge" unconsciously or without intending it while he/she is teaching what is required by the official curriculum. Here, socially-approved knowledge could indicate social-moral habits, attitudes, informal school rules and beliefs. For example, we often find that teachers teach obedience, conscientiousness, regularity, punctuality, gender identity, and even political awareness. These personal characteristics, attitudes, and social behavior are taught indirectly in school because the school timetable does not have lessons called 'obedience' or 'conformity'. It is discovered that nowadays, in a foreign language classroom teachers normally think highly of or even reward those students who are hard-working leaners and active participants in the teaching process, while they may show dislike or disapproval to those who are always late for class, lazy in following teacher's instructions and those who never answer the teacher's question voluntarily. Gradually, students will learn things unconsciously like what constitutes a good pupil in the eyes of a particular teacher or what behaviors are undesirable or unacceptable. The reasons why teachers often teach these social learning unintentionally may have

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something to do with the society, the local culture of the school, and the teacher's personal values and beliefs on what constitutes a good student. It is not difficult to understand that the expectations and demands set by the society for social talents usually dictate to a large extent what a teacher is supposed to teach. The local school culture also plays an important role in that schools normally have their own features and slogans in running it. All of these will be instilled into the students consciously or subconsciously by the teacher in the classroom.

Teachers teach in a way that is not consistent with what is required in the official curriculum. Johnson (1989) said "the validation criteria set up by the outside agency or the tests which operationalize them can and do constitute the new 'hidden' curriculum in many institutions and education systems". In fact it is quite common in practice that we notice school administrators and teachers spend great efforts on examinations, although the official curriculum aims at a quality-oriented education instead of an exam-oriented education. Other pragmatic constraints from outside the official curriculum may include time, money, values of the school leader, etc.

Like teachers' academic qualifications, their previous teaching experience, their preferred teaching strategies, as well as their proficiency in the target language may also influence the teaching acts and lead to the occurrence of the hidden curriculum. For example, where the teachers' own beliefs, previous teaching experience or proficiency in the target level differ radically from the official curriculum, they may insist on using the grammar-translation method instead of the communicative approach and refuse to use group work or pair work, even if this curriculum is designed for it. Another example can be found in Joseph O. Birdsong's article *An Approach to the Teaching and Learning of Poetry in Nigeria* (Cook & Seidlhofer, 1995), in which *The National Curriculum* for *Junior Secondary Schools* envisages an 'English studies' program, requiring teachers at this level to provide a good blend of language and literature and achieve some form of integration in their teaching. It even suggests appropriate literary texts. But what actually happens in practice is another matter. Because of the lack of confidence in their ability to handle literary texts in a language class, teachers at this level either avoid literature altogether or make half-hearted attempts to get pupils to read the texts in class.

Topic-190: Language Teachers Coping with the Hidden Curriculum

Although it is stated in the previous section that hidden curriculum exists on both the teachers' and the learners' sides, it does not mean that we should deal with them separately and respectively. Instead it would be advisable for us to see the problem as a whole and try to solve it comprehensively. However, due to some uncontrollable pragmatic constraints, it would seem to me that the mismatches between the official curriculum and the hidden curriculum are not easy to be eliminated completely but can only be minimized. Therefore, it is our task to explore to what extent we could bridge or shorten the gap.

First of all, since the hidden curriculum can cause mismatches in the process of teaching and learning. It should be uncovered, discussed, and analyzed instead of being avoided or ignored. As a language teacher, he/she may often carry out an exercise in self-examination and make timely and frequent reflections. In other words, they may ask themselves questions such as: What do my pupils have to do to gain my attention or approval? What behavior do I reward? And what behavior do I ignore or snub? Teachers can also conduct informal discussions with their students to find out to what extent the students

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are affected by this unplanned social knowledge and if necessary, what teachers should do to overcome the negative effect of this teaching of social knowledge.

Second, in view of the phenomenon that teachers sometimes do not teach in conformity with the official curriculum and learners often form their own hidden agendas within the expressed curriculum.

Schools should provide continuous in-service teacher training, which aims not only to help the practicing teachers gain deep insights into the official curriculum so that they would be willing to adopt the required methods and activities, but also to improve their knowledge and skills necessary to implement their teaching in the classroom. On the other hand, teachers should realize that it is vitally important for them to try to keep an open and objective mind and set up the concept—"Life is a learning process" so that they will not feel anxious or scared in the face of new things.

Since all decisions influencing the acts of any participant in the curriculum process should be regarded as potential causes of mismatch (Johnson, 1989), a scientific, revisable and on-going evaluation system is to be constructed to evaluate both the process and the product in curriculum development. In this way problems involved with the hidden curriculum could be detected and even uncovered and further measures may be made to solve the problem.

As we may realize people often assume that there is a direct relationship between teaching and learning and think what is planned will be taught and what is taught will be learned (Nunan, 1989). But in reality this is often not the case. The teaching and learning processes are much more complex and unpredictable than expected. The conclusion that can be drawn here is that the existence of a hidden curriculum in a language classroom might be a threat to the successful implementation of the official curriculum, and instead of trying to ignoring or avoiding it, language teachers ought to face it positively, uncover it, discuss it, and try to resolve the problems it brings. In fact, a great deal of classroom behavior which appears inexplicable and even bizarre in terms of the official curriculum can be readily understood once the 'hidden' curriculum has been identified.

Language teachers are expected to take a sound attitude towards the hidden curriculum and address it flexibly in order to achieve a better teaching effect in accordance with the formal or official curriculum made by schools or the state.

Topic-191: Hidden Agendas: Role of Learner in Program Implementation

Curriculum implementation involves the dissemination of the structured set of learning experiences, provision of resources to effectively execute the plan, and the actual execution in the classroom setting where teacher-learner interactions take place.

Therefore, curriculum implementation is that stage of the curriculum process where the learner, through the guidance of a teacher, interacts with a variety of learning experiences so as to make learning process fruitful. Hence, both the learner and the teacher bear a reasonable amount of responsibility during curriculum implementation and program management. The learners are *critical element* in the entire process of curriculum implementation, since learners hold the key to what is actually being translated and adopted from the official designed curriculum that is meant for them.

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Learners influence the teacher in the selection of learning experiences because the school consists of many levels and class grades, calling upon the teacher to prepare for the disparities among the learners, for instance, individual differences between the slow learners and the quick learners. Therefore, a teacher selects the suitable learning methods and teaching aids to suit each category of learners.

The learner plays the role of exhibiting desirable discipline, both in and outside the classroom, through maximum obedience to the school rules and regulation and attending the classwork and the entire school program. For example, doing all assignments, tests and examinations yield into some level of desirable learning. For the implementation of curriculum to be effectively done, the learner should be physically, mentally and emotionally available to the teacher for instruction, so that the planned program can be implemented.

Topic-192: Hidden Agendas: Practical Implications

Hidden agendas help teachers to bridge the gap between planning, teaching and learning objectives. It is important to explicitly state to students the goals and objective of the language course. Also, teachers need to be aware of the fact that what sort of perceptions and preconceptions learners are bringing in the classroom. It is a teacher's duty to strike a balance between what students already know and new learning methods. The curriculum should not be followed slavishly; rather, if there is need to redefine LCD then language teachers should take charge and bring that change. When teachers become aware of the hidden agendas, the curriculum does not become the only set agenda, but there is some room for creativity. One thing to remember is that there is no direct equation between planning and implementation of hidden curriculum. It is not always taught what is planned, but sometimes we need to adjust our teaching according to the needs, situations and hidden agendas as well.

Lesson-30

CLASSROOM IMPLEMENTATION -II

Topic-193: Evaluation Cycle for Language Learning Tasks: Introduction

When we talk about classroom implementation, the element of LCD is very important. We think about various language learning tasks that are brought by teachers in classrooms. These language tasks are discussed in the perspective of Michael Breen's ideas (1984). Before looking into language learning tasks, it is important to understand the term 'task' in relation to the promotion of knowledge and skills in second language. It is also important to see the impact of tasks on learning second language in their own language teaching context.

A task was defined as an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from the given information through the process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process.

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Tasks have much more efficacy in terms of promoting knowledge, capabilities and skills among second language learners. Dividing the units into tasks is more useful in order to teach better understanding of the concepts. For example, rather than just teaching about verb or noun, teachers can make different tasks for students where they can learn better while performing them. These tasks are not just for language learning rather they promote knowledge through language. Michael Breen (1987) considered tasks as the springboard for knowledge and capabilities. Tasks give us the liberty to bring in meaning based and focused learning.

The quality of a task could be evaluated in terms of how it offers means for learning, and new ways for promoting knowledge. There are different means of criteria of task as projected by Breen: 1) How it addresses learners' definition of progress? 2) Are learners progressive to the demands of a target language? 3) How the tasks are open to diversity and change? Tasks can promote knowledge, skills and capabilities only if the learners are open to accept change and diversity and are more responsive towards needs, wants and challenges.

Topic-194: Evaluation Cycle for Language Tasks

This topic will discuss the three phases of 'task' as presented by Breen. It is important that teachers use task-based language teaching techniques and divide them into different phases in their own teaching context. Task needs to be sensitive towards the changing demands and needs of language learners, and in this context Breen has listed task into three different phases:

- Task as a work plan allows the teachers to make some ground work to know some of the preconceptions and past learning experiences of the students. It gives an opportunity to see what students want in the classroom.
- Task in process creates the relationship between teacher and student during the processing of task.
- Task outcomes help to analyse what has already been learnt.

Topic-195: The Role of Teacher

A teacher has to play a vital role in terms of evaluating language learning tasks while implementing curriculum in the context of language classroom. Breen lists different roles of a teacher in which a language instructor has to look for these questions:

- To what extent was the task appropriate to learning objectives?
- To what extent was the content helpful?
- To what extent the chosen procedure proved to be appropriate?
- What knowledge was contributed to the task?
- What was familiar?
- What is discovered?
- What do we actually do while working on a task?
- What did we discover about each other's contributions during the task?
- What did we discover about the classroom and materials?

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Topic-196: Seeing the Wood and the Trees: Thoughts on LT Analysis Introduction

H.H. Stern (1983) looks at classroom as a dynamic entity where much more is going on than the expectation. He draws teachers' attention towards a very interesting and insightful aspect, which should be made an integral part of language curriculum design process. He projects that we as teachers often focus only on what actually takes place in the classroom, and tend to overlook the significance of broader issues that do take place outside the realms of the classroom.

On the ground of this issue, Stern projects a very metaphorical comparison that teacher as researcher has this inability that 'we fail to notice the wood for the trees'. According to Stern, we do see trees, but we do not distinguish between trees and wood. The problem is that we look at classroom discourse but we overlook the significance of broader issues that take place outside of the classroom.

Stern has made a very interesting point that audiolingualism and cognitivism have changed the direction from language teaching to language learning. In the paradigm shift from language teaching to learning, instead of looking at language learning from the perspective of a method, much more focus is being paid to the learning process.

Topic-197: Limitations of Classroom Research

The classroom research is limited in terms of looking at teacher at grass root level. In order to contextualize this discussion about the limitations of classroom research, Stern believes that it can be seen in the perspective of some of the changes and emphasis on language teaching analysis. For example, the method era paved the way for audiolingualism and cognitivism. This shifted the focus from language teaching to language learning.

The researcher believes that very few efforts have been made in the field of implementing curriculum at classroom level, and it is the teacher who can be trusted with responsibility to ensure this implementation. He believes that the findings of classroom research can be related to:

- Policy specifications
- Theoretical approach

Topic-198: Theoretical Framework

Theoretical framework, as projected by Sterns, offers a remedy to the limited classroom research, going on the talk about curriculum implementation at classroom level. There are various variables involved which are part of this theoretical framework. The three independent levels of this framework are as follows:

- Theoretical concepts: How groups of students make society and perceive language learning? What notions they carry towards language learning process? What are their cultural, religious and social perspectives of language learning? Before implementing the curriculum, teachers need to be clear about such theoretical concepts.

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- Policy directives: It emphasizes on looking at categories of content. Teachers need to be sure that which content is related and how it can be taught in relation to other contents.
- Classroom behaviour: It revolves around two parameters: teacher talk and student talk. Student talk is more of a learner-centred teaching environment where students can speak with equal opportunity, and the teacher is not in the front, running the show.

Topic-199: Classroom Implementation

To sum up the discussion of Stern's notion of 'the wood and tree', we can say that the metaphor helps to see classroom implementation that how it goes into the mind of the student, and how the teacher makes the practice of the curriculum offered by the institutes. Before 1970, language teaching was method driven, and therefore it was also known as method era. But with the arrival of audiolingualism and cognitivism, it moved towards communicative language teaching and the shift occurred from language teaching to language learning. In this regard, there are three categories of classroom implementation:

- Teaching strategies: Although it originates from method debate, but it looks at concrete classroom activities. What strategies are being employed by teachers? There is need to adjust teaching strategy according to the students' desire.
- Timing strategies: It is under the direct control of the teacher. It happens within the premises of the classroom.
- Social or interpersonal strategies

Lesson-31

TESTING, MONITORING AND ASSESSMENT -I

Topic-200: The Role of Testing in Language Curriculum Design

The word 'test' tends to evoke fear in most students, but as a teacher tests help you gather loads of information that enable you to keep your students happy and progressing. Testing is useful before students get started so you know what kind of course to enroll them on, but you can also use tests along the way to check progress and find out if the course was successful in meeting objectives.

When a student makes an inquiry about a course, schools and individual teachers see pound signs flash before their eyes. In reality though, the pounds only materialize if you can deliver the course according

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to the student needs. So you start off by checking what s/he knows and what s/he needs. One kind of test that's really useful for giving you a head start before you even meet the student is a self-assessment test in which you get the student to analyze how good she is at various aspects of the language, usually by rating herself from 1-5 or by completing sentences.

You can make the test visual by using pictures of different situations in which they may use English (listening to lectures, using the phone and so on) and ask students how comfortable they are in those situations. Rating systems with smiley faces and frowning faces help to convey the point. Set the test out so that it goes from really easy to gradually more difficult and the students can stop when the questions get too tough.

Topic-201: Characteristics of Tests

Some establishments offer each student an interview with a teacher, which is basically a test. It's really time-consuming to do this but at least you can get a real view of the student's speaking ability, which is the key language skill for most people. Of course listening is involved too as you interact with the students. You can also take the opportunity to plug the school's facilities and put the student at her ease because the test happens more informally. For example, to try a past simple check question, you casually ask: 'How did you get here today? Did it take long?'

For an interview to be really effective, let everyone in the room introduce themselves. You may have a second teacher who doesn't speak and just assesses, although this makes students more nervous. Explain what's going to happen, personalize the questions if possible and give each student some feedback at the end.

