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In-service education for teachers : development of a program for selected fundamentals of curriculum.

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IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS: DEVELOPMENT OF A
PROGRAM FOR SELECTED FUNDAMENTALS OF CURRICULUM

A Dissertation Presented

By

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EDUCATION

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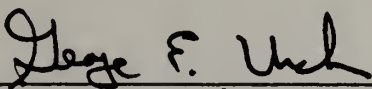
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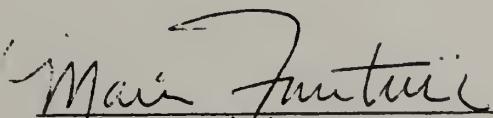
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Chairperson of Committee

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DEDICATION

    This study is dedicated to my husband, Bill,
who encouraged me from the beginning to take on
this challenge. This work would not have been
possible without his support and love. This is
also dedicated to my children Billy, Jenny, and
Mary who at times did without "Mom" so that this
work could go forward.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

To Dr. Robert Sinclair: you put forth unstinting time and effort in my struggle to bring forth this work. Your patience and careful guidance exemplify the ideals you hold for education.

To John Rosenberg: you have been the friend that I needed to help me through this work. You were always there to encourage me.

To Carole Alderman: it is with great appreciation that I acknowledge your uncomplaining proof-reading of my work.

To all the members of the Curriculum Studies Group: you worked together to bolster my morale. You gave me advice when I needed it, and kindness all the time.

To my committee members: Dr. Harry Schumer and Dr. George Urch, you were both there with help whenever I asked for it.

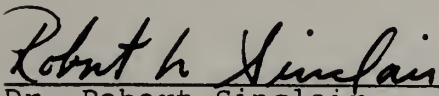To Dr. Ralph Tyler: your work provided the foundation for all my curriculum efforts. You are a truly amazing human being.

ABSTRACT

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS: DEVELOPMENT OF A
PROGRAM FOR SELECTED FUNDAMENTALS OF CURRICULUM

1980

Susanne Town Holloman, B.S., Miami University
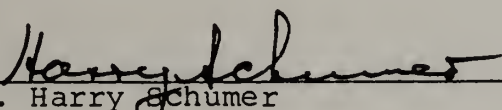M.Ed., American International College
Ed.D., University of Massachusetts

Directed by: Dr. Robert Sinclair

The purpose of this study was to develop a program
for in-service education that assists teachers to under-
stand selected fundamentals for curriculum development.
Five research objectives gave direction to the study.
They are: to identify basic concepts that are necessary
for developing competency in curriculum development; to
review selected literature about existing in-service
education programs to identify the characteristics of
effective programs; to conceptualize an in-service program
which will assist teachers to develop skills of curriculum
development; to field test the teacher in-service program
for curriculum development through teacher workshops; to
make recommendations for further research about teacher in-
service education in curriculum development.

The work of selected classical and radical curriculum
scholars was reviewed. This review led to the formation of
four common basic concepts that were needed for teachers to

develop competency in curriculum development. These concepts were developed into premises and used to formulate a series of objectives that formed the body of the in-service program.

Literature that described successful in-service programs was used to identify characteristics that were necessary for effective implementation of programs. On-site visits were also made to selected teacher centers to gather data about successful in-service programs.

An in-service program was then conceptualized that would assist teachers in developing skills in curriculum development. Objectives were developed for the in-service program using the concepts previously identified as necessary for understanding the fundamentals of curriculum. These objectives were organized sequentially so that they formed the body of the in-service program. The data from the review of literature about successful in-service education was used to design an in-service program to accomplish these objectives.

The in-service program was field tested with fifty-three teachers and administrators from four school districts. Prior to the first workshop session, the educators were given a pre-assessment to determine competencies in defined curriculum skills. The questions for the pre-assessment were derived from the objectives which had previously been developed. At the conclusion of the work-

shops, post-assessments were administered. The results of these were used to determine successful progress toward the accomplishment of the objectives by the educators. The data that resulted from the administration of the pre- and post-assessments were analyzed statistically by using the t test to determine the significance of the differences between means. Interviews were also conducted with randomly selected teachers to gain in-depth information about teacher perceptions gained as a result of the workshops.

The basic program appeared to need few modifications. The teachers responded with enthusiasm to the presentation and participated willingly in the discussions. The results of the data indicate that teachers did indeed gain in competencies about curriculum development. There was a consistent improvement in scores across all questions which would lead the researcher to the conclusion that growth in understanding fundamentals of curriculum development had occurred. Further field testing would be necessary before any final conclusions could be reached. This study appears to have produced a program which shows promise in helping teachers move toward a better understanding of the curriculum development process.

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Introduction

As enrollment in elementary schools continues to
decline, local school systems find that they are faced
with an ever increasing problem. The teacher who is in
place in a school is likely to be there for many years
to come. Teachers are reluctant to give up their jobs
since they are aware that finding another position has
become so difficult. The teacher turnover is slowing
down and the opportunities for young people, fresh from
the universities to enter the teaching profession has
lessened. These young teachers often brought the newest
concepts in educational strategies to the schools. The
persistent problem now faced by the schools concerns cur-
riculum that must be developed, written, taught and
evaluated in these schools. Those closest to the learner,
the classroom teachers, should be in the best position to
help make curriculum decisions. These teachers are aware
of the needs of their students and the methods that have
been most successful in meeting these needs. The dilemma
occurs when these teachers are asked to help write curricu-
lum, but lack the necessary skills for curriculum

development. Teachers, because they are so close to the learner, can be very effective developers of curriculum if they are given help in understanding all aspects of a well-planned curriculum. As Taba would suggest,

> Working with teachers who may be concerned about mak-
> ing changes but who lack the competencies for curric-
> ulum development makes it necessary to combine curric-
> ulum development and training into one integral pro-
> cess.[1]

Historically, school systems have involved teachers in writing curriculum, but have done little or nothing to prepare teachers to understand curriculum. Many teachers were given minimal instruction in the theoretical basis for developing curriculum during their undergraduate years. These teachers are now being asked to help write and/or implement complex curriculum which frequently calls for ability to: assess needs of the learners, write objectives that will meet these needs, plan and organize learning experiences, and prepare evaluative tools to determine if the objectives have been met. This is a complex job even for an expert in curriculum, but for a teacher some years out of college it frequently results in "seat of the pants" curriculum writing that often fails to achieve the desired outcomes for the learner. It is important, then, for the local school system to take action and implement in-service programs to bring their teachers' skills up-to-date.

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[1]Hilda Taba, Curriculum Development, (New York: Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich 1962), p. 460.

These programs should be designed to acquaint teachers with the latest thinking concerning learning theories, affective and cognitive learning and other recent developments in educational practices which contribute to curriculum improvement. Of major concern is the need for teachers to be taught the basic tenets of curriculum development and to be provided with adequate instruction in the concepts of curriculum development.

The literature is replete with references to in-service education and staff development. Current practices in many school systems rely heavily on teachers for new curriculum development. "The tradition of developing curricula from within the staffs of schools in which it will be used generates much support."[2] Locally-developed curriculum provides variety, local enthusiasm and specific appropriateness. Oliver tells us that curriculum is best when it is developed cooperatively by teacher, learner, public, administrator and outside consultants. He suggests that expanded concepts of curriculum leads to expanded participation. Curriculum improvement is a matter of growth of individuals more than construction of materials. If individuals identify with a curriculum,

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[2]Wm. Vernon Hicks et al. The New Elementary School Curriculum. (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co. 1970), p. 372.

they develop psychological ownership and can accept and help implement new curricular concepts.[3]

Public education faces the problem of continued participation of teachers in curriculum development, while insuring that the outcome will be quality curriculum. Current trends in in-service education specify teacher involvement in curriculum development, but they frequently fail to acknowledge the deficiencies in the knowledge that teachers bring to the curriculum development process. School systems need to face these deficiencies. The need, then, to develop an in-service component that trains teachers to understand the basics of curriculum development, before these teachers are asked to write the actual curriculum, gives direction to the present study.

Statement of purpose

The purpose of the study is to develop a program for in-service teacher education that helps teachers understand selected fundamentals of curriculum development. First, the study identifies basic concepts that are needed for teachers to develop competency in curriculum development. These concepts will be necessary for teachers when they are asked to assume the role of curriculum developer.

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[3]Albert I. Oliver, Curriculum Improvement, (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1965), p. 48.

Next, from these concepts a series of objectives are developed to guide an in-service program. This program serves as a major aspect of the present study. Third, selected literature about effective teacher in-service programs is reviewed. This review is used to identify program components which have been successful. Fourth, a program is conceptualized to assist teachers in understanding the fundamentals of curriculum development. This program is sequentially organized to combine the curriculum objectives that have been developed and the characteristics of effective in-service programs. Fifth, the program is field tested with selected elementary school teachers so that it can be modified and perfected. Finally, the results of the field test and subsequent modifications are used as a base for recommendations for further research about programs that prepare teachers for curriculum development through in-service training.

Specifically, the research objectives that guide this study are:

1. To identify basic concepts that are necessary for developing competency in curriculum development.

2. To review selected literature about existing in-service education programs to identify the characteristics of effective programs.

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3. To conceptualize an in-service program which
   will assist teachers to develop skills of cur-
   riculum development.

4. To field test the teacher in-service program
   for curriculum development through teacher
   workshops.

5. To make recommendations for further research
   about teacher in-service education in curricu-
   lum development.

Definition of terms

For the purposes of this study the following defin-
itions of key terms will be used.

Curriculum. There are several definitions of cur-
riculum that appear in the literature. The definition
that states "A curriculum can be defined as a systematic
body of material and an organized plan for the purpose of
promoting formal instruction"[4] most closely fits the cur-
riculum being discussed in this study. Yet, curriculum is
frequently defined as "those experiences for which the
school accepts responsibility."[5] Although this is an
acceptable concept of curriculum, it is considered to be

[4]John Martin Rich, Challenge and Response, Education
in American Culture (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1974),
p. 239.

[5]Wm. Vernon Hicks et al., The New Elementary School
Curriculum, (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1970),
p. 26.

too broad for the needs of this study. Curriculum, then,
will be the <u>expressed</u> curriculum developed by a school or
school district.[6]

In-Service education. In-service education or train-
ing is a process of imparting knowledge to educators.
This occurs after members of the educational profession
have finished their formal undergraduate education. It
generally includes all those courses and activities in
which a teacher might participate in order to extend his/
her professional knowledge, interest or skill.

Curriculum development. Macdonald defines curricu-
lum development as ". . . the special and limited sense
of activity which results in plans for instruction."[7]
Curriculum development is done prior to instruction and
involves goals, values and needs. It is the development
of the contrived environment so that an instructional
activity can be facilitated.

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[6]For a definition that distinguishes among expressed,
implied, and emergent dimensions of curriculum see: Robert
L. Sinclair, "Toward A Meaning of Curriculum" University
of Massachusetts, 1976 (Mimeographed).

[7]James B. Macdonald, "A Curriculum Rationale" in
Contemporary Thought on Public School Curriculum, ed. Edmund
C. Short and George D. Marconnit. (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C.
Brown Co., 1968), p. 40.

Significance of the study

This study provides a program for educators who are
seeking to improve the quality of curriculum that is locally
developed by teachers. It provides a process through which
effective teacher training can take place. This can be
accomplished through training teachers in the fundamentals
of curriculum development through in-service education
especially formulated for those goals.

In-service teacher education to promote understand-
ing of curriculum development is particularly useful to
those school districts who wish to create their own curric-
ulum. Teachers' basic comprehension of curricular compo-
nents and concepts can be strengthened. As stated in the
purpose, this study provides a list of objectives for cur-
riculum development and characteristics of effective in-
service training. A program was developed that aids school
districts in formulating their own design for teacher
training. This program can be particularly useful when
a district or local school elects to develop its own cur-
riculum or make more effective use of purchased curriculum.
In simple terms, this study is significant because it helps
teachers and administrators to more effectively develop
meaningful curriculum.

This study is also important because it advances a
designed program, which has been field tested with teachers,

that can be used by schools or school districts for in-
service training for their teachers prior to the time these
teachers are asked to serve on curriculum development com-
mittees. A process for training teachers is then availa-
ble to aid teachers, subject matter specialists and ad-
ministrators so that they have a generalized knowledge of
curriculum development that can be transferred to any type
of curriculum that must be developed in a district.

Teachers, who have an understanding of the underlying
significance of curricular decisions should be in the best
position to develop a logical, sequenced and carefully
structured curriculum for their classroom, school or dis-
trict. Such a curriculum would be child centered because
it is developed by teachers who are in the classroom and
are well aware of children's needs, but it also will take
advantage of the teachers' increased knowledge of curric-
ulum basic concepts and will be developed in a manner that
fits learning theories and well-planned curriculum struc-
ture. If teachers are able to develop skills in curriculum
development then the issue of what the responsibilities
are in curriculum development becomes increasingly impor-
tant. When curriculum is developed by people who are re-
mote from the realities of classrooms, the gap between what
is to be taught and what is to be learned enlarges. In
order to make sure that curriculum meshes with the

characteristics of the students, it is important for the
people who are having the daily encounter with learners
to be wise and sensitive curriculum decision makers. When
teachers are adequately trained to understand curriculum,
then the opportunity exists for newly developed curricu-
lum to be useful for all teachers and have a logical pat-
tern that fits what is known about how children learn.
This study identifies those concepts of curriculum which
have importance for teachers, so that they can become more
effective when they are asked to assume the role of curric-
ulum developer.

This study is of value because it makes recommenda-
tions for future designs based on the knowledge accumulated
in the research. This study also provides a functional
link between the theory of curriculum development and the
realities of curriculum needs in schools.

Delimitations of the study

There are three delimitations to this study. In-
service education of teachers is a broad topic which could
result in a variety of studies concerning many facets of
teacher training. In the present study, however, in-service
education to improve instructional skills or to develop
actual curriculum was not considered. Further, this study
is not designed to determine a causal relationship between

the in-service program and teachers' increased ability to apply knowledge to curriculum development. The information collected in the study will be used to improve in-service programs for training teachers rather than to measure the degree of success these teachers attain in actually developing curriculum. A subsequent study needs to be done using the in-service program as an independent variable, influencing teacher application of curriculum knowledge. In other words, the scope of this study will not extend beyond a process of helping teachers understand the fundamentals and theory of curriculum design so that teachers will be proficient when the time comes for them to develop curricula for their classroom, school or district. Finally, the field testing for the design will be limited to elementary schools containing any grade pattern, K-6.

Review of the literature

The review of literature provides a practical foundation for the thrust of this study. Selected literature describing successful in-service programs has been reviewed for the purposes of determining positive characteristics of productive programs. The foundation for both the development of a process for effective in-service teacher training and also the subsequent development of a

program to train teachers to understand the fundamentals of curriculum development and curricular decision making arose from the review of the literature. This review provides the link between the theoretical basis for in-service education and the practical realities that teachers face in school settings.

In a major way, the literature which has been reviewed consists of important journal articles which are concerned with the improvement of teacher education. A systematic review of the literature has also taken place to identify those basic competencies in curriculum development that selected scholars agree are necessary. The curriculum theorists whose work has been reviewed are: Ralph Tyler, John Goodlad, Hilda Taba, Virgil Herrick, Decker Walker, Joseph Schwab and Paulo Freire.

Approach of the study

This section of the proposal centers on the design of the study. Procedures for data collecting, sampling and field testing are now explained. The design of the study is organized according to each of the five research objectives.

Objective One

To identify basic concepts that are necessary for developing competency in curriculum development.

A systematic review of the literature has taken place in order to identify those competencies in curriculum development that selected scholars hold in common. Two categories of scholars have been selected. First, the designs of some classical curriculum theorists have been examined. Included in this group of scholars are: Ralph Tyler, John Goodlad, Hilda Taba and Virgil Herrick. The second group of curriculum scholars have included the designs proposed by those who are considered more radical curriculum theorists. Included in this group are: Decker Walker, Joseph Schwab and Paulo Freire. Designs from both types of curriculum theorists have been reviewed and concepts have been identified that are considered to be necessary for competencies in curriculum development. The inclusion of both groups of scholars allows a more comprehensive view of the variety of skills necessary to gain expertise in the curriculum development process.

Further, the common concepts that appear in all designs have been noted and care has been taken to include those concepts which are found in every theorist's work. Concepts found in only a few designs have been included if their characteristics appear to be especially applicable to this study.

The concepts identified have been used to generate objectives that have been used to form the body of an

in-service program which is the major emphasis of the
present study. A rationale has been developed that will
identify the reasons for the selection of each concept.

Objective Two

To review selected literature about existing in-
service education programs to identify the characteristics
of effective programs.

This objective has been researched through use of
selected journals and books pertaining to in-service educa-
tion. The criteria for the selection of the articles and
books which will be chosen for review are: 1.) Journal
articles that offer concrete descriptions of in-service
programs. 2.) The research of well-known scholars that
reports the success or failures of in-service education
programs.

The review of literature has been used to identify
those programs which are successful. The models of in-
service training currently in use have been reviewed and
the successful characteristics of these programs have been
identified. In-service programs reviewed include state
mandated programs, university based programs, teacher
centers and locally developed in-service. On site visits
have been made to selected in-service programs that have
been identified as successful. Interviews have been

conducted with teachers and directors of programs to de-
termine which program characteristics were most useful.
The characteristics which were identified are intended
to assist in conceptualization, organization and implementa-
tion of the program.

Objective Three

    To conceptualize an in-service program which will
assist teachers to develop skills of curriculum develop-
ment.

    First, objectives have been developed for an in-
service program which prepares teachers to understand the
fundamentals of curriculum development. Concepts previously
identified have been used to generate these objectives.
Objectives have been developed which define the knowledge
and skills which are needed for effective curriculum de-
velopment.

    Second, the objectives have been organized in such
a way that they form a sequence intended to prepare teachers
to understand curriculum fundamentals.

    Third, the data from the review of the literature
about successful in-service education programs and the
on-site visits have been used to conceptualize an in-service
program designed to accomplish the defined objectives.

Fourth, a program has been developed for in-service teacher education in understanding curriculum fundamentals using the sequentially organized objectives for curriculum and the characteristics of effective in-service education.

Objective Four

To field test the teacher in-service program for curriculum development through teacher workshops.

The in-service program has been field tested with twenty elementary school teachers. A pre-assessment, prior to the workshops, was given the teachers to determine teacher competencies in defined curriculum skills. Information about teacher experience with curriculum development and successes or failure with curriculum development has been collected so that the information can be used to aid in interpreting the results about teacher competencies in curriculum development. The results of the pre-assessment were used to individualize the program so that teachers already competent in certain skills were not expected to complete that section of the program.

A post-assessment was administered to determine if teachers made progress toward the accomplishment of objectives.

It is important to point out here that the field test, including pre-and post-assessment was used for

purposes of determining cause-effect relationships.
Rather, the purpose of the field test was to gain infor-
mation about what aspects of the in-service education pro-
gram need to be redesigned and perfected. In other words
the pre-assessment and post-assessment design provide
some information that can suggest a level of confidence
about the in-service education program. However, no at-
tempt has been made in this present study to suggest that
the program was the sole cause of teacher change. The
main purpose of the present study is to conceptualize a
program for preparing teachers for curriculum development.
Further research will be necessary in order to determine
the cause-effect relationships between the program and
changes in teacher behavior.

Further, teacher interviews have been conducted to
determine teacher perceptions of the program characteris-
tics that they found most helpful in preparing them for
curriculum development. Open-ended questions were asked
by the researcher to gather the teacher perceptions. The
pre- and post-assessment as well as the interview format
were presented to a group of teachers for their suggestions
before they were used with the teachers who took part in
the field test.

Objective Five

To make recommendations for further research about
teacher in-service education in curriculum development.

The teacher education program that was developed
and the results of what was learned by exposing the pro-
gram to a selected group of teachers has been used to
formulate recommendations for further research. Con-
sideration will also be given to recommendations for im-
plementing programs for teacher in-service education for
preparing teachers for curriculum development.

The following chapters describe the conduct of the
study proposed on the preceding pages. The purpose of
Chapter Two is to review the selected literature about
competencies in curriculum development and identify the
concepts and skills that are fundamental to the curriculum
development process. Chapter Three identifies program
characteristics that have been shown to be effective in
in-service education. The teacher education program for
preparing teachers to achieve competency in curriculum
development is presented in Chapter Four. Chapter Five
presents information about the implementation of the pro-
gram and the results of the field testing and teacher in-
terviews. The perfection of the in-service program is in-
cluded in this chapter. Chapter Six summarizes the study
and makes recommendations for further research.

C H A P T E R   I I

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND IDENTIFICATION OF CURRICULUM SKILLS

This chapter presents a review of literature for the purpose of identifying a manageable number of key concepts that are needed for teachers in achieving competency in curriculum development. These key concepts will be used to identify a number of skills that will be useful for teachers when they become involved in curriculum development. This chapter will consist of three parts. The first part includes a review of selected curriculum scholars' work. These scholars will represent both the classical curriculum theorists' and the more radical theorists' points of view. In the second part the researcher identifies key concepts[1] about basic competencies in curriculum that scholars hold in common. The third part will develop these key common concepts into premises about curriculum which then will be used to generate objectives that define skills in curriculum development.

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[1]_Webster's College Dictionary_, (1972) defines concept as "a mentally conceived image."

Part One

Review of the Selected Curriculum Scholars Key Concepts

The curriculum scholars selected for review include Ralph Tyler, Virgil Herrick, Hilda Taba, and John Goodlad representing the classical point of view. The more radical curriculum theorists selected are Decker Walker, Joseph Schwab, and Paulo Freire. A brief review of the major concepts of each theorist follows.

Ralph Tyler

An overview of the contributions made by Ralph Tyler in the field of curriculum development must necessarily begin with his book Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction.[2] This work remains a benchmark for today's curriculum workers.

Tyler begins his work by asking those who would develop curriculum to be cognizant of four fundamental questions:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?

2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?

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[2]Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Chicago: The University of Chicago, 1950).

3. How can these educational experiences be ef-
fectively organized?

4. How can we determine whether these purposes are
being attained?

Tyler's first question, which looks at the educational
purposes of the school, is concerned with the objectives
of a school. The objectives are value judgments by those
responsible for the school and are usually arrived at after
careful deliberation and the use of many sources. Tyler
sees no single source of information as adequate to pro-
vide a base for wise and comprehensive decisions about
the objectives of the school; he instead looks to a var-
iety of sources to determine the objectives.

Significantly, Tyler identifies learners as being
a primary source for educational objectives.

> A study of the learners themselves would seek to
> identify needed changes in behavior patterns of the
> students which the educational institution would
> seek to produce.[3]

A study of the learner to determine educational objectives
is valid only when the information about the learner is
compared with some desirable standards so that the differ-
ence between the acceptable norm and the present condition
of the learner can be identified. This difference is com-
monly referred to as a need.

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[3]Ibid., p. 4.

A second method for determining goals of the school is to study contemporary life outside the school. Tyler believes that because contemporary life is extremely complex and it is important that we focus on the critical aspects of what is essential as a preparation for living, we look to society.

The source of objectives most commonly used in schools is the subject matter specialist. It is important that the subject matter specialist's objectives be concerned with the question, "What can your subject contribute to the education of young people who are not going to be specialists in your field?"[4] Frequently subject matter specialists have offered goals that were suitable only for those who intended to make the subject their career.

It is essential to select from the wide variety of possible objectives only those which will be the most important. The educational and social philosophy of the school can serve as a screen for those objectives. The philosophy must be stated clearly, and the implications for educational objectives need to be carefully worded as each objective chosen should fit the philosophy of the school.

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[4]Ibid., p. 17.

Tyler also suggests the use of psychology of learning as a second screen for selecting objectives. The use of learning psychology enables a curriculum to be developed that uses feasible goals for children, has objectives that are properly placed, and determines the conditions that need to be present for learning.

The objectives thus formulated by the school must be carefully stated so that they will be helpful in selecting learning experiences and guiding teaching. Tyler believes that the setting up and formulation of objectives are the most critical criteria for guiding the curriculum maker.

