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SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

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COURSE TITLE:
CURRICULUM DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT OF ODL

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MODULE 1: CONCEPTS AND FOUNDATIONS OF CURRICULUM

Unit 1: Meaning and Definitions of Curriculum
Unit 2: Types of Curriculum
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Unit 1: Meaning and Definitions of Curriculum

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1.0 Introduction

The word curriculum is, to a great extent, ill-defined and variously conceived. Efforts have been made for several decades to define and conceptualize it. Consequently there are many and a wide variety of definitions and conceptions of curriculum. You probably have come across so many of such definitions and conceptions in your previous studies. In this unit we will attempt to define the curriculum and analyse the different conceptions of the curriculum. We will also deduce and learn the characteristics of the curriculum.

2.0 Objectives

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

- List the different definitions of the curriculum
- Trace the progression in the historical development of the definitions of the curriculum
- List the main concepts of the curriculum
- Deduce the characteristics of the curriculum

3.0 Main Content

Let us begin this unit with explanations of the root of the word curriculum. We will also focus on the various definitions and conceptions.

3.1 Meaning of Curriculum

Let us consider the origin of the word curriculum and discuss various definitions of curriculum. We will also trace the progression of the historical definition of curriculum

3.1.1 Meaning of Curriculum

The first text book in curriculum published in 1918 by Bobbit has it that the word curriculum is derived from *currere* and has a Latin root which means “to run” or “race course”. It has its origins in the running/chariot tracks of Greece. Curriculum as a race-course implies having both a start and a finish line with various signposts. The success of any runner is then dependent on a number of variables. Anyone who successfully finishes the race receives a prize. The notion of a race-course also connotes a process in which learning experience is cumulative and sequential with each stage of the ladder building on subsequent stages. By implication, traditionally the school’s curriculum is a course of subjects, to be covered by students in their race towards certification (diploma/degree).

3.1.2 Definitions of Curriculum

Let us remind ourselves of some of the definitions so as to demonstrate the existing diversity of the use of the term curriculum. In doing so we will trace the progression in the historical development of the definitions of the curriculum. Some definitions in chronological order are:

- Bobbit (1918) defined curriculum as the deeds and experiences the students ought to have to become the adult he or she ought to become.
- In 1957 Smith and associates defined the curriculum as "A sequence of potential experiences is set up in the school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting.

- 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’.

There are several other definitions of the Curriculum such as:

- 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 (Oliva, 1997)

3. 2 Dimensions of Curriculum

The many definitions of curriculum has resulted in various conceptions of curriculum. We will discuss these various conceptions in this section. 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.

3.2.1 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.

3.2.2 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.

3.3 Conceptions of Curriculum

We will now consider the various conceptions of curriculum. These conceptions are related to the different definitions and dimensions of the curriculum.

3.3.1 Traditional Concept of Curriculum

We have learnt that some definitions of curriculum emphasise the things being studied such as textbooks, materials for instructions etc. In this form, curriculum can be conceptualized as a **body of knowledge** to be transmitted, 'course of study', 'syllabus' prepared to be taught to students by teachers. This is the traditional concept of curriculum.

3.3.2 Curriculum as Product

Some curriculum definitions reflect 'ends' of the curriculum (i.e. to the Intended Learning Outcomes (ILOs) which may be expressed as aims, goals and objectives. When a curriculum is so defined, the subject matter is chosen to reflect the outcomes. Often they are planned experiences for the learners. This has resulted in the conception of the curriculum **as 'product'**.

3.3.3 Curriculum as Process

In the contrary the definitions of curriculum instead of emphasising ends (or product) may refer to means of achieving the ends. This is a **conception of the curriculum as a process**.

3.4 Characteristics of Curriculum

From the above discussion, we may conclude that the curriculum has the following characteristics:

- It has content.
- It is planned.
- It is a series of courses to be taken by students.

- It comprises the experiences of children for which the school is responsible.
- It considers the learners and their interaction with each other, the teacher and the materials.

4 Conclusion

In its narrow sense curriculum is conceived as a list of subjects to be taught. However in a broader sense it is conceived as all learning experiences in both the school and in the society.

5 Summary

In this unit we have learnt of the origin, meanings and definitions of the word curriculum. We have also learnt of the various conceptions and dimensions of curriculum. From the definitions and conceptions we have deduced the characteristics of curriculum.

6 Tutor Marked Assignment

Classify the following into the different concepts of the curriculum
There are several other definitions of the Curriculum such as:

- 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 (Oliva, 1997)

7 References/Further Readings

Oliva, P. (1997) *The curriculum: Theoretical dimensions*. New York: Longman.

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Unit 2: TYPES OF CURRICULUM

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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 categorization or 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 to learn of the different ways of classifying the curriculum and of the different types in this unit.

3.1 Classification of Curriculum

Let us discuss three (3) ways of classifying the curriculum

3.1.1 Explicit Curriculum

This type of curriculum is what appears in documents and teachers' plans.

3.1.2 Implicit (or hidden) Curriculum

This type of curriculum has to do with how particular assumptions about schooling and learning manifest in practice.

3.1.3 Null Curriculum – The null curriculum is what is not taught. For an examples a biology teacher may not teach about pythons in a community that worship and reverence the animal.

3.3 Basic Types of Curriculum

In section 3.1 of this unit we considered three ways of categorizing curriculum. These may be referred to as types as well. However some authors consider the following as types of curriculum:

3.2.1 Informal Curriculum

Informal curriculum is also described as societal curriculum. Cortes (1981) defines this type of curriculum as the massive, on-going, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighbourhoods, churches organizations, occupations, mass media and other socializing forces that "educate" all of us throughout our lives.

3.2.2 Formal Curriculum

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.

3.2.3 Overt or Written

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.

3.2.4 Covert or Hidden Curriculum

According to Long street 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.

3.2.5 Null curriculum

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.

3.2.6 Concomitant curriculum

This is curriculum of what is taught, or emphasized 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, moulded behaviours, or social experiences based on the family's preferences it relates to the societal curriculum.

3.2.7 The electronic 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 ones' views.

3.2.8 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 impacts of these on life style 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 category and 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

1. What type(s) of curricula is/are used in
   - A National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN)?
   - B University of Lagos?

2. Give reasons to support your answers in 1A and 1B.

7.0 References/Further Readings

Oliva, P. (1997) *The curriculum: Theoretical dimensions*. New York: Longman.

Cortes, C.E. (1981) The societal curriculum: Implications for multiethnic educations. In Banks, J.A (ed.) *Educations in the 80'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.

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

Unit 3: FOUNDATIONS OF CURRICULUM

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1.0 Introduction

There are three major fields that curriculum development depends primarily the fields of philosophy, sociology and psychology. An understanding of these fields is crucial to the study of curriculum. Traditionally they are referred to as curriculum foundations. In this unit we learn about the foundations of curriculum as may be applied in the context of open and distance learning.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit we will be able to:

- Explain the terms philosophy, sociology and psychology
- Discuss several different philosophies of education
- Determine the role of philosophy, sociology and psychology in curriculum development

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Philosophical Foundations

In this section, we shall discuss several different philosophies of education that influence curricular decisions.

Educational decisions are influenced to a very large extent by philosophy of education. There are four major philosophical positions that have over the years influenced curriculum development. These are Idealism, Realism, Pragmatism and Existentialism.

3.1.1 Idealism

This is a doctrine that centers on moral and spiritual reality. The key word is reality. Reality according to idealism is seen as a world within a person's mind. It follows that idealists will teach subjects of the mind. According to the idealists the teacher would be models of ideal behaviour and the function of the school will be to sharpen intellectual processes and present models of behaviour that are exemplary. In such an education, materials for teaching – learning would focus around broad ideas especially in the areas of literature and scripture. Idealism does not center on acquisition of specific facts from different disciplines.

3.1.2 Realism

Unlike idealism that view the world within a person's mind, realism considers objects and matter. Realists believe that human behaviour is rational when it conforms to the laws of nature and is governed by social laws. This means that what scholars have discovered in the different disciplines about the world constitute knowledge. The implication of this in school is that the teacher would teach the learners knowledge of the world they live in. Like the idealists, realist also stress that education should emphasis permanent values. One major difference between the idealists and the realists is that whereas the idealists stress subject matter, the realists

stress the subject experts as source for curriculum development. These two philosophical ideas constitute the traditional philosophies.

3.1.3 Pragmatism

In pragmatism emphasis is on change, processes and relativity. In terms of education it focuses on practical aspects in teaching and learning. The idea here is that learning will occur when the learner interacts with the environment. In terms of the curriculum the pragmatists state that what to teach should be planned to help learners think critically and not on what to think. It then follows that teaching – learning should be exploratory and not explanatory. Learning should emphases activity method which will encourage students to solve problems.

3.1.4 Existentialism

The idea of existentialism is that there is no values outside human beings. Existentialist argue that man should have freedom to make choices and be responsible for the consequences of the choices. In curriculum development this means that learners should be given freedom to choose what to learn or to participate in curriculum decision making. The implication of this is that a learner should not be forced into pre-determined programmes of study. These ideas means that the teacher functions only as a resource to facilitate the learners search for personal meaning.

Having discussed four major philosophies, we will now turn to philosophies of education and their implications to curriculum development.

