NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

COURSE CODE: EDU 931

COURSE TITLE: ADVANCED CURRICULUM THEORY

COURSE GUIDE

EDU 931
ADVANCED CURRICULUM THEORY

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CONTENTS **PAGE**

INTRODUCTION

Welcome to *EDU931: Advance Curriculum Theory* which is a three-credit unit course offered to doctoral students in Education. There are 21 study units in this course. The prerequisite for studying this course is *EDU 721*. It has been developed with appropriate examples in education suitable for education students.

This course is for distance learners enrolled in the Ph.D. programme in Education of the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). This guide is one of the several resource tools available to help you successfully complete this course and ultimately your programme

In this guide, you will find very useful information about this course objectives, what the course is about, what course materials you will be using, available services to support your learning, and information on assignments and examination. It also offers you guidelines on how to plan your time for study, the amount of time you are likely to spend on each study unit and your tutor-marked assignment.

I strongly recommend that you go through this course guide and complete the feedback form at the end before you begin your study of the course. The feedback form must be submitted to your tutorial facilitator along with your first assignment. This guide also provides answers to several of your questions. However, do not hesitate to contact your study centre if you have further questions.

I wish you all the best in your learning experience and successful completion of this course.

COURSE AIMS

This course is aimed to further review theories and models of curriculum planning, design, change and innovation, implementation and classroom instruction and learning.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

There are objectives to be achieved in each study units of this course. You should read them carefully before studying each unit. On completion of this course you should be able to:

- Explain models of curriculum planning
- Describe the characteristics and design of curriculum innovations
- List the characteristics of resistors and innovators
- Plan curriculum change

- Discuss models of educational change
- Discuss studies in curriculum implementation
- Identified models and theories of curriculum planning, design and implementation in Nigeria education
- Explain theories of school learning and instruction

COURSE SUMMARY

Module 1 is a review of curriculum conceptions and definitions. It reviews the different definitions and conceptions of curriculum and types of curriculum. Module 2 examines the concepts of curriculum theory. It examines the meaning, definitions, characteristics and types of curriculum theory. Module 3 deals with specific theories and models of curriculum planning. Module 4 deals with specific theories and models of curriculum designs. Module 5 explores the specific theories and models of curriculum changes and innovations. Module 6 is on studies of curriculum implementation while Module 7 considers models of school learning and theories of instruction. There are twenty-one Study Units in this course. Each study unit consists of one week's work and should take you about three hours to complete. It includes specific objectives, guidance for study, reading materials and self assessment exercises. Together with Tutor-marked assignments, these exercises will assist you in achieving the stated learning objectives of the individual study units of the course.

STUDY PLAN

The table below is a presentation of the course and how long it should take you to complete each study unit and the accompanying assignments.

Unit	Title of Study Unit	Weeks/ Activity	Assignment
	Course Guide	1	Course Guide Form
Module 1: Reviews of Curriculum Conceptions and Definitions			
1	Views, Meanings and Definitions of Curriculum	2	Assignment
2	Types of Curricula	3	Assignment
3	The Scope of Curriculum Studies	4	TMA 1 to be submitted
Module 2: An Overview of the Concept of Curriculum Theory			
1	Meanings, Definitions and Characteristics of Curriculum Theory	5	Assignment
2	Types and Views of Curriculum Theory	6	Assignment

3	Knowledge and the Curriculum	7	TMA 2 to be submitted
Module 3: Theories and Models of Curriculum Planning			
1	Overview of Curriculum Planning	8	Assignment
2	Models of Curriculum Planning	9	Assignment
3	Aims and Objectives	10	TMA 3 to be submitted
Module 4: Theories and Models of Curriculum Design			
1	Over View of Curriculum Design	11	Assignment
2	Models of Curriculum Design	12	Assignment
3	Designer / Process of the Curriculum	13	TMA 4 to be submitted
Module 5: Theories and Models of Curriculum Change and Innovation			
1	Overview of Meaning and Conception	14	Assignment
2	Models of Change and Innovation	15	Assignment
3	Theory of Diffusion and Models of Dissemination of Curriculum Change and Innovations	16	TMA 5 to be submitted
Module 6: Studies in Curriculum Implementation			
1	Conceptions of Curriculum Implementation	17	Assignment
2	Implementation of 6-3-3-4 Curriculum in Nigeria	18	Assignment
3	Model for Fidelity of Implementation	19	TMA 6 to be submitted
Module 7: Models of School Learning and Theories of Instruction			
1	Overview of Learning and Instruction	20	Assignment
2	Theories of Instruction	21	Assignment
3	Models of School Learning	22	TMA 7 to be submitted

* Now use this overview to plan your personal timetable.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Your course material is the main text for this course. However, you are encouraged to consult other sources as provided for you in the list of references and further reading below:

Kelly, A. V. (2004) *The Curriculum – Theory and Practice (fifth Edition),* London: Sage Publications.

Urevbu, A. (2001), *Curriculum Studies* Lagos/London: Juland Publishers.

http://www.educacao.pro.br/nietzsche.htm
http://www.educacao.pro.br/nietzscheenglish.htm
http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/james.html
http://coehp.idbsu.edu/FACHTMLS/cohort3/vygotsky.htm
http://www.j51.com/~tatyana/Vygotsky_Appr.htm
http://www.coe.uh.edu/~smehall/theory/social.html
http://www.siu.edu/~deweyctr/index2.html
http://edweb.gsn.org/constructivism.dewey.html
http://nosferatu.cas.usf.edu/~dlewis/publications/tyler.htm
http://wredu.com/~wriles/Tyler.html
http://www.time.com/time/time100/scientist/profile/piaget.html
http://www.massey.ac.nz/~ALock/virtual/colevyg.htm
http://nlu.nl.edu/ace/Resources/Documents/FreireIssues.html
http://www.michigan.gov/greatstart/0,1607,7-197-27385-83422--,00.html
http://www.learningandteaching.info/teaching/objectives.htm
http://www.ncgia.ucsb.edu/giscc/units/u159/u159.html
http://www.ncgia.ucsb.edu/education/curricula/giscc/units/format/outcomes.html
http://courses.ed.asu.edu/berliner/readings/fuss/fuss.htm
http://www.successforall.net/resource/research/modeleffect.htm

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

In distance learning, the study units replace the university lectures. The advantage is that you can read and work through the course materials at your pace, and at a time and place that suits you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to a lecturer. Just as a lecturer might give you in-class exercise, your study units provide exercises for you to do at appropriate times.

Each of the study units has common features which are designed to aid your learning. The first feature is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit and how a particular unit is integrated with other units and the course as a whole. Next is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit. You should use these objectives to guide your study.

These exercises are designed to help you recall what you have studied and to evaluate your learning by yourself. You should do each Self-Assessment Exercise as you come to it in the study unit. The summary at the end of each unit also helps you to recall all the main topics discussed in the main content of each unit. There are also tutor-marked questions at the end of each unit. Working on these questions will help you to achieve the objectives of the unit and prepare you for the assignments which you will submit and the final examination.

It should take you about three hours to complete a study unit, the exercises and assignments. When you have completed the first study unit take note of how long it took you and use this information to draw up a timetable to guide your study for the rest of the course. The wide margins on the left and right side of the pages of your course book are meant for you to make notes of main ideas or key points which you can use when revising the course. If you make use of all these features, you will significantly increase your chances of passing the course.

COURSE DELIVERY

As an open and distance learner, you learn through several ways. You learn when you interact with the content in your course material in the same way as a student interacts with the teacher in a conventional institution. You also learn when you are guided through the course; however you are not taught the course. Instead, your course material is your teacher, and as such you will not be able to get answers to any questions which may arise from your study of the material. It is for this reason that, in addition to the course material which you have received, the delivery of this course is supported by tutorial, facilitation, and counseling support services. Although these services are not compulsory, you are encouraged to take maximum advantage of them.

TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

The total number of tutorial hours for this course is 8 hours. Tutorial sessions form a part of your learning process as you have an opportunity to receive face-to-face contact with your tutorial facilitator and to receive answers to questions or clarifications which you may not have. Also you may contact your tutorial facilitator by phone, email or mail.

On your part, you will be expected to prepare ahead of time by studying the relevant Study Units, write your questions so as to gain maximum benefit from tutorial sessions. Information about the location and time schedule for facilitation will be available at your study centre.

Tutorial sessions are a flexible arrangement between you and your tutorial facilitator. You will need to contact your study centre to arrange the time schedule for the sessions. You will also need to obtain your tutorial facilitator's phone number and email address.

Tutorial sessions are optional. However, the benefits of participating in them provide you a forum for interaction and peer group discussion which will minimise the isolation you may experience as a distance learner. You seriously need this interaction for the study of subject such as advanced curriculum theory.

FACILITATION

Facilitation is learning that takes place both within and outside of tutorial sessions. Your tutorial facilitator guides your learning by doing the following:

- provide answers to your questions during tutorial sessions, or phone or by email
- coordinate group discussions
- provide feedback on your assignments
- pose questions to confirm learning outcomes
- coordinate, mark and record your assignment/examination score and
- monitor your progress.

The language of instruction for this course is English. The course material is available in print or CD formats, and also on the university website.

On your part, you will be expected to prepare ahead of time by studying the relevant Study Units, write your questions so as to gain maximum benefit from facilitation.

Information about the location and time schedule for facilitation will be available at your study centre. Time of facilitation is a flexible arrangement between you and your tutorial facilitator. You should contact your tutorial facilitator if:

- you do not understand any part of the study units
- you have difficulty with the Self-Assessment Exercises
- you have a question or a problem with an assignment, with your tutorial facilitator's comments on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.

COUNSELLING

Counselling forms a part of your learning because it is provided to make your learning experience easier. Counselling is available to you at two levels, academic and personal counselling. Student counsellors are available at the study centre to provide guidance for personal issues that may affect your studies. Your study centre manager and tutorial facilitators can assist you with questions on academic matters such as course materials, facilitation, grades and so on. Make sure that you have the phone numbers and email addresses of your study centre and the various individuals.

ASSESSMENT

There are three components of assessment for this course: Self-Assessment Exercises and assignments at the end of each study unit; the Tutor-Marked Assignments; and a written examination. In doing these assignments, you are expected to use the information gathered during your study of the course. Below are detailed explanations on how to do each assignment.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES (SAEs)

There are Self-Assessment Exercises spread out through your course material. You should attempt each exercise immediately after reading the section that precedes it. Possible answers to the exercises are provided at the end of the course book; however, you should check the answers only after you must have attempted the exercises. The exercises are for you to evaluate your learning; they are not to be submitted. There are also questions spread through each study unit. You are required to attempt these questions after you have read a study unit. Again, the questions are to help you assess your knowledge of the contents of the unit. You are not required to submit the answers for SAEs.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS (TMAs)

There are seven Tutor-Marked Assignments for this course. The assignments are designed to cover all areas treated in the course. You will be given your assignments and the dates for submission at your study centre. You are required to attempt all seven Tutor-Marked Assignments. You will be assessed on all seven, but the best four performances will be used for your continuous assessment.

Each assignment carries 10% and together will count for 40% of your total score for the course. The assignments must be submitted to your

tutorial facilitator for formal assessment on or before the stipulated dates for submission. The work that you submit to your tutorial facilitator for assessment will count for 40% of your total course score.

GUIDELINES FOR WRITING TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

1. On the cover page of your assignment, write the course code and title, assignment number (TMA 1, TMA 2), and date of submission, your name and matriculation number. It should look like this:
   a. Course Code
   b. Course Title
   c. Tutor-Marked Assignment
   d. Date of Submission
   e. School and Programme
   f. Name
   g. Matriculation Number
2. You should endeavour to be concise and to the point in your answers. You should give full details and working where so instructed. Your answer should be based on your course material, further readings and experience. However, do not copy from any of these materials. If you do, you will be penalised. Remember to give relevant examples and illustrations.
3. Use ruled foolscap sized paper for writing answers. Make and keep a copy of your assignments.
4. Your answers should be hand-written by you. Leave a margin of about 1.5 inches of the left side and about 5 lines before the answer to the next question for your tutorial facilitator's comments.
5. When you have completed each assignment, make sure that it reaches your tutorial facilitator on or before the deadline. If for any reason you cannot complete your work on time, contact your study centre manager and tutorial facilitator before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension. Extensions will not be granted after the due date unless under exceptional circumstances.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination for EDU 931 will be of three hours duration, and will carry 60% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions which reflect the kinds of Self Assessment Exercises and

questions in the TMAs which you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed. You should use the time between finishing the last unit and taking the examination to revise the entire course. You will find it useful to review your answers to Self-Assessment Exercises and TMAs before the examination. For you to be eligible to sit for the final examinations, you must have done the following:

- You should have submitted all the seven Tutor-Marked Assignments for the course.
- You should have registered to sit for the examination. The deadline for examination registration will be available at your study centre. Failure to submit your assignments or to register for the examination (even if you sit for the examination) means that you will not have a score for the course.

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

The following table lays out the marks that constitute the total course score.

Assessment	**Marks**
Assignments 1-7 (seven submitted, but the best four of all the assignments selected)	Four assignments, marked out of 10%, totaling 40%
Final examination	60% of overall course score
Total	100% of course score

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, all the features of this course guide have been designed to facilitate your learning in order that you achieve the aims and objectives of the course. They include the aims and objectives, course summary, course overview, Self Assessment Exercises and study questions. You should ensure that you make maximum use of them in your study to achieve maximum results.

SUMMARY

EDU 931 – Advanced Curriculum Theory provides you with knowledge of theories for curriculum planning, designing, innovations and implementations as well as school learning and classroom instructions. The course will equip you with the skills of planning, designing, implementing curricula in schools.

I wish you success in the course.

MAIN COURSE

CONTENTS **PAGE**

MODULE 1 REVIEW OF CURRICULUM CONCEPTIONS AND DEFINITIONS

UNIT 1 VIEWS AND DEFINITIONS OF CURRICULUM

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This course is on Advanced Curriculum Theory. The term 'Advanced' is an indication that you have offered courses in curriculum in your previous programmes. This also means that the term Curriculum is not new to you. However, to begin our study of Advanced Curriculum Theory it will be important for us to review the various views and definitions of curriculum. In this unit we will try to do so by considering various dimensions of the definition and meaning of the curriculum.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the various views of curriculum
- give definitions of curriculum
- discuss two major dimensions for classifying curriculum definitions
- list and explain the components of a curriculum.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

We will begin this study with explanations of the different views people hold of the curriculum. The main content of this unit will focus on the views, definitions and components of the curriculum.