Written placement tests are very common too. They allow a school to test a whole coach load of new students all at the same time. At the end you also have a written record to keep in students' files.

One of the disadvantages of written tests compared with oral ones is that students complain about the results of written tests far more and often ask for another go. In written tests, students tend to cheat a lot and have warped results because of the pressure of the situation. It's fairly rare that someone in the school can find time to watch a student take the test so the student is likely to sneak a look at the dictionary or ask a friend for help. Sometimes students don't understand the instructions but this only becomes evident later when the marker notices how badly they messed things up.

On the other hand, you can buy published tests or select a section from the course books for each level to form the test. It's possible to include reading passages but it's best not to make the test appear too long and intimidating. Tests like these should have an easy marking system, usually an answer key, to cut down on administration.

Proficiency tests aren't the same as the proficiency level in English, which follows advanced level. A proficiency test assesses a student's ability to perform a particular task or tasks that she'll have to accomplish in the future. So if your student tells you that she's been offered a great job in a restaurant on the condition that her English is up to scratch, you can design a test that covers taking orders and handing

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complaints. It doesn't really matter whether the student has taken a course before or whether she knows the grammar. You simply need to know how well she may be able to handle that job.

Topic-202: Testing to Establish the Best Course

Once your students are actually enrolled in a course you can continue to use tests to map their progress and measure what you've all achieved. If a course is of a specific length you can build in one or two progress tests at various stages. Progress tests serve a few purposes:

- Providing motivation for the students to study**.** Targets and deadlines help some people to get themselves in gear, but for others they can be stressful and de-motivating. You need to decide how to present your test so that you strike the right balance.
- Providing a standard level for the class so that students can be changed to a different course that better matches their proficiency level if necessary**.** Students sometimes ask to be moved up to a higher level and if you, as the teacher, aren't too keen, the results of the progress test may be the basis on which you decide. Likewise if you have to move a student down, you can use the test as evidence for your decision.
- Highlighting gaps in your teaching – or the course materials – that you need to fill. This can be for your own purposes or for the school to monitor its teachers. The danger of this is that you may end up training your class to pass the test rather than teaching them English.

The way you handle the test depends on the importance you attach to it and your main objective. For example, you may tell the students the topic of the test and ask them to revise particular points that you feel are essential to their progress in the rest of the course. On the other hand, you may decide that the class should have a thorough review, so you don't give the students specific details. This makes them revise everything so far. A fun and effective way to organize a progress test is to allow the students to design it themselves. Break them into different groups have each group construct a few questions, or ask each student to submit two or three questions each. As they review the topic and construct the questions, the topic becomes indelibly printed on their minds. There's also an exciting level of competition and anticipation as they wait to see who gets their question right.

Testing carries various disadvantages so you may want to try alternatives such as project work and continuous assessment. These tend to be less pressurized for most students and remove the problem of having a bad day at the time of the test, which results in an uncharacteristically poor performance.

A project in English is a great way for students to express their language skills and creativity at the same time. It is especially appealing to younger learners on short summer courses. By the end of the project, they have something to show for their efforts and the opportunity to use the English they've learnt, or picked up, on their own terms. Instead of filling in the gaps in a test the teacher has written, they choose their own topic and usually they find out what they need to know to achieve the task they set for themselves.

The problem is how to teach project work. You can agree on certain things your students have to include, for example, the history or background, the current situation and future plans of the chosen celebrity, sport or whatever subject they've chosen. This, at least, pushes the students to use a variety of tenses.

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You can also use continuous assessment so that every week or so you record the students' progress, performances and achievements. To make the best use of time, the school should organize sheets that you can just tick or grade on each aspect assessed. Writing reports increases the teachers' administration work considerably. However, when you assess students in this way, it's easier to produce a final report at the end of the course rather than just a test score.

Topic-203: Guidelines for Monitoring and Assessment

Assessment is a major source of information for the evaluation of a course and thus its gradual improvement. Assessment also contributes significantly to the teacher's and learners' sense of achievement in a course and thus is important for motivation. It is often neglected in curriculum design and courses are less effective as a result. Curriculum design should include the planning of a well-thought-out programme of assessment of various kinds.

The aim of this part of the curriculum design process is to decide what to test and how to test it. The outer circles of the curriculum design model (environment, needs and principles) provide data to guide the planning of the processes in the inner circle. Thus, monitoring and assessment must take account of the environment in which the course will be used, the needs of the learners, and principles of teaching and learning. Monitoring and assessment can provide a teacher and learners with information about the learners' present knowledge and progress, and it can also be a means of encouraging involvement and participation

Topic 204: Types of Monitoring and Assessment

The purpose of the monitoring and assessment part of curriculum design is to make sure that the learners will get the most benefit from the course. This involves carefully observing the learners and the course, and suggesting changes to the course and the way it is run. Assessment may also simply be expected to be a normal part of curriculum design. The person designing the course may also be expected to design the assessment for the course. Let us look at the major types of monitoring and assessment that can occur as part of a course:

- Placement assessment
- Observation of learning
- Short-term achievement assessment
- Diagnostic assessment
- Achievement assessment
- Proficiency assessment

Topic-205: Placement Assessment

Placement assessment is used to decide what level of the course a learner should enter, what class the learner should join, and whether the learner should join the course at all. Placement assessment usually occurs under environment constraints. It often has to be done just before a course begins. The results have to be available quickly. The learners are largely unknown and may be confused about the course they wish to do. The learners may not perform their best on a placement test because they are unfamiliar with some

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of the test formats, because their knowledge of the language is "rusty" through lack of opportunity to use it, or because they are anxious about the test. The assessment may be the learners' first meeting with the teachers and course and could affect their attitudes to the course. The time available for assessment may be limited. The assessment needs to be reasonably accurate because it often proves difficult to move learners to other groups once they have joined a group. This means that placement assessment needs to be: (1) familiar, friendly and relaxed, (2) reasonably brief and easy to mark and interpret, and (3) focused on gathering the most relevant information.

This often means that placement tests focus on knowledge of language items rather than skill in language use. Tests which focus on language items include pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar tests. For example, a placement test designed for the *Council of Europe* (Meara and Buxton, 1987) consists of a computerized yes/no test where the learners see individual words without context from various frequency levels and have to indicate whether they know the word or not.

Tests which focus on language use include interviews, role plays, listening tests with message-focused questions, reading passages with message-focused questions and composition writing. These involve complex skills and if learners do not do well on such tests, there could be a variety of causes. Some of these may be apparent from careful analysis of the learners' language use, such as their compositions, but this requires time.

The results of tests involving language use may be difficult to interpret, difficult to score (especially those involving productive use) and time consuming to sit (especially those involving written skills). They thus may not meet many of the requirements for an effective placement test. Teachers should, therefore, not feel that they have to include mainly language use tests in a placement test, and should feel comfortable with making use of tests focusing on knowledge of language items.

Lesson- 32

TESTING, MONITORING AND ASSESSMENT -II

Topic-206: Observation of Learning

Monitoring learners' progress in a course can occur at the level of the learning activity. This monitoring does not assess the learners but is directed towards the tasks that they do. The purpose of the monitoring is to see if it is necessary to make changes to the learning activities in order to encourage learning. There are four questions that should be asked when observing learning activities (Nation, 2001).

- What is the learning goal of the activity?
- What are the learning conditions that would lead to the achievement of this goal?

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- What are the observable signs that these learning conditions are occurring?
- What are the design features of the activity that set up the learning conditions or that need to be changed to set up the learning conditions?

For example, in a spoken fluency development activity, the following learning conditions need to occur. The learners are focused on the meaning of the task. The task involves very limited language demands, i.e. all the language needed to do the task is familiar to the learners. There is some kind of pressure to perform at a higher than normal level of performance. The signs that the teacher should look for when monitoring the activity are an involvement in communicating with a partner, a reasonably high speed of speaking with a small number of hesitations, and some signs of comprehension by the listener. The design features include opportunity for preparation, a chance to repeat the task several times to different listeners, a familiar topic and an involved listener, and time pressure. Monitoring can occur in other ways. Learner diaries or logbooks written for the teacher are a useful source of information (Savage and Whisenand, 1993). Learners' talking, in small groups to provide feedback for the teacher, is another way.

Topic-207: Short-term Achievement Assessment

Monitoring looks at activities as they occur and is essentially process oriented. Short-term achievement assessment looks at the product of activities or a small set of activities. The purpose of this assessment is to see if the learners are making progress on a daily or weekly basis. It provides feedback to the teacher and the learners. In an intensive course a weekly test is a common way of carrying out this kind of assessment. In the test the learners are assessed on the work that they have done that week. Short-term assessment can also have motivational purposes, to make learners do required work and to give them feelings of achievement through success on the tests.

In courses where there are fewer classes, this kind of assessment is not feasible, but there are several other ways of carrying out short-term achievement assessment. For activities like speed reading, written composition, extensive reading, and dictation, the learners can record their performance on a graph each time they complete an activity. This shows the learners the progress they are making and allows the teacher to see who needs help and who is progressing well. Short-term achievement is more easily assessed if there are clear performance objectives for some of the learning goals. A performance objective is a statement consisting of five parts (Brown, 1995):

- Who should achieve the objective? (the subject)
- What the person should be able to do? (the performance)
- Under what conditions the performance should occur? (the conditions)
- How the performance will be tested? (the measure)
- What level of performance must be reached? (the criterion)

The learners should not refer back to the text while they answer the questions. Here is another performance objective: The learners should be able to write a 1,000 word composition based on an academic topic in their field of study requiring reference to at least three different source materials and obtain a grade of at least 3 on a 5-point scale for accurate use of language, at least 3 on a 5-point scale for quality of the

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content and argumentation, and at least 3 on a 5-point scale for clarity of organization and observance of the conventions for bibliographical reference, use of subheadings, and acknowledgement of sources.

There has been considerable debate about the value of performance objectives. Brown (1995) in an excellent discussion shows that while many of the criticisms are true for poorly made objectives, there is considerable value in using performance objectives to clarify goals for both teacher and learners and to monitor progress. In the end, curriculum designers should write performance objectives for some of the goals of the course, particularly where there might be misunderstanding of what is to be learned and where focused repeated practice is needed to reach the goals.

Good short-term achievement assessment should provide a clear record of progress that is easily interpreted. As much as possible it should be in a form to motivate learners to keep working towards the course goals. It should not occupy too much class time, but should be a regular expected part of class activity. Clarke (1989) suggests that some of the work of short-term achievement testing can be handed over to the learners.

Topic-208: Diagnostic Assessment

Diagnostic assessment is used to find the gaps and weaknesses in learners' knowledge so that something can be done about them. More positively, it is used to find what learners know well so that time is not wasted on teaching that. Diagnostic assessment is thus a very important part of needs analysis, both before a course begins and during the course. The findings of diagnostic assessment are used to determine what goes into a course. So good diagnostic assessment is accurate and easy to interpret in terms of what should be done as a result. Diagnostic information can often be obtained from assessment intended for other purposes, such as proficiency tests, achievement tests or placement tests. However, there are tests designed especially for diagnosis.

The vocabulary levels test (Schmitt, 2002) is an example of a diagnostic test. This test helps a teacher decide whether learners should be focusing on high-frequency vocabulary, academic vocabulary or low-frequency vocabulary. This is a very important decision because high-frequency vocabulary and low-frequency vocabulary require quite different teaching strategies. For high-frequency vocabulary every word deserves individual attention in a variety of ways. For low-frequency vocabulary the focus should be on the development of vocabulary coping and learning strategies that learners can use independently of a teacher. Each low-frequency word does not deserve individual attention from the teacher, but the strategies of guessing from context, using word parts to remember meanings, and using mnemonics and decontextualized learning do deserve attention. The findings of diagnostic assessment can thus have a major effect on the design of a course.

Diagnostic assessment can take other forms. These include analysis of language use such as written compositions, reading tasks, spoken performance, and observation of learner performance such as the process of writing, notetaking, and conversational activity. Technological advances can facilitate such analysis; for example, the potential of vocabulary profiles based on samples of student writing to provide valid, reliable and cost-effective diagnosis (Morris and Cobb, 2004).

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Learner self-assessment is another possible form of diagnostic assessment. Self-assessment usually involves learners working with checklists or scales to indicate their perceived areas of strength and weakness. The problem with self-assessment is that it is often difficult to separate the learners' subjective concerns from objective judgement.

One effect of diagnostic assessment can be to help learners set personal goals for a course. Diagnosis invariably reveals a range of needs and many of these may be best filled by giving learners responsibility for some of them. These personal goals can be put in a written form where each goal is accompanied by a schedule of work that will help learners achieve the goals.

Topic-209: Achievement Assessment

Achievement assessment measures both the achievement of learners during a course and the effectiveness of the course. Depending on the length of the course, there may be a final achievement test at the end, and perhaps one or two tests part of the way through a course. The tests part of the way through a course may have the purpose of picking up learners who are not achieving, so that something can be done to help them learn. These tests may also assess material that will not be assessed at the end of the course, thus allowing a greater spread of assessment of the material covered in the course. Achievement tests have the following characteristics:

- They are based on material taught in the course.
- Learners usually know what kinds of questions will be asked and what material will be covered.
- They are criterion referenced. That means that there will be a standard or criterion set which will indicate whether learners have achieved enough to be given a pass for the course. So the learners are not assessed in relation to each other, but in relation to a pre-determined criterion.

Achievement tests may be mastery tests. In a mastery test, a high criterion is set. The pass grade for example may be 80 per cent or 90 per cent. Learners can be given repeated opportunities to study the material and sit the tests until they reach the criterion of mastery. Mastery achievement tests usually focus on a small area of knowledge so that learners are clear about what has to be learned and so that they can set themselves a series of short-term goals to eventually cover the area of knowledge. The thinking behind mastery tests is that:

- If something is to be learned, it should be learned well.
- Every learner is capable of achieving mastery, some may require more time to do so than others.
- The teacher's responsibility is to assess the students and learning and thus every learner should have the chance to learn well.
- Mastery of an area is rewarding and motivating for both teacher and learners. There are opposing views, particularly at the university level.

There is no doubt that using achievement testing that is based on mastery brings about dramatic improvements in teaching and learning and it is worth considering its use for at least some parts of a language course. Achievement assessment is not all done by tests. Some aspects of achievement are better done in other ways. Assessing skill in composition writing is a good example. To obtain a reliable measure of writing skill, it is necessary for learners to write more than one composition. This is usually not feasible

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in the limited time available during a test. It is thus better to base assessment of writing on several pieces of work done in class.

Achievement assessment is a very important element in curriculum design. It not only provides important feedback for teachers, learners and curriculum designers, but also can affect teaching and learning in that the tests motivate and guide learning. This is sometimes called the "washback" effect of testing on teaching, and we will look at it a little more in proficiency assessment.

