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FORWARD

Education is one of the institutions the human race has created to serve certain needs. Like all human institutions, it responds or should be respond to changes in the environment. The institution of education is activated by a curriculum that it will change in response to forces affecting it.

A major characteristic of any theoretical principle is its capacity for being generalized and applied in more than one situation. Were curriculum theories but one shot solutions to specific problems, it would be difficult to defend the concept of curriculum as a discipline. However, the principles of curriculum theory are often successful efforts to establish rules that can be repeated in similar situations and under similar conditions. Many people will agree, for example, that the concept of balance should be incorporated into every curriculum.

What has led so many people to be dissatisfied with so much of what education is all about? Why is the status quo rarely a satisfactory place to be? In addition, why does it turn out, as will be illustrated, that yesterday's status quo is sometimes tomorrow's innovation? For answers to these questions teachers and specialists who participate in efforts to improve, the curriculum must consider some general principles of curriculum development.

As a discipline, curriculum possesses (1) an organized set of principles (2) a body of knowledge and skills for which training is needed and (3) its theoreticians and practitioners.

If the curriculum is perceived as a plan for the learning experiences that young people encounter under the direction of the school, its purpose is to provide a vehicle for ordering and directing those experiences. This process of providing the vehicle and keeping it running smoothly is known as curriculum development.

Curriculum specialists make a number of distinctive contributions to their field. Specialists know what types of curricula have worked in the past, under what conditions, and with what success. Since the name of the game is improvement, specialists must be well grounded in the historical development of the curriculum and must possess the capacity to use that knowledge to help the schools avoid historical pitfalls. Curriculum specialists generate or help to generate new curriculum concepts.

This book is intended for students in fields such as Curriculum Development, Curriculum Planning, and Curriculum Improvement. It is meant to be especially helpful to Master of Education students of open distance learning system of AIOU.

I congratulate Course Team development for their, for their professionalism and dedicated efforts to procedure this textbook.

Prof. Dr. Shahtd Siddiqui
Vice-Chancellor

PREFACE

As newer developments occur in education, as research adds new insights on teaching and learning, as new ideas are developed, and as times change, beliefs about curriculum and instruction also undergo transformation. The rightness or wrongness of concepts like curriculum and instruction cannot be established by an individual educationist or even by a group of educators. One index of correctness might be the prevailing opinion of most educators at a particular stage in history.

Gaius Julius Caesar and his cohorts of the first century BC had no idea that the oval track upon which the Roman chariots raced would bequeath a word used almost daily by educators twenty-one centuries later. The track the curriculum has become one of the key concerns of today's schools, and its meaning has expanded from a tangible racecourse to an abstract concept.

No education teacher, curriculum coordinator, administrator, or tutor in distance learning system of AIOU would dream of arguing that techniques of coping with the woolly mammoth should be part of the curriculum of schools at the dawn of the 21st century.

The curriculum of the cave dweller, whether informal or non-formal, is quite different from increasingly formal types of schooling that the human race invented over subsequent periods of history. Techniques for coping with the woolly may well have been paramount concern to prehistoric man.

Planning should begin with the programmatic viewpoint that is, with curriculum decisions, rather than with instructional decisions. Appropriate planning begins with the broad aims of education and proceeds through a continuum that leads to the most detailed objectives of instruction. A discipline has its theoreticians and its practitioners.

Consequently, we can conclude that the field of curriculum requires the use of an amalgamation of knowledge and skills from many disciplines. That curriculum theory and practice are devised from other disciplines does not in any way diminish the importance of the field. Curriculum's synthesis of elements from many fields in some ways makes it both a demanding and an exciting arena in which to work.

Though it may be vehemently denied, no one has ever seen a curriculum, not a real, total, tangible, visible, entity called a curriculum. The interested observer may have seen a written plan that may have been called a curriculum. Somehow, the observer knows, probably by word of mouth, that in every school in which teachers are instructing students a curriculum exists. A written plan provides the observer with an additional clue to the existence of something called a curriculum. But if by some bit of magic and observer could lift the roof of a school in session and examine the cross section thereof, the curriculum would not be apparent. What the observer would immediately perceive would be many instances of teacher-pupil interaction we call instruction.

UNIT-1

INTRODUCING CURRICULUM

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INTRODUCTION

Curriculum is an area of vital importance to the professional teacher. Over the past two decades, the study of curriculum has become an established part of teacher education programmes and all serving teachers have become familiar with the concepts of curriculum in some way. Similarly, teachers undertaking postgraduate studies and professional development activities have been exposed to the concepts associated with curriculum, and in recent years, the term is being used quite frequently in the media and the community in general.

Such a development is highly appropriate for professional teachers. Curriculum is, after all, the very substance of schooling for teachers in school. Therefore, teachers need to be knowledgeable about curriculum and understand the processes by which curricula may be developed. When teachers consider curriculum issues, for example, they tackle the substantive matter of schooling, which may be expressed in terms of the fundamental questions of curriculum.

In this Unit, different concepts associated with curriculum, its nature, important definitions and characteristics, its need and scope, its planning and development including characteristics involved and effectiveness, its major tasks, and so forth, have been discussed.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

1. Define various concepts of curriculum.
2. Describe the desirable characteristics of the curriculum.
3. Describe the broad components of the curriculum.
4. State the need and scope of curriculum.
5. List the steps and characteristics in curriculum planning.
6. State and analyses the principles of curriculum development.

1. THE NATURE OF CURRICULUM

Curriculum plays a vital role in attaining the aims and objectives of education. It reflects the curricular and co-curricular trends in our institutions i.e. the courses of study, the objectives of education, the methodology of teaching including teaching aids, and evaluation methods.

Curriculum comes from the Latin root, *Currere* which means "to run". Which later came to stand as the "course of Study".

Curriculum i.e. the sum total of all learning content, experience, and resources that are purposely selected, organized and implemented by the school in pursuit of its peculiar mandate as a distinct institution of learning and human development.

1.1. Important Definitions of Curriculum Compared.

The term 'Curriculum' is defined in many ways by educators. Some use the term in very limited and specific contexts while others attach very broad and general meanings. Some define it in descriptive terms, i.e., what curriculum is and others in prescribed terms, i.e. What curriculum ought to be. Again curriculum is defined in terms of subjects, activities and experiences.

Following are some of the important definitions of the curriculum:

Alberty A, and Alberty E. (1959) define curriculum' as the sum total of student activities which the school sponsors for the purpose of achieving its objectives".

In the words of H. Robert Beck, and W. Walter Cook, "Curriculum is this sum of the educational experiences that children have in school".

Blond's Encyclopedia (1969) of Education defines "Curriculum as all the experiences a pupil has under the guidance of the school".

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

Derek Rowntree in A Dictionary of Education (1981) has defined 'curriculum in these words. "Curriculum can refer to the total structure of ideas and activities, developed, by an educational institution to meet the needs of students and to achieve desired educational aims".

R. Doll, in Curriculum Improvement: Decision Making (1982) has stated: "Curriculum embodies all the experiences which are offered to learners under the auspices or direction of the school".

The first definition lays emphasis on the word "sponsors' and the second definition tends to give importance to spontaneous as well as 'sponsored'. The third definition stresses the word "guidance' in providing experiences. The fourth, definition gives importance to 'adult activities'. The fifth definition denotes that is something, "fixed". The sixth definition like the fourth one highlights the significance of guidance in providing activities.

1.2 Characteristics of Curriculum

1. **Totality of activities:** By Curriculum it is meant all the school activities, which are used to promote the development of the pupils. It refers to the totality of subject matter, activities and experiences, which constitute a pupil's school life. Pragmatists have also included the entire range of learner's activities in the curriculum because according to them the child learns by doing.
2. **A means to an end:** It is known that Curriculum is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. Therefore, it is created so as to achieve the aims of education. That is the reason why different educationists have suggested different kinds of curricula to conform to the aims and objectives ascribed to education. It follows that the curriculum will change with every change in the aims of education,
3. **Total school environment:** The total environment of the school influences Curriculum. It is made up of everything that surrounds the learner in all his working hours. It is "the environment in motion". It refers to the total educational programme of the school (school environment) including all experiences, activities and learning, in which the learner is expected to progress and attain the goals of education.
4. **Totality of experiences:** Curriculum refers to the totality of experiences that a pupil gets in the school (i.e. the class-room, library, laboratory; workshop, play-ground and in the numerous informal contacts between the teacher and the pupils) as well as outside the school. These experiences help him in the development of personality: Curriculum includes not merely syllabus and books but all those experiences and relationships. Which get indulged in by the student both inside and outside the school. Thus, the syllabus specified by the authority should not be taken to mean curriculum.
5. **Mirror of curricular and co-curricular trends:** Curriculum forms the mirror of curricular and co-curricular trends and is able to reflect the curricular and co-curricular trends in our educational institutions i.e. the courses of study, the aims and objectives of education, the methodology of teaching including teaching aids and evaluation techniques.
6. **Mirror of Educational Trends:** Curriculum is the mirror of educational trends. It depicts the total picture about the prevailing educational system. The objectives behind the educational system highlighted through the series of experiences, which are provided by the curriculum.
7. **Development of balanced personality:** Curriculum is quite helpful in the development of balanced personality. The activities in curriculum concerning physical, intellectual, emotional, social, economic, aesthetic and cultural development play their role for developing balanced personality.
8. **Process of living:** Curriculum is a process of living in which interaction between the individual and his environment takes place. Curriculum is concerned both with the life of the individual and his environment.

9. **Dynamic:** A good curriculum is dynamic. The needs and interests of the pupils go on changing with the passage of time. For varying needs different types of activities are required. This tends to necessitate some changes in the curriculum. Curriculum is never static. It has to be different, for different students, different classes and different schools. It has to be kept dynamic in order to keep with the needs, interests, abilities, attitudes and lives of the pupils.
10. **Mirror of Philosophy of life:** Curriculum is regarded as the mirror, of philosophy of life. It depicts philosophy of life. Democratic or autocratic way of life is reflected in, the curriculum. Each way of life is having different philosophy and hence different goals of education.
11. **Achievement of goals:** Curriculum is prepared to achieve some set goals and objectives of education, which are set by society. Curriculum helps in achieving the aims and objectives of education.

1.3 Broad Components of Curriculum

The components of curriculum, according to Agnes. S. Robinson (1971), are the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of school and community through class room instruction and related programmes (for example: field trips, library programmes, work experience education, guidance and extra classroom activities.)

According to K.A. Leithwood (1981), curriculum encompasses educational philosophy, values, objectives, organizational structures, and materials, teaching strategies, student experiences, and assessment and learning outcomes.

Three main components of the curriculum are as under:

- Programme of studies
- Programme of Activities
- Programme of Guidance

Programme of Studies: This refers to the various subjects like History, Languages, Mathematics, and Science etc. Emphasis on the study of a subject/subjects has changed from time to time in accordance with the philosophical and sociological ideals. Conservation and promotion of culture has been an important determinant in the selection of the contents of the subjects. In view of the vastness of culture, principle of selection is followed. The level of information to be imparted at a particular stage or class is graded suitably.

The methods of imparting knowledge are determined on the basis of psychological findings especially regarding learning.

Programme of Activities: With the changing concepts of education and consequently curriculum an increasing emphasis of being laid on the organization of various activities in the schools. In view of the importance of activities in the promotion of ideals of citizenship, cooperative living and democracy, many educators advocate that curriculum should be envisaged in terms of activities rather than subjects. The principles

of learning emphasize that participation in activities goes a long way in sublimating the instincts of children and making teaching-learning more enjoyable as well as-effective.

Programme of Guidance: A comprehensive programme of guidance includes helping students solve their educational, vocational and personal problems. With the rapid changes in the society in various fields, it has become very much necessary to include the guidance programme in curriculum.

Curriculum and Syllabus

A UNESCO publication entitled 'Preparing Textbook Manuscripts' (1970) has differentiated the curriculum and syllabus as: "The curriculum sets out the subjects to be studied, their order and sequence, and so ensures some balance, between humanities and science and consistency in the study of subjects, thus facilitating, inter-subject links. It follows that the curriculum determines the amount of school-times allotted to each subject, the aim of teaching each subject, the pace of the psychomotor domain, which takes time, to acquire, and possibly, the variations between rural and urban school teaching. The curriculum in the schools of developing countries is often directly related to the requirements for development. The syllabus determines the basic content of instructions in a given subject and the range of knowledge and skills which the pupils must acquire and establish in detail the themes and individual points to be studied in each school year the syllabus is a refined detail of the curriculum at a particular stage of learning for a particular subject".

1.4 Need of Curriculum

The following points demonstrate the importance of curriculum:

- 1. Achievement of educational aims:** Curriculum renders help in achieving the aims of education. Without suitable curriculum aims of education cannot be achieved. In the absence of curriculum it is not possible to do anything systematically.
- 2. Fixing- limits:** Curriculum is quite helpful in fixing limits of teaching and learning. It helps in determining the work of the teacher as well that of the pupil.
- 3. Development of democratic values:** Curriculum is helpful to the students in developing democratic values such as liberty, equality, fraternity, justice, respect for dignity of the individual and group living.
- 4. Development of citizenship:** Development of citizenship is one of the major responsibilities of education. Suitable curriculum is helpful in achieving this aim of education.
- 5. Development of character:** There is no system of education, which does not aim at developing character in the youth. Character can be developed in right suitable curriculum.
- 6. Satisfaction of needs:** Curriculum is able to satisfy educational, vocational and psychological needs of students. There is a great variety of interests, skills, abilities, attitudes, aptitudes, and requirements of students.
- 7. Criteria of suitable teachers:** The curriculum mainly shows what type of teachers is needed in the schools. We should know what type of work they are required to

do and this is to be in accordance with the requirement of the curriculum.

8. **Selection of suitable methods:** Curriculum makes the teacher to select suitable methods of teaching. 'How to teach' will be determined by what to teach i.e. the curriculum.
9. **Acquisition of knowledge:** -Curriculum helps the student in the getting knowledge. By studying various subjects laid down in the curriculum the student gets knowledge in conformity with his abilities and level of intelligence.
10. **Development of personality:** Curriculum is useful in developing physical intellectual, aesthetic, social, cultural, moral, spiritual religious and vocational abilities of the student. Suitable curriculum is necessary for the complete and balanced development of personality.
11. **Reflects trends in education:** Curriculum is meant to achieve the end i.e., the changing aims of education with the changing social requirements. Hence curriculum reflects the trends in education and changes in philosophy. Modern education expects following demands on the curriculum:
 - (i) **Providing suitable knowledge:** The curriculum should provide suitable knowledge, which will be quite helpful in the achievement of aims of education.
 - (ii) **Providing suitable activities and experiences:** The curriculum includes well-selected activities and experiences required for development of pupils according to social requirements.
 - (iii) **Providing wholesome influences:** The curriculum should provide wholesome school programme for developing the desirable behaviour patterns in the pupils.
12. **Discoveries and inventions:** At the university or higher level of education the main aim of curriculum is to encourage research and inventions.

Thus curriculum acts as a pivot in organizing educational effort on some manageable basis and is the heart of the school.

1.5 Scope of Curriculum

The scope of the content concerns question about what to include and what to exclude as far as the selection of subject matter is concerned. It includes the broad form, which is the range and extent of each area to be covered. Determining the scope must include some reference to aims and objectives and range of the learning experiences. Counseling what is to be included in the content is sometimes referred to as determining the scope and it can be seen by operating at four levels.

- a) First there must be decisions regarding what to include as a whole in the major area within which the curriculum operates.
- b) Should the concerns be with certain subjects that are basic to the understanding of the human caring, such as those within the behavioral science and humanistic?
- c) Should the selection drawn from the life science in that these may help the student

- understand physical factors of care?
- d) Should the material be developed that addresses the learning?
 - e) Is there a need to include a study of the exceptional in terms of psychological considerations that are appropriate for the study of pedagogy? Thus, sort of questioning is directed at the identification of the subjects, which are thought to be eclectically desirable for the underpinning of the base of teaching practice. These have been considered at length before and viewed as the essential antecedents to distinctive instructional knowledge.

Second there is level of scope, which looks at the area of a distinctive subject and considers what might be borrowed and used. This eclectic use of knowledge draws and extracts from the particular established discipline concerned without necessity of accepting the total area of ideas and beliefs within the totality of the discipline.

Third level of scope determination concerns the individual teachers working from curriculum at classroom level and involves independent decisions, about how much material can be developed within a particular period of time and where the emphasis should be placed within certain subjects and topics.

A fourth level of scope relates to individual lessons concerning the areas to be dealt with and the extent they are to be covered and the level of intellectual difficulty involved that the patterns of the curriculum should adapt a certain idea of scope, which focuses on certain centers of organization. Such centers of organizations can be seen to operate through themes or modular theme.

In dealing, with the scope of the contents certain basic principles can be usefully followed and these can also act as a general guide from making decisions.

1. There is a need to work from basic generalizations or universal thinking about the content progressively towards specific or particular elements.
2. The initiated decision-making should be concerned with the identification of the major areas of knowledge to be included.
3. The content to be included must be educationally worthwhile.
4. The content must occupational be relevant for teaching.
5. The content should be professionally relevant for teaching.
6. The scope must determine the appropriate skills, attitudes and beliefs, which the students need to be aware of.
7. The scope should determine the appropriate intellectual and practical level of difficulty in the content.
8. The scope needs to be taken, into account whether additional, external expertise is needed from outside the field of teaching
9. The scope of the content should reflect the necessary educational technology to be included and the curriculum materials.
10. The scope ought to include consideration of the basic form of assessment and examinations to be used.

Inevitably when the scope of curriculum content has been determined there will be concern for the tradition approaches of the past, which may well be thought to have stood the test of time.

2. CURRICULUM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

Like curriculum, curriculum planning has been defined in various ways:

1. Curriculum planning is a process in which participants at many levels make decisions about what the purposes of learning ought to be, how those purposes might be carried out through teaching-learning situations and whether the purposes and means are both appropriate and effective.
2. Curriculum planning consists of all the processes necessary to plan for and write a curriculum.
3. Curriculum planning is the process of gathering, sorting, selecting, balancing, and synthesizing relevant information from many sources in order to design those experiences that will assist learners in attaining the goals of the curriculum.
4. Curriculum planning is the orderly study and improvement of schooling in the light of stated objectives.
5. Curriculum planning is the preliminary phase of curriculum development when the curriculum workers make decisions and take action to establish the plan that teachers and students carry out.
6. Curriculum planning is the process whereby arrangements of learning opportunities or curriculum plans are created.

2.1. Characteristics of Curriculum Planning

These may be stated as:

1. Curriculum planning is ultimately concerned with the experiences of the learners.
2. Curriculum planning involves decisions about both content and planning.
3. Curriculum planning involves decisions about a variety of issues.
4. Curriculum planning involves many groups.
5. Curriculum planning takes place at many levels.
6. Curriculum planning is a continuous process.

2.2. Process of Curriculum Development

The process of curriculum development begins with the following:

1. Formulation of objectives of education, which are based on the ultimate, aims of life, and also on the political and social philosophy and development needs of a country.
2. Specification of objectives of education in respect of different stages of school education and also in respect of different subjects and activities and experiences at different stages of education.
3. Determination of the scheme of studies, syllabi, etc.
4. Preparation of instruction materials like textbooks, supplementary readers workbooks, teacher guides, etc.
5. Implementation of curriculum in the school.
6. Evaluation of curriculum to ensure quality control for effecting suitable modifications in the curriculum.

2.3 Effective Curriculum Planning

Following are some crucial factors, which guide effective curriculum planning:

1. Curriculum planning must be based upon a clear conception of what makes a good life.
2. Curriculum planning must take into account the characteristics of past, contemporary and future society.
3. Curriculum goals should address a broad range of needs, interests of both individual and society.
4. Curriculum planning should recognize and encourage diversity among learners.
5. Curriculum planning must make provision for all aspects of teaching-learning situations. They should include suggestive activities, content, resources, and measuring devices, etc.
6. Curriculum planning should be done in the light of the characteristics of the learners for whom they are intended.
7. Curriculum planning should also make use of approaches other than subject-area approach.
8. Curriculum planning must provide flexibility to allow teacher pupil planning.
9. Curriculum planning must provide for the infusion of spontaneous ideas, which emerge during the interaction of the learners and teachers.
10. Curriculum planning should reflect a balance among cognitive, affective and psychomotor needs of the learners.
11. Curriculum planning should include provision for reflective thinking, values and valuing, enhancement of self-concept and self-esteem.
12. Cooperative planning and development are most effectively done in cooperative settings.
13. Curriculum planning should take into consideration an integrated set of experiences rather than a disjointed conglomeration of activities.
14. Curriculum planning must provide for continuous evaluation of all aspects of curriculum.

2.4 Basic Principles of Curriculum Development

Curriculum is a tool in the hands of the teachers, to give training to children in the art of living together in the community. It is a tool, which, considerably helps to inculcate those standards of moral action, which are essential for successful living in society and for getting true satisfaction out of life. It is therefore, very essential that the curriculum should be, based on sound principles.

The following principles should be kept in mind when framing curriculum:

1. **The Conservative Principle:** It has been stated that nations live in the present, on the past and for the future. This means that the present, the past and the future needs of the community should be taken into consideration. The past is a great guide for the present as it helps us to decide what has been useful to those, who have gone before and what will be useful to those, who are going through now. The point has been explained in the Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers as "It is, in fact, being increasingly recognized that the various subject of the curriculum represent certain form of skills and certain branches of knowledge, which have proved to be of importance in the experience of the race, and which have to be taught to each succeeding generation. From this point of view it is the function of

the school to preserve and transmit the traditions, knowledge and standards of conduct on which our civilization depends.

This principle will be of help only when we carefully select as to what things of the past are likely to help us in the present. All the things of the past may not suit us. It is, therefore, essential that we should select only those subjects and activities, which are required by the present generation.

This principle has been criticized by some educationists on the ground that it looks to subjects and not to the pupils. It is contended by its antagonists that in these days when it is accepted that education and schools, and therefore curriculum, should be child-centred, this principle does not take us very far. It may be replied to such critics that to condemn everything of the past is not a sound policy and especially in a country, which has had a glorious past and, which showed the path of knowledge to other countries. Another point to be stressed is that there must be a base to stand upon and if the base is durable it must be accepted. Thirdly, it would be wrong to say that in the past the child was entirely ignored. However, as stated above, the principle of selectivity should be adapted in the selection of the curriculum on the basis of the past.

2. **The Forward-looking Principle:** While discussing the first principle, we have pointed out that in the present, future needs and requirements of the community should be given their due place. Children of today are the citizens of tomorrow. Therefore, their education should be such as it enables them to be progressive minded persons. Education should give them a foundation of knowledge and feeling that will enable them to change the environment where change is needed
3. **The Creative Principle:** In the curriculum those activities should be included, which enable the child to exercise his creative and constructive powers. The objective of education is to discover and to develop special interests, tastes and aptitudes. Weeler says, "The promptings to anyone of the intellectual interests may fade away and become practically irrevocable unless opportunities be then and there forthcoming. None of the child's native gifts should escape our notice and so perish of inanition. In a curriculum that is suited to the needs of today and of the future, there must be a definite bias towards definitely creative activities.
4. **The Activity Principle:** The curriculum should be thought in terms of activity and experience, rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored growth and learning take place only where there is activity. 'Experience' rather than 'instruction' is to meet the needs of the various stages of growth. In the words of John Dewey. "The general movement is away from the old over-reliance and verbal instruction, formulated subject and learning from books, and in the direction of more varied and many sided individual activities in keeping with child's real interests".
Playgrounds, shops, workrooms and laboratories not only direct the natural active tendencies of youth, but they also involve intercourse, communication and co-operation.
Abbott and Wood report has also stressed the activity principle, "It is vitally important that young children should not be required to sit still for long periods at a

time. A young child needs rest, it is true, but he must play, he must explore, and he must be physically active if he is to derive a daily satisfaction out of his attendance at school. In short, he needs experience more than instruction".

The curriculum must ensure the activity of body and mind. It should be the centre of the curriculum. All modern methods of teaching, i.e. Kindergarten, Montessori, Project, Basic, etc., are based on this principle of activity.

5. **Principle of Preparation for Life:** This is most important principle in the construction of the curriculum. Education must equip an individual for life. Hence, curriculum must include those activities, which enable the child to take his part effectively and amicably in the activities of the community when he becomes an adult. We have to prepare him in such a way, as he is capable of facing the various challenges of the complex problems of the future.
6. **Child-Centred Curriculum:** It is true that the child is to be prepared for life. But this does not mean that his immediate interests should be sacrificed for the sake of the future, which is indefinite. The best preparation for life that we can give a child is to help him to live fully and richly his life at that stage at which he is. The child automatically prepares himself for the next stage by living well and true life at one stage. Smith and Harrison observe, 'Education... regards the child as an individual growing by his own activity, living in his own environment, and preparing himself for adult life, not by imitating the adult, but by living as fully as possible in the environment of childhood'
7. **Principle of Maturity:** Curriculum should be adapted to the grade of the pupils and to their stage of mental and physical development. In the early childhood: 'wonder' and 'romance' predominate. So subjects and activities, which present the elements of 'wonder' and 'romance', should be included at this stage. At a later stage they are interested in practical things. So at the Elementary Stage the curriculum should provide for practical problem. At the next stage, that is the Secondary Stage, students are interested in generalizations and accordingly curriculum should provide such activities. The child at this stage is keen to discover, to find out and discuss new facts. The curriculum should harness the adventurous spirit of the growing child.
The experience provided should be within the comprehension of the students.
8. **Principle of Individual Differences:** Individuals differ in taste, temperament, skill, experience, aptitude, and innate ability and in sex. Therefore, the curriculum should be adapted to individual differences. It should not be rigid.
9. **Vertical and Horizontal Articulation:** On the one hand, each year's course should be built on what has been done in previous years and at the same time should serve as basis for subsequent work. It is absolutely essential that the entire curriculum should be coordinated.
10. **Principle of Linking with Life:** The community needs and characteristics should be kept in view while framing the curriculum.

11. **Principle of Comprehensiveness and Balance:** The curriculum should be framed in such a way as every aspect of life i.e. economic relationships, social activities, occupations and spiritual life, is given due emphasis.
12. **Principle of Loyalties:** The curriculum should be planned in such a manner that it teaches a true sense of loyalty to the family, the school, the community, the town, the province, the country and the world at large. It should enable the child to understand that there is unity in diversity.
13. **Flexibility:** Curriculum should take into consideration the special need and circumstances of the pupils. Curriculum of the girls may not always be identical with the boys. The special needs of both the sexes should be given their due consideration. In general the curriculum of the village and the urban school will be the same but there might be variation according to the specific needs of the locality.
14. **Principle of Core or Common Subjects:** There are certain broad areas of knowledge, skill and appreciation with which all the children must be made conversant and these should find a place in the curriculum. This is more important at higher secondary stage where there are diversified courses. These subjects are to be common to all groups. They are known as core subjects. Mother tongue or regional language, special studies (general course), general science including mathematics and one craft are expected to be the core subject.
15. **Principle of Leisure:** The curriculum should prepare the child for the use of leisure time. According to Herbert Spencer, Literature, Music and Art occupy the leisure part of life and should, therefore, occupy the leisure part of education. The capacity to enjoy leisure greatly determines a man's capacity to work. If leisure is spent in gambling, drinking and reading obscene literature, it will hamper progress not only of an individual but also the nation as a whole. The school curriculum should therefore, prepare the would-be-citizens to use effectively their leisure time.
16. **Principle of All-round Development of Body, Mind and Spirit:** All kinds of experiences should be provided to the students so that they may develop their all powers.

2.5 Elements of Curriculum

Curriculum development process consists of various phases or elements. The curriculum planners have to consider all these phases while working on such process. According to J.S. Farranta (1990; p-24) the elements of curriculum development are philosophy, society, aims, educational administrators, school organization, teaching material teacher's role and teaching methods.

In the words of Lawton D. (1976; p-21) the elements of curriculum are the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation.

Weeler (1974; p-30) has given five elements of curriculum as:

1. The selection of aims, goals and objectives.
2. The selection of learning experiences calculated to help in the attainment of these aims, goals and objectives.
3. The selection of content (subject matter) through which certain types of experience

may be offered.

4. The organization and integration of learning experiences and content with respect to the teaching learning process within school and classroom.
5. Evaluation of the effectiveness of all aspects of phases 2,3, and 4 in attaining the goals detailed in phase I.

In the light of above mentioned elements and taking into consideration the educational system in Pakistan, curriculum must have the following important basic factors:

- (a) Situational analysis
- (b) Setting the objectives.
- (c) Content
- (d) Learning experiences
- (e) Evaluation

(a) Situational Analysis:

Geographical condition of the country, society, its religion and culture, all influence the process of curriculum development, as one of the functions of curriculum is to preserve the cultural heritage of society and the school programmes are responsible to transmit this heritage to the coming generation.

The curriculum development process is also influenced by the geographical conditions especially when general decisions are made for school timings, duration of working time, summer and winter vacations, availability of natural sources, animals, plants, etc.

In the same way, sociological conditions are also important to be kept in view. According to Murray, Print (1993; p-39), "Curriculum developers serve the function of translating traditional assumptions, ideas values, knowledge and attitudes into curriculum objectives, content, learning activities and evaluation. Of these elements sociological sources have their greatest impact on education system of a country."

When curriculum is planned, the cultural background of the concerned society is also considered. The objectives, which are set, the content, which is selected, the methods, which are followed, and the evaluation procedures, which are adopted, all can only be effectively done if they are according to the cultural and religious background of the country.

Curriculum planners have to give due importance to the society, beliefs, attitudes, values, likeness, dis-likeness, etc. during the process of curriculum development.

(b) Setting the Objectives:

The objectives play pivot role in the curriculum design. They are the starting point. Nothing can be done without having any target to be achieved.

Hughes (1967) indicated that there are normally four sources or inputs through which curriculum developers go for objectives. These are society, knowledge, learners and learning process. Curriculum planners use research findings and opinions of philosophers, educationists, Psychologists, subject specialists and sociologists as inputs for their designs. The selection of objectives is based on their collective value position,

which is supposed to be the representative of society because the composition of the committee is meant to reflect this and the opinion of the committee is focused on the main targets or objectives to be achieved.

Perhaps you tend to use the terms 'goals' 'aims' and 'objectives' interchangeable. But, in fact, these terms express different concepts. Therefore, we should be clear about the main distinctions at this stage, although they are treated in much more detail in coming units.

Educational aims refer to the overall purposes of education, which represent the needs, and aspirations of a society as manifested in its educational policy.

Goals are the general purposes of education that are normally prepared for particular stage or level of the education system; whereas objectives refer more precisely to the changes in behaviour, which we hope will result from studying particular courses. While goals are less general than aim but less specific than objectives.

The very first question one must face in developing a curriculum-is "what are its aims and objectives". There, must be some point to planning activities, some intended educational outcomes.

When consider the nature of aims and objectives, we come across many conflicting views about issues like "Why do we teach"? What should be the purposes of education? For example, what is the major purpose of education and what should we select as a teaching material to reach and achieve the main purpose.

(c) Subject Matter or Content:

This is the element, which has been emphasized mainly in the past. At the time of subject matter selection, the following factors are to be considered:

- Type of society/culture
- Type of curriculum
- Number of diversified courses offered
- Scope of the subject itself
- Level age of the learners
- Number and qualification of the teachers
- Available sources and resources
- Strength in the classrooms
- Demands of the society
- International needs
- Methods of content organization
- System, of examination, etc.

(d) Methods of Teaching/Activities:

This is another important element of curriculum development. It includes the methods adopted by the teacher during instruction and the learning experiences or activities performed by the students. This element has been ignored too often in the past and even it is being ignored at present. It is not fair to ask teachers to achieve certain goals without giving them guidelines how to go to the achievement of desired goals. In Pakistan the curriculum development process is centralized. Teachers are not directly involved in this process. So most of them are ignorant of the process of achievement of

desired goals. They may be subject specialists with full command on subject matter but still they may have the problem of selecting appropriate methods of teaching and engaging the learners in various activities accordingly after we have determined the goals, aims and objectives, the next important problem is the selection of the subject matter. Out of the huge amount of ever expanding knowledge, what should we impart to our pupils? What knowledge is of greatest value to them? Further, should we emphasize "process" or "information"? Should a curriculum be fixed or flexible, constant or common to all or differentiated, practical or liberal?

(e) **Evaluation:**

Curriculum development is a dynamic process, which needs a continuous research and evaluation for its betterment.

In order to cope with the society demands and bring about desirable changes, evaluation is made by the curriculum planners/researchers and teachers.

Curriculum evaluation must not be misinterpreted as student evaluation. It is a broad term used to make judgment about the set curriculum and to make decisions about the worth or effectiveness of it on the basis of evaluation the experts can modify the curriculum by bringing about desirable changes. Keeping into account the process of dynamic nature of the curriculum development, evaluation becomes necessary for decision making at all stages in curriculum planning. Guba and Stufflebeam (1970) identified four types of decisions, which are involved in-curriculum evaluation.

- (a) Planning (objectives to be selected).
- (b) Planning procedure (personnel, method and material to employ).
- (c) Implementing procedures (whether to continue, modify or abandon a procedural plan).
- (d) Outcomes (extent of achievements of targets or objectives).

3. SUMMARY

Curriculum is a Latin word which means the "race course" or a run-way, which one takes to reach a goal. Thus, a curriculum is the instructional and educative programme through which the pupils achieve their goals, ideals and aspirations of life. Cunningham says, "Curriculum is a tool in the hands of the artist (the teacher) to mould his material (the pupil) in accordance with his ideals in his studio (the, school)." The curriculum however cannot be considered synonymous with courses of study, although they form an important part of curriculum.

The term curriculum in recent years has come to mean all the planned activities and experiences, which are available to students under the direction of the school. It "includes the totality of experiences that a pupil receives through the manifold activities that go on in the school, in the classroom, library, laboratory, workshop, playground and in the numerous informal contacts between teachers and pupils. In this sense, the whole life of the school becomes the curriculum, which can touch the life of the students at all points and help in the evolution of a balanced personality."

For constructing school curriculum, these principles should be borne in mind:

1. Curriculum should be child centered
2. Curriculum should provide fullness of experience.
3. Curriculum should make provision for flexibility within framework of acceptable principles and values.
4. Curriculum should be related to the life, needs and aspirations of the people.
5. Curriculum should be able to develop a rational outlook.
6. It should lay emphasis on learning to live rather than on living to learn.
7. Curriculum should make provision for socially useful productive work.
8. Curriculum should be able to promote social justice, democratic values and national integration.
9. Curriculum should make adequate provision for the study of languages.
10. Curriculum should make provision for artistic experiences and expression
11. Curriculum should make provision for physical development
12. It should have provision for character building and human values.
13. Curriculum should provide for uniformity and variety.
14. Curriculum should provide for continuity in the whole programme.
15. It should be well integrated.

4 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- Q.1 Write down different definitions of 'curriculum' quoting at least three educational theorists.
- Q.2 After Considering various definitions and views on curriculum, write down your own ideas about the meaning of 'curriculum'.
- Q.3 What are the main principles for curriculum construction? Explain.
- Q.4 Explain the meaning and characteristics of curriculum.
- Q.5 What is the importance of curriculum?
- Q.6 What are the defects in the existing curriculum? Suggest principles of curriculum construction.
- Q.7 Explain the scope of curriculum in the light of four levels.
- Q.8 Write short notes of the following
- i. Effective curriculum planning
 - ii. Basic principles of curriculum development
 - iii. Elements of curriculum

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-Unit-2

HISTORY OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN PAKISTAN

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OBJECTIVES

When you have studied this unit, you should be able to:

1. List curricula offerings during the period of the Holy Prophet (peace be upon him), the Omayyads and the Abbassides with special reference to Ghazali and Ibn-e- Khuldun.
2. Trace and describe some representative forms of the evolutionary process curriculum development in the sub-continent of Indo-Pak during the Muslim followed by detailed description of subsequent developments down to the present day with emphasis on primary and secondary education.
3. Analyse the causes which led the colonial British Government to frame a Curriculum that produced white-collared personnel in the sub-continent.
4. Discuss the guidelines given by the Quaid-i-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah for the future development of education in Pakistan in general and curriculum in particular.
5. Describe the process of change in curriculum development with special reference to Pakistan.
6. List and appreciate the efforts made by different governments in Dromoting the cause of education and curriculum through education policies.
7. Assess the role of prominent educationists in reshaping curriculum at different SI in Pakistan.
8. Discuss the circumstances which led to the formulation of the present national and objectives of education and of curriculum in Pakistan, and
9. Appreciate the importance of educational planning in the implementation of curriculum in Pakistan.

1. DEVELOPMENT OF CURRICULUM IN ISLAM

1.1 Introduction

In unit-I you have studied the nature and scope of curriculum and the force that affect it. You have also studied the principles-of curriculum development in a Muslim society. All this must be kept in mind while studying the present unit as this will depend upon understanding of the complex nature of curriculum development.

The history of the curriculum in Pakistan, today, may be traced back to the period when the Prophet of Islam, Muhammad (peace be upon him) started teaching the principles of Islam to the people. In order to appreciate the meaningful development of curriculum at various stages in Muslim history, we have started from the development of curriculum the early Muslim period and traced it through different stages finally upto the present time in Pakistan.

1.2 Brief Review of Curriculum Development During the Period of The Holy Prophet (peace be upon him), The Omāyyads and Abbassides

It was through education that Islam completely changed the entire fabric of life and living. The Holy Prophet (peace be upon him) started educating people. In his period, instruction was imparted in the following subjects:

- (a) Reading and writing (Arabic)
- (b) Quranic education
- (c) Learning the Quran by heart
- (d) The Fiqha
- (e) Mathematical calculations in respect of distribution of property
- (f) Basic medicine: Genealogy
- (g) Learning foreign languages
- (h) Art of sewing; masonry and arrow-shooting
- (i) Horse riding

1.3 Activity-I

Develop the concept of curriculum from the Holy Prophet's scheme of studies of the Muslim youth and adults.

During the period of Hazrat Umar, the second Caliph of Islam, curriculum included horse-riding and preparation of armaments besides other subjects.

During the period of Omayyads notable progress was made in various fields of education. During this period, curriculum included Arabic Grammar, Rhetorics, Fiqh, Hadith, Mathematics, and Medicine besides the subjects already introduced.

During the period of Abbassides (Banu Abbas), Muslim education visited new lands. Islam had spread to the whole of North Africa, Southern Europe, Middle East, Central Asia and the South East Asian sub-continent. Many new subjects of studies were added. Great progress was made in the field of astronomy and many laboratories were set up; history and geography were introduced as new subjects. Many branches of Mathematics, such as Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry, were recognized. Philosophy and Ethics gained importance.

During the Abbassides period, the curriculum included the following subjects:

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Algebra | 2. Geometry |
| 3. Ilm-ul-kalam | 4. Literature |
| 5. Hadith | 6. Tafsir |
| 7. Fiqh | 8. Trigonometry |
| 9. Arithmetic | 10. Plain Geometry |
| 11. Arabic Grammer | 12. Ilm-ul-fraiz |
| 13. Physics | 14. Chemistry |
| 15. Astronomy | 16. Astrology |
| 17. Philosophy | 18. History |
| 19. Geography | 20. Sciences of Medicine and Surgery. |

Every student was free to take up the subject of his own choice. All the expenditures including expenses on boarding and lodging were borne by the state.

1.4 Activity-II

Indicate the new trend of curriculum during the Abbassides period. Visualize and describe some socio-cultural changes that might have brought about this new trend?

1.5 Contributions of Imam Ghazali and Ibn-e-Khuldun Contributions

During the 10th and 11th centuries many new subjects of study appeared and there arose a controversy whether to include them in the curriculum or not. Before this, the distinction between important and unimportant, useful and not useful subjects for the students was little cared for. The result was that sometimes unimportant subjects received more emphasis and important subjects were relegated to secondary position. Imam Ghazali realized this confusion and introduced reforms in the curriculum. He divided the subjects into Farz-e-Ain and Farz-e-Kifaya. Every Muslim was bound to learn about Farz-e-Ain, subjects which included Kalima, prayers, fasting, Nazra Quran, Fiqh, Hadith, Ilm-ul-Kalam and other essentials relating to fundamentals of Islam. Under Farz-e-Kifaya, he included useful subjects which were necessary for better living but not obligatory for all. A few Muslims should suffice on behalf of the Muslim Community by studying subjects under Farz-e-Kifaya.

For the students, Ghazali divided the subjects into three categories: compulsory subjects embraced Arabic grammar and vocabulary, Nazra Quran, Tafsir, Fiqh Kalam, Ethics and Philosophy. Elective subjects included the Science of Medicine and Surgery, Mathematics, Politics, Literature, History, Geography, all vocational subjects like tailoring, hair-cutting, gardening etc. Subjects not worthy of learning by the students were jugglery, mesmerism, etc.

1.6 Activity-III

Substitute some current educational term for the term Farz-e-Ain. Under present circumstances, do you think that some modern subjects can be included under Farz-e-Ain category for the Muslim Ummah? If so mention a few of them.

The curriculum, designed by Allama Ibn-e-Khuldun in his memorable 'Muqaddama', included the following subjects to be taught.

1.	Arabic language	2.	Arabic grammar
3.	Tafsir	4.	Fiqh
5.	Hadith	6.	Literature
7.	Ilm-ul-Kalam	8.	Rhetoric
9.	Tasawwuf	10.	Ilm.ul-Fraiz
11.	Mathematics	12.	Algebra
13.	Geometry	14.	Trigonometry
15.	Astronomy	16.	Ethics
17.	Philosophy	18.	Botany
19.	Medicine	20.	History
21.	Geography		

2. DEVELOPMENT OF CURRICULUM IN THE SUB-CONTINENT

Under the Muslim rule, changes in curriculum were introduced from time to time to frame curricula according to Islamic principles. Some of these significant changes are listed below:

- (a) Curriculum which was introduced during the 13th century included Arabic language, Arabic grammar, literature and elementary arithmetic. Besides these subjects, students were given practical skills in various arts and crafts that were popular in those days.
- (b) In the 17th century, institutions offering Dars-e-Nizamia were established which taught Arabic grammar, Rhetoric, Fiqh, Principles of Fiqh, Ethics, Islamic Philosophy, Ilm-ul-Kalam, Mathematics and Astronomy.
- (c) Akbar, the Great Mughal introduced a curriculum which included morality, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, physics, astrology, Arabic grammar, agriculture, history, geography, political administration, ethics, philosophy and theology. Akbar's curriculum was more of a worldly nature and it included the subjects which were useful in everyday life.
- (d) After the decline of the Mughal empire, the Muslims of India lost their prestige and their condition deteriorated in all walks of life. The British who had succeeded the Mughals tried to destroy the Muslim identity by closing their Madrasses. Shah Wali Ullah was the first Muslim thinker of the sub-continent who tried to reinstate the Muslims once again through education. He worked in a Madrassah known as Madrassah-i-Raheemiyya established by his father. He laid great stress on the moral education of the Muslims. He tried to reform their un-Islamic habits and customs. His curriculum included the Quran, Hadith, Fiqh, Arabic language, Persian language and moral education.
- (e) Encouraged by the success of Shah Wali Ullah, Darul-Uloom Deoband, Nadvatul Ulama Lucknow, Madrassah Jamia Millia, Delhi, were established with stress on religious education and other subjects of everyday use. (But each of these has a typical curriculum model of its own based on its own unique philosophy.) Sir Syed Ahmad Khan was the pioneer of Aligarh movement. He advocated modern education laying greater stress on European sciences, English language and literature with proper scope for religious knowledge.

2.1 Legacy of the British Rule

With the decline of the Mughal empire, East India company had established itself in the year 1600 as purely a trade concern and as such it undertook no educational activity during the first hundred years of its existence. The Charter Act of 1698, however, required that schools should be established for the Company's Indian employees. As a result of this Act, the company established a few schools, which were called 'Charity Schools', in principal towns such as Bombay, Madras and Calcutta. A few Anglo-Indians were admitted in these schools. The curriculum of these schools was limited to imparting instruction in three "Rs" and the principles of Christian religion.

The activities of the company in the field of education actually began in the decade 1781-91. The first institution, 'the' Calcutta Madrassah' was established in 1781. It was a higher institution established for students. The curriculum of the, ' Calcutta Madrassah' comprised arithmetic geometry, Quranic theology, law, logic, grammar and national philosophy. As such the curriculum was much inferior to the curriculum of higher institutions in the days of Muslim Kings. For example, in Madrassahs built by Akbar, the curriculum included advanced studies in ethics, arithmetic, accountancy, agriculture, geometry, astronomy, economics, physics, logic, natural philosophy and history. The curriculum for Muslim students included learning of the Quran, Fiqh, Hadith and Ilm-ulKalam while the Hindu students learnt Vedanta and Patan-jili's commentary on "Yoga".

It may be pointed out that during the British period, the word Primary Education and Primary Schools' had a connotation different from that of the primary schools of today. The curriculum of the Primary Schools included the study of 3Rs, History of England and of the sub-continent, Geography, Euclidan Geometry and Trigonometry. The number of classes in these schools varied from six to ten.

With Macaulay's Minutes, which he wrote in 1853, education took a new turn, and the Minutes gave a new direction to educational activities in the sub-continent. The Minutes proposed a new system of education, in which English would be used as the only medium instruction and all the money earmarked for education would be spent on English education only. The Board of Directors in the Dispatch of February, 1834, doubted the utility teaching oriental literature but the Committee-of Public Instruction did not share these views and favoured retention of oriental subjects of study. This stand of the Committee brought in open the brewing controversy of the Orientalists and Anglicists. The former were in favour of adopting the classical languages, viz., Persian, Arabic and Sanskrit as the medium instruction, while the latter stuck to English as the only medium of instruction. Arguments countered arguments until in 1835, Macaulay's measures for adopting English as the only medium of instruction. According to Resolution of March 7, 1835, all the funds at the disposal of the Committee were channelised to the cultivation of a knowledge of English literature and science through the medium of English.

In 1837, the government decided to abolish Persian and substitute English as The language of administration. This change made English important for earning of livelihood, and thus contributed substantially to the growth of English Education in the sub-continent.

During the period 1835-54, the missionaries became the pioneers of English education in the Punjab. These schools were established at Lahore. Towards the end of 1854 there were eight Zillah schools (government schools situated at headquarter of districts) addition to Mission Schools. The subjects of study in these schools included English geometry and geography. Beside this, by 1854, there were 24 Tehsil Schools (Elementary Schools) in which arrangements for the teaching of 'Three R's, English and Persian were made.

In the Punjab two types of high schools were established. In one of these types English was taught up to the end of the Matriculation stages, while in the other, teaching

of English started in Class IV. In classes VI to VIII, in addition to its being taught as a subject English became the medium of instruction for several subjects and at the high school stage it was the medium of instruction for all the subjects apart from its being taught as a language. The number of high schools, teaching through the mother tongue eventually faded in almost all parts of the sub-continent. For classes I to III the course of study comprised the three 'Rs' and geography in both the types of schools. In classes IV and V the common course comprised the three Rs and Geography. However, English was taught as a compulsory subject in classes IV and V of the English High Schools, while the students of the corresponding classes in the non-English schools were taught an additional course in Mathematics. In the middle classes i.e. classes VI to VIII, the common courses in the two types of high schools comprised Urdu, Mathematics (Arithmetic and Experimental Geometry) History and Geography. English was taught as a compulsory subject in the English High Schools while the students of non-English schools in classes VI to VIII had to study an additional course in Mathematics comprising Euclidean Geometry and Algebra.

The 'Hunter Commission' of 1882 recommended the introduction of vocational courses at the upper secondary stage (two top-classes of a high school). The curriculum of the commercial classes included Mathematics, Modern English, History and Geography, Drawing and Practical Geometry and a Modern Language of the sub-continent. The Punjab University instituted an Entrance Examination in science. Physical education was a required subject for all students who appeared in this examination. Later, Drawing, Agriculture Physiology were added as additional optional out of which a student had to offer one subject on the lines parallel to the Matriculation examination. It also organized a clerical commercial examination. The curriculum leading to this examination comprised I sections, compulsory and elective. The compulsory part included English dictation calligraphy, Précis Writing and Correspondence, General and Commercial Geography, Book-keeping and commercial Arithmetic. In addition to the compulsory subjects candidate had to select one more subject, out of the subjects of Urdu, native system accounts, and shorthand.

In the Punjab, the first School Leaving Certificate (SLC) examination was not held until 1921. The syllabus comprised two compulsory subjects, viz., English and Arithmetic (including Commercial Mathematics) and three elective subjects to be chosen either for Group-A or from Group B as given below:

Group-A

- i. Shorthand and Typewriting
- ii. Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence
- iii. One subject from:
 - A Language of the sub-continent
 - B A classical language
 - C History and Geography.

Group-B

- i. Agriculture
- ii. Physics and Chemistry
- iii. Drawing
- iv. History and Geography
- v.
 - a. A language of the sub-continent or a modern language
 - b. A classical language
- vi. Physiology and Hygiene.

The University of the Punjab later amalgamated SLC examination and Matriculation examination in Arts and Science into one known as Certificate Examination.

2.2 Activity-IV

Study the above two groups of subjects and briefly explain the purpose behind these offerings.

2.3 The Hartog Committee

The Hartog Committee, in 1929, emphasized the need of introducing vocational courses including some courses for girls schools as the enrolment in girls schools was increasing day-by-day. In this respect, progress was low. In the Punjab, manual training centers were attached to the secondary schools and instruction was arranged at the time when it was convenient to students and the administration. Vocational form of training had become very popular and therefore soap-making, basket-making, chick-making, rope-twisting, poultry farming and sericulture were introduced in a number of vernacular schools. Now you can well imagine the economic concern of educationists in those days.