3.1 What is Curriculum?

Although curriculum exists as a field of study, it is to a great extent an ill-defined field. Efforts have been made to conceptualise it. Consequently there are many conceptions of curriculum and a wide variety of definitions. You probably have come across so many in your previous studies. Let us remind ourselves of some of the definitions to demonstrate the existing diversity of the use of the term curriculum.

Good, (1959) defined curriculum as 'a general over-all plan of the content or specific materials of instruction that the school should offer the student by way of qualifying him for graduation or certification or for entrance into a professional or vocational field.' Foshay, (1969) defined it as 'all the experiences a learner has under the guidance of the school.' For Tanner and Tanner, (1975), curriculum is 'the planned and guided learning experiences and intended learning outcomes, formulated through systematic reconstruction of knowledge and experience, under the auspices of the school, for the learner's continuous and wilful growth in personal – social competence.' While for Pratt, (1997), curriculum is 'a plan for a sustained process of teaching and learning.'

Several other definitions from Oliva (1997) are that curriculum is:

- That which is taught in schools
- A set of subjects
- Content
- A program of studies
- A set of materials
- A sequence of courses
- A set of performance objectives
- A course of study
- Is everything that goes on within the school, including extra-class activities, guidance, and interpersonal relationships.
- Everything that is planned by school personnel
- A series of experiences undergone by learners in a school
- That which an individual learner experiences as a result of schooling

Let us consider the various definitions of curriculum as stated and outlined above. What are the characteristics we can deduce from the various definitions? You will be right if you were able to deduce that the curriculum has the following characteristics:

- A curriculum has a content
- It is made up of experiences for the learner
- It is planned

3. 2 Dimensions of the Definitions of Curriculum

Although there very many definitions of curriculum, an interesting thing is that the definitions can be categorised into two major dimensions.

These dimensions are Ends and Means, and Existential and Personal.

1. **Ends and Means**
   A curriculum ends refer to the Intended Learning Outcomes (ILOs) which may be expressed as aims, goals and objectives. Some curriculum definitions reflect ends of the curriculum. When a curriculum is so defined, the subject matter is chosen to reflect the outcomes. Often they are planned experiences for the learners. In the contrary the definitions instead of emphasising ends may refer to means of achieving the ends.
2. **Existential and Personal**
   These are definitions that emphasise either the things being studied (existential) or the students studying (personal). When definitions refer to text books, materials of instructions, content such as concepts, theories and facts they are categorised as 'Existential'. Others may instead refer to the students' experiences rather than the things being studied. These are personal experiential definitions of the curriculum.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Categorise the definitions listed in this unit into the two major dimensions.

3.3 Curriculum Components

In section 3.1 above, we reviewed some definitions of curriculum. As part of the review process it is important that you identify the components or elements of the curriculum. We shall briefly discuss these in this section.

There are five widely agreed components or elements of curriculum. These are:

a. a framework of assumptions about the learner and society;
b. aims and objectives;
c. content or subject matter with its selection, scope and sequence;
d. modes of transaction (e.g. methodology and learning environments) and
e. evaluation

a. **The individual and the society as a framework**
   All curriculum organization begins with assumptions concerning the learner and the society. The first guiding principle is to determine the learner's ability, needs, interest, motivation and potential for learning. The second guiding construct is the society's orientation to nurturing or using the individuals.

b. **Aims and objectives**
   Aims and objectives are of primary concern to the selection of subject matter to students experiences. This also guides teacher's directed efforts. We shall discuss aims and objectives in more details in succeeding units.

c. **Form of subject matter**
   Subject matter is selected, organized and packaged for use by teachers and learners. The form of subject matter and its packaging comes in many shapes. The most common is the textbook. Guided by knowledge of learners' abilities and society's requirements, subject matters are selected and translated through textbooks, curriculum guides, syllabi, and other directives to teachers and learners.

d. **Modes of transactions**
   These are recommended teacher methodology to inculcate subject matter.

e. **Evaluation**
   This provides the individual with information on performance to guide the learner to the next steps in the sequence of the subject matter.

4.0 CONCLUSION

There are as many definitions as there are views of curriculum. The various definitions demonstrate the existing diversity of the use of the term curriculum. Even though curriculum exists as a field of study, it remains elusive and its epistemology is ill-defined. The dimensions of definitions have implications for policy making and research. You must

make efforts to read these many definitions of curriculum and as much as possible give your personal definition.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have tried to review the meaning of curriculum through different definitions. We also discussed the different dimensions of the definitions of curriculum. Finally we learnt the five widely agreed components or elements of curriculum.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. From your reading so far:
   a. Give your own definition of curriculum.
   b. From your experience of the Nigerian primary and secondary school curriculum, which dimension(s) do the curriculum fall into?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Cortes, C.E. (1981) The Societal Curriculum: Implications for Multiethnic Educations. In Banks, J.A (ed.) *Educations in the 8's: Multiethnic Education.* National Education Association.

Eisner, E.W. (1994) T*he Educational Imagination: On Design and Evaluation of School Programs.* (3rd. ed) New York: Macmillan.

Good, C. V. (1959), *Dictionary of Education*, McGraw - Hillbrook

Longstreet, W.S. and Shane, H.G. (1993) *Curriculum for a New Millennium.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Oliva, P. (1997) *The Curriculum: Theoretical Dimensions*. New York: Longman.

Tanner D. and Tanner, L. L. (1975), *Curriculum Development: Theory into Practice,* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.

UNIT 2 TYPES OF CURRICULA

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 1, you learnt of the very many definitions of curriculum and how these definitions can be classified. Similarly there are so many types of curricula. Understanding the different types of curricula is important to understanding the theories and models of curriculum. We shall discuss some of the many types of curricula in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- list the different types of curricula
- outline some of the essential characteristics of the different types of curricula
- compare and contrast the different types of curricula.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Classification of types of curricula differs depending on the writer. We will try to learn of the different types which will include overt, explicit or written curriculum; the hidden or covert curriculum; curriculum-in-use; received curriculum; formal and informal curriculum and centralised and decentralised curriculum.

3.1 Formal and Informal Curriculum

Informal curriculum is also described as societal curriculum. Cortes (1981) defines this type of curriculum as the massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighbourhoods, churches organisations, occupations, mass media and other socialising forces that "educate" all of us throughout our lives. Examples of such curricula include those being used by the Living Values Education Programme (LVEP), Development Impact for Nigeria (DIFN), The National Schools of Character Programme (NASOCAP) and Values in Leadership and in the Workplace Programme (VLWP) to ensure provision of values education in Nigeria.

Curriculum-in-use - The curriculum-in-use is the actual curriculum that is delivered and presented by each teacher. The formal curriculum (written or overt) comprises those things in textbooks, and content and concepts in the curriculum guides. However, those "formal" elements are frequently not taught.

3.2 Overt or Written, Covert or Hidden Curriculum and the Null Curriculum

In many schools there are documents such as texts, films and supportive teaching materials. These are simply that which are written as part of formal instruction of schooling experiences. They are overtly chosen to support the intentional instructional agenda of a school. They are known as overt, explicit or written curriculum. A good example is the 9-year Basic Education Curriculum by National Education, Research and Development Council (NERDC) that is currently being implemented in Nigeria. Various stakeholders (administrators, teachers etc) were involved in its writing and development.

According to Longstreet and Shane (1993), the "hidden curriculum," refers to the kinds of learning children derive from the very nature and organizational design of the schools, as well as from the behaviours and attitudes of teachers and administrators. There are several things that learners pick up in schools which are not planned or overt, for example students learning to be orderly, decent dressing and so on. The hidden curriculum may include both positive and negative messages, depending on the models provided and the perspectives of the learner or the observer.

According to Eisner (1985, 1994), the null curriculum is that which we do not teach, thus giving students the message that these elements are not important in their educational experiences or in our society. From Eisner's perspective the null curriculum is simply that which is not

taught in schools. In every nation, some people are empowered to make conscious decisions as to what is to be included and what is to be excluded from the overt (written) curriculum. This is because it is physically impossible to teach everything in schools. Consequently, many topics and subject areas are intentionally excluded from the written curriculum. This is related to the hidden curriculum since they are not taught. However, the difference is that the hidden curriculum is not intentionally left out of the written curriculum.

Concomitant curriculum - This is curriculum of what is taught, or emphasised at home, or those experiences that are part of a family's experiences, or related experiences sanctioned by the family. When this type of curriculum is received at church, in the context of religious expression, lessons on values, ethics or morals, molded behaviours, or social experiences based on the family's preferences it relates to the societal curriculum.

3.3 The Electronic Curriculum and Phantom Curriculum

Electronic Curriculum - Wilson, (2004) explained this type of curriculum as those lessons learned through searching the internet for information, or through using e-forms of communication. This type of curriculum may be either formal or informal, and inherent lessons may be overt or covert, good or bad, correct or incorrect depending on one's views.

Phantom curriculum - This is curriculum messages through exposure to any type of media. The content of such curriculum play a major part in the enculturation of learners into the predominant meta-culture, or in acculturating learners into narrower or generational subcultures. You can imagine the lot that Nigerian youths learn these days through the media. Consider the lessons from 'Africa Magic,' 'Ultimate Search' and the like. You will recall the impact of these on lifestyle of many (especially the youths) in Nigeria and Africa.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have discussed types of curriculum as if they are mutually exclusive. You must remember that there is a relationship between the different types of curricula. Consequently there is no one type of curricula in use in school. Several of the different types may be in use in a particular school and the content and design of the curriculum may differ.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learned of the different types of curricula. Specifically you learned of overt, explicit or written curriculum, societal curriculum, the hidden or covert curriculum, the null curriculum, phantom curriculum, concomitant curriculum, rhetorical curriculum, curriculum-in-use, received curriculum, the internal curriculum and the electronic curriculum.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. What type of curricula is/are used in?
   a. Nigerian primary schools
   b. Nigerian secondary schools
   c. National Open University of Nigeria

ii. Give reasons to support your answers in 1a – 1c.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Cortes, C.E. (1981). The Societal Curriculum: Implications for Multiethnic Educations. In Banks, J.A (ed.) *Educations in the 80s: Multiethnic Education.* National Education Association.

Eisner, E.W. (1994). T*he Educational Imagination: On Design and Evaluation of School Programs.* (3rd. ed) New York: Macmillan.

Longstreet, W.S. and Shane, H.G. (1993) *Curriculum for a New Millennium*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Oliva, P. (1997). *The Curriculum: Theoretical Dimensions*. New York: Longman.

UNIT 3 THE SCOPE OF CURRICULUM STUDIES

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Urevbu (2001), states that controversies exist in all fields on the nature and scope of the field and on what constitutes the basic components and orientation of a discipline. It is therefore important that we learn the component of curriculum and the scope of curriculum studies. This unit will be a review of the components of the curriculum and the scope of curriculum as a field of study.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define curriculum studies
- explain and differentiate between curriculum planning and curriculum development
- explain and differentiate between curriculum design and construction
- define curriculum theory
- give examples of curriculum theories
- explain the rethinking in curriculum studies.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

There are so many terms in literature such as curriculum design, curriculum development, curriculum construction and curriculum theory that we need to clarify so as to have a good idea of the scope of curriculum studies. We are going to consider those issues in this section of this unit.

3.1 What is Curriculum Studies?

Urevbu (2001) states that curriculum studies as a field of study deals with needs felt by practitioners for better ways of describing, explaining and justifying what goes on in schools. In another sense, curriculum is a study of how school systems are created, organised and made to function.

3.2 Scope of Curriculum Studies

Some of the ways of describing, explaining and justifying what goes on in schools will be discussed in this section. We will attempt to explain and describe the concepts of curriculum planning, development, design, construction and curriculum theory.

3.2.1 Curriculum Planning and Development

The first scope of curriculum studies we must consider is 'Curriculum Planning and Development.' A simple conception of curriculum planning is that it involves making series of choices, often based on values, of the learning experiences or opportunities for persons to be educated. Similarly curriculum development involves devising curricular materials and trying them out. This means that to develop a workable curriculum, we need to consider what should be taught and the relationship between the various components of the curriculum. As simple as this may seem, it is important for you to realize that curriculum development is situated within a particular context. Therefore curriculum development is characterised by contextual issues which Hawes (1979) categorized into five – political and economic, social, material, administrative and historical. Extensive research is necessary to demonstrate the linkages between these contextual issues and the school curriculum in their concrete representation in schools. We shall consider the research findings on these issues in subsequent modules and units.

3.2.2 Curriculum Design and Construction

The term curriculum construction was traditionally employed to refer vaguely to all the processes involved in the making of curriculum. This involved the analysis of man's activities into particular and specialised units of behaviour. This idea underlines the behavioural objectives orientation of most curriculum texts. The function of a curriculum constructor was to identify and create experiences that will prepare a student to perform the activities. Once the experiences have been identified and created, the scope of the curriculum studies that make a choice of what should be the organisational basis or structural framework of the curriculum is known as 'Curriculum design'. There are different curriculum designs such as subject-centred, integrated, core, child-centred. We shall also discuss in details these various designs in subsequent modules and units.

3.2.3 Curriculum Theory

There is a great deal of confusion as to what curriculum theory means. However, since this course is 'Advanced Curriculum Theory' it is very necessary that we try to understand the meaning of it.

A simple answer for now is that curriculum theory is a distinctive field of curriculum studies. It is a way of describing the educational philosophy of certain approaches to the development of curriculum. It can also be described as both historical analysis of curriculum and a way of viewing current educational curriculum and policy decisions From the above considerations, it means that in our course on Advanced Curriculum Theory, we shall be considering beliefs which guide and control actions in curriculum practice. We shall also be studying foundations for actions that will shape our thinking of the curriculum process.

3.3 Rethinking Curriculum Studies

Curriculum studies at inception focused on a rational sequencing of educational materials and plan of construction. You will read more of this when we consider the different models of curriculum planning in subsequent modules and units. This ideology has been greatly questioned. In the last three decades, curriculum theorists like William Pinar have shifted the concern of curriculum studies to a wide range of enquiry into the process of schooling. So, today, there is a re-conceptualisation or re-thinking of curriculum as a field of study. The shift is centred on the development of a new sociology of curriculum.

