Module for Post-Graduate Diploma in Education Programme

CURRICULUM STUDIES IN ARTS

(ENGLISH, FRENCH, GHANAIAN LANGUAGES)

MR. SETH KOFI NTI

REPUBLIC OF GHANA

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION, UCC

IoE/MoF/TUC/GHANA CARES TRAINING AND RETRAINING

PROGRAMME FOR PRIVATE SCHOOL TEACHERS

Ministry of Finance   **Trade Union Congress**   **University of Cape Coast**

DECEMBER, 2022

TABLE OF CONTENT

CONTENT	PAGE

UNIT 1:   CONCEPTIONS OF CURRICULUM

A.   Some Definitions of Curriculum

The word curriculum is etymologically derived from the Latin word "curere" which literally translates as "race course" (Castle, 1985; Connely Lantz, 1985). This metaphor of a race course is still valid today because learning in a school or training institution still view their course programme as a series of hurdles/ obstacles to be cleared. Conceptually, the definitions of curriculum have been grouped into three categories – narrow, broad and midway definitions. (Tamakloe, 1992).

i) Narrow Definitions

1. Webster's New International Dictionary:

a) A course, especially, a specified fixed course of study, as in a school, or college, as one leading to a degree.

b) 'The whole body of courses offered in an educational institution, or by a department thereof…'

2. 'A course, or a complete set of courses of a fixed series of prescribed study at a school or college.'

3. 'Curriculum refers to the courses or subjects specified by the Ministry of Education that are to be taught at each grade level as well as the amount of time devoted to each.' (Barakett and Cleghorn, 2000).

4. A curriculum is 'a course of study to be taught to students in an educational institution. It is what is to be taught' (McNiel, 1985). He goes on to say that consideration of the curriculum must include its purpose, content, organization, and evaluation.

Limitations:

   a) A common feature of such narrow definitions is the fact that they tend to limit curriculum to academic work in the form of taught courses. It overlooks any additional elements that need to be provided to make learning complete.

   b) The narrow definitions does not give a full picture of the type of work we see curriculum workers, teachers, and their students engage in. other activities of the school like morning devotion, games and sports, club and society meetings etc, are "extra-curricular". Tamakloe (1992) views none of the school's activities as extra-curricular because they all ultimately help to shape the attitudes, skills, character and personalities of learners.

c) The narrow definitions also do not cover the hidden curriculum (ie. Those aspects of the school environment that influence the behaviour of learners but that are usually not accounted for in the curriculum planning).

d) A further criticism of narrow definitions of curriculum is the idea that they wrongly assume that what is studied is what is learned. In this regard, they fail to account for the need to educate learners to adapt to changing needs and circumstances (Marsh and Willis, 1995)

ii) **Broad Definitions**

An extremely broad concept of curriculum may run like this: 'Curriculum is what goes on in schools and other training institutions…' (Mathews, 1989). Or 'All the experiences that learners have in the course of living.'

Limitations:

a) The objection to such a curriculum is on grounds that it negates or obscures the function of curriculum as a device for planning educational programmes and instruction.

b) A second criticism is that Mathew's definition is too wide ranging and lacks circumspection. This is because, by implication, it covers non-educative aspects of school life sometimes referred to as the 'municipal services' that include the work of the school labourers, the cooks, the school nurse, the watchman, the accounting staff and clerks at the school administration, etc. all these activities take place within the school setup, though they are not necessarily part of the curriculum because they do not directly contribute to learning as such.

c) The broad definition does not make distribution between what happens in school and what happens in life generally.

iii) **Midway Definitions**

Examples of midway definitions are:

1. 'All planned learning for which the school is responsible'
2. 'All the experiences that the learner has under the guidance of the school'
3. '…all the learning, which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually, inside or outside the school' (Kerr, 1968)
4. '…a series of planned events that are intended to have educational consequences for one or more students' (Eisner, 1994)

5. 'The formal and informal content and process by which the learners gain knowledge and understanding, developing skills and other attitudes, appreciations, and values under the auspices of that school.'(Doll, 1989)

Features

a) Midway definitions of curriculum shift the focus from course work or content to experiences of learners. Such experiences of learners which must necessarily have educational value can be through both mental and physical activities. They also include academic work of course work, the core aspect of the narrow definitions.

b) Midway definitions stress the important point that by curriculum we mean these activities of schools and training institutions which are deliberately planned to result in some learning or positive change in the behaviour of learners.

c) Midway definitions, therefore, suggest that the term curriculum can be stretched to include the personal experiences and activities of learners for which school and training institution authorities will feel proud to accept responsibility of be associated with.

d) Midway definitions appear to reflect the educational state of affairs more accurately than the previous definitions. This is because schooling is not all about the acquisition of prescribed knowledge but also about the development of learners through the acquisition of desirable attitudes, feelings and sensitivities as learners get exposed to the entire socialism processes of schools.

Limitations

i. Midway definitions have been criticised as being far too broad to be functional in the planning stage, as the experiences that learners will actually have as they interact with the curriculum cannot be circumscribed. (Taba, 1992; Johnson, 1967).

ii. Because of its complex nature, a single sentence definition of the term often stands a very high risk of neglecting to include some of its essential features as a theoretical and practical phenomenon. It is quite helpful, therefore, to try to describe its recognisable features in addition to attempting to define it.

Characteristics of a good Definition of Curriculum

A good definition of curriculum should help us identify the features of curriculum, including:

i. The curriculum comprises the educational experiences of schools (teaching and learning activities) in the widest possible sense. Schools and training institutions are purposeful organisations set up with the basic aim of helping learners to acquire and apply sensibly the socially valued knowledge, skills, attitudes and values for effective living in society.