3.2 Educational Philosophies and Curriculum

In this section we shall also be looking at four major educational philosophies. These are i) Perennialism, ii) Progressivism, iii) Essentialism, and iv) Reconstructionism.

3.2.1 Perennialism

The underlying idea of this philosophy of education is that education is constant, absolute and universal. Perenialism is related to idealism of general philosophy. By implication this philosophy will focus on values that have moral and spiritual bases. The curriculum of the perennialist is subject-centered. It draws heavily on defined disciplines or logically organised bodies of content, but it emphasizes teaching and leaming of languages, literature, sciences and arts. The teacher is viewed as an authority in a particular discipline and teaching is considered an art of imparting inforrnation/knowledge and stimulating discussion. In such a scheme of

things, students are regarded immature as they lack the judgement required to determine what should be studied, and also that their interests demand little attention as far as curriculum development is concerned. There is usually only one common curriculum for all students with little room for elective subjects. Educators who emphasis intellectual meritocracy belong to this type of educational philosophy. Such educators enforce academic standard, identify and encourage talented learners.

3.2.2 Progressivism

Opposition to perennialist thinking in education gave rise to progressivism during the 1920s and 1930s. According to this school of thought, the skills and tools of learning include problem solving methods and scientific inquiry. This educational philosophy stress learning experiences that include cooperative behaviour and self-discipline. The curriculum according to the progressives should be interdisciplinary in nature and the teacher as a guide for students in their problem-solving and scientific projects. This educational philosophy is in opposition the authoritarian teacher; excessive dependence on textbook methods; memorization of factual data and learning by excessive drilling; static aims and materials that reject the notion of a changing world; and attempts to isolate education from individual experiences and social reality.

3.2.3 Essentialism

This educational philosophy is rooted partly in idealism and partly in realism of general philosophy. This school of thought emerged as a result of criticism against progressivism. It may be interesting to note that despite the criticism, proponents essentialism did believe that education should prepare the learner to adjust to a changing society. The implication of essentialism to education is that learning should consist in mastering the subject matter that reflects currently available knowledge in various disciplines.

3.2.4 Reconstructionism

This school of thought views education as a means of reconstructing society. To this school of thought school must be used as a means to shape the attitudes and values of the learner.

In the discussion about philosophy, it was suggested that philosophy has a valuable place in the practical realities of school/college since one's educational philosophy largely determines one's view on curriculum. While dealing with the social foundations, we said that in developing a curriculum both the contemporary and the future society should be , considered and kept in view. We also said that in developing curricula, attention be paid to

such issues as growth of technology, family structure, life styles and other aspects of society. At the same time, thought must be given to how the curriculum, developed in an industrial age, may respond to the growing diversity of the emerging postindustrial society.

3.3 Sociological Foundations

In Unit 1 we learnt of the philosophical foundations of curriculum. Similarly when we discuss the curriculum we must consider the social setting and its influence on decisions about the curriculum.

3.3.1 Society and Curriculum

We are aware that no child lives in isolation of the society. As students experience the curriculum, they are equally influenced by social pressures. Research has also shown that the society can influence what the learner learns of the curriculum positively or negatively. What a child learns can affect not only the child but the whole society. It is therefore necessary that when we consider the curriculum we must consider the society also.

The way boys and girls, men and women are supposed to act vary from one culture to the other. For this reason we can conclude that besides the classroom-curriculum, society plays a vital role in shaping the attitudes of the young. This means that the curriculum should not only reflect society but also help to shape it.

3.3.2 Social Change and Curriculum

We have heard statements such as “this is a jet age”, “the world is changing so fast”. There is no doubt that the society is changing swiftly. It is also not in doubt that we are not finding it easy to cope with the changes. This is more so with our schools. To make education respond to social changes, a curriculum should be framed keeping in mind growth of technology, structure of the family and cultural diversity. Let us now attempt to explain what each factor means.

3.3.3 Growth of Technology

Today societies use computers and other information-processing devices to replace manual workers than was the situation some decades ago. In Nigeria since 2000 communication technology as greatly improved. There are so many network providers. Similarly Nigerians have become information society. It therefore important that the curriculum must undergo changes in order to match with and capture important social changes

3.3.4 Structures of family

The structure of the family among Nigerians is greatly changing. There is increase in divorce, single parenthood, separations and the likes. These have great influence on education. Parents no longer provide a stable and predictable environment for young people. Schools have become the major sources for promoting common values among youth. This new trend in life patterns and values poses serious questions in curriculum planning.

3.3.5 Cultural Diversity

Nigeria is a multi-cultural society. From the south to the north, even with the same state culture differ. It is therefore important that in planning the curriculum we must consider how the content should portray the different cultural values.

3.4 Psychological Foundations

We often hear the team psychology. In psychology we learn of many things such as child development. There is a branch of knowledge known as educational psychology and this branch deals with how people learn. In this unit we shall be discussing about the major learning theories and their contribution to curriculum development. We shall also discuss individuals basic psychological needs as well as reflect on their translation into the curriculum.

3.4.1 Learning Theories

It is important that we emphasize that we shall not be discussing learning theories in great detail. This is so considering the fact that there are other course areas that have done so. Our discussion here will center on the learning theories and their contributions to curriculum development. There are different major theories of learning. They shall be classified into behaviourist, cognitivist and phenomenology theories. Let us now briefly discuss each group of theories.

3.4.2 Behaviourist Theories

These are theories that deal with stimulus – response and reinforcement schemes. Prior to the late 1950s the dominant learning theory in education was behaviourism. Behaviourism is a theory of animal and human learning that only focuses on objectively observable behaviour and discounts mental activities. Behaviour theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquisition of new behaviour. Experiments by behaviourists identified conditioning as a universal learning process. There are two different types of conditioning, each yielding a different behavioural pattern. Classic conditioning occurs when a natural reflex responds to a stimulus. The most popular example is Pavlov's observation that dogs salivate when they eat or even see food. Operant conditioning occurs when a response to a stimulus is

reinforced. Basically, operant conditioning is a simple feedback system. If a reward or reinforcement follows the response to a stimulus, then the response becomes more probable in the future. For example, leading behaviourist B.F. Skinner used reinforcement techniques to teach pigeons to dance. Two major criticisms of behaviourism are that it does not account for all kinds of learning. It disregards the activities of the mind and does not recognize new language patterns of young children.

Without going into the details we shall touch upon the main, characteristic features of the behaviourist school of thought. Essentially, learning is considered a habit-formation and teaching is regarded as arranging learning experiences in such a way as to promote desirable behaviour. Further, behaviourism maintains that what is learnt in one situation can be transferred to other situations as well. Broadly, behaviourists advocate that: behaviour is likely to be influenced by the conditions under which learning takes place; attitudes to and abilities of learning can change or improve over time through the application of proper stimuli; learning experiences can be designed and controlled to create desired learning.

3.4.3 Behaviourism and Curriculum

Let us now turn our attention to the contribution of behaviourist theory to curriculum development. A curriculum, according to behaviourist, should be based on acquisition of skills, well-defined short-term and long-term objectives, appropriate instructional materials and media to suit the learner's Abilities, diagnosing, assessing and reassessing the learners' needs, objectives, activities, tasks and instruction with a view to improving the curriculum.

3.4.4 C**ognitivist Theories**

This group of theories view the learner in relationship with the total environment. By the late 1960s, the influence of behaviourist theories of learning was waning and Piaget’s ideas of intellectual development came into prominence (Duit and Treagust, 1998). Most cognitivists believe that growth and development occur in progressive stages. Piaget proposed stages of cognitive development. Piaget’s stage theory identified four kinds of logical operations that children and adolescents exhibit in sequence. These are sensorimotor (birth to about 2 years), preoperational (from about age 2 to 7), concrete operational (from about age 7 – 11) and formal operational (from about age 11 onwards). Although Piaget’s idea of general, logical thinking skills and their development in stages were found valuable in describing cognitive development, they were also criticized. One major criticism is the idea that logical thinking operations are independent from contexts. Today most psychologists explain the phenomenon of human

growth and development in cognitive, social, psychological and physical terms.

3.4.5 Cognitivism and Curriculum

Most curriculum specialists tend to show greater adherence to cognitivism than to behaviourism. This might be because the cognitive approach leads to logical methods for organising and interpreting learning. It may also be because the cognitive approach is rooted in the tradition of teaching based on subject matter. Most educationists feel that learning is synonymous with cognitive development. There is a call for the problem solving approach in teaching-learning. However, a look at actual teaching-learning situation shows that problem solving approach is incomplete and that something is lost in its processes of actual transfer in the classroom. In reality, the teaching-learning process boils down to the teacher talking predominantly and students mostly responding to what is said by the teacher. It then follows that curriculum specialists should include a curriculum where students are not afraid of asking questions, making mistakes, taking cognitive risks and playing with ideas.

3.4.6 Phenomenology

This group emphasizes the affective domain of learning.

4.0 Conclusion

You have learnt that the foundations of curriculum one has affect curriculum development.