2.4 The Punjab University Enquiry Committee

The Punjab University Enquiry Committee in 1932-33 suggested the establishment of Higher Secondary Schools imparting education for 3 years after class IX. It suggested that apart from schools providing literary education of a purely college preparatory nature, there should be a good proportion of higher secondary schools which should give specialized training in agriculture and military and commercial subjects for adopting them as careers. In 1934, the Sapru Committee recommended the introduction of vocational subjects. As a result, a number of vocational subjects were introduced along with four compulsory subjects, i.e. English, one language of the sub-continent, History and Geography and Arithmetic.

2.5 Kamal Yar Jang Committee

Kamal Yar Jang Committee was set up by the Muslim Educational Conference to study the educational problems of the Muslims. The Committee recommended diversification of curricula during the last four years of the high school. It recommended the institution of a course in humanities and languages, a course in science, a course in agriculture, a course in commerce and so on.

2.6 Sargent Scheme

The Sargent Scheme recommended that a system of compulsory and free education be introduced for all children upto the age of 14 years, primary school for five

years up to the age of 11 and middle stage for 3 years up to the age of 14 and further three years for brighter students who would be sent to High Schools.

2.7 Central Advisory Board

The Central Advisory Board of Education recommended that the high schools should be of two main types, viz.,

- i. Academic High Schools, to impart instruction in arts and pure sciences and
- ii. Technical High Schools, to impart instruction in applied sciences and industrial and commercial subjects.

It was further recommended that the medium of instruction in all high schools should be the mother tongue of the pupils. English should be taught as compulsory second language. All pupils should acquire more knowledge of mathematics and science. Physical training should be obligatory. Rigid distinction between compulsory and optional subjects was discarded. It was considered that the range available should be as wide as circumstances permit and the individual pupil should be allowed to choose according to his interests, and also according to the requirements of his probable future career. For girls' high schools, domestic science for all at the appropriate stage was included in the curriculum.

In the year 1937, an Educational Conference was held and Mr. Zakir Hussain of Jamia Millia is Delhi was asked to submit a scheme of educational improvement. This is known as Wardah Scheme. It prepared the syllabi for different subjects for classes I to VII. Another Committee suggested that six types of subjects should be offered at secondary stage. They were recommended as under:

- (a) Language, literature and Social Studies and Mathematics
- (b) Natural Science and Mathematics
- (c) Art
- (d) Commerce
- (e) Technical and Professional subjects
- (f) Domestic Science

The Committee also recommended that there should be a common compulsory core curriculum in all the subjects. This core curriculum should consist of:

1. English
2. Urdu (or Hindi)
3. Physical Culture and General Knowledge.

Besides compulsory core subjects, students were required to take up three subjects in Humanities and Science.

During the period 1930-47, various committees set up to reorganize educational system in the sub-continent, forcefully expressed that the educational system needed a drastic reorientation. A shift from pure academic course to technical and professional courses was the key note of all recommendations. In spite of all these recommendations and attempts, no substantial change was seen when Pakistan emerged as an independent Muslim stage.

2.8 Self-assessment Questions — Exercise No. 1

1. State how the curriculum introduced by Imam Ghazali was different from the one introduced during the period of Banu Abbas.
2. What kind of reforms were introduced by Shah Wali Ullah in the curriculum during Muslim rule in the sub-continent, and what were their results?
3. Macaulay's Minutes (1853) are considered to be an important document in the history of education in the sub-continent. Discuss why?
4. How and 'when did the vocational subjects find their place in the curriculum? Which reports' recommended their introduction?
5. Fill in the blanks:
 - (i) Kamal Yar Jang Committee recommended _____

 - (ii) Institutions offering Darse-Nazamia taught the subject of _____

 - (iii) In 1837, the British Government made a decision that compelled the people in the sub-continent to learn English. What was the decision?

 - (iv) What provision was made particularly for Muslim students in the curriculum of 'Calcutta Madrassah'?

 - (v) Horse-riding formed a part of curriculum during the period of _____

6. Tick True or False against each of the statements given below:
 - (i) History and Geography were introduced as subjects of study during the period of Banu Abbas. T/F
 - (ii) Imam Ghazali divided the subjects into five categories. T/F
 - (iii) Ilm-ul-Kalam was included as a subject-of study in the Daras-e-Namazi in India in the Mughal period. T/F
 - (iv) Persian was abolished as a language of administration in 1837. T/F
 - (v) Vocational subjects were introduced in the sub-continent in 1934. T/F

3. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT SINCE 1947

Pakistan as you know, came into being as an independent country in 1947. At this time, the University of Punjab was the main body governing the preparation of curricula of the secondary stage and higher education in West Pakistan. However, primary education was the responsibility of the provincial governments. The Punjab University conducted two examinations, at the end of the high school stage, viz., the Matriculation Examination and the School Leaving Certificate Examination (SLC). For the Matriculation Examination, five subjects had to be offered by a candidate. The subjects were divided into two groups compulsory and elective as detailed below:

Group A. Compulsory Subjects

1. English
2. Mathematics or in the case of girls, Arithmetic and Domestic Arithmetic and Household Account
3. History and Geography.

Group B: Elective Subjects

1. Pakistani languages such as Urdu, Punjabi, Pashto, or a foreign Language, say, French or German.
2. A classical language Arabic, Persian, Hebrew, Latin, or Greek Physics and Chemistry
3. Drawing
4. Agriculture
5. Physiology and Hygiene or Civics and Hygiene or Domestic Economy for girls only.

For School Leaving Certificate Examination, compulsory subjects were:

1. English
2. Arithmetic including Commercial Arithmetic for those taking up Group A - Compulsory, or Algebra for those taking up Group B - Elective.

Group A. Elective

- (a) Shorthand and Typewriting
- (b) Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence
- (c) One subject out of the following:
 - i. A classical language (as for Matriculation)
 - ii. A Pakistani language (as for Matriculation)
 - iii. History and Geography
 - iv. Civics and Hygiene.

Group-B

- (a) Agriculture
- (b) Civics and Hygiene
- (c) Physics and Chemistry and
- (d) One more elective from
 - i. Languages
 - iii. Drawing
 - iv. History and Geography
 - v. Civics

Gradually, School Leaving Certificate Examination became so unpopular that nobody to this examination in the year 1950 and 1951. From here we switch over to the first education conference in Pakistan.

3.1 Educational Conference, 1947

The Quaid-i-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah had a great faith in education as a potent factor in realizing his aim of making Pakistan a truly Muslim state. He lost no time, directed that an Education Conference be called as early as November, 1947. In his message to the Pakistan Education Conference, 1947, he laid down the future education policy saying:

"You know that the importance of education and the right type of education cannot be over-emphasized, under foreign rule for over a century, sufficient attention has not been paid to the education of our people, and if we are to make real, speedy and substantial progress we must earnestly tackle this question and bring our educational policy and programme on the lines suited to the genius of our people, consonant with our history and culture, the modern conditions and vast developments that have taken place all over the world." (IO:p.8)

3.2 Activity-V

Derive principles of curriculum-making from the above policy statement of Quaid-i-Azam. On another occasion the Quaid-i-Azam remarked:

"The future of our state will and must greatly depend upon the type of education we give to our children and the way we bring them up as future citizens of Pakistan. Education does not merely mean academic education. There is an urgent need for giving scientific and technical education to our people in order to build up our future economic life and to see that our people take up science, commerce, trade and industry. At the same time, we have to build up the character of future generation. We should try by sound education, to instil into them, the highest sense of honour, integrity, responsibility and selfless service to the nation."

3.3 Activity-VI

Indicate the character traits emphasized by the Quaid-i-Azam and express your personal opinion.

The first Education Conference of November/December, 1947, gained importance because of the guidelines offered by the participants of the future plans and educational programmes. Mr. Fazalur Rehman, the first Education Minister of Pakistan, while supporting the views expressed by the Father of the Nation in his message, remarked: "Our existing educational system, as originally conceived by Macaulay, was intended to serve a narrow utilitarian purpose and its growth, has been largely a matter of artificial improvisation. It has rightly been condemned for lack of realism and inability to adjust itself to the needs of rapidly changing society, for its own literary bias and for its soulless character. It is inspired by no lofty idealism. It has no common faith nor it is governed by sound ethical principles or high intellectual standard. It has, therefore,

conspicuously failed to inculcate and maintain the stern moral and intellectual discipline which is the hall-mark of our true culture. The growing realization of these great deficiencies and their paralysing effect on national life inevitably bred acute dissatisfaction in the minds of all thinking people, and has in the recent years led to a considerable concentration of energies in a complete overhaul of or entire educational structure." (10:p. 12)

Consequently in the Conference Pakistanis have now before them the opportunity for reorientating their entire education policy to correspond closely with times and to reflect the ideals for independent state stands.

Since curriculum is the nerve system efforts have been made to modify it and to improve it. Commissions undertook review of curricula as an exercise. Significant efforts made in this direction are summarized below:

3.4 Punjab University Commission 1950-52

The Commission observed that the school curricula did not provide for enough diversification to suit the ranging tests and aptitudes of the students. The Commission recommend that courses in the middle schools should consist of certain basic subjects such as Religious Education, Physical Instruction, Urdu, Mathematics, History and Geography, Practical Arts and one language from amongst Urdu, English, Persian, Arabic, Bengali, French, Latin, etc. it was considered that this would give the students of the age 11-13 a sound general education. For secondary stage, there should be a few compulsory subjects and a few electives to be chosen from the various groups (one from each group) such as:

1. Languages: Urdu, Persian, Arabic, Bengali, French, German, Latin, etc.
2. Social Sciences: History, Geography, Elementary Civics, etc.
3. Natural Sciences: Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Domestic Science, etc.
4. Mathematics: Algebra, Geometry, Drawing, etc.
5. Arts and Music: Drawing, Painting, Designing, Modeling, Eastern Music, Western Music.

The Committee emphasized that each stage should be treated as complete and the courses of studies should be designed on the basis of a continuous process for the whole unit.

3.5 Six Year National Plan of Educational Development

It was on 18th and 19th July, 1951, that Mr. Fazalur Rehman, the Central Education Minister, invited Provincial Education Ministers, Secretaries, Vice-Chancellors and other high ranking officers in a Conference at Karachi, to determine the basis for the preparation of the Six year National Plan of Education Development of Pakistan.

As regards the secondary school curriculum in general, the Conference made certain suggestions. It was observed that generally for the students of the age range 13 plus to 16 plus differentiation in the interests and abilities of the pupils had long been considered to have been taken care of by following two main lines, viz. Humanities and Science and Mathematics. However, educational experience and psychological research justify greater differentiation with less broad divisions into groups of subjects. The differentiation of curriculum should not take the form of exclusive compartmentalization,

but courses of study should be organized by laying more emphasis on those subjects for which the pupil shows greater inclination. For instance, a pupil may study two or three modern language in addition to the core subject; another may study physics, chemistry or biology; yet another may study the outline of World History including Islamic History, Elementary Economics and Elementary Civics.

Another positive shift was towards the ideological basis of education. It discussed in detail the "ideological rationale of Pakistan" which would need an educational system corresponding more or less to the ideological rationale of the country. With this basic philosophy in view, the principal objectives of the new plan were enumerated as:

1. To organize education on the basis of the objectives resolution to be embodied in the Constitution of Pakistan.
2. To achieve as comprehensively as possible during the period of six years an Integrated and balanced development of education.
3. To provide health and physical education.
4. To eradicate illiteracy from the country.
5. To provide equal opportunity to all.

It also recommended 5 years Primary, 3 years Middle and 3 years Secondary education pattern. The new structure was to provide in total, eleven years schooling upto secondary level and three years instruction at the under-graduate level. When this proposal was referred to the Inter-University Board, it was accepted readily.

When recommendations for reforms were being made, Pakistan did not have uniform pattern of education. The duration of secondary education in Karachi, Sindh, was seven years of schooling at the Primary level. In the Punjab, Khyberpakhtunkhwa and Baluchistan, the duration was five years, beyond five years of Primary education. The President, Karachi Board of Secondary, Education, suggested the following pattern:

Pre-primary	2 years	age level	3+ to 5+
Primary	5 years	age level	5+ to 10+
Secondary			
a. Lower level	3 years	age level	10+ to 13+
b. Secondary	3 years	age level	13+ to 16+
c. Higher secondary	2 years	age level	16+ to 18+

Karachi proposal, as we see, corresponded to the educational practices in Great Britain Act, 1944. Rejecting the Karachi Scheme for structural and curricular leaving it to the mental exercises of its experts, the authors of the plan decided to stay wit in their limited scope: The Central Government had no constitutional control over education in the provinces and, therefore, no worth mentioning development could take place. However, diversification of courses was accepted by all.

3.6 Activity-VII

Compare the structural design of the Six Year National Plan with that of the Karachi Proposal. Find out the major differences between the two, if any.

3.7 Board of Secondary Education, Lahore (1957)

First five-year plan (1955-60) favoured the creation of Board of Secondary Education to take over the charge of conducting the public examination at the Secondary Education level. The Board proposed in its meeting that there should be two public examinations, one at the end of class X and the other at the end of class XII. The Board in their sitting on the 15th of March, 1956, approved the following scheme regarding the courses of study for the two stages of Secondary Education:

(a) High School Stage

- i. Religious Education shall be the qualifying compulsory subject. Where Religious Education could not be provided, ethical or Moral Education was temporarily approved.
- ii. Compulsory Subjects
 - a. Urdu one paper to be taken by those not offering urdu elective
 - b. English two papers (not to be taken by those offering English group)
 - c. Social Studies two papers (paper A, History and Geography, and paper B, Civics, Health Education and Vocational Guidance).

Candidates were required to offer one of the following groups in addition to the compulsory subjects:

Group-I (Humanities)

Any three of the following subjects:

1. History
2. Geography
3. One language
4. Art and Drawing
5. Music
6. Mathematics
7. General Science.

Group-II (Science)

1. Physics and Chemistry
2. Geography
3. Biology or any subject from 1 to 3 listed under the Humanities Group.

Group-III (Oriental)

- a.
 1. Arabic two papers
 2. Persian one paper
 3. Urdu one paper or
 1. Persian two papers
 2. Arabic one paper
 3. Urdu one paper or
 1. Urdu two papers
 2. Arabic One paper
 3. Persian one paper.
- b. Any one subject excepting a language from Humanities Group.

Group-IV (Technical)

One of the following courses with cognate subjects (the entire group was equal to three subjects or six papers):

1. Industrial Arts
2. Commerce
3. Home Science
4. Agriculture
5. Military Studies

Group- V (English)

- (a)
 1. English advanced level, two papers
 2. Any other group.

(b) Higher Secondary Stage (I)

4. Urdu (mother tongue and non-mother tongue)
5. Mathematics (Arithmetic, Geometry, Algebra)
6. General Science or Domestic Science for girls only).

Elective Subjects

Two elective subjects from any one of the groups listed under: Group-I

1. History, 2. Geography 3. Civics
4. Economics 5. Elementary Commerce

Group-II

1. Physics and Chemistry
2. Domestic Science (not for those who take domestic science in lieu of general science).
3. Physiology and Hygiene.

Group-III

1. Commercial mathematics
2. Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry.

Group-IV

1. Biology
2. Geography and Geology
3. Engineering Science

Group-V

Arts and Practical Arts

Group- VI (Language)

1. Arabic 2. Persian
3. Latin 4. Sanskrit
5. Gujrati 6. Bengali
7. Urdu 8. Sindhi
9. French 10. Hindi.

For the School Leaving Examination (technical) Compulsory Subjects

1. Urdu
2. Practical English
3. Mathematics (practical Arithmetic and algebra)
4. Mathematics I and II (Plain Geometry, Trigonometry, Mensuration and Solid Geometry, and
5. Physics and Chemistry.

In addition to the compulsory subjects, a candidate was required to offer Engineering Drawing or Engineering Science (Applied Mechanics and Applied Electricity). The first-five year plan proposed without any reservation, a school system that would include both academic and vocational disciplines in an integrated scheme of work.

3.9 The Commission on National Education (1959)

Now you enter upon a big educational development in the history of Pakistan since 1947. The Commission, as you know, was appointed by the Pakistan Government in

December, 1958 and its report was submitted on August 26, 1959. The Preamble of the Commission Report states:

“Whereas the educational system of Pakistan is not adequate to meet the needs and requirements of the nation, it has become necessary to set up a competent body to review, in consonance with the aspiration of the people of the country, the educational for the purpose of ensuring an integrated and balanced development of the education at various stages.”

In order to bring full development of the child as (a) an individual (b) a citizen (c) a worker, and (d) a patriot, schools offering, besides a basic core of subjects, should include a range of optional subjects suited to a student's talent and related to our social and cultural needs.

3.10 Curriculum Committee for Secondary Education

In July, 1960, the Government of Pakistan appointed the Curriculum Committee for Secondary Education for implementing the recommendations of the Commission on National Education. The Committee had the following objectives in view:

- (j) To formulate the curriculum and syllabi for secondary education in conformity with the recommendations of the Commission to ensure the realization of national objectives which may be summarized as under:
 - (a) Projection of trained manpower, educated citizenry and competent leadership for the country
 - (b) Training of students to lead productive public lives and full personal lives according to their talent and interests.
 - (c) Maintenance of the freedom, integrity and strength of Pakistan.
 - (d) Preservation of the moral and spiritual values of Islam, which emanate from the concept of a universe governed by the principles of truth, justice, benevolence, equality and universal brotherhood.
- (ii) To maintain uniform academic standard throughout the country.
- (iii) To draw up a general scheme of studies for secondary education by integrating into its scheme for studies the three parts of secondary education (a) classes VI to VIII (b) classes IX to X and (c) classes XI to XII.
- (iv) To lay down the broad principles for the guidance of Committee of courses for framing detailed syllabi in individual subjects
- (v) To examine and coordinate the syllabi prepared by the Committee of course and to ensure that they constituted an integrated and harmonious whole. The Committee consisted of 47 members drawn from institutions and other agencies concerned with education. The Curriculum Committee on Secondary Education recommended a mended comprehensive programme of wide variety for adoption in all types of secondary schools from middle stage to higher secondary stage. The Committee was Conscious of the sporadic efforts made in the past which lacked cooperation; therefore, it made a sincere of the to coordinate and integrate the work done in middle, secondary and higher secondary schools.

The general scheme of education for middle stage classes Vito VIII was as under:

Required courses with number of periods allotted:

Subjects	Periods allotted per week
1. Urdu	8
2. English	8
3. General Mathematics	7
4. Social Studies	5
5. General Science	5
6. Religious Education	8
7. Physical Education	2
8. One each from both the groups	3

(a) Arts and Crafts

Clay-modelling, Toy-making, basketry, Pottery, Fabric Printing, Leather Work Puppety, Book-binding, Weaving, Cane and Bamboo Work and such other crafts as may be prescribed.

(b) Art and Practical Art

Wood Work, Metal Work, Applied Electricity, Agriculture and Gardening, Fish-culture, Home Economics and other Practical Arts as may be prescribed.

Electives

One of the subjects: Arabic, Art, Bengali, Dancing, Gujrati, Music, Paki, Pushto Punjabi, Persian, Sanskrit, Sindhi, Urdu and such other subjects as may be prescribed.

Variety of activities were offered at middle stage, through which the special aptitudes and interests of the children may be discovered to enable them to choose appropriate careers or subsequent courses of study at the higher stage of learning.

Secondary Stage (Classes IX-X₁)

Required Courses

Urdu 200 marks, English 200, Social Studies 100, General Mathematics 100. General Science 100, Physical Education 100, Manual work 72 hours of work during the year.

Elective

Any of the following group:

i. Humanities Group

Subjects Carrying 100 marks so as to make a total of 300 marks.

- a. Mathematics or Household Accounts (for girls only)
- b. History
- c. Geography
- d. Islamic Studies
- e. Art
- f. Geometrical and Technical Drawing
- g. Classical languages: Arabic, Persian, Greek, Sanskrit etc.
- h. Modern languages of the world.
- i. Physiology and Hygiene

- j. Health and Physical Education
- k. Civics
- 1. Elementary Economics**
 - m. Music
 - n. Outline of Home Economics
 - o. Such other subjects as may be prescribed
 - p. One paper of 100 marks from any other group for not included in the list.
- 2 Science Group**
 - a. Mathematics
 - b. Physics
 - c. Chemistry
 - d. One subject out of Biology, Physiology and Hygiene, Geometrical and Technical Drawing, Geography, one pair carrying 100 marks on a subject not included above.
- 3 Commerce Group**
 - a. Business Methods and Correspondences
 - b. Commercial Geography
 - c. Arithmetic and Book-keeping
 - d. Type working.
- 4 Industrial Arts Group**
 - a. Mathematics
 - b. Physics
 - c. Chemistry
 - d. Any two subjects out of Metal Work, Wood Work, Applied Electricity, pottery and ceramics Leather work Ornamental Art, and crafts, weaving, Geometrical and Technical Drawing Building Construction, Cane Work, Tailoring, Confectionary and Bakery, such other subjects as may be prescribed.
- 5. Home Economics Group**
 - a. Chemistry, Physics and Biology
 - b. Food and Nutrition, Social Science
 - c. Elementary Botany, Horticulture and Gardening
 - d. Elementary Zoology, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries
 - e. Mathematics or a paper carrying 100 marks from any other group.

Total Marks

700 for required subjects and 300 or 400 marks from the six groups of the subjects, so as to keep the total of maximum marks between 1000 and 1100.3.11

3.11 Activity-VIII

Discuss the term 'Humanities' and 'Home Economics' and indicate their most significant contribution for our social welfare.

Higher Secondary Education (Classless XI and XII) Required Courses

- 1. Urdu
- 2. English

- 3 . Physical Education (non-examining subject)
- 4 . Manual work examining

Elective Courses

1. Humanities Group

- a . General History or Islamic History
- b . Economics
- c . Geography
- d . Military Science
- e . Logic
- f . Psychology
- g . Civics
- h . Statistics
- i . Islamic Studies
- j . Outline of Home Economics
- k . Music
- l . Fine Arts
- m . One of the Classical and Modern Languages of the world
- n . Commercial Practice
- o . Health and Physical Education
- p . Such other subjects as may be prescribed.

2. Science Group

- a . Mathematics
- b . Physics
- c . Chemistry
- d . One subject out of Biology, Physiology and Hygiene, Geometrical and Technical Drawing, Geography. One paper carrying 100 Marks on a subject not included above.

3. Commerce Group

- a . Book-keeping
- b . Principles of Commerce
- c . Economics and Commercial Geography.

4. Technical Group

- a . Applied Mathematics
- b . Applied Science
- c . Engineering Drawing
- d . Workshop Practice and Survey

5. Home Economics Group

- A . General Science , Food and Nutrition
- B . Clothing and Textile and Applied Art
- C . Family Life and Home Management

6. Nursing Group

- a . Nursing and first Aid Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene practical and oral.

- b. Anatomy and Physiology, Health of mother and child dietetics practical and oral
- c. Two or more subject form other groups.
- 7. **Islamic Studies Group**
 - a. Arabic
 - b. Quran and Hadith, Fiqh and Usool-e-Fiqh
 - c. Islamic History and Culture.
- 8. **Military Science Group**
 - a. War
 - b. Military History
 - c. Economics of War
 - d. Military
 - e. Defance of Pakistan
 - f. Special Military Studies.
- 9. **Agriculture Group**
 - a. Agriculture part I and II
 - b. Two or more subjects carrying 400 marks from any other group.

At the higher secondary stage, the commission prescribed live subjects in all: to require and three elective. Required areas of study were English, Urdu or Bengali carrying 200 marks each, while three electives to be selected from 10 groups carrying 200 marks each, so as to make the total of 1100 marks.

The Commission also recommended two public examinations For 9th and 10th classes separately for Secondary School Certificate Examination. In the manner explained, above, the Commission on National Education.1959 recommended a diversified curriculum in secondary schools. The proposed curriculum was to be both terminal and college preparatory.

3.12 Modern Science and Mathematics Course

A dedicated group of scientists and curriculum specialists visualized that science and technology was advancing so rapidly in other countries that if we remained contents with what we had, we would remain decades behind the developing countries. They thought of catching speed and devoted themselves to introducing modern concepts of science and technology in the curriculum. As one of them remarked:

"We may not have introduced the latest science courses, but have at least succeeded in preparing people mentally for a change"

The arduous task was undertaker by the West Pakistan Education Extension Centre, Lahore. The redeeming feature of this exercise was that not only the courses were modernized, but adequate arrangements were also made to prepare the in-service teachers for effectively teaching the courses to their students, by arranging a network of in service training courses throughout West Pakistan. The courses were revised for IX and X classes of secondary stage, classes XI and XII of Intermediate stage and for degree classes. New textbooks were also written on modern lines. This attempt, generally, goes by the name of "modernization of curriculum.

4. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT UNDER VARIOUS EDUCATION POLICIES

From 1970 onwards various governments formulated Education Policies and took steps to implement them effectively. In these policies there were clear directions for Curriculum. The following Education Policies were announced under which curriculum were also reformulated.

4.1 New Education Policy, 1970

New Education Policy was formulated in March, 1970, with the following basic concepts inspiring the goals/and guidelines of education development:

- (a) The role of education in the preservation and inclusion of Islamic values as an instrument of national unity and progress.
- (b) Reorientation of educational programmes laying more emphasis on Scientific, vocational education.
- (c) Role of education as an instrument of social change and development and as the creation of opportunities of education
- (d) The paramount importance of quality in education and the crucial role of teachers in the improvement of educational quality.
- (e) Decentralization of educational administration to ensure academic freedom and administrative and financial autonomy required for healthy and efficient growth of educational institutions particularly at the higher stage.

(a) Curriculum

It was recommended to set up curriculum committees at appropriate levels to design - curricula suited to the needs of each stage of education. Curriculum development, however, should be viewed as an integrated and continuous process. It was, therefore, recommended that each province should have a permanent Bureau of Curriculum Development for - supporting activities of the various agencies concerned with curriculum development, e.g. Teacher Training institutions, Textbook Boards and the Secondary Education Boards. The Ministry of Education was expected to continue to coordinate the formulation of national policies in curriculum development and preparation of text books and other learning materials. The policy laid down some principles for the development of curriculum for elementary and secondary schools.

(b) Elementary Curriculum

The curriculum should be inspired by Pakistan's national objectives. The curriculum of elementary schools should be redesigned around basic linguistic and numerical skills and manual and production work to suit the practical needs of everyday life. The aversion to manual work should be countered by relating the curriculum to the physical and social environments of the children which will make elementary education more responsive to the needs of society. With a view to developing the children's analytical and problem-solving skills, teaching of science should be introduced at the elementary stage in the form of the study of nature and the environment.

(c) Secondary School Curriculum

The policy recommended that the curriculum at the secondary stage should be

redesigned with particular emphasis on science and technical subjects and manual arts. A large number of students should be diverted to technical, agriculture and industrial streams designed to prepare them for absorption in the economic life of the country. As the regime which floated the ideas of New Education Policy was short-lived, the recommendations could not be carried out but they prepared the ground for the next Education Policy.

4.2 Education Policy 1972-80

Education Policy 1972-80 was introduced with the objectives of:

1. Ensuring the preservation, promotion and practice of the basic ideology of Pakistan and making it a code of individual life.
2. Building up national cohesion by promoting social and cultural harmony compatible with our basic ideology through the conscious use of the educational process
3. Building up and maturing the total personality of the individual dynamic, creative and capable of facing the truth as it emerges from the objective study of reality: an individual who should be able to comprehend fully the nature of technical and social change and having deep concern for the improvement of society.
4. Providing a comprehensive programme of studies through the integration of general and technical education and by keeping option open to transfer from one course of study to another. (3: 1)

(i) Curriculum Development

The relevant decisions in the Education Policy relating to curriculum development and revision were as follows:

- (a) Designing curriculum relevant to the nation's changing social and economic needs compatible with our basic ideology and providing a massive shift from general education to more purposeful agro-technical education.
- (b) Curricula, syllabi and textbooks will be revised to eliminate overloading, to emphasize learning of concepts and skills and to encourage observation, exploration, experimentation, practical work and creative expression.
- (c) The system of elementary education will be so designed that the knowledge and skills imparted, attitudes formed and the learning methods employed will ensure that those proceeding to secondary education can be usefully absorbed into the economy of the local community. For those leaving school after class VIII. Special course of training in the skills of their vocational interests will be provided in the school workshop. It is essential that children who dropout after class VIII should carry with them enough skills to return to their local or ancestral vocation as better farmers or craftsmen.
- (d) The integration of general and technical education will equip secondary and College students for gainful employment.
- (e) Education will be introduced as an elective subject for matriculation, Intermediate at and degree levels.

- (f) An integrated science course, including mathematics, biology and physical Sciences will be introduced at the high school and intermediate stage.

Following schemes of Studies were laid down:

Scheme of Studies for Elementary Classes (Primary Level: Classes I-V)

Subjects

1. Language
 - a 1st language
 - b 2nd language
2. Mathematics
3. Science
4. Social Studies
5. health and Physical Education
6. Islamiyat
7. Arts

Scheme of Studies for Elementary Level (Middle Classes: Classes VI to VIII)

Subject

1. Languages
 - a 1st language
 - b 2nd language
 - d English compulsory
2. Mathematics
3. Science
4. Pakistan/Social Studies
5. Health and Physical Education
6. Islamiyat
7. Arts
8. Vocational

Scheme of Studies for the Secondary School Examination Component- I Compulsory

1. Urdu
2. English
3. Pakistan Studies
4. Islamiyat (or Akhlaqiyat for non-Muslim students).

Component-71 (Electives)

Group Mathematics

2. Physics
3. Chemistry
4. Biology

General Group

1. General Mathematics or Mathematics or household Accounts and Related Problems or Elements of- I-Ionic Economics
3. General Science
2. Two subjects have got relevance with the subjects noted above.

(Component-III (Elective))

Vocational subjects: one vocational subject.

(Component-I V (Elective))

Compulsory non-examination exercises:

1. Physical exercises
2. Training in civil defiance, first aid and nursing.

4.3 Activity-IX

Is the secondary school curriculum light or heavy? Discuss this point with your colleagues and try to arrive at some conclusion.

Scheme of Studies for the intermediate Examination

Component-I Compulsory

1. Urdu
2. English

Component-II

One of the following groups:

A- Science Group

1. Mathematics
2. Physics
3. Chemistry
4. Biology

25% of the marks and time allotted to these subjects will be devoted to practical work.

B- Social Sciences/General Group

1. Any three subjects from the "Y" list, one being allied to the vocational field
2. One vocational subject.

Component-III (Compulsory non-examination exercises)

- a. Physical Culture: 15 to 30 minutes daily
- b. Practical training: 75 hours in the two academic years in military science proceeding the examination.

General Group

1. General Mathematics or Mathematics or Household Accounts and Related Problems or Elements of Home Economics.
2. General Science
3. Two subjects which have got relevance with the subjects noted above.

Component-III (Elective)

Vocational Subjects: one vocational subject.

Component-I V (Elective)

Compulsory non-examination exercises:

1. Physical exercises
2. Training in civil defenses, first aid and nursing.

"Y" List of Elective Subjects

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Economics | 2. Geography |
| 3. Environmental Studies | 4. Psychology |
| 5. History of Education | 6. Principles of Home Economics |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 7. Sociology | 8. Political Science |
| 9. History of Freedom Movement Till the.10
Emergence of Pakistan Islamic History | Islamic History |
| 11. World History | 12. History of the Inid-o-Paksitan sub continent. |

General Subjects

- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| 13. General Science | 14. Astronomy and Space |
| 15. Geology | 16. Mathematics |
| 17. Statistics | 18. Engineering Drawing |
| 19. Business Principles and Procedures | 20. Philosophy |
| 21. General Agriculture and Animal
Husbandry | 22. Music |
| 23. Fine Arts | 24. Military Science |
| 25. Arabic | 26. Persian |
| 27. Urdu Literature | 28. Turkish |
| 29. Bengali | 30. English Literature |
| 31. German | 32. French |
| 33. Japanese | 34. Chinese |
| 35. Russian | 36. Spanish |
| 37. Latin | 38. Punjabi |
| 39. Sindhi | 40. Pushto |
| 41. Gujrati | 42. Baluchi |

The Ministry of Education, Curriculum Wing, Islamabad, asked the Provincial Bureau of Curriculum to frame curricula in all subjects at primary stage.

The first initiative for formulation of curriculum was taken by Bureau of Curriculum Research and Development, Lahore, in 1973. A meeting of curriculum framers and educationists was convened at the Education Extension Centre, Lahore where approaches to curriculum designing were discussed and prominent educationists addressed the participants. A sample curriculum of all the subjects at primary stage was presented by the Punjab which served as the guideline for the curriculum framer's of other provinces.

A National Committee of Curriculum in each subject was formed which discussed the provincial draft curricula in each subject and the final draft was prepared and approved by the Ministry of Education in each subject in 1974. The curriculum for classes I to III was introduced in 1974. Textbooks were prepared under the guidance of curriculum framers.

Micro testing of the curriculum in the subjects of Urdu, Social Studies, mathematics and Science was done before introducing the curricula in all the schools. After the introduction some of the concepts were deleted, others modified and some added.

After the introduction of primary school curriculum, similar steps were taken to prepare and implement the curricula for the middle and high stages.

Revised curriculum up to class X was introduced by 1976. Curriculum of teacher education courses was also revised. Semester system was introduced in teacher training colleges in B Ed, CT, and PTC classes. One year course for these classes was introduced. Recommendations for three years elementary teacher training and three years B Ed after

FA/ F Sc were made. Three years scheme has not been introduced in Elementary Colleges, but three years B Ed course was adopted by some training institutions.

4.4 Activity-X

How do you view the idea of three years BA/B Sc, B Ed course after Intermediate? Think over it for five minutes and record your opinion point-wise.

4.5 National Education Policy 1978

You will recall the an educational conference was convened in 1977 to review the state of education in the review the state of education in the ways and means to bring it in line with our faith and ideology. The government directed that this conference should be major step in the search of an indigenous education policy. It was attended by eminent scholars, educationists, journalists, lawyers, vice-chancellors etc. The conference examined and redefined the aims the nation should attempt to realize through education. National aims of education in conformity with the lofty principles of Islam, our rich cultural heritage and our socioeconomic needs and requirements were incorporated in the Education Policy. Some of these objectives were:

- a. To foster in the hearts and minds of the people of Pakistan in general and the students in particular a deep and abiding loyalty to Islam and Pakistan and a living consciousness of their spiritual and ideological identity thereby strengthening unity of the outlook of the people of Pakistan on the basis of justice and fair play.
- b. To create awareness in every student that he, as a member of Pakistani nation, is also a part of the universal Muslim Ummah and that it is expected of him to make contribution towards the welfare of fellow Muslims inhabiting the globe on the one hand and to help spread the message of Islam throughout the world on the other.
- c. To produce citizens who are fully conversant with the Pakistan Movement, its ideological foundations, history and culture so that they feel proud of their heritage and display firm faith in the future of the country as an Islamic State.
- d. To develop and inculcate in accordance with the Quran and Sunnah, the character, conduct and motivation expected of a true Muslim.
- e. To promote and strengthen scientific, vocational and technological education, training and research in the country and to use this knowledge for socioeconomic growth and development thereby ensuring a self-reliant and secure future for the nation.

Evidently, these aims formed the basis for determining the content of education all levels.

The most important criterion of relevance and adequacy of curricula is the ideological basis of Pakistan and the needs and aspirations of the nation. It had, therefore, got to be ensured that knowledge, Attitudes, and skills to be imparted at all levels, were in line with the teachings of the Quran and Sunnah.

- (i) Recommendations of the conference, however, could not be implemented because of a number of reasons. In the National Education Policy clear decisions and programme for the revision of curricula and textbooks had been included.

Recommendations regarding curriculum were as under;

- (i) The entire curricula and textbooks will be reviewed ensure that adequate content

on Islam and Islamic ideology is included; that due coverage is given to instructional materials aimed at the promotion of national cohesion and integration. Textbooks of all levels will also be revised to ensure that Islamic ideology is protected and high academic standards are maintained.

- (ii) In order to avoid overloading and overlapping, integrated curricula and textbooks will be introduced. At the primary level more weight will be given to practical work and creative activities so that children could gain desired attitudes and skills.
- (iii) The Textbooks Boards will be reorganized to improve their efficiency. Effective liaison will be established between the National Book Foundation and the Textbook Boards.
- (ii) Programme
The programme outlined for the implementation of the recommendations of the policy regarding curriculum was as given below:

The entire curricula and textbooks will be reviewed to ensure inclusion of adequate content on Islam, ideology of Pakistan, and promotion of national cohesion and integration.

University Grants Commission will undertake review of curricula and textbooks for higher education programme to bring them in consonance with the ideology

Pakistan and principles of Islam. The new curricula will duly emphasize latest knowledge and developments in scientific disciplines in particular.

Evacuation studies of the existing curricula will be undertaken to identify strengths and weaknesses of the existing curricula.

Integrated curricula and textbooks will be introduced in class I and II from the year 1979-80.

At the primary stage more weight will be given to the practical work and creative activities so that children could gain desired attitudes and skills.

The component of agro-technical education, already introduced at middle and secondary stages, will be evaluated and the programmes will be made production oriented.

The process of curriculum development will be improved by proper emphasis on research studies. Field testing will be given due importance.

The revised curricula will be implemented in a phased manner.

National/Provincial curriculum development agencies will work in close collaboration and involve adequate number of students and teachers.

Supplementary reading materials for children and teacher guides/manuals for teachers will be prepared for the enrichment of experiences students and teachers.

In order to make the teacher-learning process more effective. Laboratory equipment and instructional aids/kits will be provided.

A standing committee of the National Education Council on Curriculum and

Textbooks will be constituted to review the existing curricula and textbooks improvement and to identify textbooks which can be prescribed throughout the country.

The Ministry of Education will undertake a review of all the textbooks prescribed by the English medium schools. These textbooks and auxiliary materials will require approval by the Ministry of Education.

Possibilities of introduction of common textbooks in selected subjects at different levels will be examined.

Textbook Boards will be reorganized to improve quality of textbooks and to ensure their in time availability. Professional staff will be recruited by the Boards for editing.

Printing, production, research and development. The existing staff will be provided in-service training for effective performance of their functions.

Supply of quality paper at cheaper rates will be arranged for the Textbook Boards. The Boards will be allowed to import paper duty free. Import of other machinery required by the Boards will also be made duty free. Adequate facilities for printing, storage and distribution will be developed.

The textbooks will be supplied to all the students at the primary level. As envisaged in the Fifth five year plan, the teachers will be made responsible for distribution and maintenance of these books. The books will be retrieved for subsequent use.

The Provincial Governments and Textbook Boards will provide sufficient subsidy to keep the prices of textbooks within the reach of common man.

(iii) Implementation of the Recommendations of Education Policy 1978

Steps were taken to implement the recommendations of the Education Policy concerning curriculum as:

- (a) As a first step towards the implementation of Education Policy a National Textbook Review Committee .ii number of educationists participated. The Committee reviewed the textbooks of all levels and deleted all the material, which in any way was not in line with the Quran or Sunnah. The textbooks, thus revised, were reprinted by the Textbook Boards.
- (b) The research institutions such as Curriculum Centres/Bureaux undertook research and curriculum issues, including their evaluation and revision.
- (c) An intensive evaluation of curricula of agro-technical subjects was undertaken.
- (d) The curricula of Deeni Madrassahs were reviewed to make them in line with the Quran and Sunnah on one side, and with the demands of the modern age on the other. The work was undertaken by a national committee set up for the purpose.
- (e) A project for preparation of integrated curricula and text books for classes I and II was undertaken by the Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Bordeaux of Curriculum.
- (f) Programmes of in service education of teachers at Primary and Secondary level were undertaken by various organizations such as the Ministry of Education and

Provincial Education Extension Centres. Allama Iqbal Open University has also under took the training of primary school teachers through correspondence courses supplemented by radio-television lessons and workshops.

- (g) The scheme of studies for intermediate level (classes XI and XII) was revised so as to lay more emphasis on Mathematics and integrated Science course. General Mathematics was made compulsory for all groups.
- (h) School teachers were trained for practical work and research.
- (iv) Second World Conference on Muslim Education

One of the recent landmarks in the history of curriculum development was the Second World Conference in Muslim Education, "Islamic Concepts and Curricula" which was held in Islamabad in 1980. This Conference classified the subjects into two categories: subjects containing 'Perennial' knowledge, and subjects containing 'Acquired' knowledge, but recommended the integration of both as under:

A - Group-I 'Perennial'

- (i) Al-Quran
 - (a) Recitation (Qirah), Memorization (Hifz) and Interpretation (Tafsir)
 - (b) Sunnah
 - (c) Sirah of the Prophet (peace be upon him), his companions and their followers (which covers the early history of Islam)
 - (d) Tauhid
 - (e) Usool-i-Fiqh
 - (f) Qureanic Arabic
- (ii) Ancillary Subjects
Islamic Metaphysics, Comparative Religion, Islamic Culture.

B - Group-I! 'Acquired'

To be divided into the following sub-categories:

- (a) Imagination (Arts): Islamic Arts and Architecture, Languages, Literature.
- (b) Intellectual Sciences: Social Studies (Theoretical), Philosophy, Education, Economics; Political Science, History, Islamic Civilization, Geography, Sociology, Linguistics, Psychology, Anthropology.
- (c) Natural Sciences (Theoretical): Philosophy of Science, Mathematics, Statistics, Physics, Chemistry, Life Sciences, Astronomy and Space Science, etc..
- (d) Applied Sciences: Engineering and Technology, Medicine, Agriculture and Forestry.
- (e) Practical: Commerce, Administrative Sciences (Business Administration, Public Administration).
- (f) Library Science, Home Sciences, Communication Sciences (Mass Communication, etc.

It was recommended that the above branches of acquired sciences should be taught from the Islamic point of view. Islamic schools of thought should be established in all branches of social studies.

4.6 National Education Conference

After taking-over as Prime Minister in December, 1988, Benazir Bhutto

convened the National Education Conference in Islamabad in March, 1989. Major objective of this conference which was attended by about 500 delegates from different institutions and walks of life was to reconsider the aims of education at the national level and thus make them up-to-date according to the changed circumstances. Recommendations of this three-day workshop were passed on to the Government of Pakistani for processing and giving the nation a revised education Policy.

4.7 Concluding Remarks

The history of curriculum development in Pakistan is a story of emerging curricula. It proves one thing, i.e. interest of the nation in an appropriate curriculum for the children, a curriculum which is according to the nation's aspirations and needs. The development of curriculum from 1960 onwards has been methodical and somewhat action research oriented, which is a sign of scientific thinking in the field of education. However, there are numerous problems in the implementation of curricula such as:

- (a) Shortage of financial resources
- (b) Shortage of trained manpower
- (c) Rigid attitude of teachers, parents and community
- (d) Inadequacy of physical facilities in the institutions
- (e) Frequent changes in national priorities in the light of international scene.

Steps are being taken to overcome these problems gradually.

The main aim before the nation now is to introduce a curriculum which is consistent with the Quran and Sunnah and which also in a help the individual to develop his personality to the maximum possible extent. For making progress in the field of science and technology. The purpose is to produce through such curriculum creative, productive, sincere and patriotic citizens who may work for the development of the nation within the framework of the principles of Islam.

4.8 Self-assessment Questions-- Exercise No. 2

1. In what way does the present curriculum for classes VI to X differ from that of pre-independence period?
2. Analyze the general trend in curriculum reforms since 1959.
3. How would you inculcate the spirit of unity and integrity a general curriculum at the secondary stage.
4. Compare the recommendations regarding curriculum reforms contained in the two education policies of 1972 and 1978 and highlight the main differences.
5. Fill in the blanks:
 - (i) Education Policy 1960 could not be implemented because _____

 - (ii) Micro-testing of the curricula was carried out _____

 - (iii) The chief criterion of relevance and adequacy of curricula is _____

 - (v) List three main problems which in your opinion, have caused slow implementation of education policy, 1978 _____

-
- (vi) A National Textbook Review Committee reviewed the textbooks in 1979 for the purpose of _____
-

6. Tick True or False against each of the statements given below:

- (i) The First Education ('inference', p was held in Karachi in November, 1947. T/F
- (ii) The Curriculum Committee for Secondary Education was appointed in 1960 for implementing some of the recommendations of the Committee on Education. T/F
- (iii) The Education Commission, 1959 recommended one public examination for class X. T/F
- (iv) The 1972-80 Education Policy recommended the introduction of Education as a subject at Intermediate and Degree levels. T/E
- (v) The Second World Conference on Muslim Education held in Islamabad in 1980 generally classified the subjects into two categories viz 'Perennial' and acquired'. T/F

4.9 Answers to Self-assessment questions – Exercises

Exercise No. 1

Q 1 to 5: For answers to questions No. 1-5 see the relevant portions of the unit.

Q 6: (i) True (ii) False (iii) True (iv) True (v) True

Exercise No. 2

Q 1 to 5: For answers to questions No. 1-5 see the relevant portions of the unit.

Q 6: (i) True (ii) True (iii) False (iv) False (v) False

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UNIT-3

FOUNDATIONS OF CURRICULUM

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INTRODUCTION

The curriculum foundations may be defined as those basic forces that influence and shape the minds of curriculum developers and enhance the content and structure of the subsequent curriculum.

Ideas about curriculum do not arise in a vacuum. Such ideas are actually based upon views about human nature; source of values, worthwhile knowledge, and the role of teachers and the school. Therefore, the development of curriculum depends largely on the ideas that grow out of the fields of philosophy, psychology and sociology. These three ideas contribute to curriculum development plans and help learners to grow and develop into unique personalities for accomplishing satisfactory lives within the framework of acceptable norms of society.

The foundations of curriculum development can be analysed in terms of philosophical, psychological and sociological foundations.

These sources of curriculum foundations constitute the principal areas of curriculum development and affect the ways developers think and conceive about curricula.

Philosophical work can aid curriculum developers to understand the nature of objectives, structure and interrelationship of objectives, nature of curriculum activities, the structure of curriculum plan and the contents and methods.

Psychological foundations aid curriculum developers to understand the nature of the learners, learning process, learning experiences, interest of learners and the conditions facilitating optimum learning.

According to sociologists, schools are social institutions especially set up for the preservation and transmission of culture by the society. The curriculum, therefore, includes learning experiences based on the way of life, kind of knowledge and attitudes and beliefs considered important by the society.

Curriculum must take into account the philosophical, psychological and sociological considerations otherwise; it will remain bookish and divorced from life. A curriculum that ignores these foundations does not serve any purpose. A sound curriculum must be based on the needs and aspirations of the learners as well as of the society.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, the learner will be able to:

1. Define curriculum foundations.
2. Differentiate between the various philosophical categories.
3. Relate growth and development of learners with curriculum.
4. Define sociology culture and values.
5. Describe role of sociology in curriculum development.
6. Discuss the influences and biases of the society and culture on curriculum.

1. PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS

Philosophy is the pursuit of wisdom and knowledge. It is the study of realities and general principles. It concerns with the research of internal truths.

Philosophy provides systematic procedure for clarifying issues and problems and making decisions on critical points of curriculum development.

Philosophical work can aid curriculum development in many ways but it is particularly useful in helping us to understand:-

- Nature of educational objectives:
- The structure or inter-relationship of the objectives:
- And Nature of curriculum activities.

Defined literally, philosophy is "pursuit of rational thinking and sound judgment". "Aristippus (435-359 BC) wrote, "Philosophy is the ability to feel at ease in any society." Kabir, Huyau (1902-1969) stated, "Philosophy seeks to give knowledge of the whole".

1.1. Philosophy and Curriculum

Every society is held together by a common faith or "Philosophy", which serves its members as a guide for living a good life. It is, therefore quite natural for the adults of the society to pass on this philosophy or "knowledge of good" to their children. In primitive societies knowledge of the good life was passed of informally, from father to son and from mother to daughter. But in developing and developed societies, schools are established to induct the young into the ways of living that adults consider well. Thus the curriculum of the schools, whatever else it may do, is first and foremost designed to win the hearts and minds of the young to those principles and ideals that will direct them to wise decisions; i.e. decisions whose consequences lead to the concepts of good life. Indeed, the curriculum is so thoroughly permeated with the cultural aspects of philosophy of life that a certain philosopher of education was prompted to write, "what a man really, believes is frequently more clearly revealed in what he teaches to his students than in what he professes in his public statements (Thut 1957).

1.2. Philosophical Categories

There are three philosophical categories that have particular relevance for curriculum development.

- (1) ONTOLOGY (The Nature of Reality)
- (2) EPISTEMOLOGY (The Nature of the Knowledge)
- (3) AXIOLOGY (The Nature of Value)

1.2.1. Ontology

Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality, and by asking the question "what is real"? A number of queries become clear. While this question may appear simple at the first glance, it deserves greater consideration. Different societies, for example, perceive reality in quite different ways, as do the individuals, who constitute these societies. In primitive societies, it was accepted as real that the earth was flat, yet

today we would regard this as nonsense. Similarly, one society may regard the use of chemical fertilizers as essential, while another may consider biological wastes more useful than the chemicals.

Thus what is real to a society is very important and must be taken into account while constructing curriculum. Indeed, some curriculum developers see their role as a vehicle for change: Thus a new social studies curriculum may depict "Kelly Gang" as a symbol of working-class resistance to authoritative oppression and so re-create reality for a new generation of school students. Thus, some recent curriculum developments like multiculturalism gender equality and environmental education, etc. have sought to achieve just that.