School learning activities may be categorised into three main types: academic work, co-curricula activities and positive aspects of the hidden curriculum.

a. The academic work is at the centre of the curriculum process; it is the most visible component of school work. Efforts are made to expose the learners to specifically planned content and other learning activities in order to develop their intellectual skills.

b. Co-curricula activities are usually non-academic activities which learners engage in to make their learning complete. They provide recreational and other socialisation experiences

c. Through the hidden curriculum, learners are exposed to the effects of subcultures of the schools as a result of the way and manner in which schools are structured and governed.

Through the academic work, co-curricular activities and the hidden curriculum, the curriculum helps to develop learners in all three domains of learning – ie. cognitive, affective and psychomotor.

ii, The curriculum is a plan for action, ie. a plan which guides instruction. Teaching and learning activities are deliberately structured and programmed to achieve certain desired learning outcomes. Elements of the curriculum which clearly indicate that it has been deliberately planned include the time-table, scheme of work, the lesson plan, the prescribed textbooks, the academic calendar, administration of examinations etc. The deliberate planning of the curriculum also makes it possible for the needed adustments to be made in line with changing needs and circumstances.

iii, The curriculum provides guidance to learners in their educational endeavours. Teachers are supposed to give learners in their academic work and social-moral conduct. Teachers are to serve as information givers ie. they are expected to play three key guidance and counselling roles, namely, academic guidance, career guidance and personal social adjustment counselling.

iv. Within the school setup, the curriculum largely takes place in groups. In the first place, the school is permanently segmented into classes or grade levels to ensure that instructional services are offered in accordance with the maturity level and intellectual sophistication of learners. This arrangement helps to cater for the specific learning needs, interests and purposes of the various age groups. The group idea makes for instructional effectiveness and effectiveness.

v. The curriculum permits individual learners to engage in self-instruction. Learners are encouraged in private studies in the form of self-instructional readings, scientific

research work and activities to add to the knowledge they acquire from their participation in class activities.

vi. The curriculum is carried out both inside and outside the school. Much of school learning takes place within the boundaries of the school setup. Some other teaching and learning activities take place outside the school – excursions, study trips, field trips, fieldwork, internship activities, off-campus teaching practice, and individual attachment.

vii. The real curriculum for the learner, the one that makes a difference in his/her life is the curriculum that he/she experiences. Because learners differ from one another it can never be the same for everybody. This point goes to emphasize an important observation made by Eisner(1994) that "what children learn in school is wider than what teachers intend to teach"

B.   Terminologies

1. The Official Curriculum.

The official curriculum, which is variously referred to as the 'prescribed', 'recommended', 'explicit', 'intended', 'adopted' or 'planned' curriculum, refers to the officially prescribed programme of studies and other aspects of school life which are usually documented. Goodld (1984) says it is the subject matter, skills and values that policy makers expect to be taught. The official curriculum represents the publicly announced expectations the school or training institution has for its learners.

According to Hawes (1979), the official curriculum usually takes the form of national public statements of goals and intents of education, the legal and administrative framework of the school systems, official calendars and time allocation, the syllabus and related descriptions of prescribed content, official list of recommended books and the administration of exams. Other aspects of the official curriculum are policies on school buildings, furniture, teaching and learning equipment.

2. The Actual Curriculum.

The actual, 'operational' or 'taught' curriculum, as it is variously called, describes what actually takes place in class by way of teaching and learning experienced by learners as a result of the practical or real circumstances on the ground. Eisner (1994) explains the actual curriculum in terms of 'the unique set of events that transpire within a classroom.' He goes on to say that 'it is what occurs between teachers and students, and between students and students.' Elsewhere, he says the actual or operational curriculum refers to those activities that occur in the classroom taking into consideration the materials, content and events in which students are engaged.

As a partial solution to the gap between the official and the actual curriculum, Hawes (1979), suggests that two conditions must be satisfied:

i) Teachers should be asked to do manageable work in accordance with their intellectual capacities. They need to be encouraged through the provision of teacher support materials.

ii) Teachers should be supported to develop genuine interest and enthusiasm in the subjects they teach.

3. **Null Curriculum**

Eisner (1994) is of the opinion that 'schools teach much more – and much less – than they intend to teach'. He has referred to the intellectual processes and content that schools do not teach as the 'null curriculum'.

The null curriculum may be processed as an indictment on the planned curriculum and the poor quality of teaching that takes place in schools.

4. **The Informal or Co-curriculum**

The informal curriculum refers to those activities that go on, often times, after school hours, at weekends and/or during holidays. This may take the form of sports, club trips etc. (Kelly, 1989). This informal curriculum provides opportunity for those who participate in them to acquire social and academic skills in many different contexts.

Tanner and Tanner (1980) posit that 'if the curriculum is so conceived as to correlate such activities with those more directly connected with the formal course of study, the possibilities for realizing the desired learning outcomes of the curriculum are enhanced enormously'

5. **The Hidden Curriculum.**

According to Kelly (1989), the hidden curriculum refers to 'those things which pupils learn at school because of the way in which the work of the school is planned and organized but which are not in themselves overtly included in the planning or even in the consciousness of those responsible for the school arrangement.'

As a result of the hidden curriculum, learners learn more than their teachers can imagine. The implication for teachers and school authorities is that although they cannot control what students learn via the hidden curriculum directly, they can do a lot to ensure that what the hidden curriculum imports will be positive.