The second step in Tyler's approach concerns the selection of the learning experiences to meet the objectives. Tyler defines "learning experience" as the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react. If an objective is to be attained, it is necessary to give the student the opportunity for practice, satisfaction from carrying on the kind of behavior implied by the objective, experiences within the range of possibility for their abilities; a variety of experiences; and the opportunity to have multiple outcomes. Tyler suggests four types of learning experiences that would be used to attain objectives:

1. Learning experiences to develop skill in think-
    ing.

2. Learning experiences helpful in acquiring infor-
    mation.

3. Learning experiences helpful in developing social
    attitudes.

4. Learning experiences helpful in developing inter-
    ests.[5]

The third step in Tyler's questions concerns organ-
izing learning experiences. In order for educational ex-
periences to be most effective, they must be organized so
that they reinforce each other and have a relationship to
one another. The three major criteria in organizing learn-
ing experiences are continuity, sequence, and integration.
Continuity refers to the vertical reiteration of major
curriculum elements. Sequence goes beyond continuity to
assure progression in development. Integration is concerned
with the horizontal relationship of curriculum experiences.

The fourth step in Tyler's curriculum questions con-
cerns evaluation of the effectiveness of the learning ex-
periences. The evaluation process allows the curriculum
developer to find out if the learning experiences are pro-
ducing the desired results. Evaluation helps identify the
strengths and weaknesses of the learning experiences and

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[5]Ibid., pp. 44-53.

helps check the validity of the basic hypotheses. The result of the evaluation tells the curriculum planner which sections of the curriculum were effective and which need improvement. Tyler suggests an evaluation early in the educational program and another later so that changes may be measured. If the behavioral objectives have been clearly defined by the curriculum workers, then a clear picture of results will be apparent.

Tyler, in his later work, has clarified his position concerning the order of his four questions. Tyler would modify the rationale in two ways. First, he would make much more explicit his position that any of the four questions can be a beginning point; there is no prescribed order in which they must be considered in planning a curriculum. A second way in which he would modify the rationale is to emphasize strongly that the whole purpose of curriculum planning is the execution of the curriculum in order to improve the education a student receives. In his opinion, this means that teachers must be involved in the planning of curricula since they are the ones who must execute them. Not enough attention is paid by curriculum builders to the implementation of their curriculum.[6]

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[6] M. Francis Klein, "Tyler and Goodlad Speak on American Education: A Critique," Educational Leadership 33 (May 1976):567.

Tyler in other later work also looks more carefully at the concept of student involvement in curriculum development. "I would now give much greater emphasis to the active role of the student in the learning process, and to the implications student involvement has for curriculum development."[7] Ralph Tyler's work continues to be widely used by developers of curriculum, and almost all curriculum workers who have followed have used some of his work as building blocks for their own theories.

Tyler's work suggests that there are several key concepts about curriculum that must be kept in mind when curriculum is developed. Tyler places great emphasis on the educational purposes of the school and the methods in which those are determined. He is also conscious of the necessity for organizing these experiences so that they can be most effective for learners.

Virgil Herrick

Virgil Herrick, writing in Toward Improved Curriculum Theory published in 1950, moved toward defining concepts in curriculum design. His paper reflects careful thought on the nature and content of curriculum and his work provides the nucleus for many other curriculum

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[7] Ralph W. Tyler, "Two New Emphases in Curriculum Development," Educational Leadership 34 (October 1976): 61.

theorists' work. Herrick determines that curriculum de-
sign is a statement of the pattern of relationships that
exist among the elements of curriculum. The role of this
curriculum design to improve educational programs would
be:

> (1) as a definer of the elements and their pattern
> of relationships in curriculum development, (2) as
> a statement of means used for selecting and organ-
> izing learning experiences, and (3) as an indicator
> of the role of teachers and children in curriculum
> planning and development.[8]

Herrick is vitally interested in the improvement of edu-
cational programs, and he suggests that teachers keep a
record of a child's behavior and progress.

> If the major purpose of a child study program is
> to improve the educational program of a school,
> then its activities need to be examined to ascer-
> tain the extent to which attention is paid to the
> curriculum itself. It is especially important to
> examine the means provided for the teacher to apply
> his increased understanding of children to the actual
> improvement of learning experiences.[9]

Herrick is very interested in studying children's
learning episodes. He defines a learning episode "as a

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[8]Virgil Herrick, "The Concept of Curriculum Design,"
in Toward Improved Curriculum Theory, ed. Virgil E.
Herrick and Ralph W. Tyler (Chicago: The University of
Chicago Press, 1950), p. 37.

[9]Virgil Herrick and James Knight, "Child Study and
the Improvement of the Educational Program," Elementary
School Journal LI (March 1951):372.

single happening or related group of happenings in real life in which some kind of beginning and end to the action can be identified."[10] Herrick believes that an analysis of the learning episodes should be related to the curriculum so that teachers could consider the important values they are using to make crucial decisions about children and the nature of their educational experiences. This analysis will allow the staff to be aware of emerging educational problems of high significance and importance.

Herrick identifies five questions that he felt every teacher should ask himself when designing curriculum. Herrick takes into account the four questions posed by Ralph Tyler, but feels that curriculum improvement is of little value unless it actually influences the instructional practices of teachers. Herrick's five questions for teachers are:

1. How can I know the child and prepare and manage a classroom environment which will promote his optimum learning?

2. How can I identify, define, and use my instructional objectives to determine the scope, direction, and emphasis of the child's learning experience?

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[10]Ibid., p. 372.

3. How can I select and organize these experiences so as to aid the child to achieve worthwhile educational ends?

4. How can I teach or manage the educational process so that these experiences are most effectively utilized by the child to achieve these ends?

5. How can I evaluate so as to determine the extent and quality of the child's development toward these ends?[11]

Herrick suggests that this is the order that the decisions about curriculum should be made. He does realize that the questions are, by necessity, interrelated and it is difficult to deal with one question without dealing with them all.

Herrick believes that every learning experience must include a learner, a purpose, a content, and a process. He states that ". . . every learning experience always involves all four of these elements in some degree."[12] Herrick made eleven propositions regarding the importance and the function of curriculum design:

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[11]Herrick, "Curriculum Design," p. 38.

[12]Ibid., p. 38.

Proposition One: Any curriculum design or plan, if it is to become effective in improving curriculum, must make explicit and clear the bases upon which curriculum decisions are made.

If the bases used for curriculum decision making are not recognized, then there is little chance for improving the decision or for re-examining the adequacy of the bases in curriculum.

Proposition Two: Any over-all curriculum design sufficient to give adequate direction to a program of general education must be considered in more than one operational level.

Herrick proposes a design that attempts to make explicit the parts of curriculum and their interrelatedness. He feels that the teacher is the most important part of the design since the teacher must organize the learning experiences.

Proposition Three: A curriculum design becomes more usable in improving educational programs if it has as its major organizational focus the problem of selecting, organizing, and teaching the learning experiences of children and youth.

This proposition draws attention to the learner and directs curriculum to be designed around the experiences of children. This helps the teacher see clearly the bases

upon which the learning activities are selected and organized.

Proposition Four: A concept of curriculum design is necessary to give perspective and orientation to curriculum-improvement programs concerned with a single phase of curriculum development.

Herrick feels that it is important to make clear that no one approach for curriculum development is necessary. Consideration is needed to see what is involved in the proper use of centers for organizing the learning experiences for children and youth.

Proposition Five: In curriculum design, the identification of the approach used for selecting and organizing the learning experiences of children determines the nature of the definition and use of objectives at the instructional level.

The four common approaches as defined by Herrick are the subject, the broad field, the problems of living, and the needs approach. These approaches are not used as a final means to select the experiences, as the interests and problems of children should be considered.

Proposition Six: A curriculum design makes clear the factors involved in the selection of learning experiences and indicates the order of priority in which they are used.

Organization of learning experiences occurs in the centers that have been developed to organize them. An instructional center is whatever the teacher uses to relate and unite the learning activities of the pupils in some meaningful organization.

Propositions Seven and Eight: The curriculum design must (a) indicate the nature of the centers used for organizing the instructional program and (b) point out the extent to which the center of instructional organization becomes not only the focus for organization but also the means for selecting.

The centers are used either for a subject approach or a needs approach. The teacher uses the concepts to be learned as a means of selecting experiences in the subject approach; and in the needs approach, the problem to be attacked serves as a selector of the activities and as a center of organization.

Proposition Nine: A curriculum design must make clear the nature and use of the provisions for both horizontal and vertical continuity.

The problem of selection and organization must be measured against the problem of continuity. Continuity is essential in selecting and organizing learning experiences. It is necessary that curriculum parts be cx- amined in relation to the whole, so that curriculum

follows in sequential steps. Curriculum cannot be de-
veloped in isolation.

Proposition Ten: Curriculum designs must provide
staffs and individual teachers with an understanding of
their role and responsibilities in making the major deci-
sions of curriculum development.

Herrick stresses that in-service work on curriculum
must be done with teachers. Its value consists primarily
of helping teachers see their roles and responsibilities
in making the major decisions of curriculum and in help-
ing teachers become more competent in working with curric-
ulum.

Proposition Eleven: The identification and study
of the assumptions underlying the major curriculum ap-
proaches provide the means for revealing and pointing up
the key research and developmental problems in curriculum.

Herrick believes that the examination of the roles
that teachers and students play in curriculum will keep
the attention of curriculum workers focused on the who,
when, how, and to what degree aspects of curriculum. Cur-
riculum workers then can reach conclusions regarding the
adequacy of various curriculum approaches.[13]

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[13]Ibid., pp. 40-49.

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[13]Ibid., pp. 40-49.

Virgil Herrick sees the teacher and the student as having a central part in the development and design of curriculum and constantly stresses their importance in curriculum development.

A key concept of Virgil Herrick's is the importance he places on determining the bases upon which curricular decisions are made. He believes that if these bases are not explicit and clear then the curriculum will lack a firm foundation. Herrick also stresses curriculum design as a statement of the pattern of relationships that exist among elements of curriculum.

Hilda Taba

Taba is concerned with the need for a theory of curriculum development. Writing on the need for this theory, she states in her book Curriculum Development,

> Such a theory should not only define the problems with which curriculum development must deal, but also elaborate the system of concepts which must be used to assess the relevance of these data to education.[14]

Taba is concerned that the decisions made for curriculum be developed on a recognized and valid basis and contain some degree of constancy.

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[14]Hilda Taba, Curriculum Development (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1962) p. 6.

All curricula contain the same elements. The organ-
ization and design may differ, but there usually is included
a statement of aims and specific objectives: content which
has been organized and selected, patterns for teaching and
learning, and some method of evaluating the outcomes.
The differences found in curricula are frequently differ-
ences of emphasis of the various parts. Taba suggests
that rational decisions about these elements need to be
based on valid criteria. The criteria may be from various
sources, traditions, social pressures, and habits. Ra-
tional curriculum-making follows a scientific method and
develops a rational design. Scientific curriculum-making
uses society, studies of the learner and the learning pro-
cess, and analysis of knowledge to determine the purposes
of the school and the nature of the curriculum.[15]

Taba believes that developing a curriculum is a task
which requires orderly thinking. Therefore, the need is
present to examine both the order in which decisions are
made and the criteria for rational decision making. The
order that she suggests is as follows:

Step 1: Diagnosis of needs

Step 2: Formulation of objectives

Step 3: Selection of content

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[15]Ibid., pp. 10-11.

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.

Development in the usual sequence, that is, begin-
ning at the top of the seven-step series, frequently pro-
duce sterile curriculum. Taba proposes inverting the se-
quence of curriculum development and allowing curriculum
to be developed by teachers in the classroom as a first
step. Teachers would plan specific teaching-learning units
which would then undergo testing through implementation.
These units could then be used as an empirical basis for
design. The gap between theory and practice would thus
be bridged as theoretical competence and practical exper-
ience would be combined.[16]

Taba has suggested that to develop an effective
strategy of curriculum change, a simultaneous change will
need to occur with ideas involving curriculum and human
dynamics. The methodology is summarized as follows:

1. Curriculum change requires a systematic sequence
    of work so that all aspects of curriculum from
    goals to means are affected. This strategy must

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[16]Ibid., p. 12.

determine where curriculum change begins and in
what order it follows so that a total plan can be
developed.

2. A strategy for curriculum change involves cre-
    ating conditions for productive work. How
    productivity flourishes, the guiding principles
    for methods of working, and how groups work to-
    gether must be examined.

3. Training for curriculum change must be planned.
    New concepts require training for the develop-
    ment of new skills.

4. Since curriculum development is extremely com-
    plex, it requires many kinds of competencies in
    different combinations at different points of
    work. The decision needs to be made to involve
    people with differing competencies at various
    points during the development of curriculum.

5. Skilled leaders need to be found to manage cur-
    riculum change. The role that those in leader-
    ship positions hold needs to be determined.[17]

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[17]Ibid., pp. 455-456.

Hilda Taba succeeds in developing well-constructed thoughts about curriculum and the practical implications of curriculum for schools. Her concern for concrete materials applicable to the teacher-learner level of education has the potential for providing educators with theoretically competent curriculum materials which are of practical use to teachers.

Taba's work suggests that among the key concepts for curriculum is the recognition that decisions should be made for curriculum on a recognized and valid basis. This basis must define the theory for curriculum and elaborate the concepts necessary for curriculum development. Another key concept includes the definition of the chief elements of curriculum. Taba believes that organization or design may differ, but a statement of aims, specific objectives, content, methods of teaching, and evaluation is essential for effective curriculum to be developed.

John Goodlad

John Goodlad, in his search for a conceptual system for curriculum development, thinks that Tyler's work clarified and systematized the central questions for curriculum makers and prepared the field for theory-building through the construction of conceptual systems. Goodlad defines

conceptual systems as ". . . more general than a theory, nurturing a variety of theories pertaining to parts of the system." He goes on to say that "A conceptual system pro-vides a bridge between general theory and specific prac-tice" and is a ". . . carefully engineered framework de-signed to identify and reveal relationships among complex, related, interacting phenomena; in effect, to reveal the whole where wholeness otherwise might not be thought to exist."[18] The function for the conceptual system in cur-riculum is as follows: to identify problems pertaining to the instructional program, to clarify productive types of inquiry such as empirical-inductive or theoretical-deductive, to reveal possible connections between these problems and questions, and to initiate processes designed to reveal the sources and the data that they produce and apply them to the problems and questions.

Goodlad's concern with the reality of curriculum de-velopment, suggests that curriculum planning occurs at several levels of remoteness from the learner. The first, and closest to the learner, occurs at the instructional level and is made by teachers for a specific group of learners.

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[18]John I. Goodlad, "The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing With Problems of Curriculum and Instruc-tion" U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. pp. 1-2.

The second stage of development comes at the institutional level, and the decisions are made by total faculty under leadership from administration. A more remote stage from the learner for curriculum planning takes place at the societal level and is concerned with large goals formulated by local, state, and federal levels of government. Goodlad suggests a fourth level of curriculum decision making which occurs at the ideological level.

The curriculum worker, in formulating goals, must turn to data sources. Funded knowledge, which includes the use of the best knowledge available, should be a prime data-source in making curriculum decisions. Conventional wisdom, or popular beliefs, is often used as a data source. It is important to use the most relevant data sources for the curriculum decision that must be made.

Goodlad begins his curricular planning by being concerned with values. Educational aims are derived from the values, educational objectives from the aims, and, finally, learning opportunities from the objectives. Values are seen as Goodlad's primary data-source as all curricular decisions are based on the values held by the society seeking to formulate educational objectives. "Curriculum planning involves more than seeking data; it involves, rather, the sensitive utilization of values and data

simultaneously."[19] It is in this respect that Goodlad differs most markedly from Tyler. Tyler uses society, learners, and subject matter specialists as his primary data sources and screens the objectives derived from these through philosophical and psychological statements. Goodlad feels that, consciously or unconsciously, curriculum makers are using values to determine their primary objectives, and the values held at the societal level determine the direction of the curriculum. A value-free curriculum is both impossible and undesirable. Values must be matched to the philosophical positions of the curriculum planners and enter into all steps of curriculum planning. Goodlad has expanded and modified the curricular concepts developed by Tyler into his "conceptual system."

John Goodlad's key concepts for curriculum center on determining data sources for making curriculum decisions. He has identified a model, or conceptual system, for curriculum that uses as a primary data source the values held by the society which is formulating the objectives.

Joseph Schwab

Joseph Schwab offers the curriculum makers an approach that allows them to move away from theory and into the

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[19] Ibid., p. 28.

practical. He offers three approaches for curricular de-
cision making, the practical, the quasi-practical, and
the eclectic.

Schwab's practical is an approach aimed at identi-
fying the desirable and then attaining the desire or alter-
nating the desires. It has as it's outcome a decision, a
selection, and a guide to possible action. He suggests
that as a search for data is made, the problem becomes
recognized and then the search for solutions can be at-
tempted. Schwab believes that this is the method by which
most curriculum is developed.

An extension of the practical is the quasi-practical.
When curriculum makers are concerned with subjects of
increasing variety, it is difficult to be practical. Ac-
tions by members of a group affect one another; and while,
in the practical, members make decisions for their group
or themselves, the quasi-practical identifies variations
likely to occur among member groups and is prepared to modify
decisions according to circumstances. The quasi-practical
must take into consideration problems of organic connection
among diverse groups of the school, school community, and
educational establishments. Each representative gives ad-
vice about the problem that will in some way affect his
own department. In so doing he will acquire a sense of
proprietorship in others' problems. He then has the moral

obligation to make the decision in the best interest of
the organ which the problem most concerns.

Schwab's eclectic recognizes the usefulness of
theory to curriculum decision, takes account of weaknesses
of theory as grounds for decision making, and provides a
method to alleviate these weaknesses. Schwab contends
that there are two uses for theory in decision making:
(1) Theories are used as bodies of knowledge, and (2) Terms
and distinctions used in theory can be useful for a prac-
tical application.

When theory is used alone as grounds for decision
making, its weakness becomes apparent. Subject matter
theories are often incomplete and curriculum is developed
which stresses only part of the information needed (i.e.,
cognitive learning theory which takes no account of emotional
needs and satisfaction), and the curriculum is not balanced.

Eclectic operations repair these weaknesses by bring-
ing into clear view the partiality of a theory and permit-
ting the serial or even joint use of two or more theories
on practical problems. It becomes possible to see what
each member of the collection of theories does and does
not do with subject matter.

Schwab turns to the practical as the most effective
method of improving curriculum. He feels that the curric-
ulum movement has been extremely theoretic and that this

has not served curriculum well. The early Herbartian views
that ideas were formed by children out of received notions
and experiences of things and that these ideas acted as
discriminators and organizers of later learning was the
basis for many curricula. Using this view, which was also
espoused by Jerome Bruner, the aim of curriculum was to
discriminate the right ideas, determine the order in which
they could be learned and then present them at the right
times with clarity, association, organization and applica-
tion.

> A theory of mind and of knowledge thus solves by one
> mighty coup the problem of what to teach, when and
> how; what is fatally theoretic here is not merely
> the presence of a theory of mind and a theory of
> knowledge, though that presence is a part of the
> story, but the dispatch, the sweeping appearance
> of success, the vast simplicity which grounds his
> purported solution to the problem of curriculum.[20]

A defensible curriculum plan must take into account all
theories in an interlocking approach. The bulk of the
energies in developing curriculum must move from theory
to the practical, the quasi-practical and the eclectic.
The eclectic approach which allows a connection of vary-
ing theories is most useful at this step.

Schwab suggests that an empirical study of classroom
action and reaction is needed, not as a basis for

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[20]Joseph J. Schwab, "The Practical: A Language for
Curriculum" (Washington: The National Education Associa-
tion, 1970), p. 21.

developing new theories but as a beginning to know what we are doing, what effect it is having, and what changes are needed. If this is not done, then we will continue making many indefensible decisions about curriculum because of ignorance of the consequences our past decisions have had. The common pattern for finding out about changes occurs during the testing process and determines to what extent the intended changes have been brought about. It would be important to discover what side effects have also oc-curred. The side effects could be as great as or greater than the intended change. Theory-instigated change has historically brought about bandwagon phenomena such as enquiry teaching, programming, etc. The practical approach would take into consideration all the possible effects of a proposed change. The practical is ". . . directly and deliberately concerned with the diagnosis of ills of the curriculum."[21]

The practical approach to curriculum planning would also anticipate problems and not wait for them to sur-face. The practical curriculum would be deliberative. It must treat both ends and means and identify what facts may be relevant. Each alternative must be looked at care-fully and the consequences must be traced to all parts of

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[21] Ibid., p. 32.

the curriculum. This would require an interaction among all people who are involved in curriculum, such as, educational psychologists, philosophers, sociologists, test constructors, historians, administrators, teachers, supervisors and any others who have a stake in curriculum.

The education of educators to participate in a deliberative process will not be easy, but work could begin in the training of teachers and graduate students in the uses and arts of deliberation for curriculum planning.

Schwab's key concept is a move into the practical realm of curricular decision making. He is interested in allowing educators the opportunity to work together to develop a common base for curriculum decisions. His deliberations would allow all people who are interested in curriculum to become a part of the group that determines the objectives for schools.

Decker Walker

Decker Walker in his naturalistic model moves away from Tyler and Goodlad's classical model and looks at curriculum development as it is actually practiced. Walker's

curriculum begins with the platform.[22] In building the
platform the designer must accept certain assumptions to
justify choices. Walker sees five major assumptions as
being the mainstays of the platform. Conceptions, which
are beliefs about what exists and what is possible is the
first of his assumptions. The second assumption concerns
theories, which are beliefs about what is true. His next
assumption concerns aims, or what is educationally desir-
able. Educational objectives are a form of aims. Walker's
last two assumptions, images and procedures, are less care-
fully conceptualized, but are extremely powerful platform
components. Images specify the desirable without being
specific about why or in what way it is desirable. Pro-
cedures specify courses of action that are desirable with-
out specifying why they are desirable.

Frequently the curriculum maker seeks empirical con-
firmation of his beliefs through the use of data. Data
can help justify the assumptions made at the platform level.
It is quite possible that as a curriculum designer works,

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[22]Walker defines platform as ". . . both a political
platform and something to stand on. The platform includes
an idea of what is and a vision of what ought to be, and
these guide the curriculum developer in determining what
he should do to realize his vision." Decker Walker, "The
Process of Curriculum Development," Stanford University
(Mimeographed), Published with minor alterations in School
Review 80, November 1971.

the platform upon which the curriculum is to be based
changes due to a conflict between principles and beliefs.
When this occurs the curriculum worker can cite precedent
in basing his decisions. Walker refers to the body of
precedents evolved from the platform as "policy," and re-
serves the word "platform" for principles accepted from
the start.

When the platform is in place the curriculum worker
turns to deliberation to determine how the platform is to
be realized. Walker uses Schwab's definition of deliber-
ation which suggests that all facts must be considered
and the relevant facts identified. It must take into con-
sideration all the consequences of a decision and choose
the best alternative.

When the platform and deliberation are in place the
curriculum itself must be designed. "The design is the
theoretically significant output of the curriculum develop-
ment process."[23]

The design is a product of a series of decisions
that were made as the platform was being put into place.
The curriculum's explicit design is that which is easily
seen and whose plan was made through a consideration of
alternatives; however, all curricula carry an implicit

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[23] Ibid., p. 3.

design. The implicit design is composed of choices made by the curriculum maker without conscious deliberation.

Walker's key concept is a naturalistic model which is a set of design decisions that transform assumptions into design by the process of deliberation. Walker's platform is his base for curricular decision making.

Paulo Freire

Paulo Freire developed a teaching method to teach reading and writing to adult illiterates in Brazil. This method has received international acclaim because Freire does not depend on the usual methods of teaching, but rather, believes "Education is more than the filling of an empty vessel or the marking of a blank slate: the involvement of the learner in the act of learning is paramount."[24] Freire believes that there is no neutral education. Education is either for domestication or for freedom. His basic aim, in the process of adult literacy is to "show that if our option is for man, education is cultural action for freedom and therefore an act of knowing and not of memorization."[25]

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[24] Mary K. Monteith, "Paulo Freire's Literacy Method," Journal of Reading 20 (April 1977):628.

[25] Paulo Freire, Cultural Action for Freedom (Cambridge, Harvard Educational Review and the Center for the Study of Development and Social Change, 1970), p. 1.