1.2.2. Epistemology

The philosophical problem that deals with the nature of knowledge and of knowing is called epistemology. For Waller and Evers (1988), "epistemology is the study of the nature, scope and applicability of knowledge". In curriculum, what we advocate becomes the basis for student learning. We are actually concerned with the nature of knowledge, its basis, how we know and what we know.

When studying epistemology, we ask:

What is true?

How do we know the truth?

How do we know what we know?

These are obviously vital questions for curriculum developers to consider, particularly in a society, which purportedly values truth and seeks to pass the truth to subsequent generations. Ultimately our position becomes a statement of faith, a stand on those questions, which we believe, and are prepared to accept, as true. As such we rely heavily upon our fundamental ontological beliefs (what is real?)

In this way the close relationship between epistemology and ontology is consolidated. Thus in any curriculum development activity, but particularly in relation to schools, the epistemological stance taken by those developers involved is of vital importance. Will they include the accepted truth? What does that constitute? To what degree is there a consensus accepting that truth, or is that "consensus" a fallacy too? And so the epistemological questions continue. At the very least curriculum developers should be aware of epistemology and be prepared to pose the fundamental questions involved in such a study.

1.2.3. Axiology

Axiology is that aspect of philosophy that is concerned with the nature of value. Axiology questions are a fundamental feature of our life in that the resulting decisions have a profound effect upon our behaviour. Questions such as:

what is good? and

what is attributable to humans? etc. are both fundamental to our very existence and constantly present in our daily lives. Thus the axiological considerations are important in one's development of a curriculum for future generations.

Zais (1976) contends that axiological questions are usually divided into two main categories:

- (a) Ethics
- (b) Aesthetics

(a) Ethics:

Is concerned with concepts of good and bad; right and wrong as they apply to human behaviour. When constructing the curricula, developers should be aware of both their own ethical positions and the ethical basis (hopefully not biases) that they are integrating into the curriculum. Thus, developers will select objectives and contents that in their minds are more ethical both in terms of knowledge and process.

Robert Zais summarized the situation succinctly "Education, after all, is a process of deliberately influencing Children and youth in such a way that they become what they would not otherwise become. And the curriculum is the master plan by which this purpose is accomplished. At this point it is important to raise these issues and questions in the minds of curriculum developers. There is increasing evidence in recent years that saver elements of Pakistani society want a greater and more purposeful input of ethical aspects into school curricula.

(b) Aesthetics:

Is concerned with such values and issues as beauty and enjoyment of human experience. Aesthetics questions: What is beautiful? What aspects of the senses produce enjoyment? And what aesthetic experiences yield "higher order" enjoyment?

The issues involving aesthetics produce particular difficulties for curriculum developers because individuals answer the above questions in very different ways. What is beautiful to one person may be ugly to another, particularly if they come from different cultures. And what produces aesthetic enjoyment to one individual, may produce hay fever in another! The sensory pleasure associated with a bottle of quality cold drink may be difficult for the patient/individual who suffers from allergies. In answer to these questions, curricula developers in the part have opted for a more conservative, accepted view of what is beautiful and what is enjoyment. In more recent times, this position has weakened and we have witnessed the emergence of more "popular" aesthetics within the school curriculum.

For the curriculum developers the value of philosophical considerations is abundantly clear. Ontology, epistemology and axiology provide a useful structure for examining one's own philosophical position as well as how philosophical stances affect the development of curricula. In these considerations, one might pose some typical philosophical questions that are useful to curriculum developer. The questions are:

- On what grounds should contents be selected or rejected?
- How different is instruction from conditioning?
- Are there distinct forms of knowledge?
- How can specific curricula be justified?
- How should content be structured within a curriculum?
- Should a curriculum be differentiated for different students?
- What is fact?
- To what degree should "new" reality be included within the curriculum?

2. PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS

The word psychology is derived from two Greek words "psyche" means soul and "logos" means study. Psychology is the scientific study of human behaviour.

2.1. Role of Psychology in Curriculum Development

Psychology attempts to describe, explain and predict human behaviour. Psychology gives us an insight into the child's development and learning and provides various techniques of inquiry for use in the curriculum area.

The contribution of psychological basis to curriculum is significant and is growing. As this is a relatively young discipline, the scope for applying its concepts, principles, processes and values to curriculum development is gradually increasing.

2.2. Psychological Sources

The purpose of psychology is the study of human behaviour. The psychologists are concerned with:

- Describing
- Explaining
- Predicting

Evaluating (investigating) the behaviour of human being, curriculum developers, therefore, can draw upon psychology, particularly educational psychology, for at least five areas of information.

- (1) Educational objectives
- (2) Student characteristics
- (3) Learning process
- (4) Teaching methods
- (5) Evaluation procedures

The study of psychology does not provide a source of contents a school curriculum (other than for a few subjects on psychological studies).

Let us briefly examine the psychological sources that the curriculum developers can employ.

2.2.1. Educational objectives

Knowledge of the psychology of learning helps the curriculum developers to devise and phrase appropriate goals and objectives. The curriculum developers can determine whether goals and objectives are suitable for various developmental levels and ages of learners and that whether they are attainable or not. Subsequently, the formulation of curriculum goals and objectives has profound influence upon the selection of contents for the curriculum.

2.2.2. Student/Learner Characteristics

An understanding of the nature of learners particularly of individual differences and personalities will assist, the curriculum developers to make more choices in curriculum decision-making. The study of personality can tell us whether different personalities respond to learning experiences in different ways, indeed, this is something the experienced teacher has long known and some teachers have, endeavoured to

accommodate these differences within their classrooms. Similarly, an understanding of individual differences is most useful to the curriculum developers. An effective curriculum is able to accommodate differences in student skills and abilities.

2.2.3. Learning Processes

Perhaps the greatest contribution that psychology makes to curriculum is an understanding of how people learn. The curriculum developers, who have a sound grasp of learning and learning theory, are in a commanding position to devise an appropriate curriculum for learners. In particular, an understanding of learning is essential to the effective selection of appropriate learning/teaching strategies.

Whether or not one supports a theory of operant conditioning such as that of B.F. Skinner, some forms of Gestalt theory (K. Lewin), Jean Piaget's approach to growth and development, or some other form of explaining how learning occurs, the final outcome speaks how the curriculum is shaped. Indeed, one of the difficulties encountered by curriculum developers is the vast array of theories, paradigms and algorithms that support to explain the process of learning.

2.2.4. Teaching Methods

Psychology makes a significant contribution to both the selection of learning experiences and the way teaching is conducted in the classroom. In the school curriculum an understanding of psychology is essential to the curriculum developers in devising appropriate learning experiences and conditions for learning. In selecting learning experiences, the curriculum developers should take an account of: -

- Learning theories
- Individual differences amongst students
- Motivational strategies
- Personality
- Cognitive and affective development
- Teaching style
- Group dynamics
- Teaching methodology and
- Learning styles

This extensive list of psychological factors suggests that, the curriculum developers can make substantial use of psychological sources while selecting learning/teaching experiences.

2.2.5. Evaluation Procedures

Psychology can also provide curriculum developers with directions for undertaking the evaluation of students and teacher's performance. Educational psychologists have developed a vast array of techniques for measuring the degree of students learning, students' attitudes towards learning/ teaching and so forth, as well as the extent of teacher's effectiveness.

Educational psychologists, as well as other educators, have been concerned with such evaluation issues as:

- Norm-referenced assessment or criterion referenced assessment

- The role of formative evaluation
- Appropriate instruments to measure students' performance.
- Determination of teacher's effectiveness.

These aspects of psychology indicate the range of influence that psychology has upon the development of curriculum.

2.2.6. Human Growth and Development

Knowledge about the growth and development of the child has a great bearing on what to teach at a given level. Learning outcomes have to be determined with reference to the characteristic thought forms at the various age-levels, with a view to orienting curriculum to child/learners needs and capacities. We must consider the functioning of intelligence and development of capacities. The processes of human development and nature of learning have special significance for curriculum development.

The relationship between psychological foundations and the curriculum are given below:

- Curriculum to be child-centered, must take into account the psychological make-up the learners i.e. nervous system, has a great bearing on the curriculum development for different age groups.
- Learning experiences should be provided according to the mental development of the learner. On this account, learners are divided into ability grouping.
- The effectiveness of the curriculum depends on the interests of the learners. So the curriculum planning, must take into account the interests of the learners..

Human growth and development are very important elements in curriculum development. Curriculum decisions are not to be made arbitrarily but on the factors determining individual's growth and development. A fixed and rigid curriculum is hardly suitable as it fails to accommodate the needs of slow learners, late starters as well fast learner.

School curriculum on the whole, should aim at enabling the learners to acquire knowledge, develop concepts and inculcate skills, attitudes, values and habits conducive to the all-round development of their personality and commensurate with the social, cultural, economic and environmental realities at national and international levels.

3. SOCIOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS

Curriculum must take into account the sociological considerations otherwise it will remain bookish and divorced from life. A curriculum that ignores sociological foundations does not serve any purpose. It results in waste of time, energy and resources. It will produce individuals, who cannot play their role effectively as enlightened members of a society.

A sound curriculum must be based on the needs and aspirations of a society. An unrelated curriculum may lead to individuals, who can neither find employment nor engage themselves in fruitful occupations and consequently remain dissatisfied, maladjusted and frustrated.

3.1. Etymological Meaning of Sociology

Sociology as defined in dictionaries is "the science or study of society",

The term was coined by COMTE (1830) linking the Latin "socius" (originally a people, tribe or city allied to Rome, but later a society) to the Greek "logos" (study). The term spread rapidly and is now used in virtually all languages to denote any real rigorous, reasoned study of society.

3.2. Definitions of Sociology

"Sociology is the systematic study of the groups and societies, human beings build and the way these alliances affects our behaviour".

"Sociology is the study of social life and social causes and consequences of human behaviour".

"Social life" encompasses all interpersonal relationships. The "causes and consequences of human behaviour encompasses how these relationships, groups, and organizations are inter-related and how they influence personal and interpersonal behaviour. "Sociology is the study of social relationships, social institutions and society".

3.3. Role of Sociology in Curriculum Development

According to sociologists, schools are social institutions especially set up for the preservation of culture and transmission of culture by society. School seeks to discharge this function through the curriculum. The curriculum, therefore, includes learning experiences based on the ways of life, kinds of knowledge, attitudes and beliefs that are considered important by the society. Some kinds of selection are needed, as all the aspects of culture cannot be included in the curriculum planning thus becomes a way for the selection of various elements.

There are various sociological foundations like cultural, economic and political that deeply influence the school curriculum, its conception, content and organization. Among the most important sociological considerations that should guide those engaged in the task of curriculum development, may be listed as below:

- Core values of society
- Changing values of the people
- Demands of modernization
- Criterion of a good family life
- New forms of cooperation

- ▼ Media explosion
- ▼ Population explosion
- ▼ Regional and national imbalances
- ▼ Economic efficiency
- ▼ Education for fellowship and leadership creative and purposeful activities

3.4. Curriculum for Modernizing the Society

The curriculum for modernizing the society stressed the following:

- ▼ Restructuring contents of the various subjects in the light of modern development in science and technology.
- ▼ Adopting new methods of teaching.
- ▼ Encouraging activities for awakening curiosity and developmental interests, attitudes and values and the building up of such essential skills as independent study and capacity to think and judge for oneself.

3.4.1. Culture

Culture defines an accepted way of life. One implication of this statement, of course, is that the "accepted" way of life is the preferred way that is the "accepted" way of life has more "value" than other alternative ways.

We can see that culture is a "value loaded" enterprise, so to speak. It provides the members of society with the "goods" and the "bads", the "beautifuls" and the "uglies," the "shoulds" and the "should nots".

3.4.2. Society and Culture

A society is a collection of individuals, who have organized themselves into a distinct group, to be a society, however, a distinct group and not just a collection of individuals, the members of the group must perceive themselves as "having things in common", which enable them to "belong". These "things in common" are the stuff of which culture is made. Culture, then, may roughly be viewed as a kind of social cement that consists of the characteristics, habits, ideals, attitudes, beliefs and ways of thinking of a particular group of people. Even from these sketchy definitions, it is clear that while society and culture is certainly not the same thing, "without a culture there could be no society, and without a society there could be no culture". (Smith, Stanley, and Shores 1957)

3.4.3. Complexity of the Concept "Culture"

Culture is a highly complex concept that requires a great deal of considerations and study then we are able to allow here; it is similar to such concepts as "democracy" "morality" and "love", which have a multiplicity of meanings. In relatively broad term we might say that culture defines an accepted way of life. It includes a vast array of easily observed facets of living such as material products, political and social organizations, characteristic vocations, modes of dress, fads, foods, games, music, child bearing and rearing practices, and religious and patriotic rituals.

3.4.4. The Structure of Culture

A structural framework was proposed for the purpose of facilitating the Study of curriculum. This theoretical model was based upon a classification of the total curricular phenomenon into a complex of eight internal factors, which are:

- Epistemology
- Society/Culture
- The individual
- Learning theory
- Aims
- Contents
- Learning activities
- Evaluation

In much the same way, the study of culture will be facilitated if we are able to proceed upon the basis of a hypothetical structural framework. One useful framework, proposed by Ralph Linton (1936), is presented here because of its simplicity and its congruence with the theoretical constituents of society and culture that we have been developing. Linton has proposed that all elements of culture can be classified into three principal categories.

- The universals
- The specialties
- The alternatives

The Universals

The universals comprise those values, beliefs and customs that are generally held by the entire adult population. For example, in a wide variety of instances, behaviour in such areas as language, food, religion and economics tends rather circumscribed in our society.

The Specialties

The second category identified by Linton, includes those elements of the culture to be found only within sub-groups of the society. Among the most common of these are the vocational subgroups; in our society certain behaviour is expected of professors, for example, that be quite different from those expected of businessmen. Thus, professors are expected to be shabbily dressed; thinkers leftist in their politics, absentminded, and impractical in worldly affairs; businessmen, by contrast, tend to be viewed as smartly dressed doers, conservative in their politics, mentally alert, well organized, efficient, and practical.

The Alternatives

The alternatives are those beliefs and practices that violate culturally accepted norms (universals and specialties) in their attempt to fulfill a need, solve a problem, or simply to allow a more congruent perception of reality. Alternatives are like specialties; however, all members of the society may not share them. Unlike specialties, however, any sub-group may not share them. A simple, tangible example of an alternative might be the introduction of pizza in place of the traditional food as an afternoon (lunch) or dinner.

Since curriculum workers and teachers are in the business of intervening in the lives of young people for the purpose of making them something that they would not otherwise become, it is necessary not only that they have full and conscious knowledge of cultural universals and specialties, but that they evaluate and compare them with all manners of alternatives. Current practice, however, consists mainly of accepting cultural directives and transmitting them through curriculum as efficient as possible. This

procedure, of course, constitutes little more than mindless indoctrination. To educate, on the other hand, calls for a curriculum, that promotes the illumination, examination, and evaluation of cultural universal and specialties in the light of projected desirable alternatives. As we shall see in the following sections, breaking out of the cultural trap is a long, demanding process requiring substantial quantities of both wisdom and courage.

3.5. Values Based Curriculum:

Like the concept of "culture", value is a misleading complex idea/opinion.

Following types of experiences and activities may be planned for developing desirable values among pupils:

- Exemplary behaviour of teachers.
- Value formation through various types of co-curricular activities i.e., student participation in school management, social service programmes, labour Weeks, visits to hospitals, etc.
- Lectures or discourses.
- Creation of an environment of psychological safety and security for the students in the school.
- Value oriented content in various subjects studied in school.

Classification of Values

Values have been classified in a number of ways and their meanings also vary:

Instrumental Value

A subject is said to have instrumental value when it is pursued, not for its own sake, but for some ends beyond itself. Instrumental values include preparatory or introductory, practical or utilitarian, socializing and conventional values.

Preparatory Value

A subject is said to have a preparatory value when it prepares the way for other studies. Arithmetic prepares the way for Algebra.

Introductory Value

Since a particular study introduces us to a number of subjects, it has an introductory value. It is identical with the preparatory value. To illustrate we may select physical Geography which introduces us to a little of Botany, Zoology, Physics and Chemistry.

Practical or Utilitarian Value

These values lie in a study of subject whose pursuit is individually and directly useful as it satisfies many wants and needs. The subject is individually and directly practical when the knowledge of the subject is applied directly by the person himself. A person may use his knowledge of hygiene to avoid smallpox. The same knowledge can, however, be used through other agencies, through society, for example. A subject is said to possess a socializing value when it creates socially desirable habits and reactions, or when it enables us to understand society in its complexities. The socializing value includes moral values too. These moral values refer to certain moral habits that society wants individuals to develop through education.

Conventional Value

Conventional values implies to a value, which is customarily described and desirable in a subject. Certain subjects may be studied because their knowledge is expected of people of a certain class. Their knowledge is indeed, for proper social enjoyment. In the time of Locke, a gentleman was expected to learn Latin, Greek and German because they were necessary in that social set up.

Intrinsic Value

Dewey has described these as the appreciative studies. The resulting experiences in these subjects are worthwhile on their account. The values that occur from their studies are in the form of pleasures or intellectual joys.

Liberalizing and Sentimental Values

The liberalizing values consist of the pleasure that accompanies intellectual insight. The sentimental value, on the other hand, refers to pleasure that emerges when our feelings are exercised. The aesthetics, the comics, the social and the moral situations may arouse our feelings. Drama, literature, music, painting, sculpture and religion have, in varying degrees, these values.

Essential Values

These values involve the basic nature of man himself and include elementary physical skills, basic social skills, ability to use symbols such as language and numbers.

Personal Values

These values make a person good for himself.

Social Values

These values are good for the society and form the basis of relationship of an individual with other people in society.

Institutional Values

These include values established by institutions.

Global Values

These values are determined completely outside the schools. Values may differ from place to place and time to time but values like truth and love remain constant.

3.6. Influences of Society and Culture on Curriculum

The social and cultural influences that affect curriculum developers are evident in both conscious and unconscious ways and their impact is certainly profound. Education manifests through the curriculum and reflects society and culture, that reflection is a result of curriculum developers being an integral part "of that society and culture in both of the above ways. In this way the curriculum more "reflects" society and than society leads to change.

Indirectly society and culture influence curriculum developers simply because they are members of a particular society, cultural values, attitudes and beliefs are acquired by individuals unaware of that process, yet, once acquired, these cultural traits become consolidated and affect our social behaviour. And when the process of curriculum development takes place, the cultural traits within developers influence the

very selection of objectives, contents, methods and evaluation that constitute the curriculum they are devising.

Take, for example, a group of primary school teachers, who decide to, enhance the literacy component of an existing curriculum on completion one could analyze the result to determine why they undertook the task, what objectives were formulated, what content was employed, how it was taught and how it was evaluated. In many instances, when probed deeply enough, the teachers would be unaware of the basis of their decisions, if story reading were a component of the revised curriculum, what proportion would be of oral reading? Why? And how would that be assessed? What stories were selected for students? Why? These are typical of the questions that should be asked of curriculum developers when they construct curricula, and which reveal indirect influences of society and culture. Alternatively, curriculum developers may be well aware of social and cultural influences and have the deliberate intention in mind (or not) of reproducing aspects of that culture in the curriculum.

3.7. Culturally Induced Bias and the Curriculum

One particular aspect of the social and cultural influences on the curriculum, which deserves specific attention, is that of culturally induced bias. As societies perpetuate themselves through implementing values in the young through institutions such as schools, it is distinctly probable that some of these values will be culturally biased. Indeed, these values may be so effectively integrated within schools and society that they are perceived not as biased but as accepted components of the very fabric of society.

It can be argued that until recently the perception of the traditional occupational role for women was that, of child rearing and domestic duties. A small range of their typical occupations such as nursing, teaching, secretarial duties and so forth were also condoned with society. But to imagine, even before 30 years, women lawyers, engineers, politicians, pilots, judges and senior business executives would have been almost unthinkable.

Today the former view is perceived largely as ludicrous. But to achieve this change in values and attitudes many barriers have had to be surmounted, not the least being pervasively held sex-stereotyped beliefs. These beliefs were so tightly woven into the fabric of society that they were perceived as natural and essential. In changing these stereotypes, the school curriculum was seen as an important vehicle in promoting and consolidating the new values and attitudes. In fact, it can be seen that social and cultural forces have a profound effect upon the curriculum in both direct and indirect ways. Curriculum developers whether at systemic, local or school level within educational enterprise, should not forget that they are a product of their culture and that every decision that they make will be culturally related.

Lastly, curriculum developers serve the function of translating traditional ideas, assumptions, values, knowledge and attitudes into curriculum objectives, contents, learning activities and evaluation. Of these curriculum elements sociological sources have their greatest impact on contents.

Thus it is not possible to talk about a culture free curriculum.

4. SUMMARY

The word curriculum comes from the Latin work "*currere*" which means. "to run", it is a runway, a course on which one runs to reach a goal.

Curriculum foundations are those forces that influence and shape the minds of curriculum developers and enhance the content and structure of the subsequent curriculum. They influence developer's thinking about curriculum.

Three foundations of curriculum are: philosophical foundations, psychological foundations and sociological foundations.

Philosophy is the pursuit of wisdom and knowledge, the study of realities and general principles. It concerns with the search of internal truths. Philosophies foundations give understanding of nature of educational objectives, structure or interrelatedness of objectives, nature of curriculum activities and the structure of curriculum plan.

Philosophical categories have particular relevance for curriculum development and "these categories include: Ontology (the nature of reality). Epistemology (the nature of knowledge) and Axiology (the nature of value).

The word psychology is derived from two Greek words "*psyche*" (soul) and "*logos*" (study). Therefore, psychology is the study of Human behaviour. Psychological foundations give us an insight into child development and learning and provide various techniques of inquiry for use in the curriculum area.

The particular areas of information in psychology includes; educational objectives, studies characteristics, learning processes, teaching methods and evaluation procedures.

Knowledge about growth and development of the child has a great bearing as on what to teach at a given level. The process of human growth, development and nature of learning have special significance for curriculum development.

The word sociology is derived from Latin word "*socius*" (society) and "*logos*" (study). Sociology is the systematic study of social relationships, social institutions and society. Sociological foundations deeply influence the school curriculum, its concepts, content and organization.

Sociological considerations engaged in the task of curriculum development include: core values of society, changing values of people, demands of modernization, criterion of a good family life, democratic temper of the society, new forms of cooperation, media explosion, population explosion, regional and national imbalance and economic efficiency.

Curriculum for modernizing society includes restructured contents of various subjects in the light of modern development in science and technology, adopting new teaching methods and encouraging activities for awakening curiosity, developmental interests, attitudes, values and essential skills.

Culture is a "value loaded" enterprise. It provides the members of the society with the "goods" and the "bads", the "beautifuls" and the "uglies", the "shoulds" and the "should nots".

Society and culture are certainly not the same things, while, "without a culture there could be no society and without society there could be no culture".

Litton has proposed that all elements of culture can be classified into three principal categories: universals, specialties and alternatives.

Society and culture influence curriculum developer because they are members of a particular society. When the process of curriculum development takes place, the cultural traits influence developers in selection of objective, content, methods and evaluation procedure.

In fact, it can be seen that social and cultural forces have a profound effects upon curriculum.

5. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- Q. No.1 Define Curriculum?
- Q. No.2 Define curriculum foundations?
- Q. No.3 Enlist three terms in which curriculum foundation can be identified.
- Q. No.4 What is the role of curriculum foundations in curriculum development?
- Q.No.5 What is the relationship of philosophy and curriculum?
- Q.No.6 Write components of philosophical foundations, which give understanding in curriculum development?
- Q. No.7 Enlist philosophical categories that have particular relevance for curriculum development?
- Q. No.8 Differentiate between the old and new concepts of psychology?
- Q. No.9 What is the role of psychology in curriculum development?
- Q. No.10 How is the growth and development related to psychological foundations of curriculum?
- Q. No.11 How does sociology affect curriculum development?
- Q. No.12 Enlist the types of values needed for curriculum?
- Q. No.13 How does culture and society influence curriculum?
- Q.No.14 What are the culturally induced biases and how do they affect curriculum?

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Unit-4

**CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT**

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INTRODUCTION

Education is a purposeful activity which schools organize and arrange to achieve some pre-determined objectives specifically assigned to them. Such activities which take place inside or outside the school under the direction and control of the teachers are known as "the curriculum". How to develop a curriculum is a question of great importance and concern. Conceptual frameworks help determine relationships among various elements of the curriculum. The conceptual frameworks also help in evaluating the outcomes of curriculum, and make it possible to modify or change the curriculum in a systematic way. In this unit we shall discuss the various conceptual frameworks of curriculum development and then develop a model of our own.

OBJECTIVES

When you have gone through this unit, you should be able to:

1. Discuss the need of conceptual framework curriculum development.
2. State the various models of conceptual framework for curriculum development
3. Explain the elements of curriculum development and relationship among them.
4. Describe the following stages in the process of curriculum development.
 - a. Formulation of objectives
 - b. Selection an organization of content.
 - c. Selection and organization of methods
 - d. Curriculum evaluation
5. Discuss the criteria of content selection
6. Reason out the merits and limitations of the various approaches to content organization
7. Discuss the major characteristics, usefulness and applicability of the various instructional methods to achieve different specific as well as general objectives in structured and unstructured situations.
8. State the bases for selecting instructional methods.
9. Explain the concepts of accountability
10. Discuss the necessity of evaluation for the improvement of curriculum
11. Describe the function of (a) formative evaluation, and (b) summative evaluation.

1. NEED FOR CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Curriculum development is a complex undertaking that involves many kind of decisions. Decisions need to be made about the general aims of education and the specific objectives of instruction: The major areas of the curriculum along with the specific content of each must be selected. Choices must be made about the learning experiences which would ensure the achievement of content, understandings and other objectives. Decisions are needed regarding how to evaluate student learning and the effectiveness of the curriculum in achieving the desired goals and objectives. And, finally, a choice must be made regarding the over-all pattern of the curriculum. These decisions are made on different levels.

Generally speaking, curriculum is socially and historically located, and culturally determined. The curriculum does not develop in a vacuum but it is based on the belief such as, about how people learn, what they should be like, what society is. The curriculum is, therefore, interwoven with the social fabric that sustains it.

The decisions regarding curriculum development are based on consideration of many issues. If curriculum development is to be adequate, all these decisions must be made competently, on a recognized and valid basis, and with some degree of consistency. The complexity and multitude of decisions and the fact that they are made on several different levels make it all the more important that there must be an effective conceptual frame of curriculum development. It needs to be ensured that while making decisions certain considerations are not underemphasized or others over-emphasized.

A conceptual framework is, therefore, like a light house at the sea. It does not tell where to go or restrict movement, but it is necessary to guide movements and warn of the danger spots. As described by Hilda Taba, "the conceptual framework is a way to organize thinking about all matters which are important for curriculum development". "A framework" she further elaborates, "is statement which identifies the elements of the curriculum, states their relationship to each other, and indicates the principles of organization and the administrative conditions under which it is to operate.

A conceptual model must be based on a rationale which establishes the sources to be considered and principles to be applied. Both are needed to make consistent decisions about the curriculum.

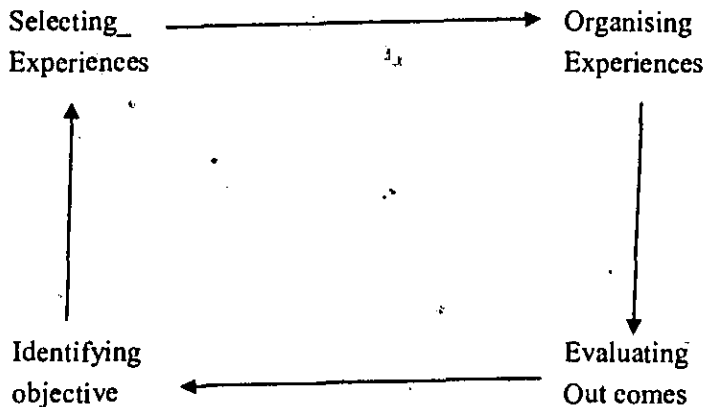
2. MODELS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Conceptual Model Proposed by Ralph Tyler

The conceptual model proposed by Ralph Tyler for analyzing and developing a curriculum answers the following four fundamental questions:

- (i) What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
- (ii) What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
- (iii) How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
- (iv) How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

Tyler's questions represent a four-step sequence of (1) identifying objectives, (2) (4) evaluating the outcomes. Starting from the purposes and assuming the cyclical nature of the process, we may present this model graphically as under:



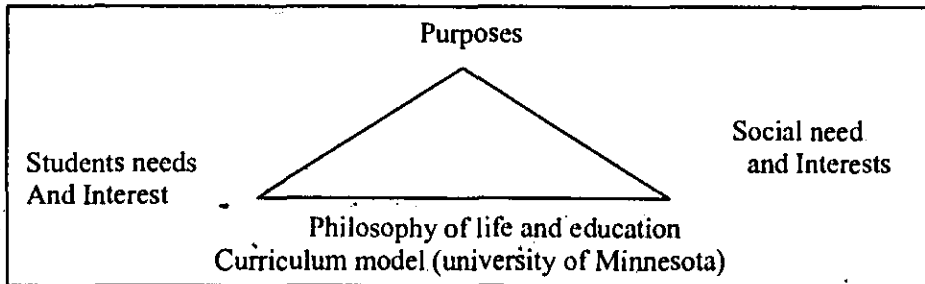
Ralph w. Tyler's model conceptual framework of curriculum

Tyler proposes that education objectives originate from three sources: (1) the studies of a society, (2) the studies of the learners, and (3) the subject-matter specialists. However, it might be asked from what sources do the society and those who study learners, and the specialists in subject matter receive their objectives? is there some underlying based that ties the three sources together? Tyler's linear sequence of questions appears to be faulty because it fails to show this underlying base.

2.2 The curriculum model of the General College at the University of Minnesota

The curriculum model of the General College at the University of Minnesota indicates a framework represented by a triangle. The apex of the triangle represents the

purposes. One the base is the philosophy of education and life. One side of the triangle are the needs and interests of the students while the other side of the triangle is based on the needs of society and resources of the school. This model points out that a curriculum is based on beliefs, the purposes which provide direction to the needs of students, and the individual a part of the society.



As we can see from the model, it does not seem to articulate the crucial significance of the meant/experience etc. that may be employed for attainment of the purposes.

Another model is proposed by the Thirty-School experiment. The model describes four inter-related elements: (1) objectives, (2) subject matter, (3) method and (4) organization and evaluation. It seeks answers to the questions: (1) what is to be done, (2) what sub matter is to be employed, (3) how are the results to be appraised? These questions suggest the steps which are not sequential but which are closely inter-related. However, the model does not indicate the bases from which decisions regarding them are made.

Hilda Taba suggested an orderly procedure for a more dynamically conceived curriculum. According to her, following steps are required to be taken to frame a curriculum:

- Step 1 Diagnosis of needs
- Step 2 Formulation of objectives
- Step 3 Selection of content
- Step 4 Organization of content
- Step 5 Selection of learning experiences
- Step 6 Organization of learning experiences
- Step 7 Determination of what to evaluate and of the ways and means of doing it.

The model developed by Taba offers statement of the basic principles involved an exposition of the relation of those principles to the practice of curriculum development. Much of the literature on curriculum development is concerned with this model.

2.3 The conceptual model development by Neagley and Evans encompasses the following procedure for a thoughtfully planned curriculum:

- (i) Organization of the curriculum committee(s)

- (ii) Selection of objectives , aims, and goals of instruction.
- (iii) Designation of appropriate content, learning experiences, and teaching aids,
- (iv) Choosing the best methods of instruction.
- (v) Selection of the evaluation procedures commensurate with the designated objectives, aims and goals
- (vi) Trial and evaluation of these materials, learning experiences and methods.
- (vii) Development of appropriate curriculum guides
- (viii) The provision of procedures for continuous study, evaluation, and improvement of the curriculum.

A careful study of the conceptual frameworks given above can be the help us in developing a model containing the basic elements of curriculum development. A curriculum model makes and clarifies the bases of selection and emphasis on the various elements, as well as the sources from which these criteria are derived. It should, furthermore, indicate as to what criterion applied to which element, because selection involves values and opinions this is where the disagreements and controversies being.

From an analysis of the various models of curriculum it could be inferred that the basic elements of curriculum development include

- (i) Objectives,
- (ii) Contents,
- (iii) Methods, and
- (iv) Evaluation

Objectives are dependent on such factors as values and needs of the society, the nature of knowledge and culture and the needs of the learners. One the other hand, decisions about content or subject matter derive from an analysis of the characteristics of the knowledge represented by school subjects and the learning process. Epistemology and psychology are brought into relationship to develop concepts.

The primary consideration in selecting and organizing the methods of achieving curriculum objectives is, "how the pupil learns". Here, theories of learning, principles of pedagogy and psychology help in the selection and organization of learning experiences.

The fourth element of curriculum evaluation in not possible, evaluation must encompass the objectives of the curriculum and provide continuing feedback for improvement of the curriculum.

The basic elements for the curriculum enable us to construct a model for developing a curriculum which aims to answer the following questions.

- (i) what is the 'purpose of curriculum?
- (ii) what subject matter is to be used?
- (iii) what learning experiences and school organization are to be provided?
- (iv) how are the results to be assessed?

The criteria used for answering the questions should be made explicit.

3. RELATIONSHIP AMONG THE ELEMENTS

As already discussed, the elements of curriculum are closely inter-related and interdependent. Taba observes that a decision made about any one element out of relations to others is bound to be faulty. Each element of curriculum acquires meaning and substance in reference to the other elements. For example, the specific objectives derive their meaning from the general aims of education. If the general aim is to develop intelligent citizenship, the development of ability to think critically becomes important. The fact that critical thinking is an important objective imposes certain requirements on the selection and organization of learning experiences, and this, in turn, makes it essential to include the evaluation of thinking in the evaluation programme.

The type of content organization adopted puts restrictions on the learning experiences which are possible. The consideration of the nature of students and their backgrounds help determine the appropriate content and effective learning experience. But, if these elements are seen as mere components or as organically interacting factors in curriculum development, their treatment, too often, becomes mechanical. Then the task of curriculum development tends to be regarded as merely technological.

A good conceptual model also describes the elements and the relationships among them and their supporting principles in such a way as to indicate priorities among the elements and principles to be considered. It should, however, be noted that not all criteria and principles have equal significance in developing the curriculum. Often criteria of least significance have priority over criteria of greatest significance.

4. A PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR PAKISTAN

The study of different conceptual frameworks of curriculum development, elements of curriculum and their interdependence presents vivid picture of an effective curriculum model and enables us to propose one which will not only fulfill our societal needs but will also meet our ideological requirement. In the conceptual framework presented below, values are given the central role, whereas in the frameworks discussed so far, values are either ignored or only implied. This framework shows their essential importance for the determination of objectives, selection of content, methods, and evaluation. The influence of philosophy and beliefs has been recognized in the models of already discussed. But little specific consideration has been given to the concept of values although they reflect beliefs and philosophies and influence the selection of desirable behavior.

Values must be in harmony with the physical environment, the learner, educational objectives, the content, learning experiences and evaluative procedures in order to bind together the elements of curriculum. Throughout the model, values are transposed and appear in modified forms. As we all know, Pakistan being an ideological state, we have certain hard core values like virtue, truthfulness, honesty etc. which do not undergo any change over a given period.

These values provide the overall framework for determining objectives of education of course, taking into account other requirement of a society. Then form objective we go to determine content method of teaching and finally the evaluation. After evaluation, in cases of need, we refer back to methods, contents, objectives etc. and then finally to the values. But here referring back to the values means referring only to their periphery and interpretation side and not their core spirit.

Activity

Discuss the main points of different conceptual models amongst your fellows/colleagues and try to development a model of your own which you think is appropriate for Pakistan.

Values and

Needs of society objectives content methods evaluation

4.1 Self-assessment Questions

1. Why is curriculum development does a complex undertaking?
2. What kinds of decisions does a curriculum developer require to make?
3. What is Tyler's model of curriculum development?
4. What steps does Hilda suggest for developing a curriculum?
5. What is the difference between the conceptual frameworks developed by Hilda Taba and Neagley and Evans?
6. You have read about varibus model of curriculum development. Which one do you prefer to be adopted for developing curriculum is Pakistan? Give reasons.

5. PROCESS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The elements of curriculum constitute four stages in the process of development:

- (i) Selection of objectives,
- (ii) selection and organization of content,
- (iii) selection and organization of learning experiences (methods), and
- (iv) Evaluation.

Curriculum development is not an activity which is undertaken once and then it finished; it is rather a continuous process. Knowledge and insight gained from evaluation are used as a feedback for providing a fresh starting point for further development.

Let us briefly describe each one of these steps as under:

5.1 Formulating Objectives

Given the values, the first stage in curriculum development is formulation objectives. Objectives determine the structure for building the curriculum. The scope of entire education programme, and the nature of the learning activities provided, are embodied in them. If the objectives are expressed precisely and clearly, the selection and organization of learning activities become easy. But if they are general and vague it becomes difficult to select the content and learning experiences and to evaluate the outcome of instruction. Objectives may be classified as under:

(i) *Short and Long-term Objectives*

Objectives are short or long-term. The former are achieved in a fairly short period of time, while long-term objectives usually cover the entire period of education of an individual.

(ii) *Specific and General Objectives*

Specific objectives are related to a particular area of the curriculum, where as general objectives are not related to any subject area at all.

(iii) *Behavioural and General Objectives*

Objectives are either expressed in behavioral terms or in more general and non-explicit terms. The movement to state objectives in behavioural terms often credited to Tyler. He emphasized that: the purpose of a statement objectives is to indicate the kinds of changes in the student to be brought about so that instructional activities can be planned and developed in a way likely attain these objectives; that is, to bring about these changes in students, Behavioural objectives are expressed in the form of what the students a expected to be able to do at the end of a course.

5.2 Selection of Content

The hierarchy of aims, goals and objectives have been discussed under the unit "Aims, Goals, and Objectives of Education" by Dr. Mushta'q Ahmad Goraha. Selection of content and its organization involve moving from the general objectives to specific objectives that are considered to be achievable by a particular population (say students of class VIII). Specific objectives need not be narrowly stated; they may be open-ended statements of desired outcomes broadly defined. For example, if the general objective is to help students to attain skills of continued learning, the specific objectives, related to it, would be to develop skills of reading, listening, questioning and organizing information.

The next step is to identify the possible types of content in each subject area which will help in achieving the specific objectives. Then arises the question of how to organize the content. Taba suggests that content must be organized with a view to getting adequate scope, sequence and integration. Scope means identifying what is to be covered and learned in depth. A more extensive coverage of the subject is confused with depth of understanding and mental processes learnt. Sequence is concerned with the order in which content and processes are presented to the students. "Much of the confusion and difficulty in developing cumulative and continuous learning comes from the fact that in setting up sequence in curriculum design, only the sequence of content is considered, while the sequence of the powers and competencies is largely overlooked". Integration is associated with the relationship between the learning in various areas of the curriculum which takes place at the same time.

Selection of content must be made on the basis of certain criteria, some of which might be considered more important than others. Before a particular type of content is included in a course, it should satisfy the criterion of significance, criterion of interest, and criterion of learn-ability. These criteria have been discussed under the unit. "Principles and Criteria of Content Selection: by Dr. M. R. Siddiqui and also in unit "Curriculum Change" by Dr. A. R. Saghir.

5.3 Approaches to Content Organization

In order to serve educational objectives, content needs to be organized. The type of content organization followed is perhaps one of the most important factors in determining how learning proceeds. Often the curriculum is ineffective not because its content is inadequate but because it is organized in a way that makes learning difficult. As Taba observes, chaotic content is usually not effective in attaining any important educational objectives.

Content organization is both an difficult and complex. It requires an application of all we know about the nature of knowledge, about child growth and learning. Following are the approaches to content organization:

- (i) Organization focussed on disciplines/subjects.
- (ii) Organization focussed on specific competencies.
- (iii) Organization focussed on social activities and problems.
- (iv) Organization focussed on process skills.
- (v) Organization focussed on individual needs and interests.

(i) *Organization Focussed on Disciplines/Subjects*

The dominant concept of curriculum, historically and currently, is that of school subjects taught by teachers and learnt by students. The most characteristic and comprehensive feature of the subject organization is the relative orderliness of this pattern. The curriculum plan appears neatly divided into subjects which are further subdivided into divisions corresponding to school grades. This orderliness is the inherent principle structure of a discipline. The structure of a discipline, according to Saylor and Alexander as:-

"The set of fundamental generalization that binds a field of knowledge into a unit", organize this body or knowledge into a cohesive whole, fix the limits of investigation and inclusion of knowledge for the discipline itself and provide the basis for discovering what else exists within the field".

Thus, each of the traditional school subjects such as mathematics, chemistry, and physics, has its own distinct organization, and the curriculum planner has only to determine what of this organization to use, and when and how. But the structure of other subjects is very unclear not completely lacking. For example, in Pakistan, materials for Pakistan Studies are drawn from more than one basic discipline like History, Civics, Geography etc. Amalgamation of these materials necessitates special organization of some order of the content. Similarly in many cases the established disciplines do not offer students opportunities to learn to deal with problems of living. Therefore new organizations of content that are basically extra disciplinary or perhaps interdisciplinary have been created and classified as subjects. Business education, environmental education, health education, industrial arts education and physical education are just a few of the many invented subjects. Thus while the established discipline and the subjects clearly derived from them have an order or structure, many so called subjective have no inherent organization. This makes the total curriculum design appear as confused.

The literature on curriculum is full of arguments for and against a curriculum organization based on subjects. One of the most persistent argument given in favour disciplines/subjects organization is that of educational convenience; that is, since knowledge is organized into disciplines, the easiest way to set a school curriculum is to use these subject This agreement of convenience assumes that schools, teachers, parents and citizens general, are geared to the subject-centred curriculum and support wholeheartedly to this organizational plan.

In 1960 Jerome Bruner favoured disciplines/subjects approach by advancing case for teaching the structure of the subjects. He writes:

"The curriculum of a subject should be determined by the most fundamental understanding that can be achieved of the underlying principles that give structure to that subject. Organizing facts in terms of principles and ideas from which they may be inferred is the only known way of reducing the quick rate of loss of human memory."

Emphasis on structure, Bruner argued, would help each student to achieve his optimum intellectual development "and provide a general picture in terms of which the relations between things encounter earlier and later are made as clear as possible.

Limitations: the disciplines/subjects organization approach, however, has the following limitations:

- 1 The subjects tend to become fixed and the curriculum turns out to be inflexible.
- 2 There is lack of direct relation of the organized subject matter to the problems and interests of the student.

It may be of these limitations of the discipline/subject centered organization approach, over Bruner himself in 1971 reconsidered his emphasis on structure of knowledge expressing doubts on the usefulness of disciplines/subjects approach in the modern world of today, and called for a re-emphasis on structure of the subjects in favour of attention to more urgent problems.

(ii) *Organization Focused on Specific Competencies*

The competency-based content organization assumes a direct relation among objectives, learning activities, and performance. In it the desired performances are stipulated as behavioural objectives or competencies; learning activities are planned to achieve objectives, and the students performance is checked as a basis for his/her moving from one objective to another. Thus in Pakistan Studies the student learns how to read a map and demonstrates this competency before he learns about and demonstrates his knowledge of particular geographic location and relations. Therefore, an organization based on specific competencies is characterized by specific, sequential, and demonstrable learning of the tasks, activities, or skills which constitute the acts to be learned and performed by students.

The advocates of competency-based curriculum place objectives before subject matter and call for a curriculum plan which would be built around specific life activities of adults. They insist that the objectives should be focussed on what the student is to learn or to do, not what he study or to experience or even to know. Moreover, they view the objectives, though pointed to performance, as more general guidelines for instruction

A somewhat specialized aspect of the competency-based organization is the job analysis procedure which involves specification of the basic skills of a trade or occupation and development of specific training activities for skills in a sequential arrangement. To the extent that the school trains its students for particular jobs, job training is essential. This curriculum organization contributes efficiently to the development of job competency. Motivation on the basis of job aspirations is high in this phase of the curriculum, and it contributes to the development of talents and capabilities not fully provided for in other curriculum organizations. Furthermore, specific job training utilizes, to the fullest, the maximum that learning result, from experience, and the more meaningful and significant the experience, the more the learning.

Limitations: Following are the limitations to the competency-based approach to content organization:

1. The competency-based approach to curriculum development has much utility for some Objectives. It has maximum utility in the learning skills, but has failed to develop critical reading, listening and discussion.
2. Performance can be contrived and falsified, especially when it becomes a basis for marks, rewards and punishment. In the affective domain and even in many cognitive areas one soon encounters insurmountable difficulties in shaping one-to-one matches of specific competencies and learning experiences.

(iii) **Organization Focussed on Social Activities and Problems**

- (1) This approach includes three organizing patterns:
The social function or areas of social living or persistent life situation approaches that are based on the belief that the curriculum design should follow the persistent functions, areas, or life situations in man's existence as social being;
- (2) The theory that the curriculum should be organized hold the improvement of society through direct involvement of the schools and their students to be a major goal of the curriculum. The common denominator of these theories is a curriculum design that features social activities and or problems rather than subject or objectives or other organizing based on social activities or functions exhibits an organizational pattern derived from studies of group life. Some of the major functions of social living are listed below:
- (a) Protection and conservation of life, property, and natural resources.
 - (b) Production of goods and services and distribution of the returns of production.
 - (c) Consumption of goods and services.
 - (d) Communication and transportation of goods and people.
 - (e) Expression of aesthetic impulses.
 - (f) Expression of religious impulses.

A design based on community activities or problems might employ a similar list but uses only those functions that are important in the community concerned, as for example, food, clothing, shelter, health, religion and work.

The social reconstruction theory has been less developed as a curriculum design than as an educational philosophy. However, recently some educational reformers insist on building social action into the curriculum. The organizing element under this approach is a cluster of social activities and/or problems. In the broader design of social functions these elements are universal and timeless; in the community school the selection criterion is local significance; in the social action programme the criterion becomes problems areas or realities in which students become participate effectively.

In summary, the socially central curriculum approach has its central element as focus on social activities and/or problems. These activities and problems may be the canters around which instruction is organized or they may serve primarily as criteria for the selection of content within the subject or other organizational unit.

There are two primary arguments for socially centred content organization approach:

1. It can directly contribute to the needs of society for continuing improvement; and
2. It is relevant to students needs and concerns and is, therefore, of great significance and interest to the students.

Limitations: The limitations of the social-centred approach are indicated by its use generally for only a portion of the curriculum.

(iv) **Organization Focussed on Process Skills**

The "process skills approach" is more characteristic of instructional methodology

than of content organization. It is difficult to separate instructional process and curriculum organizing centers' of process type. Thus problem-solving procedures may be methods used within an instructional programme organized around the learning process of problem solving. The procedures can also be used in a programme organized around the traditional subjects or around social problems. Hence the process skills approach is one where the process skills are clearly defined as organizing centers for. The approach may be considered a process, only when the process of the selection of content in say, social studies and other subjects in areas such as music, physical education and vocational course are clearly the competencies of the type discussed under the competencies approach. The process focus is most frequently advocated in terms of learning processes.

The emphasis on process as content is the most significant aspect of the search for relevance. Content then becomes a vehicle for developing process skills such as students' ability to engage in rational decision-making. The stress on process does not derogate assimilation of knowledge as stated by some, but greater importance is attached to the methods of its acquisition and to its subsequent utilization. Therefore, a distinction must be made between knowing something and knowing what is good for. Knowledge becomes the vehicle rather than the destination.

The process approach of content organization consists of three interacting operation:

1. The student must take in data
2. He must manipulate it; and
3. He must apply it.

Some curriculum theorists focus on valuing processes. The purpose of value judgment is to develop increased commitment to a set of values, and to offer opportunities to examine the conflicts among the many sets of values and viewpoints held by the members of the society. If the citizens are not able to understand and apply the values they accept, there is every possibility that the social structure will disintegrate.

Some theorists stress that the aim of education is to produce "process-oriented" persons who are able to handle themselves and the situation of which they are a part with adequacy and ease. They describe eight process skills:

1. perceiving,
2. communicating,
3. loving,
4. decision-making,
5. knowing,
6. organizing,
7. creating, and
8. valuing.

In summary, there is no single approach and set of characteristic features that include all of the theories identified as focusing on process skills. One group of theories places major emphasis on learning processes. Some give problem-solving activities a separate and significant role. Others focus on valuing processes as a major component of

the curriculum organization. Still others view process skills more generally and so significant as to permeate the subject organization or even to replace it. The common element in them is their emphasis on process as more dynamic curriculum elements than in structure of knowledge.

Their focus on process skills is based on the following arguments.

- (a) Since the most significant is the development of life-long learning skills and interests, curriculum plan should make these skills and interests central.
- (b) Curriculum should be planned and organized so as to have maximum carryover into life processes and skills. Greater carry-over is likely when the curriculum organization directly reflects these processes and skills.
- (c) The process of valuing, other processes having a high effective elements as well as essential cognitive skills can be taught. Both should be included in the curriculum.