Topic-210: Proficiency Assessment

A test of language proficiency draws items for the test not from the course that the learners are studying, but from the language itself independent of any course. The reason for this is that the purpose of a proficiency test is to show how much the learners know of the language or a particular part of the language. If the selection of language items and skills to go in a course has been based upon a valid analysis of the language then there may not be a big difference between what is in a proficiency test and an achievement test, except perhaps that the proficiency test is likely to cover a larger range of items and skills.

Sometimes a proficiency test, such as the TOEFL (www.toefl.org/) or IELTS (www.ielts.org/) test, awaits a learner at the end of a course. This test may be working as a criterion-referenced test to determine whether a learner goes into an English-medium university or not. TOEFL is offered in three formats, and for the widely used internet-based test this criterion is usually set at a score of 79 or 80 out of a possible 120 for entry to an undergraduate course, depending on which university is setting the criterion.

The IELTS test uses a 9-point scale with a score of 6, 6.5 or 7 usually being necessary to gain entrance to a university. Sometimes the test may simply act as a norm-referenced test which shows learners at which percentile of proficiency they are in relation to others.

A proficiency test like TOEFL which is used as a criterion-referenced test can have a profound washback effect on a language course that precedes the sitting of the test. It can be a major environmental factor affecting the course. It can have the effect of making the content of the course resemble the content and test item formats in the test. It can have the effect of encouraging learners to drop out of the course if the course does not clearly and directly address the requirements of the test. Courses which try to predict what will be in the test and which copy the format of the test in their learning activities are in effect trying to make the proficiency test be like an achievement test, except that instead of the test drawing items from the course, the course is drawing items from old tests. The presence of such a test at the end of a course cannot be ignored. Studies of washback (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996) reveal that the effects of a test on the classroom are by no means simple. Different teachers are affected in different ways, and the quality of the channels of communication between the test designers and users and the teachers and learners is crucial. Wall (1996) shows the value of a new test and the management of its washback effects as being an example of educational innovation. Thus, it is useful to consider washback effects using the framework and questions used in innovation theory.

Topic-211: Good Assessment: Reliability, Validity and Practicality

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All assessment needs to be checked to see that it is doing its job properly and that it is not causing unnecessary work. Most investigative procedures including the tools for needs analysis, course evaluation procedures, and tests and other measures for assessment can be examined by considering three criteria – reliability, validity and practicality. Here we will discuss these three criteria in relation to tests, but they can be applied to a far wider range of instruments.

Reliability

A reliable test gives results that are not greatly upset by conditions that the test is not intended to measure. After allowing for the practice effect, if the same person sat the test twice, they should get near enough to the same result. Statistically reliability is measured by having the learners sit the test twice, or more commonly, by splitting the scores on the individual test items into two equal groups and seeing if the learners get the same score on both groups. A test is more reliable if:

- It is always given under the same conditions.
- It is consistently marked.
- It has a large number of points of assessment.
- Its questions and instructions are clear and unambiguous.

The conditions under which the test is given include the amount of time allowed for the test, whether the instructions are always presented in the same way, if it is a listening test whether the text is a recording to keep the speed and accent the same, and whether the recording can be heard equally well in all parts of the room.

A test may reliably tap learners' knowledge or performance, but if the marking is unreliable then the results are unreliable. Reliable marking is consistent, and consistency is helped by having some kind of answer key or well-thought-out scoring procedure.

Validity

A valid test measures what it is supposed to measure. A valid achievement test measures what has been learned on the course. A valid listening test measures skill at listening. The most practical ways for a teacher or curriculum designer to check the validity of a test are to look at its face validity and content validity.

Face validity simply means that if the test is called a reading test, does it look like a reading test? If it is called a vocabulary test, does it look like a vocabulary test? There is nothing very scientific about deciding on face validity, but face validity is important because it reflects how the learners and perhaps their parents, and other teachers will react to the test. For example the Eurocentric Vocabulary test presents words in isolation without a context. It does not ask for the learner to give a meaning, and it does not require the learners to use the vocabulary. This could affect learners' reaction to the test and their acceptance of its results. Similarly a test of speaking which does not require the learners to speak (Brown, 1983) has low face validity. A deeper understanding of how these two tests work and how they have been validated shows that these are valid tests, but their face validity, their appearance of being a certain kind of test, is still low. It is an advantage if tests look like the kind of test they are supposed to be.

One of the major obstacles in examining content validity is to find some well-supported description of what the language skills like reading and writing involve, or what knowledge of the language items like

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vocabulary and grammar involves. Often a commonsense analysis has to be done. Validity exists when a test is used for the purpose for which it was designed.

There are other ways of measuring validity. Some of these involve statistical comparison with other measures. A long-term goal for the development of some of the more important parts of the assessment in a course, such as the final achievement test or the placement test, would be to check the validity of these tests in other ways besides face and content validity

Practicality

Not only a test must be reliable and valid, it must also be practical. Practicality is examined by looking at:

- The cost involved in administering and scoring the test
- The time taken to administer and sit the test
- The time taken to mark the test
- The number of people needed to administer and mark the test
- The ease in interpreting and applying the results of the test

Tests can be made more practical by having reusable test papers, by being carefully formatted for easy marking by being not too long, and by using objectively scored items such as true/false or multiple choices. The requirements of practicality and reliability and validity do not always agree with each other, for example short tests are practical but not very reliable or valid. Sometimes it is necessary to sacrifice some practicality to get a valid test (for example an individual oral interview for 200 people), or to sacrifice validity to make the test more practical (multiple-choice vocabulary tests). Possible reliability and validity should be preferred over practicality. It (validity or reliability) can be compromised where necessary. Improvements in practicality can often be found by giving careful thought to the test format and by doing a little pilot testing.

Lesson- 33

PROGRAM EVALUATION: APPROACHES AND OPPORTUNITIES -I

Topic-212: What is an Evaluation?

The broadest kind of evaluation looks at all aspects of curriculum design to see if the course is the best possible course to implement. Evaluation requires looking at both the results of the course, and the

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planning and running of the course. In reality most evaluations are more narrowly focused and may be answering questions like the following:

- Does the course being taught fulfil high standard?
- Is the course preparing the learners properly for their use of English at the end of the course (e.g. to pass the TOEFL test, to study in an English-medium university, to work as a tour guide)?
- Are the learners satisfied with the course?
- Is the course cost effective?

Carrying out an evaluation is like carrying out research, and it is thus critically important that the evaluator is clear about what question is being asked.

Topic-213: Purpose and Audience of the Evaluation

Weir and Roberts (1994) distinguish between two major purposes for language program evaluation; one is program accountability and other one is program development. Accountability refers to the extent to which those involved in a program are answerable for the quality of their work. Accountability-oriented evaluation usually examines the effects of a program or project at significant end points of an educational cycle and is usually conducted for the benefit of an external audience or decision maker. On the other hand development-oriented evaluation is designed to improve the quality of a program as it is being implemented. It may involve staffs who are involved in the program as well as others who are not and may have a teacher-development focus (Weir and Roberts 1994). The different purposes for evaluation are referred to us: formative, illuminative, and summative evaluation.

Kiely and Rea-Dickens (2006) make a useful three-way scope distinction: (1) large-scale evaluations which "tend to focus on major educational innovations with significant financial backing with an underlying agenda", (2) teacher-led evaluations, and (3) management-led evaluations.

A course evaluation can be an expensive and time-consuming procedure. For example, an evaluation of an intensive English programme involved talking to each of the thirty-six teachers on the programme for at least half an hour each and in some cases for five or more hours. An evaluation of a university department involved bringing in some outside evaluators as part of the evaluation team and paying their travel and accommodation expenses plus a fee for their services. Because of this investment of time and money, it is important that an evaluation is well focused and well-motivated.

Most of the really important work in an evaluation is done before the data gathering begins. As in experimental research, you cannot fix by statistics what has been spoilt in design. The first critical step is to find out whom the evaluation is for and what kind of information they value. There are several reasons why this step is very important. Firstly, it helps determine the degree of confidentiality of the evaluation: Will the report of the evaluation be available to all involved or will it only go to the person or group commissioning the evaluation?

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Secondly, it helps determine what kind of information should/shouldn't be gathered. The person or group commissioning the evaluation may place great importance on learner satisfaction or on economic issues, or they may consider these irrelevant. In the initial stages of an evaluation, the evaluator needs to talk at length with the person commissioning the evaluation to make clear the goals and type of data to be gathered in the evaluation. An effective way to make this clear is to prepare a brief "mock" report based on false data with the purpose of showing the person commissioning the evaluation what the report may look like. People interested in commissioning an evaluation of a language course could include the learners, the teachers, the director of the language center or the owners of the language center. Each of these interested parties will have a different view of what a "good" course is and will value different kinds of evidence. Thirdly, knowing *who the evaluation is for* is useful in determining whether the data to be gathered will be provided willingly or reluctantly.

At the same time, it is important to know why the evaluation is being done. Is it being done to improve the course or to guide a decision whether to maintain or get rid of the course? It is at this point that the evaluator should be most cynical. Is there a hidden purpose to the evaluation that is not made clear to the evaluator? For example, is the real goal of the evaluation to dispose of an unwanted staff member or to provide an excuse to get rid of a course? At the end of this preparatory stage of the evaluation, the evaluator should be able to tell the person commissioning the evaluation:

- Whether the evaluation is worth doing?
- Whether the evaluation is possible?
- How long it might take?
- How much it might cost?
- Whether the evaluator is willing to do it?
- What kind of evidence the evaluation will gather?

If all the people are in agreement then the evaluation can continue.

Topic-214: The Type and the Focus of the Evaluation

A distinction is made between formative evaluation and summative evaluation. The basis of the distinction lies in the purpose of evaluation. A formative evaluation has the purpose of forming or shaping the course to improve it. A summative evaluation has the purpose of making a summary or judgement on the quality or adequacy of the course so that it can be compared with other courses, with previous summative evaluations, or judged as being up to a certain criterion or not. These different purposes may affect the type of data gathered, the way the results are presented, and when the data are gathered, but essentially most data can be used for either of the two purposes. The formative/summative distinction is important when informing the people who are the focus of an evaluation about the purpose of the evaluation, in helping the evaluator decide what kind of information will be most useful to gather, and in using the information gathered.

Deciding whether the evaluation is summative or formative is one decision. Deciding if it is to be long term or short term is another (Beretta, 1986). Most evaluations are short term. Some are conducted

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over a few days. Others may be long term. Long-term evaluation is most economically done if it is planned as a part of curriculum design. Some important features of a course cannot be validly evaluated in a short-term evaluation. These include quality of teaching and learner achievement. A teacher's quality cannot be reliably or validly assessed from watching one or two lessons. The lessons may be especially well prepared for the evaluation, or the teacher could be nervous and having a bad day. Teaching also involves the planning of a programme of work and carrying it through to its conclusion. One or two isolated observations may not show this. Stenhouse (1975) stressed the importance of "illuminative evaluation" where evaluation helps those involved understand what is going on in the programme, and this necessarily requires teachers to be active programme evaluators.

Along with formative/summative and short term/long term, a third distinction is process/product (Long, 1984). An evaluation can focus on the process of learning and teaching and it can focus on the product or result of learning and teaching. Process observations of learning look at how engaged learners are in their tasks, the quality of the interaction between themselves and between the teacher and the learners, and the quantity and quality of the language used. Product observations of learning look at what was learned and how much was learned. Both kinds of data provide different but hopefully intersecting views of the same thing.

The last set of distinctions to look at here is whether the evaluation will include cognitive, affective and resource factors. Cognitive factors involve learning and teaching and the gaining of knowledge, and the application of that knowledge after the course has ended.

It should be clear that a full-scale evaluation could be an enormous undertaking. It is therefore important to decide what the evaluation will focus on. Primarily, this decision should not be based on practical factors but on the kind of information that is needed to achieve the goal of the evaluation. It is better to have a small amount of relevant data than a large amount of data that do not address the main concerns of the evaluation.

Topic-215: Gaining Support for the Evaluation

A course evaluation looks for strengths and weaknesses, but it is naturally the weaknesses that cause concern. Finding weaknesses carries with it the idea that someone or something is to blame for the weaknesses and this is clearly a threatening situation. If an evaluation is to proceed effectively, it is important that honest data are available. So, it is necessary for those involved in the evaluation, particularly those who are sources of information, to feel that the evaluation is worthwhile and not personally threatening to their "face" and their job security. This will require meeting with those involved and involving them in the planning and carrying out of the evaluation. For this reason, some evaluations involve a respected outsider who makes gaining the agreement and cooperation of the staff a prerequisite to doing the evaluation. That is, if the evaluator is unable to gain the cooperation of staff through meeting with them and explaining the purpose and likely procedure of the evaluation, then the evaluator decides not to proceed with the evaluation. The issue of stakeholder involvement in evaluation is an important one (Kiely and Rea-Dickens, 2006). Clearly there is potentially a very wide range of stakeholders, all with different kinds of connections to the programme. Actively involving a wide range of stakeholders can result in a better informed evaluation as well as a protective sharing of responsibility.

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Not all evaluations are potentially threatening and they may spring from the desire of staff to improve their programme. In these cases it may be necessary to convince other staff of the value of the evaluation and that there will be a worthwhile return for the time and effort spent on the evaluation. A properly conducted evaluation can be an empowering and motivating activity. Generally, the assumptions behind an evaluation are:

- This course is worth improving.
- The people running and teaching the course are capable of improving it,
- The people involved in the course have the freedom and flexibility to make changes to the course.
- The improvements will make it a better course for all concerned.

Seen in this way, an evaluation is an activity that deserves support.

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PROGRAM EVALUATION: APPROACHES AND OPPORTUNITIES -II

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Topic-216: Gathering the Information

The tools of needs analysis and the tools of evaluation are somewhat similar to each other. The purposes, for which the tools are used, differ and in an evaluation they are used to gather a much wider range of data. Let us now look at a few of the most useful information-gathering tools in more detail. This can involve looking at the performance of teachers and learners, observing lessons and examining achievement. Evaluation can also look at the environment of the course, which may involve looking at administrative procedures, availability and quality of resources, and how outsiders view the course.

Topic-217: Formative Evaluation as Part of a Course

An important question in an evaluation is who will be involved in the evaluation. The involvement of curriculum designers and teachers in an evaluation can be an important part of professional development. Much of the discussion of evaluation in this lesson has assumed that a one-off evaluation is being done and that the evaluators may be from outside the course.