Freire advocates for adult literacy a theory and practice based upon authentic dialogue between teachers and learners. Such dialogue "centers on codified representations of the learners' existential situations and leads not only to their right and capacity as human beings to transform reality."[26] Becoming literate is more than being able to decode words; it is action. It results in what Freire has termed "praxis," which he defines as the union of action and reflection.[27] Freire sees the adult literacy process as an act of knowing, which causes a dialogue to occur between teachers and students. He states that the essence of dialogue is the word or "naming" the reality. He says, "Thus, to speak a true word is to transform the world."[28]

Freire has termed conscientization as the process in which men, not as recipients, but as knowing subjects, achieve an awareness of the socio-cultural reality in which they live and of their capacity to transform that reality.[29]

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[26] Ibid., p. 5.

[27] Idem., Pedagogy of the Oppressed (New York: The Seabury Press, 1968), p. 75.

[28] Ibid., p. 75.

[29] Freire, Cultural Action, p. 27.

Freire's key concept centers on a design for curriculum and the development of a curriculum theory which not only is designed to teach adult illiterates reading skills, but does so through a process of consciousness raising. Freire developed his curriculum for use in Third World countries, but the concepts he embodies in his work can have impact on all curriculum designs.

Part Two

Selection of Major Concepts About Curriculum

The key concepts found in the scholar's work that appears in the review of the literature were used to select common concepts about curriculum. These key concepts were analyzed and common themes that appeared in the scholars work were noted. These themes were refined and condensed into four concepts that appeared across the selected scholars' work. These concepts, while given different emphasis by each theorist, are central to an understanding of the curriculum development process. These common concepts include those skills which are necessary for competency in curriculum development. The four common concepts that were developed as a result of the review of the literature follow.

Common Concepts of Selected Scholars

Each of the four common concepts about curriculum
have documentation from the selected scholars work. This
documentation was used to develop a rationale for the se-
lection of the concepts. Each concept will be presented
and selected use of the scholars work will be used to demon-
strate the position of the scholar in relation to the con-
cept. The four common concepts and the rationale for the
selection of these concepts follow.

First common concept

Curriculum as a subject of thought needs to be de-
fined. Curriculum theorists have marked differences in
their determination of what the word curriculum means.
Yet all agree that those who work with curriculum need to
have an understanding of the wide range of curriculum de-
finitions. The majority of theorists have found it neces-
sary to achieve a personal definition of curriculum for
their work.

Rationale for concept

James Macdonald's definition for curriculum is pre-
cise and definite. He says that curriculum is "a plan for

instruction."[30]   At the other extreme, George Beauchamp
defines curriculum as all of the experiences that occur un-
der the jurisdiction of the school.[31]

John Goodlad looks at the definition of curriculum
from a variety of perspectives.

> Curriculum may be viewed from many different vantage
> points and at several levels of generality or spec-
> ificity. For a student, the curriculum is what he
> perceives to be intended for him in his courses and
> classes, including assigned reading, homework exer-
> cises, field trips, and so on. For the teacher, it
> is what he intends for the students; at one level
> of insight, a perceived means for changing student
> behavior. For teachers (and administrators) in con-
> cert, the curriculum is the whole body of courses
> offered by the institution or all planned activities
> including, besides courses of study, organized play,
> athletics, dramatics, clubs, and other programs
> (Webster). For citizens and policy-makers, the cur-
> riculum is the body of educational offerings avail-
> able to whatever groups of students or kinds of ed-
> ucational institutions concern them. For a philoso-
> pher, a theologian, or an educational reformer, the
> curriculum might be the learnings to which groups
> of students, in his judgment, should be exposed.[32]

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[30]James B. Macdonald, "Responsible Curriculum De-
velopment," Chapter 5 in Elliot W. Eisner (ed.), Confront-
ing Curriculum Reform (Boston: Little, Brown and Company,
1971), p. 126.

[31]George A. Beauchamp, Curriculum Theory (Wilmette,
Ill.: The Kagg Press, 1961), p. 34.

[32]John I. Goodlad, "The Development of a Conceptual
System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruc-
tion," U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare,
Contract No. SAE-8024, Project No. 454, p. 11.

Hilda Taba looks at what others have said about curriculum and then defines curriculum from her viewpoint:

> What is considered the domain of curriculum thinking depends, of course, on how one defines curriculum. In this respect, too, there are variations. Some definitions seem too all-encompassing and vague to help precision in thinking. When curriculum is defined as 'the total effort of the school to bring about desired outcomes in school and out-of-school situations' (Saylor and Alexander, 1954, p. 3) or 'a sequence of potential experiences set up in school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting' (B. O. Smith, Stanley, and Shores, 1957, p. 3), the very breath may make the definition nonfunctional. On the other hand, excluding from the definition of curriculum everything except the statement of objectives and content outlines and relegating anything that has to do with learning and learning experiences to 'method' might be too confining to be adequate for a modern curriculum.[33]

Taba believes that the definition of curriculum lies somewhere between the two extremes. She states that "A curriculum is a plan for learning; therefore, what is known about the learning process and the development of the individual has bearing on the shaping of a curriculum."[34] Decker Walker views curriculum as a practical field of study. He states that an agreement on a definition is not important as each ". . . scholar can define the term as he or she sees fit for the purposes of his or her own research."[35]

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[33]Taba, Curriculum Development, p. 9.

[34]Ibid., p. 11.

[35]Decker Walker, "What Are the Problems Curriculists Ought to Study?," Curriculum Theory Network 2-3 (1974):218.

Second common concept

Curriculum workers often choose to present their viewpoint for curriculum graphically, in the form of models. The use of these models clarifies for the curriculum worker the structure for curriculum development. Many of the models share common features, but each has unique characteristics that reflect the interest of the developer.

Rationale for concept

Since most of the selected theorists have chosen to present their models graphically, it is necessary to reproduce these models as designed by the selected theorists. These graphic models demonstrate the interrelatedness of the curriculum development design as each theorist envisions curriculum. Most models contain the same basic components, but the arrangement of the components differs according to the philosophy of the theorist. Graphic models are frequently used to demonstrate curriculum. The following models are graphic presentations of selected curriculum workers models for curriculum.

Third common concept

Curriculum workers agree on the need for a conceptual and practical base for foundation for making decisions about the development of appropriate learning opportunities.

Fig. 1.   Ralph Tyler's method for organizing curriculum.

Purposes To Be Achieved by Educational Program

Levels of definition
1. Over all school objectives
2. Content area objectives
3. Specific instructional objectives

Determines the goals which provide direction, defines the breadth and provides the base for evaluation of the instructional program

Nature of Organization and Resources

Class and school organization

Pupil, teacher, principal, parent resources and relationships

Promotion, grouping, and classification procedures

Instructional and material resources of school and community

Curriculum

Experiences children have in school: direction, balance, emphasis

These experiences also have a subject matter and a process

Beliefs about:

The development of children and youth

The nature of effective learning

Democracy and its processes

The function of the school in the education of effective citizens

Determined by analysis of
1. Society and its needs
2. The learner and his learning
3. Human knowledge

Centers for Selecting and Organizing Learning Experiences

Subject Broad field Areas of living The needs of children

Fig. 3.—A proposed curriculum design

Fig. 2. Virgil E. Herrick's proposed curriculum design from "The Concept of Curriculum Design," in Toward Improved Curriculum Theory, ed. Virgil E. Herrick and Ralph W. Tyler (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 43.

Objectives to Be Achieved

Determined by Analysis of:
1. Culture and its needs
2. The learner and learning processes, and principles
3. Areas of human knowledge and their unique functions
4. Democratic ideals.

Classified by:
1. Types of behavior
2. Content areas
3. Areas of needs
   Etc.

Levels of:
1. Over-all aims of education
2. School-wide objectives
3. Specific instructional objectives

Selecting Curriculum Experiences

Determined by what is known about:
Nature of knowledge
Development
Learning
Learner

Dimensions of:
Content
Learning experiences

Affected by:
Resources of the school
Role of other educative agencies

Possible Centers for Organizing Curriculum

Determined by requirements of:
Continuity of learning
Integration of learning

Centers of organization:
Subjects
Broad fields
Areas of living
Needs, experiences
Activities of children
Focusing ideas
Etc.

Affected by and affecting:
The school organization
Methods of using staff
Methods of accounting for learning

The Scheme of Scope and Sequence

Determined by:
Requirements of scope of learning
Requirements of continuity of learning

Dimensions of:
Scope and sequence of content
Scope and sequence of mental operations

Affected by:
Centers of organizing curriculum

Fig. 3. Hilda Taba's proposed model for curriculum design in Curriculum Development, Hilda Taba, p. 438.

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                        ┌──────────────────┐
                        │      VALUES      │
                        └──────────────────┘
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │                    VALUES                     │
        │      SELECTED BY A SANCTIONING BODY           │
        │               OR INDIVIDUAL                   │
        └──────────────────────────────────────────────┘
       ┌────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
       │              EDUCATIONAL AIMS                    │
       │    SELECTED BY A CONTROLLING AGENCY              │
       │              SOCIETAL LEVEL                      │
       └────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
     ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
     │  EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AND LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES    │
     │    SELECTED BY THE PROFESSIONAL TECHNICAL STAFF       │
     │               INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL                     │
     └─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
     ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
     │  EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AND ORGANIZING CENTERS        │
     │            SELECTED BY TEACHERS                       │
     │             INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL                       │
     └─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        ┌──────────────────┐
                        │     LEARNERS     │
                        └──────────────────┘
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CONVENTIONAL WISDOM

FUNDED KNOWLEDGE

Fig. 4.   John Goodlad's conceptual system
for curriculum.
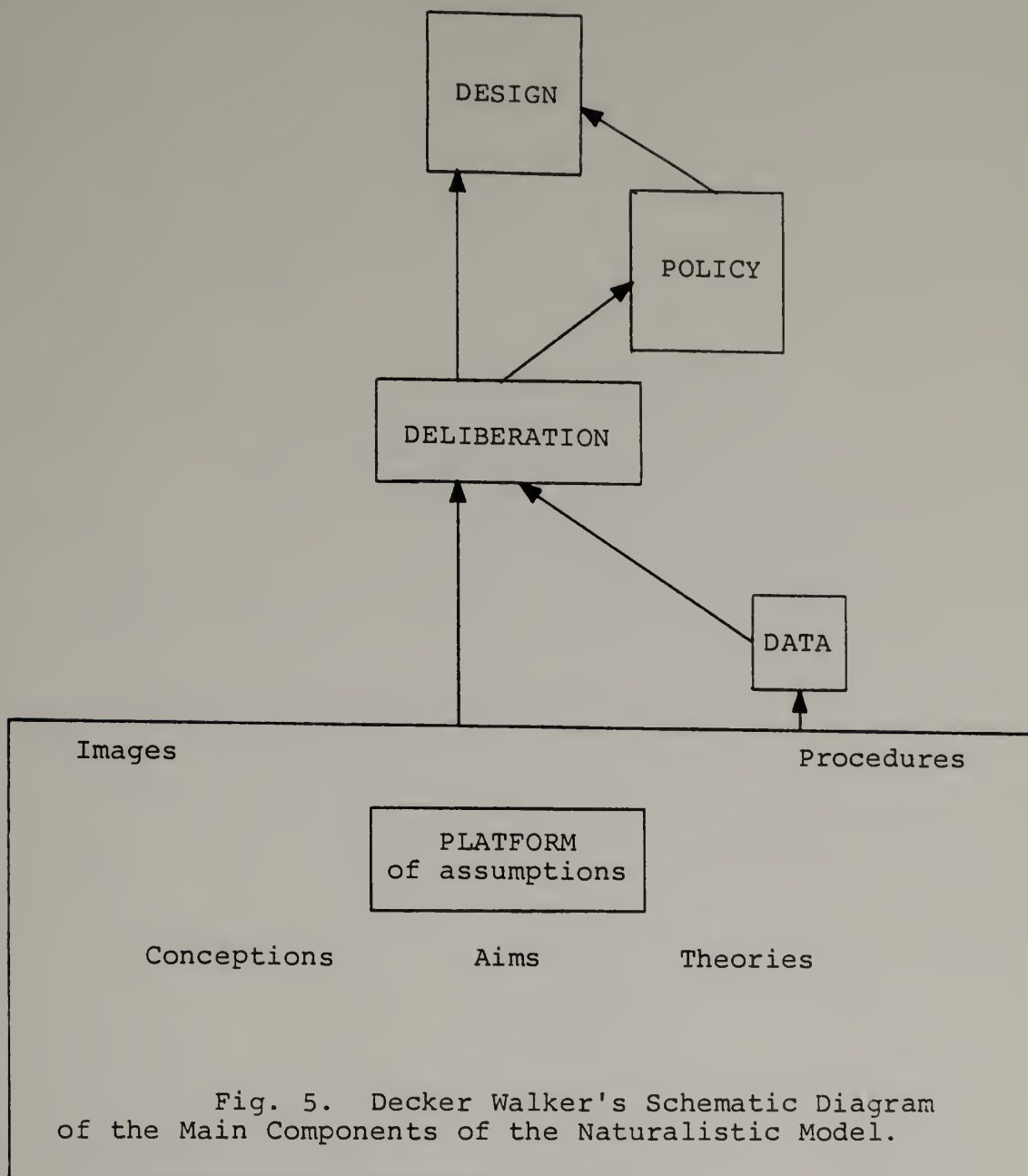
Fig. 5.   Decker Walker's Schematic Diagram
of the Main Components of the Naturalistic Model.

The various workers may select some differing components
of the sources that comprise the base or foundation for
curriculum but all agree on the necessity that the deci-
sions about "what to teach" be made on the basis of a care-
fully thought out series of steps that relate to the needs
of the learner, the study of society, subject matter,
philosophy and learning theories.

Rationale for concept

        Concern for a base for curriculum has it's anteced-
ents in John Dewey's and Hollis Leland Caswell's attempts
to define the fundamental factors in the educational pro-
cess. Caswell was concerned with the relationships among
the course of study, teaching, and the learner's role.
He saw curriculum development as a means to help teachers
apply the best of what is known about subject matter, the
interests of children and contemporary social needs.[36]
Dewey noted that the fundamental factors in the educational
process are as follows: (1) the learner ("the immature,
undeveloped being"); (2) society ("certain social aims,
meanings, values incarnate with the matured experience of
the adult"); and (3) organized subject matter ("the

        [36] John D. McNeil, Curriculum: A Comprehensive
Introduction (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1977), p.
293.

specialization and divisions of the curriculum").[37]   Dewey
wanted these factors viewed in interaction with one an-
other, rather than separately.

Virgil Herrick is another scholar who discusses the
importance of a base for curriculum in Proposition One
which is found in <u>Toward Improved Curriculum Theory</u>. He
states, "Any curriculum design or plan, if it is to become
effective in improving curriculum, must make clear the
bases upon which curriculum decisions are made."[38]

Herrick proposes that all aspects of curriculum plan-
ning be taken into consideration when curriculum is devel-
oped. He feels that the curriculum workers should reveal
the precise bases upon which decisions are made and that
philosophy, needs of leaners, values of society, and re-
sources of the school should be included as part of this
curriculum base.

Ralph Tyler identifies three sources for the devel-
opment of curriculum: (1) studies of the learners them-
selves; (2) studies of contemporary life outside school;

[37] John Dewey, <u>The Child and the Curriculum</u> (Chicago:
The University of Chicago Press, 1902), p. 4-8 quoted in
Daniel Tanner and Laurel N. Tanner, <u>Curriculum Development</u>
(New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1975), p. 61.

[38] Herrick, <u>Curriculum Theory</u>, p. 40.

and (3) suggestions from subject matter specialists.[39]
In some of Tyler's later work, he reinforces the role of
the learner in the development of curriculum. He states,
"I would give much greater emphasis now to careful consid-
eration of the implications for curriculum development of
the active role of the student in the learning process."[40]
This statement has important implications in the selection
of objectives for curriculum. These objectives should
be important for students to learn so that they will be
constructive members of society, sound in terms of the
subject matter involved, and, while in agreement with the
institutions' educational philosophy, be of interest or
meaningful to the student, or be capable of being made
interesting in the process of instruction.

James Macdonald, Distinguished Professor, University
of North Carolina, in a personal conversation with the
author, stated that one of the most overlooked aspects of
curriculum development is the lack of attention given

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[39]Tyler, Basic Principles, pp. 4-21.

[40]Idem., "Desirable Content for a Curriculum
Development Syllabus Today," in Curriculum Theory, ed. Alex
Molnar and John A. Zahorick (Washington: Association
for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1977), p. 37.

to the base upon which curricular decisions are made.[41]

He suggested that Herbert Kliebard's recent work serves
to bring into focus these decisions. Kliebard looks at the
balance and integration of the various components of the
curriculum as opposed to viewing subjects of studies
as isolated entities. He suggests that there are four
considerations that should be the major problems and issues
of curriculum. The first is, "Curriculum development
includes justifications for why certain things should
be studied in school in preference for others" or "why
should we teach this subject?" The second is, "In any
consideration of why we teach something, we are bound to
take into account not just the thing to be taught, but who
is taught. And, therefore, this question involves not
merely why we teach something, but to whom and under what
circumstances knowledge gets distributed." In other words,
"who should have access to what knowledge?" Kliebard's
third point states, "Since the way we approach the teaching

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[41]James Macdonald, at the Association for Supervi-
sion and Curriculum Development Meeting March 1979, respond-
ing to this author's request for his opinion on critical
factors in curriculum development. He drew a rough sketch
of Tyler's rationale and separated the "top" or base from
the four steps (objectives, learning opportunities properly
sequenced, and evaluation) and remarked that the lower half
of Tyler's and others' designs were most frequently used for
curriculum, but that much more attention is needed concerning
the base for curriculum development.

of any knowledge inevitably affects what knowledge gets conveyed, the study of curriculum includes a set of rules that govern the teaching of things to be studied," or "what rules should govern the teaching of what has been selected?" The fourth consideration states, "A further concern of the curriculum field has been the ways in which the components of the curriculum, however they are defined, are interrelated," or "how should the various parts of the curriculum be interrelated in order to create a coherent whole?"[42]

John Goodlad believes that "rational curriculum planning involves the derivation of educational aims from values, educational objectives from educational aims, and learning opportunities from educational objectives."[43] Goodlad sees aims and values as being the primary data source for curriculum. Goodlad defines a data-source as "a general categroy of phenomena or category by which phenomena are classified from which data are extracted or might be extracted."[44]

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[42]Herbert Kliebard, "Problems of Definition In Curriculum," paper presented to the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, N.Y., 6 April 1977, pp. 6-7; and Herbert Kliebard, "Curriculum Theory: Give Me a For Instance," Curriculum Inquiry 6 (n. 4 1977):257-269.

[43]Goodlad, "Conceptual System," p. 25.

[44]Ibid., p. 24.

Goodlad states, "The lack of aims for education has virtually forced curriculum project groups to turn in upon their subjects for the determination of ends and means."   When this occurs, ends and means become unclear.[45]

Hilda Taba in her book <u>Curriculum Development</u> stresses the necessity of identifying basic elements of curriculum. "An effective design also makes clear what the bases of the selection and the emphasis on the various elements are, as well as the sources from which these criteria are derived."[46] Taba feels that the design should clarify the position of the criteria to the objectives. If an objective is derived from consideration of social needs as revealed in the analysis of society or the needs of an individual as revealed by analysis of the nature of learners, the design should indicate the source.

Taba finds that:

> designs with no rationale, or a confusing one, result in curriculum framework with a high overtone
> of prescription because the requirements regarding
> content or the nature of learning experiences are
> difficult to explain and seem to demand a docile

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[45]Idem., <u>School Curriculum Reform in the United States</u>, (University of California, Los Angeles: The Fund for the Advancement of Education 1964), p. 81.

[46]Taba, <u>Curriculum Development</u>, p. 423.

acceptance of directives by those who implement the curriculum in the classroom.[47]

Decker Walker, in looking at decision making by curriculum workers, is interested in the problems that curriculum makers ought to be studying. He asks five questions that should be answered when the base for curriculum design is being developed.

1. What are the significant features of a given curriculum?

2. What are the personal and social consequences of a given curricular feature?

3. What accounts for stability and change in curriculum features?

4. What accounts for people's judgments of the merit or worth of various curricular features?

5. What sorts of curricular features ought to be included in a curriculum intended for a given purpose in a given situation?[48]

Walker would have curriculum makers look carefully at the base for the curriculum before making decisions affecting the curriculum itself.

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[47]Ibid., p. 423.

[48]Walker, "Problems Curriculists Ought to Study," pp. 217-218.

Fourth common concept

All curricula contain similar components which comprise the chief elements of curriculum.[49] These elements, properly sequenced, contain the objectives, evaluation, and learning opportunities, are present in most curriculum workers' theories. Each worker may place differing emphasis on these components, but all agree on the need for them to be present and effectively organized.

Rationale for concept

There is minimal disagreement among curriculum workers concerning the parts of the curriculum that comprise the chief elements. It is in this area that teachers work most directly with curriculum development. Most curriculum authorities begin the discussion on the elements of curriculum with an explanation of the need for objectives. Ralph Tyler says that many educational programs lack clearly-defined purposes and that ". . . if an educational program is to be planned and if efforts for continued improvements are to be made, it is very necessary to have some conception of the goals that are being aimed at."[50]

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[49]Taba states on page 422 in her book Curriculum Development that "in order to develop a design for curriculum it is necessary to identify its basic elements."

[50]Tyler, Basic Principles, p. 3.

Tyler stresses the need for objectives which indicate the

behavior desired and the specifications that indicate what

is to be taught.

> By defining these desired educational results as
> clearly as possible the curriculum-maker has the
> most useful set of criteria for selecting content,
> for suggesting learning activities, for deciding on
> the kind of teaching procedures to follow, in fact
> to carry on all the further steps of curriculum
> planning.[51]

Tyler does caution that behavioral objectives should not

be too specific. He says,

> I believe that the individual human being is able
> to solve many of his own problems and so I think
> that more of our educational objectives should be
> general in nature.[52]

Tyler's main goal for the uses of objectives in curric-

ulum is to see them used as a tool to help instruction reach

the goal of educating students for living and doing things

of value in this world.

Virgil Herrick, in examining the components of cur-

riculum, states that educational improvement can only oc-

cur as a result of ". . . improvement through identifica-

tion and definition of the objectives of the educational

program."[53]

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[51]Ibid., p. 40.

[52]June Grant Shane and Harold G. Shane (interview-
ers), "Ralph Tyler Discusses Behavioral Objectives," Today's
Education 26 (Sept-Oct 1973):42.

[53]Virgil E. Herrick, "Approaches to Helping Teachers
Improve Their Instructional Practices," The School Review
62 (December 1954):528.

Hilda Taba feels that the chief purposes of objectives are to change individuals in some way, to add to their knowledge, to help them perform skills, or to develop understanding, insights, and appreciations. She developed a series of principles to guide the formulation of objectives. These criteria are useful in avoiding confusion in stating objectives and aid in developing sharper distinctions among them. Her criteria state: A statement of objectives should describe both the kind of behavior expected and the content or the context to which that behavior applies. Complex objectives need to be stated analytically and specifically enough so that there is no doubt as to the kind of behavior expected or what the behavior applies to. Objectives should also be so formulated that there are clear distinctions among learning experiences required to attain different behaviors. Objectives are developmental, representing roads to travel rather than terminal points. Objectives should be realistic and should include only what can be translated into curriculum and classroom experience. The scope of objectives should be broad enough to encompass all types of outcomes for which the school is responsible.[54]

Paulo Freire's objectives are not as distinct as the classical theorists'; nonetheless they exist. Freire's objectives for the learner are flexible, adaptable to the

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[54]Taba, Curriculum Development, pp. 200-205.

teaching-learning situation of the moment. He does see the need for clearly defined objectives for his students, but his objectives are focused on the student's need and the teacher's desire to bring the student into reality.

Decker Walker's view of objectives in actual practice in curriculum development places the development of objectives late in the formulation of the curriculum maker's platform. He feels that while objectives are always included in curriculum development,

> . . . in most cases when teachers or subject matter specialists work at curriculum development the objectives they formulate are either a diversion from their work or an appendix to it, not an integral part of it.[55]

The components of curriculum generally referred to as the learning opportunities are found in all curricula. These are the activities that take place at the learner level. These activities need to be carefully structured and sequenced in such a way that they match what we know about how children learn. Very little appears in the literature of curriculum theorists concerning the content of learning experiences. These learning opportunities, while uniformly implied as essential to curriculum, are generally thought to be the baliwick of the teacher. Ralph Tyler does discuss the organization of learning experiences and emphasizes that:

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[55]Walker, "Naturalistic Model," p. 1.

without organization, learning experiences are iso-
lated, chaotic, and haphazard. No matter how effec-
tive an individual learning experience may be, if
it is not followed up in significant phases, it is
not likely that significant changes will take place
in the learner.[56]

Tyler refers to the term "learning experiences" as
the interaction between the learner and the conditions in
the environment to which he can react. Tyler has set forth
some general principles regarding the selection of learn-
ing experiences. His first principle states:

. . . for a given objective to be attained, a stu-
dent must have experiences that give him an oppor-
tunity to practice the kind of behavior implied by
the objective.