(v) Organization Focussed on Individual Needs and Interests

This approach was used in the eighteenth century by Rousseau in the education of Emile and later on by Pestalozzi and Dewey. It is variously called as child-centred, experience centred, and progressive education and, more recently, open, alternative, and humanistic education. This approach more strongly reflecting the influence of Dewey, uses student needs and interests as a base for content organization. There is, however, a tendency on the part of curriculum planners to interpret these needs and interests as common needs and interests of the particular population to be served. Reflected in curriculum plans, this interpretation has become the rationale for teaching what has been taught before without studying the genuine needs and interests of students. This approach has following characteristics features:

- (a) The curriculum plan is based on knowledge of students' needs and interests in general and involves diagnosis of the, specific needs and interests of the population to be served by the plan.
- (b) The curriculum plan is highly flexible, with built-in provisions for development and modification to conform to the needs and interests of particular students with many options available to them.
- (c) The student is consulted and instructed individually at appropriate points in the curriculum and instructional process.

The key to learning, in this approach, is what Kilpatrick termed as the "project method". The idea behind this was that students would learn to think, if they-worked on problems of genuine interest to them. Thinking, Dewey stressed, is problem solving. To Dewey, thinking was the key to intelligent action as opposed to routine action.

The most common approach to meet grouping are to match the needs and their grouping for special programme believed interests of students concerned. Ability an provided for curriculum individualization.

Predominant use of needs and interests in curriculum planning necessitates the Provision of options for individual students. The options concept has the following three features:

- 1 the options are based on knowledge of students characteristics;
- 2 scheduling and other arrangements facilitate ready selection and choice of options, and
- 3 students are actively involved in planning and evaluating the options in general aid for themselves in particular.

Three arguments can be given in favor of this approach:

1. learning opportunities based on needs and interests are more relevant to the students
2. the needs and interests organization involves a high degree of motivation and, therefore, success of the students; and
3. achievement of the individual's potential is facilitated by this organization.

The validity of the first argument is obvious if the learning opportunity is truly based needs and interests, it surely must relate to them. As to the second arguments ; it must be noted that motivation is a highly internalized matter and that students are not necessarily motivated fir a learning opportunity planned externally. As to the third argument, the diagnosis of student needs and interests and provision for them are essential in good education.

Limitations: This approach also has its own limitations, which are as follows:

- (a). The chief limitation of this approach is its possible neglect of social objectives. If the learning opportunities are not based on students' felt needs, there is no assurance that students would participate effectively in social activities, particularly those of adulthood involved in work and citizenship. This approach is, therefore, not appropriate for the human relations domain.
- (b). It is suspected that the establishment of so-called free and other alternative forms of schooling will continue to meet the needs and interests of the students.

5.4 Self-assessment Questions

1. What are the various elements of curriculum development? How are they inter-related? Give examples for explanation.
2. Why is content of curriculum mostly organized according to disciplines/subjects approach?
3. What are the limitations of disciplines/subjects approach of content organization?
4. What is competencies-based organization of content? What are its merits and demerits?
5. What are the major functions of content organization based on social activities and problems.
6. What is the difference between content organizations based on competencies and practice skills?
7. What are the characteristics of curriculum Organization focussed on individual needs and interests?
8. As a curriculum developer which approach of content organization would you adopt for organizing the selected content?

6. SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION OF METHODS

Teaching methods constitute a significant part of the instructional process. Not all students learn equally by the same method, by the same type of activity, or by using the same media. While students are stimulated to the thought by books, others need group discussion to accomplish the same purpose. Different students also need different types learning activities of for their self-development. A shy person needs experience in group participation. A person given to over generalization needs experience in analyzing data and drawing accurate inferences from them. This suggests that different modes of learning are required to provide equal opportunities of learning to all the students. Following are various modes of learning that can be used in structured class situations.

6.1 Lecture and Verbal Presentation Method

These are the traditional modes to transmit knowledge. Talk, address, or other type of verbal presentation to students by a teacher are major characteristics. Students' activities are restricted to listening, note taking and answering a test. They make students highly passive. Teacher activity is limited to speaking, reading and illustrating visually. Teaching resources are confined to teacher, chalk board and some visual and auditory aids. They are used to present new information or explain events or things to students. These modes are used to implement all five types of curriculum design discussed above, but they are heavily used in the disciplines/subjects organization.

6.2 Discussion-questioning Method

Discussions intermingled with the lecture method are widely used in schools. The major characteristics of these modes are questions or answers over assigned material or related topics and discourse among members of the class and the teacher, largely on the topics under study. Sometimes they also include consideration of other matters introduced by the teacher or students. Students activities vary greatly among members of the class and from time to time, depending on the topic or subject. Some members of the class are quite passive most of the time. Teacher-student interaction is structured except for occasional diversions to other matters. Teacher very much dominates the classroom situation; he talks most of the time. These modes are used;

1. to help students in organizing knowledge, developing concepts and generalization
2. to clarify understanding and improve students' ability to speak on a subject, and
3. to organize thoughts and to communicate effectively.

These instructional methods may be used in any of the five types of designs. But they predominate in the disciplines/subjects organization.

6.3 Practice and Drill Method

When the purpose is to enable students to acquire a skill or a proficiency in doing some overt act the modes of practice and drill are used extensively. Often it is intermingled with recitation and discussion methods, such as courses in foreign languages. The major characteristic of these modes is repeated performance of a learning act until a desired level of skill to perform an act correctly is attained. The performance may be verbal, as in speaking a foreign language, written as in spelling, or manual as in physical education, and typing. Students activities include complete student involvement with performance of overt acts; some witnessing of demonstrating of the act or listening to explanation of what to do. Sometimes students are required to use a machine, such as computer or a programmed teaching machine. Teacher activity involves explanation of the nature of the act verbally, visually or both, demonstrating proper ways of doing the act; explaining to

students usually individually, errors in performance and showing how to correct them; supervising students during practice period; observing them during their performance and noting success as basis for further teaching and practice, evaluating performance, skill and competencies. The teaching resources include models, equipment video-tapes, recordings, machines, and tools, material needed for the performance, computers and teaching machines. These modes are used to develop desirable skills to perform an act or to acquire proficiency and to develop an understanding of the principles underlying the operation of a machine, a tool or object used in the performance of the skill.

6.4 Viewing, Listening, Answering Method

Use of instructional or "educational technology" in teaching is common in the schools of the developed countries of the world. The major characteristics of the modes connected with educational technology reading, viewing, listening and observing are used by students individual or in small groups. Machines are used to present questions and elicit answers. Students' activities range from very passive, as in viewing television or films or listening to tapes or recording to very active, as in using teaching machines or equipment for practice, making a tape for recording, or making field trips to observe and study actual things or situation. Passivity versus activity varies exceedingly according to kind of resource. Used and the purpose in using it. Teachers' activity also varies considerably. He usually arranges for use of equipment and materials; often explains or demonstrates what students should see, or listen to; helps individual students who have difficulty in using equipment properly or in selecting or preparing correct answer; evaluates student's competencies especially in programmed learning activities.

This method of teaching utilizes the following five teaching resources:

1. printed books, newspapers, encyclopedias, atlas;
2. visual often with listening-motion pictures, video-tape, television, charts, graphs, maps, globes, models;
3. auditory recordings, tapes, radio, field trips of all sorts;
4. manipulative-object for handling, sorting and using; and
5. Instructional machines teaching machines, computers; electronically equipped teaching laboratories, such as for instruction in languages.
6. These modes are used to provide individual instruction and remedial or catch up work. They are used in the implementation of all types of curriculum design, but they are specially useful in development of concepts among disadvantaged children.

6.5 Heuristic, Problem-solving and Discovery Method

Heuristic, problem-solving and discovery methods all denote the same method of teaching in the literature of education. Heuristic teaching refers to styles of teaching which emphasize the development of self-initiated and self-directed pupil learning, which stress the pupil's discovering rather than absorbing knowledge; which place the student in the role of the inquirer; which aim at heightening the relevance of school to the pupils' life. They are concerned with the emotional and social development of the pupil as well as with his cognitive growth.

The major characteristics of Heuristic/problem-solving/discovery method are that students are engaged in the processes of problem-solving and rational thinking under various degrees of teacher supervision. They investigate problems, issues and conditions; prepare research reports based on empirical data or analysis of the literature and survey actual situations with conclusions and recommendations. This method requires extensive

activities on the part of the students - reading, discussions, data collection, survey and interviews, reporting and experiments. Often students themselves determine the problems for a study, the activities in which they would engage themselves. Teacher's role is to guide the activities of the class room discussion, device, or instruction. The teacher assumes a second role in planning the work, and the activities of group. He advises and guides the students in there. Participation in independent study programmes and evaluates the activities of each members of the group. In this method library resources are especially useful. The method is used to acquire and refine system of values develop cognitive knowledge and ability of self direction in continued learning. It is also used to develop awareness of important social, political and economic problems and issues in a society, and to develop methods of rational thinking and problem-solving. The method is best suited for implementing designs organized on the basis of social activities and problems, process skills and individual needs and interests.

6.6 Laboratory and inquiry methods

Laboratory work is a traditional and extensively used method of instruction in the sciences, but in recent years the nature of such activities has changed considerably with greater attention being given to the use of scientific method of inquiry as a mode of learning. Laboratory and inquiry methods are distinct from problem-solving and discovery method as the former involve direct work in a laboratory on a regular basis or utilization of an actual situation. The major characteristics of laboratory and inquiry methods are that students are engaged in experimentation in a laboratory using scientific method of inquiry. However, students follow a manual or guide in carrying out investigations, which involve the formulation of a hypothesis or hypotheses, collection of data and drawing conclusions. Inquiry in the social sciences follows much the same methodology as discovery, but emphasis is on investigation, data collection and drawing conclusions. Students are directly involved in investigations and preparation of reports. The teacher assigns laboratory activities or investigations and guides and supervises the student activities. He evaluates and grades reports. Fully equipped laboratory, manuals, charts, official records and instruments needed to collect data outside the school are the resources of learning through these methods. These methods are used to develop cognitive knowledge; attitudes; values; skills in rational thinking and interest in scientific or social researches.

6.7 Role Playing, Simulation and Games

Some teachers use role playing, simulation exercises and games as methods of instruction. These methods introduce an element of reality in teaching and are often effective in achieving the instructional objectives, in these methods students assume roles of persons engaged in real life situation, and depict behaviour that they believe should have taken place in an identical situation. The teacher's role is confined to choosing or guiding the choice of the contrived situation. He also supervises the action and leads discussion afterwards. Usually few teaching resources are needed except the materials for the same. These modes are used to develop values, attitudes, feelings, emotions, insight, and understanding of basic principles and concepts. These methods are useful to develop skills of speaking and doing something before others. They may be used in any design but they are especially useful in the process-skills type of curriculum organization.

6.8 Instructional methods for Unstructured Situations

The methods of teaching and learning discussed in the foregoing pages can only be used in a formal class room or other structured situation. But, now let us discuss the

methods which could successfully be used in the unstructured situations also.

Activity

Visit some local school and discuss with senior teachers the different modes of learning:

- a) as given in the unit
- b) some other modes identified by them
- (c) **Playing, Handlings, Manipulating, Acting**
This method is used in the early childhood years nursery school, kindergarten, and early grades. The method involves:
 1. playing with toys, blocks, devices, equipments,
 2. manipulating articles or discriminating among them on the basis of colour, size, weight and shape,
 3. solving puzzles or making articles.

Normally the whole group is engaged in some sort of activity. Those who are not doing anything at least watch others who are engaged in some activity. The teacher chooses and supervises the activity.

(b) School-activities Programme

Co-curricular activities form an important part of the school's efforts to implement the curriculum. The school activities programme serves to enrich class teaching. It facilitates physical and mental growth and development of the student, and provides opportunities for personal and social adjustment through an interaction with others. A wide range of these activities are available in secondary schools. They should be planned, directed and carried out by the students themselves. The teacher represents the administration in setting and enforcing rules and limits of the activity. He also serves as a source of ideas and plans for the activities of the group. Any equipment, materials and supplies needed to carry on the activity serve as teaching resources. The school-activities programmes also contribute within the affective domain.

(c) Independent Learning and Self-instruction

Learning of something is an individual matter. A student has his own unique method of learning. This principle has led to the system of individualized instruction in the schools also. In recent years independent study has become a very important dimension of schooling and a readily identified process of instruction. Under this method, a student proposes to a regular staff member a study project, or production of something which he or she would like to carry on independent of other class work or in lieu of class work in a course. If approved by the teacher, the student carries out the activity under supervision of a staff member. The teacher's job is limited to approving, supervising, and evaluating the project. Libraries, laboratories or shops are the main resources which a student uses. It is used for high level of cognitive and affective development of competencies in specific fields of studies at a high level, self-defectiveness, self-learning. It may be used in the implementation of any type of curriculum organization.

(d) Community Activities

Community activities provide some of the most important opportunities to attain objectives of education. Student participation in the work and activities of agencies and organizations functioning in a community is the major characteristic of this programme. Students engage themselves in community activities on personal basis. Teacher activity is limited to sponsor and plan the programme and supervise the student work. Community activities are used to assist students in making career choices, to develop understanding of community problems and to develop in them the ability to solve them.

7. BASES FOR SELECTING INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS

Within this wide array of teaching methods, teachers are faced with the problem of selecting the method or methods which are most suited to a curriculum plan. As it is desirable to use a number of content organizing designs according to the objectives, so it is in the selection of instructional methods. Some important guidelines for the selection of instructional methods are given below:

7.1 Achievement of Objectives

Achievement of the instructional objectives is the first consideration in planning for teaching. The objectives postulated for a course, activity, or unit of work should therefore be the primary factor in planning instruction. A general objective may be attained by a wide range of teaching methods, but specific objectives for instruction once determined narrow the choices considerably.

7.2 Principles of Learning

While selecting a method of instruction the teacher should know the theories and principles of learning which underlie a certain method of instruction. This would help him adapt the method to the individual needs and methods of learning of a larger number of students.

7.3 Individual Learning Styles

Lee Cronbach and Richard Snow believe that most effective teaching takes place when the interactive process (teaching) is one that is best suited to the individual student in terms of his learning style. A learning environment that is "optimal for one person is not optimal for another". The Rand Corporation study (1971) supports these findings by asserting that "teacher, student, instructional method, and perhaps, other aspects of the educational process interact with each other. Thus a teacher who works well (is effective) with one type of student using one method might be ineffective when working with another student having different characteristics, or when using another method. The effectiveness of a teacher, or method, or whatever varies from one situation to another".

7.4 Self-fulfilling Prophecies and Educational Stratification

Opinion of the teacher about a student's abilities or capabilities based on performance in the classroom, influence the ways in which the teacher will work with the student, both with regard to interactive process (teaching) and the content of instruction. Psychologists believe that children differ in their learning abilities and processes. On the basis of these differences, educational processes should also be differentiated. But Cronbach and Snow are against this differentiation which is on the basis of contrived tests, observation or past achievement of school programme and that which results in educational stratification. As B.F. Skinner stated "we need to find practices which permit all teachers to teach well and under which all students learn as efficiently as their talents permit".

The only acceptable prophecy that should be self-fulfilling among teachers today is that every child has precious talents and potentialities that should be developed to the utmost. The school's responsibility lies in providing the child the opportunities for such development.

7.5 Facilities, Equipment and Resources

Instructional planning is often influenced by the available facilities that maybe used, and the administrative organization and structure of the school. Whatever restrictive influence the facilities, equipment and resources may, have on the instructional planning a teacher should be as imaginative and resourceful as possible in using methods that involve student in a highly active role.

7.6 Accountability

Teacher , administrators and others employed to provide education have always been held responsible for quality of their work in as much as curriculum plans related to accountability

The term accountability means that someone has to report, explain or justify to someone else. Thus accountability is a master-servant, employee-employer relationship, that is, some party answering to another party. It involves assessment, appraisal and evaluation whichever is appropriate. It is part and parcel of the whole systems approach to educational planning with great emphasis on results, costs of producing these results, and alternative possibilities weighed on the basis of costs. Lessinger observes that we judge a school, or ought to judge it, by whether its students gain certain skills and knowledge that can be measured against some set of standards or judgment, and by the cost of producing these gains.

8. CURRICULUM EVALUATION

Evaluation essentially is the provision of information for the sake of facilitating decision-making at various stages of curriculum development. This information may pertain to the programme as a complete entity or only to some of its components. Evaluation also implies the selection of criteria, the collection of data, and data analysis. It includes obtaining information for use in judging the worth of a programme, product, procedure. It is a comprehensive term and transcends standardized tests covering all means of ascertaining the results of construction.

8.1 Meaning and Significance

Evaluation is an integral and essential part of the whole process of curriculum development. It is a continuous activity and not a "tail-end-process". Evaluation and planning are complementary processes which occur almost simultaneously and continuously. Planning is made on the basis of evaluation and vice versa. However, as a separate state, evaluation has its own entity.

The significant function of evaluation is determining the value of the curriculum itself. Is the curriculum appropriate for the particular group of students with whom it is being used? Are the instructional methods selected the best choices in the light of the objectives sought? Is the content the best that could be selected? Are the materials recommended for instructional purpose appropriate and the best available for the purpose envisaged?

8.2 Design for Curriculum Evaluation

According to Scriven there are two forms of curriculum evaluation, viz, formative and summative.

8.3 Formative evaluation

It occurs during the course of curriculum development. Its purpose is to contribute to the improvement of the educational programme. The merits of a programme are evaluated during the process of its development. The evaluation results provide information to the programme developers and enable them to correct flaws detected in the programme. These evaluation results, remarks, serve as feedback and guide, influencing the shaping of a curriculum through the successive revisions of developmental phase.

Three types of evidence are used at this stage of the process of curriculum development:

1. judgmental,
2. observational, and
3. Student learning.

(i) *Judgmental Data*: First type of evidence involves judgmental data. In that experts, teachers, supervisors, as well as students (who have made use of the curriculum materials and methods) provide opinions, judgement and reactions to the curriculum materials. This type of evidence is gathered by ratings, questionnaires, interviews.

(ii) *Observational Data:* The second type of evidence involves observational data, which trained or untrained observers systematically gather during teaching-learning situations in the classroom or elsewhere. This type of evidence is obtained by direct observations in a free manner.

Observational data are relatively costly to obtain because they require one or more observers to secure reliable and relatively consistent observations over some period. Observational data when added to the judgemental data gives a different dimension to finding solution to some of the problems that emerge from both types of data.

(iii) *Student Learning:* This type of evidence approaches the curriculum development. What kind of student learning takes place when the curriculum materials and methods are used properly. Here the main evidence has to do with student learning that takes place in relation to curriculum. While this may be determined by observations of students, by interviews of students, and by student reports, in most cases it involves the use of structured or semi-structured tests, oral examinations, or other procedures of determining what students can do or feel in relation to particularly kinds of learning.

(iv) The best source of evidences for formative evaluation of curriculum seems to be a sort of combined use of all of them to arrive at valid conclusions. It is better to use one source for corresponding the findings of the other two than depending upon just one source of evidences.

8.4 Summative Evaluation

In summative, the final effects of a curriculum are evaluated on the basis of its stated objectives. It takes place after the curriculum has been fully developed and put into operation. Through summative evaluation, the overall effectiveness and quality of a new curriculum improvement and adjustments are devised and introduced in the schools. Since evaluation results are obtained only at the stage in which programme development has been completed, they do not have any formative functions.

Summative evaluation is based on tests' results, student reactions to the instruction, teachers' views concerning the effectiveness of instruction, follow-up studies of students who have participated in a programme of instruction, parents' reactions and such other types of evidence of varying degrees of validity.

The role of the evaluator in summative evaluation is very different from that of the formative evaluator. In the latter case the necessity for close-cooperation and interplay between the evaluator and the curriculum developer has been emphasized. In summative evaluation the evaluator must be independent, uninvolved, disinterested, committed only to the production of a dispassionate analysis of success and failure. His task, too, is wider, in that he must not only evaluate the success of the programme in achieving its own stated objectives, but must also consider other objectives which teachers in general might reasonably expect to achieve through such a programme whose objectives are confined to concept-mastery and understanding must also be evaluated in terms of achievement of skill in simple computation in the four rules (addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division), and in knowledge of units of measurement such as length, capacity, weight, etc.

8.5 Self-assessment Questions (*Exercise -No. 3*)

1. What is the function of curriculum evaluation?
2. What are the two forms of curriculum evaluation?
3. What is formative evaluation?
4. What types of evidence are used for formative evaluation?
5. What is summative evaluation?
6. What types of evaluation techniques are used for summative evaluation?
7. What type of evaluation do you, as a teacher/administrator, use for curriculum development? Do you think your method of evaluation needs changes in the light of the information provided to you in this unit? Discuss.
8. Encircle the most appropriate answer in the following:
By conceptual framework of curriculum we mean
 - i) The actual curriculum
 - ii) Relationship between various elements of curriculum
 - iii) Conceptual foundations of curriculum
 - iv) None of the above.
9. Which of the evidences are used in formative evaluation of curriculum?
 - i) judgemental
 - ii) observational
 - iii) student learning
 - iv) all of the above

Answers to Self-assessment Questions

Q. 1-7 please see the relevant portion of the unit.

Q.8. ii

Q.9. iv

8.6 Self-assessment Questions (*Exercise No. 4*)

1. Why is a conceptual framework essential for curriculum development? Explain.
2. What should be the rationale of curriculum development?
3. Identify elements of curriculum, how are these elements inter-related?
4. What, in your opinion, is the most important stage in curriculum development? Explain.
5. Discuss the sources through which we derive our educational objectives.
6. What are the various approaches to content organization? Which one, do you think, is best suited for content organization and why?
7. Compare disciplines /subjects based organization based organization with competencies based organization.
8. Suppose you are asked to plan a curriculum for social studies for classes IX and X. Which design of content organization will you prefer for developing creative and critical thinking among the students?
9. Which instructional method will you use for teaching the curriculum mentioned in question 8? Discuss its strong as well as weak points.
10. What do you understand by heuristic method? What are its characteristics and

- usefulness for instruction?
11. What are the major characteristics of the following teaching methods?
 - (a) Discussion-questioning approach
 - (b) Problem-solving approach
 - (c) Discovery method
 - (d) Inquiry approach.
 12. What are the various bases for selecting an appropriate teaching method?
 13. Why is evaluation necessary? How does it help in improvement of curriculum?
 14. How is formative evaluation different from summative evaluation?
 15. What are the functions of formative evaluation? What types of evidence are Needed in formative evaluation?
 16. Suppose you are required to evaluate a curriculum in vogue for the last two years. What form of evaluation you will apply?
 - (1) For answers to essay type S.A.Q's see relevant sections of the unit.
 - (2) Answers to objective type questions of exercise No. 3 areas 8. (ii) 9. (iv)

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Unit-5

AIMS, GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Education is fundamentally a goal-oriented activity. An aimless education spells disaster and plays havoc with the destiny of a nation. Education without aims is like a ship without a rudder pushed on a perilous sea voyage. Aims provide a focus and direction to the entire system of education. That is why governments attach so much importance to the aims of national education.

The Quaid-i-Azam in his message to the First Educational Conference in 1947, stated emphatically that he wanted to establish a viable, productive and sound system of education suited to the needs and requirements of the people of Pakistan, with due regard to Muslim history and ideals. (Qureshi, 1975, p.27). It is regrettable to note that subsequent governments have failed to clearly define and implement the aims of Pakistani education. Speaking from an ideological standpoint, the story of Pakistani education is the story of aimless education. (Qureshi, 1975, pp.49,60-61,72).

An understanding of the meaning of aims, goals and objectives is essential for curriculum planners and teachers. Failure to gain this understanding is likely to produce a variety of problems for the various groups participating in educational programmes and activities. This unit is, therefore, concerned with the technical explication of these terms. It is divided into the following four parts.

1. Conceptualization
2. Objectives movement
3. Development of objectives, and
4. Critique of models of objectives

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. Classify aims, goals and objectives and understand their significance.
2. Show the distinctions as well as the relationship between aims, goals and objectives.
3. List the major sources of aims, goals and objectives.
4. Indicate the principal sources of current interest in behavioral objectives.
5. Give a brief review of the objectives movement in education.
6. Explain Bloom's Krathwol's and Harrow's taxonomies of educational objectives and mention important points in their favour and against them.
7. Describe the main approaches and different formats in writing behavioral objectives.
8. Develop statements of behavioral objectives.
9. Analyze and evaluate the principal models of curriculum objectives.
10. Develop a sound rationale for, and sketch an outline of a proposed Pakistani model of educational objectives.

1. CONCEPTUALIZATION

1.1 The Significance of Aims, Goals and Objectives

Aims provide a synoptic view of what we expect from education as a whole. Their major function is to provide purpose and direction to the whole educational system. (National Education Policy, 1979, p.1). Unless aims are first clearly stated, no educational programme can be meaningfully conceived, planned and initiated. Actually aims act as guiding principles and highlight the major emphases for central concerns of any system. Hence, knowledge of aims is indispensable to curriculum planners and other related groups.

The end-products of educational systems are shaped and moulded by the central aims which differ from one national to another. The aim of traditional Muslim education was to produce pious and practicing Muslims. American education is wedded by and large to the production of democratic and pragmatic individuals, while the socialist system endeavors to produce true "socialists". You can see the typical stamp in the end-products of the various school systems. And different systems may operate even within the same country. This is so because aims help to unify different educational programmes and objectives. Jamia Ashrafia (a religious Muslim University) and Forman Christian College, separated only by the Gulberg Canal in Lahore, represent two different viewpoints. Each entertains a peculiar outlook that is personified in the lives of the youth under their care. This indicates the powerful role of aims in education, be it Eastern or Western, public or the private. This different sets of aims represent different "colour schemes" and curriculum developers and teachers should be alert to the choice and implications of such schemes.

As for the goals of education, they are sharply focused on school-wide educational outcomes. (Zais, 1976, p.306). They are derived from aims and indicate more clearly what the aims actually stand for. In fact, they are the signposts on the highway of educational programmes. Goals, as Davies tells us, help curriculum planners focus their attention on the actual destination. Unlike aims, goals render a practical service in operationalizing the entire educational activity from the elementary to the higher stage. Their role is crucial (Davies, 1976, p. 14).

But both goals and aims are not enough in providing immediate direction for classroom instruction and evaluation (Bloom et/al., 1971, p.21). Objectives, on the other hand, present detailed and clear specifications of each goal in terms of knowledge, skills, values, beliefs, ideals and appreciations. Their use to curriculum planners, teachers and learners, is all too obvious.

Specific objectives can be of use in many ways. Firstly, they provide clear guidance in the selection of content and learning experiences. Secondly, they classify the types of powers and capacities to be developed in learner - how the content is to be used and with what purpose in view. Thirdly, they provide a common and consistent focus for varied curricular activities. Hopefully, the multiplicity of subjects and of teaching

approaches may be unified through objectives without which they will simply appear to be discrete and disjointed parts of an education programme. Lastly, they guide us in evaluating the output by providing a relevant and clear set of criteria (Taba, 1962, pp. 196-199). Thus aims, goals and objectives render positive service to all concerned, especially to curriculum planners and teachers.

1.2 The Classification of Aims, Goals and Objectives

Generally speaking, a vertical hierarchy of three broad categories—aims, goals and objectives—is usually mentioned in books on curriculum and education. However, many eminent writers, particularly in the field of curriculum, prefer to use pairs of terms like 'aims and objective' or 'goals and objectives', perhaps, to simplify the process of objectives formulation. Hilda Taba, Bloom and his associates, Michealis, Grossman and Scott may be cited as writers who exemplify this approach.

Document entitled "Goals and Aims to Education" (Ministry of Education, 1977, p.2), treated aims as something intermediary between goals and objectives. Aims being mainly concerned with the major stages of education; while the term 'goals' was used to refer to overall general statements of the purposes of Pakistani education. On the other hand, most of the curriculum experts and philosophers accept that aims are more general than goals. Ivor K. Davies (1976, pp.11-14), Robert S. Zais (1976, p.305) and many other writers forcefully represent the latter view, and it is this approach, which considers aims, goals and objectives as a hierarchy, which is adopted in this unit.

1.3 The Nature of Aims

Curriculum aims refer to general statements that describe expected life outcomes based on some value scheme borrowed from philosophy, consciously or unconsciously. Their distinctive quality is that they are not directly related to school or classroom outcomes. "Human Survival", "self-realization" and "ethical character" are examples of a few curriculum aims. Aims are thus remote and long-range and have to be converted into more immediate and specific school outcomes if they are to be realized in actual practice (Zais, 1976, p. 306).

An aim gives shape and direction to a set of more detailed intentions for the future. They are just a starting point and represent an ideal, an aspiration and a direction which education system should take in general. Thus they act as a guide to action and provide a general framework for the overall educational process (Davies, 1976, p.12). Since they are principally concerned with larger ends and purposes they act as unifying threads for different programmes and activities, they are relatively few in number but are broad in scope and applicability.

Aims are inspirational and visionary in character and are, therefore, vague and permanently open-ended (Richmond, 1976, p. 175). They have to be clearly defined from age to age as they take on new meanings. For example, the concepts of a "good life" or "educated citizens" admit of several interpretations that vary from age-to-age and from nation-to-nation even during the same period. Thus an aim needs to be clearly defined,

interpreted and explained with reference to the national ideology and socio-political climate obtaining in a country (Sharif, 1964, pp. 40-45). Besides, an aim has to be analyzed and broken down into its constituent parts for its practical realization and accomplishment.

In brief, statements of aims just provide overall direction and guidance to a school system; but they are not always helpful to teachers in classroom instruction or evaluation. They are basically meant to provide direction to policy-makers at different levels — national, provincial and local. Hence they are not valid for specific and concrete action (Bloom, 1971, p.21).

1.4 Examples of Aims

Harry S. Broudy classified aims under four categories:

- (a) Value pattern
- (b) Social organization
- (c) Social roles and
- (d) Life style. (Zais, 1976, pp:307-308).

All the categories must be inter-related with each other to produce the desired results. For instance, it is necessary that aims in other categories should be consistent with the aims and requirements of the central value pattern and display the same spirit. Any inconsistencies in this regard would be damaging to the dominant value pattern.

(i) *Value Pattern*

This is the general category which actively influences the character of aims in the other three categories. Aims in this category represent a philosophical position and viewpoint. If the central aim is the development of Islamic character, all other categories would be geared to the realization of this pivotal value.

The students of different educational system bear the stamp of their typical value pattern. For example, the products of Aligarh, Deoband, Nadva and public schools in Pakistan reflect the different value patterns and characteristics of their institutions. Sir Syed's main concern was to promote western sciences and help the Muslim youth to get jobs in the Government. Deoband aimed at the preservation of a classical religious orientation, while Nada attempted to modernize religious knowledge and bring it in line with the new demands of modern times. (Ahmad, 1977, pp. 72-72). These diverse value patterns shaped the institutions and hence the attitudes and behavior of their students.

(ii) *Social Organization*

This refers to "patterned relations of individuals and groups" (Broom and Selznick, 1958, p. 14). The way people behave is largely determined by their relations to each other and by their membership of different groups. Actually social organization is a network of relationships of individuals and groups that may impede or develop a social philosophy or viewpoint. No set of aims can prove fruitful until it is interwoven into the entire fabric of social organization.

A social organization acts as a social habitat for the development and promotion of a preferred value pattern whether Islamic, democratic or socialist. Given the above value pattern, social organization would be focused on Islamic social outcomes such as unity and social integration, brotherhood, concern for the collective good and a deep sense of respect for all individuals and groups on the basis of intrinsic personal qualities rather than surface qualifications, i.e. race, creed, colour, status or geographical location.

(iii) *Social Roles*

A social role refers to "pattern of behavior associated with a distinctive social position" such as the position of a mother, teacher, administrator, employer or student etc. it indicates what a person ought to do in his or her typical position. Social roles are complementary as well as complex. (Broom and Selznick, 1968, pp.12-13). Aims specifying preferred social roles would offer a particular set of qualities to be developed in parents, teachers, family members, neighbours, citizens and officials which are in consonance with the national ideology. The Prophet of Islam (Peace Be Upon Him) is the best model for the Muslims. The Quran exhorts believers to assimilate this model into their personality.

In Islam, several roles are combined within a single individual and he or she is expected to behave likewise in a given situation during peace or war. A ruler is not simply a head of the state; he is also a guardian of public morality, a friend, neighbor and a citizen. This is how Islamic values would influence the social role of individuals.

(iv) *Life Style*

This refers to the way in which one lives one's life. It is the practical manifestation of one's preferred value pattern. You can see a variety of life styles in any society - for example, that of a businessman, a gypsy or a hippy. The Eastern life style is very different from that in the West. However, each ideology attempts to develop, on the whole, a typical life style with reasonable scope for variation and spontaneity within its cultural framework. In brief, the life style must be in consonance with the spirit of the central value pattern.

Examples of Aims

Statements of aims may be short or long but detailed statements are generally preferred for curriculum building. The examples that follow are taken from the National Education Policy (1979, pp. 1-2).

1. To foster in the hearts and minds of the people of Pakistan in general, and the students in particular, a deep and abiding loyalty to Islam and a living consciousness of Muslim Nationhood.

2. To develop and inculcate in accordance with the Quran and Sunnah, the character, conduct and motivation expected of a true Muslim through effective elimination of gaps and contradictions between the professing and practice of Islam.

1.5 The Nature of Goals

Curriculum goals refer to school outcomes as a whole, and they are somewhat removed from immediate classroom assessment (Zais, 1976, p.306). they lie in the middle of the "aims-objectives" continuum and goals actually represent different aspects or major constituents of an aim and thus prove helpful in identifying its principal parts. They clarify and explain what a particular aim is directed at the intent as well as the content.

Goals are derived from aims and must be consistent with them. They attempt to operationalize the thinking represented by an aim, making it relatively clear and practical (Davies, 1976, p. 14). They are more explicit than aims and thus indicate the broad pathways to the attainment of over-arching and all-inclusive aims. In short, goals simply facilitate the achievement of aims.

An aim indicates the direction, while a goal points to the actual destination. Rather than being visionary in character, a goal takes on a concrete form and becomes the focus of an activity. It serves as a basis for action and helps us in bridging the gap between the 'ideal' and the 'real'. However, goals are less specific than objectives and are no more than inferred descriptions or hypotheses about the things learners will be able to do at the conclusion of a learning sequence (Davies, 1976, p. 14.) They do not specify the expected behavior of learners with precision.

Several goals may be derived from an aim. These goals are then ordered so that priorities can be determined and allocated. Some of the goals may be realized at an early stage in the learning process; others may be taken up in the middle and still others may be accomplished very late (Davies, 1976, p. 14).

Goals serve two main purposes. Firstly, they help us put concepts into writing and indicate what the learners must know at the end of a course (terminal goals). Secondly, they help the teachers and others concerned to bridge the gap between an aim and a specific objective (Leonard and Utz, 1974, p 88).

1.6 Examples of Goals

An example of an aim is to develop in students an understanding of how to write research proposals in Education. This statement may be broken down into the following five goals:

1. To acquire a concept of research proposal and its variants, as seen in historical, descriptive and experimental enquiries in education.
2. To appreciate the value of writing a research proposal as a basis for clarifying thoughts, analyzing tasks, synthesizing procedures and evaluating possible consequences.
3. To identify an educational problem, appropriate to the interests of the investigator which is capable of investigation by the methods proposed.
4. To prepare an appropriate research proposal, according to generally acceptable standards in educational enquiry.
5. To critically appraise the proposal as a means of determining both its deficiencies and its strengths as a planning document.

It is clear from the above that goals form aspects of an aim and are more explicit than the latter. They however, indicate scope for further clarity and detail i.e behavioural objectives.

Statements of goals may be long or short. For instance, national progress (as an aim) may be interpreted in the form of goals such as industrial development, agricultural advancement, political stability, elimination of illiteracy and so on. And quite a different set of goals may be generated depending upon the vantage point from what a person looks at the aim.

1.7 The nature of Behavioural Objectives

Behavioural objectives go by several names _ specific objectives, performance objectives and instructional objectives. Increasing interest has been shown in them during the last two decades. The educational community is, however, divided with a great many outstanding scholars like Bloom, Tyler, Gagne and Taba considering them a virtual renaissance, while other prominent figures regard them as too mechanistic and dehumanizing. The debate continues but with current rethinking, some sort of compromise may be reached in the near future.

The current interest in behavioural objectives has arisen from several sources. Among these are the famous works of educational theorists like Tyler, Bloom, Mager and Krathwohl which lay heavy stress on the need for accurate assessment and measurement of learners' knowledge in terms of observable and specific human behaviours. Several educational taxonomies have been offered and a considerable literature is available on the subject. Blooms taxonomy stands out to be the most written about in the realm of education. Another source is industrial economics with its input-output models and techniques such as cost benefit analysis, operational research, systems engineering and job evaluation, all of which require precise, detailed and clear-cut objectives, prior to the formulation of a problem and strategy of attack. These have had a positive impact on education. Combined with some other national and international forces, all the above developments have played an important part in popularizing the use of behavioural objectives.

According to Davies, behavioural objectives are called behavioural because they are stated in terms of overt human behavior which is both demonstrable and measureable. They describe in unambiguous terms the expected behavior of a learner at the end of a learning experience. Objectives are very specific and highly explicit with no ambiguity about their meaning, focus and intention. They are short-range, time-bound, quantifiable and operational in form and spirit.

They refer to the most immediate specific outcomes of classroom instruction. The most important thing to note about the objective is that they act as a clear guide and provide immediate direction to curriculum planning, classroom instruction and evaluation. They are sharply focussed on intended learning outcomes and leave no scope

for misinterpretation. Precision, clarity, specificity and quantifiability are the principal features of a truly behavioural statement of an objective.

Generally speaking, behavioural objectives are detailed specifications of desired outcomes at the end of a lesson, teaching unit, term, year or programme. And a large number of objectives can be developed from a given set of goals, the actual number depends upon several factors such as purpose, grade level, teacher's convenience and the generative capacity of the goals.

1.8 Examples of Behavioural Objective

Now look at the examples below and consider their adequacy as behavioural statement:

1. "to be able to write a summary"
2. "to explain the theory of relativity"
3. "to be able to complete a 100 item multiple-choice examination on the topic of Muslim contribution to Science within one hour, with 70 correct answers as the lowest limit of acceptable performance".

You will probably have noted that (1) is an example of an incomplete behavioural objective. It does not mention the related content to be summarized, which could, for example be an English poem, an historical event or a scientific theory. As regards (2), both the behaviour and the content are mentioned. However, by far the most comprehensive behavioural statement is (3) which contains all the necessary elements of a complete behavioural objective.

Activities

1. Discuss amongst your colleagues the differences amongst aims, goals and objective with examples.
2. Pick up any three aims of education of each education policy and develop goals and objectives form them.

1.9 Distinctions and Inter-relationships

If the title of a book is regarded as an aim, its various chapters would be parallel to goals and the countless facts, ideas, concepts, principles, and generalizations would resemble objectives. It is obvious that objectives are many and varied and that an aim is simply inexhaustible. For example, thousands of books have been written on Education with different formats and approaches and yet the basic theme continues. This simile may throw some light on the distinctions amongst the terms ;aims', 'goals', and 'objectives'.

To summaries what has been said earlier, aims, goals, and objective3s represent different positions in descending order, each with a specific purpose and role to play. Aims reflect philosophy, policy and rationale, while goals stand for strategies and objectives for tactics in the actual classroom situation. Aims represent life outcomes; goals refer to school outcomes; and objectives stand for specific outcomes of classroom instruction. Again, aims are general in nature, objectives are highly specific and goals,

which are in an intermediate position have the potential to generate a number of behavioral objectives.

You should note, however, that aims, goals and objectives are relative terms. They sometimes overlap and clear distinctions are not always possible. But in any case, they should be consistent with one another. Also their meanings can change in different contexts. Within the context of a whole curriculum, the goals for each course included in the curriculum could be regarded as objectives of that curriculum. The goals of an instructional unit may become the objectives of a course. Thus the goals objectives continuum is relative and flexible (Leonard and Utz, 1974,p.88). It is thus sometimes difficult to differentiate goals from aims. Perhaps that is why many writers use them interchangeable. Therefore, these terms should be viewed and differentiated in their interactive perspective, with full awareness of their functional role and potential. Otherwise, what does Peters mean when he speaks of the aim of lesson as being concerned with reaching the end of "Exercise 6". (Richmond, 1871,p.189). Now you may be able to visualize the difficulties entailed in the treatment of these popular terms.

In most cases, Zais points out, the distance between a curriculum objective and a curriculum goal is great; but between an aim and an objective it is enormous. Therefore, the curriculum worker must be vigilant in maintaining congruence in aims through goals to objectives. He should be able to demonstrate the relationship of the required school tasks (goals and objectives) to those of the desired life tasks (aims). But this can be possible only when he possesses adequate knowledge of the philosophical, psychological and logical bases of teaching and learning (Zais, 1976,p.307).

However, it must again be recognized that this inter-active relationship is sometimes very much confusing. At times, they overlap, and it becomes difficult to differentiate goals from aims and objectives from goal _ so much so that the very classification becomes doubtful. "at precisely what point in the continuum", remarks Zais, "an objective becomes a goal; or a goal an aim, is impossible to specify" (1976,p.307). In spite of these difficulties, these broad categories along with their inter-relationships can be of immense help to all concerned.

1.10 Self-assessment Questions

I. Write T (True) or F (False) in the space provided against each statement below:

- (a) Aims are highly imaginative and visionary by nature. _____
- (b) Curriculum planning involves aims and goals but excludes specific objectives _____
- (c) Goals help us to operationalize education thinking at a higher level. _____
- (d) Aims provide an overall direction to the whole system of education. _____
- (e) Objectives give direct help in classroom instruction. _____
- (f) The role of objectives is to specify human behavior in terms of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. _____

- (g) Goals are less explicit than aims.
- (h) Goals provide a clearer indication of intended educational outcomes than aims
- (i) Goals are directly related to classroom evaluation.
- (j) Goals refer to the ultimate ends.
- (k) Statements of behavioural objectives are specific and clear.
- (l) Goals are more operational in form and spirit than objectives.
- (m) Aims, goals and objectives are relative terms.
- (n) Instructional objectives are different from behavioural objectives.

Answer:

- I (a) T (b) F (c) T (d) F (e) T
 (f) T (g) F (h) T (i) F (j) F
 (k) T (l) F (m) T (n) F

II Examine the following groups of Statements and identify whether each statement is an aim, goal of behavioural objective. Write a (aim), g (goal), o (objective) in the space provided before each statement.

1. To develop in citizens a deep sense of respect for the constitution. _____
2. To make citizens obey rules and regulations in their daily life as enforced by the state. _____
3. To enable all groups of people to gain a full understanding of the Constitution. _____
4. The college students will be able to differentiate between the law and the Constitution. _____
5. To study the implications of the constitution for various sections of the public. _____
6. To encourage Pakistani students to become enthusiastic about technical subjects. _____
7. The Business students will be able to type 50 words per minute with only one mistake for every 200 words. _____
8. To expound the view that scientific and technical development is the key to national progress. _____
9. To cultivate the spirit of enterprise in the children and youth in all educational institutions. _____
10. The Arab students will gain a variety of experiences during their stay in Pakistan. _____
11. Half of the fifth graders will correctly list the names of the first four Caliphs Of Islam. _____
12. In a 30-yard pool without competition, the student will swim 60 yards free style in less than 50 seconds. _____
13. To develop reflective thinking in philosophy. _____
14. Eighty per cent of the students on a course in Currieculum Development will be Able to differentiate between aims, goals and objectives as outlined above. _____

15. Developing Islamic character and abiding love for the principles of Islam.

16. Students study deeply new movement in the world of Islam.

Answers:

11. 1. a 2. g 3. g 4. o 5. g
6. g
6. o 8. a 9. g 10. g 11. o 12. o
13. g 14. o 15. a 16. g

III Encircle the most appropriate item under each statement in the following:

1. The nature of aims indicates that they are basically:

- a. Operational
- b. Practical
- c. Philosophical
- d. None of the above.

2. Policy-makers at the provincial level are mainly concerned with:

- a. Aims
- b. Goals
- c. Objectives
- d. Goals and objectives.

3. To develop good speech habits among learners is a statement that comes under:

- a. Aims
- b. Goals
- c. Objectives
- d. Both a and b.

4. School-wide outcomes may be classified under:

- a. Aims
- b. Goals
- c. Objectives
- d. Both a and b.

5. A statement that is partly general and partly concrete and can be further broken down into its constituent parts belongs to:

- a. Aims
- b. Goals
- c. Objectives
- d. Non of the above

6. A statement that does not permit different interpretations falls under:

- a. Aims
- b. Goals
- c. Objectives
- d. Goals and objectives

7. To gain mastery over a subject is a (n):

- a. Aims

- b. Goal
- c. Objective
- 8. To classify rocks and describe them properly is a (n)
 - a. Aims
 - b. Goal
 - c. Objective

Answers:

- III' 1. a 2. b 3. c 4. d
 5. b 6. e 7. b 8. c

IV.

1. Write four points on the significance of aims goals and objectives and briefly describe each one of them.
2. How are objectives useful to planners and teachers? List four points. (Don't explain.)
3. The end-products of an educational system are shaped by the central aims of that system. Explain this statement in a paragraph by giving one concrete example.
4. Briefly describe the nature of aims under four points and given two concrete examples.
5. Why are aims not valid for guidance in classroom instruction? Explain in a paragraph.
6. Write a paragraph on the nature and role of goals in education in Pakistan.
7. Write a brief note on the nature of behavioural objectives. Also give two examples to explain your answer.
8. Write two points of difference between a) aims and goals and (b) between goals and objectives.
9. Inter-relate aims, goals and objectives in a paragraph.
10. "Aims, goals and objective are relative terms". Explain this statement with the help of two suitable examples.

2. A BRIEF REVIEW OF THE OBJECTIVES MOVEMENT IN EDUCATION

A historical review is always instructive as it enables the reader to understand the progressive development of the subject being studied. It is revealing in that it uncovers realities and can help us avoid future pitfalls.

2.1 The Origins

Generally speaking, the origins of the movement for explicit objectives can be traced back to the educational works of Herbert Spencer and Johann Herbart. Spencer proposed a classification of human activities as a basis of educational objectives and developed five major objectives for school curricula – self-preservation, securing the necessities of life, child-bearing, maintenance of socio-political relationships and leisure activities. As for Herbart, he highlighted the significance of a clear statement of aims for writing a lesson plan and proposed five instructional stages popularly known as the Herbartian steps of teaching (Davies, 1976, pp.44-45).

Zais contends that behavioural objectives are neither basically new nor are they a creation of educationists. They rather owe their genesis to the well-known concept of "Operationalism" in scientific disciplines (Zais, 1976, p.311). But why stop at "Operationalism"; why not go further back in the past to uncover the true origins of behavioural statements.

The truth of the matter is that the spirit (clarity of purpose) and general features of the behavioural approach were born with the birth of Islam. If clarity, behavior specification, action-oriented formulation and criterion-referenced description are accepted as the hall-marks of behavioural objectives, then the holy Quran heralded the beginning of this approach long before the educational writings of Spencer, Bobbit, Tyler, Bloom and Gagne.

The Quranic approach to behavioural statements is unique and distinctive. The set of "desired behaviours" is normally preceded by a general statement of the goal; and the short behavioural statements are accompanied with judgemental remarks or motivational inputs of reinforcement or feedback depending upon the situational mood of the verses. The Quran captures life in its entirety and does not tolerate any dichotomy between the material and the spiritual and the objective and subjective aspects. Consequently, the Quranic behavioural statements cover both overt and covert behavior. Therefore, they are not always behavioural in the rigid sense of the term. Rather, in their typical format, they present a blend of behaviouristic and humanistic approaches with several new additions. They appeal equally to the mind, heart and spirit; and appear to satisfy all the demands of human nature within the general framework of Islam. This is the true essence of the Quranic model.

The behavioural statements are generally short and pithy. But there are long explanatory statements as well. However, these belong to several categories; they are goal oriented, clarificational, explanatory and evaluative. Central themes like goodness, success, taqwa (piety), worship, life, faith, man, God and the Hereafter are repeatedly stated in behavioural terms in their manifold dimensions at different places in different context. The Quran avoids all possible detailed specifications of a given goal at one and the same place. Rather it "behaviourises" the concept under treatment on several occasions to unfold its rich potential in new situations. And in the process of behavior specification, God relies heavily on the common sense of people to understand the terms. This lends freshness, variety and balance to behavioural statements.

Below are given a few examples to substantiate the veracity of our claim. We offer a translation along-with the original text from the holy Quran so that you may appreciate the beauty and style of the Quranic verses and judge the truth for yourselves.

Example No. 1:

"The believers must eventually win through these":

1. Who humble themselves in their prayers
2. Who avoid vain talk
3. Who are active in deeds of charity
4. Who abstain from sex except with those joined to them in the marriage bond, or the (captives) when their right hand processes, for they are free from blame. But these whose desires exceed those limits are transgressors.
5. Who faithfully observe their trusts and their covenants and
6. Who (strictly) guard their prayers. These are the believers who will inherit Paradise. They will dwell therein forever.

Example No. 2:

"It is not righteousness that you turn your faces to the East and West; but righteous is he:

1. Who believes in Allah and the last day and the angles and the scriptures and the Prophets.
2. Who gives his wealth, for love of Him, to his kinsfolk and to orphans and the needy and the wayfarer and to those who ask to set slaves free

3. Who observe proper worship

4. Who pays the poor-due

5. Who keep their treaty when they make one

6. Who are patient in tribulations and adversity and time of stress

7. Such are they who are sincere.
Such are the God-fearing.
(The Cow: 177)

Example No. 3:

"Be quick in the race for forgiveness from your Lord, and for the Garden whose width is that of the whole of heavens and of the earth, prepared for the righteous those:

1. Who spend (freely) whether in prosperity or in adversity

2. Who restrain anger

3. Who pardon all men, for God loves those who do good

4. Who having done something to be ashamed of or wronged their own souls, earnestly bring God to mind and ask for forgiveness for their sins. And who can forgive sins except God?