However, if curriculum design is seen as a continual process, then it is important that evaluation is built into a course. In more traditional courses than those based on a negotiated syllabus, formative evaluation can still be planned as a part of curriculum design. This can be done in the following ways:

- Parts of the curriculum design can be negotiated between the teacher and the learners. This may include negotiation of classroom activities, some of the goals of the course, and some assessment procedures. This negotiation is a kind of evaluation with immediate effects on the course.
- The course can include periodic and systematic observation of classes by teacher peers.
- The staff holds regular meetings to discuss the progress of the course.
- Teachers are required to periodically fill self-evaluation forms that they discuss with a colleague.
- Learners periodically fill course evaluation forms.
- Some class time is set aside for learner discussion of the course and providing feedback for teachers.
- Occasionally an outside evaluator is invited to evaluate aspects of the course.

Topic-218: Illuminative Evaluation

Another type of evaluation can be described as illuminative evaluation. This refers to evaluation that seeks to find out how different aspects of the program work or are being implemented. It seeks to provide a deeper understanding of the processes of teaching and learning that occur in the program, without necessarily seeking to change the course in any way as a result. Questions that might be asked within this framework are:

- How do students carry out group-work tasks? Do all students participate equally in them?
- What type of error-correction strategies do teachers use?
- What kinds of decisions do teachers employ while teaching?
- How do teachers use lesson plans when teaching?
- What type of teacher-student interaction patterns typically occur in classes?
- What reading strategies do students use with different kinds of texts?

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- How do students understand the teacher's intentions during a lesson?
- Which students in a class are most or least active?

Example: A teacher is teaching a course on reading skills and has developed a course which focuses on a wide variety of reading skills, such as skimming, scanning, reading for details, surveying a text, critical reading and vocabulary development. All of the skills receive regular focus throughout the course. The teacher is interested in finding out what the students perceive to be the main point of the course. Students complete a short questionnaire at different times during the course in order to describe their perceptions of what the course is seeking to achieve. At times there is a different perception on the part of students as to the purpose of different activities, or even of whole lessons. After reflecting on this phenomenon, the teacher comes to understand that learners' perceptions of a course may reflect what they are most interested in or what they feel they need most help with at a particular point in time.

Topic-219: Summative Evaluation

A third approach to evaluation is the type of evaluation with which most teachers and program administrators are familiar and which seeks to make decisions about the worth or value of different aspects of the curriculum. This is known as summative evaluation. Summative evaluation is concerned with determining the effectiveness of a program, its efficiency, and to some extent with its acceptability. It takes place after a program has been implemented and seeks to answer questions such as these:

- How effective was the course? Did it achieve its aims?
- What did the students learn?
- How well was the course received by students and teachers?
- Did the materials work well?
- Were the objectives adequate or do they need to be revised?
- Were the placement and achievement tests adequate?
- Was the amount of time spent on each unit sufficient?
- How appropriate were the teaching methods?
- What problems were encountered during the course?

In order to decide if a course is effective, criteria for effectiveness need to be identified. There are many different measures of a course's effectiveness and each measure can be used for different purposes. For example:

Mastery of objectives: One way of measuring the effectiveness of a course is to ask "How far have the objectives been achieved?" Each objective in the course is examined and criteria for successful achievement of each objective are chosen. In a course on speaking skills, for example, an objective might be: *In group discussions, students will listen to and respond to the opinions of others in their group*. The extent to which the students have mastered this objective at the end of the course can be assessed by the teacher's observing students during group discussions and recording on a scale the extent to which they listen and respond to opinions. If students' performance on this objective is poor, reasons would have to be identified. Perhaps, for example, insufficient opportunities were provided in the course for students to practice this task, perhaps the materials relating to this objective were too difficult or not sufficiently interesting.

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However, mastery of objectives does not provide a full picture of the effectiveness of a course. Objectives can be achieved despite defects in a course. Students may have realized that the teaching or materials were poor or insufficient and so spent a lot of extra time in private study to compensate for it. Or perhaps mastery of an objective was achieved but same objective could have been covered in half the amount of time devoted to it. Or the program might have achieved its objectives but students have a very negative perception of it because it was not stimulating or the pacing was inappropriate.

Performance on tests: Apart from the relatively informal way of assessing mastery of objectives, formal tests are probably the commonest means used to measure achievement. Such tests might be unit tests given at the end of each unit of teaching materials, class tests or quizzes devised by teachers and administered at various stages throughout the course, or as formal exit tests designed to measure the extent to which objectives have been achieved. Weir (1995) points out that achievement tests can have an important washback effect on teaching and learning. They can help in the making of decisions about needed changes to a program, such as which objectives 'need more attention or revision. Brindley (1989) reports, however, that in programs, he studied in Australia, teachers preferred to rely on informal methods of ongoing assessment rather than formal exit tests.

Topic-220: Issues in Program Evaluation

Weir and Roberts (1994) propose a broad view of evaluation that is characterized by:

- A need for both inside and outside commitment and involvement to ensure adequate evaluation.
- A central interest in improvement as well as the demonstration of the "product value" of a program or project or their components.
- An associated commitment to a deeper professional understanding of the processes of educational change, as well as the results of that change.
- Systematic documentation for evaluation purposes both during implementation and at the beginning and end of a program or project's life.
- A willingness to embrace both qualitative and quantitative methodology appropriate to the purpose of the evaluation and the context under review.

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PROGRAM EVALUATION: APPROACHES AND OPPORTUNITIES -III

Topic-221: The Results of an Evaluation

When an evaluation has been done, the results need to be presented. This presentation involves ethical issues, particularly those of confidentiality and consideration for the feelings of others. Often people participate in an evaluation on the understanding that the information they provide will remain confidential, at least in the sense of where the information came from. The results of an evaluation may also be threatening to the individuals concerned, especially if weaknesses are revealed. The results of evaluations of teaching are usually only available to the teacher concerned and perhaps to the head of the department. They are not seen by colleagues. In such evaluations particular comments by students may be reported, but the names of the students who made these comments are not reported. In student evaluations of teaching conducted by a central body, there are usually data provided about school averages in such evaluations so that the person receiving the evaluation can determine how they compare. An issue in evaluation is whether a comparison model should be used. Should evaluations be norm-referenced or criterion-referenced?

Most evaluations involve a written report, or in some cases two written reports – one for the person or group commissioning the evaluation, and one for wider circulation. The written report will usually be accompanied by an oral report. This oral report has two purposes:

- To make sure the written report is clearly understood.
- To say things that could not be put tactfully in writing.

The report, however, is not necessarily the end of an evaluation although it sometimes unfortunately is so. The report needs to be considered and then acted on. The evaluation procedure may involve some later follow-up to monitor the effects and implementation of the evaluation.

An evaluation needs to result in learning for those involved. This learning needs to be applied to the course or to the planning of future courses. Surprisingly it is not unusual for an evaluation to result in very little change. At times this may be the correct response, but often it is not and may be the result of weaknesses in the planning and carrying out of the evaluation.

Topic-222: Language Program Evaluation: Significance

According to Richards (2001), evaluation is a “systematic gathering of information for the purpose of making decisions. It is a systematic determination of a subject's merit, worth and significance that is ensured by setting certain criteria containing a set of standards. The significance of the evaluation of a language program can be seen in terms of improving language curriculum design. It also helps to look at the worth of the program, its procedures and product. It helps in accessing the effectiveness and efficacy of a language program. Program evaluation is like an internal audit in which you can see the weaknesses and strengths of a program. It helps to look at the course continually with the notion of improvement and for this purpose there is a never ending needs analysis going on to ensure improvement.

Topic-223: Language Program Evaluation: Approaches

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Evaluation is a key element in any educational endeavor, especially within the curriculum development. It can be argued that program evaluation consists of and is equal to investigating the efficiency and working of language teaching methods and materials. Different experts have rendered varied definitions of evaluation. A more elaborate and comprehensive definition is presented by Brown (1995). Brown's focus of attention is on a specific type of curriculum that is being evaluated. Thus, evaluation might be defined as "the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the importance of the curriculum and to assess its effectiveness within the context of the particular institutions involved".

There are many approaches for language program evaluation:

- Product oriented: This approach focuses on the goals and objectives of a curriculum that match with the instruction objectives.
- Process oriented: It deals with the LCD change, innovation and improvement in implementing the curriculum.
- Static characteristic: It deals with looking at the perspective of external agency. It looks at the institute in terms of its overall standing and ranking.
- Decision facilitation: It is a cyclic process that continuously gathers information about needs, environment and situation analysis.

These approaches lay emphasis on becoming aware of parameters of accessing worth of a language program.

Topic-224: Language Program Evaluation: Dimensions

There are three dimensions of a language program evaluation.

- Formative vs summative: Given throughout the learning process, formative assessments seek to determine how students are progressing through a certain learning goal. Given at the end of the year or unit, summative assessments assess a student's mastery of a topic after instruction.
- Process vs product: Product deals with the goals of the course achieved. On the other hand, process deals with how the goals are achieved. The dynamics or methodologies are involved in achieving these goals.
- Quantitative vs qualitative: Quantitative deals with the collection of descriptive data with the help of some questionnaires or textual analysis. Qualitative evaluation, on the contrary, deals with the general observation.

Lesson-36

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PROGRAM EVALUATION: APPROACHES AND OPPORTUNITIES -IV

Topic-225: Mastery Decisions in Program Evaluation: Student Performance

A very important factor in evaluating a language program is that it can be assessed through students' performance. The success or the failure of the program can be measured through students' achievement. Students' performance is the reality of the language classroom procedures. The aspect of students' performance cannot be overlooked while evaluating a language program. The mastery decisions in an evaluation are based on how students are performing like students have reached the required competence level or failed to achieve or are underperforming.

In this regard, Thom Hudson (2007) draws our attention towards 'mastery testing' to understand the relative standards of a program. The mastery decision in evaluation of a program is not only based on cognitive development of the students but it can also be judged through their behavior. This approach helps teachers to analyze: How to know and what to know? How to view and what to teach? It is another tool to make informed judgment about the evaluation of the program.

Topic-226: Epistemological, Ethical and Technical Issues

There are some key issues in discussing students' performance for evaluating a language program. These key issues are epistemological, ethical and technical in nature. Epistemological issues are related to: What students have achieved? How to assess their cognation level and knowledge about language and processes of language learning? The second concern is ethical which refers to how results will be used. In order to evaluate a program, the question of ethics is very important to keep in mind. We need to ensure that while making decisions about ethics, there should be an element of confidentiality. Technical concerns are like a cut of point if mastery is achieved. The test score has its usefulness; it is to inform us whether the course is running smooth or we need to take mastery decisions in order to evaluate the program. Students' mastery is judged on various levels; one of them is communicative competence. Skills and performance are also important to judge students' performance in a language classroom.

Topic-227: Implications

Thom Hudson (2007) in his article "Mastery Decisions in Program Evaluation" talks about the practical implications of the mastery decisions. Making decisions or passing judgments about students' success or failure have their practical implications in terms of analyzing the overall evaluation of the program. It helps researchers to diagnose if there are any weaknesses in the structure of the course. The context of students' evaluation is important. The implications of mastery decisions help us to bring some objectivity and neutrality to the program. When evaluation is done in a systematic way, it helps to bring validity and reliability to the whole course.

Topic-228: Tailoring the Evaluation to Fit the Context: Significance

Program evaluation process can be tailored, molded or shaped according to the contextual needs of a language program. In his article, *Tailoring the Evaluation to fit the Context*, Warwick B. Elley (1981) draws our attention towards molding the evaluation process to fit the contextual needs. Evaluation is a

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controlled experiment which means it is done in a very systematic and well-designed way. Program evaluation involves various variables like assisted principles, trained teachers and student samples. According to ethnographic studies, some external agents walk in the classroom and observe the dynamics of the classroom and then they give their conclusion that whether the program is working efficiently or not. This study is full of insights because we have firsthand information and observations; however, there is one element of subjectivity involved in it. Merits of language program can be analyzed through this study; it helps to make informed decisions about the principles of the program. The judgment helps to revise the curricula and tackle the contextual issues.

Topic-229: Tailoring the Evaluation to Fit the Context: Principles

Tailoring the evaluation process is not an easy task. It requires certain principles that an evaluator should know. A typical evaluation exercise is to take decision about tools which can be used for the process like questionnaire, interview sample or textual analysis. It is important to know about the evaluator (teacher, administrator or some external agent). It is important to analyze that how large the sample is? Who gathered the information? How the sample is chosen? What sort of design is to be picked (qualitative or quantitative)? What are the aims of the program?

Topic-230: Tailoring the Evaluation to Fit the Context: Selecting and Developing Instruments

Warwick B. Elley (1981) projects that it is important to select and develop instruments in order to reshape the evaluation process. The instruments are questionnaires, ethnographic studies, structured or semi-structured interviews or textual data. Selecting and developing help to improve some evaluation items like how well a program is relevant to the contextual needs of the students? In this regard, there are notions of pre-test that whether it is advisable or not. Pre-test is like testing the knowledge of the students before the formal evaluation begins.

Selecting and developing the instruments involves administering the test. The timing is important; it should be given when students are prepared for the evaluation and aware of the difficulty level. Marking the test according to the contextual needs is also important. Moreover, monitoring the instructions is an important factor in tailoring the information.

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Lesson-37

INTRODUCING CHANGE

Topic-231 Introduction

The aim of this part of the curriculum design process is to get teachers and learners to accept a new course or changes to an existing course.

Curriculum design usually involves change, especially when a new course replaces an existing course. This change or innovation (White, 1993) needs consideration so that the work that goes into planning and designing is rewarded by the acceptance and appropriate use of the course. An effective way of doing this is to involve the users of the course as closely as possible in its design and development. There are many kinds of change that can occur in an educational system. Here is a list of some changes that could have a direct effect on what happens in the classroom:

- Introducing a new course book
- Changing to a new approach to teaching
- Introducing new teaching techniques
- Changing the National English test for entering university
- Changing part of the country's school system to English-medium
- Introducing computer-assisted language learning
- Moving to standards-based assessment

Attempts to introduce change are not always successful, of course. One reason for this is that the change may be viewed as culturally inappropriate, perhaps imposed by an outsider. Adamson and Davison (2008) describe how a curriculum introduced in Hong Kong was seen as a Western import and was reinterpreted by teachers to accommodate to the local culture. Another reason why attempts to introduce change may not succeed is that the process of introducing the change to teachers is flawed. The cascade model of diffusion, with a small number of teachers attending *train-the-trainer workshops* in preparation to train other teachers, is often used but does not always succeed, as Goh and Yin (2008) found in Singapore.

There are two important related aspects to any major curriculum change – the change that occurs in the curriculum, and the change that needs to occur in the minds of the various people affected by the curriculum. If a teacher is only making changes within their own course, changes in attitude (both of the teacher and the learners) are still very important.