6. **The Enacted Curriculum**

This refers to the particular peculiar way and manner in which teachers present the curriculum to the learners as they seek to facilitate learning. The fact that within the

constraints of time and resources, individual teachers exhibit high degrees of difference in the methods they use to aid students to learn.

7. **The Experienced Curriculum**

There is widespread belief that the curriculum as experienced by the learner often turns out to be different from the curriculum as planned and enacted by the teacher. This is to say that individual learners tend to interpret and, therefore, derive different meaning and significance from what they are taught. The individual differences come about as a result of differences in the intellectual orientation of learners, their training and experience, even their physiological make-ups. As an example, learners may interpret the new things they are introduced to against the background of similar content or subject matter or still which they are familiar.

C.   Relationships

i.   Curriculum and Society

The curriculum is expected to be determined and developed by society to serve its educational purposes. They include schools and other training institutions and society's specialized agencies for the systematic education of the learners.

Society demands two basic functions from the schools. In the first, the schools are expected to maintain the status quo by transmitting the cultural heritage to the younger generation and other learners. Sociologists distinguish between two component elements of culture that the schools transmit. These are:

    a. The instrumental component consisting of skills, facts and procedures; and
    b, The expressive components made up of values, norms, concepts, traditions and images of approved behaviour.

Secondly, the schools are expected to pass on knowledge, skills attitudes and values in such instrumental terms that the learners are equipped to bring about worthwhile changes for the progress of society. This function is called the innovative of progressive function; in this regard, the school is expected to be major source of now ideas and knowledge.

Again, since societies differ in their cultural, economic, social, political, technological and other characteristics, it does not make sense to transplant wholesale, a curriculum package that has been specifically designed for one society to another. That is to say, curriculum and instructional programmes are at their best when they are tailored to specifications of the host society.

ii.   Curriculum and Education

Curriculum and education are not synonymous; Mathews (1989) posits that curriculum cannot be equated to education. Education has been described as 'the total process of

human learning by which knowledge is imparted, faculties trained and skills developed' (Farrant, 1980). The UNESCO also defines education as 'organised and sustained instruction designed to communicate a combination of knowledge, skills and understanding valuable skills for all activities of life'. Education in this broad sense is an on-going process that takes place at all times in all settings.

The process that constitutes education may be categorized into 3 forms in terms of their scope of operation and methods they employ.

a) **Formal Education:** refers to type of education provided by specially established institutions called schools, usually under the supervision of a ministry or agency, and responsible for providing formal, systematic educational services of a general kind to children and other kinds of learners. Under formal education, learning activities are planned with a particular educational and guided by: syllabuses, teachers, teaching/learning materials and equipment, grading, exams, etc.

b) **Non- Formal Education:** is a type of education provided by bodies or groups outside the formal school system to meet specific training and other learning needs of their members. Non-formal education takes diverse forms, and the methods employed also differ. For example:
   - Mass education on some political or social issues employing the cinema, radio, TV broadcasting, use of mobile vans etc.
   - Extension services for farmers
   - Training to traditional birth attendants
   - Literacy classes for illiterate adults organised by Social Welfare, Community Development, Non-formal unit etc.

c) **Informal Education:** refers to the spontaneous and voluntary type of teaching and learning that take place either consciously or unconsciously as learners participate in the normal processes of socialization in human society in human society:
   - Informal education is unstructured, spontaneous and incidental

   - Much of informal education takes place casually throughout the life span of the individual as a result of everyday social interactions

   - Learners pick up certain attitudes, behaviour, habits, mannerisms through:
       1) Home upbringing
       2) Friends and peers
       3) Groups, associations, clubs, societies
       4) The church
       5) Interactions with mass media
       6) NGO's

iii. **Curriculum and Syllabus**

Curriculum has been explained as all educationally valuable experiences that learners undergo under the guidance of a school or training institution. Many tend to equate curriculum to the syllabus or the content of courses taught in an educational institution The syllabus can be defined in a very general sense and in a rather limited sense. Generally, the syllabus has been defined as 'a course of study ordered by a learning institution in a specific period of time' (Debin and Olshtain, 1986). This broad term embraces within the concept syllabus, the outline of a course as well as other documents designed to ensure effective teaching; ie. scheme of work, prescribed textbooks, workbooks etc.

The limited usage of the term 'syllabus' restricts its application to a course outline or guide that provides a list of topics to be covered in a given course with a particular class or grade level. In other words, a syllabus can be defined as a course outline comprising a collection of topics on the same subject matter and a series of statements of what is to be learned within a given time frame.

In summary, the curriculum refers to the totality of the school activities and experiences that have educational consequences. The syllabus can best be described as a sub-set of the curriculum; it guides the academic content of the curriculum.

UNIT 2:   CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The term 'curriculum development' is often interchanged with diverse terminologies in the literature as though they mean the same thing. The terminologies include: Curriculum Planning, Curriculum Construction, Curriculum Design, Curriculum Improvement, Curriculum Revision and Curriculum Change.

1. **Curriculum Planning**
   This describes the process of making decisions and taking actions that are intended to result in beneficial curriculum change. To plan is to engage in a process or procedure to develop a method for achieving an end. It is largely concerned with the pre-specification of actions to produce the curriculum plan, package, or frameworks and guidelines, and materials that teachers will eventually implement.

   Three key decisions are usually made at the curriculum planning stage:
   a. Determining in advance what learners will be able to achieve after going through an instructional sequence.

   b. Devising the means by which learners will realise the objectives. Usually, this involves selecting and integrating appropriate learning experiences and content, and deciding on the appropriate methods of instruction.

   c. Determining whether the curriculum package is effective, and whether learners are making progress toward achieving learning objectives.