5. Who are never obstinate in persisting knowledge in (the wrong) they have done.

6. For such the reward is forgiveness from their Lord, and a Garden with rivers flowing underneath, and an eternal dwelling: How excellent a recompense for those who work and strive"
The Family of Imran: (133-136)

Note the break-up of general statements into several specific objectives. Also note the use of action verbs, moderate behavior-specification, necessary clarifications, and both short and long statements of objectives. Other interesting features are the beautiful general statements at the beginning of each example, and as indicated already, the judgemental remarks or motivational inputs at the endings.

Further, it must be recognized that the Quran avoids extremes in action verbs and in behavior specification. However, the Quran is not a book on curriculum development. It is, rather, a Book of Guidance which is unique in its form, message and approach. Hence the Quran cannot be expected to conform to professional formulations-behavioural, humanistic or any other. It simply transcends them. And transcendence, as Phenix (1974, pp. 118-130) appears to suggest is, perhaps, the future hope of education and the curriculum. In brief, the Holy Quran effectively communicates its message to the general reader (and not the professional alone) and effective communication is at the heart of behavioural approach. (Bloom et. Al, 1971, p. 36 and Mager 1962, p. 12). The Holy Book incidentally embraces several strands of new approaches such as humanism,

behaviourism and spiritualism and reintegrates and refashions them into something different which beautifully accommodates "specifics" into its larger "holistic framework", with a sharp emphasis on the long-range goals of human destiny.

2.2 Systematic Conceptualizations

Franklin Bobbit, writing in 1918, highlighted the need for clearly stated objectives for curriculum building. In a later work, he attempted to derive objectives from activity analysis. However, Bobbit's main emphasis was on the need for specificity, simplicity and clarity in objectives formulation (Davies, 1976, pp. 47-48).

In 1924, Werrett Charters put forward his theory of systematic curriculum design, in which he stressed that the first step in curriculum construction should be the delineation of its major objectives. This should then be analyzed into 'ideals' and 'activities'. Thus he classified objectives as 'ideal' objectives and 'activity' objectives. Ideals like "good citizen" by another. However, both should be further broken down into manageable working units, and their relationships exemplified by means of an 'analysis chart'.

Ralph Tyler improved upon the above work by attempting to produce more systematic and detailed procedure for objectives formulation in his small but revolutionary book *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (1969). Among other things, Tyler proposed a two-dimensional matrix (behavior plus content) for stating behavioural objectives. He insisted that objectives should be expressed in terms of both the kind of behavior to be developed in the learning experiences through which to attain given objectives is highly instructive. (Tyler, 1949, pp. 46-50, 63). However, Tyler was mainly motivated by the requirements of accurate assessment and evaluation.

Inspired by Tyler's work on testing and evaluation, Benjamin Bloom and his associates produced an extremely influential book – *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* in 1956 which dealt with the cognitive domain. Coverage of the affective domain was attempted later by Krathwohl Bloom and Masia in 1964; while Anita Harrow (1972) considered the last domain – the psychomotor. Each of these domains is a large category under which educational objectives are classified in a hierarchical arrangement from simple, low-level learning to complex high-level leanings. These taxonomies attempted a highly sophisticated and detailed treatment of educational objectives and have had a great impact on educational practices at an international level. Their collective influence on objectives formulation and evaluation has been profound. However, you should also be aware of the important contribution of other writers like Mager, Gagne, Taba and McAshan who have contributed immensely to the enrichment and extension of the behavioural approach.

In concluding this review, one must mention the fact that the behavioural approach has come under sharp criticism from several quarters. Perhaps you have formulated some criticisms yourself. If so, note them down and compare them with the views expressed in Section 5 where this issue is dealt with in detail.

2.3 * Taxonomies of Educational Objectives

Several taxonomies of educational objectives have been offered by a number of writers and teams of experts. The ones presented by Bloom, Krathwohl and Harrow for the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains respectively are very popular and have been extensively used by curriculum planners, teachers and learners. The taxonomies represent classifications of objectives in hierarchical order in each domain and thus provide guidance in curriculum development, in test construction and evaluation and in teaching and learning.

The taxonomies serve several purposes. They help in specifying aims and goals in clearer terms, with the result that they no longer remain vague and hazy. Taxonomies also serve as tools in test construction and evaluation, and enlighten teachers and curriculum planners on several possible categories of objectives for different courses, lessons or tests. Moreover, they can also be helpful in the analysis of tests and examinations and can aid teachers and learners to focus their attention on the relative emphasis they have placed on different categories or levels of objectives.

Let us now look more closely at the work done on the three domains – (a) cognitive, (b) affective, and (c) psychomotor.

(I) *The Cognitive Domain*

Bloom and associates developed this taxonomy which includes six levels or categories of objectives ranging from simple to complex cognitive processes. The levels and their developmental sequence are arbitrary, based on the assumptions of the authors. The same levels may be defined and interpreted differently by other writers. However, Bloom's categories are as follows:

(i) *Knowledge:*

This is the lowest category of objectives in cognitive domain dealing with remembering facts and information. It treats knowledge as product and includes facts, concepts, principles, generalizations, trends, classifications, theories and structures (Michaelis et al., 1975, p. 78). This level does not pre-suppose any understanding and is confined simply to the memorization of the elements of knowledge. Corresponding pupil behaviours include recalling, stating, identifying, listing, describing. An example of an objective at this level would be: to describe the battle of Badr.

(ii) *Comprehension:*

This is more complex than the first category. It involves interpretation and explanation of what was memorized and stored in the mind; and prediction based on material learned earlier. Corresponding pupil behaviours include paraphrasing, summarizing, illustrating, interpreting, explaining, interpolating, extrapolating, predicting etc.

Examples: To illustrate the concept of *Jehad* with reference to Muslim conquests in the early days of Islam. To interpret a population graph.

(iii) *Application:*

This is the ability to solve new problems using previously learned material, concepts, laws, principles and theories in new settings. Corresponding pupil behaviours include solving, modifying, applying, computing, demonstrating, constructing, performing.

Examples: To apply two concepts of civil liberties by stating how they are involved in a recent action taken by the court to protect the rights of minority groups.

(iv) *Analysis:*

This refers to breaking up the whole into its different components, determining their relationships, distinguishing relevant from irrelevant features and recognizing the underlying theory involved. It is a process of reasoning in its highest form. Corresponding pupil behaviours include distinguishing, discrimination, analyzing, categorizing.

Examples: To analyze the components of the cognitive domain.

(v) *Synthesis:*

This refers to the ability to join together different discrete parts to form a new and complete whole. This is a process of reorganization and rearrangement, culminating ultimately in something new and fresh. It involves some sort of creative activity. Corresponding pupil behaviours are designing, creating, composing, formulating, concluding, generalizing, etc.

Example: To draw a generalization from the data collected in an experiment.

(vi) *Evaluation:*

This is the ability to make judgements based on a given set of criteria. Judgements involve a high level of thinking. This is the highest level of cognitive domain. Corresponding pupil behaviours include criticizing, justifying, concluding, evaluating, defending, comparing, contrasting, assessing, etc.

Example: To evaluate the secondary school curriculum in the light of the national Education Policy.

(II) *The Affective Domain*

Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia elaborated on this domain which includes five categories of objectives dealing with values, attitudes, feelings, appreciations and other affective dimensions of learning. The categories are arranged in hierarchical order according to the degree of internalization (Michaelis et al., 1975 p. 79).

(i) **Receiving:** This is the lowest level. It refers to awareness or attention on the part of a learner toward the material being presented. It implies that the communication will

be attended to. Corresponding pupil behavior includes listening, attending, describing, identifying.

Example: To demonstrate an interest in music by listening to it.

(ii) Responding:

The category goes beyond awareness and results in some sort of response on the part of a student, accompanied by a feeling of satisfaction. The student not only attends but also reacts. Corresponding pupil behaviours include answering, reading, greeting, performing, complying, following.

Example: To enter the playground to play football.

(iii) Valuing:

This suggests commitment and the worth a student place on a particular object, material or behavior. Values of students are difficult, but not impossible, to ascertain: clues to one's values may be obtained from one's behavior. Corresponding pupil behaviours are inviting, justifying, supporting, advocating, preaching.

Example: To demonstrate a conviction by writing a letter to the editor of a newspaper on the need to educate the adult population.

(iv) Organization:

This involves conceptualization of values, clarification of relationships among them and organization of a value system. It involves the ability to bring together different values and an attempt to produce a coherent value system. Corresponding pupil behaviours include altering, combining, generalizing, formulating, organizing.

Example: To make a judgment on women's freedom in Islam.

(v) Characterization of a value complex:

This is the highest level which is combined with developing a life style that covers a broad range of activities consistently related with one another. This level may be achieved only in adulthood and is indicative of one's philosophy of life. Beliefs, attitudes and ideas are fused into one integrated whole. Corresponding pupil behaviours include performing, believing, qualifying, questioning, influencing.

Example: To support peace activities in the world.

(III) *The Psychomotor Domain*

Anita Harrow developed this taxonomy dealing with psychomotor activities in 1972. It includes six levels ranging from the simplest to the most complex motor activities. They are as follows.

(i) Reflex Movements:

There are involuntary motor responses to stimuli. They are functional at birth and develop throughout life and include, for example, stretching, stiffening, relaxing, etc.

(ii) **Fundamental Movements:**

These refer to inherent body movement patterns, such as walking, running, jumping, pushing, pulling, and manipulating objects.

(iii) **Perceptual Abilities:**

They involve kinesthetic discrimination, visual discrimination, auditory discrimination and coordination of eye and hand, eye and foot. They help learners to interpret stimuli in order that they can adjust themselves to their environment. Corresponding pupil behaviours include bending, bouncing, eating, writing, etc.

Example: To demonstrate the abilities to copy letters of the alphabet.

(iv) **Physical Abilities:**

They are concerned with the vigour of the person and are, therefore, related to strength, endurance, flexibility, agility and dexterity. Corresponding pupil behaviours include enduring strenuous activity, moving quickly and precisely, touching toes, stopping and starting immediately.

Example: To demonstrate the ability to carry 120 kilograms.

(v) **Skilled Movement:**

These refer to efficiently performed complex movements as in games, sports, dance and the arts. Corresponding pupil behaviours include typing, skating, filling, juggling, playing musical instrument.

Example: To demonstrate the ability to juggle with four balls at a time.

(vi) **Non-Discursive Communication:**

This refers to behaviours that are involved in movement communication, ranging from facial expressions to highly sophisticated communications. Responses in non-discursive communication come more from intuition than from reason. Objectives at this level are related to posture, gestures, facial expression and interpretive movement through creative expression.

Example: To move expressively so as to communicate emotions.

Although the three principal domains of educational objectives have been treated separately, they are fundamentally inter-related to each other. "When a student reviews a poem he not only uses cognitive analytical skills but also gives his valuing and organization of values by the selection of certain skills and the insistence upon a set of criteria in evaluating and ranking the poem and poet". Besides, the differences between various levels in the domains and the examples of corresponding pupil behaviours are not inclusive. An overlapping repetition of terms between and across the domains is possible and real (Leonard and Utz, 1974, p. 83).

In spite of several limitations, the taxonomic approach is useful in many ways. As indicated before, it is helpful in planning the curriculum and in teaching and evaluation. The various domains make us attentive to the different levels or categories of

objectives, some of which might otherwise be ignored in the educative process. These taxonomies have provided a great impetus to thinking in the field of learning and education. However, they should be handled intelligently, with due regard to the nature of the subject, its methodological treatment and other genuine concerns.

(c) Activity

Go through the curriculum of different subjects at, Secondary/Intermediate levels and identify the objectives to be achieved under the following domains:
Cognitive domain
Affective domain
Psychomotor domain

2.4 Self-assessment Questions

(I) Re-arrange the following categories of objectives in their proper order from simple to complex.

- a. (i) analysis (ii) application (iii) knowledge (iv) synthesis (v) evaluation (vi) receiving
- b. (i) valuing (ii) organizing (iii) receiving (iv) characterizing (v) responding

(II) For each of the items on the left hand side, choose the objective category on the right that goes with it, as already mentioned under the three principal domains of objectives classification. Put the letter on the line.

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| 1. Deals with explanation and interpretation | a. Skilled movement |
| 2. Deals with critical judgment | b. Knowledge |
| 3. Deals with the preference of choice | c. Evaluation |
| 4. Deals with a generalized not a coherent values | d. Non-discursive communication |
| 5. Deals with expert skills | |
| 6. Deals with expressive movement | |
| 7. Deals with willing response | e. Characterization |
| 8. Deals with recalling of facts, principles and theories. | f. Comprehension |
| | g. Valuing |
| | h. Responding |

(III) Encircle the most appropriate item in the following statements:

1. Workable statements of behavioural objectives have been offered by:

- a. Tyler
- b. Bloom
- c. Harrow
- d. Krathwohl
- d. All of the above

2. The first modern attempt at the scientific treatment of behavioural objectives is associated with:

- a. Tyler
- b. Taba

- c. Gagne
 - d. Mager
 - e. Bloom
3. **The taxonomy of the cognitive domain was first attempted by:**
- a. Taba
 - b. Bloom
 - c. Harrow
 - d. Krathwohl
 - e. None of the above
4. **The true Origin of behavioural statements lies in:**
- a. The works of Bobbit and Charaters
 - b. The scientific concept of operationalism
 - c. The verses of the Holy Quran
 - d. The works of Johann Herbart
 - e. The works of Herbert Spencer
5. **The Quranic behavioural statements are characterized by:**
- a. Clarity
 - b. Behavior specification
 - c. Action verbs
 - d. Overt as well as covert behaviour
 - e. All of the above
6. **The Quranic behavioural statements, as found in different "Suras", are actually:**
- a. Short
 - b. Long
 - c. Explanatory
 - d. Clarificational
 - e. All of above
7. **From the viewpoint of curriculum building, systematic conceptualizations of objectives started with:**
- a. Bobbit
 - b. Charters
 - c. Tyler
 - d. Both a. and b.
 - e. Both a. and b.
 - f. None of the above

(IV) Study the following items very carefully. First, identify the realted domain and them determine its level. Place A for Affective, C for Cognitive and P for Psychomotor domain in the space provided in front of each item. Indicate the

exact level (category of objective) in symbols using the first two letters for various levels in the cognitive (a's' for "analysis" and 'ap' for "application") and the first three letters in both the affective and the psychomotor domains, e.g. 'race' for "receiving" and 'per' for "perceptual" abilities.

Domain	Level	Items
_____	_____	1. The pupil writes a letter.
_____	_____	2. The pupil writes a creative letter.
_____	_____	3. The pupil likes creative letters.
_____	_____	4. The pupil writes a letter to the editor urging him to fight the problem of provincialism.
_____	_____	5. The pupil states the causes of the emergence of the Third World.
_____	_____	6. The pupil distinguishes between matter and energy.
_____	_____	7. The boy shot down a flying pheasant.
_____	_____	8. The girl smiles at the dramatic performance of her classmate.
_____	_____	9. The teachers condemn malpractices in the examination hall.
_____	_____	10. The pupil develops his personal philosophy of social welfare.
_____	_____	11. The pupil interprets the meaning of social justice in Islam.
_____	_____	12. The pupil criticizes the method of teaching.
_____	_____	13. The pupils run a 200 meter race.
_____	_____	14. The pupil listens to the viewpoint of others.
_____	_____	15. The pupil uses his knowledge of economics in the market.
_____	_____	16. The pupil develops a new design of the building after the study of several designs.

1.
 - a) In what sense is the Quran the first educational document on the behavioural approach to objectives? Clarify and explain in paragraph.
 - b) List two distinctive qualities of Quranic behavioural statements and describe each very briefly.
2.
 - a) Write a Quranic statement of goals along with its corresponding behavioural objectives.
 - b) Analyze Quranic behavioural objectives of any statements of goals with reference to the modern approach; and indicate their peculiar characteristics as actually found in the statements under study.
3. Indicate the contributions of Bobbit and Charters to the systematic conceptualization of behavioural objectives. Mention only two points, one for each.
4. Briefly describe Tyler's thinking concerning behavioural objectives.
5.
 - a) Develop a rationale for the taxonomical treatment of objectives.

- b) List all the levels of the cognitive domain, explaining the first and the last level with the help of one example for each level (in terms of corresponding pupil behavior only).
6. a) Inter-relate the various levels of the cognitive domain in running paragraph.
 b) Show the difference between the lowest and the highest level of the affective domain.
7. List the various levels of the psychomotor domain. To which of these levels are reading and writing related and how? Briefly explain.

Answers:

- I a) iii, vi, ii, i, iv, v
 b) iii, v, i, ii, iv
- II 1. f 2. c 3. g 4. e 5. a 6. d 7. h 8. b
- III 1. e 2. a 3. b 4. c 5. e 6. e 7. d
- IV. 1.p (per) 2.c (sy) 3.a (vak) 4.a (val) 5.c (kn) 6.c (an) 7.p (ski) 8.p (non) 9.a (v)
 10.ā (char) 11.c (co) 12.c (ev) 13.p (fuh) 14.a (rec) 15.c (ap) 16.c (sy)

3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF OBJECTIVES

3.1 The Main Approaches to Stating Educational Objectives

Objectives can be defined and stated from the standpoint of teacher behavior content and pupil behavior (Tyler, 1949, pp.44-47) and Bloom, pp.22-24).

(i) The Teacher-centred Approach:

This approach emphasizes teacher behaviours in the statement of objectives, as is illustrated in the following examples:

- To discuss the emergence and achievements of the Third World.
- To illustrate the Quranic principles of the rise and fall of nations.
- To expound the social theory of Shah Waliullah.
- To discuss new teaching approaches.

The above statements indicate what the teacher intends to do, but they do not reveal what behavioural changes are to be developed among students. Thus such statements may be helpful to teachers in planning classroom tactics. But it is the change in learners' (not teachers') behavior that justifies teachers' activity. In this way, this approach ignores the learner's position. Hence this approach is indirect and subsidiary.

(ii) Content-centred Approach

The second approach to stating educational objectives is content-oriented. The content or subject-matter to be covered in a course is detailed, as in the following examples:

- Iqbal's theory of ego
- The life and activities of Imam Shamil
- Sura Al-hijrat
- The contribution of Muslim culture in Spain

The content is reactively clear, but what is not clear is what is to be done with this content and what behavioural changes in students are desired in relation to the content. The content which can be manipulated in several ways is a means to develop certain intellectual and social skills or processes in the learners. It must be subordinated to this central purpose. Hence this approach, too is incomplete and inadequate.

(iii) The Behaviour-centred Approach

Some writers over-emphasize the desired pupil behavior to the exclusion of content. Incomplete formulations such as "to develop creative thinking", "to improve problem solving skills", and "to develop a spirit of inquiry" are presented as educational objectives. These statements are too vague and general to provide direction in the actual classroom situation. They must be properly defined and accompanied by the related content. Without the specification of content, the selection of suitable materials and teaching strategies become impossible. This approach is, therefore, also incomplete and unrealistic.

(iv). *The Behaviour and Content Approach*

After considering the above three possible ways of stating objectives, Tyler (1949, pp. 47) came up with another model: pupils' behaviour plus content. He advises us to specify both the kind of behaviour to be developed in the learner and the content or area of life in which this behaviour is to operate. Thus, if critical thinking is the desired pupil behaviour, this must also be accompanied by the related content, for example, science, history or language.

3.2 Writing Behavioural Objectives

Writing behavioural objectives is a highly technical and complex task. It involves several aspects such as deciding on the elements of objectives, seeing, taxonomic relevance, choosing proper language and sequencing. Each of these requires understanding and experience. Tyler, Mager, Michaelis, MaAshan, Gronlund, Leonard, Utz and several other writers have developed typical forms. It is neither possible nor desirable to survey all these different formats. However, a few significant viewpoints are mentioned for your consideration and use.

Authors differ over the necessary elements of a behavioural objective. Tyler proposes two, Mager three, Leonard and Utz four, Kibler and associates five and Michaelis, Grossman and Scott as many as six elements for really complete behavioural objectives.

Tyler (1949, p. 46) insists that both the intended pupils' behaviour and the related content or area of life must be included. Mere indication of behaviour is not enough; the content related to that particular behaviour must also be specified.

Example: To illustrate the law of supply and demand.

To develop critical thinking in mathematics.

'Illustrating' and 'developing critical thinking' indicate behaviours, while 'the law of supply and demand' and 'mathematics' point to the related content. This is the general pattern that is adopted in most curricular materials.

However, Robert Mager (1962, p. 12) mentions three elements of a specific objective. His approach is also very popular and has greatly influenced the thinking and practice of writers and educational practitioners. The three elements are as follows.

- a) The desired terminal behaviour that we want the student to perform should be clearly specified.
- b) The objective should state the important conditions (materials, procedures, activities, etc.) under which the students are to perform the desired behaviour.
- c) The criteria of acceptable performance should be specified.

However, Mager is of the view that all three elements need not necessarily be present in each objective statement. The central purpose of writing behavioural objective, he clarifies, is to communicate clearly the intent of a lesson course or unit. That's all of course, Mager, lays special stress on the "doing" aspect of behavioural objectives. "An objective is useful to the extent that it specifies what the learner must be able to do or perform when he is demonstrating the mastery of the objective" (Mager, 1962, p. 13).

Example: The student will list (behaviour) at least three causes of the revival of Islam (criteria) as given in the class text book (conditions).

It is interesting to note that Leonard and Utz recommend four elements; Kibler, Barker and Miles, five; elements and Michaelis, Grossman and Scott as many as six elements for complete performance objectives. These six elements are concerned with time, person behaviour, object, performance level and conditions. The format is reproduced below:

- a) *Time*: Indicate the time by which a student should meet the objective, e.g. 'after completing this lesson' 'at the end of the unit' 'by the end of the year'
- b) *Who*: Note whether all or only certain students should attain the objective, e.g., 'students who have complete' '80% of the students' 'all students should.'
- c) *Behaviour*: Note the behaviour to be observed, e.g. state, describe, list, name
Arrange
- d) *Object*: Note the criteria of performance that are desired, e.g., 'at least three'. '100% accuracy
- e) *Conditions*: Indicate related activities or materials that the essential, e.g., 'given a ruler and pencil; 'using a dictionary; when given three choices' (Michaelis et al 1975, pp 85-86).

Example: By the end of the term, all the students of the course of Islamic Culture' will be able to complete a 100 item multiple-choice examination on the topic of Muslim contributions to science within one hour duration, with 70 correct answers as a lower limit of acceptable performance.

In this example, the desired behaviour is the completion of the examination. The conditions are the 100-item multiple-choice test and the one hour time limit. Muslim contributions to science represent the object and the criterion is 70 correct answers. Other elements of this format are obvious.

The above format is exhaustive, covering almost all the possible aspects of an ideal objective. It must, however, be mentioned that most curricular materials do not generally contain all these elements. They are mainly confined to the specification of 'behaviour' and the related 'object' or the content. The most important point in behaviour specification is effectiveness of communication. And it is neither necessary nor desirable to follow completely any one format. These different approaches are simply meant for general guidance. Therefore Pakistani teachers and planners should feel free in adapting these approaches to their typical conditions and working environments.

Relevant educational taxonomies may be used for guidance. These will help considerably in selecting the desired learning level and matching it to the appropriate word that describes the behaviour. If the teacher wishes a student develop his or her

cognitive powers, he can have a look at various levels of the cognitive domain, select the suitable level and proceed methodically in objectives formulation. Thus he can get to know the various aspects of 'cognition', its progressive development and the related action-verbs pertaining to each level or aspect. This is how taxonomy may be used as a tool for writing objectives.

The language of objectives should be very simple and clear. Although it looks plausible that behavioural statements should be stated in a single sentence, it is not necessary that they should always be in this form. More than one sentence may be used to write a behavioural objective (Leonard and Utz, 1962, p.90). Clear, operational and action verbs should be used and ambiguous verbs avoided, as should, be-clear from the following examples:-

Action Verbs

to define
to classify
to analyze
to compare.
to compute
to list

Ambiguous Verb

to know
to understand
to appreciate
to enlighten
to learn
to respect

In addition, behavioral objectives should be properly *sequenced* in progressive order to facilitate the achievement of the intended educational goal. Thus, they should move from simple to complex categories. Sequencing objectives helps teachers to focus their attention on several dimensions of knowledge, values and skills. They no longer remain confined to a few limited learning, as is often the case in traditional instruction. Many new avenues are thrown open to them by way of this analytical approach.

In conclusion, besides the above considerations, several others should also be kept in view while writing behavioral objectives, e.g., the nature of the subject, the grade level, teachers' competencies, future learning and the distinction between closed and open objectives. (An open objective is meant to develop creative behavior, while a closed objective is designed for repetitive performance).

3.3 Self-assessment Questions (Pick out action verbs from the following :)

- | | |
|---------------|----------------------|
| 1. know | 9. compare |
| 2. comprehend | 10. contrast |
| 3. understand | 11. distinguish |
| 4. list | 12. write critically |

- | | |
|------------------|--------------|
| 5. state | 13. write |
| 6. appreciate | 14. speak |
| 7. appreciate | 15. describe |
| 8. differentiate | 16. Apply |

II. (a) For each item on the left, choose the appropriate items on the right and put the letter in the blank space provided in front of each statement. All items on the left should be read as: A complete behavioural statement should contain, for example:

(b) Indicate in the blank space, different elements of behavioural objectives associated with the names of the authors given at the left side. Simply put the letters that represent elements.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| a. time | e. product or result |
| b. person | f. conditions |
| c. behavior | g. performance criteria. |
| d. content or object | |

1. Tyler
2. Mager
3. Michaelis and associates

III. Distinguish between correctly and incorrectly stated behavioural objectives in Accordance with Tyler's form. Write "c" for correctly stated and "i" for incorrectly stated objective.

1. To enable the students to write
2. To develop in students habits of thinking in history.
3. To be able to analyze the factors of production.
4. To be able to write a paragraph in Arabic.
5. To develop effective speech habits among students
6. To be able to appreciate, this poem with great pleasure.
7. To be able to identify letters or alphabet.
8. To prepare a summary of the proceedings of the students' council
9. To be able to distinguish between an assumption and an hypothesis
10. To write a creative letter in Urdu in the style of Ghalib without making any tense mistakes.

1. List the various aspects involved in writing behavioural objectives. Briefly describe any two of them.
2. Why are non-action verbs discouraged in writing behavioural statements? Give one important reason.
3. How are disciplines! a source for deriving curriculum goals and objectives? Explain with the help of two examples.
4. Write two examples of behavioural objectives for each of the following authors in their typical format.
 - a. Tyler
 - b. Mager
 - c. Michelis and associates

Answers

I.	4	5	8	9	10	11	15	16
II.	(a)	1 d	4.	C	(b)	1.	C and d	
		2 c	5	b		2	c, f and g	
		3. a				3.	A, b, c, d, f and g	
III	1	I.		5.	I	9	c	
	2	C		6.	I	10	c	
	3	C		7.	C			
	4.	C		8.	C			

4. A CRITIQUE OF MODELS OF OBJECTIVES

This section attempts to present a critique of behavioural objectives as voiced by the opponents of this model. The alternative models, "process" and "humanistic" will be briefly explored and their weaknesses indicated. This will be followed by an outline of a proposed model suited to Pakistani youth.

4.1 Criticism of the Behavioural Objectives Model

The behavioural approach to objectives which has been so much popular, especially during the mid 1960, has been subjected to criticism from. Several quarters. Humanists and process-oriented scholars among others are strongly opposed to the objectives model. The protagonists as well as the opponents both are busy clarifying their viewpoints. However, it appears that James Popham's car sticker slogan 'Help stamp out non-behavioural objectives' has undergone some positive changes. The modified approach reads 'Help stamp out some non-behavioural objectives'. Let us now review some of the major points of criticism of the objectives model.

The most important allegation is that it is nakedly dehumanizing as it treats human behaviour mechanically and fails to take care of the affective side of human life beliefs, feelings, hopes, attitudes and concerns. Truly human problems like the development of the self-concept, self-actualization, the development of responsibility and other such humanistic goals are simply ignored (Combs, 1975, p. 124). The human organism, it is claimed, is not a finished product; hence it is not reducible to a set of prescribed behaviours. Rather it offers rich possibilities of 'becoming', which should be the real goal of education. "What can man become is the most significant question in curriculum studies (Zais, 1976, p. 14). The critics repeatedly point out that the subjective or inner side of human life is more crucial and important than the objective or outer one. That is why Eisner strongly supports "expressive objectives" which are evocative rather than prescriptive (Stenhouse, 1975, p. 78).

Another fundamental objection is that the model is mistaken about the nature of knowledge. It simply capitalizes on the fact that it makes knowledge fragmentary while knowledge, in fact, is synthetic concerned with integration (Stenhouse, pp 79-83). The model does not deal properly with higher-order tasks such as holistic thinking, internalization and appreciation of art and literature. It is suitable, it is argued, for lowest levels of learning and thus trivializes learning and the curriculum. Besides, the approach ignores the 'tacit' dimension of knowledge, a kind of knowledge which is simply indescribable but real, lasting and useful (Zais, 1975, pp. 313-314 and Davies, 1977, pp. 63-64). The relationship between knowledge and behaviour is indirect and complex. Knowledge may find expression in a variety of behaviours (Simons, 1974, p. 379).

Stenhouse points out that the objectives model not only mistakes the nature of knowledge but also the nature of process of improving educational practice as well. Since the whole attention is focused on progress rather than diagnosis, and all efforts are

directed towards the clarification of ends and purposes, there is little guidance for teachers to better their teaching practices.

This behavioural approach does not differentiate between training and education and is mainly confined to the former, is another objection voiced by critics. Training involves specific behaviour, while education involves patterns of generalized behaviour of a high order. This, it is asserted, renders the behavioural approach irrelevant to the process of 'education'. Education deals with the total personality of the child and its aims and goals are different from those of training and instruction. Some behaviourists attempt to resolve this problem through developing comprehensive lists of specific behaviour. But since "behavioral pursuits" lay heavy stress on maximum specificity, this turns curriculum development into an area clustered with millions of specifics which is obviously unsound and unmanageable. (Zais, 1975, pp. 314-315).

Further, Jackson argues that pre-specification of explicit objectives can adversely affect the teaching process because the teacher, in that case, may ignore several instructional opportunities unexpectedly occurring in the classroom. Thus prior conditioning may blind him to the use of novel, fruitful situations. The realities of the classroom must be squarely faced. Mere logic will not do; warns Stenhouse (1975, pp. 73-74). Furthermore, the pre-specification of ends amounts to clear indoctrination i.e. knowingly fashioning and moulding the young in a specific direction. That is why Kliebard equates behavioural teaching with brainwashing and indoctrination. (Stenhouse, 1975, pp. 74, 75, 81).

In addition, it has been suggested that certain areas of knowledge such as fine arts and the humanities do not easily lend themselves to the behaviouristic approach; and that it is extremely difficult to identify measurable pupil behaviours in these subjects.

Robert S. Zais, (1977, pp. 3 15-3 16) =1 the dogmatic application of the principle of operationalism underlying model. He feels that the principle must be applied liberally and openmindedly and that objectives should not be considered as completely independent units or dead ends towards which the action is directed. And knowledge gained through objectives must not be considered final and completely dependable. Hence placing full faith in the infallibility of the behavioural model is unwarranted and unjustifiable.

Yet more practical problems plague the behavioural approach. It is said that developing behavioural statements is too time-consuming a business for teachers. And all forms of behaviour do not easily submit to the precise quantification or accurate assessment that lies at the heart of this approach. Furthermore, teachers feel threatened because of accountability.

Last but not the least, the objectives approach has been called a "a political move for the purpose of accountability; hence it is a part of a political dialogue rather than an educational one concludes Stenhouse (1975, p. 77). Thus it is argued that the issue is a complex one, involving several socio-political factors.

I hope that as you have been reading this section, you have formed opinion of your own on the validity of these criticism of the behavioural objectives approach. My view is that the accusations are partly true and partly misplaced. It is true that overt behaviour is overemphasized at the cost of significant subjective behaviour but it does not follow that overt behaviour should not be studied and developed with clarity, precision and accuracy. As regards knowledge, it is, of course, integrative in character but no individual can digest it in its ideal form. It has to be analysed and presented to learners in bits as the occasion demands. Thus the fundamental objection of knowledge fragmentation is misconceived or misunderstood. Analysis should not be equated with triviality. As for prespecification of clear ends, it is something positive and constructive that guides and facilitates learning. Clear goals must be preferred to vague undefined distinctions. However, there should be enough scope for accommodating incidental learning. Rigidity is surely bad.

Possibly you are still uncertain about where you stand in this controversy. If so, I hope that the additional information on the process and humanistic models which follows will help you to clarify your opinions.

4.2 The Process Model

Lawrence Stenhouse is one of the chief advocates of the process approach. As has already been noted, this model is opposed to the objectives model. It emphasizes process rather than product (Stenhouse, 1975, p. 92). It is, therefore, concerned with means rather than ends. And since process connotes an on-going activity, the model has strong leanings towards freedom and spontaneity in teaching and learning of new uncharted paths of knowledge. The process model is fundamentally open-ended and inquiry-oriented. Actually, it is wedded to the thinking of Bruner; he lay heavy stress on "fluid enquiry" and on the "structural components of disciplines".

The advocates of the process approach argue that prior detailed specifications of intended human behaviour are neither necessary nor useful. Rather these impose unnecessary constraints on the learning process, making it dull and mechanical. Knowledge, they believe, should be 'discovered' and aims and objectives must emerge from within the content during learning encounters. So aims and objectives should grow from within as John Dewey (1951, p. 103) had long ago suggested and should not be imposed from outside.

The concepts of 'structure' and of 'worthwhile activities' underline the process model. It is believed that it is possible to select curricular content and judge its worthwhileness without reference to objectives. For example, scholars like Peters and James D. Rath (1974, p. 375) have proposed criteria of worthwhile activities. It is further maintained that each discipline or form of knowledge has its own structure which possesses intrinsic value and that each area of study reveals or suggests its own principles of procedure, concepts and itably be used in content selection, in teaching and evaluation.

The very form of knowledge suggests how the content should be treated and handled, arts possess intrinsic content and suggest their own method of inquiry. Thus speculation, inquiry, intuition, depth of understanding and open-mindedness are greatly emphasized in this model. It is a quality-oriented, critical model which is not directed towards the accurate assessment of anticipated end-products.

What would this process model look like in practice? The Humanities Curriculum Project in England and the Social Science Curriculum Course - Man: A Course of Study' - in the U.S.A. may be cited as examples of its implementation. No specific objectives were formulated in advance. The most valued changes in behaviour were not anticipated in detail. Rather ambiguities were favoured and the subjects were taught by the discovery approach (Stenhouse, 1975, pp. 91-93).

However, these projects entailed a number of difficulties because this model is not without weaknesses: Stenhouse himself recognizes that it is highly exacting and only scholarly teachers can handle it properly. And it is more suited to the needs of gifted than average students. It is a teacher development model with a sharp emphasis on knowledge and depth of understanding. Thus the learner tends to be relegated to the background.

The process' model, as we know, is based on the idea of the structure of disciplines. And it is interesting to note that the chief exponents of disciplinary content have already begun to realise their mistakes. Bruner has revisited *his Process of Education* and is no longer so enthusiastic about pure academic content. Phenix and Schwab have also revised their stance in favour of a multidisciplinary approach to curriculum building (Tanner and Tanner, 1975, pp. 413-414, 416). Thus the very foundation of the process model has been undermined. Now Bruner talks of more students problems than of structural components. The prophecy of goodlad has come true.

Besides, does the process model satisfy humanistic concerns? It is purely a logical model and consequently fails to take care of the affective side of life. Its main emphasis is on inquiry, knowledge and depth of understanding and these have nothing to do with sensitivities and humaneness.

4.3 The Humanistic Model

As for the humanistic model, it is focussed on liberating and actualizing human potentials. It is characterized by becoming, happiness and search for meaning. (Zais, 1976, p. 3 17). This approach has taken several forms. The liberal arts curriculum is perhaps the oldest design. A.S. Meill's Summer-hill School represents one category. Paulo Freire (1971)

Suggests another and silberman (1975) sounds somewhat different note. Iven Illich (1971) goes to the extreme of deschooling society. Anyway, the common thread that unites these various forms is humaneness.

4.4 Synthesis

The old and new models vary greatly in emphasis, with the former stressing the

intellect and the latter being mainly feeling-oriented. In fact, no single approach is adequate in itself. The principal models discussed above display weaknesses as well as strengths. Each, with its own limited conceptual framework, lacks comprehensiveness and balance. Consequently, each has failed to fully realize the actual difficulties faced by teachers and students.

Detailed pre-specifications of learners behaviour and limiting the entire teaching to foreseen ends with no scope for flexibility and humanistic values is a short-sighted view of education. On the other hand, aimless activity fed simply on discipline content with no clear direction stands equally challenged. Reality lies somewhere in between these approaches. Some sort of workable synthesis is the needs of modern times and there are indications of such a synthetic approach.

Behaviourism and humanism are getting closer to each other, and a new synthesis is on the verge of appearing (Ricks, Wandersman and Poppen, 1976, pp. 383, 391). We are now a days constantly reminded of the significance of comprehensive approaches, such as the 'life history framework', the 'ecological approach' and 'transcendence'. Following slavishly in the footsteps of any one approach without critical examination of its worth and suitability is simply suicidal. We must adopt a bold realistic attitude towards curriculum models. (Robert S. Zais, 1976, p. 316). There is nothing sacred about them. Zais displays this spirit beautifully when he says "As curriculum dogma, both behavioural and non-behavioural objectives deserve rejection" (1976, p. 316).

The world is moving towards unity, synthesis and integration at all levels, personal, national and international. Even the physical phenomena are no exception to this. The recent discovery by the Nobel Prize Winner Dr. Abdus Salam is, we should develop a conceptual framework that unifies the various. Is them into an integrated whole. It must be comprehensive and unify transcendence (Phenic, 1974, pp. 118-132) appears to be the future hope of the curriculum education and humanity. The best version of transcendence islam which is highly comprehensive, balanced and integrated in character, encompassing all aspects of human of human life with full scope for future developments. Actually, Islam is predominantly future-oriented but with full realization of the present an the past. It starts with the 'real' and moves towards the 'ideal'. It embraces matter and spirit, the outer and the inner, intellect and emotion, knowledge and institution, change and performance, the self and then on-self, the present and the future in its bread sweep with full scope for emerging problems" and crises (Qutub, 1963, pp. 97-98). The Holy Quran is the best manifesto for the general guidance of humanity, education and the curriculum.

4.5 A Proposed Pakistani Model

The Pakistani model of curriculum objectives should be developed with reference to our peculiar situation, keeping in view our ideological commitments, teachers' capabilities, their daily teaching load, the nature and demands of different subjects, humanistic considerations, aesthetic sensitivities and the socio-cultural context in which

the educational drama is being staged and acted. Due consideration should be given to new trends and approaches in the professional field and some of these may be assimilated into our model after through critical examination and scrutiny.

Since the Quran emphasizes purpose, clarity and effective communication, we must have clear-cut aims to start with. The fundamental aims will be stable and permanent while others will change with the march of time. These aims must embrace the various aspects of human life including emotion and intellect, the behavioural and non-behavioural, the material and spiritual, the process and the product. We should never allow our vision to be blurred by transient intellectual idiosyncracies tempered with emotion. Beliefs, values and ideals constitute the core of Islam, and we should not shy away from our cultural core. A balanced and creative synthesis should be our goal.

Coming to behavioural objectives, I would like to emphasize that the broad concept of human behaviour, as contained in the Holy Quran and demonstrated earlier in this section, should be utilised in objectives formulation. We need not avoid operationalism nor should we follow it blindly and push it beyond reasonable limits. In the same way, humanistic concerns should not be considered taboo. No banishment but constant dialogue and accommodation should be the motto of a curriculum developer. However, we must resist the temptation to follow rigidly any one taxonomic approach in its entirety. An attempt should be made to try to bridge the gap between 'behaviour' and the 'behaving individual'. Behaviour should be approached in the Quranic perspective, with ample scope for feeling and sensitivity. We should not sacrifice or distort reality for the sake of inspired rigid objectivity.

As for the level of specificity of objectives, no hard and fast rules can be formulated. Effective communication appears to be a useful working criterion. Also the nature and demands of a subject will further determine the position. In general, however, over-detailed specification should be avoided, with highly technical and complex formats being used only at critical points in planning, programming and teaching. We should utilise the principle of operationalism but with sense of preparation and balance.

The Pakistani model thus conceived would not be a prototype of any existing, be it behavioural, humanistic or any other. Rather it would transcend all these approaches in a peculiar fashion, combining creatively the healthy points to the Islamic framework as applied in the Pakistani situation.

In brief, the Pakistani model must emerge from the educational soil of Pakistan with reference to Islam and our typical educational situation. Thus cultural relevance, comprehensiveness, balance and dynamism are the four cardinal principles of this proposed Pakistani model.

In conclusion, we would like to quote of few verses from the poet of the east which are relevant at this point:

4.6 Activities

1. Meet a farmer, a businessman, a labourer, a politician, a student and a shopkeeper. List their two most significant aims in order of priority. Then study their comparative positions and reflect on the implications for Pakistani education.
2. Develop your own list of aims for Pakistani education and discuss it with your class fellows. On which aims is there agreement or disagreement? How would you go about resolving any disagreement?

4.7 Self-assessment Questions

1. List any six points of criticism of the objectives model and critically analyze them.
2. Explain how does the process model differ from the objectives model?
3. Explain in what ways the humanistic model is different from the process model?
4. Critically evaluate the proposed Pakistani model of the curriculum, suggesting modifications where necessary.
5. Develop an outline of your own model of the curriculum, preceded by a detailed rationale.
6. Study critically the first chapter of the Report of the Commission on National Education 1959 (a) indicate the phrases or statements that are aims, goals and objectives from a technical viewpoint (b) Outline the rationale given for any two aims or goals (c) Give your own comments on the proposed aims/goals/objectives of education in respect of their format and adequacy
7. Study the statements of aims in the New Educationally analyze them from a technical viewpoint and indicate their strengths and weakness (if any).

Answers to self-assessment questions please see the unit.

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Unit-6

**CONTENT SELECTION AND
ORGANIZATION
PRINCIPLES AND PROCEDURES**

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INTRODUCTION

Education is generally viewed as a process through which one generation transmits its acquired knowledge, experiences, competencies, beliefs, traditions and attitudes to the next generation. In the early ages the major part of this process was accomplished in the homes and the parents' personal attention was considered to be an adequate source of education and training of their children. This process of informal education was then expanded from home to the village community. Later on, when human knowledge and experience increased, formal schools and colleges were established. And now, when there is a rapid increase in knowledge with many branches of the curricula, several academic faculties have been established in the universities in order to provide the requisite knowledge skills and experiences to the students in a systematic manner.

This shows, that curricular content is expanding constantly, and, as a result, content selection is becoming a difficult task. It is, therefore, imperative to make an appropriate selection of content for different levels and stages on the basis of specific principles and scientific criteria. The following discussion raises the question pertaining to the principles and criteria to be adopted for content selection.

What is the Curricular Content?

Smith, Stanley and Shores in their book, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development* discussed the issue of curricular content in detail. According to them, "in the process of teaching, one must teach something to someone, the someone being the pupil and the something the content. Content might be described as the knowledge skill, attitudes and values to be learned". It includes what men know and believe, but not everything they have created. For example, an institution such as the family-matter but what is known and believed about the family, and the ideals we hold for family life, are subject-matter. Similarly, tools and machines are not subject-matter, but knowledge - about how they are made, their operation, and their uses, _____ is subject-matter that be included in the curriculum.

Ralph Tyler has, however, differentiated between the terms "learning experience" and "content". According to him, the term "learning experience" refers to the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react. Learning takes place through the active behaviour of the student; it is *what he* does that he learns, not what the teacher does. It is possible for two students to be in the same class but it is just possible that they might be having very different learning experiences. This definition of experience as involving the interaction of the student and his environment implies that the student is an active participant. The problem of selecting learning experiences involves, therefore, determining the experiences likely to fulfill given educational objectives; and also setting up situations which will evoke the kinds of learning experiences needed.

Levels of Content and their Functions

Hilda Taba has pointed out the following three levels of curricula content, alongwith their functions:

(1) *Specific facts and processes*

One can view school subjects as consisting of knowledge on several different levels. One level is that of specific facts, descriptive ideas at a low level of abstraction

and specific' processes and skills. For instance, a description of the branches of government, of the characteristics of the digestive system, dates of events, and the computational processes in arithmetic and algebra belong to this category. This kind of knowledge is described as static. Its mastery does not produce new ideas although specific facts do constitute the raw material for the development of ideas. All students must master precisely the same content details; therefore, a careful choice of the details to study is as important as ever.

(ii) Basic ideas and principles

Basic ideas and principles represent another level of knowledge. For example, ideas about casual relationships between human culture and the natural environment are of this sort. Such ideas and principles constitute what currently is referred to as the 'structure' of the subject ideas which describe facts of generality, facts that, once understood, will explain many specific phenomena.

(iii) Concepts

The third level of content is composed of what might be called concepts, such as the concept of democracy or interference, of social change, or that of a "set" in mathematics. Concepts are complex systems of highly abstract ideas which can be built contexts. They cannot be isolated into specific units but must be woven into the whole fabric of the curriculum. Smith, Stanley and Shores also discussed this issue of the nature of content. According to them, there are two kinds of subject-matter, one descriptive, the other normative—a distinction which has already been raised in Unit-I A brief account of the same is, however, given in the following:

(i) Descriptive subject-matter

Descriptive subject-matter consists of facts and principles. Books and other instructional materials are heavily loaded with factual content. Courses in history, for example, consist largely of factual statements about what happened, when and where it happened, and who was involved in the events. Biology courses contain facts about the structure of plants and animals, about their classification, and about their functions etc. Descriptive principles are laws, rules and theories, such as scientific laws and theories. In general, these principle do not involve values and resemble facts. Just the natural description of bare principles and facts is called descriptive subject-matter.

(ii) Normative subject-matter

Individuals make moral and aesthetic choices. It consists of the norms or standards which represent the value/standards men have built up through generations. The objectives of education, the social-moral controls of economies, the ideals operating in and through political-institutions, the legal system, the rules of acceptable family conduct, the standards for judging the merits of artistic works—all these would be included in such a list of normative rules, and it would still be incomplete.

Normative content and descriptive content may be further distinguished by relating them to the kinds of questions that might be asked about an event. What happened? These questions can be answered only by factual statements. Why did it happen? What would cause it to happen again? These questions require an explanation. All explanations take the form of theories and general ideas, using descriptive principles rather than facts to provide the answers. Was its occurrence good or bad? Should it have happened? Should it happen again? Was it beautiful? Answers to these questions require more aesthetic judgments, and hence involve normative content.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define the meaning of the term "curriculum content".
2. Understand the need for content selection and know the different levels of content and their functions.
3. Understand the principles and criteria for selecting the curriculum content.
4. Know the main procedures for content selection.
5. Understand what is meant by "Curriculum Organization" and be familiar with criteria for assessing its effectiveness.
6. Examine textbooks and determine the procedure of content selection used by the authors.
7. Outline a procedure of content selection in a field of your choice.

1. THE SELECTION OF CURRICULUM CONTENT PRINCIPLES AND CRITERIA

1.1 The Need for Selection

As Romine pointed out, there are many factors which have resulted in an increased need for the proper selection of curricular material and experiences. For example, it is impossible for anyone to master all of the accumulation of human culture. What once were considered important aspects of knowledge for all educated persons are no longer generally viewed in the same light. Also the concept of education has broadened and, as the percentage of school-age children in schools increases, there is a growing need for a careful selection of curricular content, enabling the learners to cope effectively with the complexities of modern living. Similarly, finding of latest research studies about the nature of the learner and the education process bear on the selection of materials and experiences. The study of youth provides many clues which are useful, and an understanding of the learner is indispensable. As changes take place in our concept of learning, they operate to produce changes in curricular content. Finally, for social continuity and national integration it is important that the Islamic values and the ideology of Pakistan are provided for boys and girls through selected content which prepares them to be true Pakistanis and competent persons in their respective fields.

1.2 Principles for Selecting Curriculum Content

Within the context of our socio-cultural framework constitute some of the most important general principles for select content.

(You will notice that some of these issues have already been raised in Unit-1).

- (a) *Promoting Islamic Ideology*
The content should reflect and promote the Islamic ideology of Pakistan.
- (b) *Developing Social Understanding*
A common body of educative experiences should be selected which develop social understanding in judging different problems.
- (c) *Promoting Maximum Personal Development*
The learning situations must be related to the unique characteristics of each learner. Desirable personality traits and a wide range of special interest opportunities should be promoted.
- (d) *Promoting Continuity of Experience*
This principle indicates concern for the maturity and learning sequence of each learner.
- (e) *Providing for Educational Aims*
The content should reflect the stated aims of the curriculum.
- (f) *Maintaining a Balance Among all the Goals*
This is done through a balanced allocation of time and judicious requirements.
- (g) *Involving the Pupil in the learning experiences*
There should be flexibility and democratic procedures. Pupil participation and cooperation should be emphasized.
- (h) *Using Effective Learning Experiences*

The experiences chosen must utilize the most appropriate situations for promoting effective learning.