The old functionalist educational input-output approach is being replaced.

4.0 CONCLUSION

From our discussions, curriculum cannot be treated as a simple phenomenon. With writings of curriculum theorists in the last past three decades, wide spread influence is being exerted on the study of the curriculum.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learned the meaning of curriculum studies and the scope of curriculum studies by considering curriculum studies in the areas of curriculum planning and development, curriculum construction and design and curriculum theory.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

The new 9-Years Basic Education Curriculum recommends that Basic Science and technology be taught in lower and middle basic, while Basic Science replaces Integrated Science at the upper basic. Explain how this decision was reached – through research, consensus, politics or careful curriculum planning.

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MODULE 2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE CONCEPT OF CURRICULUM THEORY

Unit 1 Meanings, Definitions and Characteristics of Curriculum Theory
Unit 2 Types and Views of Curriculum Theory
Unit 3 Knowledge and the Curriculum

UNIT 1 MEANINGS, DEFINITIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF CURRICULUM THEORY

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Module 1 Unit 3 you learnt of the scope of curriculum studies. In that unit a brief mention was made of curriculum theory as a component of the field of curriculum studies. Since our course EDU 931 is on Advanced Curriculum Theory, it is important that we consider curriculum theory in a more detail. In this unit we will further learn of the definitions and meanings of curriculum theory. We will also study the characteristics of curriculum theory.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define theory
- give at least three definitions of curriculum theory
- list and explain four characteristics of curriculum theory.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Meaning and definitions are crucial to the understanding of any concept. This unit is on the meaning and definitions of the concepts of theory and curriculum theory.

3.1 Meaning and Definitions of Curriculum Theory

To understand the meaning of curriculum theory it is also necessary to understand the meaning of the word theory. We will begin with the meaning of theory and finally study the meaning of Curriculum theory.

3.1.1 Meaning of Theory

Our first question for this section is 'What is a Theory?' Let us consider a simple answer to this question. A theory may be considered as *a system of beliefs which guide or control actions.* It furnishes those working with a particular realm of knowledge with a way of viewing the world and how it works. Theory therefore *provides a foundation for action and shapes individual thinking along certain lines.*

3.1.2 Meaning of Curriculum Theory

Our next question is 'What is curriculum theory?' We shall attempt to answer this question by considering the conceptions of some curriculum theorists. There are many conceptions of curriculum theory.

- According to Beauchamp (1968) a curriculum theory is a "set of related statements that give meaning to a school's curriculum by pointing out the relationships among the elements and by directing its development, its use, and its evaluation."
- Lundgrea (1972) defines curriculum theory as *a* "systematic link between curriculum and instruction."
- To further answer the question 'What is curriculum theory?' Pinar writes that it is "the interdisciplinary study of educational experience."

To others, curriculum theory is a *set of norms and rules*. A somewhat more elaborate answer is that curriculum theory is "a distinctive field, with a unique history, a complex presence, and uncertain future." Curriculum theory is a way of describing the educational philosophy of certain approaches to the development of curriculum." It can also be described as both "historical analysis of curriculum and a way of viewing current educational curriculum and policy decisions."
From the above considerations, it means that in our course on Advanced Curriculum Theory, we shall be considering beliefs which guide and

control actions in curriculum practice. We shall also be studying foundations for actions that will shape our thinking of the curriculum process.

3.2 Domain of a Curriculum Theory

Kliebard (1977) identified the domain of curriculum theory. According to Kliebard, curriculum theory has its origin in human thought, human curiosity, human activity and human problems. He then raised a question of what distinct human activity can we identify or what special problem gives rise to the idea of a curriculum theory. In his attempt to answer the questions, he stated that deliberate teaching requires choices as to what to teach. This question generated some issues which have served to define the scope and substance of a curriculum theory.

The first issue from Kliebard question on what we should teach invites a justification. It calls for a rationale for why we should teach one thing rather than another. For an example why should we teach English rather than Edo or Yoruba or Igbo or Hausa? If a curriculum theory is to be anything more than an intellectual exercise it should provide practical guidance as to what to teach.

The next question is on who is taught. This calls us to give attention to the question of how knowledge gets distributed both by chance or as a consequence of differing capacities or different groups of students (Urevbu, 2001). In subsequent unit we will study the relationship between knowledge and curriculum.

3.3 Curriculum Theorists

Herbert Kliebard conception of the curriculum theory is a historical approach to examining the forces at work that shape the curriculum. He discussed four curriculum groups he called mental disciplinarians or humanist, social ameliorists, social efficiency and developmentalist or child study (Kliebard, 2004).

“Mental disciplinarians: and Humanists believe in all students' abilities to develop mental reasoning and that education was not intended for social reform in itself but for the systematic development of reasoning power. Good reasoning power would lead to the betterment of society.

Social Meliorists believe that education is a tool to reform society and create change for the better. Theirs is socialization goal based on the power of the individual's intelligence, and the ability to improve on intelligence through education. They argue that an individual’s future was not predetermined by gender, race, socio-economic status, heredity

or any other factors rather that the corruption and vice in the society, the inequalities of race and gender, and the abuse of privilege and power could all be addressed by a curriculum that focused directly on those very issues, thereby raising a new generation equipped to deal effectively with those abuses. Some critic's view is that this group has goals that are difficult to measure and a product that has slow results. John Dewey is an example of a theorist in this category.

Social efficiency – This include educators such as theorists Ross, Bobbitt, Gilbreth, Taylor, and Thorndike. The aim of these theorists is to design a curriculum that would optimize the social utility of each individual in a society. These theorists believed that society could be controlled by using education as an efficiency tool. In their plans, Students would be scientifically evaluated (such as IQ tests), and educated towards their predicted role in society. This theory has resulted in the introduction of specific life activities that correlate with each student's societal future in the school curriculum. The socially efficient curriculum would consist of minute parts or tasks that together formed a bigger concept. Critics believe this model has too much emphasis on testing and separating students based on the results of that testing.

Developmentalists focus attention to the development of children's emotional and behavioral qualities. One part of this view is using the characteristics of children and youth as the source of the curriculum. Some critics claim this model is at the expense of other relevant factors. Hall is an example of a theorist in this group

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt in this section of the existence of ideas that help to develop and shape the curriculum. It is important to note that there are important fundamental differences among theories. Although there are different types and views of curriculum theories, they are alike in one important respect - they are theories of practice. Curriculum theories rely upon a variety of working assumptions and presumptions. Some are built for practical use in realistic school situations; some are built for an abstract ideal situation that may not exist anywhere. Final it is important to note that theories draw from different disciplines.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt definitions of theory and curriculum theory. You also learnt of Kliebard views of the domain of curriculum theory and curriculum theorists.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. In your opinion, which is the dominant curriculum theory in Nigeria?
ii. Give reasons for your answer.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Urevbu A., (2001) *Curriculum Studies*. London and Lagos: Juland Publishers.

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UNIT 2 TYPES AND VIEWS OF CURRICULUM THEORY

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Module 1 Unit 1 you learnt of many different definitions of curriculum. Similarly in Module 2 Unit 1 you learnt of different meaning of theory and curriculum theory. From the definitions of curriculum, theory and curriculum theory, it is evident that there are many types of curriculum theory. We shall consider these types in this section.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- list the different types of curriculum theory
- describe each type of curriculum theory
- list at least four characteristics of curriculum theory
- describe the characteristics of curriculum theory.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Types of Curriculum Theory

Walker (1982) presents different types of curriculum theories. In this section, we will discuss four types

a. **Theory that rationalizes programmes -** These are theories that describe the program in detail and justify it by giving reasons why it would be good and should be adopted. Such curriculum theories are said to rationalize the programme. This type proposes content, aims, and approaches to education. This is one of the oldest types of curriculum theories. An example of this type of

curriculum theory is that by Phillip Phoenix. In his work *Realms of Meaning*, he made a case for a curriculum based upon the six modern disciplines of academic knowledge. Another example is that by Benjamin Bloom, whose theory of mastery learning program aspires to bring all students to levels of academic achievement otherwise attainable only by the most gifted students. Jerome Bruner proposed a theory on the structure of knowledge and the importance of discovery in learning. His theories were so influential in the post-Sputnik reforms of science education curriculum. Paolo Freire program of literacy training for peasants is based upon a curriculum theory that emphasizes the importance of dialogue and the development of critical consciousness.

b. A second type of curriculum theory **rationalizes procedures for curriculum construction or curriculum determination**. There are curriculum theorists with the idea that an ideal curriculum could be determined by studying the best performances of people and adopting these as standards for all people. Theories in this category consider highest output of good quality work on the basis of records and observations. The curriculum would then follow minute detail and method. The emphasis in this type of theory is not on program itself as in the first type but on the method. Bobbitt and a great many curriculum writers have developed step-by-step procedures for every aspect of curriculum planning, development, and evaluation. The most influential of these theorists is Ralph Tyler. Tyler rationale poses the four questions he urges all curriculum developers to raise as a means of building curriculum programs.

c. A third type of curriculum theory **conceptualizes curricular phenomena**. This type sets out to advise those who directly address curriculum problems on helpful ways of thinking about the work. Unlike the first two types that are on specific recommendations for either program or procedure this third type presents a way of thinking about some matters likely to be important to anyone building a program. John Dewey's writing on the curriculum is a good example. In his essay, "The Child and the Curriculum" (1902), he tried to resolve the apparently opposing curricular demands of the child's nature and the accumulated wisdom of the culture.

d. The fourth type of curriculum theory attempts to **explain curricular phenomena.** Closely related to the third it seeks explanations for curriculum change. The most common variant of this type. The theorist of this type has no program to rationalize, no procedure to put forward, and seeks to go beyond mere conceptualization.

3.2 Characteristics of Curriculum Theory

The dominant concern of the first three types is to improve the curriculum. The third type begins to distance itself from this aim in favor of seeking increased understanding. The fourth type frankly pursues understanding, leaving the application of the ideas to practice for others. This four types of curriculum theory have resulted in the proposal of four characteristics of curriculum Theory:

- Curriculum theory focuses on content, aims, and program development in education
- Curriculum theory rationalizes procedures for curriculum construction
- Curriculum theory conceptualizes curricular phenomena; and
- Curriculum theory attempts to explain curricular phenomena

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have learnt in this section of the existence of ideas that help to develop and shape the curriculum. It is important to note that there are important fundamental differences among theories. Although there are different types and views of curriculum theories, they are alike in one important respect - they are theories of practice. Curriculum theories rely upon a variety of working assumptions and presumptions. Some are built for practical use in realistic school situations; some are built for an abstract ideal situation that may not exist anywhere. Final it is important to note that theories draw from different disciplines.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you learned the different types of curriculum theory. These include theory that rationalizes programs, theory that rationalizes procedures for curriculum construction or curriculum determination, theory that conceptualizes curricular phenomena and theory that explains curricular phenomena. You also learned four characteristics of curriculum theory which are related to the four types of curriculum theory.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. What are the important fundamental differences among the different curriculum theories?
ii. Suggest the theories that most closely describe the curriculum in Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Doll, W., Jr. (1993). A *Post-Modern Perspective on Curriculum* (pp. 47-52). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

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UNIT 3 KNOWLEDGE AND THE CURRICULUM

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Human knowledge is key to the issues of curriculum planning because learning of some kind is crucial to how we conceive education and curriculum. Consequently what is to be learned must be a major curriculum planning consideration. Knowledge content of the curriculum is known to be the first stage of curriculum planning.

Therefore before we consider the theories and models of curriculum planning in the next module, it is necessary to discuss the nature of knowledge and the relationship between knowledge and curriculum from both philosophical and sociological perspectives. The debate about knowledge reveals the degree to which curriculum planning is ideological. Whatever views one takes of education will be based on certain assumptions of the nature of knowledge, therefore this has to be examined closely. This unit will present some of the views and ideologies about the nature of knowledge and its link with the curriculum.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- give reasons why discussion of curriculum planning must start with a discussion of knowledge
- describe the nature of human knowledge
- list the different forms of knowledge
- explain the different forms of knowledge

- list the different branch of philosophy which are most relevant to the curriculum specialist
- explain ways in which Nigerian culture influence curriculum development in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

From our discussion of the meaning of the curriculum, one is not in doubt that there is a relationship between curriculum (content) and knowledge. The main content of this unit is that relationship.

3.1 What is Knowledge?

Knowledge is one of the three important sources of data for curriculum planning. Bell defined knowledge as a set of organized statements of facts or ideas, presenting a reasoned judgement or an experimental result, which is transmitted to others through some communication medium in some systematic form. According to Bruner, Knowledge is justified belief. In Dewey's terms subject matter is content and it refers to the record of knowledge without potential for interaction with the human organism. As Dewey puts it, subject matter consists of the facts observed, recalled, read and talked about and the ideas suggested in course of a development of a situation having purpose (Urevbu, 2001).

On the other hand knowledge refers to the increased and deepened meaning that accrues to the individual as a consequence of his transaction with content. According to Dewey, curriculum planners can justify their content selection only in terms of its potential for generating knowledge. By implication in curriculum planning the 'end-in-view' is to draw content (or subject matter) into knowledge for learners. The amount of knowledge available has grown exponentially.

Human knowledge is critical to our exploration of issues which are key to curriculum development and planning. From our discussions in units 1 and 2 there are different ways of conceptualizing the curriculum. Kelly (2004) emphasized that reasons why the discussion of the curriculum planning must begin with the discussion of human knowledge. First it is obvious that however we conceive of education and curriculum, learning of some kind is central to it, so that what is to be learned must be a major planning consideration. A second important reason is for us to know how knowledge relates to other aspects of curriculum planning.

Thirdly how we conceptualise the curriculum will depend on how we conceive human knowledge. Finally the discussion will make one realize the problematic nature of knowledge. This in turn will make us

acknowledge that in making decisions about the content of the curriculum we are dealing in ideologies rather than in eternal truths.

3.2 The Nature of Human Knowledge – Philosophical Perspectives

During the development of Western European Philosophy two main kinds of theory emerged. These are the rationalist views and the empiricist views.