A second general principle regarding learning experiences
states that:

. . . the learning experiences must be such that
the student obtains satisfactions from carrying on
the kind of behavior implied by the objectives. . . .

A third general principle with regard to learning exper-
iences is that the reactions desired in the experience
are within the range of possibility for the students in-
volved. . . . A fourth general principle is that there
are many particular experiences that can be used to attain
the same educational objectives. . . . A fifth principle

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[56]Ralph Tyler, "The Organization of Learning Exper-
iences," in Toward Improved Curriculum Theory, ed. Virgil
E. Herrick and Ralph W. Tyler (Chicago: The University of
Chicago Press, 1950), p. 60.

is that the same learning experience will usually bring about several outcomes.[57]

Hilda Taba says, "If the curriculum is to be a plan for learning, its content and learning experiences need to be organized so that they serve the educational objectives."[58]

The final component of the body of curriculum is the evaluation. Hilda Taba describes the relationship between the objectives in a curriculum and the evaluation. The objectives serve as a guide for the evaluation of achievement. "Descrepancy between what is taught and what is evaluated is a common fault of school programs."[59]

Evaluation is an integral part of the curriculum. It is used both to determine what the learner has or has not achieved, and to improve the quality of the instructional program. It is critical, then, that the evaluation be used as a guide to pupil performance and as a criteria for the quality of the program.

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[57]Tyler, Basic Principles, pp. 41-44.

[58]Taba, Curriculum Development, p. 290.

[59]Ibid., p. 199.

Evaluative techniques can assist school personnel
to determine how well curriculum objectives are
being attained and where curriculum revision is
warranted.[60]

Evaluation has a direct relationship to what occurs

in the classroom.

Much can be written on the process of testing and
test construction in formative evaluation but the
main point being made here is that evaluation which
is directly related to the teaching-learning process
as it unfolds can have highly beneficial effects on
the learning of students, the instructional process
of teachers, and the use of instructional materials
by teachers and learners.[61]

Part Three

Generating Objectives for Competencies

in Curriculum Development

Each concept has been translated into a premise[62]

or inference for curriculum development. From each premise

a series of objectives was developed that defined specific

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[60]Albert H. Shuster and Milton E. Ploghoft, The
Emerging Elementary Curriculum Second Edition (Columbus:
Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1970), p. 467.

[61]Benjamin S. Bloom, "Some Theoretical Issues Relating
to Educational Evaluation," in Educational Evaluation: New
Roles New Means ed. Ralph W. Tyler (Chicago: University of
Chicago Press, 1969), p. 50.

[62]Webster's College Dictionary (1972) defines premise
as "a previous statement from which something is inferred
or concluded."

teacher skills in curriculum development. A graphic presentation of the development of the objectives for this program is found in Table 1. The objectives were composed of skills that would be necessary for teachers to attain in order to achieve competency in curriculum development.

To assist in the selection of these objectives the following approach was used. The four premises were sent to sixteen members of the Center for Curriculum Studies at the University of Massachusetts who were judged to possess expertise in curriculum development. The respondents were enrolled in the program leading to the Doctor of Education and all were curriculum majors. These respondents were sent a letter asking if they would help in formulating objectives for the in-service program that the author was developing. This letter is found in Appendix A. The students were told that the four premises were about skills that teachers needed for developing curriculum at the school level. They were asked to write objectives they felt flowed from each premise. The objectives would be those that were necessary for teachers to know so that they would be proficient in curriculum development. Eleven students responded to the request.

The objectives thus generated were compared against the previously developed objectives to determine if similar objectives were stated by the students. No completely different objectives were introduced by these students.

TABLE 1

GRAPHIC PRESENTATION OF DEVELOPMENT OF
THE OBJECTIVES FOR THE PROGRAM
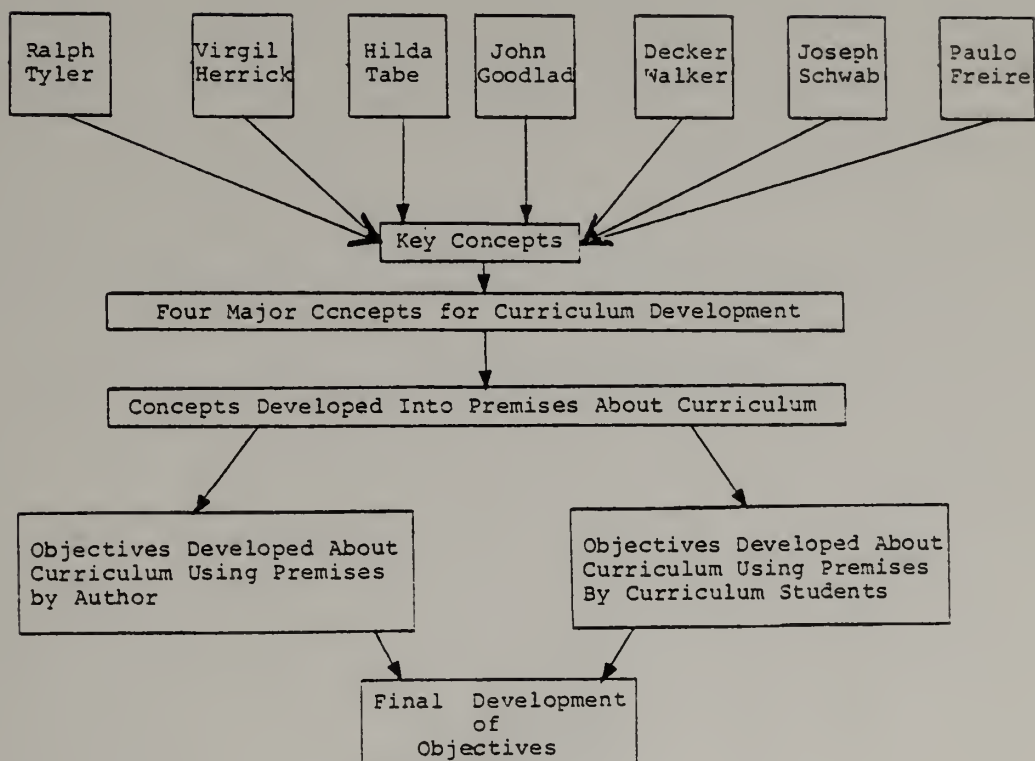
Objectives were generated that would identify basic skills about curriculum. The four concepts that had been identified as major concepts concerning curriculum were translated into premises. From these premises the following objectives for basic skills in curriculum development were determined.

The four concepts for competencies in curriculum development have led to the development of four premises about curriculum. From each premise a series of objectives were developed. The four concepts, premises and the objectives for each follow.

First common concept

Curriculum as a subject of thought needs to be defined. Curriculum theorists have marked differences in their determination of what the word curriculum means. Yet, all agree that those who work with curriculum need to have an understanding of the wide range of curriculum definitions. The majority of theorists found it necessary to achieve a personal definition of curriculum for their work.

First premise

A definition of curriculum is needed so that the parameters of curriculum development are established and have clarity for those who would work with and use them. Each

theorist's definition may vary from the others, but all have attempted either by implication or statement, to define curriculum for their purposes.

Objectives

    1. To recognize the varying definitions of curriculum as used by selected scholars.

    2. To define the term curriculum for oneself.

Second common concept

Curriculum workers often choose to present their viewpoint for curriculum graphically, in the form of models. The use of these models clarifies for the curriculum worker the structure for curriculum development. Many of the models share common features, but each has unique characteristics that reflect the interest of the developer.

Second premise

The selected curriculum theorists have designed models for curriculum that best demonstrate their viewpoint for curriculum. All the models share common features, and adaptations of these models are currently in use in most school curricula.

Objectives

    1. To identify the significant features of a given curriculum.

    2.   To recognize various models of curriculum.

Third common concept

Curriculum workers agree on the need for a conceptual and practical base, or foundation for making decisions about the development of appropriate learning opportunities. The various workers may select some differing components of the sources that comprise the base or foundation of curriculum, but all agree on the necessity that the decisions about "what to teach" be made on the basis of a carefully thought out series of steps that relate to the needs of the learner, the study of society, subject matter philosophy, and learning theories.

Third premise

A common concern among curriculum theorists is the formulation of a base upon which curricular decisions are made. This base provides the information for curriculum planning and leads to the establishment of objectives.

Objectives

    1.   To identify the bases upon which curricular decisions are made.

    2.   To describe the uses of data sources in curriculum development. Such data sources would include society, learner, and subject matter.

3. To identify the aims for education held at the societal level.

4. To describe the values a community holds for education.

5. To identify the effect on curriculum of the instructional and material resources of school and community.

6. To recognize the use of educational philosophy as it applies to the selection of educational objectives.

7. To identify the uses of learning theories in curriculum development as it applies to the selection of educational objectives.

8. To recognize the impact of the hidden curriculum on curricular decision making and action.

9. To distinguish the effects of class and school organization (including promoting, grouping, and classifying procedures).

Fourth common concept

All curricula contain similar components which comprise the chief elements of curriculum. These elements, properly sequenced, contain the objectives, evaluation and learning opportunities are present in most curriculum workers' theories. Each worker may place differing

emphasis on these components, but all agree on the need for them to be present and effectively organized.

Fourth premise

The body of curriculum contains elements that are recognized as being critical for effective curriculum development. These elements are frequently given differing emphases by different curriculum workers, but the understanding that for these elements need to be present and effectively organized is shared by the selected theorists.

Objectives

1. To diagnose learner needs.
2. To select appropriate topics for content.
3. To evaluate concepts for appropriateness for learner.
4. To select appropriate subject matter content.
5. To organize curriculum content to improve learning for students.
6. To recognize integration or horizontal relationships of curriculum activities. This is sometimes known as scope and sequence.
7. To define instructional objectives for pupils.
8. To formulate instructional objectives for pupils.
9. To select appropriate learning experiences for pupils.

10. To design learning activities for pupils.

11. To organize learning activities for pupils.

12. To evaluate pupil performance.

13. To determine that the curriculum contains balance and sequence.

Summary

The review of literature identified concepts that curriculum theorists hold in common. The rationale for each concept demonstrated the reasons for the selection of each concept. Finally, the concepts were developed into premises about competencies that are necessary for curriculum development, and a list of objectives about curriculum was generated from these premises.

Although the selection of objectives is important, the characteristics of effective in-service education also needs to be considered. Chapter Three discusses in-service education and identifies characteristics of successful programs.

C H A P T E R   I I I
REVIEW OF LITERATURE TO IDENTIFY CHARACTERISTICS
OF SUCCESSFUL IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

This chapter presents a review of literature for
the purposes of identifying characteristics of successful
in-service programs. This chapter will accomplish two
purposes. First, a review of literature concerning in-
service programs that have been shown to be successful will
be presented. Eleven programs that demonstrated character-
istics of effective in-service education were reviewed and
are described in this chapter. These programs have been
divided into four sections. Section I describes school-
university partnerships; Section II identifies state respon-
sibility for in-service; Section III describes local in-
service development; and Section IV describes the function
of teacher centers. The results of on-site visits to four
British teacher centers and one center in the United States
will be described. These centers were considered to have
conducted successful in-service programs. Second, a list
of program characteristics which have been identified as
important for successful in-service education will be pre-
sented. The intention is not to review all the existing
research related to the effectiveness of in-service, rather
the purpose is to consider descriptions of in-service

education and first-hand observations of teacher centers. This is designed to provide perspective about the characteristics of in-service education that appear to be the most promising. It is this mixture of literature and first-hand observation that will provide direction for the type of in-service program that is most likely to be successful in implementing the basic skills for curriculum development identified in the previous chapter.

The Nature of In-Service Education Programs

What criteria should guide in-service at the local level? This question is heard all across the country these days from teachers, administrators, school board members, college professors, and others.

> Criteria are more helpful than prescriptions to educators who want to design their own in-service education program. Criteria do not dictate the substance and the essence of program; they suggest standards about the conditions and circumstances of planning and operation.[1]

An examination of the literature concerning in-service training for teachers produces an enormous assortment of articles pertaining to in-service education and staff development for curriculum. A brief distillation of the current literature shows that the concern for teacher in-service training is growing dramatically. This concern for

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[1]Roy A. Edelfelt, ed., Inservice Education: Criteria For and Examples Of Local Programs (Bellingham, Washington: Western Washington State College, 1977), p. 9.

in-service for teachers is voiced best by Elizabeth A.
Dillon writing in Educational Leadership, December 1976,
who states that staff development is generating enormous
interest as the educational system has become more complex.
"Three reasons for the increased emphasis on staff devel-
opment are: (a) the declining birthrate and resultant
decline in teacher turnover, (b) public dissatisfaction
with the achievement of many students, and (c) general
societal pressures that impinge on the schools."[2]

Two major types of in-service training for curriculum
development seem to occur in school systems. The first
type assumes that any change in the school curriculum can
be corrected if the central office determines the problem
and prescribes a program to correct the deficit. This type
requires little staff participation in determining the
format or assessing the needs of the school. The major
concern of the district is to help develop "teacher-proof"
materials or to give a workshop explaining how to use new
curriculum materials. This type of in-service does very
little to change what is actually occurring in classrooms.
Teachers see very little connection between what they are
hearing and what is happening in a classroom. "Too often
district-level activities are not tied either to district

[2]Elizabeth A. Dillon, "Staff Development: Bright
Hope or Empty Promise?," Educational Leadership 34 (December
1976):165.

or to individual goals or needs, and are not based on solid learning theory."[3] This type of in-service training, though frequently used, generates little interest in new curriculum and results in very poor implementation.

The second type of in-service training centers on teacher participation in curriculum decision making at the initial stages of the program. Teachers frequently do not know where to begin in assessing their professional needs, but this inadequacy can be overcome by sensitive planning. A statewide research study conducted in Tennessee, whose purpose was to identify types of in-service education currently in use and to ascertain teacher attitudes toward in-service education, reported that the question receiving the highest endorsement by teachers was the statement: The teacher should have the opportunity to select the kind of in-service activities which he feels will strengthen his professional competence.[4]

This second type of in-service training focuses on cooperative staff development. Teachers are supported by the district with time, money, and materials as they begin

[3]Idem., "Staff Development: Whose Job Is It?," Educational Leadership 32 (November 1974):138.

[4]Jack L. Brimm and Daniel J. Tollett, "How Do Teachers Feel About In-Service Education?," Educational Leadership 31 (March 1974):522.

to work to improve their skills. Three factors seem to be related to successful teacher in-servicing training. The first is local materials development. This appears to be a learning-by-doing exercise, and teachers are involved in developing their own curriculum materials. The second factor is on-line planning which begins before a project starts and is designed to continue well through the development of new curriculum. This method of planning allows project guidelines and methods to be revised over time, based on the changing needs and experience of the teaching staff. The third factor concerns concrete ongoing training. Teachers, who are in the forefront of decision making as it pertains to the individual classroom, need to be in a position to handle problems in the classroom as they emerge and as they are perceived as being important by teachers. The training received by teachers must meet these needs and must continue through a project and be related to the long term planning for in-service.

This type of in-service education is useful to teachers since it is highly relevant to ongoing classroom activities. This type of training focuses on problem-solving methodologies that are more apt to promote curriculum improvement and long-lasting teacher change. "The classroom teacher is the most important person in the curriculum im-provement program. The success of the entire effort to

improve learning experiences for children may be measured by the amount of change which actually is reflected in classroom practice."[5]

I. School-University Partnerships

Many schools are now developing in-service education for their teachers that reflects characteristics of the second type presented above. These in-service plans may use local resources, such as other teachers; they may hire outside consultants; or they may choose to form a partnership with a university to provide in-servicing training that meets local criteria. A good example of this type of in-service education has been developed by the Wayne County Intermediate School District. The school district selects teams of administrators and teachers who work together on a problem of their choosing. The problem is identified before the workshop begins, and the course covers 16 four-hour sessions. The team is assisted by staff members from various local universities, the state department of education, and the intermediate school district. The teachers receive college credit for this work. This cooperation utilizes personnel in a new way. The staff members are used as a link with the resources of the researcher and the

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[5]Albert H. Shuster and Milton E. Ploghoff, The Emerging Elementary Curriculum (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1977), p. 473.

specialist. The retrieval of knowledge and the opportunity for a continued association with university personnel has long-term benefits for the staff.[6]

To demonstrate this cooperation, Educational Leadership's entire February 1975 issue was devoted to "School-University Partnership for Teacher Growth." The editorial in that issue, which was written by Wendell M. Hough, states that colleges and schools are joining together to develop programs of pre-service and in-service which utilize the strengths of each.

Portland, Oregon, has developed a comprehensive plan for in-service education encompassing both university cooperation and comprehensive planning at the local level. Their program depends on five basic elements: 1) an administrative staff and a board of education which places a high priority on in-service education, 2) an organizational plan for the district which makes it possible to develop in-service programs on-site, 3) coordination of planning so that in-service activities are focused on identified goals, 4) available resources such as institutions of higher learning, and 5) a quality professional staff. Portland suggests that teacher education is a continuous process, not

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[6] Robert S. Fox and Don A. Griffin, "A New Model for In-Service: When Clients and Resources Cooperate for Growth," Educational Leadership 31 (March 1974):545-547.

something that occurs before a teacher begins to teach.
"Traditionally, the education profession has seemed to
accept three basic notions: first, that which comes
before he received his first certificate (pre-service), and
that which comes afterward (in-service); second, that each
of these two experiences is different in nature, the first
essentially theoretical, the second practical; and third,
that other professionals know best what the individual
teachers need."[7]

Portland's in-service component is related to program
improvement in two ways. First, current in-service oppor-
tunities for participating teachers are based on teachers'
perceived needs. A School In-service Committee facilitates
the needs assessment activities. Three-fourths of the
School In-service Committee are teachers, a condition which
allows those people closest to the students and the day-to-
day operation of the school to have major responsibility for
designing their own training. Thus, the training is aimed
directly at improving the program of the schools.

The second way in which the in-service program is
related to program improvement is that it provides for the
development of an alternative, field-centered, competency-

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[7]Vera M. Larson, "Portland's In-Service Involves All
Professional Personnel," Educational Leadership 31
(March 1975):502.

based teacher education program. The in-service program
is based on the assessment of desired outcomes for students
and the assessment of instructional programs in the parti-
cipating schools.[8]

A university-based in-service program that is meeting
with success is The Integrated Day Program at the School
of Education, University of Massachusetts at Amherst. The
two-year in-service program is held for the entire school
community--teachers, aides, and auxiliary staff. The
workshops are based on two major assumptions: first,
helping people uncover possible next steps facilitates
their growth; and second, people are more effective helpers
when they feel good about themselves. The workshop leaders
work together with teachers in informal sharing sessions
to help the teachers develop skills of decision making,
group processes, diagnosing, etc. This type of in-service
is designed to improve a staff's community togetherness and
strength as professionals.[9]

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[8]Mary Gourley, "Relating In-service Education to
Program Improvement: An Overview of the Portland Con-
sortium Training Complex," in Inservice Education, Edelfelt,
ed., pp. 65-67.

[9]R. Mason Bunker, "Beyond Inservice: Toward Staff
Renewal," Journal of Teacher Education 28 (March-April
1977):31-34.

II. State Responsibility for In-Service

Some states are beginning to take the lead in developing in-service for their schools. Recognizing that teachers are the critical element in good schools, Dr. John Porter, in a presentation to the National Council of States in Inservice Education in 1977, contended, " . . . that since little can be done to change the nature of students, their parents, or their out-of-school environ- ments, the major potential for improvement lies in the training of highly skilled teachers." Dr. Porter argues that pre-service training cannot produce an expert prac- titioner and that for continuous professional growth to be effective, efficacious in-service development is essen- tial.[10]

The State of Massachusetts has drafted a Commonwealth In-service Institute Proposal which begins to formalize the state's commitment to in-service education. The proposal is founded on the following principles:

* In-service education is radically different
  from pre-service education.
* The most effective in-service education
  programs are those with a high degree of
  participant control.

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[10]Louis Rubin, Professional Development: Perspectives on Preservice and Inservice Education (Syracuse, New York: National Dissemination Center, National Council of States on Inservice Education, 1979), p. 3.

* In-service education programs most beneficial
  to students are those designed primarily to
  improve the quality of teaching in an entire
  school or department of a school.

* A decentralized organization can best and most
  promptly respond to local inservice needs.[11]

Massachusetts plans on making the following policy
recommendations for programs:

1. Institute programs will be designed to meet
   locally defined and state-wide needs through the
   improvement of instruction.

2. Institute programs should help groups with
   shared objectives and with a logical functional
   relationship to improve an instructional program
   or educational services.

3. All members of school staffs or others who will
   be directly affected by Institute programs should
   be invited to participate.

4. Participants should plan their own programs,
   determine program format, select an appropriate
   site, choose consultants, and monitor and
   evaluate progress toward program goals.

5. Consultants recommended for Institute programs

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[11]"The Commonwealth Inservice Institute," Revised
Proposal, Draft (March 1978), Mimeographed, p. 2.

will have demonstrated the capacity to help achieve program goals and will be evaluated by participants.

6. Administrators, counselors, teachers, or others whose support is essential to achieve and sustain program goals should be actively involved in the program and indicate what steps they will take to implement program goals.

7. Participation in Institute programs should be voluntary.

8. The awarding of credit or other recognition for participation in Institute programs should be decided on the local level between participating institutions and individuals.[12]

Florida passed the Public Education Act of 1973, which included the Teacher Education Center Act. Each school district must develop and submit to the department of education a master plan for in-service. The emphasis is on school-based staff development so that teachers can be involved with identification of needs. Gordon Lawrence, in a monograph prepared for the Florida Department of Education, presented findings that lend important support for the establishment of school-based development programs. Nine of his findings follow:

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[12]Ibid., p. 5.

1. Teacher attitudes are more likely to be influenced in school-based than in college-based in-service programs.

2. School-based programs in which teachers participate as helpers to each other and planners of in-service activities tend to have greater success in accomplishing their objectives than do programs which are conducted by college or other outside personnel without the assistance of teachers.

3. School-based in-service programs that emphasize self-instruction by teachers have a strong record of effectiveness.

4. In-service education programs that have differentiated training experiences for different teachers (that is, "individualized") are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs that have common activities for all participants.

5. In-service education programs that place the teacher in active roles (constructing and generating materials, ideas, and behavior) are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs that place the teacher in a receptive role (accepting ideas and behavior prescriptions not of his or her own making).

6. In-service education programs that emphasize demonstrations, supervised trials, and feedback are more likely to accomplish their goals than are programs in which the teachers are expected to store up ideas and behavior prescriptions for a future time.

7. In-service education programs in which teachers share and provide mutual assistance to each other are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs in which each teacher does separate work.

8. Teachers are more likely to benefit from in-service education activities that are linked to a general effort of the school than they are from "single-shot" programs that are not part of a general staff development plan.

9. Teachers are more likely to benefit from in-service programs in which they can choose goals and activities for themselves as contrasted with programs in which the goals and activities are preplanned.[13]

Florida has begun to plan a series of programs that complement their emphasis on staff development. A program

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[13]Larry L. Zenke, "Staff Development in Florida," Educational Leadership 34 (December 1976):180-181.

that allows necessary modification in the curriculum and
an updating of teacher retraining is being planned, with a
strong emphasis on reading and early childhood. The neces-
sary budgetary commitments have been made ($5.00 per
student), and an effort is being made to reach all of
Florida's educators.[14]

Ohio has recently established a series of Teacher
Institutes. These are held during the summer in coopera-
tion with state colleges and universities. The training ob-
jective must be designed around the assessed needs of
districts and the planning done with a local education
agency. The training includes involving the total staff,
as completely as possible, and must be geared to a major
instructional problem, such as reading. This allows the
states to become a facilitator of in-service education for
schools.[15]

The Ohio Education Association has developed a policy
on in-service education and professional development. They
address both the state and local responsibilities in their
policy statement. The association asks the state to provide
financial support for programs developed at the local level,
and they also ask local districts to provide released time,

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[14]Rubin, _Professional Development_, p. 18.