Although the particular learning experiences appropriate for attaining the objectives will vary with the kind of objectives aimed at, there are certain general principles which, according to Ralph Tyler, apply to the selection of learning experiences, whatever the activities maybe.

These general principles of content selection are briefly described as under:

- (a) For a given objective to be attained, a student must have experiences that give him an opportunity to practice the kind of behaviour implied by the objective. For example, if one of the objectives is to develop skill in problem-solving, this cannot be attained unless the learning experiences give the student ample opportunities to solve problems.
- (b) The learning experiences must be such that the student obtains satisfaction in carrying out the kind of behaviour implied by the objectives. For example, in the case of learning experiences intended to develop skill in solving health problems, it is important that the experience not only give the student an opportunity to solve health problems, but also that effective solution of these problems is satisfying to him. If the experiences are unsatisfying learning is not likely to take place.
- (c) The content should be *such* that reactions desired to be produced are within the range of possibility for the students. That is to say the experiences should be appropriate to the student present attainments, his predispositions, and the like.
- (d) The proposed content should help in achieving the specified objectives. No part of the content should prove to be a hinderance in the achievement of an objective while helping in the achievement of some other objectives,
- (e) The content selected should ensure that the same learning experience will usually bring about several outcomes. For example, while the student is solving field. Problems about health, he is so also acquiring certain information about the health field. He is also likely to be developing certain attitudes toward the importance of public health procedures. In addition, he may be developing an interest in or a dislike for work in the field of health. Every experience is likely to result in the achievement of more than one learning objective.

1.3 Criteria for Content Selection

It is generally agreed that content selection should be based primarily on the stated objective changes in objective required changes in the curriculum content it is therefore, necessary to have valid criteria for content selection, so that the final evaluation of the curriculum content can be carried out in a proper context. Below, six standards for content selection are presented in question form:

1. Does the curriculum content reflect the basic principles of Islamic values and teachings?
2. Does the content contribute to the growth and development of an Islamic society?

3. Is the content significant to an organized field of knowledge?
4. Does the content stand the test of survival?
5. Is the content useful?
6. Is the content interesting to the learner?

Perhaps you can suggest some other criteria. In thinking about this, look back at the principles outlined earlier.

In addition to the above, the following four criteria, according to Nichol Is and Nicholls, are also externally relevant and important:

(i) **The Criterion of Validity**

It is important that content should be valid, i.e. appropriate for the achievement of pre-determined objectives. For example, if an objective is concerned with the concept of the relationship between man's way of life and his environment, and the content chosen for the achievement of this objective does not show this relationship in a form which can be perceived by the pupils, it does not satisfy the criterion of validity.

(ii) **The Criterion of Significance**

Schools have frequently been showing concern that pupils should learn large bodies of facts. Yet facts are the least significant or meaningful aspects of school subjects and are only important insofar as they contribute to basic ideas; facts would be learned to illustrate these and would be included only insofar as they contributed to an understanding of these. This would reduce the problem of learning large amounts of factual information. This is linked with the question of breadth and depth in the curriculum. The breadth of coverage and depth of understanding should be appropriately balanced while making curricular content selection.

(iii) **The Criterion of Interest**

To devise a curriculum solely on the basis of pupil interest, as is sometimes the case in primary schools or with pupils in secondary schools, is likely to be found restricting. On the other hand, to ignore pupils' interests is to lose a strong motivational force and to run the risk of little or no learning taking place. However, it is necessary to apply this criterion with caution.

(iv) **The Criterion of Learnability**

What is included in the curriculum should clearly be learnable by the pupils; but criterion of learnability, however, obvious it may be, is not always satisfied. The main problem is that of the adjustment of material to the abilities of the pupils. Content must be available in forms which are appropriate to individual pupils' abilities and existing knowledge. It is also important that what is to be learned makes a connection with something which the pupils have already learned; and again this will vary from one pupil to another. This suggests the need for variety in the ways in which content is made available and in the manner in which pupils are expected to learn.

Ideally, the content selected should satisfy all the criteria (validity, significance, interest and learnability); certainly no one criterion should be applied in isolation nor carried to an extreme, although under some circumstances some criteria may carry more weight than others.

2. PROCEDURES OF CONTENT SELECTION

This issue has been discussed in detail by Smith, Stanley and Shores. According to them, the procedures of content selection are (a) judgmental (b) experimental (c) analytical and (d) consensual.

2.1 The Judgmental Proceeds

Selection of subject-matter I the curriculum worker to answer the following questions:

- (i) What social and educational objective should be accepted?
- (ii) What is the existing state of affairs in which these objectives are considered desirable and appropriate, and in which they must be realised?
- (iii) What subject matter best satisfies these objectives under the existing conditions?

The most objective, selection of content by this procedure requires that the interests, knowledge and ideals of the curriculum worker rise above those of special social vision and freedom from the restricting influences of personal rationalizations.

When the curriculum worker is collecting data to help determine objectives, or when he is using these data to select content with the judgemental procedure, he is not expected to make original social and historical investigations. The knowledge he needs should be drawn from scholarly work in cultural anthropology, sociology, economics, political science, geography, history, psychology, and philosophy etc.

In addition, the judgemental procedure calls for extensive group discussion and deliberation, in which general points of view and personal and group opinions are critically evaluated and reconstructed in the process of agreeing upon social ideals and goals. Curriculum content chosen on the basis of the prejudices and rationalizations will not satisfy the conditions of the judgemental procedure. Nor will the selection of such content improve the curriculum.

The judgemental procedure is best demonstrated when the criterion of social reconstruction is the primary basis of subject-matter selection. This principle makes social development a primary basis of content selection. It should not be assumed, however, that this is merely a matter of personal choice. On the contrary, the test of the judgement is the extent to which other persons accepting the same ideals, facing the same facts and possessing the same social understanding would themselves select the same subject-matter or agree with its selection. Its successful implementation requires critical, informed, and judicious persons as curriculum formulators. In the hands of such people, it can be one of the most dependable methods of content selection. But the curriculum worker cannot neglect any of its phases without the risk of serious misjudgment.

2.2 The Experimental Procedures

The experimental procedure of content selection tries to determine by actual testing whether or not subject-matter satisfies a particular criterion. It answers such questions as: Is the subject-matter interesting? Is the subject-matter suitable for the adults

keeping in view their needs and problems etc. The tryout of the subject-matter must, of course, be done under prescribed conditions, and by techniques that make the procedure as rigorous as possible. Errors due to personal or group prejudices, misjudgement and outside conditions are to be reduced to a minimum. The experimental procedure of content selection takes the following form:

- (a) Tentatively selecting subject-matter in accordance with a criterion.
- (b) Hypothesising that the tentatively selected subject-matter meets conditions of the criterion (that it is interesting or useful)
- (c) Prescribing conditions for the tryout (description of the characteristics of the children, the teacher, the classroom, the materials to be used and other facts affecting the experiment).
- (d) Checking the results against the hypothesis to find whether or not the subject-matter satisfies the criterion.

This procedure has not yet been used extensively, but its findings have been generally respected. However, it is open to the objection that all factors cannot be controlled; and that its findings, therefore, are not entirely dependable. Another criticism is that the experimental procedures assume an unchanging curriculum in all the aspects related to the one under investigation. If this is not the case, the experimenter cannot know whether his results were due to the conditions of the experiment or to some outside conditions that changed without measurement or control. However, in spite of all the criticisms this procedure remains one of the most promising means of selecting the subject-matter.

2.3 The Analytical Procedure

The analytical procedure is one of the most widely known methods of content selection. It has been closely identified with the criterion of utility. In general, it consists of an analysis of the things people do in order to discover the subject-matter involved in these activities.

There are three forms of the analytical procedure, each following more or less the same pattern. Their brief description is as follows:

(i) Activity analysis

The purpose of this analysis is to discover the general activities of people of a given national group or region. This analysis helps in identifying relevant activities to be selected for the curriculum.

(ii) Job analysis

This analysis is applied to vocational operations. To determine what should be taught in Professional Preparation of Teachers' course, for example, an analysis of their work would come the basis of the teacher education programmes.

(iii) Knowledge analysis

If the problem is to find what elements of written expression are in general use, one procedure would be to analyse such relevant documentary materials as newspapers, journals, and library materials. The content to be included in a course on grammar might

be determined by studying the grammatical forms found in the correspondence of people in general or of a selected group. The analytical procedure of content selections therefore consists of the application of certain techniques of fact-finding to the activities under investigation.

The analytical procedure can involve the use of the following techniques:

(i) **Interviewing**

The interviewer requests a person on the job, or one who performs certain activities, to name the duties for which he is responsible or the ideas and skills he employs. From these interviews, a composite list of duties is drawn up.

(ii) **Working on the Job**

The investigator works on the job, studying the operations required and making a list of them.

(iii) **Analysis of the Job or Activity by the Worker**

A person who has become familiar with a job or activity is asked to list his duties or the operations he performs.

(iv) **Questionnaires**

The duties or operations involved in a job or activity are sought by means of an inquiry blank sent to the workers or persons whose activities are under investigation.

(v) **Documentary Analysis**

The investigator makes an analysis of magazines, correspondence, public records and the like and tabulates the information, skills, or principles found in these documents. These findings throw light on what will be needed by persons who use these documents or who are involved in activities from which they result.

(vi) **Observing the Performance of People**

The curriculum worker, or a group of persons under his direction, observe and tabulate their observations and findings. This may be concerned with the daily activities of people or it may involve analysis of individuals or groups in certain specific situations.

The main criticism on the analytical procedure is that it breaks operations, skills, and knowledge into such small elements that the real identity of the original process or knowledge is lost. Although this criticism may be valid when analysis has been carried to extremes, it can hardly be held to be justifiable in most instances. Analysis is always essential, and there is no justification for wholesale criticism on it. The pertinent questions should always be these: What is the analysis for? Is it sufficient for the purpose? A second criticism is that the process of analysis yields static results. An analysis of present conditions indicates nothing about what they should be. Hence, the discovery of what is actually done on a job, or the knowledge and skills that people actually use in their various activities, offers no basis for improving performance.

2.4 **The Consensual Procedure**

The consensual procedure is a way of collecting people's opinions about what they believe the curriculum should be. The results of the consensual procedure are expressed in terms of the number of persons, or percentage of persons, of a particular

community or group who believe that such and such should be taught in the schools. The selection of persons whose opinions are to be sought is the first step. Such persons are usually selected because they are:

- (i) Outstanding leaders in the fields of education industry, business, agriculture, labour, and in the social life of the community.
- (ii) Experts and-specialists such as physicians, engineers, teachers, and artists or
- (iii) Representatives of the population of a community or region.

The next phase is the development of method for collecting opinions. Usually a questionnaire is used. In some cases, interviews or small group conferences are employed. The final stage of the consensual procedure is the tabulation and interpretation of the responses. This procedure is perhaps most dependable when it is used along with the judgemental procedure. But it too is subject to the objection that people's replies are too often dictated by vested

interests, unexamined prejudices and occupational bias. It is also apparent that this procedure results not in consensus but in a tabulation of votes.

2.5 Activity

Interview some of the members of National Curriculum Committee in a subject and level of your choice about the procedures used in content selection.

2.6 Romine's Classification of Procedures

It is difficult to separate "selection" from organization, particularly at the actual point of making choices within the overall framework of the curriculum. For that reason, the procedures dealt with above apply in varying degrees to both selection and organization of curricular experiences, suggesting means of establishing courses and other aspects of the total curriculum. A number of suggestions may be found in educational literature dealing with this task of curricular construction. Some authors discuss one or more of the procedures in terms of determining the scope of the curriculum, others in terms of the selection of curricular materials and experiences. Some of the procedures are more applicable on a broad basis, while others are more pertinent to course of study, units, projects and related classroom activities.

Stephen Romine has discussed some procedures which can be used in selecting and organizing curricular experiences: analysis of text books surveys of opinions, the study of errors, the study of the curricula, analyses of adult activities, analyses of social functions, and study and analysis of youth interests and needs. Although some of these have, to some degree, been discussed under the above four procedures, it would be interesting to discuss them further.

(i) The Textbook Procedure

This self-explanatory procedure is the most commonly employed of all for selecting and organizing curricular experiences. The content of a course or a curriculum based on this approach is determined in large part, if not entirely, by the selected

textbook (or textbooks). Essentially, it assumes that the writers of texts are sufficiently expert to know what is appropriate for the youth who are to pursue given curricular experiences and use the textual materials in so doing. While such persons generally have access to such basic data and do a real service in bringing together and organizing materials, it is doubtful whether they are capable of accurately diagnosing pupils' background and needs as they are found in the thousands of classrooms over the nation. Yet in the hands of many teachers, the text serves as the prescription for all pupils, regardless of individual differences amongst them.

(ii) **The Survey of Opinions Procedure**

This procedure has several variations and is spoken of as the consensual or expert-opinion procedure. Subject-matter committees, for example, make pronouncements based upon the study and opinions of the members. These decisions frequently are based upon considerable studies and deliberations and are worth careful consideration. On other occasions, the recommended ideas or practices may be nothing more than unstudied opinion. The value of the procedure is likely to be greatest in restricted areas of the curriculum, as in some special subject field, or in dealing with special problems. In this procedure live groups of persons may be involved individually or collectively: (a) experts in a given field, including teachers, (b) specialists in professional education (c) lay leaders, (d) the general public and (e) pupils. Opinions may be solicited through the committees established to study given problems.

(iii) **The Study of Errors Procedure**

The idea behind this procedure is that of identifying errors and shortcomings as a basis for incorporation into the curriculum such content as will assist in removing these weaknesses. This is a form of analysis which concentrates on incorrect or improper behaviour, judged in terms of given criteria of values. In the field of social studies, for example, a study might be directed at determining the reasons why different racial groups in a community were not getting along well. On the basis of the findings, a series of curricular experiences should be outlined and materials selected to help promote better understanding and more cooperative relationships. In mathematics, a teacher may study pupil performance, determining weaknesses in several respects. Remedial work may then be implemented. For the purposes of diagnosis at the beginning of courses, a more extensive analysis may be made of both the strengths and weaknesses of pupils. This may serve as a partial basis for structuring the course, particularly with regard to an introductory unit aimed at developing desired understandings and basic skills.

(iv) **The Study of Other Curricula Procedure**

Sometimes identified as the "scissors and paste" method, this procedure entails the study of curriculum guides, courses of study and similar materials prepared by other schools and agencies. The general idea is to determine from such study what others are doing which may be useful in one's own school situation. In this way a teacher, or a school, may rely heavily on another for the substance of curricular content. A teacher may, for example, simply look over a course of study in science which is used in another school and adopt it exactly as it is for use in his own class. This danger must be avoided if the procedure is to serve any good purpose. In Pakistan we have prescribed content, a teacher may, however,

come to know about methods of teaching as prescribed in other schools.

(v) The Analysis of Adult Activities Procedure

Activity analysis is not a new procedure, but it still has value in dealing with curricular content. Broadly conceived it involves the study of life activities citizenship, vocations, and so to discover significant activities concerning which youth should be taught to be proficient. It is more commonly recognized and utilized, however, in relation to vocational education, wherein analysis is directed towards the identification of specific skills. Once such identification has been accomplished, curricular experiences are set up to teach the skill involved.

(vi) The Social Functions Procedure

Related to the activity analysis approach, but broader in point of view, is what may be called the social functions procedure. This procedure has its basis in the concept of education as social process, and, as a primary step, involves an analysis of the social functions which adult citizens should be capable of performing. Because it requires a broad grasp of the total environment and deals with larger areas of living. This approach is more applicable to such larger areas of the curriculum as, for example, the whole social studies programme. It may, however, lead to more detailed selection and organization as an outgrowth of the larger planning which is done initially. This procedure entails comprehensive study of social, political, economic, and related conditions, influences, and trends and these may be approached through surveys, study of literature, research and other such methods. A general appraisal of the total situation, the forces and factors influencing it, and what it all means in terms of the social functions and the school is essential.

(vii) The Youth Interests and Needs Procedure

Certain similarities exist between the social functions procedure and that of youth interests and needs. The former takes its scope from the functions of adult-living, ordinarily classified into a number of large areas of persistent life problems. Its sequence preferably is based upon the background, maturity, interests and needs of boys and girls, although it may be chronological and logical. The youth interests and needs procedure involves consideration of persistent problems too, but both its scope and sequence are based upon youth. It involves the personal and social functions of boys and girls rather than of adults. It does not avoid preparing for adult living; in fact, it contributes much to this. But its primary focus is on the here-and-now, young today and the things which concern them.

3. PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

The principles suggested for use in selecting educational content are also useful in considering organization and may be modified slightly to become more applicable for such a purpose. The pattern of the curriculum with its sub-divisions should be planned and structured with due regard to the bases which have been suggested as underlying the operation of the school the purposes of education, the needs and abilities of the learners and the educative process.

- (a) Provide for scope and sequence with flexibility
- (b) Provide a common body of educative experiences, plus those which are essential in meeting special interests and needs.
- (c) Be consonant with the manner in which learning takes place.
- (d) Implement the attainment of stated objectives, and encourage the evaluation of pupil growth and development in terms of these objectives.
- (e) Give consideration to the individual learners, and involve them in cooperative curriculum planning an active learning ventures.
- (f) Relate to the total educational picture in away so as to affect favorably the learning climate in the school and in the community.

3.1 What is Curriculum Organization?

According to Ralph Tyler, important changes in human behaviour are not produced overnight. No learning experience has a very profound influence upon the learner. Changes in ways of thinking, in fundamental habits, in major operating concepts, educational experiences in attitudes, in abiding interests and the like develop slowly. It is only after months and years that we are able to see major educational objectives taking marked concrete shape. In some respects, produce their effects in the way water dripping upon a stone wears it away. In a day or a week or month there is no appreciable change in the stone, but over a period of years definite erosion is noted. Correspondingly, by the cumulation of educational experiences profound changes are brought about in the learner. In order for educational experiences to produce cumulative effects, they must be organized to reinforce each other. Organization is thus seen as an important aspect of curriculum development because it greatly influences the efficiency of instruction and the degree to which major educational changes are brought about in the learners.

3.2 Criteria for Effective Curriculum Organization: Continuity, Sequence and Integration

As discussed by Tyler in *Basic Principles of Curriculum and -Instruction*, there are three major criteria to be met in building an effectively organized group of learning experiences. These are continuity, sequence and integration. A summary of Tyler's discussion is given below:

(i) Continuity

This refers to the vertical reiteration of major curriculum elements. For example, if in social studies" the development of skills in reading social studies material is an important objective, it is necessary to see that there is a recurring and continuing opportunity for these skills to be practiced and developed. This means that overtime the same kinds of skills will be brought into continuing operation. in similar fashion, if an

objective in science is to develop a meaningful concept of energy, it is important that this concept be dealt with again and again in various parts of the science course. Continuity is thus seen to be a major factor in effective vertical organization of curricular contents.

(ii) **Sequence**

This is related to continuity but goes beyond it. It is possible for a major curriculum element to occur again and again but merely at the same level, so that there is no progressive development of understanding or skill or attitude. Sequence as a criterion emphasizes the importance of having each successive experience built upon the preceding one, but goes more broadly and deeply into the matters involved. For example, sequence in the development of reading skill in social studies would involve the provision of increasingly more complex social studies material, increased breadth in the operation of the skill involved in reading these materials, and increased depth of analysis so that the sixth-grade social studies programmes would not simply reiterate the reading skill involved in the fifth-grade but would go into them more broadly and deeply. Correspondingly, sequential development of a concept of energy in the natural science would require that each successive treatment of energy would help the "energy". Sequence emphasizes not duplication but higher levels of treatment with each successive learning experience.

(iii) **Integration**

This refers to the horizontal relationship of curriculum experiences. The organization of these experiences should be such that they help the student increasingly to get a unified view and to unify his behaviour in relation to the elements being dealt with. For example, in developing skill in handling quantitative problems in arithmetic, it is also important to consider the ways in which these skills can be effectively utilized in social studies, in science, in business and other fields so that they are not developed simply as isolated behaviours to be used in a single course, but are increasingly part of the total capacities of the student to use in the varied situations of his daily life. Correspondingly, in developing concepts in the social studies, it is important to see, how these ideas can be related to work going on in other subject fields so that increasingly there is unity in the student's outlook, skills, attitudes and the like.

3.3 Conclusion

The above discussion leads to the conclusion that the most important criterion point for the selection of curriculum content is the Islamic society, which puts equal emphasis upon the materialistic and spiritual development of the individual and society.

Furthermore, the content should be selected and presented in such a way that a balance between 'permanence' and 'change' is established. In other words, we have to conserve the permanent perennial values and also adopt innovations and change. A balanced curriculum would, therefore, be one which takes care of the needs and interests of the individuals as well as society. Further, the selection of such content should satisfy the criteria of validity, significance, interest, and learn ability.

In unit-4, you studied in detail aims, goals and objectives and the importance of stating these clearly as a first step in curriculum planning and evaluation was stressed. In this unit, we have considered the next stage the selection of curriculum content. It is now time to look at the evaluation of the curriculum which is covered in unit-6.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Describe the meaning of 'curriculum content'.
2. Why must we select the content?
3. Describe important levels of content and their functions.
4. What are the important general principles for selecting curricular content as well as learning experiences?
5. Elaborate on the following criteria of content selection:
 - (a) the criterion of validity
 - (b) the criterion of significance
 - (c) the criterion of interest
 - (d) the criterion of learnability.
6. For assessing the validity and significance of the content, a number of criteria of content selection have been discussed by Romine in the book, *Building the High School Curriculum*. Discuss each criterion.
7. Smith, Stanley, and Shores have discussed different procedures for content selection. What one of them do you like to be adopted in Pakistan and why? Explain.
8. What do you mean by the term 'curriculum organization'?
9. Explain the principles of curriculum organization.
10. Ralph Tyler in his famous book *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* emphasized the following criteria for effective curriculum organization:
 - (a) the continuity criterion
 - (b) the sequence criterion
 - (c) the integration criterion.Discuss each and secondary school curriculum in Pakistan under these criteria.
11. Assume that you are a member of a committee to revise the curriculum in a field of your choice. Outline a procedure of content selection which you would recommend to the committee. What difficulties would you anticipate in following this procedure?
12. Identify true/false of the following statements:
 - (a) According to Ralph Tyler, "learning experience refers to the interaction between the learner and external conditions in the environment. T/F
 - (b) The static type of knowledge refers to third level of contents. T/F
 - (c) Newton's laws of motion refer to the normative subjective matter. T/F
 - (d) 'interviewing' is included in the analytical procedure of content Selection. T/F

Answers:

For answers to the SAQ's I to II consult relevant section of the unit.

Answers to Question 12

- | | | |
|----------|----------|----------|
| a. True. | b. False | C. False |
| d. True | C. False | |

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Unit -7

EVALUATION OF CURRICULUM

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INTRODUCTION

Broadly speaking the term evaluation refers to the process undertaken to ascertain as to what extent the aims and objectives of a particular programme in education have been achieved. And if the objectives have not been achieved, what have been the possible hurdles in achieving the desired objectives. Before we discuss the concept of evaluation with reference to curriculum, it seems appropriate to briefly describe the difference between evaluation and measurement.

Evaluation of the curriculum of any specific course deals with all the educational outcomes related to it, whereas measurement deals specifically with those characteristics that can be easily quantified. In evaluation such techniques may have to be evolved as may help the educators to analyse and assess the merits and shortcomings of any curriculum. Further, any problems involved in implementing a curriculum successfully have to be identified and resolved in order to achieve its educational objectives.

The procedures of evaluation involve certain steps which should, however, be flexible enough to be adjusted as per exigencies arising from time to time. These procedures are useful in guiding the thinking of those who are carrying out the evaluation. The steps which have to be evolved by careful and intensive analysis of the types of the tasks involved. While the strategy for curriculum evaluation should be adjusted according to the particular problems and situations under consideration, certain models which will be described in this unit can play a very important part in the process. Curriculum evaluation should not only be a means judging educational effectiveness, but also if applied critically and intelligently, should lead to useful decisions that can serve as a powerful force to improve the educational process as well.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. Mention the main purposes of curriculum evaluation and the extent to which an evaluation can be made.
2. Analyze the goals and objectives of educational programmes for relating them to the evaluation.
3. Design strategies and methods for the evaluation of specific educational programmes in accordance with the needs of the situations.
4. Suggest means of improving educational curricula and processes in the light of the evaluation of the programmes.

1. THE AIMS OF CURRICULUM EVALUATION

When curricular innovations are introduced, it is an important task of educators to determine their effectiveness. An assessment of any new programme has to be made to find out if the desired outcomes are being achieved; and to what extent, if at all, it results in significantly better learning than the existing programme. The use of evaluation techniques should enable curriculum workers to make steady progress in improving the curriculum.

The major aims of curriculum evaluation may thus be summarized as follows:

- (a) to determine the outcomes of a programme;
- (b) to help in deciding whether to accept or reject a programme;
- (c) to ascertain the need for the revision of the course content;
- (d) to help in further development of the curriculum materials for continuities Improvement. Curriculum so that necessary changes can be made in the instructional programme.

In testing and measurement, greater emphasis is placed upon those characteristics that are easy to quantify and thus important outcomes such as problem solving, creativity, critical thinking, work habits, and cultural appreciations tend to be neglected. Uncritical use of testing and heavy reliance on test results have caused a widespread spurious sense of certainty about educational accomplishments. Evaluation, however, is aimed at measuring all the educational outcomes, not just those which lend themselves easily to quantification.

The purposes of evaluation for curriculum innovations include the collection of information to be used as:

- (a) feedback to the innovators for further revision of materials and methods;
- (b) input for decision-making in the course;
- (c) empirical data on behaviour changes under curriculum treatment.

Professional educators who implement the curricula should be held accountable for successful achievement of educational outcomes. This involves:

- (a) developing improved, more comprehensive measurements of pupil performance,
- (b) making analysis of the contributions made to the pupils' performance by educators, administrators, planners, institutions and other agencies in the educational process.

Curriculum evaluation, which should assess all aspects of the programme, should give a clear picture of the educational processes and products that should not only have.

prognostic value as regards the success of the programme, but should also have a diagnostic value in adapting and improving the programme to the satisfaction of all concerned.

1.2 Self-assessment Questions: Exercise]

1. State, in brief, major objectives of curriculum evaluation.
2. Compare the domains of measurement of educational achievement and evaluation of the curriculum.
3. List the processes for which information/data are used in the evaluation of curriculum innovations.
4. Tick true or false against the following statements:
 - (i) Evaluation of curriculum is not related to educational outcomes. T/F
 - (ii) Intelligent handling of curriculum evaluation also helps in improving educational process. T/F
 - (iii) Need for curriculum revision maybe judged through curriculum evaluation. T/F
 - (iv) Curriculum evaluation provides feedback to innovators. T/F

2. EDUCATIONAL GOALS AND CURRICULUM OBJECTIVES

Statements of goals and objectives of the curriculum have many valuable uses. The congruence between the intent of the curriculum and the actual educational outcomes has to be investigated. In addition to abilities, the importance of attitudes, values, interests and sentiments in the educational process has been increasingly recognized. Also the behavioural approach to the statement of objectives have gained a new impetus because of its value in the educational process. Valid evaluation is facilitated by a statement of the aims and objectives of education, arranged in a hierarchy of national, regional, local, subject and course areas drawn to blocks and units and even to daily lessons.

2.1 Development of Educational Goals

Philosophers and educationists have for centuries been discussing the aims and objectives of education. Now more than ever, the problem of educational goals is a top priority though still a largely unresolved problem. The main reason for this is that in spite of all our efforts, the goals produced are essentially nonfunctional, even when stated in behavioural terms.

The goals of education usually tend to be nonfunctional for the following reasons:

- (i) In the statements of objectives, too much reliance is placed on words like, 'continued development of values and character' or 'perfecting the intrinsic powers of every citizen'. While these sound enthusiastic, these lack clarity about the goal and hence, the actual educational process that needs to be adopted for achieving these goals.
- (ii) There is a lack of public involvement with the educational experts and educators in the clarification of objectives. Sometimes public participation narrows down the goals, but ultimately the goals are to be controlled by them.
- (iii) The goals have too often been assumed as given and concentration has been directed to how to achieve the so called assumed or given goals. Changes in goals, that form a part of the educational process, have to be created by every generation.
- (iv) Those at the helm of affairs tend to interpret the goals according to their perception which makes them too hazy.

2.2 Role of Educational Measurement in Defining Goals

Tests are related to the major concerns in the educational process help in the development of meaningful goals without proper measures of the outcomes, there would be no direction as to the goals. The notion of the process of education in an institution, without proper evaluation, would be hazy and narrowly defined. Along with the measurement of basic skills and mastery of academic subjects, academic honesty and a sense of self should be used in the discovery and development of educational goals.

2.3 Consideration in Selecting Goals

The criteria for the goals of education should be developed in relation to:

- (i) the values of the society as a whole and of individual members;
- (ii) the historical background of the society;
- (iii) the potential urge of the society to move forward and progress;
- (iv) the present standards and abilities of the students; and hence the possibility of achieving the goals;
- (v) the educational philosophies of the institutions and the extent of teachability of the subject-matter under study;
- (vi) different theories of learning;
- (vii) the measurability of the goals, if and when achieved. A goal, the achievement of which, is not measurable is a vague goal.

2.4 Educational Objectives and their Taxonomies

As you will recall from unit-4, objectives are more precise than goals. Broad goals are analysed and made more specific and useful as building blocks for instruction.

Although you have read about taxonomies already in unit-4, perhaps it would be worth repeating the basic points again. A taxonomy is a classification scheme and a relatively concise model for the analysis of educational objectives.

You will recall that the taxonomy de others in USA was divided into three domains:

- (i) The Cognitive Domain, dealing with thinking, knowing and problem solving.
- (ii) The Affective Domain, including the objectives dealing with attitudes, values, interests, appreciations and socio-emotional adjustment.
- (iii) The Psychomotor Domain, covering the objectives dealing with manual and motor skills i.e. the activities to be performed as a result of bodily movements.

2.5 The Cognitive Domain

The cognitive domain is divided into:

- (i) The acquisition of knowledge.
- (ii) The development of intellectual skills and abilities necessary to use knowledge.

More specifically, you may remember that Bloom's categories were as follows:

- (i) Knowledge, recalling facts, concepts, trends generalizations, principles, etc.
- (ii) Comprehension, understanding, translation, interpretation, and extrapolation.
- (iii) Application, using abstractions in particular concrete situations.
- (iv) Analysis, breaking down for clarity of thinking of elements, relationships and organizational principles.
- (v) Synthesis, producing a unique communication by reorganizing and rearranging the facts.
- (vi) Evaluation, judging in terms of (i) internal evidence (logical) and (ii) external evidence (consistency of facts developed).

2.6 The Affective Domain

As you have already read in this unit as well as in unit-4, the affective domain is concerned with values, interests and emotions etc. This domain has got the following categories: -

- (i) Receiving (attending), awareness, willingness and-selected attention.
- (ii) Responding, acquiescence, willingness and satisfaction in response.
- (iii) Valuing reference for a value and commitment.
- (iv) Organization as a value and organization of a value-system.
- (v) Characterization of a value complex as a generalization.

2.7 The Psychomotor Domain

This domain includes the following

- (i) Reflex movements: Functions at birth like stretching, stiffening, relaxing.
- (ii) Fundamental movements such as walking, running, jumping, Pulling, pushing etc.
- (iii) Perceptual abilities visual and auditory discrimination, bending, bouncing, eating, writing etc.
- (iv) Physical abilities: Such as strenuous activity, moving quickly and wisely, touching toes, stopping and starting immediately etc.
- (v) Skilled movements: They include typing, skating, filing, juggling, playing musical instruments.
- (vi) Non-discursive communication: It includes behaviour ranging from facial expressions to highly sophisticated communications.

2.8 Educational Objectives: A Position Statement

- (i) The objectives should, usually, be apparent to educators and learners.
- (ii) A sound educational system provides for occasional reassignment of immediate objectives to take advantage of special opportunities, that occurs.
- (iii) Global objectives provide little guidance to teaching and evaluation and specific objectives most often ignore vast concerns.

2.9 Self-assessment Questions: *Exercise No. 2*

1. Explain the value of a systematic statement of objectives of an educational programme for valid evaluation.
2. Why are the goals of the educational process mostly stated in non-functional terms?
3. How are tests related to the objectives of education?
4. What are the main related, variables in the development of criteria for the goals of education?
5. Define and explain the different categories falling under the cognitive domain of educational objectives.
6. How is the affective domain of educational objectives related to curriculum evaluation?

3. DESIGNING EVALUATION STUDIES

Having briefly revised objectives, let us look more closely at ways of evaluating the extent to which educational goals and objectives have been achieved. An evaluation study requires a lot of thinking as well as proper planning to get useful results. Generally, most attention has been placed on the evaluation of the content,-- the basic on which the curriculum development was approached. Recent trends towards more process- concept or behavioural based programmes demand more adequate definition of evaluation, better related criteria for judging value and more sophisticated mechanisms for organizing the procedures and models for reporting. Every evaluation study has peculiarities of its own but the design of the study has to be planned using rational procedures. Various strategies and models for designing evaluation studies have been tried and a summary-statement of the procedures involved in some of them will now be attempted.

In organizing a curriculum evaluation, logically and intelligently, leading to decisions on the effectiveness of the programme and its possible improvement, one suggested strategy involves the following:

- (a) Specification, refinement, or modification of programme goals and evaluation.
- (b) Planning for an approximate evaluation design.
- (c) Selection or development of data-gathering methods.
- (d) Collection of relevant data.
- (e) Processing, summarizing and analysis of data.
- (f) Contrasting of data and objectives.
- (g) Reporting and feedback of results.

3.1 Steps in the Evaluation Process

The evaluation process should include the following steps:

- (i) The involvement of all concerned in the study as facilitators of programme evaluation, such as:
 - (a) related groups, boards, parents,
 - (b) professional individuals, psychologists, teachers,
 - (c) Student groups.
- (ii) The formation of a cohesive model of broad goals and specific behavioural objectives, arranged in hierarchical order from general to specific outcomes in respect of all the three domains of objectives;
- (iii) The translation of specific objectives into a communicable form, applicable to facilitating learning; and the application of instructional strategies with content and process components.
- (iv) The choice of instrumentation (test, observations, interviews, etc.) which will allow one to make inference about programme effectiveness.
- (v) Periodic observation of behaviours as valid and reliable indices.
- (vi) The analysis of data, given by measurers, by typical statistical methods.
- (vii) The interpretation of data relevant to specific objectives and broad goals to allow conclusions to be drawn about the effectiveness of the programme and instructional strategies.

- (viii) Recommendations culminating in further modifications and revisions of broad goals and specific objectives to produce substantial improvements in the programme.

3.2 Methods of Curriculum Evaluation

Some of the methods used to determine the effectiveness of an educational programme are outlined below:

- (i) *The cosmetic method* deals with the apparent activities and face value of the programme. Evidence about students' learning is not collected.
- (ii) *The cardiac method* involves an empirical approach. The effectiveness of the programme is shown through the collection of data.
- (iii) *The colloquial method* recommends the discussion of the finding on the programmes' effectiveness by a group of people associated with it.
- (iv) *The curricular method* attempts to show how the new programme could fit into the old one for improvement.
- (v) *The computational method* uses the statistical analysis of the data on performance in the programme.

It may be mentioned here that each of the above cited methods has got its own minus-plus points. It is not, therefore, advisable to recommend or adopt exclusively any one method at the cost of others for all situations and purposes. It should, therefore, mainly depend upon the relevant crucial factors which should help in determining the method of evaluation to be adopted.

3.3 Activities

- i. Get hold of some study reports on curriculum evaluation from the Curriculum Wing and identify their salient features.
- ii. Interview some of the curriculum evaluators and note down the major steps followed by them in curriculum evaluation.

3.4 Problems of Research Design in Curriculum Evaluation

Research projects on the effectiveness of the curriculum are carried on, generally, using a comparison between experimental and control groups. In the experimental group, the curriculum variable interacts with many other elements in the teaching process—the methods of instruction; the training and indoctrination of teachers etc. A *control* group is a group of subjects (the students being included for the evaluation design) as similar as possible to the experimental group, the difference being that they are not given the experimental treatment. A statistical comparison is then made between the achievements of the two groups to discover whether there is any significant difference between them.

As alternative to such an experimental approach to curriculum evaluation the following may be suggested:

- (a) An attempt might be made to isolate characteristics of a curriculum to vary them independently. For example, teachers' attitudes vary and are not under control but

can be measured and their effect on performance studied; or innovative material might be used with teacher training.

- (b) Statistics could be used to suggest the process of learning as related to curriculum elements. The investigation could look for trends, ups-and-downs.
- (c) Clinical studies can be done on developmental psychology problems.
- (d) The curriculum variable could be redefined at the point of its effect, the interaction between the teachers and students. Observations of the process and interviews could be recorded for an assessment of teachers' attitudes.

Comparison of parallel experimental and control groups may not be meaningful as this approach assumes that all the relevant variables (except the curriculum variable) have been constant. But in such complex situations, this may be difficult to achieve. Instead of taking the groups simultaneously, evaluation using longitudinal studies would consider the curriculum as a process, a succession of events changing systematically over-time.

In evaluation, behavioural definitions of the objectives are demanded from the course designers. Evaluators tend to equate behaviour with items in the cognitive processes. However, achievement tests may be sufficient to assess the objectives of the curriculum. The study of such typical performance variables as attitudes, learning and teaching the development of instruments for measuring such variables are among the major problems of evaluation studies. Also the new curricula are subject oriented and the evaluators' behavior concept is often rejected by the subject disciplines and the process of teaching has to be examined; and all those concerned with education should contribute not only to the improvement of a particular subject in particular circumstances but also the understanding of the process of teaching and learning.

The purpose of evaluation is to determine the success or failure of any programme in achieving its objectives. In attempting to evaluate a programme, a record has to be maintained for investigation regarding:

- (i) The objectives of the programme.
- (ii) The environment provided.
- (iii) The transactions between the teachers and students.
- (iv) The students' progress.
- (v) The side-effects of other variables.
- (vi) The merits and short-comings seen from divergent viewpoints.

Depending on the interests/intents of evaluators in the concerned field and considering the entity, standards and anticipated decisions, *some major antecedents* variables, *transactions* between and outcomes are listed below:

- (i) Antecedents
 - Student characteristics
 - Teacher characteristics
 - Curricular context
 - Curricular context

Instructional materials
Physical plant
School organization
Community context

- (ii) **Transactions**
Communication flow
Time allocation
Sequence of events
Reinforcement schedule
Social climate
- (iii) **Outcomes**
Student achievement
Student attitudes
Student motor skills
Effect on teachers
Institutional effects

Such a description as given above helps to identify the many characteristics of programme to be evaluated. The evaluator must choose the variables to be described and judged according to his interest and talent. As for the sources of information they may be described as teachers, administrators, parents and so on. The evaluator has to choose the relevant variables by using.

- (i) Intents
- (ii) Observations
- (iii) Standards
- (vi) Judgements

To be more specific:

- (i) The *intents* are indicated by the different goals of the people involved.
- (ii) The *observations* refer to the perceptions of what actually happens during the implementation of the programme.
- (iii) The *standards* depend upon the opinions of experts as to what should happen.
- (iv) The judgements reflect the feelings of the people about aspects of the situation.

3.5 Course Improvement Through Evaluation

In order to find out ways of improving a course to enhance learning, its effectiveness must be assessed. Data collection should include information which will help in evaluating the difficult area of the affective outcomes of the newly developed curriculum. The most useful evaluation information is that which allows for adjustment and modification in the developmental stages of the curriculum, rather than simply examining the end-products only. This, of course, would be a deviation from the traditional testing approach.

Any tests used should fit into the contents of the curriculum and should produce reliable and valid scores. Test results may soon be forgotten, however, instead of being followed up for use. Remember that the purpose of evaluation is to study the changes in the pupils following the programme and to use this information to identify where improvements should be made to facilitate improved learning.

Opinions about an educational programme are often biased. The gathering of data using appropriate tests produces more objective results. The achievements of standards should be measured through the use of standardized tests of all relevant areas of proficiency, while attitudes can be assessed through interviews and questionnaires.

But systematic evaluation involves more than simply administering tests and analysing the results. Apart from measuring proficiency and attitudes, approaches to evaluation can include, for example, *process* studies of classroom events and follow-up studies of the later careers of the subjects. And the results of evaluation studies should be implemented to produce improvements in the curriculum.

3.6 Conclusion

Old habits of thought and techniques are poor guides for course improvement. For this, more systematic evaluation is necessary. Such evaluation should produce a description of the outcomes of a programme on a broad scale, to ascertain the changes produced during a course and the revision needed.

Even the collection of appropriate data will make little contribution, if it leads only to approval or disapproval of a programme. Evaluation is a fundamental part of curriculum development, not just an appendage. It involves collecting facts that the course developer can and will *use* to do a better job.

3.7 Self-assessment Questions: *Exercise No. 3*

1. Develop a logical strategy for designing an evaluation of an educational programme.
2. List the steps involved in the evaluation process.
3. Distinguish between cosmetic, cardiac, colloquial and computational methods of curriculum evaluation. Which one of them do you think to be the most appropriate for curriculum evaluation and why?
4. Explain the experimental research approach to finding out the effectiveness of a new curriculum.
5. Identify True/False from the following statements:
 - (a) Evaluation is concerned with an overall outcomes of a programme. T/F
 - (b) Measurement deals with easily quantifiable aspects of evaluation. T/F
 - (c) Interpretation of educational goals by those who are at the helm of affairs makes the former too hazy. T/F
 - (d) Affective domain of objectives deals with thinking, knowing and problem solving T/F
 - (e) Tests need to provide help in developing meaningful goal. T/F

- (f) Recent trends in evaluation are not directed towards process-concept and behavioral-based programmes. T/F
- (g) Development of instruments like tests, observation, interview should precede the development of educational goals. T/F
- (h) Data collected for evaluation may be analysed by any statistical method. T/F
- (i) The cosmetic method of curriculum evaluation deals with empirical approach T/F

3.8 Answers to the Self-assessment Questions: Exercises -13

Exercise No. 1

For answers to questions 1 to 3 see relevant sections of the unit.

- Q. 4 (i) F. (ii) T. (iii) T. (iv)

Exercise No. 2

For answers to question. 1 to 6 see relevant sections of the unit.

Exercise No. 3

For answers to questions 1 to 4 see relevant sections of the unit.

- Q. 5 (a) T. (b) T. (c) T (d) F.
 (e) T. (f) F. (g) F. (h) F.
 (i) F.

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Unit- 8

CURRICULUM AND DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

There is a growing concern in the developing countries to reconstruct educational systems to respond to the socio-economic changes necessary for providing a *minimum* quality of life to the masses who live untouched by economic growth. This had led to a critical reappraisal of the entire structure and content of education in these countries. More and more countries in the Asian region are now shifting their curricular emphasis from general and theoretical education to some form of productive work by weaving community skills and crafts in the school curriculum. The move towards rural transformation through school curricula stems from the fact that the majority of the people in these countries live in rural areas.

Most countries with a sizeable proportion of their population in rural areas living in acute conditions of poverty and ignorance are of necessity responsive to the growing demands of modern times to provide purposeful, skill-oriented education to vast masses of its people to enable them to engage in new patterns of self-employment and gainful occupations within their communities. Without this, education, in the context of general poverty, is a luxury which the rich may well afford but the poor do not need.

Curricular reforms introduced during the past few years in countries of the region have made initial moves towards this direction by introducing skill education at various levels. Unfortunately, these reforms have not yet stabilized for a variety of reasons, some of which are:

- (a) ineffective articulation and transmission of the concept of work-oriented education,
- (b) resource constraints,
- (c) the traditional respect for academic and theoretical education,
- (d) ineffective mechanism for implementation of suggested improvements,
- (e) lack of arrangements for adequate supply of suitable teachers and essential equipment for their programmes.

Anyhow, the consciousness to improve the situation is certainly very conspicuous both at the national and the provincial levels. The study of this unit will hopefully help clarify the basic concepts about this movement and facilitate the streamlining of other necessary arrangement to implement such an innovative programme in an efficient manner.

Since the approach is similar in most developing countries of the world, this unit contains some relevant extracts from APEID-UNESCO publications.

Now let us see the situation in Pakistan.

Pakistan is a poor country mainly because of its untapped and unexploited resource potential, poorly planned growth and uneven distribution of resources. More than 70% of the country's population lives in rural areas where the main source of subsistence is agricultural and related occupations. The bulk of the population in rural areas is living, at best, at survival level.

In the rural areas, people are continuously confronted with survival problems of food, clothing and shelter. The basic amenities of sanitation, health, education and other social welfare services are, at best, marginal and at worst almost non-existent in the rural areas. Most often educational facilities either are not available or, if available, they are so poor and depressing that a child would normally feel extremely uncomfortable. For instance, there are hardly any buildings and furniture and most often the children have to squat on the floor in the open, exposed to the vagaries of weather, or are huddled in darkrooms. There are no toilets and facilities/opportunities for games or recreation are non-existent and children suffer from malnutrition and hence severe diseases. In the cold and hot season, families are exposed to the treacheries of weather owing to poor accommodation and insufficient clothing combined with poor nutrition. In a number of villages and backward areas even drinking water is not available, it is a common sight in the villages that animals and human beings use the same pond for drinking water. Similarly, in the areas, where it is extremely cold, such as the northern areas of Gilgit and Baltistan, animals and human beings are huddled together in the same room in the night to protect themselves from the severe cold.

In a situation like this where the majority of the population is confronted with basic survival problems, the urgent will have a tendency to take precedence over the important and the priorities would tend to tilt in favour of survival. Education, therefore, in a society like this, must contribute towards facing survival problems and improving the life style of the people.

Need and Relevance

Whatever development may have taken place in the country, whatever may have been the increase in the national income or export outputs etc., there has not been any significant improvement in the life styles of the common man, particularly, in the rural areas. If at all economic development took place, its effects did not percolate to the lives of the ignorant, down-trodden masses. This is not peculiar to Pakistan; in fact, the situation is strikingly similar in most of the developing countries of the world.

There has, therefore, been a growing interest in Pakistan as well as other developing countries of the Asian, African and Latin American regions to link education with development. As the need of such an effort increased, the consciousness sharpened and gained momentum. Consequently, several development-oriented programmes appeared. The Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development in 1974. Similar programmes for Arab States, Africa and Latin America also started subsequently. It is also relevant to mention that while the effort is aimed at development, the focus is on the poor down-trodden people particularly in the rural areas and deprived population groups.

The pressing problem of education for community development has led educators and development planners to a serious re-thinking on the whole question of development, and its relationship with education in the Asian region.

Education in Pakistan's Context

In Pakistan, basically the entire problems stem from the fact that during the days of foreign rule, the colonialists devised an educational system which would, on the one hand, reduce the productivity of the locals and thus enhance their dependence on foreign sources and, on the other, produce people who would have a respect for the foreign culture and way of life and would make a positive contribution toward its perpetuation and continuance.

Thus with the imposition of this system on us, education, which was in the hands of foreigners, lost its contact and linkage with the masses and the socio-economic context in which they lived. The content of education became a source of cultural alienation so that its recipients became strangers to their own society and lost touch with their needs. They were ignorant of the problems faced by the masses. Education became counter-productive, theoretical and academic with no roots in the community. So in the Pakistan context while it is recognized, that to be able to read and write, to collect social and scientific information are goals worth pursuing, theoretical education for its own sake becomes a questionable Endeavour, an effort out of place and meaningless. Let us take an imaginary situation which is exaggerated only to bring into sharp focus the need for relating education to community development. This is It:

Imagine a far-flung area in rural setting situated in the mountains. The area is by and large, barren and, therefore, the population is very thinly scattered. Most of the inhabitants depend for their livelihood upon cattle grazing and reading. Water source is a couple of kilometers away. During the winter, cold is very severe most often well below freezing point at night. At night, the winds howl and groan. Occasionally, one could hear the cry of jackals. Around that place, there are scattered fields where some corn and wheat is grown there is no rain, the land remains barren.

In an area like this imagine a small hut which accommodates a family of five children, mother and father. During winter, at night the cattle also live inside the hut. On a winter night the cold is severe. The winds are howling. Outside it is all dark. Inside the hut there is complete dark. One of the five children of the family is suffering from high fever and is coughing continuously. Every time there is a fit of cough; one has the feeling that the child's breathing is going to be choked to a point that he may expire. The breathing of the child is irregular and spasmodic. It groans and whistles. Because of the fever and cough, the child has not taken anything for the last two days. In any case, there is not very much with the family that the child could eat. The mother of the child has not slept for a few nights because she has been sitting night after night holding the child in her lap. The child's lips are dry and parched and there is no water to moisten them. The occasional tear that trickles down the mother's eye, moistens the child's lips.

In the absence of any treatment or medicine, the mother is giving the child emotional Support to recover and is praying to God for help. The father is taking care of the other

children who are uncomfortably huddled in one torn blanket. There is nothing that the parents can do to save the child who is involved in a life and death struggle for the last 24 hours. The parents and other children are anxiously watching the struggle, but are helpless. The family is surrounded with hunger, poverty, ignorance and with the shadow of death, looming large on it. There is complete darkness all round the darkness of the night and the darkness of Ignorance.