The rationalist views take at their starting point the supremacy of the intellect over the human faculties and stress that true knowledge is that which is achieved by the mind in some way independent of the information provided by the senses. The rationalist view that knowledge is essentially independent of the observations of our senses was a great debate. In this sense knowledge is God-given and owes nothing to the human condition. Consequently knowledge is timeless, in no sense related to the particular circumstances of intellectual individual eras, society, cultures or human beings. This is known as absolutism or rationalist philosophy. This view underlies the claim of some philosophers of education for the inalienable right of certain subjects, those whose content is high, to be included in the curriculum. Objections to this view of human knowledge led to the movement currently known as postmodernism.

The philosophical objections of the rationalist views began with the emergence of an alternative epistemology, that of empiricism. The empiricists take a contrary stance. They believe that the knowledge of the world about us can be derived only from the evidence that the world offers us through the use of our senses. John Locke the founder of empiricism states that no knowledge comes into the mind except through the gates of the senses. The empiricists maintain that the mind of the new-born child is seen as a *tabula rasa,* a clean sheet without any idea. Knowledge is then acquired through experience. Such a view requires us to be hesitant about asserting the value of any body of knowledge or its right to inclusion in the curriculum. It encourages us to accept that knowledge is to be equated rather with experience so that what it means for one to acquires knowledge is that one should have experience which one can use as the basis of hypothesising and controlling the environment. This means that we cannot impose knowledge on the learner; rather we should help the learner develop his or her own knowledge. This view has also implication for what goes into the school curriculum and the view of education as a much more personal activity.

A second form of objection to the absolutism or rationalist philosophy is known as existentialism. This has similarities with the empiricists. As far as curriculum is concerned, this view again warns us against the effect of imposing a universal curriculum on all pupils.

3.3 Sociological Perspectives of Knowledge and the Curriculum

The absolutist conceptions of human knowledge led to the development of the traditional subject-based curriculum. In the 1970s, Michael Young introduced into the education debate a perspective on knowledge which is distinctively sociological. The argument was that human knowledge was not God-given but socially constructed, so that it is best understood not through any form of philosophical analysis but through a study of the social and sociological conditions and contexts within which it is generated.

Today there are views such as constructivist curriculum and the like. Constructivism is a theory of knowledge with roots in philosophy, psychology and cybernetics. Two principles of constructivism are:

- That knowledge is not passively received but actively built up by the cognising subject
- The function of cognition is adaptive and serves the organisation of the experiential world, not eh discovery of ontological reality.

3.4 The Forms and Structure of knowledge in the Curriculum

Some philosophers such as Phenix, Hirst, Schrab King and Brownell, and Pring worked on the forms and structure of knowledge. Atherton (2008) suggested different forms of knowledge. These are:

- Technical vs. Practical knowledge
- Knowing that vs. knowing how
- Propositional vs. Procedural knowledge
- Conscious vs. Tacit knowledge
- Comprehension (knowledge about) vs. Apprehension (knowledge by direct acquaintance).
- According to the author, the major problem is that educational systems value the left-hand column much more than the right.

Hirst gave seven fundamental distinct forms of knowledge as:

- Mathematics
- Physical Sciences
- Human Sciences
- History
- Religion
- Literature and fine arts
- Philosophy

Phenix gave six most fundamental realms of meaning:

- Symbolics (mathematics, language, logic)
- Empirics (the various sciences)
- Aesthetics (arts and crafts, music, literature, drama)
- Synnoetic (physical education, domestic science)
- Ethics (religion and moral)
- Synoptic (history, geography)

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the debate about knowledge reveals the degree to which all approaches to curriculum planning are ideological. It alerts us to the political dangers which must be recognized and addressed. One of the most dangerous fallacies with which the curriculum debate has been and continues to be beset is the failure to recognize the problematic nature of human knowledge and the consequent assumption that it is possible to identify non-problematic elements which must form the core of the curriculum without further debate

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt of the problematic nature of knowledge. To discuss the relationship between knowledge and curriculum, you learned of the philosophical and sociological views of knowledge such as absolutism or rationalist views; empiricism existentialism and constructivism. The implications of each view to curriculum planning you have also learnt.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Study the following curricula and then answer the questions that follow:

a. National Open University of Nigeria, School of Education Curriculum
b. The Nigeria 6-3-3-4 Curriculum
c. The New 9-Year UBE Curriculum

ii. Are their elements of the different debates on the nature of knowledge?
iii. What view of knowledge is mostly supported?
iv. What philosophical or sociological perspective governs each of the curricula?

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MODULE 3 THEORIES AND MODELS OF CURRICULUM PLANNING

UNIT 1 OVERVIEW OF THE FIELD OF CURRICULUM PLANNING

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Module 1 you learnt about the curriculum. You learnt that curriculum is about learning experiences under the guidance of the school. The school is one of the sources of education. Since education is an orderly and deliberate effort, some plan is needed to guide this effort. In this module we will review the process of curriculum planning in an attempt to learn curriculum theories and models.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define curriculum planning
- explain elements of curriculum planning
- explain forces affecting curriculum planning
- list sources of data for curriculum planning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Meaning and definitions are crucial to the understanding any concept. In this unit you shall learn the meaning of curriculum planning, elements of a curriculum plan, forces affecting curriculum planning and sources of data for curriculum planning.

3.1 What is Curriculum Planning?

Just as there are several definitions of curriculum, so curriculum planning can be variously defined. However, a simple conception of curriculum planning is that it involves making series of choices, often based on values, of the learning experiences or opportunities for persons to be educated.

3.2 Elements of a Curriculum Plan

A number of elements or factors are considered in developing a curriculum plan. The first element is the person to be educated. The functioning within the society of these persons is considered. Learning opportunity needed or wanted by these persons are the key considerations.

The second element is aims and objectives. The nature of the educational opportunity to be provided will depend on the aims and objectives set to be achieved. It is expected that the learners' personal aims and objectives be congruent with the aims and objectives of the curriculum for learning to be assured. The aims and objectives determine the curriculum design, instructional modes and teaching models necessary for the implementation and evaluation of the curriculum. Details of aims, goals and objectives are present in Unit 3 of this module.

3.3 Sources of Data for Curriculum Planning

There are three major sources of data for effective curriculum planning. These are the learners, the society and the knowledge. When we talk about the learner we refer to the children, youth and young adults enrolled in formal education institutions. You have studied in some other courses such as developmental psychology of the growth and development of the learner. Learning experiences, teaching models and instructional modes will depend to a large extent on the stage of development of the learners. Information about the society also aids the curriculum planning process. It enables the curriculum planners to understand learners and helps too in identifying social functions of

educational programmes. Knowledge is dynamic and ever growing. The amount of knowledge available has continued to grow exponentially. Thus the more knowledge available, the faster it grows and there is no end in sight.

Effective curriculum planning requires that data from all these sources be synthesised and used for curriculum decision making.

4.0 CONCLUSION

From the above discussions, you can see that curriculum planning is not as simple as one would think. It must therefore begin with appropriate planning models.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt the meaning of curriculum planning. You have also learnt the elements of curriculum planning and sources of data for curriculum planning.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. The following information regarding individual learners is needed for effective planning. Write short notes on each of the characteristics:
   a. Physical development
   b. Emotional and social development
   c. Psychological needs
   d. Intellectual and creative development
   e. Personal traits

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UNIT 2 MODELS OF CURRICULUM PLANNING

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Much of the writing about curriculum has focused on providing order and rationality in curriculum work. This is through curriculum models.
In this unit, you will learn the meaning and definitions of models and curriculum models and also discuss two major types and examples of curriculum models.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define models
- define curriculum models
- distinguish between prescriptive and descriptive models of curriculum
- identify the strengths and weaknesses of major prescriptive models
- identify the strengths and weaknesses of a major descriptive model.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

In this unit you will learn about curriculum models; the types, strengths and weaknesses of major curriculum models.

3.1 Meaning of Curriculum Models

In our last unit we discussed the process of curriculum planning. Curriculum models are central to the curriculum process. They are essential in determining programme content and in implementation of programmes. The question then is what are curriculum models?

The term curriculum model refers to an educational system that combines theory with practice. A curriculum model has a theory and knowledge base that reflects a philosophical orientation and is supported, in varying degrees, by child development research and educational evaluation.

3.2 Types of Curriculum Models

Curriculum models fall into two types, models for the curriculum which *prescribe* what teachers should do (prescriptive) and models of the curriculum which *describe* what teachers actually do (descriptive).

3.3 Prescriptive Models

Prescriptive curriculum models are models which prescribe what teachers should do. Over the years two forms of prescriptive models have emerged - the traditional prescriptive and the contemporary prescriptive models.

3.3.1 Traditional Prescriptive Models

The most well-known example of this type of curriculum model is Ralph Tyler's Objectives or Rational Planning Model. It is called the Objective Model because it starts with the objectives.

3.3.2 Tylerian Objective Model

The model sets out what curriculum workers should do. For Tyler, the curriculum process involves four fundamental questions. Curriculum planning therefore was a rational and orderly process of answering the four fundamental questions:

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

The 'purposes' in the first of these questions became known as objectives and hence the model is called the Objectives Model. This is popularly called Tyler's four stage progression model.

Objectives were written in terms of changed observed measurable behaviour. Tyler's work advocated a broad view of objectives but many of those that followed him supported a more narrow view.

3.3.3 Criticism of Tyler's Objectives Model

Tyler's basic principles of curriculum and instruction were regarded by many educators as the early bible of curriculum design. In it, he provided a workable model for the systematic development of curricula. However, it was criticised as being an archetypal 'ballistic' model; that is, curriculum development activity occurs in a linear series of sequential stages. Also, it was criticised as representing an "ends-means" view of education.

Most of the critics of this model claimed that writing objectives was difficult and time consuming, particularly in the form demanded by writers like Mager (1962) who argued that each objective had to contain a statement of the 'performer', the 'behaviour' to be attained, the 'conditions' under which it would be demonstrated and the 'standards' by which it would be judged.

Much stronger criticisms were mounted by Lawrence Stenhouse (1976). He claimed that the use of behavioural objectives resulted in curricula which focused on skills and knowledge acquisition only. He argued that higher order thinking skills, problem solving and value developments were important educational functions that could not be written in behavioural terms. As a result he stated that there was a risk that these other educational functions would be excluded from curricula developed if behavioural objectives were to be used.

3.3.4 Contemporary Prescriptive Models

These are models that still prescribe what teachers should do. An example of a contemporary prescriptive model of the curriculum process is known in the form of Outcomes Based Education (OBE). Like Tyler,

those who advocate for this approach start with (prescribe) a simple message. For this model, curriculum planning process should be defined by first thinking about the outcomes that are to be obtained by students. Having identified the outcomes, the curriculum planners, work "backwards" to, determine content, teaching and learning activities, assessment and evaluation.

3.4 Descriptive Models

Writers also criticised the prescriptive curriculum models whether objective or out-come based model. The argument is that curriculum planning process is a complex human activity and so it should not just be seen as a matter of following a few precisely defined steps. One of the critics of the objective model, Stenhouse, put forward a 'research-based' model idea for the curriculum. For him, the curriculum process represented an agenda for classroom-based research by teachers. Models grounded in the complexity of practice were then proposed. These are known as 'Descriptive' curriculum models. These models represent what is actually happening, albeit in an abstracted form.

3.4.1 Situational Model

An example of the descriptive model is the 'Situational' Model developed by an Australian, Malcolm Skilbeck. Under Skilbeck's model, it is important to fully consider the 'situation' or context in which the curriculum is located. Curriculum developers should ask questions about the significant external and internal issues that will impinge on the curriculum process. Reynolds and Skilbeck (1976) originally listed the major factors to be considered. The consideration of these factors was labeled Situational Analysis. The five important steps in the curriculum process by Reynolds and Skilbeck (1976) are:

- Situational Analysis
- Goal formulation
- Programme building
- Interpretation and implementation
- Monitoring, assessment, feedback, reconstruction

Under the Situational Model, all steps must be undertaken. Situational Analysis must be done and done systematically. The steps, however, do not need to be followed in any particular order. This is quite different from the examples of the prescriptive models which had clear starting points (defining objectives or determining outcomes).

4.0 CONCLUSION

The use of the Objectives Model has continued to be considered very important and acceptable in curriculum planning but no longer are behavioural objectives demanded. The model asks us to consider the context of curriculum and this is important. If we go back to our original view of curriculum as the translation of educational ideas into practice, then we simply cannot discount the importance of context and the external and internal factors that impinge on the contexts in which we work.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have considered types and examples of prescriptive and descriptive curriculum models. We have also discussed the criticisms of the Tyler's model which resulted in the establishment of other models. Finally, we learnt that the five steps of Skilbeck's model are considered the elements of the curriculum process. We have discussed the work of Tyler, Skilbeck and others in the search of curriculum models. These have resulted in elements of the curriculum process.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. In your previous studies you learnt of curriculum models such as Taba, Lawton etc. Classify these curriculum models into prescriptive and descriptive models.
ii. Compare and contrast these models with the two prescriptive models we have considered in this unit.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 1 of this module, you learnt of the different sources of data for curriculum planning. Armed with such data, the curriculum planners are ready to define aims and objectives. This is a very important step in curriculum planning since any educational programme must achieve the broad purposes and general goals for which it was designed as well as making sure that the purposes and goals are valid for those to be educated. Also in Module 3 Unit 1, you learnt that aims and objectives are second important elements of curriculum planning. In this unit you will study the nature of educational aims and objectives and the procedures for formulating the aims and objectives.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define aims and objectives
- explain the different types of objectives
- describe the steps for goal definition
- identify sources of aims and objectives of education in Nigeria
- state aims and objectives.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

In general, the terms aims and objectives are used interchangeably. They designate intent or outcomes desired. However, in curriculum, there are some differentiations in meaning. In this section, we will consider these differentiations by considering the nature and definitions of the terms.

3.1 The Nature of Aims and Objectives

To discuss the nature of aims and objectives, we have to consider the answers to the question "What are aims and objectives?"

Aim, also referred to as purpose, is used to mean reasons for which something exists or is done. Aims are broad statements of what learning one hopes to generate. The aim is the point of the whole thing. As such, even hard-liners concede that it can be fairly vague; and non-behavioural terms, such as "understand", and "appreciate" or "develop" are rather grudgingly accepted.

Objectives on the other hand state the specific overt changes in learners' behaviour that are expected to result from participation in a unit of learning activities. Objectives are statements of what you are setting out to teach, although expressed as if the students were going to learn it.