If the teacher has not taken a fresh viewpoint on the course, the change may really be no change at all. If all the changes to the course are significant, the learners may find it difficult to cope with something that is too far outside their experience and expectations. Thus, an important issue related to curriculum design involves the management of change. This area of study and research is sometimes called "innovation theory" and is relevant not just to curriculum change but to the many different kinds of change that occur

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in human experience – restructuring businesses, changing the laws of the country, and bringing about changes in social behavior such as reducing smoking or drink-driving.

Topic-232: Steps in Introducing Change

Let us look first at the steps that could be followed when introducing change. Attention to these steps will increase the likelihood of a change being successfully introduced.

1. Make sure that the change is really needed:
   Are enough people dissatisfied with the present situation?
   What is the real reason for the change?
2. Plan the type of change so that it is not too great and not too small (Stoller, 1994):
   Is the change too simple or too complex?
   Is the change too insignificant or too visible?
   Is the change too similar or too different from existing practices?
3. Make sure that enough people see that the kind of change is possible:
   Will the change involve more gains than losses?
   Are there practical obstacles to the change, such as a lack of resources?
4. Use a wide range of change strategies:
   Does the change have official support?
   Do people understand the value of the change?
   Are the users involved in the change?
   Is there frequent and good communication between all involved?
5. Be prepared for the change to take a long time:
   Is there enough time and money for the change?
   Is there long-term support for the change?

Topic-233: Seeing the Need for Change and Deciding on the Size of the Change

Change occurs most easily if people are dissatisfied with the present situation. If a language course is not achieving the results that it should, or if the nature of the course causes dissatisfaction for the teachers or learners, then one of the first prerequisites for change is present. If the whole range of people affected by the change see the need for change, the conditions are ideal. Often, however, not everyone sees the need and those who are dissatisfied may have to convince those who are not. This often occurs when change in the classroom becomes necessary because our understanding of effective language-learning practices change.

Research by Stoller (1994) suggests that the size of the change should not be too great or too small. If it is too great, people feel threatened or awed by the change. If it is too small then it is not seen as a real change and it therefore it is not worth putting effort into. Stoller suggests six scales for describing the size of the change, the best size being in the middle area of each scale. The scales are explicitness, visibility, originality, compatibility with past practices, difficulty/complexity and flexibility. Change is most favored if it is obvious, different, challenging and requiring adjustment. If the proposed curriculum change is too small, it may not win much support from others who do not see it as a real innovation, and thus not worth a lot of effort. If the change is too large, then those affected by it will see many obstacles to its implementation and may be reluctant to put in the considerable effort needed to support it.

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Stoller (1994) calls this need for the size of the change to be of a medium size, the "Goldilocks syndrome" (from the children's story *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*) – not too big, not too small, but just right.

The size of the change should be a matter for planning, adjustment and negotiation. Let us look at the *Book Flood* experiment (Elley and Mangubhai, 1981) as an example. The change that they wanted to introduce was spending three quarters of the four hours of class time on extensive reading. This is quite a big change from the normal teacher-fronted course. However, one-quarter of the class time remained the same. In addition only a little training was needed to get teachers ready to handle extensive reading. Attractive resources were available in the form of 200 books. The teachers were expected to read quietly when the learners were reading quietly, so it was a reduction of work for the teachers. Overall then we can see that the change was a significant one, but did not involve extra work or substantial retraining of the teachers. Interestingly, one teacher in the experimental group could not accept the change and continued to teach his class in the old way. This was not discovered until the experiment was over. The achievement of his class was at a similar low level to the control group, without the high gains of the experimental group.

Topic-234: Realistic Change

Change may start from dissatisfaction with the present situation. If it does, it must also be obvious to those involved that the proposed change is possible and will be an improvement. That it will involve more gains than losses. It is useful to look at the change from several viewpoints:

- The resources to support the change
- The people involved in the change
- The people who will receive the ultimate benefit of the change

We have already looked at the size of the change itself, seeing that the change must be in a medium "zone of innovation" (Stoller, 1994) rather than at the extremes of too little or too much. The change must also be feasible concerning the resources that are available, the amount of time, and the number of people affected by the change. Consideration should also be given to the resources and support that classroom teachers will need during the change process, which may be on-going for a number of years (Wedell, 2003).

The people involved in the implementation of the change need to see that there will be benefits from the change, that it can be achieved, and that eventually it will not make them more over-worked than they are at present. If their involvement in curriculum change can be shown to add to their professional development through publication, official recognition, and gains in status for them or their institution, then this favors change (Kennedy, 1987).

The people who will receive the ultimate benefit of the change, usually the learners, are often not negotiators in the change process. At the very least, it must be clear to those involved that the learners will benefit from the change and be more satisfied as a result of it. Most curriculum change has the aim of producing better learning, and teachers will usually get involved in innovation which results in considerable work for them if they see that there are substantial benefits for the learners.

Learners may also be directly involved in curriculum change. The ideas behind the negotiated syllabus stress the benefits of learner involvement in such change.

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Topic-235: Teacher Beliefs

We have already noted that for change to be realistic it needs to be looked at from several viewpoints, including that of the people involved in the change. A core group of people involved is the teachers, who will usually be the main group responsible for implementing the change.

What teachers do in the classroom is to some extent going to be determined by what they believe. The importance of examining the role that teacher beliefs play in deciding what happens in the classroom has been increasingly recognized in language education research. The old-fashioned notion that a teacher's role is to transmit knowledge from the curriculum to the learners has been replaced by recognition that teachers have complex mental lives that determine what and how teachers teach (Freeman, 2002). These complex mental lives – often called teacher cognition – are "the hidden side of teaching" (Freeman 2002) and multiple factors, which could loosely be described as teachers' knowledge, beliefs and personal histories, contribute to them.

Introducing change to teachers means addressing teacher beliefs because what teachers believe affects how they teach (Garton, 2008). At the same time, however, it is important to remember that teacher beliefs and teacher behavior in the classroom are not necessarily the same. Contextual factors can either facilitate or constrain teaching practice based on teacher beliefs. For example, language teachers are likely to believe that extensive reading has beneficial effects on language learning and yet extensive reading is often absent from the teaching programme. This absence may reflect factors in the teaching–learning context, such as assessment requirements or a lack of suitable reading resources.

One of the factors that can contribute to teacher cognition is professional development, and it is through professional development opportunities that change is often introduced to teachers. As teacher cognition is not static, changing beliefs is possible. Both pre-service and in-service training are intended to introduce change. It is important, therefore, to recognize that participants arrive at both forms of training with pre-existing beliefs. Trainee teachers who enter a pre-service course already have well-developed ideas about teaching based on their experiences as learners. Practicing teachers who attend an in-service course arrive with well-developed ideas based on their experiences as teachers and their understanding developed through their own pre-service training as well as beliefs based on experiences as learners.

When introducing change to teachers, it is useful to gain some idea of their existing beliefs. Needs analysis tools can provide information about lacks (e.g. questionnaires and free interviews can tell us what participants believe now) and necessities (e.g. analysis of curriculum documents).

Topic-236: Using a Variety of Change Strategies

So far we have looked at the requirements for change, but how can this change be done? Kennedy (1987) describes three major approaches to change:

- Power–coercive, where change is achieved through authority, rules and top-down pressure.

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- Rational–empirical, where change is achieved through explaining, justifying and showing the reasons why the change is good and necessary.
- Normative–re-educative, where change is achieved through discussion, involvement and negotiation. In the short term, power–coercive involves less time than rational–empirical which involves less time than normative–re-educative.

Each approach to change is typically associated with a particular model of change and style of leadership (Markee, 1997). The power–coercive approach is typical of a center–periphery model, such as the educational innovations promoted by an international aid agency from a "developed" nation, the rational–empirical approach is typical of a research, development and diffusion model (favored by academics who do the research), and the normative–re-educative approach is typical of a problem-solving model that is driven by bottom-up pressure.

These three approaches should be seen as supporting each other rather than as alternatives to choose from. Change is more likely to occur if people see that it has the support of authority such as government, the education department and school administration (power–coercive), if they see that there are good reasons for the change (rational–empirical), and if they feel that they are participating in the change, that they are a powerful, valuable and useful part of the change, and that they "own" the change (normative–re-educative). A nice parallel can be seen in the civil rights movement in the United States. Racial equality was supported by legislation (power–coercive), the aims of the movement were publicized and explained (rational–empirical), and people became actively involved in the struggle for Each strategy is favored by certain conditions as indicated in the third row of the table, but these do not have to be there at the beginning if they can be developed during the change. As it can be seen in the row giving ELT examples, movement towards change of some sort or other is almost always happening in well-organized systems, even if on a very small scale. The row describing benefits refers to the benefits of the change process rather than the outcome of the change.

Topic-237: Innovation, Management and Long-Term Support

A curriculum change usually has more effects than were first planned for. It may involve the retraining of teachers through in-service course work, and the adjustment of a curriculum to changes that are caused by the change.

In addition, there is a need to evaluate the innovation to ensure that it is in effect a real improvement over past practices. The results of this evaluation may suggest that further changes are necessary. White (1987) sees innovation as involving the management of the following stages:

- Defining aims
- Defining end results: This should make clear what the particular benefits of the innovation will be.
- Gathering information: what we already know and what we need to know.
- Defining what has to be done: This involves allocating particular jobs, setting time limits, setting up procedures and preparing alternative plans.
- Action: Making the changes
- Reviewing and evaluating

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These stages show the need for careful and detailed planning plus follow up to check on the change. Innovation can involve many people and considerable time, and it is important that this is allowed for when the financial support and commitment to an innovation is sought. Defining the end results is a good way of checking if change is really needed or wanted. This involves getting those involved to describe what the ideal outcome will be. This clearly will sharpen views of at least the goals of the curriculum design. Markee (1997) suggests a very useful list of principles to guide curricular innovation.

- Curricular innovation is a complex phenomenon. This means that it is affected by a large number of factors and by many features of the environment in which it takes place. This often makes its implementation and effect unpredictable.
- The principal job of change agents is to effect the desired changes. This principle stresses that the person primarily responsible for the change needs to bring practical skill and energy to what they are doing.
- Good communication among project participants is a key to successful curricular innovation.
- The successful implementation of educational innovations is based on a strategic approach to managing change. This principle underlines the idea that innovation involves short-term, medium-term, and long-term strategies. It also involves different approaches to change, such as power–coercive, rational–empirical, and normative–re-educative approaches. At different times in the change process different strategies are likely to be appropriate.
- Innovation is an inherently messy, unpredictable business.
- It always takes longer to effect change than originally anticipated.
- There is a high likelihood that change agents' proposals will be misunderstood.
- It is important for implementers to have a stake in the innovations they are expected to implement.
- It is important for change agents to work through opinion leaders who can influence their peers.

Lesson-38

PLANNING AN IN-SERVICE COURSE

Topic-238: Introduction and Significance

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After working through this topic you should be able to plan an in-service course for teachers. In-service courses involve teacher development after initial teacher training and after the teachers have had some teaching experience. In-service courses may be long-term courses leading to Diplomas, Masters or Doctoral degrees. They may be short term, lasting only a few hours or a day or two. In this lesson, we look at short-term courses, and the planning that is needed for their success. The planning of short-term in-service courses is included in this book for two main reasons. First, short in-service courses represent a small-scale exercise in curriculum design. That is, planning a short in-service course involves very similar decisions to planning a language course, and the model of curriculum design used in this book is relevant. Second, in-service courses are a major way of bringing about innovative curriculum change.

Curriculum change involves teachers, and teachers need to be informed and involved in the planning, development, implementation and evaluation of change. In-service courses are an important means for doing this. In this discussion, the term "workshop" will be used to refer to short-term in-service courses. The term "participants" will be used to refer to the teachers coming to the workshop for in-service development, plus the organizer and visiting speakers. Most attention will be given in this chapter to the inner circle in the curriculum design model – goals, content, presentation, and assessment and evaluation.

Topic-239: Features of an Effective Workshop

An effective workshop has clear goals, and involves new content, and its presentation encourages the involvement of the participants.

Goals

In general, workshops can have one or more of the following five goals:

- Understanding and remembering new ideas
- Experiencing and evaluating exercises
- Producing material or exercises,
- Planning units of work,
- Problem solving

When deciding on the particular goals of a workshop, it is important to decide which of these five general goals are most appropriate. For example, if a teacher is running a workshop for other teachers on the information transfer activity (Palmer, 1982), then it is important to decide:

- Is it a goal for the participants to know what an information transfer activity is, what principles of learning it draws on, what it can be used for, and what material it can be based on?
- Is it a goal to experience what it is like to be a learner doing an information transfer activity, what it is like to teach using an information transfer activity, and is it a goal to judge whether a particular information transfer activity is a good one or not?
- Is it a goal for the participants to learn how to make their own information transfer activities?
- Is it a goal to integrate information transfer activities into larger units of work?
- Is it a goal for the participants to use information transfer activities to solve problems, such as learners' lack of motivation, the need to develop note-taking skills, or strategies for planning writing?

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Content

Workshops need to involve the input of new information, otherwise there is a danger that they will result in unproductive discussion. When planning a workshop it is important to plan where this new information will come from. Here are some possible sources:

- Pre-reading of articles and notes distributed several days before the workshop.
- Prepared talks by the workshop organiser, an invited speaker or selected participants.
- Prepared model activities either on video, demonstrated live or in written form.
- Spontaneous discussion involving informed participants.
- Feedback by an informed participant.

Presentation

For a workshop to be successful, participants need to be interested and active. Ideally a workshop should provide a learning experience that could not be gained by working alone. Involvement can be encouraged if there is a clear task to do with a clear, well-described outcome which the participants see as important and valuable for them. Group work can be effective, but often participants are more interested in gaining input from a visiting speaker than in gaining input from their colleagues. If a visiting speaker is the main source of input, it is possible to do small amounts of group work with feedback during the presentation.

It may be necessary for the visiting speaker or workshop organizer to develop some credibility with the participants by initially presenting a short informative talk to present some new content and to show that there are useful things to be learned by participating.

The participants in workshops are usually teachers who already have a demanding full-time job. A workshop which lasts even half a day can be tiring. Making arrangements to have tea and coffee and something to eat during the workshop is almost obligatory. It is also useful to plan the activities in the workshop so that there is a variety of activity and several changes of pace. In general, over a two-hour period there should be about four changes. This prevents activities from becoming boring because they go on too long, and allows some movement. The types of changes can include:

- Changing the type of activity, for example, from observing to sharing evaluations of the observation, from brainstorming to ranking.
- Changing group size, for example, from whole group to individual to pair.
- Changing the focus of attention, for example by a change of main speaker or from main speaker presentation to individual learners.
- Changing the medium, for example, from listening to speaking to writing.

For example, in a workshop on assessment, the workshop might begin with a short talk. There is then a change to looking at examples and getting participants to comment on them. The next change may be back to the speaker again, and from there to pair work.