[15]Ibid., p. 15.

rewards (credits, etc.), and flexibility in planning so that local needs are met.

The association details some pitfalls that they have encountered in current in-service programs. These pitfalls include: inappropriate topics; long lectures; consultants' lack of knowledge; lack of involvement of participants; poor leadership by program organizers; and lack of understanding by consulting expert concerning educational background of group.[16]

Georgia has linked the evaluation of teacher performance to re-certification and in some situations made professional development experiences compulsory. Georgia's program is based upon policies established by a task force that studied divergent opinions. Included in the policies are the following assumptions:

1. In-service is a major aspect of renewal for teachers.

2. All in-service should be related to students' needs.

3. Teachers should participate in planning professional growth activities.

4. In-service provisions should be sufficiently flexible to permit individualization.

[16]Ohio Educational Association, Inservice Planning Manual, Info. Item. Educators Digest/No. 5070 (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1977), p. 3.

5. In-service should be regarded as a support
   program and used to improve various aspects of
   instruction.

6. Local districts may negotiate with institutions
   of higher learning for the development of a
   master's degree program that fits individual
   needs.[17]

A school district in Georgia which has attempted to
make continuous in-service experience relevant to teacher
needs and to bring the entire staff of the schools into
system-wide efforts to improve the schools is the Harris
County School District. They have worked in cooperation
with the Columbus College Teacher Corps Project to offer
in-service, leading to a master's degree, which is com-
petency-based in nature and meets the needs of individual
teachers.[18]

The impressive aspect of the state-encouraged models
is that the emphasis is upon the practical, devoting
financial commitments, resources, and time to in-service.

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[17]Rubin, _Professional Development_, pp. 18-19.

[18]William Bruce et al., "Harris County/Columbus
College Teachers Corps Inservice Project," in _InService
Education_, Edelfelt, ed., pp. 37-42.

III. Local In-Service Development

Very few school systems develop in-service programs singlehandedly. The process is expensive and requires experts in curriculum and time for planning. One exception is the Pittsburgh Public School system, which has developed its own methods for providing in-service education to its teachers.

The Pittsburgh Public Schools have developed a Free Learning Environment Program (FRELEA) which emphasizes on-going training for teachers. The major task of the training is to help teachers understand the congruency between theory and practice. Teachers need to understand the reason for change rather than be given the prescription for doing. When teachers understand theory, they can move from beliefs to logically-connected practices and be consistent with their curriculum. Pittsburgh also believes that teachers must have self-choice and that change cannot be forced. The FRELEA program is part of the working day and teachers are released from their classrooms to participate in it. The program is effectively changing teaching styles and learning environ-ments in the schools.[19]

Most school systems have formed some type of partner-ship for in-service education. It may be university, state,

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[19]June S. Delano, "In-Service for Change," _Educational Leadership_ 32 (May 1975):520-523.

or regional, but "going it alone" for in-service is very rare for a school system that is interested in developing a comprehensive program for in-service staff development.

IV. Teacher Centers

A new direction in the United States for training teachers involves the establishment of teacher centers. In the fall of 1976, Congress passed a law which authorized up to $75 million a year to be spent to support teacher centers. The funding was only $8.25 million in the first year, so the establishment of teacher centers has been gradual. PL 94-482, or the Education Amendments of 1976, remained in effect until 1978. "The act is vague on what constitutes a Teacher Center, but any site operated by a local education agency or combination thereof may qualify if teachers, with the assistance of consultants or experts, if needed,"

> a) develop and produce curricula designed to meet the educational needs of the persons in the community, area, or state being served, including the use of educational research findings or new or improved methods, practices, and techniques in the development of such curricula; and b) provide training to improve the skills of teachers to enable such teachers to meet better the special educational needs of persons such teachers serve and to familiarize such teachers with developments in curriculum development and educational research including the manner in which the research can be used to improve their teaching skills.[20]

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[20] Frederick Andelman, "Let's Get Ready for Teacher Centers," The Massachusetts Teacher LVII (September-October 1977):8.

Federally-funded teacher centers must be operated by a Teacher Center Policy Board which is composed of classroom teachers, representatives of the local education agency, and a representative from higher education.

The rationale for the teacher center concept comes from conclusions by many people that for years teacher education has been the domain of "experts"--people who were associated with universities or colleges. Those experts often were far removed from the realities of the classroom, and their advice was often not practical and frequently not trusted by teachers. The difficulty with curriculum developed at the local school district is a lack of personnel knowledgeable in theory to train teachers. A cooperative approach between universities and local school systems often evolves into the teacher center. The advantages of teacher centers is that they are responsive to local needs and are seen by teachers as a method for self-improvement.

Advocating the teacher center concept, Frederick Rodgers in Curriculum and Instruction in the Elementary School, states:

1. The improvement of professional teacher education is dependent on the basic involvement and direction of teachers charged with the responsibility of delivering the instructional program.

2. Teachers are not likely to perform in a certain way because an expert tells them to do so.

3. Teachers are likely to take attempts to train them seriously only when they are responsible

for defining their own educational problems,
delineating their own needs, and receiving help
on their own terms and turf.[21]

The centers are patterned after the British Teacher

Centers, which began in 1964 when the Schools Council for

Curriculum and Examinations was formed. "The Schools Coun-

cil began with the basic assumption that each school should

and would take full responsibility for the development of

its own curriculum and pedagogy--based essentially on the

needs of the children in a given, local community. The

Council would give every possible assistance in the task,

but change begins in the local school."[22]

Teacher Centers in Britain have shown enormous growth

partly because they allow teachers to work together, help-

ing to remove some of the isolation frequently felt by

teachers. "The Teacher's Centre is a common meeting ground

for primary and secondary teachers; for teachers with many

years of experience and the newly qualified; for colleges

of education lecturers and the practicing teachers; for

classroom teachers and administrators. In the Teacher

Centre they can all meet as equals with a contribution to

offer. This cross-fertilization of educational ideas may

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[21]Frderick A. Rodgers, Curriculum and Instruction
in the Elementary School (New York: Macmillan, 1975), p.
340.

[22]Vincent R. Rogers, "Why Teacher Centers in the
U.S.?," Educational Leadership 33 (March 1976):407.

lead to better teaching and therefore ultimately benefit the pupils."[23]

British Teacher Centers must provide a service which meets "real" needs. Since participation is voluntary and there are no monetary or credit awards for attending, the teachers must feel that the centers are helping them improve professionally. Courses are run by teachers or visiting specialists. These centers have four major functions. The first is to provide a base for curriculum development and in-service education. The second function is to act as an information center for schools and teachers. The third is to provide a range of services and facilities to back up and complement the resources of the school. Finally, the centers can act as a valuable social center and informal meeting place for teachers within the area.[24]

A forerunner of the federally funded teacher centers in the United States was the center developed by the county of Osceola, Florida. When the Florida Teacher Education Center Bill for 1974 was adopted, in-service education in Florida changed dramatically. The bill stated that, "Teachers can best assist with improving education when they

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[23]Wesley P. Eddy, "How Successful Are the British Teachers' Centres?," Educational Leadership 31 (March 1974): 509.

[24]David Burrell, "The Teachers Centre: A Critical Analysis," Educational Leadership 33 (March 1976):423.

directly and personally participate in identifying needed
changes and in developing, designing, implementing, and
evaluating solutions to meet the identified needs."[25] The
bill also mandated that the teacher-training be a coordi-
nated effort among the local school system, the teachers,
the community, and the local teacher education facility.
Osceola was among the first communities in Florida to begin
a center under the new bill. They formed a council and
began a center which allowed teachers to help plan in-
service programs which would meet their needs. An instructor
from Florida Technological University was assigned as a
resource person and as a link to the university. As the
center has evolved, teachers have become more and more a
part of the decision-making process for determining their
own training. The center offers materials-making oppor-
tunities, courses, and mini-workshops. Since teachers
are actively involved with the planning, the center's pro-
ponents feel that it will continue to be very successful.[26]

The New York Times, in an article concerning teacher
centers, stated that:

> The goal of revitalizing teachers would seem
> to be about as non-controversial as blackboards and

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[25]Lloyd Olson, Sue Ward, and Zim T. Schubert, "The
Osceola Teacher Education Center," Today's Education 66
(March-April 1977):75.

[26]Ibid., pp. 75-81.

recess. In fact, the new centers are correctly perceived as having the potential to reshape the entire teacher education industry, which, until recently, has been almost entirely in the hands of university schools of education. The very title-- teacher centers--suggests that teachers themselves have the biggest say in how they are run, and fierce power struggles are underway among school boards, unions and university schools of education for control of this movement.[27]

The growing militance of teachers is cited by the *Times* as one reason for the wide interest in teacher centers. The article quotes Vincent Rogers, a professor of education at the University of Connecticut, as saying, "Teachers are less willing than they used to be to be pushed around. They want to control their own destiny, and this includes their own professional development."[28]

Some centers are run independently by teachers; others are affiliated with universities; and others are run by local school districts. The federal model permits a combination of these elements, but requires that 51 percent of the members of the policy-making board be practicing teachers.

The major criticism of the independent teacher centers comes from unions and school boards who say that in the absence of released time, they attract only teachers who are already highly motivated and do nothing to help those who are less interested. The concern is that these centers are

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[27] Edward B. Fiske, "Centers Where Teachers Charge Their Batteries," *New York Times*, 18 December 1977, Sec. E, p. 9.

[28] Ibid.

run by a small group of people with similar philosophies and the broad group of teachers is not affected. Those involved in these centers are concerned that too close an association with a school system can destroy originality. The traditional schools of education, which stand to lose not only their students, but their monopoly on credentialing, also criticize these centers. Their concern is that the centers are parochial and do not move teacher interests away from the neighborhood school and into the arena of larger issues. "School boards, as a rule, have favored teacher centers, so long as the teachers' policy-making powers are balanced by the boards' own power of sponsorship. 'With the number of tenured teachers getting greater and greater, you have more and more people who haven't cracked a book since 1905,' said August W. Steinhilber, chief lobbyist for the National School Boards Association. 'The teacher center seems to be a mechanism by which the unions will agree to retrain their members.'"[29]

Another method for helping teachers improve their abilities is the university teaching center. Syracuse University has developed a plan which combines pre-service, in-service, and the teacher center concept. This approach functions very similarly to other types of teacher centers, but the major difference lies in the governance board.

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[29]Ibid.

This board hires a coordinator that is required to have a comprehensive appreciation of university goals as well as community and school district concerns. The cooperating teachers of the center assume supervisory responsibilities by working with pre-service students. Also, the cooperating teachers offer suggestions and ideas to the university facility concerning the types of training pre-service students should have. Another feature is that pre-service or in-service teachers can request field-generated in-service courses, and a workshop will be offered on the subject by the university. This program is now in the process of assessing whether the programs offered by the center are affecting children's learning. "If in-service programs are doing their job, then teachers should be acquiring new and additional skills. They should display these skills in their classrooms. These changes in a teacher's behavior should lead to changes in pupil behavior and perhaps in pupil performance."[30]

On-Site Visits to Teacher Centers

A series of visits was made by the author to five selected teacher centers and teacher center programs both

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[30] Robert L. Evans and Alvah Kilgore, "The Syracuse University Teaching Center: A Model for Pre-service/In-service Development," Phi Delta Kappan 59 (April 1978):541.

in the United States and in England. The purpose of these visits was to observe first-hand the operation of teacher centers as a method of delivering successful in-service programs for teachers. Four teacher centers were visited in England and the State of Connecticut Teachers Center programs was visited. A brief description of the major purposes of each teacher center follows.

London Borough of Waltham Forest.

Roger Hardwick, the warden (or head) of this teacher center allowed the author to spend half a day observing classes as they were being conducted and speaking to teachers as they were working. The warden explained the operation and various functions of the Waltham Forest Teachers' Centre. This teacher center serves 108 schools and 2,300 teachers. The programs are designed to meet teachers' direct needs, as expressed by them to the warden or to the committee that operates the teacher center. Most of the courses are short (no more than four sessions), offer no credit, are held after school, and are designed to meet a specific need. For example, one course is entitled "The Structure of Play in the Infant School." The warden explained that most courses were held after school (4:30-6:00 p.m.) because they had difficulty getting teachers released from school during the day. Mr. Hardwick also mentioned that there is a tendency for the same teachers to

attend the meetings and that a group of teachers exists who are not reached at all by the teacher center program.

The center also offers facilities for reproducing materials, laminating, photocopying and the use of a dark-room. A library, complete with catalogs, magazines, professional books, and a television are also available.

Barking Teachers' Centre, Greater London.

The second teacher center offered a marked contrast to Waltham Forest. This is the Barking Teachers' Centre, with Catherine Catlin, Warden. This center has a large, well-stocked bar and a number of courses on lacemaking, guitar, basketry, and the like. This center offers some afternoon courses designed to improve teachers' skills, but the main emphasis is on the social aspects of a teachers' center. The social emphasis is used to encourage teacher participation in the centre and it is the hope of the warden that increased interest in educational concerns will be the long-term result of this participation.

Southend Teachers' Centre.

The third center is at Southend-On-Sea, with Bernard Crix, Warden. This teachers' center serves 70 schools, and Mr. Crix estimated that 75% of the eligible teachers attend the center at one time or another. Mr. Crix determines the center's program through a questionnaire to the schools in the district. He believes that "theory must

illuminate practice," and to achieve this a number of courses that teach not only practical concepts, but the theoretical bases underlying them are offered. This center publishes a monthly newsletter which includes notices of upcoming meetings, articles of general interest for teachers, course offerings, and lists of equipment for loan. The center is one of the few that is housed in a building expressly built to be a teacher center.

Exmouth Teachers' Centre.

The fourth center is the Exmouth Teachers' Centre, with Phillip Brookman, Warden. This center serves 30 schools, and the warden has determined that 62% of the eligible teachers attend the center. Mr. Brookman sees the center as a facilitator for teachers. The heads of local schools are invited to serve on committees to help plan programs. In this manner, schools frequently allow whole groups of teachers to attend a workshop held during the day with substitutes arranged for by the head. Teachers who have not participated in the after-school courses are then released during the school day to attend workshops. Frequently, these workshops were expressly designed by the heads to help specific teachers achieve needed skills. This allowed the head the opportunity to make sure that those who need to improve their skills are given the opportunity to do so.

The problems cited by all the wardens as being the most difficult to overcome were: lack of released time for teachers; budgetary restrictions; lack of interest on the part of some teachers and heads; and in some cases, lack of adequate facilities. Each teacher center differed widely from the others, reflecting the philosophy of the wardens and the desires of the teachers in the local district. In some cases, the teacher center concept was an exceptionally effective method of providing in-service to some teachers. The centers did not reach all teachers and very possibly did not reach those teachers who might need in-service most urgently.

Connecticut Teachers' Centers for Humanistic Education.

In the United States, this author visited programs developed by Connecticut Teachers' Centers for Humanistic Education, with Dr. Frank Bellizzi, Director. These are funded under a grant from the United States Office for Education, National Teacher Center Program. This teacher center program is not a place for teachers to come and work together, but rather a series of workshops held for teachers and administrators on methods of providing humanistic environments for teachers and students. The program also provides training, consultation, research, and dissemination services. The center plans to offer training and programs which are easily accessible to teachers by providing exper-

iences which will reach a great number of teachers and meet their uniquely identified needs.

The program is in its first year of operation. The author attended a program that was held from 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. on a Saturday, and there were over 200 very enthusiastic teachers and administrators in attendance. Clearly, the role of teachers' centers in improving in-service to teachers varies widely. Teacher centers must be considered as one method of providing successful in-service; however, the problems inherent in in-service education (time, budget, proper staffing, etc.) also occur in teaching centers.

Considerations for Successful In-service Programs

In developing successful in-service programs for teachers, consideration must be taken of what teachers perceive as important in their in-service meetings. Helmar Wagner, associate professor of curriculum and instruction at the University of Texas, offers ten suggestions on what teachers like at in-service meetings.

A condensation of these ten suggestions states that teachers like the following:

1. Meetings at which they can be actively involved
2. Demonstrations by other teachers
3. Practical information
4. Meetings that are short and to the point

5.   In-depth treatment of one concept

6.   Well-organized meetings

7.   Variety in programs

8.   Incentive for attending (released time, salary
     increments, credits)

9.   Occasional inspirational speakers

10. Visits to other schools to observe other
     teachers.[31]

Phi Delta Kappan conducted a survey of existing staff-
development programs to determine which programs were
effective and to recommend ways of making in-service more
valuable. They found that seven distinct processes appeared
to be common to all the most successful programs.

First, systems with successful programs make a real
effort to identify all local needs, wants, or problems as
perceived by the staff. The second process involves listing
and categorizing. An attempt is made to meet two or more
needs through a single in-service effort. Third, feasibil-
ity of the projects is considered, and priority is assigned
to the proposed topics. At this time, thought is given to
meeting needs that might be applicable to only a few persons.
This can be done through forms of independent study or small-

[31]National Schools Public Relations Association,
In-service Education: Current Trends in School Policies
and Programs (Arlington, Virginia, 1975), p. 13.

group meetings. The fourth concern is the need for commit-
ments to be made on behalf of the district and teachers to
commit adequate resources to the in-service program. Fifth,
commitment leads to planning and programming. "To assure
effectiveness and efficiency, planners are compelled to
consider 1) realistic objectives, 2) types of in-servicing
most likely to attain these objectives, 3) appropriate
sponsorship, 4) combinations of activities to be employed,
5) characteristics of the target population, 6) incentives
for participants, 7) appropriate media, 8) critical time
factors, 9) adequacy of location and facilities, and 10)
proper evaluation."[32] Actual implementation of the plan
is the sixth process, and the seventh and last process is
evaluation. The plans for evaluation need to be begun when
the original objectives are considered. A decision needs to
be made at that time concerning the uses of the evaluation
results. At this point the cycle is complete, back to the
points where local wants and needs are clarified and sug-
gestions become apparent for continued in-service.[33]

Characteristics of Successful In-service Programs

The information provided in this chapter does not lend
itself to a tight theoretical framework for identifying

[32]James C. King, Paul C. Hayes, and Isadore Newman, "Some Requirements for Successful Inservice Education," Phi Delta Kappan 58 (May 1977):687.

[33]Ibid., pp. 686-687.

characteristics of successful in-service education. Rather, the review provides an approach that accumulates trends or patterns among in-service programs that seem to be helpful to teachers. These patterns will now be identified and they will be used as a guide for implementation of the in-service activities associated with the present research study. Sixteen statements, or characteristics, seem to emerge from the review of literature. These characteristics apply across all types of in-service: school-university partnerships; state in-service programs; local in-service development; and teacher centers. They are:

1. Administrative staff and the board of education place a high priority on in-service education by alloting resources for in-service.

2. The organizational plan for a district is flexible enough to allow in-service to develop on-site.

3. Coordination of planning occurs so that in-service is linked to a general school effort based on identified goals.

4. Released time for in-service work is made available during the school day.

5. Programs are offered that have some type of rewards for teachers (credits, salary increases, released time).

6. An adequate budget is present so that in-service programs can be fully developed and appropriate consultants hired when needed.

7. A link is established between universities and schools. This can be a school-university partnership, or the use of selected consultants from the university to provide expertise in selected areas.

8. Programs based on the perceived needs of teachers are available.

9. Programs are developed in which teachers can choose goals and activities for themselves, rather than those which are pre-planned.

10. School-based programs are developed in which teachers participate as helpers and planners.

11. Voluntary participation by teachers is a component of the in-service program.

12. Programs that provide individualized experiences for teachers, rather than common activities for all participants are available.

13. Programs are developed which place teachers in active roles developing materials, etc., rather than programs in which teachers are passive participants.

14. Programs are available that have demonstrations, supervised trials, and feedback, rather than

programs in which teachers store up ideas and
behaviors for the future.

15. Programs are developed that provide mutual
assistance and self-instruction for teachers.

16. Programs in which evaluation is included in the
original design, so that the programs can be
re-structured and clarified for continued in-
service.

This review of literature produced characteristics
which seemed to apply to most of the successful programs.
These sixteen characteristics appeared directly or were
implied in the programs. For an in-service program to be
successful, it is suggested that a majority of the char-
acteristics need to be present in the design in order to
increase the possibility of the programs having an impact
on participating teachers and eventually on the quality
of the schools. The in-service program which combines these
characteristics and the objectives which were considered
to be necessary for teachers to achieve basic skills in
curriculum development is presented in the following chapter.

C H A P T E R   I V

THE IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the in-service program for preparing teachers to achieve competency in curriculum development. First, the selection of objectives for the in-service program is determined. Second, the characteristics that were used to design and implement the program are listed. Third, a description of the curriculum of the in-service program is explained; including themes, objectives, learning opportunities and evaluation. Finally, the questionnaires for determining the usefulness of the program as perceived by participating teachers and the curriculum materials used in the implementation of the program are explained.

Selecting Curriculum Objectives for the In-Service Program

The identified curriculum objectives include many competencies for curriculum development that, while important for scholars and persons who are subject matter specialists, are not necessarily the most important for teachers. It was necessary, then, to review the pool of objectives that were developed in Chapter 2 for the purpose of selecting those which would directly aid teachers in their roles as curriculum developers and evaluators. The

criteria used for selection were those objectives which
identified skills that teachers would need to attain to
have minimum competencies in curriculum development. The
remaining objectives would be of more value to those
whose emphasis is on the wider scope of the curriculum
development process. This is not to say that teachers
should not be given the opportunity to work with all the
objectives; but those objectives that are critical for the
basics of curriculum development for teachers have been
distinguished from the wider range of curriculum objec-
tives.

To aid in the selection of the objectives for
teachers, the four premises and the objectives that were
generated from the premises were sent to six educators.
All of these educators work with curriculum in a super-
visory capacity in the public schools or universities.
One of these educators was an Assistant Superintendent for
Curriculum and Instruction. Three were elementary
principals and two were supervisors of special projects
for their districts. They were asked to select the objec-
tives they believed were most important for teachers in
attaining competency in curriculum development. These pre-
mises and objectives are found in Appendix B. These edu-
cators selected approximately the same objectives that
were selected by the author. A composite of the most

frequently selected objectives produces nineteen objectives which will be used in the program.

This program, then, will use the following selected objectives which will define the minimum competencies that teachers will need to attain to understand selected fundamentals of curriculum. These objectives will form the body of the in-service program for teachers.

Below, each premise is shown with its complementing objective so that it is possible to see the relationship between objectives and premises.

Premises and Selected Objectives

First Premise

A definition of curriculum is needed so that the parameters of curriculum development are established to have clarity for those who would work with and use them. Each theorist's definition may vary from the others, but all have attempted either by implication or statement to define curriculum for their purposes.

Objectives

1. To recognize the varying definitions of curriculum as used by selected scholars.

2. To define the term curriculum for oneself.

Second Premise

The selected curriculum theorists have designed models for curriculum that best demonstrate their viewpoint

for curriculum. All the models share common features, and adaptations of these models are currently in use in most curricula.[1]

Objectives

1. To identify the significant features of a given curriculum.

2. To recognize various models of curriculum.

Third Premise

A Common concern among curriculum theorists is the formulation of a base upon which curricular decisions are made. This base provides the information for curriculum planning and leads to the establishment of objectives.

Objectives

1. To diagnose learner needs.

2. To select appropriate subject matter content.

3. To formulate instructional objectives for pupils.

4. To select appropriate learning experiences for pupils.

5. To design learning activiites for pupils.

6. To organize learning activities for pupils.

7. To evaluate pupil performance

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[1]The program to educate teachers to understand selected fundamentals of curriculum uses this premise last. The premises were developed deductively, but during the workshops the teachers are introduced to the premises contained in one, three and four and from the facts presented used inductive reasoning to generalize the concepts for the models.

Fourth Premise

The body of curriculum contains elements that are recognized as being critical for effective curriculum development. These elements are frequently given differing emphasis by different curriculum workers, but the understanding that these elements need to be present and effectively organized is shared by the selected theorists.

Objectives

1. To describe the uses of data sources in curriculum development. Such data sources would include society, learner, and subject matter.

2. To identify the aims for education held at the societal level.

3. To describe the values a community holds for education.

4. To identify the effect on curriculum of the instructional and material resources of school and community.

5. To recognize the use of educational philosophy as it applies to the selection of educational objectives.

6. To identify the uses of learning theories in curriculum development as it applies to the selection of educational objectives.