3.2 Aims of Education

Aims of education centre on the development of the individual and the society. Aims of education are achievable as individuals learn to perform specific behaviours and develop personal traits. To achieve these aims, it is important to answer the following two questions:

- For a learner to achieve educational aims what does the learner need to be able to do?
- For a learner to achieve educational aims what kind of a person does the learner need to be?

These two questions represent behaviours to be learned and human traits (values, attitudes, appreciation and self understanding) to be developed. In curriculum planning, this means having behaviour-oriented learning activities.

3.3 Types or Classifications of Objectives

Objectives can be classified into two main types - behavioural and non-behavioural objectives

3.3.1 Behavioural Objective

Objectives should be SMART:

- **S**pecific: Behavioural objectives should state clearly what the students should be able to do and at what level.
- **M**easurable: You should be able to conceive of how their attainment might be assessed
- **A**ttainable: by students
- **R**ealistic: Could be seen as similar to attainability but refers to their appropriateness to the overall task
- **Ti**me-appropriate: Achievable within the time-span of the session or lesson or course

3.3.2 Expressive Objectives

Aims and Objectives

- It starts from a clear statement of broad educational aims, refines these into a series of explicit and testable objectives, and then devises teaching strategies, content and assessment methods to meet these aims and objectives.
- An educational AIM is a broad statement of the overall motivations for the course. In contrast an educational objective is a precise statement written in such a way that it easily translates into something that can be assessed in some way.
- Educationalists recognise taxonomy of *educational objectives.* Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956) has six major categories from knowledge, through comprehension, application, analysis and synthesis to evaluation. The ordering of these categories is intended to be broadly hierarchical, each measuring a more complex behaviour than its predecessor and also subsuming it.
- The difficulty of specifying aims and objectives has led many educationalists to argue that it is better to specify a series of intended learning outcomes (ILO).

The advantages of both aims and objectives and ILOs are that they:

- Communicate teacher's intentions clearly and unequivocally
- Provide an immediate framework for course structure and content
- Guide the selection of appropriate teaching and learning resources
- Help both evaluation and assessment.

- The major problem with this very formal approach in which everything is written down in advance is that once started, it is hard to change tack, possibly as a response to student feedback on the course or changing circumstances.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Objectives can be tied to outcomes. We must learn to use such verbs as define, list, state, calculate, perform, etc. to be able to tie Objectives into assessable Outcomes, which can be valuable.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt about aims and objectives. You have defined the terms and classified objectives as behavioural and non behavioural.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Study five (5) different curricula from different NOUN programmes and answer the following questions:
   a. Are there statements of aims and objectives?
   b. What types of objectives are presented in the curriculum document?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 4 THEORIES AND MODELS OF CURRICULUM DESIGN

UNIT 1 OVERVIEW OF CURRICULUM DESIGN

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You have learnt many definitions of the curriculum, one of which is that curriculum is a plan for providing sets of learning opportunities for persons to be educated (Saylor – Saylor). A number of factors or elements are considered in developing a curriculum plan. A number of considerations enter into stating aims and objectives. Agreed-upon aims and objectives provide the basis for selecting a curriculum design. In this unit we shall review the process of curriculum design and consider the different curriculum design techniques.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define curriculum designing
- list and explain curriculum design techniques
- identify steps in curriculum designing
- list and explain different curriculum designs
- explain factors affecting curriculum designing
- describe important decisions of selecting appropriate design.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

In the field of curriculum, terms are used so much that sometimes it is necessary to give a clear explanation of the meaning of the different terms. In this section it is important to differentiate between the terms curriculum development and curriculum design. "Curriculum Development" describes the *process* of curriculum-making, while "Curriculum Design" describes the end result, or the *product* of curriculum development.

3.1 Meaning and Definitions of Curriculum Design

Design means shape, framework or pattern of learning opportunities. The scope and type of learning opportunities therefore identify the curriculum design for any particular population. Pratt (1980) gave a definition of design as 'a deliberate process of devising, planning and selecting the elements, techniques and procedures that constitute an endeavour.' Similarly, Daramola (1986) defined curriculum design as a process of planning and selecting of curriculum content.

3.2 Steps in Curriculum Designing

Designing a curriculum is the second phase of curriculum planning process. A curriculum planner first sets aims and objectives. Then the shape, framework or pattern of the learning opportunities to achieve the aims and objectives are planned. There are six major steps in curriculum designing.

a. **Step One**: Considering basic factors relating to the major goal and domain
   In designing a curriculum, it is necessary that you first identify social aims and needs; learners and learning process, and knowledge requirements. These are essential in identifying goals, domains and objectives which are the beginning of any curriculum design. During this stage the domain is determined.

b. **Step Two**: Identifying sub-goals of the domain
   Designing requires goal setting on a second level. In designing the curriculum, you need to move from broad goal of a domain to sub-goals that are hypothesized as achievable. These are the objectives. This is the stage of setting the sub-goals tentatively.

c. **Step Three**: Identifying possible types of learning opportunities
   This is the stage of curriculum designing when tentative classifications are made to help extend the listing of opportunities and to lead towards the selection of the design. It is a stage that blends your visionary brainstorming and realistic appraisal of

actual possibilities. During this stage, organising centres or learning opportunities are identified. A trial classification of these is then made.

d. **Step Four**: Setting an appropriate curriculum design
Having determined the domain, tentatively set the sub-goals and explore the possible types of learning opportunities; the next step is to consider and select the design alternative.

e. **Step Five**: Preparation of tentative design specification

f. **Step Six**: Identifying implementation requirement
Selecting curriculum designs is not as simple as one may think. It involves considering series of assumptions that each design grew out of. These assumptions centre around:

- Purposes and goals of education
- Sources of objectives
- Characteristics of learners
- Nature of the learning process
- Type of society to be served
- Nature of knowledge

Once the designs have been selected, learning opportunities are more deliberately planned. A tentative design specification should provide answers to the following questions:

- Who will the learner be?
- What are the sub-goals or objectives?
- What types of learning experiences will be provided?
- What will be the locale for the learning experiences?
- What role will participants play: learners, teachers, others?
- What will be the time and space dimensions?
- What criteria will be used in assessment?

4.0 CONCLUSION

The design you select dictates and influences instructional strategies, roles of teachers and learners, instructional materials and evaluation strategies. This means that for you to select a curriculum design you must have knowledge of the various possible designs and understand the value commitments embedded in each of the design. We will discuss each of the designs in the next unit.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learned the meaning and definitions of curriculum design. You also learnt of the steps in designing the curriculum. These are overviews of the concepts of curriculum design which you have learnt in your previous programmes.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Explain what curriculum design means.
ii. What are the sources of aims and objectives for curriculum designing in Nigeria?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 MODELS OF CURRICULUM DESIGN

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 1 of this module you learnt of the meaning of designs and the steps of curriculum designing. We concluded that the design you select dictates and influences instructional strategies, roles of teachers and learners, instructional materials and evaluation strategies and that to select a curriculum design, you must have knowledge of the various possible designs as well as understand the value commitments embedded in each of the design. That is what we hope to achieve in this unit. You will learn of the different categorisation and patterns of curriculum designs.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- list different categories of curriculum design
- explain examples of each category of curriculum design
- compare and contrast the different categories of curriculum design
- list the different patterns of curriculum designs
- explain each pattern of curriculum design

- identify the designs of Nigerian curriculum at different levels of education.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

A review of publications on curriculum design reveals some categorization of curriculum design such as Saylor's Categories, McNeil and, Eisner and Vallance Categories. We will study the different curriculum designs in this section and attempt to categorize them.

3.1 Saylor's Categorisation

Saylor described five different curriculum designs focused on subject matter/disciplines, specific competencies/technology, human traits/process, social functions/activities and individual needs and interests/activities.

3.1.1 Designs Focused on Subject Matter/Disciplines

You will recall that many definitions of the curriculum you learnt in the past conceptualised the curriculum as school subjects taught by teachers and learned by students. Correspondingly the dominant curriculum design is that of a curriculum framework of subjects.

The plan is neatly divided into subjects. This means that the primary source of data for goals and objectives is the subject matter to be learned. In this design, instructions are organized by disciplines (for example chemistry, biology, mathematics). An obvious way to design a curriculum of this type is to write down a set of topics that will be taught. Many instructors start with the syllabus and content, specifying '**what**' should be taught before considering all the other elements. This is a *content driven* approach to curriculum design. This is an approach that is recognised as **bottom up.**

This design has been variously criticised. There are reasons why this approach should be modified. They are:

- Research evidence shows that syllabus content is not what most influences student learning. Components such as attitudes to study, assessment tasks and so on, that most define what learners ultimately remember and use in later life influence students' learning more.
- A published syllabus may actually hide the real content.
- Content dates rapidly. What is currently fashionable in research is replaced very rapidly by other materials.

- Course content always undergoes a series of pedagogic transformations on the way from what the teacher teaches. The teacher may not teach what he intended to teach

Designers who are developing a curriculum organised around a given **subject-area** will look at the facts, concepts, and skills related to, or encompassed by, that subject area, and plan activities that will lead students from their prior experiences into mastery of the elements of the subject area.

A variant of the subject-area-centered curriculum is one that is focused on a **discipline**. In this case, the center of the curriculum is the conceptual structures and processes that define the discipline and inform the work of people within the discipline. Students engage in activities that imitate the activities of scholars in the field. Toohey (1999) referred to this design as Traditional or Discipline Based

The problem with discipline-centered curriculum is that they are likely to ignore the knowledge and skills that lie between and among the various disciplines but which may be central in the lives or future of the students. For example, students need to learn the relationship between science, technology, and culture; these relationships are usually ignored by the sciences themselves.

One way around this problem is to centre activities not on a given discipline but on a **broad field** including several disciplines. Obvious examples are social studies, general science, and integrated mathematics, which merge several separate "fields" into an interdisciplinary subject area. These broad fields, or interdisciplinary subject areas, allow for more correlation, integration, and holism than strict disciplinary studies.

Broad fields can also be defined around **conceptual clusters**, such as "Science, Technology, and Society,"

A final way that subject-matter can be the organising centre of a curriculum is to focus on certain **processes**, such a "problem-solving," "decision-making," "computer programming," or "questioning." Each of these processes can involve a wide variety of subject-matters or specific problems and issues. A variety of activities can guide students toward increasingly sophisticated models of the process models that include the ways in which the process is varied to meet differing goals.

3.1.2 Designs Focused on Specific Competencies/Technology

This is the most narrow or limited design possibilities. The primary source of data for goals and objectives is the competencies to be acquired. This design depends greatly on task analysis. To develop this design you need to identify all tasks for which preparation should be provided, determine what one will need to know and do in order to perform the tasks, arrange the tasks in appropriate courses, organize knowledge and skill for each task into a hierarchy and finally determine what one needs to know for mastering of each knowledge or skill item. Toohey (1999) referred to this design as Performance or System Based

3.1.3 Designs Focused on Human Traits/Processes

This is an important emerging curriculum design however, it is utilized less widely than it is advocated. This design has two features

- The development of predetermined and specific human traits as the central goal
- The deliberate selection of the implementation processes to achieve the central goal.

Some examples of these human traits are – working effectively with others, communicating effectively, leading effectively, learning on one's own, making decisions, fore casting, planning, etc. Raven (1977) summarised these traits as – creativity, initiative, self confidence and sensitivity to one's feelings and emotions. This design focuses on the traits to be developed and not on the behaviours to be learned as in the specific competencies/technology design.

3.1.4 Designs Focused on Social Functions/Activities

These designs emphasise society as an influence on curriculum development. The designs are rooted in society and social problems however other designs are known to use society as a base. For this reason this design is not as sharply delineated as others. Toohey (1999) referred to this design as Socially Critical

3.1.5 Designs Focused on Individual Needs and Interests/Activities

In recent times there has been movement away from the traditional curriculum of school subjects towards programmes that emphasise the interest and needs of students. In these designs, the curriculum plan is based on the knowledge of learners' needs and interests. The

curriculum plan is flexible and the learner is consulted and instructed individually at appropriate points in the curriculum and instructional process. This design is also called child-centred design. Toohey (1999) referred to this design as Personal Relevance / Experiential.

One common objection to this design is that the content will be piecemeal and arbitrary. The mind of the child will be expanded, enlightened and extended only as far as his current interests and curiosities will permit (Urevbu, 2001). Another problem with this model is that only seldom do educators 'listen to the learner' and, even if they did, it is by no means clear that students would have a correct perception of the field. The student's learning environment is a complex one that includes far more than just the formal programme of instruction. It includes interaction with other students, browsing the library, talks with parents, and so on. It should be apparent that this approach must recognise that students adopt very different learning styles, so that what is good for one may be totally inappropriate for another.

3.2 McNeil Categorization

McNeil (1977) gave designs which are named differently from Saylor's designs. These are humanistic, social reconstructionist, technological and academic subject curriculum.

3.3 Eisner and Vallance Categorization

Eisner and Vallance identified five orientations to curriculum: the development of cognitive processes, curriculum as technology; self-actualisation or curriculum as consummatory experiences; social reconstruction-relevance and academic rationalism.

4.0 CONCLUSION

There are as many curriculum designs as there are values. It then means that there is no single design appropriate to the total array of learning opportunities a school can provide.

These models and approaches to curriculum design are theoretical models. Any one of them is unlikely to be followed in its entirety, either as a 'top down' or as a 'bottom up' system. In practice, almost everyone will choose a *middle-out* strategy that designs by refinement of a central core of materials that most probably already exist. The important point is that there is a design and that all the elements of the curriculum system have been thought about.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit the different types of curriculum designs. These include the subject matter/discipline design, the student/child-centred design, broad field/integrated curriculum design and specific competencies and technology design.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. In the 1990s in Nigeria, what existed at the primary school level was 'Primary Science' curriculum; today with the introduction of Universal Basic Education, the curriculum for the primary level is known as Science and Technology.
   a. From the titles of the curricula, what is the design of each curriculum?
   b. What do you think must have led to the change from primary science to science and technology?

ii. List five examples of curriculum designs.
   a. What are the characteristics of each design?
   b. In a tabular form, show the main differences among the designs.