Topic-240: Procedures and Activities for Reaching the Goals

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Ellis (1986) distinguishes between experiential practices for teacher training and awareness-raising practices for teacher training. Experiential practices involve actual teaching, either real or simulated. Awareness-raising practices involve conscious understanding of principles, techniques and issues. The goals of gaining teaching experience and developing a conscious awareness of teaching options can be achieved in the same teacher training activity.

Awareness-raising practices involve choosing from each of three ranges of options:

- The input data that participants can work on: Ellis (1986) suggests video or audio recordings of lessons, transcripts of lessons, teaching – classroom, peer, or micro-teaching – readings particularly journal articles, ELT textbooks and materials, lesson plans, case studies, samples of students' written work.
- The tasks or operations that the participants perform on the data: Ellis's list includes tasks like comparing ("Look at the two lesson plans provided and decide which one you prefer and why"), and preparing ("Prepare a marking scheme that you could use to correct the attached samples of students' written work"). Tasks will be looked at more fully in the following discussion of each of the five goals.
- The workshop procedures that are used to get the participants performing the tasks on the input data: Ellis' list includes lectures, group/ pair discussion, individual work, demonstrations, class discussions and materials making activity.

Topic-241: Understanding and Remembering Ideas

This goal differs from the other four goals in that it does not directly resemble a skill that a teacher makes use of. Teachers have to present material (represented by the goal of experiencing), make teaching material (the making goal), plan units of work (the planning goal), and deal with course and classroom problems (the problem-solving goal). Understanding and remembering ideas enable these other four goals, but the immediate result of the understanding goal is a better-informed teacher rather than a better performing teacher. For this reason, the understanding goal is often the goal of the first part of a workshop. Understanding can lead to better-informed experiencing, making, planning or problem solving. Experiencing, making, planning and problem solving can also lead to understanding, usually with the aim of better understanding leading to better future presenting, making, planning and problem solving.

Understanding is listed as a separate goal for workshops because in some workshops it is the only immediate goal. If this is the case, the workshop organizer may wish to consider if adding another goal would add to the likelihood of the understanding being later applied to teaching, or if the participants will make that application themselves after the workshop. Lamb (1995), reporting on a follow-up evaluation of a workshop one year after the workshop, points out the weaknesses of workshops that do not take account of the participants' own teaching and how they see their own teaching. Lamb found the following range of effects on the participants a year after the workshop:

- No uptake – most of the information was not remembered.
- Confusion – information incompletely and inadequately remembered.
- Mislabelling – a term introduced during the workshop was used to incorrectly label their usual practice.

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- Appropriation – an idea from the course was used to justify a change that was not anticipated by the course tutors.
- Assimilation – techniques were incorporated into the participants' teaching without really understanding the rationale for them. These were usually just "a slight elaboration of [an] existing routine".
- Adaptation and rejection – suggestions were tried but rejected because the suggestions did not solve the problems the participants were most concerned with. The problems that the participants wanted to solve were different from those envisaged by the workshop tutors.
- Engagement – participants "engage with new ideas and gradually accommodate them within their own belief structures by making adjustments in their own thinking".

Lamb's (1995) main point is that the main focus of short in-service workshops should be the teachers' beliefs themselves. Once these are understood both by the tutors and participants then the participants will be more likely to accommodate the new ideas encountered in the workshop.

Lamb's study can be interpreted in several complementary ways. First, workshops should not just focus on understanding material but need to involve other goals, particularly problem solving and experiencing, to get participants to engage more realistically with the material. Second, understanding is not immediate and there needs to be some written record that participants can later consult to help recall ideas, resolve misunderstandings and deepen their understanding. Third, workshops should set modest and realistic aims. A few good ideas, well worked through, are more valuable than a lot of ideas poorly understood.

The input data (the content) of the understanding component of a workshop can come in several forms:

- Talks and lectures
- Set reading
- Discussions

Topic-242: Experiencing and Evaluating

Often short workshops involve participants being introduced to new techniques and activities. This is also what participants most often expect and want to get. An important way of making a technique part of teaching is to experience the technique in use, both as a learner and as a teacher, and to reflect on this experience. The outcome of this component of a workshop is to get the participants to feel capable of presenting an activity effectively and to be able to judge the qualities of a good presentation of the particular activity. Several things can be done to reduce the threat of such practice presentations during the workshop. Firstly, working with the activity can be termed "experimental" teaching to stress its newness and therefore tolerance of initial problems. At this point a teacher-training principle can be applied, namely, if you want teachers to use the activities you demonstrate for them, you should do a poor demonstration. If you demonstrate the activity well, the participants' response will be, "I couldn't do it that well". If you demonstrate it poorly, they will think "I can do better than that" and then, will do it.

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Secondly, practice can be done in small groups first without the workshop organizer being too closely involved. Edge (1984) suggests that evaluation at the small-group level is also "face saving".

Video may be a useful form of demonstration, particularly where workshop conditions are far removed from classroom conditions. The evaluation aspect of experiencing can be an opportunity for information provided in the understanding component of a workshop to be put to use. The workshop organizer can provide short evaluation checklists, or the participants can design their own and thus deepen their understanding of the activity they observe. After using a checklist on one or more presentations of an activity, participants may wish to revise the checklist to make it more valid and more practical.

Topic-243: Making Material

Often using new activities or procedures will require the teacher to produce material for the activity. This may be because such material at the appropriate level is not commercially available, but also because making material can develop a deeper understanding of an activity. Participants struggling with making activities may also provide feedback to the workshop organizer about where further input and discussion is needed on the focus of the workshop.

When making material, participants should always keep their own learners in mind. This will ensure that the material is appropriate and consistent. At the least, the material which is made is something from the workshop which can be used in class, and at the best a prototype for similar activities.

There are two major approaches to making material. One is perfection through gradual approximation, and the other is perfection through preparation. In perfection through gradual approximation the participants see a model activity and then quickly try to make their own, knowing that it is just the first of several attempts and will need to be improved. They receive feedback from other participants and the workshop organizer and then revise what they made or make another similar activity. The advantages of this approach are:

- There are several opportunities for making.
- Feedback and input are more meaningful once participants have experienced with making the activity.
- Speed at making is an aim, helped by repeated practice.

The disadvantage of this approach is that the first attempt may not be so good. The perfection through preparation approach involves looking at a model, analyzing it, studying the steps involved in making the activity, planning the making, and then making the activity. The advantages of this approach are:

- The first attempt is likely to be reasonably good and usable.
- Theory and practice are more closely related.

The disadvantage of this approach is that the preparation input reduces the time available for the actual making.

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Topic-244: Planning Lessons and Units of Work

Workshops can focus on planning; this involves fitting activities together, so that principles of selection and sequencing are effectively applied. This goal for a workshop is particularly useful when participants have been introduced to a new activity and now have to decide how it can be used in their own teaching. Harmer (1984) describes an interesting activity that can be used to encourage discussion through choosing and sequencing activities in a plan of work. The learners are given a blank timetable and a collection of small cards containing the name of an activity and the time needed to fill the slots on the timetable. The participants work in small groups to fill the timetable. There may be a list of principles that must be followed. Each group has to explain and justify their timetable to others. Input to this component of a workshop may be sample lessons from a course book, participants' descriptions of their own lessons and units of work, and content and sequencing principles. The outcome should be participants who are able to choose activities to meet a particular learning goal, who are able to decide what techniques will be the ones they will use most often in their teaching, and who are able to plan an integrated sequence of work.

Topic-245: Sequencing the Components of a Workshop

Earlier in this lesson it was suggested that workshops should involve several changes in the focus of attention in order to keep participants involved and interested. The kinds and order of the component goals in a workshop should also relate to the way knowledge and understanding can develop.In a study of innovation, found that experiencing, problem solving and making activities were more likely to lead to the adoption of ideas than understanding. Palmer describes a workshop where the most effective sequencing of goals involved participants first experiencing the innovation, second reflecting upon the impact of the innovation on their own teaching (planning), third adapting the innovation to their own circumstances (making), and finally evaluating the innovation in the light of actual experience.A major sequencing decision involves deciding whether input by a speaker should come at the beginning of the workshop or after participants have had a chance to explore their own needs and teaching environment. There is no one correct answer to this. Speaker input can provide a structure and information that may make participants' examination of their experience more revealing. Examining experience and needs first may allow the participants to make more focused and effective use of a visiting speaker and ensure that their needs are met.

Topic-246: Evaluating Workshops

Once a workshop has been planned, and again after it has ended, it is worth reflecting on its planning to see if improvements are possible. Workshops may also be assessed by using the parts of the curriculum design diagram by looking at needs and whether they were met, whether environmental constraints were considered, whether sensible principles were followed, and so on.

Lesson-39

INTEGRATING INTERNET-BASED MATERIALS INTO LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

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Topic-247: Introduction

Whereas many educators enthusiastically embrace the use of Internet-based reading arterials, little theoretical and empirical research exists that demonstrates how to make use of such practices in a sound pedagogical way. This lesson provides guidance to teachers and curriculum developers by describing three approaches to integrating internet-based reading materials into a foreign language curriculum. The design of an Internet-based lesson is largely determined by a teacher's pedagogical approach, her/his technological expertise and the students' language proficiency. In light of these factors, the approach to the pedagogical design of successful lessons falls along a continuum from being teacher-determined or teacher-facilitated to student determined. In more detail, lesson designs may distinguish themselves in the following areas:

- The learning resources, that is, the topics and content, text type
- The scope of the learning environment, that is, the number of different sources (sites or links) to be integrated
- The learning tasks, that is, the ways in which the learners explore the reading materials, synthesize and assimilate what they have learned
- The degree of teacher and learner involvement in determining the areas mentioned above

Topic-248: Developing Internet-Based Lessons: Towards a Sound Pedagogical Rationale and Design

The internet as a resource can enrich and expand language instruction. There are numerous reasons in favor of integrating the Internet into a language curriculum.

Chun and Plass (2000) mention general capabilities of features of the WWW that have the potential to enhance language learning. These are a) the universal availability of authentic materials, b) the communication capabilities through networking, c) the multimedia capabilities, and d) the nonlinear (hypermedia) structure of the information. The most compelling reason is definitely the convenience in accessing and obtaining an endless supply of authentic materials in target languages. The WWW has brought the world to the fingertips of each learner. Applying the WWW to foreign language teaching also provides the opportunity to meet the standards in several ways (Walz, 1998): "Competence in more than one language and culture enables people to gain access to additional bodies of knowledge; … all students learn in a variety of ways and settings; … language and culture education incorporate effective technologies; and using the web is consistent with learning theories about learning to read authentic materials".

As pointed out by the rationale above, there are numerous convincing arguments in favor of integrating Internet-based materials into a foreign language curriculum. At the same time, several arguments can be made that ask for a more cautious approach when using the Internet. The Internet is not an ideal way of delivering instruction, and there are numerous challenges to overcome.

First, there are still many limitations on interactivity and bandwidth. Second, the hyper-linked structure and presentation of information on the Internet may easily cause students to get lost. Third, we have no control over the quality and accuracy of the contents of the information. In other words, the use of the Internet resources completely depends on reader judgment, which presupposes solid language

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proficiency and critical reading skills. Fourth, little theoretical and empirical research actually exists that demonstrates how to make use of Internet-based materials or how to design tasks that allow the learners to explore these materials and yield expected learning outcomes. In the same vein, little is known about students' attitudes towards the integration of Web-based readings in the foreign language curriculum.

Topic-249: Strengths and Challenges in Integrating Internet-Based Materials

Does the design of your reading lesson justify the use of its medium, that is, do the learning tasks take full advantage of the potential of the medium?

Needless to say, asking students to fulfill learning tasks online should entail pedagogical advantages to the learner and the instructor. Otherwise, it may be difficult to justify the development time and potential challenges that are involved in using this medium. The decision of having student do Internet-based activities should be based on a clear rationale that justifies its use. For example, are students to explore at least two or three different sites and/or multimedia resources? Do students have a choice in selecting the content? If a print out of an internet-based resource can be made and used in the classroom, sending students online may not be the best instructional practice.

Are the reading materials and learning tasks appropriate for the students' level of proficiency?

As Walz (2001) reminds us, "To make the critical reading of authentic texts from the Internet feasible for students at the lower levels of proficiency, independent readings as well as those with pedagogical support must have tasks aimed at the reader's level". As a general guideline, text type, reading tasks and the learner's level of proficiency are criteria that need to be taking into account in the approach to and choice of contents of Internet-based reading resources.

Do the activities engage the learners in real-world and meaningful tasks as well as in a variety of skills (e.g., communicative, reading, cultural explorations, and writing)?

As pointed in Osuna and Meskill's (1998) study, students feel more engaged when the purpose of their tasks simulate real-world tasks. The exploration for any available multimedia resources should also have a purpose and be associated with a meaningful task. For example, instead of having students provide general descriptions of images or photos, asking them to identify specific cultural aspects and compare them to their own cultural background makes a task more purposeful and focused, and thus enhances their awareness and understanding of cultural differences.

How do students demonstrate what they have learned?

There are many instructional practices to assess what students have learned. Traditional examples include true-false types, matching, comprehension questions, filling in charts, summaries, comparisons, reactions to the texts, comments, and so forth. By and large, they depend on the approach, the type of materials and texts, and the students' level of proficiency. Furthermore, as the use of the open-ended structure of the internet lends itself in particular well to make use of authentic exploratory tasks, the students' assessment can be based on the degree and quality of the fulfillment of these tasks. Examples may include a presentation of an end product, such as a report, a description of an itinerary, a food menu, and a prepared meal. The presentations can also be easily integrated into the classroom. In this way, students can

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exchange and compare information with each other, while getting engaged in the application of oral communicative skills. At the same time, this allows the teacher to further clarify or follow up on linguistic and cultural issues.

Are all the instructions clearly stated?

Not only is it easy to get lost, but also stuck in a hypertext environment. This often has to do with lack of instructions or dysfunctional hyperlinks that one encounters when surfing the Internet. Therefore, precise instructions are necessary on how to navigate or what navigational path to take when exploring Internet sites. Ask yourself, when students navigate between sites, do they know what to do and how to return to your home page? Are precise instructions or examples provided, online or on a worksheet, telling students what to do?

Are all the hyperlinks functional?

URL addresses change and sites often disappear. One strategy to guarantee functionality is to thoroughly test your own lesson making sure all URL addresses are correctly stated and the sites and links work when you access them. Another strategy is to provide alternative sites, in case some sites are no longer available.

Topic-250: Instructional Guidelines

Are your students prepared to do project-oriented work?