2. **Curriculum Construction**
   It has to do with giving form and meaning to the initial decisions and actions taken at the planning stage to enhance implementation. It has a technical activity to be undertaken by curriculum professionals who have the expertise to design, structure and sequence curriculum and instructional systems for maximum impact.

3. **Curriculum Design**
   Curriculum Design most commonly refers to the arrangement of the components or elements of a curriculum into a pattern of organisation. The components include:
   i.   Aims, goals and objectives
   ii.   Learning experiences
   iii. Content
   iv.   Evaluation

   The essence for evaluation or organising the curriculum into a particular pattern is that the   various patterns eventually determine the calibre of persons that the school is supposed to make out of its products or graduates. When instructors design their

curriculums, they identity what will be done, who will do it and when, as well as what the objective of each course is.

4. **Curriculum Improvement/ Revision and Change**

   Curriculum improvement/ revision and change are generally about making adjustments in the curriculum to make it more effective after it has been implemented for some time (about ten years). For Taba (1962), curriculum improvement or revision refers to gradual or evolutionary change of certain aspects of the curriculum without a radical rethinking and reorganisation of its fundamental elements or components. On the other hand, she associates curriculum reform, to the transformation of the entire curriculum including; the design, goals and objectives, content, learning activities, scope, and changes in the values that underpin the curriculum.

5. **Curriculum Development**

   i. It is an umbrella term that covers all the various terminologies associated with curriculum.

   ii. It entails making design decisions – pattern of organisation, formulation of aims, goals and objectives, selection of appropriate learning experiences and content, organisation and integration of various elements for effective implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

   iii. It connotes changing of the curriculum for the possibility that the planned curriculum can still 'develop' further as it is implemented by individual teachers in the classroom or experienced by individual learners.

B. **Some Models of Curriculum Development**

   Olivia (1992) explains that a curriculum development model 'may be tried or untried scheme. It may be a proposed solution to a piece of a problem; an attempt at a solution to a specific problem…'

Mathews (1989) has identified a four-point criteria for identifying a good curriculum development model:

- It should be based on an analysis of things that actually exist.
- It should be adaptable
- It should be comprehensible
- It should provoke thought and speculation on how the organisation could be changed.

Some Selected Models:

1) **Tyler's Linear Model:**

Tyler believes that the curriculum development process consists of finding answers to four fundamental questions, namely:

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

Answers to these questions can constitute the components of Tyler's curriculum processes:
  i. Selection of objectives
 ii. Selection of learning experiences
iii. Organisation of learning experiences
 iv. Evaluation

Merits:
- It gives the world the first complete and comprehensive view about how the curricula of schools could be systematically planned and organised.

- The Tyler model is the basic model of the objectives approach. Many other models are attempts to improve upon the Tyler rationale.

- The Tyler model has had much more influence on curriculum thinking than other models.

- Tyler's criteria for selecting objectives are value-free and generalized, it does not impose any particular philosophy of education for use by the students.

Criticisms:
a. Tyler's model is criticised for being simplistic and mechanistic; it represents the curriculum development process as a straight-forward linear activity that begins with objectives and ends with evaluation.

b. It is based on an end-means line of thinking for ensuring instructional efficiency and effectiveness. Students are viewed as some kind of raw-materials that are to be processed in line with the production chain.

c. Tanner and Tanner(1950) have argued that Tyler presented the three sources of objectives(ie. learners, contemporary society, subject specialists) as separate entities without showing interrelationships with one another.

d. Kliebard(1970) criticises subject-specialists as a source of objectives on grounds that learning subject matter is neither the only not the highest purpose of education.

e. Tyler downplays the selection of subject matter knowledge or content in the curriculum process.

f. Tyler does not indicate adequately the interrelatedness of the components of the curriculum process; each element is considered in isolation.

2) Wheeler's Circular Model
Wheeler (1983) suggested a circular framework "so that over time the final phase (ie. evaluation) affects the initial one". In its simplest form, Wheeler's model may be represented as follows:
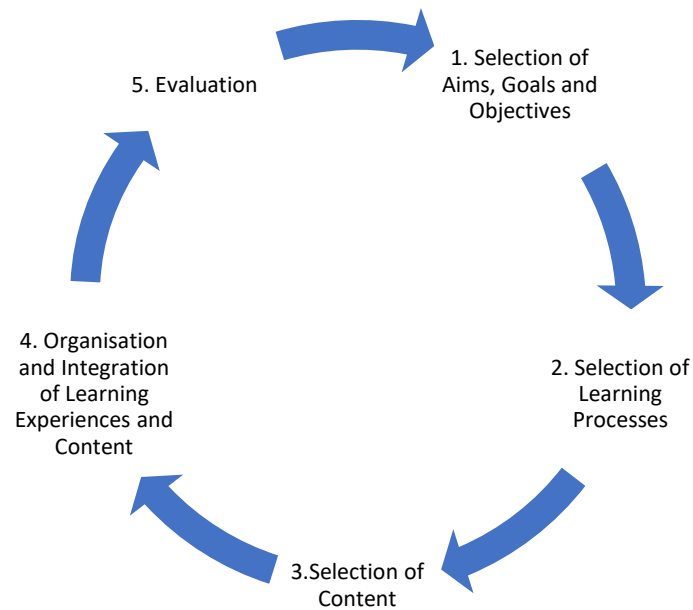
Features:
- Learning experiences and content are selected separately, though these elements are subsequently organised and integrated with each other to ensure mutual reinforcement.