7. To recognize the impact of the hidden curriculum on curricular decision-making and actions.

8. To distinguish the effects of class and school organization (including promoting, grouping, and classifying procedures) as they affect curriculum decisions.

These selected objectives will be used as part of the program for teachers. The method of selecting the in-service characteristics that apply to this study follow.

In-Service Characteristics

The review of literature which was presented in Chapter 3 concerning characteristics of successful in-service programs produced sixteen program characteristics which seemed to apply to most of the successful programs.

It was necessary to select characteristics that would be applicable to the present study. Therefore, the major criteria that were used to select the characteristics for this study were those that could be influenced by an outside consultant. These would include those program characteristics that could be used during a workshop session by the leader. The program characteristics that involve decisions which are made, not by individual teachers or consultants but by a school district or individual school, such as those found in the first six statements, are not applicable to the present study. It would ensure a greater degree of success for any workshop if these six program characteristics were present; however, decisions inherent

in these program characteristics are generally not made by an outside consultant but at the administrative level in a school district.

Therefore, this study will use as its format the ten program characteristics over which an outside consultant has some control.

The following program characteristics which have been identified as important for successful in-service programs will be used in developing the format for the program to educate teachers to understand better the fundamentals for curriculum development:

1. A link is established between universities and schools. This can be a school-university partnership or the use of selected consultants from the university to provide expertise in selected areas.

2. Programs based on the perceived needs of teachers are available.

3. Programs are developed in which teachers can choose goals and activities for themselves, rather than those which are pre-planned.

4. School-based programs are developed in which teachers participate as helpers and planners.

5. Voluntary participation by teachers is a component of the in-service program.

6. Programs that provide individualized experiences

for teachers, rather than common activities for all par-
ticipants are available.

7. Programs are developed which place teachers in
active roles, developing materials, etc., rather than
programs in which teachers are passive participants.

8. Programs are available that have demonstrations,
supervised trials, and feedback; rather than programs in
which teachers store up ideas and behaviors for the future.

9. Programs are developed that provide mutual
assistance and self-instruction for teachers.

10. Programs in which evaluation is included in
the original design, so that the programs can be re-
structured and clarified for continued in-service.

The format of the program, then, will consist of
a combination of carefully selected objectives for under-
standing curriculum and the selected program character-
istics for in-service education. This produces a program
that is designed to offer the educator a method for de-
veloping competency in curriculum development.

Program to Educate Teachers to Understand Selected Fundamentals of Curriculum

This section consists of a description of the pro-
gram and the curriculum for the four workshop sessions.

Description of the Program

The program is designed as a complete curriculum for teachers and is divided into four workshop sessions. Each session will have as the major theme one of the four premises that were identified as being central to the attainment of competency in curriculum development by teachers. Each session will use the objectives developed as a result of the identification of the premises as the objectives for that particular session. Therefore, each workshop session will be organized around a central premise and contain those objectives which pertain to that premise. The format of each workshop will contain some of the previously identified characteristics of successful in-service education. This will include: opportunities for teachers to take active roles; to provide mutual assistance to one another; to see demonstrations; and to be able to make supervised trials and receive feedback about their work. Teachers will participate on a voluntary basis and the workshops will be held in schools and work with existing curriculum.

A pre-assessment questionnaire will be given to the teachers at least a week before the commencement of the first workshop session. This questionnaire is found in Appendix C. The purpose of the pre-assessment is to determine what competencies teachers already possess in

curriculum development skills. It will also elicit information about teacher experience in curriculum development and success or failures with curriculum projects. The results of this pre-assessment will be used to individualize the program for teachers so that teachers who have demonstrated competencies in certain skills will not be expected to complete that section of the program, but instead will provide assistance to other teachers in the program.

Each workshop session will follow approximately the same format. In Step One the leader will present material about the identified objectives. Each presentation will include discussion by the teachers, with one another, and with the leader. Many presentations will include hand-outs for the teachers. The hand-outs will include definitions, models, and curriculum concepts that reflect the work of selected curriculum theorists. The hand-outs will be used for discussion and will pertain to the identified objectives under discussion.

Step Two is designed to place the teacher in an active role. The teachers, at the leader's direction, may, during Step Two, develop material pertaining to the identified objectives or present selected material to one another. Those teachers who demonstrated competency with the objectives, as determined by the pre-test, will be encouraged to work with teachers who have not yet mastered

the objectives under discussion. The teachers will provide mutual assistance to one another during this step.

The evaluation is designed to be a culminating activity that allows teachers to use the concepts that have been developed in a practical way. The teachers will be encouraged to link the theory to the practice by selecting, or in some cases developing, curriculum definitions, appropriate steps for determining the bases for curriculum development, chief elements of curriculum, and models for curriculum.

At the conclusion of the workshops the leader will administer a post-assessment. This post-assessment document is found in Appendix D. The results of the post-assessment will be used to improve the workshops for further use. They will not be used to evaluate learning, except in the sense of restructuring workshops by the leader if the objectives in a given workshop were not achieved. In other words, the material learned or not learned by the teacher will be evaluated by the leader and used to improve the workshops for further use.

The program developed using the selected curriculum objectives and the characteristics of successful in-service education as its format is presented on the following pages.

First Workshop Session

Theme

To help teachers become aware of the many defini-
tions of curriculum.

Objectives

1. To recognize the varying definitions of curricu-
lum as used by selected scholars.

2. To define the term curriculum for oneself.

Learning Oppprtunities

Step One - Leader Directed.

1. Present a short slide presentation of children
during the school day. The children will be depicted as
studying, playing, cooking, reading, etc.

2. Discuss the slide presentation. Inquire of
teachers:

Which activities were curriculum? Why?

Which activities were not curriculum? Why?

3. Present hand-out of curriculum definitions
proposed by such scholars as Hilda Taba, John Goodlad, and
James Macdonald.[*]

4. Discuss these definitions and relate the defi-
nitions presented by curriculum scholars to the activities
that were presented in the slide show.

[*]Denotes hand-outs for teachers.

Step Two - Teacher Participation.

1. Ask the teachers to select from the definitions on the hand-out the definition closest to the teacher's own philosophical beliefs about curriculum.

2. The teachers will be encouraged to discuss among themselves their concepts of the definition of curriculum.

3. The teachers will be encouraged to combine various scholars' definitions, if necessary, to approximate a definition.

4. The teachers will discuss the definition of curriculum as it is used in their school system.

5. Teachers will discuss any discrepancies between their definition of curriculum and the definition of curriculum currently in use in their system.

6. If discrepancies are found, then methods of resolution should be discussed.

Evaluation

The teachers will define curriculum for themselves and define curriculum as it is currently expressed in their school or school system by writing the definition on their worksheet.

Second Workshop Session

Theme

To provide teachers with the base upon which curricular decisions are made. The base provides the information

for curriculum planning and leads to the establishment
of objectives.

Objectives

1. To describe the uses of data sources in curriculum development. Such data sources would include society, learner, and subject matter.

2. To identify the aims for education held at the societal level.

3. To describe the values a community holds for education.

4. To identify the effect on curriculum of the instructional and material resources of school and community.

5. To recognize the use of educational philosophy as it applies to the selection of educational objectives.

6. To identify the uses of learning theories in curriculum development as it applies to the selection of educational objectives.

7. To recognize the impact of the hidden curriculum on curricular decision making and actions.

8. To distinguish the effects of class and school organization (including promoting, grouping, and classifying procedures) as they affect curriculum decisions.

Learning Opportunities

Step One - Leader Directed.

1. The leader will ask the group where they believe curriculum objectives come from. From the discussion the leader will lead the group into the concept of data sources.

2. The uses of data sources for curriculum development will be discussed and a hand-out detailing the uses of study of the learner, contemporary life or society and subject matter specialists as a source for curriculum objectives will be examined.[*]

3. A hand-out describing the levels of decision making (societal, institutional and instructional) will be given to the teachers. Teachers will be encouraged to identify where their participation usually occurs.[*]

4. A discussion of community values for education will be held, and a hand-out concerning values as a data source will be given to the teachers.[*]

5. The importance of educational philosophy and the use of learning theories as a screen for objectives will be discussed through the use of a hand-out.[*]

6. Hidden curriculum as it affects curricular decisions and actions will be discussed through the use of a hand-out.[*]

[*]Denotes hand-outs for teachers.

7. A discusssion of the availability of school
and community resources and the effects of class and school
organization as it affects curriculum will be held.

Step Two - Teacher Participation.

1. Working in small groups, the teachers will take
theoretical or real curriculum concepts (i.e., sex educa-
tion, drug education, or any concept in consideration for
their district) and identify steps that should take place
before the concept is considered for the curriculum.

2. The teachers will identify, in writing on their
worksheet, the data sources for this concept. They will
determine if the concept fits the school's educational
philosophy and current learning theories. They will be
encouraged to identify areas where the hidden curriculum
might operate. A discussion of how the concept's adoption
might affect school organization and the feasibility of the
concept's success given the school and community resources.

Evaluation

The teachers will take a concept that is currently
in use in their own curriculum and individually repeat
the steps that were taken in Step Two. Any teachers who
successfully mastered the premises of bases for curriculum
development, as measured by the pre-test, would be asked
by the leader to work with individual teachers to further
clarify the teachers' understanding of sources for

curriculum concepts. This will allow teachers the opportunity to judge more accurately the origins of the curriculum that they are using.

Third Workshop Session

Theme

To help teachers understand the chief elements found in curriculum.

Objectives

1. To diagnose learner needs.

2. To select appropriate subject matter content.

3. To formulate instructional objectives for pupils.

4. To select appropriate learning experiences for pupils.

5. To design learning activities for pupils.

6. To organize learning activities for pupils.

7. To evaluate pupil performance.

Learning Opportunities - Objectives 1 and 2

Step One - Leader Directed.

1. The uses of data sources discussed in Workshop #2 will form the basis for a discussion of diagnosing learner needs.

2. Data sources as a method for selecting appropriate subject matter content will be reviewed, and examples will be used, i.e., "The learner will write an original story of three paragraphs in proper sequence."

a. What data sources were probably used for
determining this objective?

b. Does the objective match general
community and societal goals?

Learning Opportunities - Objective 3

1. The content of objectives will be discussed.
A list containing words that are useful in writing objec-
tives and the levels of objectives will be given to the
teachers. A bibliography of resources for objective
writing will be included.*

2. Teachers will be given a list of 6 objectives
and asked to select the 3 that are clearly defined objec-
tives. They will be asked to state the reasons for the
selection.*

Learning Opportunities - Objectives 4, 5, and 6

1. The necessity of selecting appropriate learning
experiences which meet the criteria of the objectives will
be presented.

2. Designing and organizing learning experiences
need to be checked against learning theories (i.e., Piaget,
theory of stages of development; Bruner, sequential
learning).

Learning Opportunities - Objective 7

1. Criterion-referenced testing will be discussed
vs. norm-referenced testing as a measure for evaluation.

*Denotes hand-outs for teachers.

2. A hand-out will be given the teachers defining the difference between criterion- and norm-referenced testing.*

3. The importance of evaluating the content stated in the objectives will be presented.

Step Two - Teacher Participation.

1. The teachers will be asked to write an objective based on some facet of their curriculum. They will be encouraged to keep the objective generalizable and not to focus on the finite aspects of their curriculum.

2. Several previously selected teachers will be asked to present curriculum currently in use (these may be locally developed or purchased materials) to the rest of the teachers. Teachers will be asked to identify the chief elements of this curriculum.

Evaluation

Teachers will be able to discern strong and weak points in the presented curriculum. They will be able to make suggestions for improvement.

Fourth Workshop Session

Theme

To identify various models now in use for curriculum development.

*Denotes hand-outs for teachers.

Objectives

1. To identify the significant features of a given curriculum.

2. To recognize various models of curriculum.

Learning Opportunities - Step One

1. A hand-out of selected models for curriculum will be given to teachers. These will include some of the models developed by classical curriculum scholars, such as, Ralph Tyler, John Goodlad, Virgil Herrick, and Hilda Taba. It will also include some of the models developed by the more radical curriculum theorists, such as, Decker Walker, Joseph Schwab, and Paulo Freire. The data sources and the chief elements of curriculum will be determined in each model.*

2. The models' similarities and differences will be discussed.

Step Two - Teacher Participation

1. The teachers will be asked to select the model that most closely approximates the model currently in use in their system.

Evaluation

1. The teachers will be asked to select a model that they feel would be appropriate for the needs of their

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*Denotes hand-outs for teachers.

students. Teachers will be encouraged to state the reasons for their particular selection of a model. Methods of adapting the curriculum that the teachers are presently using to the model that they have selected (provided that there is a discrepancy) will be discussed.

It is possible that, given the elements for effective curriculum design, teachers will choose an eclectic approach. Teachers, because of their proximity to the teaching-learning situation, should be the most appropriate personnel to assess the effectiveness of curriculum designs in their classroom for their learners.

Participants will develop an objective that would be appropriate for their students. They will, in writing, move the objectives through all the steps of the model they selected.

Questionnaire and Material Development

This section contains a description of the development of the pre- and post-assessment questionnaire. Also included are the methods used to formulate the interview questionnaire. The development of hand-outs that were given to teachers during the course of the workshop sessions is described. The final part describes the worksheets used by the teachers during the program.

Pre- and Post-Assessment Questionnaire Development

To measure adequately the effectiveness of the workshops and to improve subsequent workshops, pre- and post-tests were developed. This was done using a criterion-referenced format.

The needs assessment questionnaire and the post-assessment questionnaire were developed using the objectives which had been generated for the workshops as a base for the questions. Each objective was used as a source for a question. A five-point scale was developed to measure the responses of the participants. The purpose of the needs assessment questionnaire was to measure the workshop participants' familiarity with the objectives that were presented in the workshops. Each question, then, allowed the respondents the opportunity to select from one of these five choices: 1. Not familiar; 2. Somewhat familiar; 3. Familiar; 4. Very familiar; 5. Extremely familiar.

These choices were selected using the numerical rating scale technique. Rating scales use descriptive terms pertaining to the response options. These scales are very similar to the Likert scales on which a statement is followed by a five-response continuum. Likert scales are widely used for attitude measurement.[1] Rating scales

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[1] Julian C. Stanley and Kenneth D. Hopkins, Educational and Psychological Measurement and Evaluation (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1972), p. 290.

should contain both positive and negative statements and the steps on the rating continuum should represent changes in a single dimension only.[2] The construction of the questionnaire was verified against a checklist on questionnaire construction contained in Kornhauser and Sheatsley's "Questionnaire Construction and Interview Procedure."[3]

The post-assessment questionnaire followed exactly the same format as the needs assessment questionnaire, so that the degree of movement on the rating scale could be accurately measured. The purpose of the post-assessment questionnaire was to determine to what degree the objectives for the workshop were met.

The initial formulation of the questionnaire was tested with fifteen classroom teachers. They were asked to indicate any ambiguous statements, unclear wording, unclear directions, and any other factors that were a problem to them. A copy of this questionnaire is found in Appendix E. The responses of the teachers were analyzed and appropriate changes were made in the final form of the

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[2]Clinton I. Chase, Measurement for Educational Evaluation, second ed. (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1978), pp. 162-166.

[3]Arthur Kornhauser and Paul Sheatsley, "Questionnaire Construction and Interview Procedure," in C. Selltrz et al., eds., Research Methods in Social Relations, third ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1976), pp. 542-562.

questionnaire.

Interview Questionnaire Development

An interview form was developed to question randomly
selected participants at the close of the workshops. This
interview form is found in Appendix F. Ten percent of the
participants in each workshop were to be interviwed. The
format of the interview was based on the workshop objec-
tives, with the respondents' being asked to reply in
detail to the questions. The respondents were also asked
to enumerate ways in which the workshops could be improved.
Twenty-two questions based on the objectives were included
on the questionnaire. The last two questions ascertained
the respondents' perception of knowledge gained as a result
of the workshops and methods of improving the workshops.

The purpose of the interviews was to gather more
detailed information on the knowledge that the participants
perceived they had gained as a result of the workshops.
Information that was elicited detailing improvements for
the workshops was important for further refinements of
the program for teachers.

Hand-out Development

A series of hand-outs consisting of brief defini-
tions of key terms were developed for the workshop partici-
pants using the curriculum objectives as the basis for

the written materials. These hand-outs are found in
Appendix G. When the author felt that written definitions
or explanations would illuminate a premise, a hand-out
was written for the premise. The author used as a basis
for these, materials developed by well-known curriculum
authorities. These were synthesized into short statements
about the premise and were included in a booklet designed
to be presented to the teachers at the commencement of the
workshops.

Worksheet Development

To aid teachers in using the premise under discussion
in the workshops, a worksheet was developed. This work-
sheet is found in Appendix H. This worksheet allowed
teachers the opportunity to use in a concrete manner the
ideas that had been discussed in the abstract during the
presentation. The worksheet contained questions or problems
relating to each section of the workshops. These were
designed to be used by individuals or with small groups of
teachers as an aid in understanding more clearly the work-
shop components.

This chapter presented the program to educate
teachers to understand selected fundamentals of curriculum.
The program combined the objectives that defined competen-
cies in curriculum development for teachers and the
program characteristics of effective in-service programs

into an in-servie program which will be field tested
with selected teachers. The following chapter will report
on the results of the field testing and make recommenda-
tions for modifications for future programs.

C H A P T E R   V

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROGRAM AND FIELD
TESTING RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the implementation of the in-service program and to report the results of the field testing conducted with teachers in four selected schools. First, the approach used for the selection of the program sites is described. Second, the results of the field testing are described. Included in this description is the collection and analysis of data. Third, the nature cf how the in-service sessions were conducted and resulting teacher reactions to the curriculum are presented. Fourth, suggestions for modifications of the in-service program in curriculum developments are made.

Selection of the Program Sites

The program was designed to be implemented in schools, at the local or district school level.[1] It was necessary

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[1]John Goodlad and some of his colleagues have determined that "the most neglected level of curriculum decision making is the institutional or individual school level where the total setting for learning by students is created." In "Tyler and Goodlad Speak on American Education," Educational Leadership, p. 567, Goodlad states that, in his opinion, the individual school must be the focus for curriculum work in the years ahead.

to procure appropriate sites for the field testing proced-
ure. To obtain sites for the field testing of the in-ser-
vice program, several approaches were used. It was impor-
tant that the sites volunteer to take part in the workshop,
since research concerning in-service demonstrates that ef-
fective in-service occurs most frequently when the teachers
perceive the in-service as answering a need that they have
expressed.[2] Therefore, an attempt was made to communicate
with various school systems in Massachusetts to inquire as
to possible interest in becoming part of the field test by
participating in the workshop. This was done by presenting
an overview of the workshop and subsequent benefits for
teachers to a group of principals who were members of Study
Groups 2 and 5 of the Massachusetts Elementary Principals'
Association. The program was described to these principals,
and an outline of the material to be covered in the worksho!
was orally presented to this group.[3]

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[2]Chapter 3 discusses this characteristic of in-
service in detail.

[3]An interesting phenomenon occurred during the pre-
sentation to the principals' group. Almost everyone in the
group of 25 administrators said, "We think we need this work-
shop more than our teachers do." They began to ask if it
were possible to present the workshops to them, as they were
constantly being asked to chair curriculum groups and felt
they had a very weak background in curriculum. An agree-
ment was reached with them that the full series of workshops
would be presented to them after the field tests were com-
pleted. This group was very enthusiastic about the workshop
concept, and many volunteered to discuss the possibilities
with their staff.

A letter was developed that was sent to those and
other administrators and supervisors who were personally
known by the author. A copy of the letter is found in
Appendix I. Upon receipt of a positive response by an
administrator or supervisor, a follow-up description of
the program was sent for presentation to the teachers. This
letter is found in Appendix J. The administrators then had
the opportunity to discuss more fully with their teachers
the merits of participation in the workshop. The teachers
were, then, part of the decision making process regarding
selection of the workshop. This method helped insure vol-
untary participation, as opposed to the authoritarian
approach, which would have indicated that all teachers had
to attend a workshop selected by administrators because
it "was good for them."

Those school systems that requested that the workshop
be held in their schools were then contacted by the author,
and dates and times for the workshop were arranged. In
this manner four school systems elected to have the workshop
presented for volunteer members from their systems. Although
the workshop was designed to be conducted in four parts, no
school system felt that they would be able to make four days
available for their teachers. Various compromises were
arranged between the author and the school systems so that
the program would be able to be presented completely and the

teachers would be able to take full advantage of the work-
shop.

In two systems, teachers were given a released half
day for the workshop. One of these systems had the time
already allocated for curriculum work and allowed the teach-
ers to select from four different programs, the workshop
that was of most interest to them. Seventeen teachers and
two administrators selected the curriculum workshop. The
other system made a released half day available specifically
for the purpose of attending the curriculum workshop.
Twenty-four teachers and one administrator attended this
workshop. When the workshop was held on a released half
day, the entire workshop was presented during that time
period.[4]

In the third system, volunteer teachers participated
in two after-school sessions. Nine teachers and one ad-
ministrator registered for the workshop by taking the pre-
assessment questionnaire, but fifteen teachers actually
came to the sessions.

The fourth system's administrators elected to have
the workshop presented to them, rather than to the teachers.
The administrators and the assistant superintendent of
curriculum and instruction expressed their concern about

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[4]Some activities necessarily had to be condensed, and
the material that had been designed for review at the be-
ginning of a new session did not need to be presented.

the deficiencies they felt in curriculum development and
believed that prior to a presentation to teachers, the
workshop should be presented to them. Although the
original plan was to present the program to teachers,
there was nothing in the design to preclude the workshop
from being equally appropriate for administrators.

This group of administrators seemed like a logical
group for the initial workshop. They were extremely
interested in curriculum development, although none of them
had even taken a curriculum course. Since there were only
nine of them, it would be possible for good discussion to
take place. The assistant superintendent allowed the work-
shop leader as much time as necessary during the school
day to present the sessions. This would allow the leader
to get a "feel" for the timing of the workshop with teachers,
when the time element was more critical. The administrators
could also, by their questions, give the leader some idea
of the types of questions that teachers would likely ask.
Therefore, this group of nine administrators became a good
experimental group for the material.

The results of the field testing and the analysis of
the data collected during the testing is included in the
following section.

Results of the Field Testing

This program was field-tested in four elementary schools. A total of fifty-three teachers and administrators were given the pre-assessment questionnaires, presented the workshop, and then were given the post-assessment.

The analysis of the data was divided into four parts. The first part concentrated on the tabulation of the pre- and post-assessment questions. The second part is an analysis of the data generated from the pre- and post-asessments which used the workshop objectives. The third part is an analysis of the collapsed pre- and post-assessment means grouped by premise, and the fourth part analyzed the ranked pre- and post-assessment means.

The purpose of the field test was to perfect the program for in-service education to aid teachers in understanding selected fundamentals of curriculum development. The workshop model was reevaluated after each session, and changes were made in the program.

At least a week prior to the first session in a school, the pre-assessment questionnaires were sent to the person locally coordinating the workshop (usually a principal). The instructions to the teachers, which were contained in the cover letter, were to return the completed questionnaires to the local coordinator within three days. The local coordinator was asked to return them to the workshop leader

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immediately, so that the results could be tabulated and appropriate changes made in the workshop material prior to the beginning of the workshop.

Upon receipt of the completed questionnaires, the workshop leader tabulated the answers to each question. Each individual teacher received an overall score placing him or her on a point between one and five on the rating scale. The overall score was generalized from the average of the answers given by the respondent.[5] A list containing all the members of the workshops was developed. The list contained information concerning previous curriculum development experience and the average score for each respondent. In this manner the overall knowledge of curriculum as perceived by the members could be judged and the workshop adjusted accordingly. This list was also used to divide the participants into groups. The person with the highest score (i.e., four or five) was made leader of a group. The groups were divided equally with an even mix of scores in each group. These groups were assigned tasks during the workshop.

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[5]The scoring was not done "scientifically," but in a more casual manner with the leader scanning the test and assigning a number based on the majority of responses. For instance, if a respondent answer was "two," or "Somewhat familiar," on the majority of answers, the number two was assigned to that respondent. This indicated the general level of knowledge held by the respondent and was sufficient for placement.