5.0 Summary

In this Unit, we have explored the psychological foundations of the curriculum. The discussion has shown that curricula can become more effective if they are based on considerations such as basic human needs and the ways for meeting them.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

MODULE 2: CURRICULUM ISSUES AND TRENDS IN DISTANCE EDUCATION

Unit 1: Curriculum Issues in Distance Education
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Unit 1: Curriculum Issues in Distance Education

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1.0 Introduction

In Module 1 we learnt of the different meanings, definitions and conceptions of Curriculum. It is important for us to remember that this course is Curriculum Design and Development in Open and Distance Learning. We therefore need to have an overview of the concept of Open and Distance Education. ODL is different from face-to-face mode of education. It then follows that curriculum issues for both modes of education cannot be the same. In this unit our effort will be to look at the important issues which usually confront the curriculum developers working for distance education. Such issues are likely to have implications for ODL programmes.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of Open and Distance Learning
- Define Distance Education

- Trace the historical development of ODL
- Discuss different levels of curriculum issues in ODL
- List different curriculum issues in ODL
- Identify the different curriculum issues in ODL
- Give examples of the different curriculum issues in ODL

3.0 Main Content

We will begin this unit with an overview of Open and Distance Education. We will discuss the meaning and briefly trace the history of ODL. We will also discuss the different curriculum issues in open and distance education.

3.1 Overview of the Concept of Distance Education

3.1.1 Meaning of Open and Distance Learning (ODL)

Open and distance learning (ODL) is a form of education that combines two forms of education – open and distance. Open learning is an approach that provides learning in a flexible manner, organized around the geographical, social, and time constraints of the learner rather than an institution (Bates 1995:27). Distance education is an educational process in which a significant proportion of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in space or time from the learner (Perraton 1993: 63). The combination of the approach, open learning, with the method, distance teaching, is called Open and Distance Learning (ODL).

ODL is conceived differently by different persons. It then means that there is no one best definition of open and distance learning. Some terms that are commonly used to describe ODL are correspondence education, home study, independent study, external studies, continuing education, distance teaching, self-instruction, adult education, technology-based or mediated education, learner centred education, open learning, open access, flexible learning, and distributed learning.

3.1.2 Brief History of the Development of ODL

What is today known as ODL started as correspondence courses in Europe before 1950. In the late 1950 instructional radio and television became popular (Cambre 1991). As at that time television production technology was largely confined to studios and live broadcasts, in which master teachers conducted widely-broadcast classes. Today we use computer based technologies such as emails.

3.1.3 Philosophy of ODL

ODL focus is on expanding access to learning. It is characterised by two factors: its philosophy and its use of technology. Most ODL systems have a philosophy that aims to remove barriers to education and allow students to study what they want, when they want and where they want. For this reason it can be said that ODL is about increasing educational access and increasing educational choice. ODL systems typically use technology to mediate learning, for example printed workbooks, audio cassettes, radio, the web. When combined with ICT in a well-designed, local school-based support system, open and distance learning can meet the challenges that education systems in developing countries are facing today.

3.2 Curriculum Issues in Distance Education

Curriculum issues in distance education can be classified as instructional, …

3.1 Instructional issues

There are various levels of instructional issues related to curriculum for distance education. Two major ones the theoretical and practical levels. At the theoretical level, the principles behind various theories of learning and the concept of curriculum as they influence curriculum planning are discussed. At the practical, or pragmatic level, the instructional issues are several and include issues such as course planning, course production, media selection, student support services, evaluation, feedback system, etc.

3.1.1 Theoretical Level

Let us at this point discuss the theoretical level issues pertaining to curriculum for distance education. This centers majorly on the theories of learning. The major theories of learning we are familiar with are Behaviourism, Cognitive Psychology and Eclecticism. Our choice of methods of teaching, and our decisions about strategies to implement a given curriculum, will depend on the learning theory we follow. The curriculum planner who subscribes to a particular world-view and a theory of learning, perceives the whole process of developing, implementing and evaluating the curriculum differently.

Prior to the late 1950s the dominant learning theory in education was behaviourism. Behaviourism is a theory of animal and human learning that only focuses on objectively observable behaviour and discounts mental activities. Behaviour theorists define learning as nothing more than the

acquisition of new behaviour. Experiments by behaviorists identified conditioning as a universal learning process. There are two different types of conditioning, each yielding a different behavioural pattern. Classic conditioning occurs when a natural reflex responds to a stimulus. The most popular example is Pavlov's observation that dogs salivate when they eat or even see food. Operant conditioning occurs when a response to a stimulus is reinforced. Basically, operant conditioning is a simple feedback system. If a reward or reinforcement follows the response to a stimulus, then the response becomes more probable in the future. For example, leading behaviourist B.F. Skinner used reinforcement techniques to teach pigeons to dance. Two major criticisms of behaviourism are that it does not account for all kinds of learning. It disregards the activities of the mind and does not recognize new language patterns of young children.

By the late 1960s, the influence of behaviourist theories of learning in education was waning and Piaget's ideas of intellectual development came into prominence. Piaget proposed stages of cognitive development. Piaget's stage theory identified four kinds of logical operations that children and adolescents exhibit in sequence. These are sensorimotor (birth to about 2 years), preoperational (from about age 2 to 7), concrete operational (from about age 7 – 11) and formal operational (from about age 11 onwards).
Students' learning from the cognitive perspective was a central aspect of research in the mid-1970s. Although Piaget's idea of general, logical thinking skills and their development in stages were found valuable in describing cognitive development, they were also criticized. One major criticism is the idea that logical thinking operations are independent from contexts. Today emphasis is on constructivism. Constructivism is the most current dominant view of learning. This view holds that children construct their own meanings from what they experience. From the constructivist approach children learn when they construct knowledge on their own. The trend in the theories of learning can be summarized as from behaviourism to social constructivism.

Eclecticism : This is an approach that freely makes use of all workable principles from any theory of learning. This is often described as a pragmatic approach because avoids all conflicts and controversies that arise from conflicting philosophical positions and pedagogical theories.

Theories of learning have important implications for curriculum development in the context of distance education. You will agree with me that curriculum developers who are more inclined towards behaviourism will tend to ignore the role of learners and move towards a controlled and bureaucratic type of curriculum. On the other hand those who choose the

eclectic approach, or to certain extent the cognitive approach, will emphasize the need to allow the learner a degree of freedom in deciding what and how learn should go.

3.1.2 Practical Level

Let us turn our discussion over to practical or pragmatic level. This level concerns issues related to strategies of teaching and the support services necessary for the distance learner to learn without facing any major hurdles. In ODL, at the practical level, emphasis should be more on course design, text design and the choice of media. It is necessary to consider the heaviness of the content in ODL packages. We should also consider the type of multimedia for effective delivery of the content. These crucial issues must be considered during curriculum development for ODL.

3.2 Discipline based issues

In ODL we develop curriculum for different disciplines such as Sciences, Humanities and Social Sciences. These disciples differ in nature. Even when we adopt the same set of principles in developing the curricula, application of the principles will definitely not be the same. Let us illustrate this with a simple example. When we plan and develop curriculum for the sciences the amount of consideration we will give to laboratories will not be same when we develop curriculum for humanities and the social sciences. Therefore in curriculum development for the sciences we begin with an assessment of basic infrastructural facilities necessary for the practice and success of science programmes.

3.3 Individual based issues

Distance education is known for its liberality of allowing individual students to choose the course or programme that he or she so deserves. Distance education is so flexible that it allows for independent study. In distance education it can be said that the learner has autonomy over what to study. Similarly, distance education is reasonably flexible in the time for completion of the programme. Considering the above points, it becomes important during curriculum planning for distance education to consider a variety of individual student's needs, different individual learning styles and study habits.

When you consider the structure of conventional curriculum you will realize how difficult it is to isolate specific topics or themes from the overall curriculum framework. This is quite different with distance education curriculum where specific topics or areas of knowledge can be easily isolated to offer individuals courses in the areas of their interest. Therefore

in the development of curriculum for distance education we need decide on the nature of needs and the possibility of developing courses to meet those needs of individual students. It is important to remember that the objectives of learners differ. In distance education, some learners may just want to get the information, others may need certification while a few would like to take the examination whenever they are ready for it. Consideration of such issues will influences the final outcome of individual-based curriculum for distance education.

3.4 Relevance Based Issues

A useful and effective curriculum may become irrelevant if it ceases to respond to the new needs of individuals and the society. It then means that the relevance and irrelevance of a curriculum is dependent on how closely the curriculum is related to the needs of individuals or society. In this regard the curriculum of distance education that is developed as that of conventional education may cease to be relevant as it may not be flexible and satisfy the needs of the individuals.

4 Conclusion

5 Summary

6 Tutor Marked Assignment

7 References/Further Readings

Unit 2: Curriculum Trends in Distance Education

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1.0 Introduction

Let us here consider some of the important trends in distance education which call for new approaches to curriculum.

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

In this unit we will discuss three general trends of curriculum in distance education. These will be trends in the developed countries, developing countries, and the socialist countries.

3.1 Distance Education Curriculum in Different Countries

Before discussing curriculum trends in distance education it is important to consider distance education curriculum in different countries. We will categorize the countries into three – developed, socialist and developing countries.