- Wheeler stresses the need to recognise the hierarchical nature of educational objectives. He suggests that for effective curriculum and instruction work to be possible there must be clear distinction between aims, goals and objectives.

- He views learning experiences as the means of instilling or changing behaviour on the part of learners. He identified three main types of learning experiences, namely: "physical experience" (phycho-motor), "mental experience" (ie. cognitive) and "emotional experience" (ie. affective).

- Content or subject matter knowledge should be used to facilitate the experiences of learners. He therefore strongly objects to the tradition in educational systems whereby selection of subject matter forms the main basis of organisation of the curriculum for learners.

- The most important feature of Wheeler's "Wheel" is its cyclical nature. Thus, for Wheeler, curriculum development is a continuous and never-ending process.

Advantages:

i. The cyclical nature of Wheeler's Mode; emphasises the interrelatedness or interaction between/among the various phases of the process.

ii. Wheeler's idea of translating educational aims by a three-step process into discrete classroom level objectives is a significant contribution to the curriculum development process.

iii. He not only distinguishes clearly between learning experiences and content, but also argues for the primacy of experiences undergone by learners as the focal point for organisation of the school curriculum.

iv. Wheeler's idea that learning experiences and content should be organised and integrated with each other is a very useful one.

Criticisms:

a. The fact that its circular nature with single edged arrows linking up the various phases on a unidirectional formation does not give a full account of interconnections.

b. Wheeler's model ignores needs analysis which must precede formulation of aims and objectives.

c. It does not depart from the ends-means orientation of previous models.

4. Standards-based Curriculum

In education, the term standards-based refers to systems of instruction, assessment, grading, and academic reporting that are based on students demonstrating, understanding or mastery of the knowledge and skills they are expected to learn as they progress through their education.

Standards-based Curriculum refers to the instruction and academic content taught in a school or in a specific course or program referring to the knowledge and skills students are expected to learn, which is determined by the learning standards they are expected to meet. Standards aligned curriculum would then be the specific learning standards, lessons, assignments, and materials used to organize, teach, and assess a particular course.

A Standards-based curriculum is a body of knowledge and set of competencies that form the basis for a quality education. It defines what students should know, understand and be able to do and includes the accompanying teaching content.

A standards-based curriculum offers schools the opportunity to improve curriculum quality by making sure teachers teach the most important content and eliminate learning gaps that may exist between sequential course and grade levels. When the curriculum is not aligned through the grades, student academic proficiency can decrease with the strongest impact noted by the secondary grades.

The general goal of standards-based learning is to ensure that students are acquiring the knowledge and skills that are deemed to be essential to success in school, higher education, careers, and adult life.

Characteristics of a Standards-based Curriculum
Trafton, Reys, and Wasman (2001) proposed that a standards-based curriculum contained six characteristics:
   i. comprehensibility
   ii. coherence
   iii. development of ideas in depth
   iv. promotion of sense-making
   v. engagement of students
   vi. motivation for learning.

Merits
i. It promotes high expectations for all students.
ii. Standards-based curriculum benefits learning through the practice of building on the student's prior knowledge to teach new concepts. The new information becomes more meaningful and easier to understand because of the personal connection to the past.

UNIT 3:   CURRICULUM AIMS, GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Aims are extremely broad ends. They are the very broad or general statements of the purposes of education supposed to give general direction or orientation to education in an entire country.

Goals refer to educational intentions or outcomes of the entire institutional level or a particular school.

Objectives are students' statements of the outcomes which specify the kind of changes in behaviour which has to occur in a learner after going through an educational programme.

1. **National Aims or Ultimate Goals.**
   National aims or ultimate goals describe broad policy intentions or statements on education usually issued by a nation's policy makers or members of government. Such statements are often vaguely stated and they express people's impressions or expectations as to the kind of person the educational system should produce.

   According to Taba (1962), statements to the effect that education should transmit should transmit culture, reconstruct society, or provide for the fullest development of the individual stake out the broad aims of education.

   The following are some of the characteristics of curriculum aims or ultimate goals:

   a. Curriculum aims are ultimate in character in the sense that they indicate conditions or outcomes desired for the national as a whole.

   b. Curriculum aims span over a long period of time. Usually no time limit is set by which the goals must be reached.

   c. Again, curriculum aims do not specify any criteria for achievement. They only provide direction or orientation for improving a nation's educational system.

   d. Ultimate goals are stated in such broad terms that they can apply to any level of a nation's educational system. They thus serve as the conceptual framework or philosophy upon which the entire educational enterprise is based.

   e. Curriculum aims or ultimate goals are not permanent

2. **Institutional or Mediate Goals**
   Institutional or mediate goals are the more narrow goals of the various educational institutions, such as: primary, secondary, colleges of education, polytechnic, university etc. that are set up under a nation's system. They are medium-term in time perspective.

Some characteristics of mediate goals are that:

a. They relate to the educational aims of the nation concerned. They are sometimes directly derived from it but in some nations the individual schools are allowed autonomy to pursue their own aims and objectives.

b. They are programmatic in the sense that although they speak to one or more areas of the curriculum, they do not delineate specific courses or items of content but have to do with the institutional programme as a whole.

c. Thirdly, they refer to the accomplishment of groups and not the achievement of individual students.

d. Institutional goals are stated in terms that provide direction for curriculum development. Also, they are usually broad enough to lead to specific course or subject objectives.