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UNIT 3 PATTERNS OF THE CURRICULUM

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In unit 2 of this module you learnt one form of categorising the different models of curriculum design. There are other approaches which may be used as models for designing the curriculum. In this unit we will refer to the approaches as patterns of curriculum designs.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- list the two patterns of curriculum designing
- explain the characteristics of centralised and decentralised curriculum designs
- compare and contrast centralised and decentralised patterns of curriculum designs
- state the advantages and disadvantages of centralised curriculum pattern of designing
- state the advantages and disadvantages of decentralised pattern of curriculum designing.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

This unit will continue with curriculum designs as you started in the previous unit. You will learn three patterns of curriculum designing - centralised curriculum designing, de-centralised curriculum designing and centrally co-ordinated curriculum designing in this unit. In addition to the characteristics of each of the pattern to be discussed you will also learn the advantages and disadvantages of the designs.

3.1 Centralised Curriculum Designing

A centralised curriculum designing pattern is one in which the content is decided upon by a central national office. The actual work in designing the curriculum may be completed by a contracted consulting company, a parastatal organisation or a division of the Ministry of Education.

3.1.1 Characteristics of a Centralised Pattern of Curriculum Designing

Gatawa, 1990 and Urevbu, 1985 gave the characteristics of this pattern of design as:

a. The subject content is decided upon centrally. National syllabuses are produced with national goals and philosophies as well as suggested general learning objectives.
b. Subject content evaluation instruments are developed centrally and decisions on when and how to administer these instruments rest with the Ministry of Education or the Examination Board that has been assigned the responsibility.
c. Subjects to be offered by schools are determined centrally. Schools choose their subjects from a given list.
d. All learners taking the same subject write the same examination and are assessed in the same skills. However, adjustments in testing are made for students who may have certain disabilities.
e. Certification is centrally controlled. The certification indicates what has been learned by the student and how well the student has performed compared to others taking the same course.
f. Generally, textbooks must be approved by the Ministry of Education before any school uses these books.
g. Normally, there are curriculum development teams at different levels.
h. An inspectorate or standards control division is put in place to monitor the learning and teaching activities.
i. It takes a long time to write and approve the final curriculum document.

3.1.2 Advantages of the Centralised Pattern of Curriculum Design

Some of the advantages of a centralised pattern of curriculum design are:

a. It makes it easy to achieve national goals, since all schools use the same documents.
b. Learners can transfer from one school to another without being disadvantaged.
c. Entry requirements for universities and colleges can be centrally determined and parity can be ensured.
d. Communication to schools regarding academic requirements is easy, since the Ministry of Education is directly involved.
e. Learning materials can be mass-produced, making them less expensive for both producers and consumers.
f. Institutions can be well staffed and richly serviced because they draw from a national pool of expertise and resources.

3.1.3 Disadvantages of the Centralised Pattern of Curriculum Design

The disadvantages of centralising the development of the curriculum are:

a. The process takes a long time before the final document is produced.
b. The design is insensitive to the needs of some groups within the country.
c. There are coordination and communication problems when parastatals are involved in curriculum design.
d. There is limited participation by various members of the community, resulting in little commitment during the implementation stage.
e. It stifles creativity and initiative on the part of the teacher and other community members.
f. Generally, the centralised pattern stresses content, mainly knowledge, at the expense of the development of attitudes and skills. There is a scramble for certificates, with little regard for the development and demonstration of productive skills.

3.2 Decentralised Pattern of Curriculum Designing

The decentralised pattern of curriculum design occurs when the local authorities or individual states draft their own curriculum. This type of designing is common in developed countries.

3.2.1 Characteristics of Decentralized Pattern of Curriculum Designing

a. Local communities initiate the changes to suit their local needs.
b. Teachers work with the parents to determine the content. The learning experiences are based on what is available.
c. Subjects in schools could be the same, but the content will vary from school to school, state to state, or local government area to local government area.
d. Each school, state or LGA has its own syllabus that is produced locally.
e. Generally, the textbooks may not have been centrally approved.
f. Each school, state or LGA has its own form of evaluation.
g. Very few people are involved in curriculum designing.

3.2.2 Advantages of the Decentralised Pattern

The following are some advantages of the decentralised pattern of curriculum designing:

a. The curriculum addresses local needs.
b. The local community is directly involved and is committed to its implementation.
c. The system encourages creativity and initiative on the part of the teacher.
d. It takes less time to produce the curriculum than it would take when a centralised pattern is used
e. Students learn what is relevant to the local community.

3.2.3 Disadvantages of the Decentralised Pattern

The following are some of the disadvantages:

a. There is no guarantee that national goals will be achieved.
b. Learners cannot easily transfer from one school to another when their families move.
c. There is generally a problem in developing or accessing teaching materials which, if available, are expensive to produce.

d. There may not be adequate expertise in the local community to develop part of the curriculum.

3.3 Centrally Co-ordinated Approach to Curriculum Designing

In this approach to curriculum design, the government makes use of the committee system. People from different disciplines and from cross section of the society are selected. Seminars, conferences, workshops and debates are organised to ensure that interests and needs of all stakeholders are met.

3.3.1 Advantages of Centrally Co-ordinated Curriculum Design

a. It encourages debate among all stakeholders
b. Individual States and local government are able to interpret the unified curriculum in line with the existing local situation

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, patterns of curriculum design emphasis the role of government, society and other stakeholders in the curriculum process. This is different from the categorization in the previous unit which emphasised the content of the curriculum and the recipients.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt of another group of curriculum designs. Specifically you learned of centralised, decentralised and centrally co-ordinated curriculum designs

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Nigerian Education Research and Development Council (NERDC) is an example of a curriculum development centre. The centre has recently designed a curriculum for the 9-Year Universal Basic Education (UBE).

i. Determine the process of the curriculum design (either through interview of some participants during the design or by reading the process online)
ii. Briefly describe the design process
iii. What pattern of curriculum design is employed?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Duyilemi, B. O. (2000), *Introducing and Understanding Curriculum Studies* Ado-Ekiti, Selak Educational Publishers.

Kelly, A. V. (2004) *The Curriculum Theory and Practice* Sage Publications London.

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MODULE 5 THEORIES AND MODELS OF CURRICULUM CHANGE AND INNOVATION

Unit 1 Overview of Meaning and Conception of Change and Innovation
Unit 2 Models of Change and Innovation
Unit 3 Theory of Diffusion and Models of Dissemination of Curriculum Change and Innovations

UNIT 1 OVERVIEW OF MEANING AND CONCEPTION OF CHANGE AND INNOVATION

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

There are variety of what goes on in schools and classrooms. The schools operate under some contexts which include culture, socio-economic and political contexts. These contexts are ever changing. In Module 1, we learnt that curriculum can be conceptualised as all the activities under the guidance of the school. If we accept this concept of the curriculum, then we can also say that the school curriculum is ever changing. In this unit we will consider the meaning and concepts of curriculum change, innovation and related concepts.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define curriculum change
- define curriculum innovation
- establish the relationship between change and innovation
- state the differences between change and innovation
- give examples of curriculum change and innovations in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

In order to discuss the process, models and theories of curriculum change and innovation, it is important for you to learn the definitions of the concepts. This is the main content of this unit.

3.1 Definitions of Change and Innovations

The first question we need to answer in this unit is 'What is Curriculum Change/Innovation?' Just as there are many definitions of curriculum so there are of curriculum change/innovation.

Morrish (1976) defined innovation as 'something introduced which is new and different.' Nisbet (1975) defined innovation as 'any new policy, syllabus, method or organisational change which is intended to improve teaching and learning.' According to Per Dalin (1978) an innovation means 'a deliberate attempt to improve practice in relation to certain desired objectives.'

What then is curriculum change? Curriculum change is defined as 'any alteration in school and classroom processes.'

3.1.1 Differences between Innovation and Change

Curriculum innovation refers to ideas or practices that are new and different from those that exist in the formal prescribed curriculum. Simply put, the difference between innovation and change lies in the fact that innovation is always planned while change may occur in response to external events. For any curriculum innovation to be meaningful and effective, it must be planned and organised. It is possible that other types of changes may occur when they are not planned.

3.2 The Change/Innovation Process

We talk of change most often. In the school we often say there should be change in one form or the other. The question is 'What motivational set is needed to initiate a change process? Change begins with a problem or a need that somebody really cares about, recognition that something is wrong, that something requires change. This recognition must be accompanied by a sense of urgency, a feeling that action must be taken either now or soon.

3.2.1 The Change Process

The first stage of the change process is 'Care' because change begins with a care or a concern, a feeling that something is wrong and that something should be done to correct that wrong. Caring provides the necessary energy to get things going, to overcome the inertia that inevitably presents itself in the face of change. Where is this concern located? Who has it? How strongly is it felt? Is this concern the right starting point or an appropriate rallying cry to action?

3.2.2 The Innovation Process

Westley, in Morrish (1972) identified three processes at work in an educational innovation:

- Occurrence of innovation through the accretion of a variety of changes (e.g. introduction of new textbook)
- Perpetual infusion of the whole system with new ideas, as well as the transformation of those which it is prepared to assimilate into some newly conceived form more with its own norms and practice
- Occurrence of changes through policy decisions as central government authority decides to adopt a new idea and issues.

3.2.3 Berman and McLaughlin Stages of Innovative Process

Berman and McLaughlin (1976) identified three stages of an innovation process. These are initiation, implementation and incorporation.

Initiation Stage – This stage in the life of an innovation project occurs when local school officials conceive and formulate plans, seek resources and make decisions about which projects they should select and support.

Implementation Stage – This second stage of an innovative process is reached when the project confronts the reality of its institutional setting and project plans must be translated into practice. At this stage, the initial design of an innovative process must be adapted to the particular organisational setting of the school. At the same time the organisation and its members must adapt to the demands of the project. This stage will be discussed in details in Module 6.

Incorporation Stage – According to Berman and McLaughlin this is the final stage of an innovative process. At this stage the innovative practice loses its special project status and becomes part of the routinised behaviour of the school system.

3.3 Types of Change

Considering the change process there are different types of change and innovation. We will consider the types based on the proponents.

3.3.1 Morrish Types of Change

According to Morrish the main types of change that are introduced into schools may be broadly categorised as:

- Hardware
- Software and
- Interpersonal relations

Hardware involves any addition to school equipment. Software involves changes within the curriculum such as its range and content. All three types are related. The curriculum affects the hardware and interpersonal relationships. Changes in hardware involve and imply changes in roles and relationships

3.3.2 Havelock's Suggested Types of Change

Havelock (in Morrish, 1972) suggested six types of change:

- ***Substitution*** – For example replacement of one teacher by another or substitution of one textbook or teaching method by another
- ***Alteration*** – This involves alteration in existing structures rather than the introduction of entirely new elements
- ***Addition*** – This is adding without changing old elements or patterns
- ***Restructuring*** – This is material rearrangement of work-space

- ***Elimination*** of old behavioural patterns and habit
- ***Reinforcing*** of old behaviour

3.4 Preconditions for Successful Institutional Change

Watson in Morrish (1972) gave five preconditions for any successful attempt at institutional change. These are:

a. The participants must feel that the project is essentially their own and not wholly devised by outsiders
b. The project must be whole-heartedly supported by the senior officials of the system
c. The project must be in reasonable close accord with the values and ideals of the participants
d. The participants should experience support, trust, acceptance and confidence in their relations with one another
e. The participants must feel assured that their autonomy and security are not in any way threatened.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the team curriculum change as used in the educational literature is a generic concept. It is an umbrella term which involves other concepts.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt the definitions of curriculum innovation and curriculum change. You also learnt of the differences between curriculum change and innovations. Types of change and preconditions for change were also discussed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Considering the paragraph below:

'National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), in spite of having the content of Integrated Science in Colleges of Education reviewed, has introduced something new in the form of double and single major options.'

i. Would you consider the paragraph a change, an innovation or both change and innovation?
ii. Give reasons to support your answer

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Duyilemi, B. O. (2000). *Introducing and Understanding Curriculum Studies.* Ado-Ekiti: Selak Educational Publishers.

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UNIT 2 MODELS OF CHANGE AND INNOVATION

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In unit 1 of this module we defined curriculum change and innovation; we shall consider more of the two terms in this unit. We shall look at the Strategies for achieving curriculum change and innovations to further understand the process of curriculum change and innovations. Most of the models we shall discuss were tried with organisations other than the school but have been imported into the school or education settings.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- list at least five models of educational change and innovation
- discuss the main characteristic of each model or approach
- discuss the relationship among the models
- suggest which model is common in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Curriculum change and innovation can be modelled in many different ways and we will in this unit consider just a few of those we consider most relevant.

3.1 Saylor's Categorisation

In the previous unit you learnt that a precondition for change to occur include a sense of concern. When you sense a concern, you must direct yourself to several questions such as:

- Whose concern is it?
- How do I interact with those people?
- How do I identify the real problem underlying the concern
- How do I focus the search for solutions
- How do I focus on a strategy that will put the solutions into practice?
- How do I extend its application
- How do I renew

The first question relates to 'Care', the second is concerned with 'Relating', next involves 'Examining', then 'Acquiring', 'Trying', 'Extending' and 'Renewing' (CREATER). This is known as the seven stage change process and the model is known as CREATER Model. In this model, 'Renew', the last stage, leads to the first stage which is 'Care'. This model of change process is cyclical.

3.2 A Three-Step Model of Change

This is a model proposed by a social psychologist Kurt Lewin in 1951. His model is an explanation of how social systems change. Since the school is an example of a social system his model also applies to school systems. The three-step model of change involves ***Unfreeze-Move-Refreeze.***

Step 1: Unfreezing the System

Lewin proposed that the initial change task is to unfreeze the system. This is a stage when ties are temporarily loosened and protective barriers are made temporarily permeable. This step is also known as system openness.

Step 2: Moving

"Moving" is the introduction of the change and its initial acceptance. The more permeable the barriers are, the more rapidly and easily new elements are able to enter. Permeable barriers allow advanced and sophisticated school systems to retain a great deal of internal stability while still welcoming many types of innovations.

Step 3: Refreezing
"Refreezing" is the system's return to a new equilibrium in which the change is incorporated.