3.1.1 Distance Education Curriculum in Developed Countries

We will consider the trend in distance education in the United Kingdom (UK) and United States of America (USA) as examples of distance education curriculum in developed countries. In the UK, distance education

also known as open education is a second chance for those adults who did not get the opportunity for higher education at the right time. Open education aspires to improve the status and quality of adult education. It also gives opportunity to adults who were actually ignored by formal and elitist curricula of the established educational institutions. In the USA, distance education curricula focusses on the technical and training needs of industrial workers and armed forces. Although today there are new curricula for disadvantaged groups, they received attention from distance education.

3.1.2 Distance Education Curriculum in Socialist Countries

People's Republic of China, Vietnam, Cuba and Nicaragua are some examples of socialist countries. Distance education curricula in these countries took a very different turn in producing courses which could combine production, general and specialised education. Curricula for polytechnic education in the socialist countries together with the curricula for work peasants and soldiers concentrate as much on ideological and political education as on technical knowledge and skills. The distance education curricula in these countries give more importance to training personnel who directly take part in economic production and scientific technological advancement.

3.1.3 Distance education curriculum: developing countries

In the developing countries, the broad aim has been national development. This broad aim, however, implies a number of areas where new programmes/courses are to be planned and developed. Some of the areas which need unconventional curricula are mass or community education, literacy-oriented education, general health education, women's education, rural development and vocational education.

An example is with Nigeria

3.2 Emergence of Adult Education

Our example will be with Britain. Adult education in 19th century Britain was the product of the working class movements and trade union activities. Academics connected with established formal educational institutions moved out of their ivory towers to reach the educationally disadvantaged sections of the people. Naturally, they had to think of a curriculum which would be suitable to the day-to-day needs of the common people who could not have access to the elitist education I which essentially aimed at perpetuating the interests of the upper class, middle class and the other privileged sections of the British society. Curriculum for adult education, thus, focused on the economic, social and political rights of the common people in general and the workers in particular. The British Open University

courses were produced with a view to overcoming the constraints of the prevalent curricula in the formal system of education.

The three major considerations which seemed to have influenced the Open University curricula are:

1. Age: The minimum age for a student at the Open University was fixed because students below that age might be more liable to be affected by loneliness or alienation that accompanies individualized study. Besides, by a certain age a learner could be considered mature enough to manage his/her studies.
2. The assumed entry behaviour : The assumed entry behaviour in the case of adult learners joining degree courses could not be the same as the entry behaviour of a student who had not completed
   His/her school education. So preparatory courses became necessary for the Open University students.
3. Standard of the educational performance**:** The credibility of degrees

4 Conclusion

5 Summary

6 Tutor Marked Assignment

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Unit 3: Learner Support System

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1.0 Introduction

Learner support services in ODL refers to a full range of activities developed to help learners meet their learning objectives and gain the knowledge requisite to course and career success (Brindley and Ross, 2004). They include all those interactive activities intended to support and facilitate the learning process from the learner's first point of contact with the institution, including tutoring, teaching, counselling, advising, orientation, administrative services and even peer tutoring and alumni support. Learner support services are intended to provide all information learners need; encourage students to fully utilise the available facilities; motivate learners to assimilate what they learn; provide necessary counselling; and create a friendly environment among learners, the faculty and the administration (Chander, 1998). Learner support services are the lifeblood of ODL institutions primarily because of the overt challenges of high learner attrition rates and their corresponding needs and demands for a more personalised support system. As such, all successful ODL institutions have in place an excellent learner support system via face-to-face and online. Lifelong learners can benefit a great deal from the support system provided by ODL institutions. Being on their own for most of their learning time, lifelong learners should obtain as much assistance as possible not only in directly coping with their study courses but also in resolving their personal problems related to their studies.

A distance education program must design and impliment effective learner support services and systems. Unfortunately, in many distance education systems, more resources are invested in the technical system at the expense

of the learner support system. Equivalent or more resources should be invested in the learner support system if the distance education enterprise is to be successful (Gunawardena, 1996, 271)

3.0 Content

3.1 Meaning of Learner Support System

Garrison and Baynton (1987, 7) define learner support as the resources that learners can access in order to carry out the learning processes. Garrison (1989, 29) observes that in distance education "support is concerned with a range of human and non-human resources to guide and facilitate the educational transaction". He observes that these resources may be library facilities, various media and software programs, community leaders, or they could be various socio-economic variables such as student's financial self-sufficiency and capacity to cope with their roles and responsibilities in the family and community. Also he determines that the most important form of support in an educational transaction is the teacher, who through guidance and direction can assist the students to achieve their goals and develop control of the educational process. The importance of the role that the teacher plays in distance education systems that use real time interactive television was observed in a study that examined the student support systems in a statewide telecommunications program (Dillon, Gunawardena, and Parker, 1992). The authors observe that when students were asked to name the factors that played an important role in aiding their learning, they cited the teacher. When students were asked to name the significant barriers to their learning experience, they named the teacher. So, the teacher in an interactive distance learning system can either make or break the system, and important consideration must be given to the role the teacher will play in such a system.

The dominant feature of distance education is the physical and often temporal distance that separates the teacher and learner. Because distance students are often placed in a unique situation in which neither teachers nor fellow students are physically present to clarify, discuss, or provide feedback, effective distance education requires a sound learner support system (Gunawardena, 1988). One important means of analyzing the effectiveness of the teaching-learning experience in a distance education system is through the analysis of the learner support system. "Support systems contribute to the 'process' of a course as do the learning materials" (Hodgson, 1986,56), and support systems developed in recognition of student needs help the distance learner become competent and self-confident in learning, social interactions and self-evaluation (Rae, 1989). Prideaux

(1989) observes that the effectiveness of the student support system of open/distance learning has not been adequately evaluated

3.2 Types of Learner's Support System

Dillon and Blanchard (1991) described four types of support systems:
1) Learner support and learner needs
2) Learner support and content
3) Learner support related to the institutional context, and
4) Learner support and technology.

There are some systems or procedures that are purposefully created and effectively utilized by a distance education institution to support and/or facilitate teaching and learning at a distance.

They may include any or all of these:

- Record keeping and administration, pre-admission counseling
- Admission and registration information-administrative assistance
- Books dispatched by mail, library service
- Tutoring and counseling
- Weekend courses and study centers
- Electronic communication technologies such as phones, radio, audio tapes, video, television, etc. With the advent of technology, the list keeps on growing as new innovations are made by the day, especially in the developed world.

The amount of support services an institution can offer largely depends on that particular institution's capacity and resources at its disposal. However, these can be put into two categories which are the following:

- Academic, including such packages as tutorial, advising and counseling services.
- Administrative functions, such as enrolment; admission and registration; record keeping; information provision; and delivery of study materials (Molefi, 2002).

3.3 Model of a Learner-Centered Distance Education System

Gunawardena (1992) describes a model of a learner-centered distance education system that can be facilitated by the use of interactive communications technology. The learner is connected to several resources such as other learners, both on and off-campus, and the library and databases. The connection is interactive with the learner constantly interacting with the resources and receiving feedback. The teacher is only

one type of resource that the learner can access and the teacher's role would be that of a facilitator linking learners to other resources and providing adequate support to empower the learner to exercise control over the learning experience. In such a model, it is necessary to provide adequate support services to help the learner take control of the learning experience. In order to link learners to resources, it is important that they are taught how to use electronic networks. Further, it is important to set up a peer learning arrangement or a collaborative learning network so that students can teach and assist each other without depending on the teacher. It is also crucial that learners are taught cognitive strategies and self-directed learning skills so that they would be more capable of taking charge of their learning experiences. These skills can be taught in orientation programs before classes begin.

3.4 Adult Learners' Characteristics

Learner support that addresses learner needs will depend on the unique needs and characteristics of the learner. Dillon and Blanchard (1991) observe that one important factor that contributes to success is the motivation or confidence of the learner. Less motivated students may benefit from interaction with the teacher or tutor. Less confident learners may need more group support than more confident learners. Older learners may need more support in testing environments. Learners in distance(higher) education system are adults and so ,if we want to know learner needs in a distance education system, we must know the adult learner characteristics; Ference and Vockell (1994) gave a list of adult characteristics. These characteristics were the following:

1) Active-learner,
2) Experienced-based,
3) Experts,
4) Independent,
5) Hands-on,
6) Life-centered,
7) Task-centered,
8) Solution-driven,
9) Value-driven,
10) Skill-seeking,
11) Self-directing,
12) Motivation (External),and
13) Motivation (Internal).

A short list of characteristics of the typical Nigerian distance learner looks like this:

- Most are adults
- Distance learners take courses for many reasons, particularly to learn new subjects and skills or update old ones.
- Most participate in a distance eduacation course voluntarily.
- Distance learners tend to be more field independent and self-directed than traditional learners.

Above mentioned adult learning characteristics are very important to design an effective learner support system suitable for learner needs.

3.5 Types of Learner Support

Learner Support and Content in Distance Education
This type of learner support will depend on the content and the learning environment. This type of learner support will asked questions on the relationship between the content and the cognitive, affective, or psychomotor domains. It will also be concerned with the design of the learning environment.

Learner Support and Institutional Context in Distance Education
This type of learner support depends on the type of distance teaching institution delivering the instruction. Open universities usually have a network of study centers type of learner support and emphasize student-tutor interactions and flexible pacing. Institutional policies may also affect access to media and libraries and can be problematic in mixed mode institutions that may treat distance learners differently from traditional on-campus learners (Gunawardena, 1996, 278).