Provide clear guidelines to your students on the process and nature of project- oriented work. You may allow your students to select their own topic, materials, end product, and form of assessment. This does not mean that the instructor becomes redundant. On the contrary, the teacher plays an important role, that of a guide and coach. At the same time, the students may be required to follow a certain timeline and other stipulations built into the projects. That means, students need to know when it is important to consult with their teacher. They need to have a clear understanding of the procedures and any rules.

Are your students familiar with the process on how to conduct research?

The preparation phase for project learning may also include information on the process of conducting research. As suggested by Gaspar (1998), a useful model to teach might be McKenzie's "Iterative Research Cycle" consisting of questioning, planning, gathering, sifting, synthesizing, and evaluating.

Despite the open-ended nature and student-centered approach, it most likely is necessary to provide examples and models of student projects to demonstrate on how to go about planning and conducting projects that result in entirely different end products.

Do the students know how to search the Internet?

Internet-based project learning involves gathering and identifying information. This requires knowledge about how to use search engines. Most students are familiar with the basics of using Web browser (e.g., Internet Explorer or Netscape) search engines. In the last few years, however, search engines

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have become more sophisticated allowing searches to be specified, for example, based on foreign languages or multimedia contents. Students may require additional training in the use of such features as well as information-seeking skills in general.

Topic-251: What Can the World Wide Web (WWW) Offer ESL Teachers? -I

In recent years, the use of the World Wide Web (WWW) as a resource for language learning materials has gained increasing popularity among language teachers. As the Internet keeps expanding, list serves, newsletters, and even journal articles keep listing and pointing out potential Web sites that can be used in language learning. Furthermore, the literature on Web-based instruction reveals numerous personal accounts, informally collected student surveys, or occasionally some pilot studies on students' experiences using Internet-based resources (Brandl, 2002). What still remain rare, however, are models and guidelines that are based on theoretical or empirical research findings to guide teachers and teacher trainers towards pedagogically sound practices. As Chun and Plass (2000) point out, "the use of networked environment for learning in general, and for second language acquisition in particular, raises many questions regarding the design of these environments that differ from the traditional design of text-based and stand-alone systems" .

Our focus is on the exploration of authentic materials as available on the WWW in primary visual and verbal/textual modes. We will concentrate on the interpretive mode of communication, or reading skills, as this is, besides writing, currently one of the two best suited to the Web. In particular three different approaches will present to using Internet-based resources, discuss the rationale for each design based on empirical and theoretical research, and furthermore include a short description of technological skills involved.

Topic-252: What Can WWW Offer ESL Teachers? -II

In order to understand the idea of the World Wide Web for ESL teachers, let's take the example of Li and Hart who introduced a magazine named "Exchange". This magazine offered the platform to both, the teacher and the students, and this platform offered to exchange views through discussion board. This magazine was initiated with the notion to develop writing skills of the students. Students were given the task to write something for the magazine and contribute their efforts. By coming across other writing samples, students developed e-writing skills. This magazine also offered cultural awareness by exchanging students' writings. It is observed that just by introducing an e-magazine, they have incorporated a wide range of students who have different demographic background. So teachers who are teaching English can use various technologies and experiment with the internet.

Topic-253: Advantages of Electronic Medium Over Print

In recent years, it is observed that internet has more advantages over print medium. Internet based language learning (IBLL) is one of the most innovative domains in English language teaching. Electronic books can be useful and handy in terms of language learning. Internet based language learning can engage students in various ways where they can improve their communication via emails and writing blogs. It promotes language learning autonomy among students and transforms passive learning into active learning. E-materials help students to involve into more engaged learning experience.

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It also helps students to engage in collaborative and team work. It is also a retrievable mode for students' feedback and it is a very positive forum for shy and passive students to learn trough fast communication.

Topic-254: Templates for Interactive Exercises

There are various strategies that can be used by English language teachers to incorporate internet in students' learning. Teachers can make their students learn all four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing practice) through various templates. Internet based language learning templates vary in nature and depend upon the discretion of the individual language teacher. For interactive language teaching, we have one template of video conferencing through which we can expose our learners to native speaking style. Language learning can also develop through digital text, where we have digital version of printed books. Students can even listen to these books and improve their listening skills as well as enhance their reading skills. Talking texts can enhance the listening proficiency of a listener. Students can pay attention to the intonation pattern of the text. It is completely based on the teacher that how s/he wants to incorporate all these tools in language learning classroom, but as the world is virtually growing, it is becoming a more effective tool for fast learning.

Lesson-40

CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN PAKISTAN

Topics-255: Background to English Language Curriculum Policies in Pakistan

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The curriculum is supposed to present a blueprint of what is to be taught and has to be followed by schools as general guidelines. In Pakistan, theoretically the public schools follow the national curriculum, while the private schools are free to either adopt the national document or devise their own curricula. In addition, individual schools are expected to follow specific syllabi.

The textbooks are presumed to be based on the relevant subject curriculum/syllabus. Thus this lesson critically discusses the older and latest versions of the national English language curriculum (2002 and 2006) as well as the different English syllabi and other related documents being used in the schools.

Topic-256: Evaluation of the Pakistani National English Language Curriculum 2006: Grades I-XII -I

The *National Curriculum for English Language: Grades I – XII* (2006), the latest curriculum, has just (2010 –) become operational. It is much more comprehensive than the older document. At present most of the prescribed textbooks are based on the 2002 curriculum. Yet constructive recommendations can only be proposed after thoroughly examining the future direction that is envisaged for the teaching of English in Pakistan.

The document commences with a discussion of the importance of English in the context of Pakistan, thus, presenting the rationale behind introducing English as a medium of instruction across the board in the country. It is maintained that Pakistani students should be exposed to the language from the earlier years.

In the current scenario, English is the language of international communication, higher learning and better career options. It should, therefore, reach the masses so that there is no discrimination amongst the rich and poor in Pakistan in terms of opportunities for personal, professional and economic development. With this perspective, teaching of English has been introduced as a language from grade one and would be used as a medium of instruction across the curriculum for various subjects (2006).

However, no attempt has been made to examine the patterns of use of English in the country and as in other documents we come across general and imprecise phrases like “higher learning” and “better career options”. After all, this shortcoming in a curriculum which is supposed to streamline the learning outcomes in accordance with the future needs of typical Pakistani learners implies an ad-hoc approach towards curriculum development on the part of the planners.

The curriculum is designed particularly to promote the academic and employment language needs for learners who wish to pursue their higher studies, as well as, for those who might terminate education after grade XII. Consequently, it aims to offer academic and practical skills that learners can use to complete their studies or build their careers after graduating from school (2006).

Topic-257: Evaluation of the Pakistani National English Language Curriculum 2006: Grades I-XII-II

The curriculum has a ‘product dimension’ approach which makes use of both ‘knowledge based’ and ‘skills based’ objectives. These objectives are broadly discussed in terms of competencies which are further classified into standards. The standards are composed of benchmarks which are to be attained in

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different developmental levels – grades I – II, grades III – V, grades VI – VIII, grades IX – X, and grades XI – XII. Finally the benchmarks are specified into student learning objectives which are to be achieved grade vise. The document goes on to list the competencies, standards, benchmarks and student learning outcomes. In addition, a few extracts of the curriculum depicting the 'learning outcomes' related to a few 'standards' earmarked for Grades VI, VII and VIII are included in Appendix VII below.

The curriculum follows both 'language use' and 'language analysis' approaches focusing on language skills as well as grammar. It deals with all four skills, though emphasizing reading and writing skills. The skills are dealt separately; nonetheless, integration of skills is prescribed. In the same way, the document reflects mainly a 'discrete' viewpoint, though asserting that all the isolated elements should be taught in an integrated manner.

In addition, it stresses both accuracy and fluency. Thus, though the focus is on structure especially when dealing with the formal and lexical aspects of language, the roles of some grammatical items are also emphasized. In the same way, functions are mentioned mainly in the context of the oral skills.

Topic-258: Evaluation of the Pakistani National English Language Curriculum 2006: Grades I-XII-III

Textbooks play an important role in the Pakistani educational scenario as admitted in the curriculum: A textbook remains one of the most extensively used resources in Pakistani classrooms as learning materials are not easily available in some teaching-learning contexts. (2006)

However, in future it is proposed that the textbook "will not be the only resource used for assessment" (2006). Instead, it will be "a contributing resource for acquisition of the SLOs given in this document". The details and specifics of this new role are not highlighted in this document. Instead it is only suggested that the English teachers should not "passively" teach the textbooks, rather they should "adapt and supplement the existing material with their own teaching materials and classroom activities" [own emphasis] (2006). This suggestion indicates the necessity of training the English teachers to prepare their own materials. The curriculum also provides guidelines about preparing textbooks. The writers are advised to familiarize themselves with the various aspects of the curriculum and base each unit of the book on the relevant student learning outcomes. It is commendable that the course books are to be centered on the curriculum, rather than vice versa. Nevertheless, the materials writers could have been given some kind of freedom and discretionary powers as far as the selection of content and themes is concerned.

Topic-259: Evaluation of the Pakistani National English Language Curriculum 2006: Grades I-XII-IV

Overall, the curriculum appears to cater to the future academic and professional needs of the learners. First of all, it focuses on all aspects of language – structure, phonology, lexis, discourse and the four skills. Moreover, it suggests the use of a variety of activities and texts and introduces the concept of purposeful reading and writing. It also deals with the functional aspect of oral interaction and aims to provide practice in oral activities which the students may be required to undertake beyond the classrooms, like interviews and presentations.

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However, some important aspects of language learning are ignored. For instance, there is no mention of listening comprehension activities. After all, listening to announcements (like at airports), lectures, and television/radio programmes are assumed to play a role in the normal life of Pakistanis and all these require training in the use of special strategies. In addition, there seems to be a covert emphasis on reading and writing skills, whereas the data obtained during the first stage of the present research has shown that the use of oral English skills is necessary in the Pakistani job market – efficient conversational ability is the most important skill in high level jobs; and moreover, fluent spoken English was a requirement in 43% of the job advertisements that cite good English as criteria for recruitment. Finally half of the suggested themes (about 50%) recommended in the document are of a didactic nature like ethical values, peace/environment/population education, gender equality, and dignity of labor and may not cater to a wide variety of tastes.

In the same way, the stress at lower grade level is pre-dominantly on Pakistan as far as the cultural content is concerned, based on the premise that younger children have no interest in reading about other countries. If a comprehensive 'needs analysis' or fact- finding survey had preceded the preparation of the curriculum, these weaknesses could have been minimized [see section

Topic-260: Review of the Reading Goals in the National Curriculum of English Language in Pakistan

Though the National Curriculum of English Language NCEL specifies criteria for the achievement of skills in reading, writing, speaking, listening and English grammar, this topic particularly focuses on the reading skills and critical thinking for two reasons. First, reading skills are hugely emphasized in Pakistani main stream educational system. Students are encouraged to read and produce writing based on their reading experience. Therefore, reading becomes a vital skill in the learning process and students hugely depend on this skill to grasp the learning materials. Secondly, though situation has changed in private educational institutes, Pakistani mainstream educational system still severely lacks critical thinking because of conservative teaching and learning methodologies in classroom. Asghar and Al-Bargi (2014) highlight that in order to bring a sense of learning ownership and to encourage autonomous learning, critical thinking skills are essential at tertiary level. Therefore, it is particularly significant to evaluate the skills of reading which seem to have a pivotal role in the learning process in the context of Pakistani educational system.

The NCEL under the category of "Reading and Thinking Skills" gives two standards, and each standard is explained through benchmarking and further illustrated through specific examples to measure the targeted skills.

Standard 1

All students will search for, discover and understand a variety of text types through tasks which require multiple reading and thinking strategies for comprehension, fluency and enjoyment.

Benchmark I: Evaluate patterns of text organization, and function of various devices used within and beyond a paragraph in a text.

Benchmark II: Analyze, synthesize and evaluate events, issues, ideas and viewpoints, applying reading comprehension and thinking strategies.

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Benchmark III: Analyze and synthesize information from a visual cue or a graphic organizer to summarize while highlighting the key areas and main trends.

Benchmark IV: Gather, analyze, evaluate and synthesize information to use for variety of purposes including a research project using various aids and study skills.

Standard 2

All students will read and analyze literary text to seek information, ideas, enjoyment, and to relate their own experiences to those of common humanity as depicted in literature.

Benchmark I: Analyze and evaluate short stories, poems, essays and one-act plays; relate how texts affect their lives and connect the texts to contemporary / historical ideas and issues across cultures.

The Standard 1 involves linguistic and conceptual purposes that might be interpreted as what Wallace (2003) calls critical purposes of reading, whereas Standard 2 is more related to the cultural purpose of the texts. Within each standard, these purposes are mingled and cannot be neatly distinguished from each other which might not be possible even in a purely critically designed course either.

In order to raise awareness about globalization and multiculturalism, the NCEL describes the learning objective that "all students will develop ethical and social or attributes and values relevant in a multicultural, civilized society". The NCEL emphasizes that the syllabus should allow learners to "analyze and evaluate short stories, poems, essays and one-act plays; relate how texts affect their lives and connect the texts to contemporary and historical ideas /issues across cultures".

However, Asghar (2013) notes that due to a number of reasons ranging from the classroom situations to the development of the curriculum, teachers and learners could not achieve the goals set by the NCEL. There might be a number of reasons for this failure. According to the overview of one of the textbooks taught to achieve these goals at this level (Asghar 2013), the texts included in the textbook (2006) do not relate to the immediate situations of learners. Secondly, the language or themes of the certain texts might be above or below the learners' level which means that the teaching and learning strategies need to allow learners to explore the material at a level appropriate to their learning needs as well as to the achievement of the goals set in the NCEL.

In term of developing specific competence as learning outcome of this textbook, the document enlists five levels of competence in addition to benchmarking the objectives and specifying the goals for each of these competencies:

Topic-261: Critical Analysis of English Language Curriculum, Textbooks and Materials Design: Pakistan

Above all, the curriculum seems too prescriptive and limiting. It has all the weaknesses inherent in a 'production' oriented educational document. While the regulatory list of outcomes to be attained can help the materials writers prepare textbooks with a ready set of elements relevant for each level, there could have been scope for choice keeping in view that both the stakeholders – the teachers and learners – can have varied needs and interests. The document also does not take into account the teachers' differing teaching

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techniques and diverse beliefs about language and learning. Finally, it is important to point out that it is not possible to prescribe exactly which elements/concepts/skills can be acquired at each developmental stage, age or grade. Thus, expecting the learners to attain even most of the learning outcomes at the end of each grade seems an idealistic scenario.