3.3 Chinn and Benne (1969) Model

Chin and Benne (1969) distinguished three types of strategies that can be applied to achieve change in an organisation:

- Empirical-rational strategies
- Normative-re-educative strategies
- Power-coercive strategies

Each of these strategies rests on implicit beliefs about human nature. Adherents of the first strategy see man as a rational being. The second strategy emphasises the social aspects of human behaviour and the ability to learn new behaviour. Power-coercive strategies are based on a less optimistic view on human nature. People identify primarily with their personal tasks or task perceptions and most of them are blind to the advantages for the organisation as a whole. Legitimate power may therefore be exercised to protect the larger interest

3.4 House (1981) Model

House (1981) model is also a three-step model consisting of:

- Technological
- Political
- Cultural

3.5 Sashkin and Egermeier (1992) Model

The model consists of:

- Fix the parts
- Fix the people
- Fix the school

3.6 Similarities between the Models of Curriculum Change

There are similarities in the Havelock and Chin/Benne models, and to simplify the discussion that follows, only Chin and Benne's categories will be described. Further, because it is instructive in understanding the evolution of approaches to change, two subsequent generations of labels

and applications for Chin and Benne's categories, by House and by Sashkin and Egermeier are included.

3.6.1 Empirical-rational/technological/fix the Parts

The basic assumption underlying the empirical-rational model is that individuals are rational and will follow their rational self-interest. Thus, if a "good" change is suggested, people of good intention will adopt the change. This approach "posits that change is created by the dissemination of innovative techniques" (Sashkin & Egermeier, 1992, p. 1). A primary strategy of this model is the dissemination of knowledge gained from research. House's technological perspective, the first of his three that address knowledge utilisation and innovation processes, views change as a relatively mechanistic process and have an underlying image of products to be used and tasks to be done. Sashkin and Egermeier's fix-the-parts approach to change involves the adoption of proven innovations of various types to reach improvement. The empirical- rational, technological, and fix-the-parts depictions are parallel in their underlying philosophies and appear to assume that good innovations, without doubt, will be incorporated into practice. Sashkin and Egermeier note that adding political and cultural elements to the fix-the-parts approach enhances its success.

3.6.2 Power-coercive/Political/Fix the People and the Parts

The power-coercive approach relies on influencing individuals and systems to change through legislation and external leverage where power of various types is the dominant factor. Power-coercive strategies emphasize political, economic, and moral sanctions, with the focus on using power of some type to "force" individuals to adopt the change. One strategy is nonviolent protest and demonstrations. A second strategy is the use of political institutions to achieve change -- for example, changing educational policies through state-level legislation. Judicial decisions also impact educational policy. A third power-coercive strategy is recomposing or manipulating the power elite - electing people to public office, for instance, to support an intended change.

House's political perspective is grounded in concepts of power, authority, and competing interests, with an image of negotiation. Sashkin and Egermeier's fix-the-people approach to change focuses on training and development of people, typically enacted as a top- down directive from the state or local level. Although Sashkin and Egermeier identify their fix-the-people approach primarily with Chin and Benne's empirical-rational and House's technological orientations, and secondarily on the normative-re-educative/cultural perspectives, it is

easy to see how the political orientation has been applied historically to the fix-the-people (their attitudes, beliefs, values, behaviors) approach.

3.6.3 Normative-re-educative/cultural/fix the School

In the normative-re-educative approach, the individual is seen as actively in search of satisfying needs and interests. The individual does not passively accept what comes, but takes action to advance his/her goals. Further, changes are not just rational responses to new information but occur at the more personal level of values and habits. Additionally, the individual is guided by social and institutional norms. The overarching principle of this model is that the individual must take part in his/her own (re-education) change if it is to occur. The model includes direct intervention by change agents, who focus on the client system and who work collaboratively with the clients to identify and solve their problems.

Two strategies are germane to the normative-re-educative model. First is to focus on improving the problem-solving capabilities of the system; a second is to release and foster growth in the persons who make up the system. There is no assumption that better technical information can resolve the clients' problems; rather, the problems are thought more likely to be within the attitudes, values, or norms of various client-system relationships. The assumption of this model is that people are capable and creative and, if obstructions are removed, will rise to their highest potential. The model's strategies are based on this potential that resides within people and their system for change; thus it is not necessary that change be leveraged from outside the system. House's cultural perspective has an underlying image of community, with shared meanings resting on shared values and people working together. Sashkin and Egermeier's fix-the-school approach develops the capacity of school organizations to solve their own problems. The three descriptions resonate and are compatible.

In the fix-the-people approach that links to House's political perspective, the focus is on improving the knowledge and skills of school staffs, thus enabling them to perform their roles. To accomplish this goal, pre-service training, in-service training, and other staff development opportunities are mandated to support teacher and administrator performance, and the adoption of innovations (Fullan, 1990). Approach 3, fix-the-school by increasing the school's problem-solving capacity, emphasizes House's cultural perspective. The long-term effects derived from use of such school improvement models have resulted in some schools' achieving their school improvement goals and gaining positive impact on student outcomes.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is clear that several of the theoretical perspectives of Chin and Benne, House, and Sashkin and Egermeier are embraced by educators at all levels today. Decision makers readily accept the notion that an innovation is adopted because it is good (empirical-rational approach). Policymakers mandate changes with the expectation that the force of their office will result in changes in practice (power-coercive approach). We are witnessing these processes in the new 9-year basic education curriculum by NERDC

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt of the different models of curriculum change and innovations. Some important models considered were those proposed by Chin and Benne, Havlock, House and Sashkin and Egermeier.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Identify an innovation in your subject area of specialisation.
ii. When was the initiation stage?
iii. Has the innovation been implemented and incorporated? Give evidences to support your answer.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Duyilemi, B. O. (2000), *Introducing and Understanding Curriculum Studies* Ado-Ekiti, Selak Educational Publishers.

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UNIT 3 THEORY OF DIFFUSION AND MODELS OF DISSEMINATION OF CURRICULUM CHANGE AND INNOVATIONS

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

When changes occur in the curriculum or when innovations are introduced it is important that the changes and innovations are disseminated. This is known as diffusion of change. For this reason the two terms, dissemination and diffusion are used interchangeably. In this unit you will the different theories of diffusion and the models of dissemination.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- list at least five theories of diffusion
- describe the different diffusion theories
- identify the similarities and differences among the different variables
- suggest theories of diffusion in the Nigerian education system
- describe the different models of dissemination of curriculum innovations.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Diffusion

Diffusion is defined as the process by which an innovation is adopted and gains accepted by members of a certain community. Diffusion research, in its simplest form, investigates how major factors interact to facilitate or impede the adoption of a specific product or practice among members of a particular adopter group

3.1.1 Factors Influencing Diffusion of an Innovation

A number of factors interact to influence the diffusion of an innovation. The four major factors that influence the diffusion process are:

- the innovation itself
- how information about the innovation is communicated
- time and
- the nature of the social system into which the innovation is being introduced (Rogers, 1995).

3.2 Diffusion Theory

The most important fact to consider in discussing diffusion theory is that it is not one, well-defined, unified, and comprehensive theory. A large number of theories, from a wide variety of disciplines, each focusing on a different element of the innovation process, combine to create a meta-theory of diffusion. However, you will study four theories discussed by Rogers among the most widely-used theories of diffusion. These are the 'Innovation Decision Process', 'Individual Innovativeness', 'Rate of Adoption' and 'Perceived Attributes'.

3.2.1 Innovation Decision Process

The Innovation Decision Process theory (Rogers, 1995), states that diffusion is a process that occurs over time and can be seen as having five distinct stages. The stages in the process are Knowledge, Persuasion, Decision, Implementation, and Confirmation. According to this theory, potential adopters of an innovation must learn about the innovation, be persuaded as to the merits of the innovation, decide to adopt, implement the innovation, and confirm (reaffirm or reject) the decision to adopt the innovation. This theory has been so widely cited in the instructional technology literature that Sachs (1993) writes, somewhat derisively, "after looking at [the literature] in our field, one might get the impression that the only important thing we need to know

about how to encourage the adoption of innovations or how to be better change agents is that there are five stages to the innovation adoption process (p. 1)". While Sachs correctly concludes that many other important theories of innovation diffusion are overlooked, the Innovation Decision Process theory remains among the most useful and well known.

3.2.2 Individual Innovativeness

The Individual Innovativeness theory (Rogers, 1995) states that individuals who are predisposed to being innovative will adopt an innovation earlier than those who are less predisposed. There are two key players based on this theory. These are the Innovators and the Laggards. Innovators are the risk takers and pioneers who adopt an innovation very early in the diffusion process. On the other extreme are the Laggards who resist adopting an innovation until rather late in the diffusion process, if ever.

3.2.3 Rate of Adoption

The third widely-used diffusion theory discussed by Rogers (1995) is the theory of Rate of Adoption. Rate of Adoption theory states that innovations are diffused over time in a pattern that resembles an s-shaped curve. Rate of Adoption theorizes that an innovation goes through a period of slow, gradual growth before experiencing a period of relatively dramatic and rapid growth. The theory also states that following the period of rapid growth, the innovation's rate of adoption will gradually stabilize and eventually decline.

3.2.4 Perceived Attributes

The Theory of Perceived Attributes (Rogers, 1995) states that potential adopters judge an innovation based on their perceptions in regard to five attributes of the innovation. These attributes are: Trialability, Observability, Relative Advantage, Complexity and Compatibility. The theory holds that an innovation will experience an increased rate of diffusion if potential adopters perceive that the innovation: 1) Can be tried on a limited basis before adoption; 2) Offers observable results; 3) Has an advantage relative to other innovations (or the status quo); 4) is not overly complex; and 5) Is compatible with existing practices and values.

The Theory of Perceived Attributes has been used as the theoretical basis for several studies relevant to the field of instructional technology. Perceptions of compatibility, complexity, and relative advantage have

been found to play a significant role in several IT-related adoption studies.

3.3 Models of Dissemination

Two major attempts were made in the 1970s to identify different models of dissemination. These are by Schon (1971) and Havelock (1971). Ever since then, their models have been taken as the bases of understanding dissemination of educational innovations although their analyses were based on evidence from spheres other than education.

3.3.1 Schon's Models

Schon identified three models of dissemination. These are:

a. Centre-Periphery Model

This model assumes that the process of dissemination must be centrally controlled and managed. It also assumes that the innovation is planned and prepared in detail before its dissemination. In this model, the process of dissemination is a one-way approach. It starts from the centre and spreads out to the consumers on the periphery.

The effectiveness of this approach depends on the strength of the central resources, number of points on the periphery that are to be reached, and the distance of these points from the centre.

b. Proliferation of Centres Model

In this model, secondary centres are created so as to improve the efficiency of the primary centre. Using Nigeria as an example, the central development team could be at the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, while secondary centres are developed at state and local government areas.

c. The Shifting Centres Model

This model appears to be more successful at explaining how unplanned diffusion occurs. It deals with innovations that do not have any clearly established centre.

3.3.2 Havlock's Models

Havelock's analysis of dissemination was an attempt to go beyond the notion that a one-way centre to periphery approach is the ultimate. He also proposed three models of dissemination. These are:

1 **Research, Development, Diffusion (R, D & D)**

This model has many affinities with Schon's basic Centre-Periphery approach. In this model, an innovation is conceived at the head or centre and then fed into the system. This views the

processes of change as a rational sequence of phases in which an innovation is:

1. Invented or discovered,
2. Developed,
3. Produced, and
4. Disseminated to the user.

This model is important and to be used when large scale curriculum change is the aim.

2 **Social interaction (SI) Model**

The stress in this model is on the social interaction between members of the adopting group. This is in the formal or informal contacts between interacting social groups. It is based on the following:

1. Awareness of innovation
2. Interest in the innovation
3. Trial
4. Adoption for permanent use.

The model stresses the importance of interpersonal networks of information, opinion, leadership and personal contact

3. **Problem Solving (PS) Model**

The essence of this model is that the problem is identified by the consumer and the process of innovation is thus initiated also by them. The individuals at the periphery are thus active and involved from the beginning. In this model the relationship between the consumer and the external support agent is one of mutual collaboration rather than that of receiver and sender of a message. Thus it can be concluded that this model is built around the user of the innovation, who follows the steps below:

1. Determine the problem.
2. Search for an innovation.
3. Evaluate the trials.
4. Implement the innovation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion there is a good deal of overlap between these models. However, models which encourage initiatives from consumer are likely to lead to the development of the notion of school-based curriculum development.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learned the theories of diffusion and the models of dissemination of innovations.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

The New 9-Year UBE Curriculum is presently being disseminated.

i. Identify the model of dissemination of the curriculum
ii. Would you suggest an alternative model of dissemination? Give reasons to support you answer.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Duyilemi, B. O. (2000), *Introducing and Understanding Curriculum Studies* Ado-Ekiti, Selak Educational Publishers.

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MODULE 6 STUDIES IN CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

UNIT 1 CONCEPTIONS OF CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In unit 5 you learned of curriculum change and innovations. Curriculum in many nations is either changed, altered or improved upon. The most appropriate and valued curriculum will go for naught if it is left on the shelves after it is developed. Putting new curricula into practice in the classroom is therefore an important curriculum exercise. How change is put into practice, to a large extent, determines how well it fares. This is simply called implementation. In this unit you will learn different conceptions of implementations

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define curriculum implementation
- list and discourse the components of curriculum/project implementation
- list and discourse the agents in the implementation process

- discuss the measures of the effectiveness of a project implementation
- discuss types of interactions during curriculum implementation
- discuss factors affecting curriculum/project implementation
- suggest why some Nigeria curricula either failed or were not properly implemented.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

The main content for this unit is on the conceptions of curriculum implementation. You will learn so many ideas about the implementation process

3.1 What is Curriculum Implementation?

Implementation refers to what actually happens in practice as compared to what was supposed to happen. Curriculum implementation entails putting into practice the officially prescribed courses of study, syllabuses and subjects. It includes the provision of organized assistance to staff in order to ensure that the newly developed curriculum and the most powerful instructional strategies are actually delivered at the classroom level.

3.2 Components of Implementation Efforts

There are two components of any implementation effort that must be present to guarantee the planned changes in curriculum and instruction succeed as intended:

- Understanding the conceptual framework of the content/discipline being implemented and,
- Organised assistance to understand the theory, observe exemplary demonstrations, have opportunities to practice, and receive coaching and feedback focused on the most powerful instructional strategies to deliver the content at the classroom level.