Learner Support and Technology in Nigerian Distance Education
Learner support related to technology depends on the type of technologies used in the distance education system. Garrison (1989) describes the development of distance education by noting three generations of technology. The first generation uses primarily correspondence, delivered through the regular mail system. In this system, the availability of interaction becomes critical. Thus, the provision for interaction between the student and the tutor is important.

The second generation of technologies provides for real time interaction and is exemplified by audio, audio graphics and video teleconferencing. Because these systems provide for real time interaction, what is critical is the quality of interaction. The third generation technologies are microprocessor-based

technologies such as computer conferencing. In these systems, the quality of interaction with the group becomes important and support systems must facilitate the collaborative learning process. In some studies, technologies that deliver instruction to distance learners are often classified as two-way interactive or one-way non-interactive (Bates, 1995; Murphy, 1996).

3.6 Problems distance learners face

Open and distance learners face problems that include:

- isolation in that distance learning participants may have little or no opportunity for face-to-face contact with the institution, their tutor, or fellow learners;
- difficulty balancing work, study, and family commitments;
- lack of motivation;
- lack of resources and equipment – in that learners may not have access to specialist
- libraries or practical equipment needed for studies; and
- difficulties in developing appropriate study techniques such as note taking and essay writing.

3.7 Special needs of distance learners

Distance learners have special needs, which include:

- information to help learners relate to the institution and understand its system;
- contact with tutors to help maintain motivation and overcome learning problems;
- institutional identity, which is some means of helping learners identify with a remote institution and to feel that they are part of a body of learners rather than studying in isolation; and · advice on how to study; as well as that provided within the course itself, learners often need additional support to develop good study techniques.

4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
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MODULE 3: CURRICULUM PLANNING IN ODL

Unit 1: Meaning and Levels of Curriculum Planning
Unit 2: Curriculum Approaches
Unit 3: Models of Curriculum Planning

Unit 1: Meaning and Levels of Curriculum Planning

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    3.3 Issues in Curriculum Planning
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    3.4 Curriculum Approaches
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        3.5.2 Non-technical models
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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
- Discuss the levels of curriculum planning;

3.0 Main Content

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 Meaning of 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. Curriculum planning describes the learning opportunities available to students. It is not enough to describe what students will learn but also how they will learn such content. Therefore curriculum planning involves decisions about both content and process.

In the past curriculum planning was ascribed to a few known as curriculum experts. Today it is seen as involving many groups of people and levels of operation and is a continuous process.

The terms curriculum planning and curriculum development are sometimes used interchangeably. However some differences do exist. Curriculum planning is a blanket concept, that may describe activity ranging from the identification of broad goals to the description of experiences for specific teaching-learning situations. And curriculum development is an activity concerned mainly with the design of actual teaching-learning situations.

A comprehensive definition is that 'curriculum planning' is a continuous process in which participants contribute at various levels towards making decisions about:

- the purposes of learning;
- how those purpose might be carried out through teaching-learning situations; and
- whether the purpose identified and the means selected are both appropriate and effective (Ref).

Before we try to define curriculum planning let us explain what it involves. It involves decisions about content, process and variety of issues or topics to be included in the curriculum. Curriculum planning can be defined as a continuous process in which decisions about the purposes of learning and the teaching-learning situations for achieving the purposes are made.

Often the term curriculum development is used interchangeably with curriculum planning. Are they really the same? What is/are the relationship? How are they different? Some conceive both terms as two different stages of educational activity. To some, curriculum planning refers to activities such as identification of goals to description of experiences for specific teaching-learning situations. On the contrary, curriculum development is concerned mainly with the design of actual teaching-learning situations. Considering these two views ‘curriculum planning' can be seen as a generic concept that includes both curriculum development and instructional design,

Many decades ago it was thought that curriculum planning was the prerogative of a few scholars and the teachers role was to implement what has been planned. Today due to advances in thinking, curriculum planning is not the sole responsibility or privilege of any one group. It is a product of team-work.

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 model.

Levels and Components of Curriculum Planning

There are seven levels of curriculum planning:

- the national level;
- the state level;
- the institution-system-wide level;

- the building level;
- the teacher team level;
- the individual teacher level; and
- the classroom level with cooperative planning between students and teachers.

These also form the context in which to consider the meaning of curriculum planning.

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

3.2 Background to Curriculum Development

We can now discuss the evolution of Curriculum as Field of Study. This is important because it has influenced the concepts persons have of the curriculum. Let us consider this evolution and the implications on the concept of curriculum under two periods:

The first stage (1893-1938) –
Curriculum as a field of study is generally associated with a German thinker Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776-184 I). Herbart emphasized the importance of 'selection' and 'organisation' of content in his theories of teaching learning. The major concerns of curriculum specialists of this period were systematizing approaches and practices of selection and organisation of the subject matter. The first book devoted to the theme of curriculum was published in 1918 and titled "The Curriculum". Franklin Bobbitt, the author, became the first curriculum specialist. Consequently in the early 1890s curriculum movement became a vigorous educational movement.

The Second Stage (1939 -)
Today, in general, the concerns of curriculum studies are seen to be:

- establishing a sound relationship between the general aims and the specific objectives to make the process of teaching and learning more effective;
- ensuring pedagogically sound sequences of content at different levels of instruction;
- making the curriculum a balanced fare for the overall growth of learners (Caswell 1966).

Unit 2: Curriculum Approaches

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1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Meaning of Curriculum Approaches

This course is all about curriculum. So far we have learnt of several terms associated with the curriculum. In this unit we are coming across the term curriculum approaches. It is important that we consider the meaning and try to define the term curriculum approaches.

Approach can simply man a way of doing things. Similarly curriculum approach represents a pattern of organisation used in taking decisions about the various aspects of a teaching-learning situation.

3.2 Categories of Curriculum Approaches

Having explained the meaning of curriculum approach as a pattern of organisation let us now consider the various patterns. There is a wide range of approaches. In this unit we will classify them into the following major categories:

3.2.1 Subject area approach

When curriculum plan is organized around subject areas (such as English, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics etc.) or disciplines it is known as subject area approach. In this type of approach, learning objectives center on the mastering of subject matter and skills within the subject of interest. You will remember that in module 2 unit 1 we studied the philosophical foundations of curriculum. Because this approach defines important learning in terms of subject matter from existing disciplines of knowledge, it is particularly favoured by proponents of the philosophy of realism. Subject area approach is the most popular method of curriculum organization.

3.2.2 Broadfields approach

We learnt that in subject area approach curriculum plan is organized around subjects. Sometimes two or more subjects can be combined to constitute broad fields. For example History and theater Arts may be combined to form Humanities. Similarly Geography and Political Science may be combined to form Social Science. Organisation of curriculum combining two or more subjects is thus known as broadfields approach. Just like the subject area approach, this organization uses individual subjects but in addition relationships between individual subjects areas of knowledge are made known to learners. This is seen as an advantage over the single subject approach. This approach is popular among those who favour the philosophy of idealism.

3.2.3 Social-Problems Approach

From the name, organization of the curriculum from this approach is based on major problems in the society. Although in this approach the objective is to analyse problems and issues in the society, the solution is sought from the different subject areas. For an example, Nigeria currently has issues on technological development. The curriculum will be organized on this problem but the learner will turn to science for information on the problem. However, little or no concern is shown for retaining the identity of separate subjects in this approach even when the subject matter is derived from them. Emphasis is on the identified problem or issue. This approach is popular among proponents of the reconstructionist philosophy of education

3.2.4 Emerging Needs Approach

In the social-problem approach one can say that the need of the society is paramount. When the learners' needs are in question, curriculum can be organized with such in view. This is known as emerging needs approach. This approach focuses on the personal and social needs that are emerging in learners' lives at the point in time. Just like the social-problem approach little or no concern is shown for retaining the identity of separate subjects in

this approach even when the subject matter is derived from them. This approach helps learners to come to terms with issues in their present lives so as to be prepared for the present rather than the future. The approach is supported by those who adhere to the pragmatic and existential philosophies of education.

3.3 Issues Relating to the Various Approaches

We have learnt the various approaches, however, there are issues related to them. We will now consider these issues. We shall discuss the under three major issues:

3.3.1 Instructional Methods

In section 3.2 we discussed the major curriculum approaches. The first two approaches on single subject areas and broadfields are described as traditional approach while the last two social-problem and emergent needs approach are described as progressives. One issue associated with these approaches is in terms of instructional methods. Traditionalists are the proponents of methods such as lecture method while the progressives advocate methods such as small group discussions. However, it will be erroneous to think of such stereotypes of instructional methods for each curriculum approach.

3.3.2 Instructional Organisations

Two popular ideas gaining currency in the field of curriculum are general education and interdisciplinary teaching. The former refers to that portion of the educational programime which is considered central and is, therefore, required of all students. The latter has gained attention through the formation of teaching teams involving various subject areas such as language, mathematics, social studies, science and so on. Again, in both the cases, the problem of stereotyping and narrow definition have emerged. The definition of 'general education' excludes the idea that all learners might also develop knowledge and skills related to social problems and emerging needs. On the other hand, many interdisciplinary team efforts have failed because teachers have been led to believe, mistakenly, that such teams must always fuse the various subject areas into a social problems approach. Such narrow minded positions exclude the idea that interdisciplinary teams can use all the curriculum plans.