An example of mediate goals is the goals of primary education in Ghana. Under the JSS/SSS Reforms of 1987, they may be stated as follows:

- Literacy in English and at least one Ghanaian language
- Numeracy
- Socialization
- Attitude Development
- Values
- Introduction to science and technology
- Education for work
- Development of inquiry, problem solving and creativity skills.

3. **Subject/Course Goals or Proximate Goals:**
   Objectives for individual subjects or courses represent the next level of purposes after those of the various institutions have been set. Course objectives may be found documented in syllabuses or course outlines. Their purposes are to provide direction for the selection and organisation of content and learning experiences.

   Course objectives are close to institutional goals because they constitute the objectives that combine to fulfil the institutional goals.

   Course objectives may be viewed as long-term in their perspective because a subject may be structured in such a way that it is pursued at higher levels of the educational ladder.

   Whichever way one views course objectives or proximate goals, they are important because they guide curriculum makers and teachers in making curriculum decisions

such as what to cover, what content and learning experiences to select and what to stress or emphasise.

4. **Lesson Plan or Specific Objectives:**
This is the final stage in the process of translating national aims of education into changes in the behaviour of learners. Behavioural or instructional objectives seek to pinpoint exactly what the learner is expected to be able to do as a result of going through all or a phase of the content and learning experiences covered in a lesson. They identify precisely what kind of thinking, feeling or physical behaviour the student is intended to be able to use, with specified information, skill, or values if desired learning has taken place. Lesson plan objectives should exhibit SMART characteristics: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, Time-bound.

B.   **Functions of Educational Objectives.**
1. Objectives determine the directions that desired growth should take place in the learner. Teachers have the responsibility to determine which kinds or experiences are educative and those that are not.

2. Objectives provide the base for the selection of content and learning experiences. Curriculum developers and teachers need some basis for selecting those things that are most crucial in the life outside school and those that would find interesting and relevant enough to be motivated to learn.

3. Educational objectives provide clear guidelines as to what to do with given content, learning experiences and, teaching/learning materials prescribed in the syllabus or course outline.

4. Objectives provide a means for educators in describing, explaining or communicating what they are trying to do by way of providing education for learners.

5. Objectives provide the basis for evaluating the effectiveness of instruction, and progress of other aspects of school life.

C.   **Sources of Educational Objectives**
The sources of objectives identified by Tyler (1949) are as follows:

1) **Learners as a source**:
According to Tyler, rational curriculum making begins with the gathering and analysis of data on learners' needs and interests. Such needs include nutritional, physical, educational, social, occupational, psychological and recreational needs and interests of learners.

2) **Society as a Source:**
   Tyler was of the view that an analysis of contemporary society would important societal needs to be met through a nation's educational system. He suggested that curriculum makers should develop a classification system that separates life into various aspects like health, family, recreation, vocation, religion, economic and civic roles so that the needs and purposes of these various realms of life could be catered for by appropriate educational objectives.

3) **Subject matter as a Source:**
   Tyler was of the view that subject specialists should be constructed in formulating objectives so that they can advise on aspects of their subject that might help to play the various roles in society. The important decision has to be made as regards what all learners should know.

4) **Philosophy as a Source:**
   Tyler advised that schools should formulate their own educational and social philosophies and that educational objectives emanating from the first three sources that prove to be contradictory or at variance with such philosophy should be removed from the list of objectives.

5) **Psychology as a Source:**
   According to Tyler (1949), using psychology as a screen for educational objectives requires that teachers clarify the principles of learning that they believe to be sound so that the feasibility of tentative objectives can be assessed by weighing the against the tested principles of learning. Thus, curriculum makers try to answer questions on how feasible the given objectives are taken into consideration, their appropriateness for the age and maturation of learners.

Specific Objectives:

After the curriculum maker or teacher has selected and screened a list of important objectives, the next thing is to state them in such a way that they will facilitate the selection of appropriate learning experiences and content for effective teaching and learning to take place.

A behavioural or instructional objective has many attributes such as the following (Tamakloe, 1992)

1. It is directed to the learner in the sense that it describes the terminal behaviour of the learner and not what the teacher intends to do.
2. It is at the same time a teacher goal in the sense that it describes what the teacher expects the learner to be able to do as a result of being taught.
3. It is stated in simple, lucid language for easy understanding.
4. It is specific in the sense that it given description of what the learner is expected to do.
5. It specifies the degree of mastery or level of performance required of the learner.
6. It specifies the conditions, in terms of limitations and materials to be used, etc. in order to reach the desired performance.

7. It is stated with action verbs, which suggest activities to be undertaken eg. to: write, recite, identify, solve, construct, differentiate, list, compare, contrast, spell etc.
8. It is stated with words which are not open to several interpretations or which have restricted meaning.
9. It is stated in such a way that the terminal learner behaviour can be observed and measured.

Examples of action verbs for stating specific objectives are:
- write
- solve
- recite
- add
- recite
- list
- spell
- label
- identify
- compare
- discuss
- descry

UNIT 4: CURRICULUM EVALUATION

Definitions:

i.   The process of evaluation is essentially the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are actually being realised by the programme of curriculum and instruction. (Tyler, 1994)

ii.   The collection and provision of evidence, on the basis of which decisions can be made about the feasibility, effectiveness and educational value of curricula. (Cooper, 1976)

iii. "The collection and use of information as a basis for decisions about an educational programme." (Cronback, 1984)

iv.   "The process or processes used to weigh the relative merits of these educational alternatives which, at any one time, are deemed to fall within the domain of curriculum practice." (Hamilton, 1976)

Essentially, curriculum evaluation involves the collection of data about educational programmes, inputs and outcomes; and making use of such data as feedback in making decisions.