In any curriculum development centre, there is someone who is responsible for curriculum implementation and for determining the most effective way of providing organized assistance and monitoring the level of implementation. A curriculum framework will describe the processes and procedures that will be followed to assist all staff in developing the knowledge and skills necessary to successfully implement the developed curriculum in each content area. This framework will, at a minimum, describe the processes and procedures for curriculum implementation as:

- Study and identify the best instructional practices and materials to deliver the content
- Describe procedures for the purchase of instructional materials and resources
- Identify/develop exemplars that demonstrate the learning behaviors, teaching, and learning environment to deliver the content
- Study the current status of instruction in the content area (how teachers are teaching)
- Compare the desired and present delivery system, identify differences (gap analysis), and develop a plan for addressing the differences
- Organize staff into collaborative study teams to support their learning and implementation efforts (address the gaps)
- Provide ongoing professional development related to instructional strategies and materials that focuses on theory, demonstration, practice, and feedback
- Regularly monitor and assess the level of implementation
- Communicate with internal and external publics regarding curriculum implementation
- Involve staff, parents, students, and community members in curriculum implementation decision.

It is the responsibility of the officer in charge to keep the school, organisation or institution appraised of curriculum implementation activities, progress of each content area related to curriculum implementation activities, and to develop administrative regulations for curriculum implementation including recommendations.

3.3 Agent in the Curriculum Implementation Process

Putting the curriculum into operation requires an implementing agent. Stenhouse (1979: 4) identifies the teacher as the agent in the curriculum implementation process. She argues that implementation is the manner in which the teacher selects and mixes the various aspects of knowledge contained in a curriculum document or syllabus. Implementation takes place when the teacher-constructed syllabus, the teacher's personality, the teaching materials and the teaching environment interact with the learner (University of Zimbabwe, 1995: 9). Curriculum implementation therefore refers to how the planned or officially designed course of study is translated by the teacher into syllabuses, schemes of work and lessons to be delivered to students.

3.4 Measures of the Effectiveness of a Project Implementation

According to Berman and McLaughlin, there are three measures of the effectiveness of a project implementation:

- Perceived success
- Change in behaviour and
- Fidelity of implementation.

The perceived success is the relative extent to which the participants believe that the goals were achieved. Change in behaviour is the type and extent of change in teacher and administrator behaviour as perceived by participants. The third measure of effectiveness of a project, fidelity of implementation, is the extent to which the project was implemented as originally planned. Fidelity of implementation will be discussed in full in unit 2.

3.5 Types of Interactions during Project Implementation

Berman and McLaughlin in addition to the development of the measures of the effectiveness of an implementation described the interactions between the project (curriculum) and its setting. They described three types of interactions:

- **Mutual Adaptation –** This is the adaptation of both the curriculum design and institutional setting.
- **Non-Implementation** – This is non-adaptation on the part of either the curriculum or the setting.
- **Project or Curriculum Adaptation** – This is the adaptation to the indifference and resistance to change on the part of the project/curriculum participants, but no change by participants themselves.

3.6 Factors Affecting Implementation

Certain factors affecting implementation have been identified. According to Berman and McLaughlin the factors can be categorized into:

- Project/curriculum characteristics
- Institutional setting and
- Federal policies.

Project characteristics consist of four elements - educational treatments, resource level, scope of proposed change and implementation strategy. An innovation's local institutional setting has the major influence on its prospects for effective implementation. Such institutional settings include high moral of teachers, active support of principals and the teachers' willingness to expend extra effort on the project/curriculum.

3.7 Barriers to Effective Implementation

Barriers to effective implementation include lack of time, money and other resources. Further, an organisation that is overwhelmed or turbulent is likely to have more problemmes with implementation (Fullan and Pomfret, 1977; Gottfredson, 1984).

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, there are many curricula in Nigeria that has not been properly implemented. It could be because these elements of curriculum implementation were not in existence. When elements of curriculum implementation are not in evidence, projects or curriculum are likely to break down or be implemented symbolically without significant changes.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have studied the meaning and definitions of curriculum implementation. You also studied components, agents and factors affecting implementation process. Finally the interactions during implementation and the measures of the effectiveness of the implementation process were learnt.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

The 6-3-3-4 was an innovative curriculum in Nigeria in the 1980s. In your opinion was this innovation effectively implemented? If not what would you suggest were responsible for the break down in the implementation process?

The new 9-Year Universal Basic Education curricular was launched into Nigerian schools in 2008.

i. What factors are necessary for the effective implementation of the curriculum?
ii. To what extent do you think these factors are in existence in the institutional settings?
iii. Suggest efforts to ensure the effective implementation of the curriculum.

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UNIT 2 IMPLEMENTATION OF 6-3-3-4 CURRICULUM IN NIGERIA

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In unit 1 you learned of the meaning of implementation. You also learned of agents of implementation and factors affecting implementation process. Other information learned in unit 1 include types of Interactions during Project Implementation, measures of the effectiveness of a project Implementation and components of implementation efforts. In this unit we will consider the implementation of a curriculum innovation in Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the characteristics of the 6-3-3-4 curriculum in Nigeria
- discuss factors that affected the curriculum implementation
- list the barriers to the curriculum implementation
- suggest the measure of fidelity of implementation of the curriculum.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

The main content of this unit is the 6-3-3-4 curriculum in Nigeria.

3.1 The 6-3-3-4 Curriculum

Following the 1969 National Curriculum Conference and a series of workshops and seminars sponsored by Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) proposals were made for a change

in the Nigerian school system. This is the six years primary, three years Junior secondary, three years senior secondary and four years tertiary education. The curriculum for the system was of two main sections – the core and the elective subjects. Vocational subjects were included and language policy changed.

Since the introduction of the curriculum, many have had one form of criticism or the other. Two decades after its implementation alterations and modifications are one the way. Was the curriculum effectively implemented? This will be answered in the next section.

3.2 The Implementation of the 6-3-3-4 Curriculum

Arubayi (1986), Duyilemi (1987) and Obanya (1986) documented works on the implementation of the 6-3-3-4 system of education in Nigeria. An immediate and non-theoretical problem connected with curriculum implementation in Nigeria was the complaint about horridly planning and financial constraints (Duyilemi, 2000). Opinions were also that the subjects in the curriculum were too many for the children. The curriculum is said not to also take into consideration the local needs of the areas which the school serve. Originally, the plan was that continuous assessment would serve as the method of assessing the learners at the junior level while state and national examination would be used at the senior school level. However, the Implementation committee recommended examination at both levels. This led to some degree of contradiction at the initial stages. There was also lack of small scale trial of the curriculum document before being nationally implemented. There are no enough trained and knowledgeable teachers. These are some of the problems of the implementation of the 6-3-3-4 curriculum in Nigeria.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Although the curriculum is still being implemented, some alterations and changes are beginning to manifest. Today the curriculum at the primary and junior school level has been modified.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt about the 6-3-3-4 curriculum in Nigeria. You have also learned of some of the problems that have been barriers to the implementation of the curriculum.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. What are the characteristics of the 6-3-3-4 curriculum at the:
   a. Primary School
   b. Junior Secondary School
   c. Senior Secondary School
   d. Tertiary level of education

ii. List the problems that have affected the proper implementation of the curriculum

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Duyilemi, B. O. (2000). *Introducing and Understanding Curriculum Studies* Ado-Ekiti, Selak Educational Publishers.

Kelly, A. V. (2004). *The Curriculum Theory and Practice* Sage Publications London.

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UNIT 3 MODEL FOR FIDELITY OF IMPLEMENTATION

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You have learned of the meaning of implementation, agents of implementation and factors affecting implementation in the last unit. In the last unit you also learned that fidelity of implementation is one of the three measures of the effectiveness of a project implementation. In this unit we will learn more of fidelity of implementation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define fidelity of implementation
- list and briefly explain the importance of understanding fidelity of implementation
- describe how fidelity of implementation can be measured
- list and describe key elements of high fidelity of implementation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

The main content of this unit is fidelity of implementation. You will learn the meaning and definition of fidelity of implementation, the importance of understanding fidelity of implementation and how to measure fidelity of implementation.

3.1 Conceptions and Definitions of Fidelity of Implementation

Definitions of terms

There are many definitions of fidelity of implementation. The diversity of definitions includes:

- Strict adherence to methods or implementation that conforms to theoretical guidelines (particularly when the intervention is adapted to meet the needs of specific circumstances)
- Completeness and dosage of implementation
- The quality of programme delivery (the way a teacher implements a programme)
- The degree to which participants are engaged, and
- Programme differentiation (the degree to which elements which would distinguish one type of programme from another are present or absent).

Fidelity of implementation may be defined as the extent to which the delivery of an intervention adheres to the program model originally developed, and confirms that the implementation of the independent variable in outcome research occurred as planned (Mowbray, Holter, Teague & Bybee, 2003). Fidelity of implementation refers to the degree to which teachers and other programme providers implement programmes as intended by the program developers.

3.2 The Importance of Understanding Fidelity

Studying fidelity of implementation is important for a variety of reasons, all of which are related to gaining an understanding of how the quality of implementation can be improved when research based programmes are disseminated.

First, in studies in which there is a failure to implement the programme as planned (known as a Type III error) there is the potential to conclude erroneously that observed findings can be attributed to the conceptual or methodological underpinnings of a particular intervention (Dobson and Cook, 1980). As Yeaton and Sechrest point out, when we understand that an intervention was not implemented with fidelity, data suggesting that it failed to have an effect become 'totally uninteresting' (Yeaton and Sechrest, 1981).

A second important reason for studying fidelity of implementation is that it often helps to explain why innovations succeed and fail. If interventions succeed or fail depending on the dose or quality of intervention, this is crucial information.

Third, an assessment of fidelity of implementation allows researchers to identify what has been changed in a programme and how changes impact outcomes, i.e. fidelity can often be observed to affect not only primary behavioural outcomes, such as substance use, but to affect mediating variable outcomes such as changes in attitudes and beliefs as well. Understanding how fidelity moderates such effects can be crucial to guiding refinements in interventions.

Finally, fidelity of implementation reveals important information about the feasibility of an intervention—how likely it is that the intervention can and will be implemented with fidelity. If it is difficult to achieve fidelity of implementation in practice, a program has low feasibility. Programs that are implemented with high levels of fidelity but fail to produce desired effects may need to be redesigned.

3.3 Measuring Fidelity of Implementation

Fidelity of implementation can be measured in five ways:

- Adherence to the programme
- Dose (the amount of the programme delivered)
- Quality of programme delivery
- Participant responsiveness and
- Program differentiation (whether critical features that distinguish the program are present), Dane and Schneider (1998).

Dane and Schneider strongly recommend that researchers measure all five dimensions of fidelity in order to provide a comprehensive picture of program integrity (Dane and Schneider, 1998). It is not clear that all five types of fidelity must be present for a program to achieve its goals.

3.4 Key Elements of High-Fidelity of Implementation

Research has not yet identified a comprehensive list of critical elements which promote high quality fidelity of implementation. However, researchers have suggested likely candidates for critical ingredients. For example, according to the Rand study (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976), key elements to successful implementation include:

- Adaptive planning which is responsive to the needs of participants
- Training tailored to local sites
- A critical mass of participants (including other implementers) to provide support and prevent isolation, and
- Local material development ranging from creating original materials to repackaging materials to make them more appealing to the local audience.

More recently, additional factors which impact fidelity of implementation have begun to emerge from the research literature.

These include:

- Teacher training
- Programme characteristics,
- Teacher characteristics and
- Organisational characteristics.

Teacher training

Teacher training is viewed as an essential element of programme integrity. Payton *et al.*, (2000) see training as essential to promoting successful implementation of a curriculum (Dusenbury and Falco, 1995). Educational researchers who have studied the implementation process have long recognized that teacher training and staff development are necessary components of any successful implementation involving curricular innovation (Fullan, 1985; Perry *et al.*, 1997).

Program characteristics

There are a number of potential characteristics that define the structure and operation of a programme that have the potential to influence fidelity of implementation. Bauman et al. identified a number of program characteristics which influence fidelity (Bauman et al., 1991). Primary among these is the complexity of the intervention. Specifically, research shows that when interventions consist of many elements that require special skill and that require coordination by many people, they are less likely to be perceived as effective and to be continued by those who use it (Yeaton and Sechrest, 1981). In contrast, programmes that are packaged so as to simplify the task of implementation are more likely to be viewed as having a potential to be effective. Other programme factors include whether or not programme instructions are ambiguous, whether the programme is sufficiently strong or intense, who sponsors the programme and whether it is easy to administer (Yeaton and Sechrest, 1981).

Teacher characteristics

A variety of teacher characteristics have been found to predict whether or not a program is adopted or maintained. For example, teacher attitudes toward and support for the programme. Research has shown other characteristics such as newer to the profession, had more training, were more confident in their ability to teach interactive methods, and were more enthusiastic about the programme. Sobol *et al.* report that teacher characteristics such as confidence and animation during program delivery were associated with adherence and higher integrity, while authoritarianism was associated with lower integrity (Sobol *et al.*, 1989).

Organisational characteristics

Implementation ultimately depends on the receptivity of the sponsoring organisation (Wandersman *et al.*, 1998). A number of organisational characteristics also have been shown to be related to fidelity of implementation, including:

- Support by the principal
- The teachers' sense of efficacy as a teacher to educate their students
- Teachers' ability to communicate
- The general school culture
- Quality of leadership, accommodation and support by administrators
- Staff morale
- Whether and to what extent the organisation takes an active approach to problem solving and
- The organisation's readiness to adopt new programmes (Gottfredson, 1984).

4.0 CONCLUSION

A singular term that defines fidelity has not yet emerged. Each of the specific definitions has value and it is important for research projects to be clear behaviour about which specific fidelity issues are being addressed. Fidelity of implementation is one of the less emphasized components of the diffusion of innovation theory. Diffusion of innovation theory (Rogers, 1995) provides a way of understanding the process by which new ideas are put into practice.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt about fidelity of implementation. Specifically you learned the meaning of fidelity of implementation, the importance of understanding fidelity, how to measure fidelity of implementation and key elements of high-fidelity implementation

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify a curriculum innovation that has been implemented in Nigerian Junior or Senior.

i. How was the implementation measured?
ii. What problems were encountered during the implementation stage?
iii. Comment of the fidelity of implementation of the curriculum

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Duyilemi, B. O. (2000). *Introducing and Understanding Curriculum Studies* Ado-Ekiti, Selak Educational Publishers.

Kelly, A. V. (2004). *The Curriculum Theory and Practice* Sage Publications London.

Urevbu A., (2001). *Curriculum Studies*, London and Lagos, Juland Publishers.