3.3.3 Choice of curricular approaches

Very often, educators will propose that one particular approach is better than the rest. While it is certainly probable that individuals would favour or emphasize a particular approach, it is equally clear that all four have an appropriate place in any educational programme. Each serves a different and

important purpose. Thus the real issue in considering curriculum approaches is not which one is better, but how can it be used optimally. By addressing the issue in this way, educators would confront the question of how to provide balance in the curriculum, which is in fact the real challenge

3.4 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 in understanding learners and 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.

3.5 The Stages involved in the Planning Process

These are:

- identifying important subject matter, facts, principles, concepts, etc.;
- deciding on a sequence in which the subject matter may be taught- from specific to general or from easy to difficult, etc.;
- recommending activities through which students might best learn the subject matter, including experiments, discussions, etc;.
- listing supplementary materials for further studies in the particular
- subject area; and
- suggesting tests that learners might take to check their progress.

These stages are then put together to form sets of teaching-learning materials for purposes of implementation.

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

The following information regarding individual learners is needed for effective planning. Write short notes on each of the characteristics:

- Physical development
- Emotional and social development
- Psychological needs
- Intellectual and creative development
- Personal traits

7.0 References/Further Readings

Kelly, A. V. (2004) ***The Curriculum theory and practice*** Sage Publications London

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

Unit 3: Models of Curriculum Planning

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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 shall 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 shall learn about curriculum models. The unit will present 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 involve 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 critiques 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 writers such as 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 values 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 criticized 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:

1. Situational Analysis
2. Goal formulation
3. Program building
4. Interpretation and implementation
5. 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

1) In your previous studies you learnt of curriculum models such as Taba, Lawton etc. Classify these curriculum models into prescriptive and descriptive models.

2) Compare and contrast these models with the two prescriptive models we have considered in this unit.

7.0 References/Further Readings

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Mager (1962)

Reynolds and Skilbeck (1976)

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MODEL 4: CURRICULUM DESIGN IN ODL

Unit 1: Over View of Curriculum Design
Unit 2: Models of Curriculum Design
Unit 3: Patterns of the Curriculum

Unit 1: Over View of Curriculum Design

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7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

You have learnt of many definitions of the curriculum. One such definition 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 goals and objective. Agreed-upon goals 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 goals and objectives. Then the shape, framework or pattern of the learning opportunities to achieve the goals and objectives are planned. There are six major steps in curriculum designing.

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.

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.

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, organizing centres or learning opportunities are identified. A trial classification of these is then made.

Step Four: Setting an Appropriate Curriculum Design

Having determined the domain, tentatively set the sub-goals and explored the possible types of leaving opportunities, the next step is to consider and select the design alternative.

Step Five: Preparation of Tentative Design Specification

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 about:

- 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:

a) Who will the learner be?
b) What are the sub-goals or objectives?
c) What types of learning experiences will be provide?
d) What will be the locale for the learning experiences?
e) What role will participants play: learners, teachers, others?
f) What will be the time and space dimensions?
g) 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 in this unit 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 goals and objectives for curriculum designing in Nigeria?

7.0 References/Further Readings

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

Unit 2 Models of Curriculum Design

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        3.1.1 Designs Focused on Subject Matter/Disciplines
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        3.1.4 Designs Focussed on Social Functions/Activities
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    3.2 McNeil Categorization
        3.1.1 Design by Subject Matter
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4.0 Conclusion
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6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

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. We also concluded that 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. That is what we hope to achieve in this unit. In this unit you will learn of the different categorization 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 Categorization

Saylor (Date) 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 conceptualized 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:

- 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 teacher teaches. The teacher may not teach what is intended to teach

Designers who are developing a curriculum organized 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 curriculums 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 futures 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 center 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 organizing center 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 Focussed 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 Focussed 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 chose 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, broadfield/integrated curriculum design and specific competencies and technology design.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

1 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.

i) From the titles of the curricula what is the design of each curriculum?

ii) What do you think must have led to the change from primary science to science and technology?

2a) List five examples of curriculum designs

b) What are the characteristics of each design?

c) In a tabular for show the main differences among the designs

7.0 References/Further Readings

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Unit 3 Patterns of Curriculum Design

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  3.3 Centrally Co-ordinated Curriculum Designing
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6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

In unit 2 of this module you learnt one form of categorizing 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 Pattern of 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:

- The subject content is decided upon centrally. National syllabuses are produced with national goals and philosophies as well as suggested general learning objectives.
- 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.
- Subjects to be offered by schools are determined centrally. Schools choose their subjects from a given list.
- 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.
- 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.
- Generally, textbooks must be approved by the Ministry of Education before any school uses these books.
- Normally, there are curriculum development teams at different levels.

- An inspectorate or standards control division is put in place to monitor the learning and teaching activities.
- 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:

- It makes it easy to achieve national goals, since all schools use the same documents.
- Learners can transfer from one school to another without being disadvantaged.
- Entry requirements for universities and colleges can be centrally determined and parity can be ensured.
- Communication to schools regarding academic requirements is easy, since the Ministry of Education is directly involved.
- Learning materials can be mass-produced, making them less expensive for both producers and consumers.
- 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:

- The process takes a long time before the final document is produced.
- The design is insensitive to the needs of some groups within the country.
- There are coordination and communication problems when parastatals are involved in curriculum design.
- There is limited participation by various members of the community, resulting in little commitment during the implementation stage.
- It stifles creativity and initiative on the part of the teacher and other community members.
- 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

- Local communities initiate the changes to suit their local needs.
- Teachers work with the parents to determine the content. The learning experiences are based on what is available.
- 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.
- Each school, state or LGA has its own syllabus that is produced locally.
- Generally, the textbooks may not have been centrally approved.
- Each school, state or LGA has its own form of evaluation.
- 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:

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

3.2.3 Disadvantages of the Decentralised Pattern

The following are some of the disadvantages:

- There is no guarantee that national goals will be achieved.
- Learners cannot easily transfer from one school to another when their families move.

- There is generally a problem in developing or accessing teaching materials which, if available, are expensive to produce.
- 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

- It encourages debate among all stakeholders
- 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).

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

7.0 References/Further Readings

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

MODULE 5: CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

Unit 1 Conceptions of Curriculum Implementation
Unit 2 Curriculum Implementation Models
Unit 3

Unit 1: Conceptions of Curriculum Implementation

Content

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
3.1 What is Curriculum Implementation?
3.2 Components of Implementation effort
3.3 Agents in the Curriculum Implementation Process
3.4 Measures of the Effectiveness of a Project Implementation
3.5 Types of Interactions During Project Implementation
3.6 Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

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,
- Organized 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, organization 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 organization 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.

1. What factors are necessary for the effective implementation of the curriculum?

2. To what extent do you think these factors are in existence in the institutional settings?
3. Suggest efforts to ensure the effective implementation of the curriculum.

7.0 References/Further Readings

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

Unit 2 Curriculum Implementation Models

Content

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
    3.1 ORC Model
    3.2 Components of Implementation effort
    3.3 Agents in the Curriculum Implementation Process
    3.4 Measures of the Effectiveness of a Project Implementation
    3.5 Types of Interactions During Project Implementation
    3.6 Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

There are several models of curriculum implementation in Nigeria. You will agree with me that it will not be possible to study all the various model. For that reason we will concentrate on most commonly used and popular models.

3.1 ORC model

Often it is assumed that implementation success is dependent on the teacher. Sometimes the success is also attribute to other consumers like students and the community at large. This is always so because of the misgivings of teachers, students and the society about the curriculum to be implemented. When misgivings exist there is resistance to the change (curriculum) that is to be implemented. A model that can be used to overcome the resistance to the change is known as “Overcoming Resistance Change” (ORC).

In this model, the consumers misgivings, their misapprehensions or other such related factors are attended to. The consumers are assured that all

factors are incorporated in the curriculum. ORC is a model that motivates rather than ordering the consumers.

3.2 LOC model

This is known as 'Leadership-Obstacle Course' model. This model treats staff resistance to change as problematic and makes efforts to collect data to determine the extent and nature of the resistance. We can do this by making sure that:

- the organisational members have a clear understanding of the proposed innovation;
- individuals within the organisation are given relevant skills so that they possess the capabilities requisite for carrying out the innovation;
- the necessary materials and equipment for the innovation are furnished;
- the organisational structure must be modified so that it is compatible with the innovation being suggested;
- the participants in the innovation must be motivated to spend the required time and effort to make the innovation a success.

There are similarities and differences between the LOC and the ORC. This is mainly in the process of implementation. The ORC model conceptualises educational change as a two-stage process - initiation; and incorporation (or the innovation as part of the ongoing processes of the organisation). In the contrary the LOC model considers educational change as a sequence of three stages – initiation, attempted implementation and incorporation.