If you are thinking of educating this family, a number of possible questions arise. Some of them are as follows:

- (i) What kind of education would one like to give to the children of this family?
- (ii) Would one like to say to the parents, when they are confronted with a situation like this, that they should send their children to the school?
- (iii) How would one convince the parents of these children to send them to school?
- (iv) What modifications would one like to bring about in the educational programmes to make them respond to the needs of a community of this kind?
- (v) How would one sell educational programmes to members of a community like this?

In trying to find tentative answers to the above questions, perhaps it is possible to understand at the conceptual level the pressing need for relating school curriculum to community development.

Activity-1

Propose a set of useful and productive activities for primary school village with such families that solves their problems and promotes their economic well-being.

OBJECTIVE'S

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. Describe the progressive linkage of education with economic development with reference to National Education Policies in Pakistan.
2. Give a general view of education and development projects and approaches in the Asian region.
3. Describe the various aspects of the complex nature of community development.
4. Identify the problems of the community particularly in rural areas and the role of education in solving those problems.
5. Design educational programmes which are relevant to the surroundings.
6. Draw the implications of development particularly in respect of new roles and responsibilities of teachers.
7. Assess and evaluate the role of the existing curricula in practical problems and Critically review the implementation of educational programmes.

1. EDUCATIONAL POLICIES AND DEVELOPMENT TRENDS

Educational policy makers and planners have been sensitive to this problem, though not to the extent that it deserved. Even in the initial stages, although, at the policy level the expression of this particular role and dimension of education is distinct, yet at the implementation level, owing to paucity of resources, it did not get the priority it deserved. However, one may accept the excuse of shortages of resources and the failure may be referred to the major implementing agency. What is your opinion?

After the independence of Pakistan, the first Education Conference at Karachi took Policy statement for education, is reproduced below.

"You know that the importance of education and the right cannot be over-emphasized. Under foreign rule for over a century, sufficient attention has not been paid to the education of our people and if we are to make real, speedy and substantial progress, we must earnestly tackle this question and bring our educational policy and programme to the genius of our people, consonant with our history and culture and having regard to the modern conditions and vast developments that have taken place all over the world.

There is no doubt that the future of our state will and must depend upon the type of education we give to our children and the way in which we bring them up as future citizens of Pakistan. Education does not merely mean academic education. There is immediate and urgent need for giving scientific and technical education to our people in order to build up our future economic life and to see that our people take to science, commerce, trade and particularly well planned industries. We should not forget that we have to compete with the world which is moving very fast in this direction". (Extracts from National Educational Conference, 1947 proceedings of the Pakistan Educational Conference, Ministry of Education (Interior Division, p. 6).

1.1 Activity-2

Draw implications of the Quaid-i-Azam's message for developing secondary school curriculum for Pakistan.

In the following pages we review the development oriented concepts found in different statements, policies on education formulated and announced in Pakistan from time to time.

1.2 The Inaugural Address of Dr. Fazalur Rehman

Dr. Fazalur Rehman, the then Education Minister, addressing the Education Conference, 1947, said:

"Our existing educational system, as originally conceived by Macaulay, was intended to serve a narrow, utilitarian purpose and its growth has been largely a matter of artificial improvisation. It has been rightly condemned for the lack of realism and its inability to adjust itself to the needs of a rapidly changing society, its over-literary bias and its utterly uninspiring, soulless character. For a succinct but brief summing up of the aims of education in a democratic society, one cannot do better than quote a living authority on education. "Education", he says, "is a vast continent and it will make far clearer thinking if we divide it into three provinces..., corresponding to the three main needs of human life. make a living. All men need to make a living not a bare one, but the best that conditions allow. All men live in a society, all men have a personality to develop and the power of living will or ill. For all these education must provide and it must therefore include a vocational element, in social, or as the Greeks would have called it, a political element, and a spiritual element. Men must learn to earn a living, to be good members of a society, to understand the meaning of the phrase "the good life", and help them to achieve these three ends. It must do this not for a limited class but for every citizen, though it will do it in different ways for different people.

In mentioning the third element of education, namely, vocational education, be understood. to minimize its importance; in as such as it For the material existence of society, it must receive first consideration in any plan of educational reconstruction. In the last analysis, however, all the three elements spiritual, social and vocational must cohere and form an integral whole for thus alone can we achieve a complete fusion between the spirit and substance of education".

1.3 National Commission on Education 1959

From here we jump over to the observation of the *National Commission on Education*. We lay stress throughout our report on the concept of education as a public investment in economic development. This argument, we are convinced, is academically sound and we could cite many examples of public figures and economic specialists in North America, Europe, and the Soviet Union who subscribe to this view. The history of the economic development of these countries begins with the education of their citizens, and the remarkable progress they have made in developing their national wealth is largely accounted for by the efforts they have made in educating their citizens at all levels. The advantages of technological progress have been publicly recognized in Pakistan and incorporated in various development plans of previous governments. We are convinced that one of the missing elements which has partially accounted for our failure to accomplish these plans has been the insufficient attention paid to the training of scientific personnel and the large body of technicians and vocationally skilled workers necessary for the practical application of the advanced work of the scientist and engineer. We believe that we shall continue to fall short of our development goals until full provision has been made for the training of skilled personnel at all levels. The reading of our chapters on engineering, technical and vocational, commercial, and secondary education will show not only how provision for the training in these fields can be made but also what are the different categories of personnel needed in our conditions and what are the

special qualities that they should possess. We believe that, in particular, there is need for the training of a leadership group in engineering, the skills of government and commercial development. This group should possess imagination, high professional ability, and a determination to use local resources and not remain dependent on the skills and material imported from outside. We stress throughout our report that one of our greatest national assets is our manpower but that this asset can only become the creator of national wealth when its energies have been released and enriched with the skills and training necessary in a complex modern society.

We have given special emphasis on the need for scientists, engineers, and technicians because we believe that this has been our greatest weakness and the greatest failing of our education system. However, in Pakistan there is, if anything, a more pressing need for the development of agriculture and the utilization of the products of our soil. Our present methods are in the main primitive and have led to more than one food crisis for our people; in addition, they provide little scope for the whole range of industrial use of agricultural products which modern science has made available. (Extracts from the "Report of the Commission National Education" Ministry of Education, January-August, 1959, 11-12).

1.4 The New Education Policy 1969

The entire educational structure has to be reorganized and reoriented according to new demands and requirements. The New Education Policy (1969) rightly pointed out the colossal wastage of national resources in the field of education. Referring to the twin purpose of elimination of unemployment among the educated youth and the redesigning of education, the policy states:

"If this problem is to be tackled, it will be necessary to completely reorganize the educational system at the secondary level. At present, education at this level is designed not so much as a terminal stage but as a preparation for entry to college and later to university. As such, there is preponderance of academic learning and not enough attention is paid to vocational and technical training at this stage. No more than 4% of the total enrolment at the secondary stage is in vocational and technical subjects. This situation must be reversed. A massive shift towards vocationally and technically oriented education is required if the secondary stage of education is to stop wasting resources in producing unemployable manpower which continues to overcrowd the already meagre college and university facilities and swell the ranks of the educated unemployed, while development needs of the technically trained manpower remain unfulfilled."

Elaborating the technical component the policy further states:

"The educational system should aim at providing vocational training to at least 60% of the students leaving the elementary school between the ages

of 13 and 15 so that, they can acquire useful skills which would enable them to earn their living. In rural areas, an attempt should be made to make vocational education agriculture-oriented. Commercial subjects, book-keeping, legal drafting, typing and shorthand, etc. should be introduced into the school curricula at this stage. To encourage the vocational and technical education, the system should provide for recognition of accomplishment by introducing the diploma and degrees such as Metric (Tech.), Inter (Tech.) and B. S. (Tech.) in well defined technologies like printing, wood-work, plumbing, tailoring etc. which would add to the dignity of labour. In this way, it is hoped that the educational system will be able to serve better the development needs of the society and, at the same time, lead to a reduction of the problem of educated unemployed."

1.5 The Education Policy 1972-80

The Education Policy 1972-80 envisaged to make elementary education productive and useful. It clearly states:

"The system of elementary education will be so designed that the knowledge and skills imparted, attitudes implanted, and the learning methods employed will ensure that those not proceeding to secondary education can be usefully absorbed in the economy of the local community.

For those leaving school after class VIII, special courses of training in the skills of their vocational interest will be provided in the schools workshops. It is essential that children who drop out after class VIII should carry with them enough skills to return to their local or ancestral vocation as better, farmers or craftsmen...."

Regarding the integration of general and technical education, the 1972-80 policy further added:

"The integration of general and technical education will equip secondary and college students for gainful employment, including self-employment, in industry, agriculture, business, home economics and education in addition to providing them a programme of general education. The areas of vocational occupational studies for which facilities will be developed include: electronics; auto-electricity; population; vegetable farming; sericulture; crop and livestock production; shorthand; typewriting, insurance and estate brooking; clearing, forwarding and shipping practices; home management; cooking and baking; first aid and home-nursing; food production and preservation; etc.

Education will be introduced as an elective subject at the matriculation, intermediate and degree levels. In this way, a major part of the vocational training of teachers will be conducted in institutions".

1.6 The National Education Policy, 1978

Watch carefully the renewed emphasis on technical played in the National Education Policy of 1978:

"In spite of several efforts in the past the technical and vocational education is still not job-oriented. Moreover, there are hardly any arrangements for identifying the needs and providing training to 80% rural population and to make them more productive in order to strengthen this large Sector of our economy. In order to improve technical and vocational education, it has been decided to introduce production-oriented curriculum related to the market requirements in all technical and vocational institutes. Advisory committees having representatives of trade and industry will be constituted to keep the training responsive to the changing market requirements.

All the technical and vocational institutions will be encouraged by generating funds for supplementing their resources by producing saleable goods during training. Small production units will be established with technical and vocational institutes under a phased programme. Evening programmes will be introduced in technical and vocational institutes for the benefit of the community, wherever needed. Separate vocational schools for dropouts of the school system will also be established. Equipment needed for various levels of technical and vocational institutes will be standardised. A mechanism for standardizing, testing and certification of technical and vocational skills required through formal, non-formal, or traditional system of training in consultation with trade, industry and other users of the output of these institutions will be introduced.

Practical on-the-job supervised training for Diploma and B. Tech. students will be made compulsory and suitable legislation for providing this training in industrial organizations and undertakings will be enacted. In order to provide close liaison with industry the teachers of polytechnics and technical colleges will be encouraged to provide consultancy and advisory services to the industry. Personnel from industry would also be invited to advise these institutions on production methods. A teacher training college for the training of teachers of technical and vocational institutes will be established at national level."

1.7 Activity-3

Analyses the policy declarations regarding work-oriented and development-related education from 1947 onward to the present education policy with a view to pinpoint the cause for repeated statements of the same type. Also identify the factors responsible for the successive failure of various education policies with special reference to technical and vocational education

1.8 New Education Policy 1978

The New Education Policy, as referred to above states that it is the declared objective to further consolidate, strengthen and improve the agro-technical programmes started under the 1972-80 policy and to introduce similar programmes of indigenous skill training in the rural areas namely the village workshop schools etc.

1.9 Problems and Issues

There is a variety of reservations that could be expressed about these programmes'. Some of them are as follows:

- (a) programmes required certain physical facilities, equipment and trained For providing physical facilities and equipment, finances were not made available as one would expect in a country like Pakistan, the resources are limited. Moreover, there has been and still is an acute shortage of teachers in technical subjects.
- (b) The introduction of skill training as a separate cluster of curricular activities gives the impression that only these activities relate to development whereas the rest of the curriculum does not. This is a serious problem which brings a number of distortions in our educational system.
- (c) The technical training programmes were organized in a manner that they were seen as an activity in itself, the final object and outcome of which was success or failure in examinations. No linkage was established between this programme and community requirements which could have inducted the students and teachers into community development programmes. Perhaps this was the greatest weakness of the programme.

As a matter of fact if education is to be something directly relevant and meaningful to the learner and to the community to which, he or she belongs, the entire educational package has to be related to the improvement of the quality of life. In a poor country where there is hunger, poverty and deprivation education has no chances of acceptance, continuance and growth unless it addresses itself to these problems.

The implication of this approach to curriculum issues is that community members and teachers should have the right to frame a curriculum related to local needs as seen and felt by them. In the context of the Pakistani situation, however, we are confronted with a dilemma. Whether it is possible to make a choice from a variety of curriculum offerings, in Pakistan curriculum, syllabi, textbooks and standards of education are on the current list of federal subjects. The implication of this is that, if and when, the federal government decides to legislate on the subject of curriculum and syllabi, the federal legislation would take precedence over provincial laws in this respect. In the present situation, the Government of Pakistan has brought out a federal legislation which empowers it to prepare the schemes of studies and prescribe courses, of studies and syllabi from class I to XII all over Pakistan. Although schemes of studies and curricula for various levels and subjects are developed with the participation of teachers, parents and various provincial agencies, the net result is that the schemes of studies and the curricula, textbooks, etc. approved and prescribed by the Federal Government, have to be followed by all and no courses of studies can be taught without the consent of the Federal Minister of Education.

One of the major handicaps in the proper implementation of this approach is the attitudes, skills and competencies of teachers who are to be the agents of change. This

again is a concern shared by most countries of the region where rural transformation is becoming a high priority.

There have been a series of seminars, workshops and conferences on the education and training of teachers to enable them to fulfill their new role. Some extracts of the reports of these seminars, workshops etc. are included in this unit.

One of the major reforms in the teacher education curricula in Pakistan is the introduction of "Community Development" as a compulsory subject. There are also regular in-service training programmes for agro-technical teachers at various teacher training centers.

It is the intention of this unit to revive and re-vitalize this concept of community development in the curricular offerings of education in Pakistan. This would help to create effective linkages between problems of the community and prospects of the solution on the one hand and the educational programme on the other. The practical exercises that follow will help the learners to have an in-depth experience of this approach, to clarify concepts and to find some practical propositions that would relate education to community development.

2. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS-1

1. In order to know a community and its problems it is necessary that basic information about the community in relevant fields is available. You may, therefore, choose a rural community or a poor urban community nearby and design a comprehensive survey of the community. If the survey attempts to identify the major problems confronted and possible solutions through implementation of educational programmes, it should be divided into two parts, some of the possible points on which information given below:

(a) **Problems - Areas:**

- (i) Size of population
- (ii) Population structure and growth rate
- (iii) Size of family
- (iv) Per capita income
- (v) Housing
- (vi) Sanitation water
- (vii) Food and nutrition
- (viii) Education
- (ix) Communication - road, railway, air, telephone, telegraph, post
- (x) Recreational facilities - games, cinemas, parks etc.
- (xi) Any other problems.

(b) **Potentials:**

- (i) Size of trained manpower: agriculture, industry, health education
- (ii) Raw materials available
- (iii) Avenues of enhancing production
- (iv) Avenues/possibilities of improving facilities of health, nutrition, education, recreation.

2. Select any particular level of education (primary, middle, secondary and higher secondary education) and study its scheme of studies and the goals and aims applicable to that level of education. Then select a subject area, study its curriculum and textbooks and identify how at various levels, practical exercises can be devised which would relate to practical problems confronted by the community.

3. Prepare a brief report based on the findings of surveys and studies involved in exercises 1 and 2. It may be pointed out for your guidance that the report would by and large cover the following points:

- (a) Rationale of conducting the exercise
- (b) Aims and objectives
- (c) Design of the survey and instruments
- (d) Major findings
- (e) Review of curricula studied
- (f) Methodology followed in selection of appropriate units
- (g) Methodology in selection of student population
- (h) Ways of contact with community members, teachers and students
- (i) Evaluation of the exercise and
- (j) Synthesis of experiences gained.

3. EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT IN ASIAN REGION

In some Asian countries, the dual urban/rural economy often reflects various degrees of modernization or adherence to traditional ways of living. This dichotomy is a consequence of an imbalance in socio-economic development, suggesting that national policies need clearer definition and continuity and perhaps re-evaluation of priorities. The problem is compounded by the migration of people from rural to the urban areas, aggravating unemployment in the latter.

Demographic factors exacerbate the situation, magnifying the problem of development in to crisis proportions. Most of the countries in the area have a runaway population growth and a high dependency ratio. The result of a population structure is that overwhelmingly young, over 50% belong to the group aged 21 years or below, which is concentrated with low productivity. As a further consequence of uneven, slow economic programme and excessive population growth, there are severe shortages of food, social services, water supply, and qualified manpower, as well as inadequacies in infrastructure all of which are essential to national development

(Reference: Teacher Education and Curriculum for Development, APEID- UNESCO, Regional Office, Bangkok, 1975, pp. 3-5.)

Educators are confronted with the problems of formulating and implementing educational policies, programmes and practices consistent with developmental goals. Inequalities in educational opportunity, lack of relevance in curricula to functional needs, irrelevance of educational programmes to social as well as individual requirements demand immediate rectification. It is in this context that educators from Asian countries deliberate on how to promote rural transformation, how to improve health and nutrition and how to foster employment skills through education in their respective countries.

The emphasis on rural transformation derives from the fact that the majority of the people in these countries live in rural areas. While producing food for the urban sector, they are simultaneously exploited by being deprived of the minimum conditions for decent living. The modern buildings and conveniences of the Asian city contrast with the austere conditions of the countryside, despite the natural beauty. The problems of rural development are so diversified and complex that only a multi-faceted attack is likely to help resolve them. Therefore, a coordinated, institutional and concerted approach is more likely to have maximum impact than a fragmented one. Through the schools and other agencies engaged in non-formal training, education can contribute significantly to rural development. particular, school teachers and community trainers should realise that a large part of the work of promoting social change is the crucial one of educating rural people—children, youth and adults - to identify their most pressing problems and actively participate in resolving them. This cannot be over-emphasize, for ultimately it is the will and motivation of the rural people to help themselves that will stimulate and sustain rural development.

The rationale for considering health and nutrition as urgent areas of concern is self-evident. Only healthy and adequately fed people can provide the manpower base necessary for socio-economic growth. Although there are current projects in many countries designed to improve health and diet, malnutrition continues to plague the people of the region. Despite recent technological advantages in this field, total food production has consistently been outpaced by a geometric population increase. The limited resources and personnel at each country's disposal should be harnessed towards drawing up a clear and continuous programme to provide people of the region with proper food and the knowledge of proper nutritional habits. With respect to health in many countries in Asia, a large number of sick people die without receiving medical attention. What is needed is a health-care system that is adapted to neglected rural and deprived urban areas, there is urgent need for a core of health and nutrition education at the basic level, linked to national and nutrition education at the basic level, linked to national and local efforts to establish adequate health and nutrition standards.

The conventional conception of employable skills refers to those that prepare the learner directly for employment. It has been proposed that its meaning should be extended to include other simple skills that enhance an individual's capacity to function as a productive member of the community. Acquisition of simple elementary skills which are needed in homes, schools and community, and can be taught by these agencies, will strengthen the individual's capacity to be an active and productive member of his community.

An international workshop made it explicit that the relevance of curricular offerings to individual, community and societal needs becomes a major consideration for assessing their worth. The participants expressed the view that the task of curriculum development in the area of rural transformation, health and nutrition, and employable skills entailed the collective and continuing effort of teachers, educators, specialists and representatives of the community. Questions of relevant content and sound pedagogical strategy must be decided before suitable curricular programmes can be formulated. The important point is that the purpose of curriculum development should be kept in mind: meeting the needs of learners; and national development. This apparent duality of objectives should not be misinterpreted: they are mutually reinforcing because an individual who learns something valuable and useful for himself is at the same time a useful member of the community.

In the matter of teacher education, the workshop stressed the need for changes in teacher education programmes to reflect the emerging trends in teacher training curricula. The workshop also emphasized that even if teacher education programmes are modified to prepare teachers for greater involvement in national development it is equally necessary to restructure curricula in the schools for the same purpose.

4. ANALYSIS AND COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CURRENT PROJECTS AND PLANS

A major shift in school curriculum is under-way in many countries of the region in response to the need to accelerate the pace of development through education, and also to make education more relevant to the learners and the society.

In the Republic of Korea and India, a multi-media approach is being developed for selected curriculum units related to national development. In order that the school curriculum can become more relevant to social and development needs, flexibility in curriculum development is being introduced. In the Republic of Korea, a modular approach has been suggested; and in India curriculum cells are being set up both at the centre and in the various states of the country so as to allow for continuous renovation of curricula. An experiment is under-way with multi-media instructional materials and particularly with satellite instructional television for the rural areas and backward sections of the community.

Sri Lanka, which had a highly academic-oriented curriculum, has brought about major changes and evolved curricula for the primary and lower secondary stages which are oriented towards national development. All pupils, from grades I-IX age 6-14, will follow a common curriculum designed to provide a broad general education which also includes the development of employable skills amongst the students so that they may serve the community in a much better way. The main aim of the new curriculum is to reduce the gap between education and the employment opportunities (including self-employment) available in the community. Pakistan and Indonesia have similar drives.

Already, major programmes have been developed in some countries of the region in an attempt to contribute to rural transformation by utilizing the resources in the community and the school, with the teacher playing a key role in developing knowledge, skills and attitudes to help the community to overcome difficulties, and carry forward the task of development.

In Bangladesh, the Camellia Project has pursued a functional, action-oriented approach in mobilizing rural people. It develops and supports local institutions in order to involve local leaders and their constituents. Curricula for teachers are the outcome of action research in the villages and are based on the needs of the village into farmer-members involvement and participation, accentuated through local rural leadership, gives it the potential for acceptance, service and survival.

In Morong, a lakeside town in the Philippines, development activities such as small-scale industries profitably engaged in by the people and the school children, the operation of a summer folk school to train out-of-school youth and adults in various useful trades, demonstrate the dynamic and mutually beneficial relationship between the school and the community.

In Nepal, the compulsory introduction of one year of National Development

Service for all graduate students of the Tribhuvan University and all Master's degree from any foreign university, is intended to give impetus to rural development as well as make the graduate students reality-oriented.

In Sri Lanka, the education component of employable skills is concerned with knowledge and skills for productive activity. Since a forwards one of the main strategies that must be adopted for rural transformation, the identification of knowledge and skills needed by farmers and the generation of learning experiences to meet these knowledge and skills requirements must take priority in occupational skills education.

In Indonesia, various programmes have been launched in an effort to improve the living conditions of the people in the rural areas. These programmes focus on agriculture, Health, nutrition, as well as education. Most of these programmes are nationally financed and conducted.

In addition, the Indonesian Government, as a matter of principle, has encouraged projects for rural transformation: a certain amount of subsidy (approximately us\$ 500 in 1975) is given to each village every year, to support local initiatives for improving irrigation, sanitation and communication.

In some countries, work has been done in developing curricular units in health and nutrition. The attempts have largely been to develop a coordination of education with various other agencies concerned with health and nutrition, and to utilize the community workers and teachers through a training system in providing the knowledge and habits required for better health and nutrition.

In the Philippines, the Philippine Nutrition Programme which has established its priority project of Operation Timbag (Operation Weight) makes the teacher-coordinator play an important role as a community worker working hand-in-hand with the Barangay (village) network. Through this network, the teacher-coordinator is able to grasp the actual health/ nutrition needs of the families in the community.

In Singapore, the thrust is one of a multi-media approach conducted jointly by the Ministries of Health, Education and Culture. Action-campaigns involving all three ministries are frequently mounted.

This is an area where many countries have broken away from the traditional concept of general education in schools and are moving towards functional basic education. Many school curricula have been changed in some countries to include units on specific skills which may be used later on by the pupils for either self-employment or employment in agriculture and industry. The approach taken is that of development of modular units and, in some cases, of multi-media training packages. The new directions of educational development are directly linked to functional education programmes at the next level of education.

4.1 Activity-4

Indicate the development-oriented innovation that impressed you the most from amongst the ones mentioned above. Give reasons for your choice.

5. EDUCATION AND PRODUCTIVE SKILL DEVELOPMENT IN ASIAN REGION

Concept and objectives of skill education.

As interpreted by the participants of a meeting convened under APEID, the term 'concept' used in the synthesis embraces three important elements, namely:

- (i) how skill development is defined
- (ii) on what basis it should be developed
- (iii) on what principles the design should be based.

The objectives refer to a certain type and level of competence the learner is expected to achieve.

Concept of skill development

It is generally agreed that education in school and out-of-school cannot be purposeful, meaningful, productive, if it does not have close linkages with national developmental programmes. In this regard, educational programme for skill development in both formal and non-formal settings should be organized to support the achievement of the above objectives.

The following generalization shows some common elements of the concept of skill education by the participating countries:

- (i) Skill education as part of the general education programme is not meant to be a purely manual work. They should inculcate positive attitudes towards the world of work of work and dignity of labour.
- (ii) Skill education programme should be related to other subject areas.
- (iii) Skill education programme on the basic needs and problems of individuals and society.

(It is prudent to design these programmes in consultation with community members :)

Objectives

The analysis of the objectives developed by the various countries indicates that most countries share common objectives while there are objectives specific to particular countries. They are as follows:

Common Objectives

- (a) To acquaint learners with the world of work. This objective is important in the sense that it is meant to develop in the learners knowledge about varieties and characteristics of occupational areas in the society.

Knowledge on these various occupational areas shall place the learners in a better position to identify the kind of work which they would like to participate in upon completion of their education.

This objective could be categorized under the cognitive domain of the taxonomy of educational objectives.

- (b) To provide learners with productive skills relevant to the needs of individuals and society.

This objective means that skill education should provide opportunities for the learners to actually practise and perform the skills learned in schools as well as in other forms of educational organization.

This objective could be categorized under psycho-motor domain in the taxonomy of educational objectives.

- (c) To develop desire to be useful members of the society.

This objective implies that mastering skills relevant to the needs of the society as such is not enough without the desire/willingness of the individuals to really participate in the development of the society as useful members. To develop this desire within the individuals, the programmes should be structured to motivate the learners to develop their interest in practicing the skills for the welfare of the society.

This objective could be categorized under the category of affective domain in the taxonomy of educational objectives which is often neglected in the implementation of educational programmes.

- (d) To inculcate positive attitudes and motivation toward the world of work, self-reliance, tolerance, cooperation, sympathy, and helpfulness.

This objective also falls under the affective domain of educational objectives which constitute major components of the goals of skill development.

The nature of this objective strengthens the idea of making full education more educative, socially useful and productive.

Objectives Specific to Particular Countries

- (a) Lead learners to increasingly participate in productive work as they proceed from one stage of education to another.

The idea implied in this objective is that, skill education should be imparted in sequential order to enable the learners to grasp, reproduce, and immediately apply the skills they have learned in real life situation. In this way learners may earn while they learn.

- (b) Prepare learners for further studies in technical and vocational This is one of the objectives advocated by some countries of s of general education, particularly in the lower secondary school level. The objective is especially useful for learners who are going in vocational and technical schools instead of in academic schools.

5.1 Issues and problems

(a) There are two schools of thought concerning the development of productive skills. One is for the purpose of immediate use, i.e. to enable the learner to employ his skills for everyday living and to enable him to participate in useful social activities. Another school of thought is to prepare the learners for further learning in vocational and technical institutions as well as for entering vocation after leaving the school. Those who advocate the first viewpoint regard the immediate use of skills developed - as well as the service to the community as important. They believe that at this stage of education (general education level) specialization in a certain vocation should not be emphasized. It is only the basic skills that would be needed, and what is more important is the development of desirable attitudes towards work and good working habits which could be used in the present as well as future life of the learners.

The second school of thought, however, advocates that for most developing countries most student will leave the general schools either for further studies or for work. Under this condition it would be advisable that the education programmes for skill development be directed towards the students' needs. This does not mean that the skills learned cannot be of immediate use. With intensive training the learners' should be in a position to do even better in providing service to the community. Participants of the meeting were of the opinion that each viewpoint has its own merit and there should be more research studies on the strengths and weaknesses of both practices.

(b) One view regards formal school as merely a learning agency, whereas the other regards formal school as a place for earning while learning under certain specific situations. There is a general understand that formal school which are run by the government and other organizations are meant for bringing behavioral changes among learners.

However, certain schools which small farms, workshops, etc. provide skill education to the learners and try to produce goods or services which are saleable. The goods so produced are sold among students, teaching community or in the neighborhood. Money so received is paid for the inputs and major portion is used for developmental activities and a very small portion is distributed among students as an incentive. In this way, needy students are helped by the institution and the activity itself would motivate them to participate more and more during leisure hours in order to earn more to help themselves and their families.

The above two practices as viewed by the participants are not in conflict with each other. If conditions permit, the second practice could be adopted to facilitate learning of the students. What one should be aware of is that the school should not be used as a place for profit making or for exploiting the students.

5.2 Problems and Suggested Solutions

Although almost all developing countries agree that the training and socially useful productive work should be imparted to learners at all levels of education to prepare them for the world of work, in practice it is not fully recognized that skill education is to develop in the learners a positive attitude towards need-based activities in the

community. Hence, it is felt that in most developing countries skill education has low priority. It is realized that without sufficient social, administrative and financial support, it would be impossible to implement skill education properly. For this reason, two basic strategies need to be employed:

- (a) To conduct research and development activities to develop models of efficient and effective skill education programmes as an integral part of general education, and
- (b) To alert the government through inter-agency activities about the importance of skill education as a part of general education.

5.3 Approaches to Skill Education

All over the world both formal and non-formal approaches are being used. Formal approach, in this context, refers to an approach used in implementing skill education in the regular school system such as primary school, secondary school, vocational school, etc. Non-formal approach means an approach in implementing skill education for those who are not in regular school system.

(i) Formal Approach

Each country has its own programmes of skills education which are being implemented through formal approach. This type of approach has a unique characteristic for each country depending on its condition and situation.

(a) Programme

Although each country has its own specific social needs, it appears that home economics, agriculture, wood and metal work, technical skills, arts and crafts and services are the common programmes. However, instructional materials may vary, depending upon the specific needs of each country.

(b) Nature of the Programme

Generally, skill education does not aim at developing manual skills only, but also at other forms of development, relating to cognitive and affective domains. The stress is, of course, given to skill development. In developing the skills some countries aim at direct production, but still skills.

(c) Target Group

Countries, such as Indonesia and India, offer productive skills programmes in all grades. Other countries, such as Afghanistan offer these programmes only in grades 7 and 8, and Malaysia starts at the lower secondary level. Some aspects of home-economics such as cooking and dress making, for other some are intended for girls, in some other countries are meant for both boys and girls.

(d) Time

Although the time allocation for productive skill varies from country to country and from grade to grade, the range generally is from 2 to 8 periods a week.

(e) **Administration of the Programme**

Every country which provides skill education for all children offers both compulsory and elective subjects in general and vocational schools.

Analysis of the approaches being used in the Asian region.

First Approach:

Providing education in skills as a required subject for all students at the first level; and as required and elective at the second level of education.

Examples: India provides skill education related to food, shelter, clothing, health, culture, recreation, community work and social service. At the secondary level, the programme is similar; but greater emphasis is placed on practice. In Sri Lanka, children are taught simple manual skills such as floor cleaning dish-washing, growing flowers and vegetables, and some other handicraft work at the primary stage. Secondary schools have elective courses in a number of practical subjects such as wood work, metal work, electric, wiring and mat Weaving. In the initial grade of secondary schools, pre-vocational studies programmes provide an opportunity for students to survey the jobs in the community and to practice skills using community facilities as training bases.

Second Approach:

Second approach is similar to the first, but differ in objectives of training. Programmes in the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam and Bangladesh and some in the Philippines and Thailand, can be cited as examples of this approach. In the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, the young generation is trained to be new-type workers and masters of society. Training in manual work is designed to contribute to the cultural and economic development of the locality where the school is situated. Two types of courses are offered: compulsory courses on techniques and management of economy, and optional or elective courses which answer to the needs and conditions of individual schools. The activities are divided, by objectives, into four categories:

- (i) meeting the needs of the school through productive work;
- (ii) solving community development problems through productive work,
- (iii) engaging in work of public utility;
- (iv) Using production based training in 'productive skills.

More complex work-skills are attempted at the second than at the first level education.

In Bangladesh, work experience is provided at the primary level Under the guidance of their teachers, the students organize their own cooperative societies and raise funds for some income-earning activities within the school system. These include: gardening, poultry-raising, book-binding, group farming and making simple furniture. At the secondary level, re offered for imparting vocational training in such areas as agriculture, commerce, home-economics.

In the Philippines, the Bayanihan School Programme with its self-sustained school vocational development programme at Quinlogan Village, Palawan Island.

provide skills training by integrating academic subjects with practical work and by organizing programmes for students to earn while they learn. Rice fields, vegetable plantations, rice mills, carpentry shops and cooperative stores are used as work-study bases.

In Thailand, several projects using work experience for developing skills are being conducted in many schools in the north east. These projects cover chicken raising, food preservation, building-repair, mat weaving, growing peppers, growing mushrooms, pottery-making and handicraft.

Third Approach:

Under this approach are offered three types of programmes, namely, core programmes, elective programmes. This is practised in Indonesia, the aims being to develop attitude and general capabilities of the students to cope with practical problems and to equip them with functional skills required by the world of work. The agro-programmes are taken by all students at all grade levels. The elective programmes are given to students in grades X and XI, whereas the terminal programmes are intended for students who do not plan to pursue further studies at a higher level.

Fourth Approach:

This approach deals with providing skills training for developing personality and character as well as for preparing students for higher technical studies and for employment. This approach is used in Malaysia where skill education can be categorized into levels and areas as follows:

- (a) Pre-vocational studies at lower secondary school level, the objective of which is to expose students to the skills they will need in their everyday life, and to create in them positive attitude towards, and interest in technical and vocational studies.
- (b) Technical studies in upper secondary technical schools, wherein students study one or two technical subjects from several offerings in the areas of engineering, agriculture and commerce. The objective is to prepare students for higher technical studies.
- (c) Vocational studies in upper secondary vocational schools, which prepare students for engineering trades or agriculture, commerce or home science. The objective, here, is to equip learners with employable skills.

(ii) Non-formal Approach

(a) Programme of Study

Countries report that non-formal education is developed on the basis of the needs of the society. Since each country has its own way of life according to its own tradition and culture, the contents of the programmes cannot be the same for all countries. The areas of study organized for non-formal system are almost the same as those of the formal system. The difference is in the selection of specific aspects from the area of study to cover the specific needs of the society. For example, Afghanistan has developed programmes on agriculture (bee breeding, silkworm cultivation) and art and craft (ceramics, carpet and rug production); Sri Lanka has developed programmes on technical skills (electric wiring, musical instruments), art and craft (book-binding, printing and wood carving); India has

developed programmes on agriculture, home-economics, metal and wood work, technical skills, and Indonesia has developed programmes on home economics, agriculture, wood and metal work, technical skills, and art and craft.

(b) *Nature of Study*

Non-formal approach in skill education as mentioned above is directed to the people outside the regular school system. The emphasis would be on the training of productive skills, but the type of specific skills needed by each participating country are not the same. For some countries such as India, Viet Nam and Indonesia, there is a tendency to put emphasis on agriculture in line with the economic structure of the country.

(c) *Target Group*

Unlike the formal education system consists of students of the same age and educational background, the participants in the non-formal productive skill training, consist of mostly those who are not in school. Therefore, they vary in age, educational background and possibly in socio-economic status. However, some countries organize their educational background. India classifies its programme into four categories, i.e. programme for illiterates, for primary level, for secondary level and for senior secondary level.

5.4 Activity-5

Develop two designs of skill education; one for the formal education programme, the other for the non-formal education programme for your own district.

6. EDUCATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Most Asian countries have a large concentration of rural population. While urbanization is increasing at an accelerating rate, the rural population remains numerically dominant and is expected to remain so even for the next few decades. Considering these realities, many countries in the Asian region, in their strategy to attain national development goals, are e and more on their efforts on development in rural areas. *By the way, what observation?*

It is widely accepted now that the concept of rural development and the role of education as a component of rural development were not given serious attention during the early post-war period in the world in general and in the Asian region in particular.

Rural development is now being interpreted as a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of the rural poor. It involves extending the benefits of development to those who seek a livelihood in rural areas. The economic dimension of rural development envisages economic uplift: the reduction of poverty so that rural poor get adequate food, clothing and shelter. The social dimension underlines the provision of health and educational services. It also aims at the development of the individual and rural society in a socio psychological context. Educational and political considerations are two additional elements. In the former, facilities for education are provided for the educational growth of the rural people. In the latter, the political dimension of rural development will enable the rural poor to participate intelligently and freely on the basis of their own aspirations, indigenous culture and creativity in the political life of the community and in the programmes designed to shape their community, thereby contributing their share to the overall programme of national development.

Since rural development is intended to reduce poverty, programmes have been - designed to increase production and to raise productivity. As agriculture is the main occupation in rural areas, it has received priority in such programmes. In view of increasing population and the limited production of edibles etc. through cultivable land, the main effort is to raise the productivity of land through the adoption of a variety of measures such as improved seeds, fertilizers, pesticides and methods of farming. Thus the improvement of agriculture and the provision of relevant services in that area form the first and most important elements in rural development.

(Reference: "Preparing Teachers for Education in Rural Development", a handbook, APEID, UNESCO, Regional Office, Bangkok, 1977, pp.3-8)

Small-scale industries, particularly agro-based industries, are the focus of the second significant element. Farm mechanization, rural electrification and improved transport facilities have created opportunities for employment in such occupations.

Another important programme is the provision of efficient health services. Poverty leads to malnutrition and ill health. Ill health, in turn, results in a low production capacity.

Increased production does not, however, guarantee fair distribution. The forces working in a rural community are such that the advantages of the programme or rural development may not reach the rural poor for whom the programme is mainly intended. Agricultural production may increase, and still the rural poor may not get the food; health service may be provided, and still the poor may not benefit; educational facilities may be established, and yet the poor may not be able to send their children to these schools. In order that this does not continue, there is a growing recognition in Asian countries that sustained rural development is not merely enhancement in production, but a fundamental change in values, objectives and the very philosophy of development. This awareness has led to a growing emphasis on the human factor in development. New strategies of development, therefore, seek to develop human being in the collective sense, so as to re-ordinate them, make them, self-reliant and able to participate in the political processes of the nation. All the elements of rural development imply extension of education and its transformation or it serves as an important component of the aforesaid programmes.

To sum up, the innovative programmes of rural development in Asia attend to economic development in the social and cultural context that is, including both economic and socio-psychological elements, which interact organically with each other. Thus development is conceived as a multivariate, qualitative and quantitative change which change with result in the growth of the individual, in a collective spirit among people, in creativity, in inventiveness, in the proliferation of a problem-solving to life, and ultimately in faith in the collective potential of the. Problem in this manner is to specify, in some detail, the goals to which educational policies programmes and activities are to be directed.

6.1 Education in and for Rural Development

It is desirable to distinguish between two sets of educational activities, differentiated by their main objectives and target groups, and categorized those as 'education in rural development' and 'education for rural development'.

(i) Education in Rural Development

The focus of activities is on the curriculum of a school as a social agency for imparting knowledge, skills and values, through in-school and out-of-school activities and experiences. In most countries, curricula are changed to incorporate such elements in the educational programme.

Two approaches are being followed in relating school curriculum to education in rural development:

- (a) the elements of rural development are neatly and thoroughly integrated into the school curriculum in such a way that education in rural development becomes the school curriculum;
- (b) the usual academic curriculum is retained and activities related to rural development are assigned to extra-curricular affairs.

Rural development activities in the countries of the region are being entwined in the curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular activities.

An examination of official documents of the countries in Asia reveals that the envelopment are sought through health and nutrition, education and programmes in the school curricula. Included also in their curricula are such crops, replenishing forests, control of insect posts, creative work (Bangladesh), work experience – vocationalization and social reconstruction (India), the development applied skills, fisheries, farming, livestock raising (Indonesia), industrial area, agriculture science Malaysia), compulsory pre-vocational and vocational subjects (Nepal and Republic of Korea), participation in community projects, soil and water conservation, health, nutrition, food production, afforestation, population control (Philippines), developing skills relevant to productive opportunities in the rural sector, participation in the solution of rural problems, changing attitudes towards manual work, collective level, viewing change as necessary for the regeneration of rural society, and identification of the pressing problems of rural society (Sri Lanka).

Teachers working in rural schools are often ill-equipped for the tasks they are expected to carry out. One of the reasons for this is the uninterrupted migration of better-qualified teachers to urban areas; another is the continued isolation of rural teachers from the cultural interaction characteristics of the urban environment. Considering these realities, attempts are being made by most countries in the region, through training programmes to keep the village teachers abreast of the latest innovations in education as well as in rural technology and to help build their professional consciousness in support of rural development.

Programmes have been devised in some countries to revitalize their village schools through contact with agriculture, health and cooperative-movement workers who are raising the quality and relevancy of the school curriculum through talks and exhibition. For the teachers such contacts have become an opportunity for in-service growth.

Apart from these contacts, the printed materials, which the community workers have been using, are found to be of great educational value for both in-and out-of-school programmes. Moreover, the community resources which can be identified through the involvement of the school in the community development programmes and in the revised curricula of such schools are being harnessed for the school programmes of work experience, development of employable skills and health/nutrition.

In some countries the use of mass media —radio, television, newspapers - as an instructional means of education has also been exploited for education in rural development. Satellite instructional television programmes to provide education and training in agricultural education, population education and science education are also being used in some countries.

Programmes for preparing teachers for education in rural areas can capitalize on such experiences.

(ii) **Education for Rural Development**

The focus of the activities is on the development of rural communities. According to traditional concepts, education had little or no role in such programmes. It is now recognized that education can be simply restricted to schooling or viewed as a time-bound process, but instead must be equated broadly with learning regardless of where, how and when that takes place. Under this new concept, education has been categorized as informal, formal and non-formal education. Whereas the process of informal education is relatively unorganized and unsystematic, the latter two categories of education, i.e. formal and non-formal education, are relatively organized activities. Education for rural development, i.e. education linked with programmes of rural development, is provided mainly through informal and non-formal modes, even though linkages are established with the formal education system.

In such programmes, there are four categories of people engaged in education in rural areas. They are:

- (a) people involved in various agricultural and extension service type of activities, such as agricultural-extension workers, health-education service workers, cooperative-society organizers, family-planning workers,
- (b) those including farmers and skilled craftsmen, concerned particularly with the education and training of out-of-school youth,
- (c) workers engaged in all levels of adult education and community development including religious leaders,
- (d) Personnel working in the formal schools.

All categories of education and all kinds of educators have important contributions to make in rural development programmes and are, therefore, taken into account in evaluating and promoting education for rural development.

Self-management of the programmes of cooperation among different communities in exchanging experiences are two prominent approaches followed in some of the recent plans for rural development. Self-management involves communities participating, along with development agencies and such institutions as those for health, agriculture and industry, in planning and conducting surveys to identify the community needs and the resources, including human resources, available in those communities or in the developmental programmes for the communities. Such collaboration on the part of communities is one way to make them acutely conscious of their problems and of their power over processes for solving them, in addition to inculcating in them the skills required in undertaking such surveys. The development of the programmes, likewise, helps them in learning new skills in cultivating an awareness of the need for acquiring other types of skills in order to tackle the implementation and evaluation of such programmes by the community with ample practice in the use of skills and in further strengthening their competencies and enhancing their self-reliance.

Unit-9

**COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE OF
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT**

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INTRODUCTION

Educational planners and administrators as well as students of education in every nation need to know about education, its organization and management in countries other than their own. It is beyond any shadow of doubt that the future of not only a nation, but of the civilization depends on the purpose, kind and quality of education provided to its members as well as on developments that will affect education and will be affected by education for the succeeding generations all over the world.

Different nations adopt different methods to meet the educational challenges of today. The study of educational system and curriculum development in other countries provides an important key to the understanding and interpretation of major national and international issues, trends and problems. It can also bring to light the potential strengths and weaknesses in the educational system of the country under study.

This unit provides information on education systems and curriculum developments in countries which represent different stages of development, different philosophies and have different ways of dealing with educational issues. The unit aims at offering insight into forms of upbringing, schooling and enlightening in countries other than ours. A comparative study of the curriculum is all the more important as curriculum is at the very heart of educational endeavour and deserves careful attention.

In the subsequent sections, educational systems and curricula of the following countries have been reviewed:

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------------------|
| 1. USA. | 2. U.K. |
| 3. Canada | 4. Rusa |
| 5. Japan | 6. Peoples Republic of China |
| 7. Thailand | 8. Malaysia. |
| 9. Saudi Arabia | 10. Pakistan |

Having studied the process of curriculum development in the above mentioned countries, you are expected to draw inferences and compare and contrast different features of this activity with reference to Pakistan and other countries. Let us now proceed further to study the practices of curriculum development in these countries one by one.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be, able to:

1. Describe the process of curriculum development in selected countries of the world.
2. Identify the differences as well as similarities in the systems of curriculum of the sample countries.
3. Discuss the approaches to curriculum development adopted in the sample countries.
4. Compare and contrast the process of curriculum development in Pakistan with some other countries.
5. Recommend suitability of various ideas and processes of curriculum development for adoption in our own situation.

1. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

1.1 Introduction

Rich in Land, population and natural resources and highly developed technologically, the people of USA enjoy a high standard of living and lead the nations of the world south. The indigenous population consists of Indians and migrants from Britain, Germany, Scandinavia, southern and eastern Europe, and central and south America besides the descendants of slaves imported from Africa during colonial and post-colonial years. The combination of geographical and demographic characteristics results in great diversity from one section of the country to the other. Systems and structures of education are also quite diverse in different parts of the country.

1.2 Educational System

Each state provides a system of free public school, covering kindergarten plus 12 years. Though laws vary among the states, schooling is compulsory from the age of 6 or 7 years to 16. There are several structural patterns in use depending on the location; kindergarten plus elementary grades 1-8 followed by four years of high school; kindergarten plus six grades of elementary schools followed by a three year junior high school and three year senior high school (sometimes combined into a six year high school, or a relatively new development kindergarten plus four or five grades of elementary schools, a four-year middle school and four-year high school. All patterns lead to a high school graduation at the age of 17 to 18 years.

Historically, education has been considered a state and local responsibility but the Federal Government has been involved at all levels since 1972. Federal Government supports school lunch education for Indians, finances education for veterans and rent loans. The Federal Department of Education headed by a Secretary of cabinet rank is responsible for executing government policy.

In various states generally a Board of Education comprising selected/and or appointed members form policy and determines the budget. The state department of education headed by a chief administrative officer is responsible for providing education at all levels, curriculum development, teacher certification and school finances etc.

1.3 Curriculum

As a rule, the practical responsibility for running the schools is in the hands of smaller units such as counties and districts and 18,200 local districts run the daily administration. The strong tradition of local autonomy and the pluralistic nature of society influence curriculum. There is no official national curriculum. State department of education prescribes curriculum with varying degrees of specificity leaving scope for local and individual variations. Subject specialists, school administrators, and teachers are involved in the process of curriculum development based on research and

investigation. The major subjects taught at all levels of the school systems are English language, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science, Music, Arts, and Physical Education.

The advances in technologies have resulted in the introduction of new teaching methodologies such as teach teaching, programmed in instruction, language laboratories and computer aided instruction. The current social concerns have made their way into the curricula, especially at secondary level in the form of new subjects such as Ethics studies, Consumer and Environmental Education and Drug and Alcohol Abuse Instruction. Policies concerning promotion from one grade to the next depend on the state or district decisions: A student at secondary level is required to repeat a grade after unsatisfactory performance but promotion at elementary level is automatic. Acquisition of a high school diploma does not always require a formal examination but attendance and a satisfactory school record of achievement are considered sufficient for this purpose. In the absence of any national public examination system, the standard of education varies in different states. Recently there have been moves to set state criteria for high school diploma generally in the form of minimum competency requirements.

Activity

Have a discussion with your colleagues as to how social concerns and advances in technology have affected curriculum development in USA. Also discuss the applicability of the forces in the context of Pakistan.

2. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

2.1 Introduction

The United Kingdom is located on a number of Islands on the western edge of the European continental shelf. Immigrants from all over the world had important consequences for the educational systems prevalent in the U.K. Ethnic minorities are concentrated in certain larger urban areas, especially, London and require from system in these areas, recognition of their special needs, particularly, in respect of language and cultural differences.

2.2 Educational System

Education in the U.K. is said to be national system, locally administered. A large part of the day-to-day running is in the hands of local education authorities (LEA).

Attendance of school is compulsory for children of 5-16 or 18, years divided into two or three tiers. The two tier system comprises primary schools age (5-11) except in Scotland where transfer is usually at 12 instead of 11, sometimes subdivided into infant (5-7) and junior (7-11) school and selective or nonselective secondary school (ages 11-16 or 18). The three tier system consists of first schools (ages 5 to 8 or 9); middle schools (ages 8-12 or 9-13); and upper schools usually nonselective (ages 12 or 13 to 16 or 18). The two tier system is most common; the three-tier system is to be found only in England catering for 15 per cent of all pupils. Children over the age of compulsory school education (16) may continue in the same institution such as a sixth form college, tertiary college, college of further education or technical college.

Education for school learners is divided into two categories: non-advanced further education (NFE) which consists of courses provided upto the standard of the General Certificate of Education. (GCE) and Advanced (A) and higher education which consists of courses above this level provided in universities, autonomous institutions and by colleges maintained by LEAs.

2.3 Curriculum

Previously there was no nationally determined curriculum but examination boards which controlled the General Certificate of Education exerted something of a unifying influence on what was taught in schools. Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools were responsible to the Secretary of State for Education. They investigated and reported on all aspects of education including the curriculum. The government, however, introduced a national curriculum in 1989. The curriculum prescribes a core of three principal subjects Mathematics, Science and Language and childrens attainment in these subjects is to be tested at age 7, 11 and 14. Other foundation subjects include History, Geography, Art and Music. In Addition, the Education Reforms Act (1988) includes the provision for religious education for all pupils. A modern foreign language is also applicable for secondary schools.