The scores were also tabulated by question so that the strengths and weaknesses of the groups were readily apparent. The questions for which the tabulation showed consistently high scores were noted in the director's handbook, and very little time was spent on that objective during the workshop. Conversely, those questions that received a general low over-all score received much more time and discussion than the average. In this way the workshop was individualized for each school or school system.

The participants in a workshop were given two items. The first was a worksheet (for development, see Chapter Four) that allowed the workshop members to make written responses to problems posed by the workshop. The second was a twenty-one-page hand-out (for development, see Chapter Four) that contained definitions and explanations of material presented in the workshop.

Tabulation of Pre- and Post-Assessment Questions

The pre-assessment questionnaires were helpful in determining the competencies that teachers possessed in defined curriculum skills. These pre-assessments were useful in grouping teachers for small group work and for individualizing the program for teachers and for the group as a whole. The pre-assessments also contained information

about the educators' previous experiences with curriculum development. The information thus obtained was useful in determining the level of experience in curriculum development in the group. It also allowed the workshop leader an opportunity to discover whether previous experiences in curriculum development were positive. Questions concerning writing objectives and writing criterion-referenced tests gave information to the workshop leader that was useful in structuring the workshop contents. The information obtained through these questions and presented in Table 2 indicates that fifty-five percent of the respondents had participated in some form of curriculum development, while forty-five percent had never been involved in curriculum development projects. Of those replying that they had been involved in curriculum development, fifty-eight percent replied that they felt knowledgeable enough about curriculum to do a good job. The remainder replied that they did not feel knowledgeable or didn't know if they could write curriculum. Most of these respondents who had been involved in writing curriculum followed a plan, felt that the curriculum was successful, knew that the curriculum they helped develop was still in use, and enjoyed their participation in curriculum development. When asked if they had written objectives for curriculum, sixty-four percent said they had; however, sixty-nine percent had never written criterion-reference tests.

TABLE 2

TABULATION FOR PRE-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS[a]

Question	Yes	No	Don't Know
1. Have you ever participated in curriculum development projects?	29 (55%)	23 (45%)	b
2. If yes, please answer the following (A through E).			
A. Did you feel knowledgeable enough about curriculum to feel that you could do a good job in constructing curriculum?	17 (55%)	9 (29%)	5 (16%)
B. Did you follow a plan for your curriculum development?	19 (68%)	7 (25%)	2 (7%)
C. Do you feel that the curriculum that you helped develop was successful?	19 (73%)	1 (4%)	6 (23%)
D. Is the curriculum still in use?	16 (67%)	2 (8%)	6 (25%)
E. Did you enjoy your participation in curriculum development?	25 (89%)	3 (11%)	b
3. Have you ever written objectives for curriculum?	34 (64%)	19 (36%)	b
4. Have you written criterion-referenced tests?	8 (15%)	37 (71%)	7 (14%)

[a]Numbers in table are numbers of responses.

[b]Choice not given.

The post-assessments measured the progress of the teachers toward the accomplishment of the objectives. These post-assessments were used to determine if the work-shop leader had met the objectives for the workshop. Higher numbers on the rating scale, indicating more famil-iarity with the objectives, were an indicator that the in-service education program, as presently designed, was achiev-ing a degree of success. The questions which asked the participants if they felt knowledgeable enough about curriculum to feel that they could now do a good job in constructing curriculum produced a positive response from sixty-nine percent of the participants. A tabulation of the post-assessment questionnaires is found in Table 3. One hundred percent of the respondents felt that the work-shops gave them helpful information about curriculum.

The post-assessment format also allowed the respond-ents to comment after each question and to include comments of a more general nature at the conclusion.

When asked if they would like to comment about their experiences at the curriculum workshop, a number of edu-cators expressed their opinions that the workshop was in-formative and to the point. One teacher stated, "Your hand-out Understanding Curriculum Fundamentals is excellent-- clear--and easy to understand. From what I came in [to the workshop] knowing and the ideas and understanding of

TABLE 3

TABULATION FOR POST-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS[a]

Question	Yes	No	Don't Know
1. Do you feel knowledgeable enough about curriculum to feel that you could do a good job in constructing curriculum?	37 (79%)	4 (8%)	6 (13%)
2. Did you feel that these workshops gave you helpful information about curriculum?	53 (100%)	0	0

[a]Numbers in tables are numbers of responses.

these concepts I have been exposed to, I've learned much
and have a much better over-all understanding of curricu-
lum development." Other comments echoed this statement.
Many educators commented in the spaces provided after each
post-assessment question. These comments expanded on their
familiar-not familiar numerical ratings. The respondents
gave information that had come up in the group discussions;
the question on the uses of educational philosophy prompted
the comment from one educator, "We must have and should have
it."

Analysis of the Pre-and Post-Assessment Data

The information from the pre- and post-assessments
was used to generate data that would be useful for de-
termining if the workshop director had been successful in
reaching the objectives for the workshop. The workshop
was designed to bring the majority of respondents to the
level of familiarity with the objectives.

To determine the significance of the difference be-
tween means, the t test was selected to analyze the data.
The presentation of this data is found in Table 4. This
test is frequently chosen to find the difference between
means when the sample sizes are relatively small or the
population standard deviation is unknown. The t test
measures the between variances of the pre- and post-assess-
ments of the groups divided by the within variances of the

TABLE 4

MEANS AND T VALUES FOR PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENTS   n=53

Item	Pre-assessment mean	Standard Deviation	Post-assessment mean	Standard Deviation	(Difference) Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value
First Premise							
Definitions of curriculum							
1	1.2830	.662	2.7925	.743	1.5094	.750	14.65[a]
Second Premise							
Bases for curricular decision making							
2	1.9020	.878	3.7059	.807	1.8039	1.000	12.88[a]
3	2.2830	.818	3.4151	.887	1.1321	.941	8.76[a]
4	2.9615	.989	3.7885	.750	.8269	1.167	5.11[a]
5	3.0377	.940	3.9434	.886	.9057	1.061	6.21[a]
6	2.6792	1.015	3.6415	.879	.9623	.831	8.43[a]

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TABLE 4 (cont.)

MEANS AND T VALUES FOR PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENTS   n=53

Item	Pre-assessment mean	Standard Deviation	Post-assessment mean	Standard Deviation	(Difference) Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value
Second Premise							
Bases for curricular decision making							
7	2.3077	.853	3.1538	.872	.8462	.958	6.37[a]
8	1.8302	1.014	3.8868	.891	1.117	1.117	13.41[a]
9	2.5660	.991	3.2830	.968	.7170	.948	5.50[a]
Third Premise							
Chief elements of curriculum							
10	2.5472	.992	3.3585	.901	.8113	.900	6.56[a]
11	2.7547	.897	3.3585	.879	.6038	.968	4.54[a]
12	2.6981	.972	3.5660	.888	.8679	.735	8.60[a]
13	2.6792	.894	3.4340	.888	.7547	.939	5.85[a]

TABLE 4 (cont.)

MEANS AND T VALUES FOR PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENTS   n=53

Item	Pre-assessment mean	Standard Deviation	Post-assessment mean	Standard Deviation	(Difference) Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value
Third Premise							
Chief elements of curriculum							
14	2.6604	.919	3.3962	.884	.7358	.964	5.56[a]
15	2.5849	.929	3.2642	.858	.6792	.915	5.40[a]
16	3.0189	.796	3.5203	.823	.5094	.823	4.50[a]
17	2.6981	1.030	3.7925	.817	1.0943	1.097	7.27[a]
Fourth Premise							
Models for curriculum							
18	1.4151	.842	3.0943	.904	1.6792	.976	12.52[a]

[a]Significant beyond .001 level

pre- and post-assessments of the group. A high t indi-
cates that the variances between the groups is much greater
than the variances within groups and that a significant
difference exists between the means.[6] The means were con-
sidered to be significantly different since the significance
level on all questions was well beyond the .001 level.

The objective of the workshop director was to conduct
the workshop in such a manner that teachers would become
familiar with all the objectives included in the workshop.
Those objectives in which the workshop members already
demonstrated familiarity, as measured by the pre-assessment,
were not covered in any depth in the workshop. Those items
on which a low level of familiarity was indicated on the
pre-assessment questionnaires were given in-depth coverage
during the workshop. The post-assessment means in ques-
tions two through eighteen indicate that the respondents
all reached a level of three or more. The number three
response on the post-assessment corresponded to the term
"familiar"; therefore, the respondents reached a level of
familiarity with all the workshop objectives except item
one. The pre-assessment mean for item one, which asked the
respondents if they were familiar with the definitions for

[6] Foster L. Brown, Jimmy R. Amos, and Oscar G. Mink,
Statistical Concepts: A Basic Program, 2nd Ed. (New York:
Harper & Row, 1965), pp. 54-58, and Dick A. Leabo, Basic
Statistics, 5th Ed. (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin,
Inc., 1976), pp. 241-246.

curriculum, was the lowest mean recorded for any item (1.2830). The respondents did not reach the level of familiarity on this item. Every other item showed a response of three or above on the post-assessment mean. This clearly indicated that the workshop had achieved the desired goal of bringing all the workshop members to a level of familiarity with the objectives.

Analysis of the Collapsed Pre- and Post-Assessment Means Grouped by Premise

The workshop objectives were grouped according to the four premises about curriculum that were determined to be important for teachers to understand so that they could become competent in the fundamentals of curriculum development. All the data generated from the objectives that comprised the individual premises were collapsed into a pre- and post-assessment mean difference score. In this manner a total, over-all score identifying the strengths and weaknesses of each premise could be presented. The collapsed information allows an overview of the entire workshop. The collapsed pre- and post-assessment means grouped by premise are found in Table 5.

The first premise, which covered definitions of curriculum, produced the largest mean difference. This large difference was probably attributable to the very low pre-assessment mean. Most educators' responses fell into

TABLE 5

COLLAPSED PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENT MEANS GROUPED BY PREMISE

All groups combined

Premise	Pre-assessment mean	Post-assessment mean	(Difference) mean
First			
Definition of Curriculum	1.283	2.7925	1.509
Second			
Bases for curricular decision making	2.451	3.546	1.095
Third			
Chief elements of curriculum	2.549	3.481	.932
Fourth			
Models for curriculum	2.076	3.538	1.462

the "not familiar" category when asked if they were familiar with the definitions of curriculum currently in use. According to the post-assessment means most educators did not reach the level of familiarity with the premises. The educators did, however, show significant growth in the concept.

In the second concept, which covered the bases for curricular decision making, the collapsed mean was slightly more than one point on the rating scale. This took the participants from the over-all position of "somewhat familiar" to "familiar" with the concept that was covered by these questions. This concept was covered in-depth in all the workshop sessions, and the participants were very interested in the concepts presented in this section of the workshop.

The third concept, which included all the objectives concerning the chief elements of curriculum, showed the smallest collapsed mean difference. The pre-assessment means were above "somewhat familiar," and the coverage devoted to the objectives in this premise was abbreviated. Teachers appeared to be fairly knowledgeable and confident concerning these objectives. The post-assessment means brought the teachers to the level of "familiarity" with the objectives.

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In the fourth premise, which involved understanding models for curriculum, the collapsed mean was "somewhat familiar." The educators had a general idea of curriculum models which was enhanced by the discussion that took place during that portion of the workshop. The mean for the educators was at the level of familiarity as measured by the post-assessment.

In general, the collapsed mean demonstrated the educators' previous knowledge of the objectives covered in each workshop section and the knowledge that the educators perceived they had gained as a result of the workshop. When the means are broken down by premises, it becomes more evident that improved knowledge of all the premises was achieved through implementation of the workshop.

Analysis of Ranked Pre- and Post-Assessment Means

The pre- and post-assessment means were also ranked highest to lowest. These ranked scores are presented in Table 6. This was done to more carefully analyze possible reasons for high or low response means.

Objective five, which questioned the effect the material resources of the school and community had on the curriculum, achieved the highest score on both pre- and post-assessments. Educators apparently felt fairly confident concerning their knowledge about this question. The concept itself was briefly touched upon in the workshop,

TABLE 6

RANK OF PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENT MEANS

Rank (1=Highest)	Pre-assessment		Post-assessment	
	Item Number	Mean	Item Number	Mean
18	Item 1	1.2830	Item 1	2.7925
Low 17	Item 18	1.4151	Item 18	3.0943
16	Item 8	1.8302	Item 7	3.1538
.				
.				
.				
3	Item 4	2.9615	Item 17	3.7925
High 2	Item 16	3.0189	Item 8	3.8868
1	Item 5	3.0377	Item 5	3.9434

but many of the peripheral discussions among teachers during the group sessions involved the question of feasibility of an objective for their district. This may account for the position this item holds.

Items sixteen and four, which were concerned with methods of evaluating pupil performance and the effect that community values have on education, were not given in-depth coverage in the workshop, because the demonstrated level of familiarity present in the pre-assessment was high.

The lowest ranked item on the pre-assessment was item number one, which was concerned with definitions for curriculum held by people who work with curriculum. This item remained lowest on the post-assessment, despite an extensive amount of discussion on curriculum definitions. The mean may not have risen to the level of familiarity due to the emphasis that was placed in the workshop on the varied definitions of curriculum, rather than on which scholar held which definition.

Item eighteen ranked second from the bottom on both pre- and post-assessments. The lack of great improvement is probably due to the objective's placement in the work-shop. When time ran short, this item, being last, was often discussed only briefly.

Item eight, which ranked sixteenth in the pre-assessments, and second in the post-assessment, concerned "hidden" curriculum. This objective was of great interest to educators. When educators realized how "hidden" curriculum might operate in their schools, they immediately began to see many instances of this; and in every case a lively discussion took place concerning this objective.

Item seventeen, which asked about the significant features of curriculum, scored very high on the post-assessment mean. This probably occurred because a significant portion of workshop time was devoted to identifying the parts of curriculum. The workshop members were asked to list these features on their worksheets.

Item seven, which involved understanding the uses of learning theories in curriculum development, was in the sixteenth position for the post-assessment means. Limited time was spent discussing this objective, a fact which may account for the results.

The In-service Workshops

A brief description of the workshops for each of the four groups follows. This description includes a discussion of the presentation made by the leader, the participation of the workshop members, an analysis of the collapsed pre- and post-assessment means grouped by premises, and the results of the interviews conducted at the conclusion

of the workshop.

Implementation of the Workshop for Group One

The initial workshop, which was conducted with
administrators only, produced interesting results when
the pre-assessments were given. The administrators'
answers, as a group, covered the entire spectrum of possible
answers. Several members' pre-assessments contained a
preponderance of ones, or "not familiar," while several
other members' pre-assessments were mostly fours and fives,
or "very or extremely familiar." The remainder of the
group fell into the middle range. In other words, this
group of administrators constituted the complete possible
range of perceived knowledge of curriculum development.
Eight of the members had previously participated in some
form of curriculum development. This group, about whom it
might have been postulated that they had more knowledge of
curriculum than classroom teachers, fell into the same
ranges that classroom teachers did on later assessments.

The workshop began with a slide presentation depict-
ing children during the school day. These children were
engaged in activities which encompassed both traditional
and non-traditional activities. The traditional pictures
showed children doing seatwork, students in reading groups,
and teachers instructing classes. The slides of non-tradi-
tional activities included children at a school carnival

and children at play on the playground. The administrators
were asked to decide which activities could be classified
as curriculum. A lively discussion produced responses
that included the statement, "All of the activities that
happen in the school are curriculum" and the reply,
"No, only those things that we plan for the student's
learning are curriculum." After the discussion progressed
sufficiently, the leader directed the participants to
pages two, three, and four of their hand-outs, which in-
dicated that the definition of curriculum is not static,
but varies with the curriculum theorist's opinion. The
administrators were then encouraged to create a definition
for curriculum that met their needs and was compatible
with their personal philosophy of education. The work-
shop members wrote their personal definitions for curricu-
lum on their worksheets. A few of the definitions culled
from the replies included: "planned instruction with a
goal"; "a planned, well defined set of objectives designed
to achieve specific goals in the learning experiences of
every child"; "total experiences of the child in school";
and "all of the experiences of children as they relate
to school functions." This activity constituted the eval-
uation for the first section of the workshops.

The second section of the workshop, which was held
at the same time, concentrated on the bases of curricular

decision making. The pre-assessment for this group demon-
strated low levels of familiarity with the concepts of
"hidden" curriculum, uses of data sources in curriculum
development, and the aims that society holds for educa-
tion. The major focus of this session, therefore, was
directed toward discussion of these concepts. The par-
ticipants were directed to the hand-outs contained in their
folders. The hand-outs on page five, which described the
levels of decision-making, instigated a discussion which
led to greater sensitivity regarding the origins of
curriculum decision making. A great portion of the work-
shop session was spent describing and discussing data-
sources for curriculum. The participants were directed
to pages seven, eight, and nine in their folder, which
described subject matter, learner, society, and values as
data sources for determining curricular objectives and
making enlightened decisions concerning the appropriate-
ness of curricular concepts.

When the uses of philosophy as a screen for deter-
mining objectives was discussed, a lively dialog among the
administrators ensued. One group felt that philosophy was
only useful for public relations purposes and served no
useful good for the development of educational objectives:
the other group felt that properly written philosophy was
necessary for determining the goals of the school. The

administrators read the hand-out in their booklet and
after further discussion agreed that a well-written
philosophy would be essential if they were to be sure
that the curriculum met the goals of the school.[7]

The supposition that "hidden" curriculum was a
force in curriculum development was new to most partici-
pants. Page twelve of the hand-outs was the subject of
considerable discussion since the realization that "hidden"
curriculum was constantly at work in the schools was of
great interest to the teachers.

The workshop members were then divided into
groups. The leader had previously determined the composi-
tion of the groups by using the results of the pre-assess-
ment as a guide. Each group had as its leader the member of
the group who had scored the highest on the pre-assessment.
This put the individual who was most knowledgeable about
curriculum in a leadership position. The other members
had demonstrated varying competencies as measured by the
pre-assessment and were evenly divided among the groups.

The groups were given the task of selecting an objec-
tive that currently was in use in the school's curriculum;

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[7]The group turned to the Assistant Superintendent who
was present and said, "We think that our next job had better
be to write a philosophy for our district." It turned out
that they had none and until the workshop never realized
why a philosophy was important. One of the administrators
did have goal statements for his building which he said his
faculty used extensively when they had to make curricular
decisions.

and by following the guide on the worksheet, they were to determine the data sources, screen the objective, check for the influences of "hidden" curriculum, and ascertain the effect school and community resources would have on implementation of the objective. The groups then reported back to the rest of the members of the workshop. The discussion that occurred in the small groups proved to be very beneficial to the participants. The members could begin to attach practical significance to the theoretical concepts that had been presented. The interrelation of elements necessary for a good curricular foundation became clear, and all the steps necessary to make competent decisions concerning the base for curriculum decisions were evident.[8]

At the conclusion of the small group sessions, the members reported to the entire group. In this manner, the

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[8]Hilda Taba in Curriculum Development, writing about need for a group to understand the total sequence of curriculum, states on page 453:

No one group can see the various elements of the curriculum in relation to each other. How, for example, can one group work on resource units without also working on objectives which these units are to help achieve? How can a committee formulate a school philosophy without considering its bearing on instruction, or vice versa? Those who develop curriculum guides need the insights gained from the case studies of children. Philosophy of education is a part of making decisions about objectives, about selecting content, and about the learning activities. These decisions cannot be made wisely by different groups and in different terms.

deliberations held by each group were made evident to all the participants in the workshop.

The third session of the workshop, held on another day, was concerned with an understanding of the chief elements found in curriculum. The pre-assessments had indicated a high level of perceived knowledge among the participants, especially in the areas of selecting, designing, and organizing learning experiences. Therefore, less attention was given to the objectives covering these concepts. The concept that the participants were less knowledgeable about, as measured by the pre-assessment, was the methods of formulating instructional objectives for learners. Pages thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen in the hand-out contained material that was helpful in working with objectives. Page sixteen contained the definition of objectives and allowed the workshop members an opportunity to select from a group of correct and incorrect objectives. This activity produced a large amount of discussion and helped the participants "think through" the content of objectives. The six objectives that were included each contained some elements of complete performance objectives, but only three of them were correct. These objectives were carefully selected so that the correct answers would not immediately be obvious. None of the administrators correctly selected the three objectives.

This activity improved their perceptions of the difficulty in writing objectives and the necessity for a guideline when they are written in performance standards.

Educational evaluation through the uses of norm and criterion-referenced tests was briefly discussed. This group demonstrated a good understanding of evaluative procedures, although only one member professed to have ever written criterion-referenced tests. The administrators used their worksheets to describe the components of well written curriculum.

The final section of the workshop involved the identification of models for curriculum development. The administrators demonstrated an extremely low level of knowledge about curriculum models; so the leader spent time in reviewing the models contained in the hand-out that appeared on pages eighteen, nineteen, twenty, and twenty-one. Each model was discussed, and the features contained in the models were compared to components of curriculum that had been presented. A discussion concerning selection of the models that most closely approximated the model used in the system was held. The group decided that the model designed by Decker Walker was very similar to the curriculum development process that occurred in their system. The participants were then asked to use their worksheets either to select a model for curriculum currently in use or to

design one of their own. Four members selected the model designed by Ralph Tyler; one member selected John Goodlad's; one member selected Decker Walker's with modifications; and two chose to design a model of their own, which they diagrammed on the worksheet.

At the close of the final workshop, a post-test was given the participants. The questions paralleled the pre-test questions and were designed to determine whether the workshop objectives had been effectively met.

The pre- and post-assessment mean difference for this educators' group was the highest of the four groups which participated in the field testing. This group's collapsed pre-assessment means were comparable to the other three groups and were very close to the collapsed means for all groups combined. These collapsed means are shown in Table 7. It would appear that the time factor may have been the major variable that allowed this group to score significantly higher on the post-assessments. This group's workshop was conducted in two sessions, which occurred during the school day. There was no pressure to hurry through material, since as much time as necessary to present the program was allowed. The educators were not tired, as the sessions took place in the mornings; and extensive discussion among the participants occurred.

TABLE 7

COLLAPSED PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENT MEANS GROUPED BY PREMISE

Group One

Premise	Pre-assessment mean	Post-assessment mean	(Difference) Mean
First			
Definition of Curriculum	1.333	3.333	2.000
Second			
Bases for curricular decision making	2.690	3.818	1.128
Third			
Chief elements of curriculum	2.209	3.571	1.362
Fourth			
Models for curriculum	2.055	4.055	2.000

Two participants were randomly selected to be interviewed. The interview questions were designed to achieve in-depth responses to the participant's perceptions of information gained in the workshop. The majority of the questions pertained to the workshop objectives and were open-ended in nature. The interview began in a relaxed, informal manner with the interviewer and respondent discussing the interview and looking over the questionnaire together.[9]

The interviews began with questions pertaining to curriculum definitions. The first four questions asked for the respondents to describe their perceptions of the changes that occurred in their personal definition of curriculum as a result of the workshop. Both respondents indicated that the workshop had caused them to have a better perspective of the variety of curriculum definitions. The interview questions were based on the objectives that were used in the workshop; so the remainder of the questions followed the workshop format. Questions five through thirteen were related to the second workshop

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[9]"The first requisite for successful interviewing is to create a friendly atmosphere and to put respondents at their ease. With a pleasant, confident approach and a questionnaire that starts off easily, this is usually not difficult to achieve. From then on, the interviewer's art consists in asking the questions properly, and intelligibly, in obtaining a valid and meaningful response, and in recording the response accurately and completely," Kornhauser and Sheatsley, "Questionnaire Construction and Interview Procedure" in Research Methods, p. 564.

session which covered the bases for curricular decision
making. The question, "Is there an effect on your
curriculum due to the available resources of your com-
munity?," produced this response: "Yes, the available
resources determine the level of sophistication and what
materials are available." The questions on "hidden"
curriculum gave evidence of considered thinking by those
answering the interviewer's questions. Both respondents
indicated a heightened awareness of the effects possible on
school curriculum when the "hidden" curriculum is not
taken into account. "The fact that it is hidden makes it
hard. It takes more deliberation to cope with it; other-
wise, it can divide and compromise the program" and,
"The school philosophy is not reached to its fullest
potential" were two responses to the questions on "hidden"
curriculum.

Questions fourteen through twenty-one were concerned
with the chief elements found in curriculum. The question
that asked, "What are the significant features of curricu-
lum?" was designed to determine the participants' under-
standing of the total structure in curriculum development.
Both respondents named all the parts of curriculum with
no difficulty whatsoever.