3.3 Linkage model

This model is so called because during implementation a linkage is established between problem and innovation. In this model two systems are envisaged – user system and resource system. There has to be a link between the two systems. The resource system should have a clear picture of the curriculum user's problems. In the linkage model, the basic process is the transfer of knowledge

3.4 RCA model

The is known as the Rand Change Agent (RCA) model. In this model, organisational dynamics seem to be the chief barriers to change. This model like the ORD and LOC models suggests three stages in the change process (Initiation, Implementation and Incorporation). During the initiation stage, the curriculum developers work to secure the support for the anticipated change. To support a change, such as a new programme people must understand and agree that it is legitimate. Thus, curriculum implementation

activity requires the personal backing of the individuals involved. For example, at this stage, we should inform the teachers about the need for change and how it might take place. At the implementation stage, the proposed change, (i.e. the new Programme) and the organisational structure are adjusted to operationalize the change. During the incorporation the changes implemented are made to become part of the established programme.

The proponents of the RCA model see the success of the implementation of a curriculum as a function of:

- the characteristics of the proposed change
- the abilities of the academic and administrative staff
- the readiness of the local community; and
- the organisational structure.

During the incorporation stage, the changes implemented become part of the established programme.

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment (Use Implementation of NOUN)

7.0 References/Further Readings

MODULE 6: CURRICULUM EVALUATION

Unit 1 Overview of Curriculum Evaluation
Unit 2 Curriculum Evaluation Models
Unit 3 Curriculum Evaluation in ODL

Unit 1 Overview of Curriculum Evaluation

Content

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
  3.1 Concept of Curriculum Evaluation
  3.2 Purpose of Curriculum Evaluation
  3.3 Reasons for indifference to Curriculum Evaluation
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Concept of Curriculum Evaluation

You must have come across the term curriculum evaluation.. In its simplest form, it refers to a process of evaluating the curriculum. Generally evaluation is a process of finding the value of a programme, the quality of its processes and or the quantum and quality of its products. The value of any programme, including educational programmes, lies in the realisation of its goals and objectives. Consequently, evaluation has to be objective-based, done mainly in terms of the desired process and the expected outcomes, comprehensive in that it covers the various kinds of objectives and levels of outcomes-defined as specifically as possible and continuous so that the

progress being made might be sensed and the achievements/outcomes assessed all through the on-going programme.

Evaluation is both qualitative and quantitative, it may be 'formative' (during the process of development) or 'summative' (at the end of the total programme or each phase thereof). In most cases when we talk about evaluation we refer to student evaluation or evaluation of learning, development and achievement. However, evaluation of education should go beyond these but also to the different aspects of the curriculum as it is planned, developed and implemented. It is difficult to evaluate each of the curriculum-components in isolation. Each has to be evaluated in conjunction with the rest, as they are all interdependent.

3.2 Purpose of Curriculum Evaluation

The purpose of curriculum evaluation is two-fold:

- to get feedback about a given curriculum; and
- to use the feedback for purposes of improving the curriculum

As important as curriculum evaluation is, we rarely carry it out. This is an evidence of indifference in curriculum evaluation.

3.3 Reasons for indifference to Curriculum Evaluation

There are two major reasons for indifference to curriculum evaluation. These are:

- None use of evaluation results - many have come to regard evaluation as nonproductive because, more often than not, evaluation results, when carried out, are ignored, and
- Resistance to accept a new pattern, despite its potential.

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4.0 Conclusion

8.0 Summary

9.0 Tutor Marked Assignment (Use Implementation of NOUN)

7.0 References/Further Readings

Unit 2 Curriculum Evaluation Models

Content

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
    3.1 Metfessel-Michael model
    3.2 Congruence-Contingency Model
    3.3 Discrepancy Evaluation Model
    3.4 CIPP Model

4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

Ralph Tyler between 1933 and 1941 directed the conduct of the first major curriculum evaluation. This was a study on the process of curriculum development. You will recall that in the unit on curriculum development we studied the Tylerian model. Tyler's model of curriculum development has evaluation as its integral part. Tyler stress that evaluation is a recurring process and that evaluation feedback should be used to reformulate or redefine objectives. Accordingly information gathered during evaluation can be ploughed into the system to modify the objectives and the programme which is being evaluated. In this unit we will discuss some common models of curriculum evaluation which are relevant to ODL.

3.1 Metfessel-Michael model

In 1967, Metfessel and Michael presented a variation of Tyler's suggested curriculum evaluation process. This model is an eight major steps evaluation process. The model suggested the involvement of all who will be 'affected' by the curriculum, (teachers, professional organisations, senior citizens, students, etc.).

3.2 Congruence-Contingency Model

The proponent of this model is Stake (1967). Stake also suggested that all those affected by the curriculum should be allowed to participate in judging the curriculum. He suggested that data for curriculum evaluation should be collected under three bodies of information:

- Antecedent - This is any prior condition that exists that may influence the outcomes of the curriculum (e.g. students' prior knowledge, aptitudes, psychological profiles of students, teachers years of experience, behaviours, etc).
- Transactions - Learning transactions that occur between and among teachers and students.
- Outcomes - These are the consequences of education - immediate and long-range, cognitive and conative, personal and community-wide: for example, students' performance, achievements, etc.

The term 'contingencies' here refers to the relationships among the variables in the three categories: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. Once the evaluator collects views on a curriculum from various sources like students, teachers, support staff, etc., he puts these views on a matrix to identify the congruences and contingencies among them. The model clearly shows that it provides an organizational framework that points to the data to be considered and contrasts what is planned and what has occurred.

3.3 Discrepancy Evaluation Model

This model was developed by Provus (1971) and has the following four components:

- determining curriculum standards;
- determining curriculum performance;
- comparing curriculum with standards; and
- determining whether any discrepancy exists between the standards set

and the curriculum.

If there is any discrepancy, it will be communicated to the decision makers, who, in turn, have to incorporate necessary modifications at every stage.

3.4 CIPP Model

'CIPP' here refers respectively to the first letters of context; input; process; and

Product. Stufflebeam (1971) considers evaluation a continuous process and suggests types of decisions are required in evaluation efforts. The four types are:

- planning decisions;
- structuring decisions;
- implementing decisions; and
- recycling decisions.

Corresponding to these decision types there are four types of evaluation: context, input, process and product.

Let us now take up for discussion each of the four evaluation types:

Context evaluation: It involves studying the environment in which we run the curriculum. Stufflebeam maintains that context evaluation is the most basic type of activity that provides a rationale for determining objectives. It helps us define the relevant environment; portray the desired conditions pertaining to that environment; focus on unmet needs and missed opportunities; and diagnose the reason for unmet needs. It should suggest that context evaluation is not a one-time activity. It continues to furnish baseline information regarding the operations and
accomplishments of the total system.

Input evaluation: The purpose of this stage is to provide information for determining how to utilize resources to meet curriculum goals. At this stage we evaluate alternative designs in terms of how they will contribute to the attainment of objectives stated and in terms of their demands upon resources, time and budget. We should consider them in the light of their procedural feasibility. In contrast to context evaluation, input evaluation is ad hoc and micro-analytic. It evaluates specific aspects or components of the curriculum plan.

Process evaluation: This stage addresses curriculum implementation decisions that control and manage the plan or curriculum. Through process evaluation, we can determine the level of congruency between the planned and actual activities. Stufflebeam (1988) presents the following three main strategies for process evaluation: i) to detect or predict defects in the

procedural design or its implementation during the diffusion stages. In dealing with plan or curriculum defects, we should identify and monitor continually the potential sources for the failure of the curriculum. The sources may be logistical, financial, etc.; ii) to provide information for curriculum decisions. Here we should make decisions regarding test development prior to the actual implementation of the curriculum. Some decisions may require that certain in-service activities be planned and carried out before the actual implementation of the curriculum; and iii) to maintain a record of procedure's as they occur. It addresses the main features of the project design, for example, the particular content selected, the instructional strategies planned or the time allotted in the plan for such activities. As process evaluation occurs during the production stage of the curriculum, it helps us anticipate and overcome procedural difficulties and to make preprogrammed decisions.

Product evaluation: It helps us determine whether the final curriculum product in use accomplishes the intended goals. Depending on the data collected, we can decide whether to continue, terminate or modify a curriculum.

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

UNIT 3: CURRICULUM EVALUATION IN ODL

Content

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
    3.1 Students Assessment in ODL
    3.2 Evaluation Process in Instructional Materials
    3.3 Evaluation Processes with Support Services
    3.4 Evaluation of Staff Development Activities
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Take Home
7.0 Further Readings and References

1.0 Introduction

The terms evaluation and assessment are often used interchangeably, however they are not exactly the same. Assessment is a process that leads to evaluation. In curriculum evaluation several assessments are carried out. We assess the learner, instructional materials, support services, staff and other sub- systems. In this unit we will discuss these various assessments as forms of curriculum evaluation in ODL.

2.0 Objectives

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

- describe at least three types of student assessment in the context of distance education institution
- explain the evaluation processes involved in instructional materials
- describe the evaluation processes concerned with support services in the distance education system
- identify the tools used for evaluating staff development activities.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Students Assessment in ODL

Learners do have an important role in the evaluation process not only as providers of feedback but also as evaluators of their own learning. Evaluation can be more effectively conducted by creating a specific opportunity for the learners to reflect on their reasons for learning, what they are achieving out of learning and where they want to go next.

Assessment is done for different purposes. We can assess so as to diagnose the entry level of a learner, measure the learners progress during the programme, offer feedback on the progress to the learner, motivate the learner, guide the learner and determine the amount of effort put in by the learner. Other reasons include to determine the level of a learner's achievement and to provide to the public information on the performance of the school so as to assure stakeholders of education the school accountability. Student assessment is at the heart of an integrated approach to students' learning and has a significant role in an evaluation system.