Lesson-41

TEACHING AND CURRICULUM DESIGN

Topic-262: Introduction

The whole curriculum design process can be applied to something as small as an activity in a lesson. Alternatively, attention can be focused on just one part of the curriculum design process. It should be clear from this that curriculum design is not the exclusive possession of full-time curriculum designers. Teachers need to make decisions relating to curriculum design in every lesson:

- Is this item worth spending time on?

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- How will I present this material?
- What should I test?

These questions require curriculum design decisions and teachers need to develop an awareness of the parts of the curriculum design process, the range of options that are available, and the principles that can guide the application of the process and the choice of options.

As a way of reviewing the model of curriculum design described in this book, we will look at how the parts of the curriculum design model apply to the daily work of teachers in language classes. The reason for doing this is to show that even decisions which just relate to part of a lesson could be improved by an understanding of the wider curriculum design process.

Topic-263: Needs Analysis

One of the most common problems in teaching is suiting the activities and material in lessons to a class with a wide range of proficiency. Every day teachers have to consider questions like the following:

- Is this material too difficult for my learners?
- Is there something new for my learners to learn in this activity?
- Will everyone in the class be able to cope with this activity?

All of these questions relate to needs analysis. Needs analysis involves looking at what the learners know now, what they need to know by the end of the course, and what they want to know? It has been suggested several times in this book that doing needs analysis is like doing research or assessment. Because of this, good needs analysis is reliable, valid and practical. Teachers themselves are very good sources of needs analysis information because they typically know their learners well, have seen them perform various tasks and have seen the results of those tasks. Teachers' intuitions can be reliable, valid and practical. It is always good in research and in needs analysis however to draw on more than one source of information.

There are now many web-based tools that can be used in needs analysis. It is now possible to run texts through a vocabulary-level checker to see what the vocabulary load is going to be. A very good example of this can be found on Tom Cobb's website (www.lextutor.ca); on the same website there are various tests that can be used to measure where learners are in their vocabulary knowledge.

It is important that teachers keep checking their own intuitions of learners' language knowledge against the results of tests and careful observation of the learners using language.

Topic-264: Principles

Every day teachers have to consider questions like the following:

- Will this be a good activity for my learners?
- Are my learners doing enough reading?
- Is it good to get learners to memorise words and phrases?
- Should I do the same activity again?

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- Should my learners be doing homework?

All of these questions can be answered by looking at principles of teaching and learning. Information about teaching and learning can come from research, but such information can also come from teachers' experience and observation of teaching and learning. It is always good to check these two sources against each other. On some occasions, what seems to be good teaching practice may actually have a negative effect on learning. The research on interference (Nation, 2000) is a good example of this. Teaching a group of closely related words together actually makes learning 50 per cent to 100 per cent more difficult, even though intuitively we feel that is a good idea to bring similar items together. On the other hand, teachers' intuitions about the importance of repetition and meaningful input are well supported by research.

Part of the professional development of teachers involves keeping up with current research findings. It is thus useful for teachers to attend conferences, take part in workshops, and be familiar with at least one professional journal. There are now several very good professional journals that are available free on the web. You can find links on this web site: http://iteslj.org/links/ TESL/Journals_on_the_Web/.

Topic-265: Goals

Not all teachers set language learning goals for the activities they use in class. Beginner teachers are primarily concerned with making sure that the learners have something to do and that they are happy while doing it. It is a brave teacher who asks, is this activity resulting in any useful learning?

Technique analysis and the detailed investigation of particular techniques are largely neglected research areas. It is likely however, that these areas will gain more attention as interest in task-based syllabuses grows. The setting of performance objectives was also a move in the direction of technique analysis, but was largely concerned with the product rather than the process which achieved that product.

Technique analysis draws strongly on the application of principles of teaching and learning. One possible model of technique analysis involves looking at the learning goals of a particular technique and activity, the mental conditions which are needed to achieve these goals (this is where principles of learning and teaching most apply), the observable signs that these mental conditions might be occurring, and the design features of the technique which set up these mental conditions (Nation, 2001: Chapter 3).

Here is a brief technique analysis of the very common technique of getting learners to answer comprehension questions after they have read a text. The activity is seen as having two learning goals. In technique analysis, each goal should be analyzed separately, and this is done by providing a separate row for each goal in the table. The first goal and the conditions for reaching that goal are the same. Comprehension is a mental condition. Not all questions are good comprehension questions, and so to reach the goal of good comprehension the questions should ask for the kind of knowledge which can reasonably be expected from the reading of a text. The degree to which the questions match the text in terms of order and the language involved in the questions and answers will affect the difficulty of the questions.

Comprehension questions may also have the goal of helping learners learn language items which were previously unknown or only partly known. This can occur through learning from comprehensible

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input, or through having to produce the items in the answers. If the questions require the learners to think about the information in the text in relation to other information, then this could encourage productive generative use of the language items in the answers to the questions. If the questions contain the target items and the questions are not an exact copy of the wording in the text, then this provides receptive generative use of the target items for the learners.

It is important in doing such technique analysis, that each goal is related to its own conditions and signs, and these conditions are related to the design features of the technique. This is because features, conditions and goals are in a causative sequence. That is, the design of the technique sets up certain conditions which encourage the learners to reach certain learning goals.

Goals are represented in the small inner circle of the curriculum design diagram. This is because the whole purpose of the language course is centered around what the learners need to learn. Goals are central to any curriculum design.

Topic-266: Content and Sequencing

Every day teachers have to consider questions like the following:

- What reading passage will I use?
- What vocabulary will I get the learners to focus on in this activity?
- Which items shall I use for the blanks in the blank-filling activity I'm making?
- How can I repeat the language items which were used in the previous lessons?
- What topics should I get the learners to talk about in my discussion activities?

All of these questions relate to content and sequencing because they focus on what will be in the course and the order in which it will occur. The choice of a reading passage involves two kinds of content – the topic of the passage and the language items which occur in the passage. These two kinds of content are related, but one of the big problems teachers face in any lesson is to give attention to language features which are important beyond that lesson. The immediate attraction in a particular reading passage is the vocabulary which is very closely related to the topic. This vocabulary, however, tends to be vocabulary that is not very useful beyond that topic or closely related topics. A very useful question that the teacher can ask when deciding what language features to focus on in a reading text is: Will these language features help the reading of tomorrow's reading passage? If the answer is no, then the teacher should be focusing on more generally useful items.

The choice of the ideas content of a course can involve the application of several principles. The idea behind content-based instruction is that a course which focuses on a content subject, like mathematics, technology, literature or tourism, can also be a very useful means of language development. There are two major dangers to be aware of in such courses. Firstly, a focus on the content matter is necessarily a message-focused approach to language learning. The focus is on the content matter of the material. It is important in such courses that language-focused learning is not neglected. That is, there should be some deliberate focus on language features in such courses (Langman, 2003). Language-focused learning has a very important role to play in any language course. Secondly, a focus on a particular subject area can mean that more

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generally useful language items might not be met often in the course. Content-based instruction, however, can be a very effective way of improving content matter knowledge and language proficiency.

Some courses follow themes as a way of dealing with the ideas content of the course. The positive feature of themes is that a continuing theme can provide opportunities for the same language features to be recycled and thus better learnt. Some courses jump from one topic to another with no particular connection between them, except perhaps the desire to capture the interest of the learners. Keeping the learners interested is a very important principle in language teaching. However, using a wide variety of topics inevitably results in a very large amount of different vocabulary occurring, often with little repetition. Teachers, however, can deal with this issue if they are aware of it.

As indicated above, it is no longer difficult for teachers to keep track of important vocabulary in lessons. Vocabulary profile checkers such as those on Tom Cobb's website make this task very straightforward.

Topic-267: Format and Presentation

Format and presentation decisions are among the most common ones made by a teacher. Every day teachers have to consider questions like the following:

- What activities will I get the learners to do today?
- Shall I get the learners to do this activity individually or in pairs or groups?
- Should I pre-teach these items before the learners meet them in the reading passage?
- Shall I write this on the blackboard?
- Should I have a pre-reading discussion or should I get the learners to talk about the text after the reading?
- Have can I get a good balance of activities in this lesson?

All of these questions relate to format and presentation, because they involve what the learners do in the lesson and the order in which they do these things in the lesson. It is not too difficult to see how format and presentation decisions are influenced by principles, needs analysis and environment analysis. The choice of a particular technique or activity can bring certain learning principles into play.

- Does the technique provide an opportunity for retrieval?
- Does the technique avoid interference between the items in the activity?
- Does the technique provide an opportunity for fluency development or meaning-focused input?

The choice of an activity also depends on environment analysis factors.

- Does the physical arrangement of the classroom make it easy to do group work?
- Is there enough time to complete the activity?
- Are the learners well-behaved enough to be able to work quietly and independently?
- Have the learners done this activity before or will they need to be taught how to do the activity properly?

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Most teachers will make these decisions intuitively. However, if the technique or activity is unsuccessful, it is always worthwhile looking at the environment factors to see if changes can be made so that the activity will work well. For example, group work might not be successful simply because the learners are not sitting in a good group work arrangement. Changing the seating arrangement could make the activity successful. Similarly, pair work may be unsuccessful because learners are not working with an appropriate partner. Changing the way the learners form pairs could make the activity successful. Some activities may be seen by the learners to be too much like a game and not serious enough to be considered as opportunities for learning.

The choice of an activity also depends on needs analysis factors. Some activities may be asking the learners to do things they are not yet able to do. Some activities may be too easy. Fluency development activities should involve easy material that the learners are already familiar with. This means of course that learners either have to be aware of why they are doing the activity, or there is some other challenge to the activity such as an increase in speed which adds an element of difficulty to it. For each of the four strands of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning and fluency development, there is a proficiency condition which must be met in order for that strand to truly exist. Meeting this proficiency condition involves decisions which relate to needs analysis.

Topic-268: Monitoring and Assessment

Every day teachers have to consider questions like the following:

- Is this activity going well?
- Are all the learners participating in the activity?
- Are some learners doing more work than others?
- Have the learners learnt anything from this activity?
- Should I give the learners a test to encourage them to keep on learning?

All of these questions relate to monitoring and assessment, because they involve the teacher looking carefully at what learners are actually doing and they may involve the teacher in some kind of testing or measurement. Monitoring probably plays a much bigger role in most courses than assessment does. Monitoring occurs whenever the teacher observes what the learners are doing or what they have done in order to see if things are going as they should. This happens many times in any lesson and can take many forms. Most monitoring is informal and does not involve testing. Teachers often develop a feel for what is going well. It is always good to check this with some guided or focused observation. This guidance can occur in the form of a question, for example, “Is each learner taking a turn in the activity? How many times were the target words repeated by the learners in the activity? Are all the learners completing the activity?” Teachers need to remember that assessment can be done for many different purposes. It can be used to encourage learning, to find areas of difficulty, to place the learners in the right group or class, to measure learning from the course, or to measure how much their language proficiency has improved.

Topic-269: Evaluation

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Every day teachers have to consider questions like the following:

- Is the course going well?
- Are the learners happy with the course?
- Am I happy with the course?
- Would other teachers think that my course is a good course?
- Can I see ways in which I can improve the course?
- Did today's lesson go well?
- Will I get through the course book by the end of the course?

All of these questions relate to evaluation because they involve making a judgement on whether the course or some aspect of it is good or not. In the curriculum design diagram, evaluation is a large circle which includes all of the parts of the curriculum design process. This is because evaluation is very wide-ranging and can focus on any aspect of curriculum design. Like needs analysis, evaluation is a kind of research. Typically, it involves asking a question about the course, and then deciding what will be the most valid and reliable way of answering this question. Practicality can come into this decision, but reliability and validity must be given prominence in deciding the means of evaluation. If we are not really answering the question (validity), or are answering it in ways which would give us a different result tomorrow from what it does today (reliability), we are wasting our time.

By far, most evaluation of courses is done by the teacher and by the learners, often independently of each other. Learners have opinions about the courses they follow, and teachers similarly have opinions. These opinions are important because they involve people closely related to the course. However, it is always useful to check these opinions against more independent measures. Very enjoyable courses may be achieving very little in terms of language development. Courses that students complain about with heavy workloads and demanding tasks may be achieving a lot. Or they may not.

When a teacher says that a course is going well, this is useful, but not very convincing, evidence for outsiders. Having some measurable form of evaluation may be more convincing. It is always useful for teachers to keep records of learners' performance, and where possible to include some formal evaluation at various times in their courses. This evaluation can consist of brief questionnaires, examples of students' work, records of improvement such as speed-reading graphs or writing graphs, and the amount of work completed such as the amount of extensive reading that the students have done.It is a useful professional development exercise for teachers to evaluate their language course using some principles of language teaching. That is, for each principle, the teacher describes how it is being implemented in their course. For example, "Is the course providing a balance of opportunities for learning across the four strands? Is the teacher providing opportunities for repetition? Is the learners' progress being monitored? Are the learners being helped to become independent learners?"

The study of curriculum design requires the integration of knowledge from a number of fields. First, curriculum design for language teaching is part of the wider field of curriculum design in education.

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Much of the research and theory drawn on in this book has its roots in this larger field. Second, curriculum design inevitably involves assessment and evaluation and these are both part of a wider field, and represent rapidly growing areas of knowledge in second-language teaching. Third, curriculum design involves the consideration of learning and teaching and the principles that guide those activities. Fourth, curriculum design involves teacher training, innovation and the continuing development of teachers.

Topic-270: Curriculum Design and Learner Autonomy

Language courses typically involve learners in activities that are set up by the course book and teacher and that often involve working with other learners. Crabbe (1993) points out that these "public domain" activities usually do not prepare learners for "private domain" learning, that is, the learners studying alone or taking responsibility for their own learning. Crabbe suggests two major ways in which learners can be encouraged to take this responsibility – through classroom discussion about learning tasks (their goals, why they are done in certain ways, signs of learning, necessary conditions for learning, etc.), and through the use of tasks that model the sorts of things that learners could usefully do alone or without the need for teacher guidance (Cotterall, 1995). Such tasks could include fluency development repetition activities like 4/3/2 (Nation, 1989), and ask and answer (Simcock, 1993), that learners can use alone or with a friend and where progress is easily observable, reading for pleasure, self-directed vocabulary learning using cards (Nation, 2001), and notetaking from written and spoken text.

If course books are truly to help learners, they need to show the learner how to use the book to its best advantage and how to continue to learn beyond the book. Encouraging learner autonomy is thus an important goal in curriculum design.We have now reached the end of our description of language curriculum design. As a result of reading this book you should now be familiar with an easily remembered model of curriculum design, and should be aware of the ways that the parts of the curriculum design process can affect common classroom issues. Because of the size of the field of curriculum design, and because of the very practical aims of this book, it has been possible to only touch on most of the important aspects of curriculum design. The knowledge of the curriculum design process that has been gained from this text should allow teachers to read more widely in the field with an informed and critical eye.

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