A.   **Formative and Summative Evaluation**

  i.   Formative evaluation takes place during instruction, while summative evaluation typically comes at the end of a course (or unit) of instruction or even at the end of a whole cycle.

  ii. Formative evaluation data enable the curriculum developer to determine the effectiveness of new procedures and techniques, methods and materials that are being tried to identify areas where revision is needed. On the other hand, summative evaluation data make it possible to determine the degree to which the new curriculum is effective.

  iii. Formative evaluation provides data useful in monitoring progress and providing feedback to both pupil and teacher concerning learning successes and failures. But summative evaluation seeks to determine the extent to which the instructional objectives have been achieved.

  iv. Formative evaluation provides detailed assessment data on a narrow scope of subject matter or content. Summative evaluation data on the other hand, is based on a sample of assessments conducted on a broad scope of content, and is usually used for administrative decisions such as promotion and certification.

v. Assessments for formative evaluation purposes are conducted more frequently; summative evaluation takes place less frequently, usually at the end of an entire course or at the end of the academic year.

vi. Formative evaluation is supposed to be systematic while summative evaluation is not.

vii. Formative evaluation is supposed to be systematic, on-going (continuous) and cumulative; in contrast, there is greater finality associated with summative evaluation.

viii. Formative evaluation is designed to be used for guidance and counselling purposes: summative evaluation has limited guidance and counselling purposes.

B. **Norm-Referenced vrs. Criterion-Referenced Measurement/Assessment**

i. According to Oliva (1992), norm-referenced measurement is the assessment approach in which a student's performance on a test is compared to the performance of other students who took the same test. Here, standardised tests are administered and norms-standards of performance calculated. On the other hand, criterion-referenced measurement compares the performance of a student against some criteria that were established on the instructional objectives.

ii. Norm-referenced tests are designed with the main aim of determining the relative positions of students within a normative group. Thus, students are ranked according to achievement; on the other hand, criterion-referenced tests aim at assessing whether the student has mastered a specific criterion or performance clearly stated in the objective.

iii. With norm-referenced measurements, outcomes can be stated in general terms; criterion-referenced require very complete behavioural objectives.

iv. Usually, norm-referenced measurements are deliberately constructed to discriminate among students. On the other hand, test items for criterion-referenced measurement are constructed to measure a pre-determined level of mastery or proficiency.

v. Norm-referenced tests are necessary for decision making situations in which the comparative performance of individuals within a group is very necessary.

In situations like this, individuals are ranked with each other and the best performers are given preferential treatment. Such decision making situations include selection for admission into higher academic programmes or for employment, for awards, scholarships, etc. on the other hand, criterion-referenced measurements are better situated to the making of instructional decisions such as determining a criterion skill considered pre-requisite to a new training programme, testing for the purposes of

checking the progress of students vis-à-vis classroom instruction for remediation of students' progress and difficulties.

vi.   The test results from the norm-referenced measurement are amenable to transposition to the traditional grading system such A, B, C, D, E, F etc. in tune with their discrimination-oriented emphasis. On the other hand, the criterion-referenced measurement suggest the use of binary system: Satisfactory, Unsatisfactory, Fail, Pass, etc.

UNIT 5:   THE ARTS SYLLABI

1.   **The Syllabus Defined**: The syllabus is a programme of activities explicitly organised by teachers in a school as a means by which pupils may attain through learning a set of objectives.

     The syllabus is described as the summary of the topics covered or units to be taught in the particular subject. Curriculum refers to the overall content, taught in an educational system or a course. Syllabus is descriptive in nature, but the curriculum is prescriptive. Syllabus is set for a particular subject.

     A syllabus is a selection of the kind of present experiences that lives fruitfully and creatively in subsequent experiences. It refers to whatever is deliberately selected by teachers or educationists as worthwhile knowledge and actions in a society to be taught with appropriate methods to learners and may be evaluated with appropriate methods and feedback to learners.

2.   **Syllabus Design**: In standard models of curriculum processes, curriculum planners progress systematically from needs assessment to goals and objectives to the specification of the instructional content of the programme. The syllabus provides the instructor and students with a contract, a common reference point that sets the stage for learning throughout the course.

3.   **Common components included in the syllabus**. The form and content of a syllabus vary widely by discipline, department, course and instructor. However, there are common components that most successful syllabus contain. These components communicate to your students an accurate description of the course including the topics that will be covered, assignments and assessments students will be responsible for.

   * **Course Description**: What is the course about?

   * **Course content:** What is the basic content of the course and what makes it important or interesting? How does the course fit into the content of the discipline?

   * **Learning Objectives**: What should students be able to do at the end of the course? Objectives are most helpful when they are expressed in terms of knowledge and skills that can be readily identified and assessed. eg: ability to recognize, differentiate, apply, etc.

   * **Characteristics of Class Meetings:** What activities should students be prepared for? Discussion, lecture, small discussion, trips, etc.

   * **Assessment:** What will be the form of assessing students? Quizzes, Assignments, Project Work, etc.

In the teaching of Arts, steps 3 and 4 of Taba's (1962) model of curriculum processes are usually known as syllabus design:

> Step 3: Selection of content
> Step 4: Organisation of content.

A syllabus is concerned with the choice and sequencing of instructional content. One must make a choice of instructional material and arrange the material in a particular order. This implies that developing a syllabus would involve examining instructional objectives and arranging them by priorities and then determining what kind of content would be required for attaining the objectives.