Progress through school depends chiefly on age ratio than attainment. There is no grade system and a majority of children move through system with other children of the same age. Teachers nevertheless use a variety of ways to test pupils' progress.

Until 1988, secondary school pupils could attempt examination in various subjects leading, to the Certificate in Secondary Education (CSE) or a more demanding General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level (O Level). In 1988, these two systems were abolished and replaced by the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). The examination is organized by five independent groups in England, and Wales and one in Northern Ireland. Scotland has undertaken a separate but similar reform.

The GCE Advanced level (A level) is normally taken by student in upto three or four subjects, two years after GCE O level and is the standard for entrance to higher education and professional training.

However, in connection with the newly introduced national curriculum, the government is proposing to introduce nationwide assessment for all pupils of 7, 11,14 and 16 years of age.

Activity

Discuss with your colleagues the salient features of curriculum introduced in UK in 1989.

3. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN CANADA

3.1 Introduction

Geographically Canada is the second largest country in the world next only to Soviet Union. By population it is among the smallest with its 24 million people of different colours, creeds and languages with two predominant languages English and French, traced back to its colonial beginning.

3.2 Education System

There is officially, no Canadian educational system and by law education is a provincial responsibility. Thus Canada has twelve educational systems. Though systems in different provinces have much in common, yet each has its unique features stemming from tradition and aspirations of the people in each province, and from differences in economy, geography and size of population. Educational systems in English speaking provinces have been influenced by Scottish traditions, while in France are followed in French speaking province of Quebec. One thing, however, is common that Canada is now two-third urban and new, and constantly improving technologies have brought the country close to being able to offer equality in educational opportunities to all citizens. There are elementary schools, secondary schools, special schools, private schools, community colleges and universities. The beginning age for school varies across the country. Elementary school is for children aged 5 or 8 to 11 or 13 with secondary schools providing programmes for 12 or 14 years old. The elementary school is usually designed to provide basic learning in reading, writing, computation, science, social studies, music and art. Emphasis is also being put on Canadian studies.

Secondary schools are of different types, though most are 'Composite Schools and offer a wide range of academic, business and technical courses. Some vocational occupational schools are also available for non-academically oriented students. These schools lead directly to the world of work while graduation from a composite school leads to employment in a community college or university.

3.3 Curriculum

There is no uniform curriculum in Canada and even within provinces there are many differences among school systems. The Ministry of Education is responsible for prescribing courses of study. The Ministry declares subjects which are to be compulsory. Usually education department issues guidelines outlining the course content and then it is the responsibility of the supervising officer of a school to see that these guidelines are interpreted and implemented within the philosophy and rationale of

the approach outlined therein. School staffs are encouraged to take active part in designing the course. A new course is usually introduced in one or a few schools and then school boards seek ministerial approval for its province-wide application. Discovery method, Team Teaching and new technology are in wide use. Lecture method is also used by some teachers.

Until 1960, a student had to pass a set of departmental exams to graduate from a secondary school. This system was strongly criticized on the basis that less capable students would cram and pass the exams and that teachers would concentrate on the areas important for the exams only. In most cases, it is now the principal and classroom teacher who determine whether or not a student will graduate on the basis of overall school performance and school tests and exams.

Activity

Compare Canadian composite school with comprehensive schools in Pakistan.

4. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN RUSSIA

4.1 Introduction

The system of education in Russia dates back to 1920. It has since then been continuously developed and improved to keep pace with the economic and cultural growth of the country. All education is controlled by the state and is characterized by equality and continuity between all types of educational institutions. Education is universal, free, secular and is conducted in native tongues with the freedom of choice in language of learning.

4.2 Educational System and Curriculum

The system of public education in Russia includes pre-school institutions (Kindergartens and nursery schools), schools providing general education, vocational schools, specialized secondary schools and higher educational institutions. The pre-school institutions are of two types, nursery schools enrolling children from 2 months to 3 years and kindergartens enrolling children from three to seven years of age. Activities at these institutions include games, study, entertainment, elementary work, and all aspects of physical, aesthetic and academic education. The state kindergarten syllabus specifies as to what children have to learn about the environment, arithmetic, drawing, modelling, sewing and dancing. Reading and writing became a part of the syllabus only in 1970. The language used is the respective regional language and the main task of kindergarten is to care for children's health and physical development. This is ensured by an appropriate schedule, a planned diet, child care, physical exercises and medical supervision.

The next stage is eight-year school, Primary education which is compulsory for all children is a part of eight-year school. The duration of primary education out of eight is three years. All subjects are taught with more emphasis on native language and Mathematics. Other subjects include Music, Art and Physical Education. Systematic courses in the native language, Literature, Mathematics, History and foreign language are introduced in form 4. Biology and Geography are added in form 5, physics in form 6 and Chemistry in form 7.

The next stage after eight-year schools is secondary education for two years. For this level, there are secondary schools, vocational schools and specialized secondary schools.

Subjects taught in the first year in secondary schools include Literature, History, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Foreign Language and Economic Geography. In form 10, more subjects such as Astronomy, General Biology, and Social Sciences are added.

Labour education is conducted throughout the whole period of secondary schooling. In form 1 to 3, children acquire work-skills with paper, card board and other materials. They study needle work and grow flowers and plants. Lessons in forms 4 to 8

are conducted in wood-work and metal-work, in domestic science workshop and in the educational/experimental plots belonging to the school. Attention is also paid to vocational training in the senior forms of secondary school.

After form 8, some pupils also work in industry or agriculture but all of them must receive secondary education. For this purpose, evening secondary schools provide courses for the continuation of secondary education. Study in these schools lasts for one year more than the day secondary schools.

Vocational schools prepare skilled workers for different sectors of national economy and the system is continuously revised according to the needs of the national economy.

The courses offered in these schools are of 3 to 4 years duration. Technical schools train specialists with middle level qualifications for different sectors of the economy. The term of study in these schools after eight year school is 3 to 4 years and after secondary school two to two-and-half years.

There are specialized secondary schools for those who did not complete secondary education to give them sound knowledge and skill. Students in these schools study the inter-related cycles of subjects i.e. General Education, General Technical and Special Cycles. Graduates have a right to enter any higher educational institution and variety of jobs in different sectors of economy.

Higher education is provided in universities and other institutes (Pedagogy, Economics, Polytechnic, Agriculture, Theatre, and others). Higher education is accessible to everyone irrespective of sex, race, social origin or status. A specific set of subjects involving a combination of education and practical work, resulting in the acquisition of modern scientific knowledge are chosen. The programme includes obligatory subjects which form the basis of special training and optional subjects to enable students to study special fields in depth in order to learn the latest scientific and technical developments. Optional subjects are available in wide range. In Physics alone there are more than 100 courses. The main teaching method at this stage is lectures, seminars, laboratory work, practical work and course and laboratory projects.

Activity

List the major characteristics of Russian educational system.

5. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN JAPAN

5.1 Introduction

Japan consists of mainly 4000 large and small islands covering an area of 378000 kilometers out of which only 12 percent can be inhabited. In 1984, total population was 120 million and those up to 14 years of age formed 22 percent of the population.

5.2 Educational System

The aim of education in Japan, according to the fundamental law of education, is that it shall aim at the full development of student' personality, at rearing a people sound in mind and body, who love truth and justice, esteem individual values, respect labour, have a deep sense of responsibility and are imbued with an independent spirit as the builders of a peaceful state and society.

Schooling in Japan emphasize the development of basic abilities in young people rather than set of specified vocational skills on the assumption that they shall be prepared to cope flexibly with rapid progress in science and technology and with rapid changes in society.

The education system of Japan consists of the following four states:

- (i) Kindergarten and Nursery-Kindergarten is an educational institution under the Ministry of Education for children aged three to five years, while nursery school is regarded as a social welfare institution under the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare for children upto five years of age.
- (ii) Elementary Education-children of six years of age attend elementary schools which is compulsory for all and lasts for six years.
- (iii) Secondary Education-Lower secondary school is compulsory for three years. After compulsory schooling, three to four years upper-secondary education is provided. Admission is given on successfully passing the entrance examination.
- (iv) Higher Education - after upper secondary school, students proceed to Daigaku University, or Taiki-Daigaku (Junior Colleges) after passing an entrance examination. University courses are of four years duration while junior college is of three years' duration.

5.3 Curriculum

The school curriculum is prescribed by the Ministry of Education but schools are required to prepare their own detailed instructional programmes on the basis of the courses of study and guidelines provided by the Ministry. A course is revised approximately after ten years. Teachers guide books for each grade and subject are prepared by Curriculum Specialists in the Ministry with the assistance of teachers. Following are the details of curriculum for all levels:

- (i) Kindergarten and Nursery: Both types of institutions provide the same sort of activities to the children based on the principle of teaching through games.
- (ii) Elementary: The subjects taught in elementary school include Japanese languages, Social Studies, Arithmetic, General Science, Music, Art, handicraft and physical education. Moral education is also compulsory. Some private institutions replace moral education with religious education. Promotion from one grade to the next is automatic.
- (iii) *Lower Secondary*: In lower secondary schools, in addition to the subjects taught at the elementary level, pre-vocational education subjects are also taught. A foreign language is one of the elective subjects, but almost all schools teach English as a foreign language.
- (iv) *Upper Secondary*: In upper secondary schools, in addition to the general education courses, technical and vocational education courses such as business education and industrial education are taught.

At all levels of the school system, tests of various types are used to judge whether a student should be promoted to a higher grade. In elementary schools, the decision about promoting pupils is based on internally administered tests. If students have not attended more than half the number of school days or if their subject matter achievement is unsatisfactory or if they have a record of misbehaviour, they are required to repeat a grade.

Activity

Discuss the merits of Kindergarten/Nursery and Elementary Education in Japan.

6. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE PEOPLES REPUBLIC OF CHINA

6.1 Introduction

China is the most thickly populated country of the world with more than 1,008 million people according to the last census. Out of these 200 million live in cities and the rest live in rural areas. China has a territory of about 96 million square kilometres including remote mountainous areas, forest zones and pastoral areas.

6.2 Educational System

Shortly after the founding of people's Republic of China in 1949, it was stipulated that education should serve economic reconstruction and the schools should be accessible to workers and peasants. The policy on education is 'to enable everyone who receives education to develop morally, intellectually and physically and become a worker with both socialist consciousness and culture'. There are various types of schools such as full-time schools, part-study/part-work schools and spare-time schools. In China education begin with pre-school education for children over three years.

Primary schools enrol children at the age of seven years. The length of schooling for most primary schools is five years while schools in large cities have a six-year schooling. A general secondary school is divided into junior stage and senior stage, the former lasting for three years and the later for two to three years. Secondary specialized schools admit junior secondary school graduates and this stage lasts for four years. Vocational schools and polytechnics enroll junior graduates and offer a three year course. Undergraduate programmes in colleges and universities generally require four to five years, while medical colleges require six years. Short cycle professional training colleges offer two to three year courses. Postgraduate studies may be undertaken at two levels, leading to the award of a master's degree (two to three year programme) or a Doctor's degree (another two to three years programmes after the master's degree). Adult education is provided to workers, peasants and soldiers over 15 years of age with the priority given to the young and middle-aged.

6.3 Curriculum

Education is under the general guidance of Communist Party and administrated by the government at different levels. Teaching programmes including curriculum and a number of teaching hours for primary and secondary schools are formulated and promulgated by the Ministry of Education, while for higher education institutions, the Ministry defines the guiding principles of teaching programmes. Unified standard textbooks are prepared by the Ministry of Education for primary and secondary schools, while supplementary or native teaching materials are prepared by the

provinces, municipalities and local school systems. For higher education the Ministry develops unified textbooks for common core courses and specialized foundation courses while the universities can compile some of their own courses.

The courses include teaching in Marxist theories, and ideological and moral education. The principles of integrating theory and practice is emphasized at every level. Teaching methods include lectures, group discussion, lab experiments and field studies. Productive work is an integral part of all teaching programmes.

Activity

Discuss with your friends the aims of education in China.

7. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THAILAND

7.1 Introduction

Thailand formally known as Siam is a tropical South East Asian country. As one of the few developing countries, never to have been colonized, the education system of Thailand is free of foreign domination and language of instruction at every level is Thai.

Thailand has a stratified occupational and social class structure. Traditionally, high social prestige is attached to government employment and thus schooling has been seen as a major answer to social mobility.

7.2 Educational Systems and Curriculum

A new 6-3-3 structure of education was introduced in 1978. The private sector and local communities are encouraged to set up kindergartens and early childhood centres to serve children throughout the country. Only 1.7 per cent of all pre-school centres are run by the Ministry of Education for demonstration and experimental purposes.

Primary education is free and provided universally by the government. The responsibility for the development of curriculum at this stage lies with the Ministry of Education. Primary education has an integrated curriculum comprising four learning areas, basic skills (literacy, numeracy, communication skills and abilities relevant to future occupational roles). Emphasis is also put on character development.

Secondary curriculum covers five broad fields: languages, Science and Mathematics, Social Science, Character Development and Work Education. A wide range of exploratory pre-vocational subjects is also available. Credit system is used to facilitate flexibility in teaching learning process. The Educational Technique Department with the assistance of cooperating agencies is responsible for the production and improvement of learning materials, such as lesson plans, textbooks, supplementary reading material, and teachers guides. Short term training programmes are launched to train in-service teachers for efficient implementation of curriculum. Methods of teaching are generally suggested in syllabus and teachers are encouraged to keep abreast with educational changes and teaching methods. Traditionally, Thailand's examination and promotion system was highly structured with major emphasis on end-of-year examination to determine promotion to the next grade with examination at grades 4,7, 10 and 12 administered externally by districts, provinces, regions, and the Ministry of Education. Entrance to grade 11 and joint university examination were highly selective. But curriculum reform brought changes in examination system also, and grade 11 and 12 end-of-year examinations were abolished in 1975-76 and 1976-77. The new system emphasizes internal assessment and reduces emphasis on end-of-year examination. In primary schools reforms have increased emphasis on the day-to-day accomplishment of specific behavioural objectives. This has improved the promotion rates and has made educational system more efficient. With respect to entrance examinations to upper secondary schools and universities, the traditional achievement tests have been revised and regional universities have also established specific quotas to ensure more even representation of students from the major regional areas.

Activity

Highlight the functions-of Educational Technique Department.

8. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN MALAYSIA.

8.1 Introduction

Malaysia occupies two distinct geographical areas, Peninsular Malaysia, comprising the Malaya Peninsula to the south of the Isthmus of Kra, and East Malaysia (the states of Sabah and Sarawak), consisting of the north and western regions of the Island of Borneo. Both parts are separated by about 644 kilometres (400 miles) of the South China Sea. The total land area of Malaysia is about 336, 700 square kilometres (130,000 square miles), of which Peninsular Malaysia occupies 134,680, square kilometre and East Malaysia 202,020 square kilometres.

Western influence came with the capture of Malacca by the Portuguese in 1511 and later by the Dutch in 1642. Britain's connection with Peninsular Malaysia began with the establishment of trading settlement in Penang in 1786, in Singapore in 1819, and in Malacca in 1824. British influence and authority over North Borneo (Sabah and Sarawak) were established almost concurrently with British expansion in the Malay Peninsula.

In 1955, Malaya achieved self-government, gaining independence in 1957 and adopting a system of constitutional monarchy with a popularly elected government. The Federation of Malaysia, with Sabah and Sarawak, was formed in 1963. The expansion of the tin industry brought in large number of Chinese, and the growth of the rubber industry resulted in an influx of Indian immigrants. These events gave rise to the existing plural society comprising the three major ethnic groups i.e. Malaysian, Chinese, and Indians.

The population of Malaysia in 1980 was estimated at 14.3 million with a yearly increase of 2.8 per cent.

Agriculture remains a major occupation and accounts for the highest percentage of the labour force.

Malaysia is now an elective constitutional monarchy. The Federal government has authority over external affairs, defence, internal security, justice (except Islamic and native law), federal citizenship, finance, commerce, industry, communications, education and other related matters.

8.2 Educational System and Curriculum

Formal education in Malaysia begins at age six in the primary schools and has a 6+3+2+2+2 system of primary, secondary (lower and upper), and postsecondary education.

At the primary level, there are three media of instruction, Bahasa Malaysia, Chinese, and Tamil. In all schools, and at all levels, English is taught as a compulsory second language. Promotion at the primary and lower-secondary levels is automatic. In 1980, 2,006,748 children attended primary schools, more than 93 per cent of the population cohort between the ages of 6 and 11. It is expected that about 90 per cent of

the cohort will progress from standard 6 of primary to form I of lower-secondary education.

All primary schools, irrespective of the medium of instruction, use a common syllabus to ensure that all pupils follow a course whose content reflects a Malaysian outlook. Each school conducts its own evaluation of pupils. Tests are administered regularly, whether weekly, monthly, or at term end. In addition, centralized assessments are conducted yearly for all pupils in standard 5. This national assessment is used to determine the level of pupil achievement and the remedial activities required before the pupils enter secondary schools. At the lower-secondary level (forms 1-3), pupils undergo automatic promotion through the three levels.

Thus a child has a minimum schooling of nine years. Pupils in standard 6 in the Chinese - or Tamil-medium schools have an additional year in the 'remove class' before proceeding to form 1 of lower-secondary school. In the remove class, pupils are expected to acquire proficiency in Bahasa Malaysia.

The lower-secondary level offers a comprehensive type of education. In addition to academic subjects, studies of a prevocational nature such as industrial arts, home science, agricultural sciences and commercial studies are included. All pupils are required to take at least one of the prevocational subjects, the main aim being to expose them to some practical studies. At the end of form 3, pupils sit for the Lower Certificate of Education Examination. On the basis of results in this examination, pupils are selected to proceed to the upper-secondary level and are channelled into various streams, such as science, arts, technical and vocational.

At the upper-secondary level (form 4-5), education consists of academic (arts or science), technical and vocational streams. At the end of the second year, pupils in the academic and technical streams sit for the Malaysian Certificate of Education, or Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia examination (in English and Bahasa Malaysia respectively), and pupils in the vocational stream sit for the Malaysian vocational certificate of education. These examinations provide entry qualifications for posts in the public and private sectors. The tests are also utilized as a basis for selection into the post secondary level (form 6) or for entry to the various courses at the tertiary level.

At the pre-university level (form 6-lower and upper), education is streamed into science and arts. Pupils are selected on the basis of their performance in the Malaysian Certificate of Education or Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia examinations. At the end of the second year, the students sit for the Higher School Certificate or Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan in English or Bahasa Malaysia respectively. The results in this examination determine student entrance into the local as well as accredited foreign universities and colleges. It is also a qualification for appointment to certain jobs in the government and the private sector.

All out-of-school training programmes are run independently of the formal school system. However, the curricula of all programmes complement the vocational and technical subjects offered in the schools.

The agencies responsible for out-of-school training programmes include the Board of National Unity of the Prime Minister's Department, the Agriculture and Community Developing Division, the Veterinary and Fisheries Department of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Department, the Manpower Department of the Ministry of Culture, Youth, and Sports, the Ministry of Welfare Services, the Department of Prisons of the Ministry of Home Affairs, and the Department of Information. The programmes they provide are mainly concerned with the development of technical skills either on the job or in preparation for employment. Links are maintained with the Ministry of Education through the participation of officers and teachers brought in from time to time to assist in the preparation of curriculum and to conduct specific portions of the training programme.

In an effort to provide maximum opportunities for the rural population, the Malay and Rural Development Agency (MARA) and the Community Development Division of the Ministry of Agriculture have developed training programmes geared mainly towards rural youths. Prior to January 1973, curriculum development was coordinated by the curriculum section of the Educational Planning and Research Division of the Ministry of Education. Curriculum Development was subject based consisting mainly of the preparation of subject syllabi, the development of teacher guides and teacher retraining programmes, and the supervision of textbook production either by the Dewan Hahasa dan Pustaka (the language and literary agency, a statutory body of the ministry) or by authors in the private sector.

The Curriculum Development Centre, which was established in 1973, was assigned the responsibility of helping to raise the standard of education on the basis of national aspirations. The centre plays an important role in the development of a national curriculum. It continuously evaluates schools curricula, develops curriculum related models, and disseminates curricula by refraining primary and secondary school teachers through in-service courses.

The Cabinet Committee Report (Ministry of Education 1979) recommended two major curricular innovations within the school system: (a) review of the primary school curriculum with a focus on the basic subjects; and (b) a general education programme for the secondary level.

The new primary school curriculum was implemented under a phased programme. In 1982, 302 primary schools began the programme in standard I, and in 1983, the programme was implemented in standard, in all schools. By 1988, all primary schools, at all grades, began to use the curriculum.

Activity

Discuss the curriculum development arrangements in the education system of Malaysia.

9. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN SAUDI ARABIA

9.1 Introduction

Saudi Arabia covers most of western corner of the Arabian Peninsula, which occupies the south western corner of Asia. Of the Peninsula's total land area of about 3 million square kilometers, Saudi Arabia comprises nearly 2,200,000 square kilometers (849,420 square miles). The country is bounded by the Arabian Persian Gulf, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates to the east; Oman, the Yemen Arab Republic, and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen to the south, the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aqaba to the west, and by Jordan, Iraq, and Kuwait to the north.

Historically, the country's harsh environment, resulted in a low population density. During the 1930s the population was estimated at 1.5 to 2 million people. The increase in oil income, especially during the 1960s and 1970s and the subsequent improvements in income, nutrition, and health care, have resulted in a reduction of the rate of infant mortality, a rise in life expectancy, and almost the elimination of emigration. Today the country has a population of about 3 to 5 million. With an annual birth rate of 49 per thousand and a death rate of 19 per thousand with about 45 per cent of the population being less than 15 years old, the native population can be expected to be around 6 million in the year 2000. Besides the native population, however, an estimated 1.5 to 2 million foreigners live in the country, constituting more than half the labour force.

The oil industry and development related works and projects have resulted in the rapid urbanization of the peasant and nomadic population. In 1970, some 20 per cent of the population was estimated to be living in metropolitan areas (towns of more than 100,000 people); 20 percent in small towns; and 60 percent in rural areas. Corresponding percentages for 1980 were 42, 12, and 46 per cent, respectively. (South Arabia, Ministry of Planning 1980 p.56). The nomadic (Bedouin) population is gradually decreasing. It is now estimated to be about 3 to 6 per cent of the total native population.

The oil income has increased. This income increase has resulted in fundamental demographic, social, and economic changes such as rapid urbanization of most of the population, an almost total dependence on oil-based income, diminution of the value of most forms of traditional production (e.g. agriculture, herding, and fishing) and an unprecedented rise in the importance of the government's role as receiver of national income, provider of social services, and planner and administrator of national development. The first five-year development plan was initiated in 1970, second in 1975, and a third in 1980. The major goals of the latter have been; (a) to diversify the economic basic by encouraging development in agriculture, mining, and industry; (b) to provide sufficient medical, education and social services to the population; and (c) to increase the number of and skills of the Saudi labour force. Within the national development effort, the educational system is charged with three objectives: (a) to provide at least basic education for all citizens; (b) to provide students with the skills that are required by the changing needs of the economy; and (c) to educate the students in the beliefs, practices, and values of the Islamic culture.

9.2 Educational System and Curriculum

The Supreme Council of Education has the role of coordinating the educational efforts in Saudi Arabia. Under its authority are four major educational bodies whose varying sizes and continuous independence from each other, reflect, the efforts of the cultural and socio-economic factors mentioned above. Each of these bodies will be briefly described as follows.

Firstly, the Ministry of Education was established in 1954 to replace the Director General of Education which had been in charge of the educational efforts since 1926. Prior to 1926, the educational effort was mostly limited to the Qoranic schools which taught the fundamentals of religion, literacy and arithmetic. Trades and crafts were learnt through apprenticeship. Scholarship had an almost exclusively religious nature and talented students also obtained further training in Arabic and the Sharia (Islamic Law) by attending more specialized lectures from established authorities in the subject.

Attempts to introduce more secular topics were started in the late 1800s by Moslem philanthropists from other lands. A few partly secular schools were established in al-Ijiaz, the western province of Arabia. In 1926, when the Directorate General of Education was established, the country had about 12 such schools with a total enrolment of about 709 pupils.

Nearly 25 years later, in 1950-51, the country had 325 government schools and 40 private schools, with a total enrolment of about 42,000 students. The rise in school enrolment reflected the changes in the socio-economic conditions of the country. These changes have continued to take place at an accelerated pace and in 1978-79, nearly 25 years after its establishment, the Ministry of Education operated 6,560 schools with a total enrolment of 758,614 male students at predominantly the elementary, intermediate and secondary stages. This number accounted for nearly 57 per-cent of the total student body in the country.

Secondly, the General Administration of Girls Education (GAGE) was established in 1960. Objections from concerned parents and Ulama (religious savants) to girls school, based on the fear that such modern schools might have undesirable effects on girls, delayed the establishment of these schools, by the government, until 1960. Girls's schools were put under the Ulama's own administration and were thus independent of the Ministry of Education. In the first year, the GAGE opened 16 schools. Less than 20 years later, in 1979, the GAGE operated 2,644 schools, mostly elementary, intermediate, and secondary, with a total enrolment of 425,042 (female) students. These students make up 32 per cent of total student body in the country (Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Centre for Statistical Data, 1980).

Thirdly, there are other government educational organizations. In 1979-80, almost 6 per cent of all students in Saudi Arabia were enrolled in educational institutions that did not come under either the Ministry of Education or the GAGE. These institutions were

operated by the Ministry of Higher Education or the Ministries of Defence, Health, Social Affairs, Communications or one of the other government agencies which offer specialized kinds of instruction.

Fourthly, private schools are the oldest type of schools in modern Saudi Arabia. Prior to the availability of government schools, well-off families used to send their children to private schools in neighbouring countries or to the few private schools that existed inside Saudi Arabia. In 1950-51, private schools constituted about 11 per cent of all schools in the country (40 out of 365). In 1979-80, they made up about 4.3 per cent of all schools (433 out of 10,018). The decline in the share of private schools in the educational efforts reflected the tremendous increase in the number of government schools. Nevertheless, there has been an actual increase of 393 private schools since 1950-51. The increase in these schools reflects two developments in the socio-economic conditions of Saudi society, namely (a) the rise in the number of working mothers who send their small children to day-care centres and kindergartens, which make up nearly one-third of all private schools and the size of the upper-middle and middle classes some of whose members often choose to send their children to privately run schools where the quality of instruction is thought to be usually better than that in the public schools. In 1979-80, there were 65,635 students enrolled in private schools in the country (41,154 boys and 24,481 girls) accounting for nearly 5 per cent of the total student body.

While the organizations that administer formal education in Saudi Arabia are various and independent of each other, the basic plan of their programmes is almost identical. There is elementary school of six years that begins after the child has reached the age of six. The next stage is the intermediate or middle stage which lasts for three years. The third stage is the secondary stage which also lasts for three years. Students who go on to college, spend an average of four years for obtaining a bachelor's degree in the social sciences or arts or an average of five years for obtaining a bachelor's degree in the exact sciences.

With little prior expertise in modern education, the educational system in Saudi Arabia basically adopted the Egyptian school curricula, adding a heavier emphasis on religious subjects. The curricula of both girls and boys schools are identical except that girls schools offer classes in home management, cooking, and sewing which boys schools do not offer. There is a heavier emphasis in boys schools on physical education than there is in girls schools. Private schools are supervised by the Ministry of Education or the GAGE and their curricula are basically identical to those of the public schools.

Both the Ministry of Education and the GAGE have a curriculum department although little has changed in their educational programmes since their inception. Both organizations hire the authors of the required textbooks, print the books and distribute them among their schools. Thus there is a uniform curriculum in the country. The general composition of this curriculum shows that great time is allocated to religious subjects in the first grade. As the students go in higher class, the emphasis decreases accordingly. On

the contrary, English is not taught at the initial grades, while it is given due importance in higher grades.

Implementation of the curriculum is ensured through a variety of means such as the school principal and visits by inspectors from the district office, as well as by a system of final examination which covers all the material that is supposed to be taught in a particular semester.

Teaching methods differ from subject to subject. Teachers of religious subjects emphasize memorization of religious texts and rarely use any teaching aids other than the blackboard. Teachers of Arabic use the blackboard and also require a fair amount of text memorization. Teachers of science subjects use laboratories when they are available in their schools. Most school laboratories, however, are deficient either in equipment or in qualified personnel, or in both. Language laboratories exist in some elite schools for teaching English.

Arabic is the language of instruction throughout the elementary, intermediate, and secondary levels. At the college level Arabic is the medium in the arts, humanities, and social science. English is the medium of instruction in engineering, medicine, and the natural sciences. College level textbooks in Arabic and college instructors who have to use Arabic often type up their own notes and use them as basic required texts. The result is shallowness in educational standards in some college departments.

From grade 1 to 12, the school year is divided into two semesters. The required instructional material for a year is divided into two halves. At the end of each semester, there is an examination that covers one half. The student's marks in two semesters are added up to make up his or her mark for the whole year. If the final mark is below a certain percentage, usually 50 per cent the student fails in that subject and sits in another examination in the subject at the end of the summer recess.

If the student fails again to attain the required minimum marks, he or she has then to repeat the whole year, retaking all subjects of that year including those already passed. Success in passing examinations thus constitutes the only criterion for promotion from one year or grade to a higher one.

Colleges also operate on semester basis but, in a number of universities, the credit-unit system has been adopted and, thus, students who fail in a particular subject do not have to repeat the whole year or semester but, rather, only the subject they failed in, if it is a

10. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN PAKISTAN

10.1 Introduction

Pakistan inherited a system of education which had been designed to produce literate manpower to assist the colonial masters at lower levels of government and economic administration. Education was meant only for the privileged few who were supposed to govern the masses rather than to serve them.

In order to produce an efficient class of administration generalists, the main stress was on arts. Scientific and professional education was limited.

At the time of independence, Pakistan's 90% of population was illiterate with only a handful of educational institutions. Only two out of 21 universities of undivided India were situated in Pakistan. From 1947, to 1955, administration of education in Pakistan was the responsibility of local bodies. With the introduction of one-unit scheme, education became a provincial subject. General policy and overall coordination was handled by the national government through the Ministry of Education. Six regional directorates of general and two directorates of technical education handled administration. Intermediate and secondary education were under the control of four 'Boards'. Those who could afford, quality education was available to them in privately financed schools. Most of these schools were run by missionary groups which meant a continuation of British influence.

The First Educational Conference in Karachi held in November 1947, produced a number of recommendations designed to make the educational system strong and relevant to the country's needs and aspirations. This included making Urdu the official language, curriculum revision, diversification of courses, compulsory religious instruction and development of administrative machinery. But little of this ambitious blue print was actually accomplished because of the prevailing socio-political and economic conditions.

No comprehensive educational reforms were attempted prior to 1958. A few uncoordinated changes were introduced pertaining essentially to curriculum matters in primary and lower secondary levels. Very little attention was given to higher education. Some technical courses were introduced in classes VI to X and a few polytechnic and home economic courses were established. Ministry of Education attempted a comprehensive review of education in conjunction with the preparation of six-year development plan (1952-58) but lack of finances limited its implementation. Although the goals and objectives of the six-year development plan and those of the first five-year plan were not achieved to any significant extent, yet many of the ideas contained in them became parts of the later reforms. The 1959 Commission on National Education called for an overhaul of the structure and redefinition of the philosophy of education in the development of manpower and national character. New types of teaching institutions and specialized centres were proposed. Curricula at different stages were to become more diversified and technical education and research

were to expand. The Commission called for changes in administrative control of professional colleges and for lengthening the duration of courses in the centres of excellence and special centres for gifted students with emphasis on science.

New instructions created during the second plan period (1960-65) included setting up a Bureau of Education for research and data collection, pilot secondary schools with diversified curricula, educational extension centres, agricultural and engineering universities, institutes of education and research, textbook boards, boards of technical education. The plan to reorganise higher education and to increase the degree level beyond class XIV was frustrated due to the hostile reaction of students. Establishment of higher secondary boards relieved the universities and allowed them to concentrate on higher education.

New education policy 1969, and Education Reform of 1972, drew up fairly radical proposals. There was emphasis upon students and teachers involvement in the running of educational institutions, recognition of the importance of national and regional languages, a call for setting university commission, demand for changes in the University Ordinance and in the management of privately managed institutions. Establishment of national literacy corps was also proposed. In short, the new Education Policy of 1972, aimed at restructuring of education from top to bottom. However, implementation of this policy was hampered for several reasons. Nationalization of schools and colleges resulted in an unprecedented increase in education budget and a sharp decline in the educational standards.

Based on the recommendations of various committees, a National Bureau of Curriculum and Syllabi and a National Textbook Board were set up in February, 1967, within the Ministry of Education. Initially, the functions envisaged for Bureau of Curricula and Syllabi were:

- (a) to ensure that the content of education is unified in all the provinces so that the schools, colleges and universities in the provinces produce graduates of more or less equal academic level, sharing common national outlook and aspiring to common national goals;
- (b) to coordinate the work of the provinces in order to evolve common curricula and syllabi;
- (c) to undertake comparative study of curricula;
- (d) to identify problems and determine areas in which research is needed; to define research priorities and design research projects;
- (e) to hold consultations with subject matter specialists, teachers and other persons;
- (f) to hold seminars and meetings; and
- (g) to prepare reports and other documents.

The functions of the National Textbook Board were outlined as below:

- (a) to lay down a broad national policy governing the preparation and production of textbooks;

- (b) to review textbooks from time to time to see that they are in keeping with the changes taking place from time to time;
- (c) to ensure that the contents of education are identical and that achievement at different levels of education i.e. primary, secondary, etc., is more or less of graded academic standard;
- (d) to produce model textbooks upto pre-university levels; and
- (e) to produce standard books on selected disciplines, i.e. Islamic Ideology, Economics, Civics, etc.

Before the adoption of 1973 Constitution, the National Bureau of Curriculum and textbooks was entirely provincial subjects, whereas under the 1973 Constitution provision, curriculum syllabi, planning, policy, centres of excellence, standards of education and Islamic education were placed on the concurrent legislatives list of Federal Government. The functions of NBCT, as mutually agreed between the Federal and Provincial governments are as follows:

- (1) To assist and advise the government in the formulation and implementation of national policies with respect to curriculum development and evaluation and textbook production;
- (2) to coordinate the curriculum and textbook development activities and projects in the provincial Bureaus and Boards;
- (3) to provide leadership in curriculum and textbook development, in general and ye and play active role in those provinces where resources are yet to be developed;
- (4) to conduct research in curriculum development on different aspects of curriculum renovation for classes I to XII. To publish curriculum bulletins and handbooks;
- (5) to collect information and data regarding curriculum development and text-book production in other countries and, after assessing the development in the light of curriculum research, and disseminate same to the provincial agencies concerned;
- (6) to provide guidance and resource material to textbook boards and authors in the production of textbooks, workbooks, primers and readers.
- (7) to evaluate textbooks for all levels against national goals, aims and objectives;
- (8) to advise concerning curricula and materials for special educational needs and community development projects;
- (9) to liaise with educational institutions and authorities in Pakistan and with international agencies, such as UNESCO, I.B.E., UNICEF, I.L.O., and with curriculum development organizations in foreign countries.

The functions of the Provincial Bureau are as follows:

- (a) The Provincial Bureau of Curriculum will be responsible for preparing initial drafts of syllabi in given subjects for consideration of the National Committee concerned, and for micro-testing the final curriculum drafts;
- (b) The Provincial Bureaus will collaborate with the Provincial Textbooks Boards in the preparation of textbook manuscripts based on the agreed national curricula;
- (c) The Provincial Bureaus will collaborate with the various Boards, Education Extension Centres, Teacher Training Organizations and Education Equipment Centres in the implementation of the agreed curricula.

Education policy of 1979 placed greater emphasis upon religious education and Pakistan Studies. It also tried to integrate the religious institutions with mainstream national educational institutions. In order to achieve the target of universal primary enrolment, revival of mosques schools and maktabas was proposed. A women university was proposed to be set up in the country to strengthen the female education.

10.2 Curriculum Development and Revision and Reforms

The Education Commission, 1959, analysed the situation pertaining to curriculum development and reforms and pointed out in their report that:

- (a) First, it must provide adequate knowledge of subject that will be needed by every pupil for leading a useful and happy life in a fast developing society. This should form the core of compulsory subjects which every student must take up. Secondly, the curriculum should include such additional subjects and training as will form a preparation for specific vocation and careers;
- (b) The process of curriculum construction and its revision in the light of evolving social and individual interests and needs be a continuous one;
- (c) The curriculum should be adapted to the mental abilities of children aged five to ten related to the normal situations they are faced with in everyday life. It must be so designed as to develop the basic skills in reading, writing and arithmetics, a liking of patriotism. Teaching methods should, as far as possible, use the Activity or Project Approach, and teachers should show initiative in the use of local materials as teaching aids;
- (d) Religious education should be a compulsory subject throughout the primary stage;
- (e) Due emphasis should be placed on the teaching of the national languages.

With regard to Textbooks, the relevant recommendations of the Commission are produced below:

"The responsibility for drawing up syllabuses and prescribing courses is normally that of the education authorities. However, to realise the national objectives of education laid down in this report, the Ministry of Education set up a Textbook Board. It should be a small and autonomous body with representatives from the provinces and should work through textbooks committees operating within the sphere of each education authority.

The responsibility of the Textbook Board should be:

- (i) to frame the syllabuses according to the recommendations made in this report; and
- (ii) to lay down policy for the preparation, printing and publication of textbooks.

10.3 Process of Curriculum Development

The process of curriculum development which is generally followed in Pakistan, with slight variations, may be described to consist of the following stages:

- (i) **Determining the aims and goals of education:**

The first step in the process of curriculum development pertains to determining the aims and goals of education. Guidance to the curriculum developers is provided in

this respect by the prevalent education policy, Cabinet decision or some other policy statement by the President, Prime Minister or the Federal Minister for Education;

(ii) Formulation of various committees by the Curriculum Wing

In pursuance of the policy statement or policy guidelines, the Curriculum Wing of the Ministry of Education appoints two types of Committees at the national level viz. (1) National Committee on Secondary Education and Primary Education each, and (2) Subject Committees at primary and secondary levels separately. These committees which include teachers, subject specialists, administrators further delineate aims of education for subsequent input;

The Curriculum Wing, alongwith constituting the abovementioned committees also communicates the aims and goals of education and other policy guidelines to the Curriculum Research and Development Centres at the provincial level for appropriate action in respect of curriculum development;

(iii) Proposals by the CRDC's and Curriculum Bureaus

The Curriculum Research and Development Centres and the Bureaus of Curriculum functioning at the provincial levels take appropriate initiative and finalize their proposals, keeping in view the overall aims of education, local situation and their research experience etc. and send the same to the National Committee on Secondary/ Primary Education, as the case may be for further processing;

(iv) Processing in the National Committees

Having received the curricular proposals from the provincial CRDC's and BC's the relevant committee i.e. either the secondary or primary level committee ascertains their suitability in the light of overall aims of education and then with its recommendations and observations, sends the curricular proposals to the relevant subject committee. The relevant subject committee considers the whole package and sends it back to the primary/secondary level committee at the national level from whom it had received; The primary/secondary level committee functioning at the national level reconsiders the original proposals and the subsequent recommendations and accords final approval of the curriculum.

10.4 Textbooks

Textbooks play a very important role in educational activity. It was in recognition of this role that a full fledged textbook sector was established in the Bureau of Curriculum and Textbooks in 1974. Its main objectives are given as under:

1. To coordinate the work of four Provincial Textbook Boards;
2. To keep a check on the prices of textbooks published by the boards;
3. To ensure that the textbooks prepared by the provinces conform to national aims and objectives as expressed through national curriculum;
4. To maintain uniform standard in textbooks both in content and production;
5. To provide leadership to the boards by preparing model textbooks.

10.5 Production of Textbooks

Production of Textbooks in Pakistan is basically the responsibility of four Provincial Textbook Boards. These Boards are autonomous organizations under the administrative authority of the Provincial Education Department. The process of textbook production for classes I to XII starts from the Federal Ministry of Education. The Federal Ministry formulates curriculum and devises schemes of studies. The finalized curricula are forwarded to CRDC's and the Boards for preparation of textbooks.

For the preparation of manuscripts of textbook, two type of practices are prevalent. Some of the Boards appoint a panel of authors for writing a textbook and assign different chapters to them. Others, through open competition, invite written manuscripts. A committee of Boards' experts examines the manuscripts. The best manuscript is selected for publication and prescription. In certain cases where no manuscript is found up to the mark, lesson/chapters are selected from different manuscripts and the Boards own book. The finally selected/ adopted manuscript is submitted to the Federal Ministry of Education for approval.

The Ministry with the consent of the Provincial Education Departments constitutes a National Review Committee for all subject areas. The nominations for the members of the National Committee are made by the provinces, consisting of subject experts, curriculum planners and teachers etc. The committee for various subject areas examines the respective manuscript with a view to ascertain that true spirit of the national curricula is reflected in the textbooks. The Committee deter sequentially from grade to grade as well as to age and ability level. of the books remain uniform and ensures that there is no overloading. Measures to reduce prices are considered as well. The examined manuscripts with the committees are sent back to the Boards for printing.

The job of printing and publishing the textbooks is contracted out to private printers! publishers. The distribution of these textbooks is done by the private agencies. The publishers are mostly centred in big cities like, Karachi, Lahore, Peshawar, Hyderabad, and Quetta, and sell these books through retailers.

Since the prices of the books are to be kept at minimum, the amount of the profit of the books is to be kept at minimum, the amount of the profits of the publishers and commission to the retailers are specifically prescribed by the Textbook Boards.

11. A SUMMARY OF SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION AND CURRICULA OF SOME COUNTERTRIES OF THE WORLD

Name of the country	System of Education	Role of State	Responsibility of Curriculum	Compulsory Education	Principals Subjects taught at schools	System of Promotion in Grades in Schools
U.S.A	Diverse systems exist in various states. In each state a board of education for policy and preparing budget KG +8 elementary grades + 4 years of high school lead to high school graduation	Although state and local responsibility is shared, Federal Govt. gives financial support for education of Indians, veterans and students loans.	No, official national curriculum. Development is prescribed by specialists, subject matter is decided by school administrators and teachers are involved in curriculum development	Free public Education for 12 years from age of 6 or 7	English languages, math, social studies, science, music, arts and physical education, new subjects, ethics studies, consumer and alcohol abuse instruction.	Promotion at elementary level automatic examination at secondary level. Regular attendance and school record of achievement is criteria for award of diploma
United Kingdom	National system. Locally administered (local authority) primary school in two or three tiers 6 th form tertiary college technical college.	Secretary of the state for Education lays down policy and exercises supervision through her majesty's inspectors of schools	w.e.f 1989 National curriculum introduced.	Compulsory Education from age of 5 to 16 /18 years at two tier	Math, science, language, history, geography, art, music, religious education (from 1988)	No Grade system. Promotion through system on the basis of age. Examination at secondary level i.e. CSE, GCSE (O level), GCE (A level.)
Canada	Twelve education systems in different provinces offers equality in education opportunities to all citizens. System comprises: Elem. Schools, special schools, community colleges and universities.	Ministry of Education declares compulsory subjects and department issues guidelines.	National uniform curriculum. Even within provinces differ among systems. Schools staff actively participate in course designing.	From age of 5 to 16, 18 years at two tier i.e. Elementary and Secondary	At elementary level emphasis on reading, computation, science, social studies, music, art and Canadian studies. At secondary level: mathematics, science, art, history, business, civics, physical education	Principal or class teacher determines whether a student should graduate on basis of his school performance.
Russia	Consists of state K.G. system. General Education vocational schools, specialized secondary school higher education.	State exercises full control on policy, curriculum and budgets	Responsibilities for curriculum rests with the states	After pre-schooling primary education for three years is compulsory	(a) General Education: native language, math, music, art, physical education, foreign language and science are introduced progressively. (b) Secondary Education: literature, history, math, physics, chemistry, foreign language, economy, geography, labor education.	Promotion on the basis of assessment and test.

Name of the country	System of Education	Role of State	Responsibility of Curriculum	Compulsory Education	Principals Subjects taught at schools	System of Promotion in Grades in Schools
Japan	Kindergarten and Nursery 3*5 Elementary education for six years Lower secondary schools 3 years upper secondary school 4 years Higher education 3-4 years Education starts at 3 with pre-school education 5/6 primary schools years vocational schools. Under graduate programmers in university 4-5 years medical 6 years post-graduate M.A Ph.D.	Education is the state responsibility. There are private schools also.	Ministry of education prescribes curriculum and provides guidelines for instructional programs.	K.G or Nursery Elementary Education 6 years plus 3 years of lower secondary education.	Elementary Japanese languages social studies arithmetic's, general science, music art handicraft Secondary In addition foreign languages provincial subjects, technical and vocational subjects.. Teaching in Marxist theories, ideological and moral education	Promotion on the basis of tests / attendance performance. Based on tests and performance.
Peoples republic of China	Education starts at 3 with pre-school education 5/6 primary schools years vocational schools. Under graduate programmers in university 4-5 years medical 6 years post-graduate M.A Ph.D.	Communist party guide all educational programmers of the ministry of education.	Ministry of Education for mulaters curriculum prescribes teaching learning activities and guide teaching programmes books and teaching materials published.	Primary and lower secondary education 8 years.	Primary Basic and abilities relevant to future occupational roles. Emphasis on character development Secondary Language, science math social studies, character development work education. A large number of exploratory pre-vocational subjects are available.	Promotion system higher structured. Emphasis on end-of-year examination. Entrance to grade 11 and join university commerce education highly selective. However from 1975-1976 and of years examination for grade 11 or 12 were abolished. New system emphasizes internal assessment.
Thailand	Kindergarten 6-3-3- structure of education introduced in 1978 higher education	State Controlled.	The educational technique department develops and improves learning material text books reading material teaching guides etc.	Primary education is compulsory and free (6 years)		

Name of the country	System of Education	Role of State	Responsibility of Curriculum	Compulsory Education	Principals Subjects taught at schools	System of Promotion in Grades in Schools
Malaysia	Formal education starts at 6 in the primary school. Has a 6+3+2+2+2 years system of primary lower secondary upper secondary and post secondary.	State controlled	Curriculum development center established in 1973	Primary level education has universalized. Efforts are under ways to universalize secondary education	Three media of instructions Malaysia, Chinese and Tamil. English as the second language. At lower secondary level comprehensive style of education prevocational subjects At upper secondary level academic technical and vocational subjects are taught.	Promotion at primary and lower secondary levels is automatic External examination at secondary and higher level.
Saudi Arabia	Supreme Council of education coordinates education. Four major educational bodies i. Ministry of education ii. General Administration of Girls schools iii. other government educational organizations iv. Private schools education structure Elementary 3 years secondary 3 years intermediate 4/5 college education.	State controlled	Egyptian school curriculum is mostly adopted with a heavier emphasis on religious subjects.		Egyptian model heavy emphasis on religious subjects. Curriculum of both boys and girls school are identical except that girls schools offer subjects in home management sewing and cooking while heavier emphasis is given on physical education in boys schools.	Promotion through examination from grade 1 to 2 years is divided in 3 semesters semester system introduced also in universities credit system
Pakistan	Formal Education primary lower secondary middle secondary higher secondary and college university professional level	State controlled	Curriculum development at the federal level by the federal bureau of Curriculum and textbooks.	Nil. Target of achieving universal primary education is yet to be achieved.	Regional language number skills social studies at primary level English math science and home vocational subject are added at lower secondary levels a wide range of vocational subject offered at secondary level subject taught at higher secondary level are meant to prepare students for medical engineering and arts studies at higher level Islamiyat and Pakistan studies are compulsory from primary to higher secondary levels.	System of promotion is based on annual examinations at all levels except at some universities professional colleges where semester has been introduced has been in divisions has been replaced by grade system

11.1 Self-assessment Questions

1. System of education and curriculum of a country reflect the national characteristics and aspirations of the people. Discuss this with reference to Canada and Malaysia.
2. You have studied the systems of education and curricula of some countries of the world. How would you classify the curriculum development. Explain with examples.
3. Describe the salient features of the educational systems of Russia and China.
4. How would you evaluate the Japanese system of education and curriculum? How far can we draw some lesson from it?
5. From the comparative study of various curricula, suggest some changes in the school curriculum of Pakistan?
6. Go through the following statements and tick 'T' if the statement is True and 'F' if the statement is False:
 - (a) Education system of a country has got a close relationship with the process of curriculum development. T/F
 - (b) In the USA, the school lunch programmes are lanced by the local authorities. T/F
 - (c) There is no official national curriculum in the USA. T/F
 - (d) The General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) was introduced to in the UK in 1988. T/F
 - (e) In Japan, the schools prepare their own detailed instructional programme in the ligh of policy guidelines given by the Ministry of Education. T/F
 - (f) In China, each -of the schools has got its own curriculum. T/F
 - (g) In Thailand, the curriculum at all levels of education is heavily dominated by foreign influences. T/F
 - (h) In Malaysia, all the primary schools follow a uniform curriculum. T/F
 - (i) Saudi Arabia has primarily adopted the Egyptian pattern of curriculum T/F

11.2 Answers of Self-assessment Questions

Q 1-5: For answers to questions No. 1 to 5, consult the relevant portions of the text.

- Q 6: (a) T (b) F (c) T
(d) T (e) T (f) F
(g) F (h) F (i) T

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