3.1.1 Components of Students' Assessment

In a distance education institution, student assessment for purposes of certification may have at least three , and in certain cases more than three components. The three components are self-assessment, continuous assessment and term-end examination

Self-assessment

This is the first component of student assessment process. Self-assessment provides you as a learner with tools to assess your learning processes. There are different tools for students' self-assessment during and after learning. We can use self-assessment questions/activities; self-review exercise; and keeping a journal. We will discuss these tools at this point.

1. ***Self-Assessment Questions/Activities***

There are in-text questions/activities in most ODL instructional materials. Answers and suggestions to the in-text questions and activities are always provided. Distance learners are expected to work on these in-text questions and activities on their own. In this way the learner gets feedback on the progress being made. Self-assessment in this form is a formative evaluation.

2. ***Self-Review Questions***

This tool help the learner reflect back on a period of learning. If the learner is unable to answer the review questions, there will be the need for the learner to review the unit again.

3. ***Journal keeping***

This tool helps the learners to work with and learn from existing experience and integrate it with the new learning gained from the course. This tool is especially valuable where the content of the course-work is closely related to the learner's work context or life experience.

Continuous assessment

This component of student assessment is operated through assignments. These assignments form a part of the total evaluation of the students' progress and provide the students feedback on how well they are progressing throughout the course. Students are expected to work on assignments provided with the course materials. These assignments demand written responses which are evaluated by the distance education institutions, These assignment-responses are commented upon and also graded with a view to helping the students improve their performance and also learn about the drawbacks or weaknesses in their responses. The grades scored in assignments constitute a component of the overall score a student makes in a course therefore a continuous assessment.

3.1.2 Methods of Students' Assessment

1. *Flexible Course Entry*

In ODL one method of student assessment for registering in a course/programme is the "Flexible Course-entry". In this method students are registered into programmes or courses independent of specific qualification.

2. *Admission Tests*

Some courses or programmes however, may require qualifications because of the content demands, and so admission tests will become necessary. This may be in the form of written texts known as entrance examination. Such tests are usually aptitude tests which assess a prospective students' general awareness about the situation he/she lives in, language competence and skills at numeral and analytical abilities.

3. *Oral Interview or Examination*

With distance teaching, the possibilities for oral examination are limited, though recorded cassettes can be used for this purpose. In distance education, projects are widely used for this purpose and can be designed to test understanding, though this is a very time consuming process.

3.2 Evaluation of Instructional Materials

One aspect of the curriculum in ODL is the instructional material. In the absence of face-to-face interaction, instructional materials are very vital. It is therefore necessary to evaluate instructional materials to ensure suitability of materials for self-study, degree of difficulty, interest and clarity of texts, graphic presentation etc.

3.2.1 Approaches of Evaluation of Instructional Materials

In this sub-section we will discuss some approaches for evaluating course or instructional materials in ODL. These are:

Piloting - In this approach, the materials are tried out with the first batch of students and revisions are brought about subsequently. This is a well-known approach but has implications for costs. Ethical reasons have also been proffered for not adopting this approach for each and every instructional materials. It is not advisable, as far as educational ethics is concerned, to always use the first batch of students as guinea pigs. Financial as well as human resources may or may not be adequate for conducting piloting and then offering an improved course to the second batch of students. Operationally, bringing in revisions immediately after the first launch affects distribution and support services adversely.

Special Evaluation - This is not a routine or normal evaluation. It occurs specially in case of unusual and inexplicable poor performance of students including adverse reaction by students and counsellors and academics to the materials. This approach of evaluation of instructional materials is used only when necessary.

Routine Evaluation: This approach keeps the faculty/schools in constant touch with the students and the materials, resulting in an appropriate and timely feedback to the schools, course writers and academic counsellors. It will eventually feed into the process of course maintenance which can be carried out through supplementary materials without wasting resources.

Other instructional materials that are evaluated include assignments and examination question papers. You may note that no single approach can provide reliable and valid data for evaluating instructional materials. A particular approach adopted by any particular team of course designers must depend on the circumstances, the constraints and the contexts within which they are working.

3.3 Evaluation of Support Services

In an ODL students are provided with support services as aggregate of the organisation of the teaching-learning process to enable the learner acquire learning skills. The support services include individual tutoring and group tutoring, counselling and contact programmes. These support services also need to be evaluated. In evaluating student support services we need to determine how the services cater to information needs promptly, adequately and convincingly; provide for advice at pre-course, on-course and post-course stages adequately and effectively; provide for academic-counselling adequately and conveniently; are easily accessible; staff attitude to their assignment and a host of other information. Information sought through

evaluation of support services is enormous, consequently evaluation of support services is a complex area.

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Take Home

7.0 Further Readings and References

4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

Unit 3 Curriculum Transactions: Instructional System, Instructional Techniques And Materials

Content

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

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

3.0 Main Content

4.0 Conclusion

5. 0. Summary

In this unit you have learnt about.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

Module 7 Curriculum Transactions – Instructional System, Instructional Techniques and Materials; Role of Distance Teacher in Distance Education

Unit 1: Curriculum Transactions – Instructions System
Unit 2: Role of Distance Teacher in Distance Education
Unit 3: Curriculum Development Experiences

Unit 1 Curriculum Transactions – Instructions System

Content

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

1

Introduction

2.0 Objectives

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

3.0 Main Content

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

Unit 2: Role of Distance Teacher in Distance Education

Content

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
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    3.1 Curriculum designers
    3.2 Course coordinators
    3.3 Course writers
    3.4 Editors
    3.5 Assessors and evaluators
    3.6 Academic counsellors
    3.7 Media specialists
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

In the previous units you learnt about curriculum transactions in distance education. You examined the teaching-learning systems and looked at the instructional techniques and materials for a better understanding of the possible transactional methods. You also learnt of ways learner support systems operate in order to examine different ways in which curriculum transactions could be enhanced. One important resource person in any transaction process is the teacher. In this unit we will focus on the teacher and learn the role played by a distance teacher in the process of curriculum transaction.

2.0 Objectives

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

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3.0 Main Content

There are differences between distance education and face to face mode of education. Some of the major characteristics of the distance mode of education are that the learner are indirectly separated from the teacher during the learning process; thee is high dependence on technical media; emphasis is on individual rather than group learning and there is influence of an educational organization both in planning and preparation of learning

materials and in the provision of learner support services. In the conventional mode of education the teacher plays a different role as in distance education. We will look at the role of the distance teacher in distance education. We will learn of the basic requirements of a distance teacher. In the distance education all academic staff are regarded as the distance teacher and plays several roles. We will consider these roles in the next section.

3.1 Curriculum designers

Distance teachers are subject experts. They are in charge of the relevant based programmes and courses. They are in-house experts as well as the best subject area specialists available in their universities. They participate in designing the curriculum for their subject areas. They work at the planning stage of the development of distance education programmes and courses. They are generally top level academicians and practitioners.

3.2 Course coordinators

Distance teacher are also course coordinator. They plan, supervise and monitor the activities of the course writers, content editors, format editors, language editors, audio and video producers, graphic artists, copy editors, printers etc. involved in the, preparation of a course. They can therefore be described as managers responsible for the inputs from the academic and production staff who are involved in the preparation of a course. To be an effective and efficient course coordinator, the distance must be involved in the processes of course planning and designing. During the stage of course planning need assessment, broad objectives and goals setting and outlining the content areas to be covered are considered. This is followed by course designing.

3.3 Course writers

Distance teachers are also course writers. As a course writers the distance teachers are subject specialists. In some institutions there are minimum academic level for a distance teacher to be a course writer. You may wish to find out the level in your institution. As course writer the distance teacher devotes adequate time to attend to the rigorous and time consuming process of developing instructional materials.

3.4 Editors

The distance teacher is also an editor. As an editor the distance teacher is responsible

for the academic and pedagogical quality of course material. The teacher checks the language, the structure of the unit, content and the final design. The initial drafts of the course materials generally undergoes three types of editing - content, format and language editing.

3.5 Assessors and evaluators

The distance teacher is an assessor or evaluator. Learner assessment is an important part of the curriculum. This is evident in the tutor-marked and computer-marked assignments in all course materials.

3.6 Academic counsellors

Distance teacher as an academic counsellor is a very vital role. The distance teacher counsels learners at different stages in the programme. Such counselling may be at the pre-enrolment or pre-entry stage; the stage of induction into the programme; the stage of submitting the first assignment; the stage of initiation into any new activity, the pre-examination stage and the post-programme stage. The distance teacher as an academic counsellor offers support to the students through counselling and tutorial services.

3.7 Media specialists

Media a central to the delivery of the content to the learner in distance education. Due to the existence of different forms of media, teaching and learning through a distance mode is becoming independent of time and place. Distance teachers use telecommunication technologies for communication in distance mode of education. Multi-media resources such as videos, databases, online image banks and electronic journals are made available to learners with the teacher acting as a guide and facilitator. Consequently the distance teacher in this regard is also a media specialist.

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings

Unit 3: Curriculum Development Experiences

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1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

By the end of this unit you should be able to:

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Readings