In reality, an Arts teaching syllabus has traditionally been the starting point in planning a programme. The concept of an Arts syllabus has been fundamental in the development of Arts teaching practices in recent times.

Kinds of Syllabus

- Structural (Organised primarily around grammar and sentence patterns.)
- Functional (Organised around communicative functions such as identifying, reporting, correcting and describing issues.)
- Notional (Organised around conceptual categories such as duration, quantity and location.)
- Topical (Organised around themes or topics, such as health, food, clothing, etc)
- Situational (Organised around speech settings and the transactions associated with them, such as shopping, the bank, at the supermarket.)
- Skills (Organised around skills such as listening for a gist, listening for inferences,)
- Task or Activity-Based (Organised around activities such as drawing maps, following directions, following instructions, etc,)

Importance of the Syllabus
   i.   A properly constructed and planned syllabus is believed to assure successful learning since it represents a linguistically high introduction to the target programme.

   ii. It is essentially a job specification and such sets out precisely what is to be done and the standards or criteria to be met by those who do it. It even provides sample situations as guide to the teacher.

   iii. It is also a guide for material writers. In fact, writers of textbooks rely on topics outlined in the syllabus to do their work well. Their writing shows or exemplify the principles of the syllabus.

iv.   It is a document that teachers consult to know the day to day schedule in terms of what is expected to be taught to learners. Of course, teachers are free to adopt and supplement the syllabus.

v.   It is a historical document which keeps a record of all past language teaching activities of an institution. Like a lesson note, the teacher may refer to a previous syllabus to see which topics were taught in the past and what changes should be made in the future.

PROFILE DIMENSIONS

Profile Dimensions are the underlying behaviours for teaching, learning and assessments. The concept is very important such that every teacher should understand it and apply it in teaching. In teaching the Arts, three dimensions had been identified for teaching, learning and assessment. These are:

- KNOWLEDGE
- UNDERSTANDING
- APPLICATION

Knowledge: Knowledge is defined as the remembering of previously learnt material.

Understanding: (Bloom calls it comprehension) is defined as the ability to grasp the meaning of material studied.

Application: It is seen as the ability to use learned material in new and concrete situations.

Importance of Profile Dimension

From the explanations given above, it becomes clear that in the teaching the Arts, these three dimensions have been slated for teaching, learning and assessment in schools. What this means is that every teacher teaches the students to acquire knowledge, understanding and application.

First and foremost, profile dimensions help the teacher to set good specific and achievable objectives. How does the teacher do this? He/she does this by selecting specific action verbs associated with a particular dimension in the writing of lesson plan objectives.

Secondly, the knowledge of profile dimensions helps the teacher to work out suitable and appropriate teacher-learner activities that will make them achieve their objectives.

In addition to the above, profile dimensions guide the teacher to select appropriate TLMs to make his lessons successful.

Finally, the knowledge of profile dimensions helps the teacher to give the right exercises and assignments for evaluation of lessons taught.

Let us look at the following table for a clearer understanding of profile dimensions.

	DIMENSION OF LEARNING	ACTION VERB ASSOCIATED WITH DIMENTION	REMARKS
A	KNOWLEDGE	The ability to: recall, identify, define, describe, list, name, state, mention etc.	Low Profile
B	UNDERSTANDING	The ability to: explain, summarize, translate, rewrite, paraphrase, give examples, generalize, predict, etc.	Low Profile
C	APPLICATION	The ability to: read, write, produce, compare, differentiate, outline, create, compose, etc.	High Profile

What is clear from the table is that the first thing we teach our pupils is knowledge. From knowledge, we ensure pupils understand what we teach and so understanding becomes the second dimension. Finally, we ensure that the pupils apply both knowledge and understanding in everyday life hence application. Every lesson should therefore cover the three dimensions.

Using Profile Dimensions in Writing Lesson Plan
Consider the following:
a. Content standard
b. Indicators
c. Performance indicator
d. Core competencies/values

Using Profile Dimensions in Setting Questions for Exercises, Assignments and Tests
When it comes to setting exercises and tests, the teacher has to rely on the action verbs too. Let us look at the following questions:
1. List four types of buildings in your locality.
2. Explain the following words: (i) fence (ii) blow your own trumpet
3. Write a letter to a friend in another school about your new school

Undoubtedly, the first question is used to assess **Knowledge**, the second **Understanding** while the third is to assess **Application**. Do you now see why we say that Profile Dimensions help in the statement of achievable objectives and setting questions for evaluation? It is therefore imperative that teachers apply the concept of Profile Dimensions in teaching the Arts always.

REFERENCES

Abosi, B. C. C. O. and Brookman-Amissah, J. (ed.) (1992). Introduction to Education in Ghana. Accra: Sedco Publishing Ltd.

Agyemang, D. K. (1986). Sociology of Education for African Students. Accra: Black Mask Ltd.
Antwi M. (1992). Education, Society and Development in Ghana. Accra: Longman.

Bishop, G. (1985). Curriculum Development, A Textbook for African Students. London: Macmillan.

Hawes, H. (1979). Curriculum and Reality in African primary Schools. London: Longman.

Gronlund, N. E. (1981).measurement and Evaluation in Teaching. New York: Macmillan.

Onwuka, U. (1981). Curriculum Development in Africa. Onitsha: Africana.

NaCCA, Ministry of Education. (2019). English Language Curriculum for Primary Schools.

Pratt, D. (1980). Curriculum Design and Development. New York: Harcourt Brace Inc