Question twenty-two asked the respondents to iden-
tify characteristics of models for curriculum currently in

use. The answers clearly indicated a good understanding
of curriculum components. Both respondents mentioned
Ralph Tyler's model in particular and named some of the
characteristics associated with it.

The final two questions concerned the participants'
perceptions of the workshop and their feeling about in-
creased knowledge as a result of the workshop. They were
also asked what sections of the workshop might be
improved for future participants. They both answered
in the affirmative when questioned about increased knowl-
edge, and both had a few suggestions for improvements.
The suggestion from one administrator was to spend more
time on Bloom's taxotomy, which was only mentioned as an
adjunct for identifying appropriate behavioral terms. The
other administrator had two suggestions: the first was
that the workshop be presented on an administrative level
whenever possible, as it was felt that the concepts pre-
sented were badly needed there; the second, that the pre-
senter either remain totally unbiased in the presentation,
or "jump in with both feet" and give an opinion on which
method might be best. The suggestion was made that the
presenter did a little of both and it would be more advan-
tageous to go one way or the other.

It was necessary to summarize the results of the
interviews, but the overall responses indicated that in

every case the respondents had a fairly complete under-
standing of the questions asked. There was no way for
the interviewer to ascertain how much in-depth knowledge
the respondents had prior to the workshop; so no attempt
will be made to imply that all the information obtained
from the interviews was a result of the workshop.

The workshops held with this group of administrators
proved to be a fine opportunity for the initial presenta-
tion. As a result of the workshop, the presentation on
philosophy and the concept of "hidden" curriculum were
given more emphasis. The time that each section took to
present was noted, and it appeared that the complete pre-
sentation, discussion, and group work took about four
hours. The presenter made note that personal biases were
obviously evident, and care was taken to eliminate them in
subsequent workshops.

Implementation of the Workshop for Group Two

The second implementation of the workshop was held
in one released-time half-day session. The session was
attended by seventeen teachers and two administrators.
The time alloted for the workshop was three hours, a re-
duction which meant that some sections of the workshop
had to be condensed or omitted. The results of the pre-
assessments were used to help determine which sections
would be given less emphasis than others.

The results of the pre-assessments were remarkably similar to those obtained by the group of administrators. Very low levels of perceived knowledge were recorded for definitions of curriculum; the uses of data sources in curriculum development; the uses of educational philosophy in selecting educational objectives; the uses of learning theories in curriculum development as they apply to the selection of educational objectives; the impact that "hidden" curriculum has on curricular decision making and actions; and models for curriculum currently in use. The group identified themselves as being "somewhat familiar" to "familiar" on the questions that were concerned with the chief elements of curriculum.

The decision was made by the workshop director to devote the majority of time to the material contained in the second session of the program. This would mean that bases for curricular decision making would receive the most attention during the workshop.

The workshop began with the slide presentation and discussion.[10] The group unanimously agreed that all of the slides represented curriculum and that everything that

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[10]The afternoon selected for the workshop turned out to be the hottest day of the spring, with a temperature of ninety-eight degrees. The workshop was held in a room with no air conditioning or fans. Nevertheless, the teachers were extremely attentive throughout the entire session.

happened in the school was curriculum. After further
discussion about the definitions and reviewing all the
curriculum definitions, no one changed his opinion.
The discussion and presentations then centered on the
bases for decision making for curriculum. Data sources
for curricular decision making were discussed, and empha-
sis was placed upon the need to use all these sources when
determining goals and objectives.[11] The section on
philosophy produced comment from the group; no one in the
workshop was able to state where the school district's
philosophy could be found, but all agreed that there was
one in existence. The uses of the philosophy as a guide
and screen for objectives was clarified.

The concept of "hidden" curriculum produced a
provocative discussion when the educators present at the
workshop grasped the impact that "hidden" curriculum had
on the introduction and implementation of new curriculum.
Most of the teachers could relate an instance in which the
"hidden" curriculum thwarted the acceptance of a new
curriculum. The teachers decided that the best approach to
this problem was to recognize that it exists and make

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[11]"The need for recognizing these sources as being
organically interactive has been neglected in educational
theory. Moreover, insufficient attention has been given
to the limitations of subject specialists and the influence
of the wider world of knowledge as sources of data for
determining educational objectives and developing the
curriculum," Tanner, Curriculum Development, p. 100.

provisions for discussion of new curriculum and more
complete teacher education prior to instituting a new
program.

The teachers were then assigned to small groups
using the approach described in the first implementation
of the workshop. The objectives selected by these
teachers to use with their groups ranged from objectives
generated from the special education curriculum to objec-
tives from a new nutrition curriculum. The activity,
which consisted of determining the data sources, screening
the objectives, and checking for other influences on the
objectives, provoked an animated discussion in the groups.
The groups again used their worksheets as a guide and as
a place to record the answers. The leader had to tell the
teachers that time was almost up and that they needed to
reach closure so that the rest of the sessions could be
presented.

The next session of the workshop was spent discussing
the methods of writing behavioral objectives and methods
of evaluating pupil performance. The teachers had shown
familiarity with the concepts presented in this section
when the pre-assessments were analyzed; so the workshop
director covered this material in a more superficial
manner. The teachers were asked to use their worksheets
to describe the components in a well-written curriculum.

Most of the participants had no difficulty accomplishing this activity.

The final section of the workshop, which concerned models for curriculum, was presented very briefly. The models were identified, the curriculum components present in the models were discussed, but the participants were not asked to select a model that would be appropriate for their use due to the time constraints of the workshop.

At the conclusion of the workshop the post-assessments were given and two participants were randomly selected to take part in the interview.

In general, the collapsed pre-assessment means for the second group of educators fell relatively close to the collapsed means of all the groups combined. These collapsed means are shown in Table 8. However, the pre-assessment means for models of curriculum was somewhat farther below the combined means of all the groups. The mean gain on the post-assessment for this concept was over one point on the rating scale. Despite very little time spent on the objectives that were concerned with models for curriculum, the participants perceived that they were more familiar with this concept than they had been in the past.

The time factor probably was significant in accounting for the improvement in the collapsed post-assessment

TABLE 8

COLLAPSED PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENT MEANS GROUPED BY PREMISE

GROUP TWO

Premise	Pre-assessment mean	Post-assessment mean	(Difference) Mean
First			
Definition of Curriculum	1.125	2.705	1.580
Second			
Bases for curricular decision making	2.227	3.446	1.219
Third			
Chief elements of curriculum	2.508	3.559	1.051
Fourth			
Models for curriculum	1.833	3.484	1.651

scores. The mean difference in every case was at least one point on the rating scale. This group had a released afternoon for the workshop, covering a three-hour time span. Discussion was somewhat curtailed, but the educators apparently perceived that they had increased knowledge as a result of the workshop.

The initial items on the interview questionnaire, which attempted to discover any changes in teachers' aware-ness of curriculum definitions, yielded responses from both teachers that, prior to the workshop, they had poorly defined thoughts about what curriculum encompassed. They both felt that they now had a personal definition for curriculum. Both respondents answered the interview questions with complete, detailed responses which indicated to the interviewer a deepening sense of understanding of the fundamentals of curriculum development. The question concerning identifying characteristics of models for curriculum was not asked as that section of the workshop had not been held in detail. Both teachers responded positively when asked if they had more knowledge about curriculum now than they did before beginning the workshop. One teacher said, "Absolutely, it was well suited to my needs."

Implementation of the Workshop for Group Three

The third implementation of the workshop was held in two after-school sessions. Nine teachers took the pre-assessment questionnaire, but thirteen teachers and two administrators actually attended the workshop.

The pre-assessment yielded results that paralleled the information obtained from the two previous workshops. Low levels of perceived knowledge were reported for curriculum definitions, uses of data sources in curriculum development, the aims that society holds for education as they apply to curriculum development, use of educational philosophy and learning theories, the impact of "hidden" curriculum, and the models for curriculum currently in use.

The workshop was conducted in the same manner as the previous two, with emphasis placed in the discussion and worksheets on the questions that the pre-assessment indicated a perceived low level of knowledge. The first session began with the concepts of curriculum definitions and the slide presentation. The group entered into a lively debate over definitions. The concepts concerning the data bases for curriculum were presented during this session.

The second session, again held after school, was attended by a mixed group of participants. Some of those

who attended the first session and had taken the pre-
assessment were there. Some of those who attended the
first session but had not taken the pre-assessment
attended, and one new member came. There were six
teachers and one administrator at this session. The
concepts presented included the chief elements of
curriculum and the models for curriculum. The workshop
proceeded in the same manner as the previous two, with the
group dividing into smaller discussion and work groups.

Only those members of the group who had taken the
pre-assessment took the post-assessment. One of these
individuals was randomly selected for an interview.

The collapsed pre-assessment means of the third
group of educators was very close to the collapsed
means of all the groups (see Table 9). This group was
somewhat familiar with most concepts of curriculum devel-
opment. The lowest pre-assessment mean was recorded for
definitions of curriculum. The collapsed mean was close to
"not familiar" on the rating scale.

This group demonstrated the least amount of overall
growth for any group. They did reach the level of
familiarity for bases for curricular decision making, chief
elements of curriculum, and models for curriculum. This
was consistent with the growth reported for all other
groups; however, this group's mean gain was under a full

TABLE 9

COLLAPSED PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENT MEANS GROUPED BY PREMISE

GROUP THREE

Premise	Pre-assessment mean	Post-assessment mean	(Difference) Mean
First			
Definition of Curriculum	1.250	2.200	.950
Second			
Bases for curricular decision making	2.421	3.425	1.004
Third			
Chief elements of curriculum	2.741	3.485	.744
Fourth			
Models for curriculum	2.312	3.200	.888

point on the rating scale in three of the concepts.

This lowered mean gain may be due to the lack of con-

sistency in the group and the small sample. The group

met in two after-school sessions. The members of the first

session, who had taken the pre-test, did not all attend

the second session. The second session contained partici-

pants who had attended the first session, but had not

taken the pre-test, and one completely new member. Only

four individuals were eligible to take the post-test.

Despite the low mean gain, this group participated

very actively in discussions, and the group expressed the

feeling to the leader that they had increased their knowl-

edge of curriculum.

The interview was conducted in an attempt to elicit

from the participants more information concerning knowl-

edge gained as a result of the workshop. This participant

responded to the interview questions with complete answers

that gave evidence of good understanding of the concepts

being discussed.

Implementation of the Workshop for Group Four

The fourth implementation of the workshop was held

in a released time half-day session with twenty-five

teachers and one administrator attending. The results of

the pre-assessment questionnaires showed a similar pattern

to that of the previous groups. The time for this work-shop was limited by a contractual agreement in the teachers' contract which did not allow workshops to proceed beyond a certain point in the school day. Therefore, this workshop was conducted with one eye on the clock, and the only material that was presented in-depth were those con-cepts that the teachers had demonstrated a lack of famil-iarity with on the pre-assessment. The only significant difference between the pre-assessments of this group and those of the other groups was a low level of knowledge of the significant features of the curriculum.

The workshop was presented in the same manner as the others. This group enjoyed the small group sessions very much, but because of the pressures of time, had to curtail some of the discussion. The group was given the post-assessment immediately following the workshop, and two participants were randomly selected to be interviewed. The collapsed pre-assessment means for this group of educators put them slightly above the collapsed means of the combined groups in all concepts as identified in Table 5 (see Table 10). The mean post-assessment gain was over one point on the rating scale for all concepts except chief elements of curriculum. The lack of gain for this concept was probably due to the fact that almost no time was spent in the workshop session discussing the objectives

TABLE 10

COLLAPSED PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENT MEANS GROUPED BY PREMISE

Group Four

Premise	Pre-assessment mean	Post-assessment mean	(Difference) Mean
First			
Definition of Curriculum	1.333	2.666	1.333
Second			
Bases for curricular decision making	2.468	3.495	1.027
Third			
Chief elements of curriculum	2.739	3.309	.570
Fourth			
Models for curriculum	2.104	3.416	1.312

contained in that concept. The time for the workshop
session was very short, and the pre-assessment had demon-
strated that the group had nearly reached the level of
familiarity with this concept. The little discussion
that was held on these objectives was apparently enough
to bring the group to the level of familiarity on the
post-assessment.

The interviews very clearly indicated a concrete
understanding of the concepts that had been stressed in
the workshops. The answers to the questions on subjects
very briefly discussed in the workshops were more abstract
and not as clearly defined. For instance, the answers to
the question, "Do you feel knowledgeable concerning
writing instructional objectives for learning?," which
was very briefly touched upon the workshops, were, "not
thoroughly, but I could with help" and "I think so."
The comments by both respondents to the final question,
which was "What sections of the workshop can be improved
for future participants?," was, "More time, more time on
grouped activities," and "Would like more in-depth."

Workshop Session Interviews and Response to Workshop
Materials

The teacher interviews served to validate the pre-
and post-assessment information by providing more informa-
tion concerning the workshop objectives. These interviews

consisted of open-ended questions which were intended to gather teacher perceptions about the program content and to determine areas for improvement for future workshops.

The participants, when asked questions that were concerned with content, generally reported in-depth understanding of the concept. The participants were able to respond at length to the interviewer about the concept, frequently repeating some of the information they reported to have learned as a result of the workshops. The best evidence for the probable assumption that the answers were given as a result of the information derived from the workshop occurred in this manner. When questions were asked pertaining to material not covered, or only briefly covered in the workshop as a result of time pressures, the respondents replied that they weren't as sure of the answer "because we didn't talk about that."

The final two questions on the interview were designed to find out how much value the participants placed on the workshop, and to ask for suggestions for improvement.

The person conducting the interviews was also the workshop leader; so it is extremely possible that the participants answered the final two questions in ways they believed might please the interviewer. Nevertheless, the answers indicated that they did feel that they had

increased their knowledge about curriculum, and the suggestion for improvement centered on more time for the workshop. This suggestion only came from those workshops conducted in one time session.

These interviews were useful in validating the workshop director's assumption that the participants had clearly understood the material presented.

The hand-outs that the participants received generated much comment from the teachers. The leader was repeatedly asked by the participants if they could keep the hand-outs, and appreciation was expressed when they were told they could. One participant stated that the section on objectives and useful terms for writing objectives was something he "needed very much." The hand-outs were a necessary part of the workshop and allowed the participants to have concrete information about the concepts presented. The participants were encouraged to read the hand-outs at their leisure and were told that they contained more complete information than had been discussed in the workshop.

The small group activities, which were an integral part of the workshop, proved very popular with the participants. The workshop leader circulated to all the groups, listening to the discussion and offering information when asked. The interaction within the groups was very productive. The groups carefully discussed the ob-

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jectives in question, determining the data sources and applying the school's philosophy of education and appropriate learning theories. The groups were always reluctant to conclude the discussion and return to the larger group.

Suggested Modifications for Future Programs

There are five modifications that could be made in this program. They include: a modification of the program to use the time element for the workshops as a factor in planning the program; an in-service program designed especially for both teachers and administrators; modification of two objectives in the workshop format; and strengthening of the section on the uses of philosophy.

First, the time element proved to be a major factor in conducting the in-service program.[12] Many school systems do not have the financial resources to commit to lengthy in-service programs. The program would be more effective if it were designed to be presented differently when adequate amounts of time are not available. The program, as currently structured, was designed to be presented

[12]"A major reason for the failure of existing programs of in-service education to make effective changes in behavior is the time element involved," Ronald J. Laviolette, "The Perceived In-Service Needs of Massachusetts Elementary Principals and the Identification of Perceived Techniques to Best Meet These Perceived Needs," dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1976.

in its entirety; but from a practical standpoint that was not always possible. The program could be designed for a two-and-one-half hour workshop or a four-hour workshop, with more material presented at the longer workshop. The two-and-one-half hour workshop should be designed to present material from sessions two and three of the workshops. The materials included in those sessions appeared to be of most immediate interest for teachers and are the most critical for teachers to understand when they develop curriculum. The materials contained in sessions one and four, which comprise curriculum definitions and models for curriculum, could be omitted if time did not permit their inclusion. The workshop concepts lose some of their strength with this exclusion; but, from the pragmatic context, this may be the only way the workshop can be presented to the teachers. The pre-assessment and post-assessment could be redesigned to reflect the two different formats.

Second, a modification that might be considered would be to target the program for administrators and teachers. The initial thrust of the program was aimed towards teachers; however, administrators proved to be extremely receptive to the program. Administrators repeatedly commented that they themselves had minimal background in curriculum development and would like the

opportunity to have the program presented to them. No

changes in the program itself would need to be made, but

the literature describing the program would need to in-

clude the benefits to administrators as well as teachers.

Third, question number one on the pre- and post-

assessment document was worded, "The various definitions

for curriculum held by people who work with curriculum

(Tyler, Taba, etc.)." The educators were asked to respond

to that statement by indicating their degree of familiarity

with it. Very low pre- and post-test scores were recorded

for this question and despite extensive discussion during

the workshop sessions, the response level never reached

familiarity. The interviews, however, indicated that the

respondents felt fairly certain about the range of curricu-

lum definitions and had attempted a definition for them-

selves. This question, to better assess the knowledge of

the respondents, might be reworded to state, "The broad

range of curriculum definitions currently in use in educa-

tion."

Fourth, question eighteen which asked the respond-

ents to denote their familiarity with the item, "The models

for curriculum currently in uses (Tyler, Taba, Walker,

etc.) received the second lowest mean pre- and post-assess-

ment score. It was postulated that this occurred because

the material covered in this section of the workshop was

presented last; however, this should be more thoroughly investigated. It is possible that this concept has low interest value to teachers.

Fifth, the section on the uses of philosophy as it relates to developing curriculum should be strengthened. This was a concept of which most members of the workshops had not been aware. This objective provoked discussion in each of the four workshops. Teachers could be asked to help develop a personal philosophy and become involved in planning a philosophy for their school.

The basic program appeared to need five modifications. The teachers responded with enthusiasm to the presentation and participation willingly in the discussions. The results of the data indicate that teachers did indeed gain in competencies about curriculum development. There was a consistent improvement in scores across all questions which would lead the researcher to the conclusion that growth in understanding fundamentals of curriculum development had indeed occurred. Further field testing would be necessary before any final conclusions could be reached. This study appears to have produced a program which shows promise for helping teachers move toward a better understanding of the curriculum development process.

The field testing of this program demonstrated that educators are interested in curriculum development and are

willing to take the opportunity to turn theory into practice. The results of the field test indicate that educators can, when given the opportunity, improve their knowledge of curriculum development so that when they are called upon to help develop curriculum in their schools these educators will have the foundation to be wise and sensitive curriculum makers. In short, the program assisted the teachers to accomplish the stated objectives.

C H A P T E R   V I

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR
FURTHER RESEARCH

This concluding chapter will synthesize the sub-
stantive information presented in the five previous
chapters to accomplish two purposes. First, a concise
summary is needed to reiterate the purposes, development
of the program, and the findings of this investigation.
Second, five recommendations have been made for addition-
al research to expand the findings of this study.

The purpose of this study was to develop a program
for in-service education that helps teachers understand
selected fundamentals of curriculum development. Teach-
ers are frequently asked to participate in curriculum
development, but may lack the necessary knowledge to do
this. Five objectives were developed to give direction to
the study. They are:

Objective One

To identify basic concepts that are necessary for
developing competency in curriculum development.

Objective Two

To review selected literature about existing
in-service education programs to identify the
characteristics of effective programs.

Objective Three

To conceptualize an in-service program which will
assist teachers to develop skills of curriculum
development.

Objective Four

To field test the teacher in-service program for
curriculum development through teacher workshops.

Objective Five

To make recommendations for further research
about teacher in-service education for curriculum
development.

The first objective identified basic concepts that
are necessary for developing competency in curriculum
development. The work of the classical curriculum
scholars such as: Ralph Tyler, Virgil Herrick, John
Goodlad, and Hilda Taba and the more radical scholars
such as Decker Walker, Joseph Schwab, and Paulo Freire
was reviewed. These reviews led to the formation of
common basic concepts that were needed for teachers to
develop competency in curriculum development. These con-
cepts are developed into premises and used to formulate
a series of objectives that formed the body of the in-
service program. A rationale was developed that identi-
fied the reasons for the selection of each premise.

The second objective involved reviewing literature about existing in-service education programs which identified the characteristics of effective programs. The selected literature which was reviewed included state programs, school-university partnerships, teacher centers, and locally developed in-service programs. On site visits were also made to selected in-service programs. The characteristics of successful in-service programs which were identified then were used to assist in conceptualizing, organizing, and implementing the in-service program.

The third objective involved conceptualizing an in-service program to assist teachers in developing skills of curriculum development. Objectives were developed for the in-service program using the concepts previously identified as necessary for understanding the fundamentals of curriculum development. These objectives were organized sequentially so that they formed the body of the program to educate teachers to understand curriculum fundamentals. The data from the review of literature about successful in-service education was used to conceptualize an in-service program designed to accomplish these objectives. The sequentially organized objectives for curriculum and the characteristics for effective in-service education were then combined into a program to educate teachers to understand selected fundamentals of curriculum development.

The fourth objective was to field test the teacher
in-service program for curriculum development through
teacher workshops. The program was field tested with
fifty-three teachers and administrators from four school
districts. Prior to the first workshop, the educators
were given a pre-assessment to determine competencies
in defined curriculum skills. The questions for the pre-
assessment were derived from the objectives which had
previously been developed. These pre-assessments were
used to adapt the program to meet the needs of the group.
At the conclusion of the workshops, post-assessments were
administered. The results of these were used to determine
if the workshop leader had been successful in helping the
educators progress toward the accomplishment of the
objectives. Interviews were also conducted with randomly
selected teachers to gain in-depth information about
teacher perceptions gained as a result of the workshops.

The workshops themselves were held in released half
day sessions or after school sessions. The results of
the pre-assessments indicated that both teachers and ad-
ministrators shared a common knowledge and held common
deficiencies in the area of understanding curriculum. The
strongest overall knowledge held by the educators occurred
in the workshop session that was concerned with the chief
elements of curriculum. The combined score for all groups

on the pre-assessment corresponded to "somewhat familiar" on the rating scale. The weakest knowledge occurred in understanding definitions for curriculum, models for curriculum, and with the concept of "hidden" curriculum. Those objectives which produced low scores on the pre-assessment were generally given more emphasis during the workshops than the objectives which held a pre-assessment score of "familiar" or better.

The workshop leader hoped to structure the workshops in such a way that all the participants would reach the level of three or "familiar" on the post-assessment rating scale. This was accomplished for all the objectives except objective number one, which was concerned with curriculum definitions.

The teachers actively participated in the workshops and discussion occurred during each session. The workshops had originally been designed for teachers, but administrators took part in every session. This phenomena led to the recommendation that similar workshops be planned for administrators, as this appears to be needed.

Many school districts could not allow enough released time for all the workshop material to be presented, so the recommendation was also made that the workshops be structured in such a way that partial sections of the workshops could be given.

The workshops were well received in each of the four districts, and both administrators and teachers responded with enthusiasm to the presentations.

The fifth objective concerned making recommendations for further research.

The purpose of these workshops was to provide a program for teachers to understand the fundamentals of curriculum so that when these teachers are asked to help develop curriculum for their classroom, school, or district they would be competent decision makers. This program was successful in reaching its objectives.

Recommendations for Further Research

It is recommended that further research concerning this study occur in the following five areas:

First, a follow-up study of the groups which were participants in the original workshop sessions could be made. This study could determine if those teachers who participated in the workshops to understand the fundamentals of curriculum development had actually developed more effective curriculum. The study could use the objectives contained in the workshop sessions to determine if the newly developed curriculum was consistent with the principles of effective curriculum development as described in the workshop objectives. The curriculum, thus developed, could also be examined in action and the following questions

asked: 1) is this curriculum successful? That is to say, are children learning what the curriculum developers intended; 2) is this curriculum useful? Is it structured in such a way that teachers are able to use it readily; 3) is this curriculum relevant? Does the curriculum actually meet the needs of the children for whom it is intended?

The newly developed curriculum could be compared to curriculum that had been developed prior to teacher participation in the workshops. Both curriculums could be examined with the intent of determining whether the new curriculum, that is to say, the curriculum that had been developed after participation in the workshops, met the criteria of effective curriculum development as described in the workshop objectives.

Second, a study to determine the needs of school administrators concerning curriculum development seems urgently needed. Administrators are frequently asked to lead curriculum development projects and yet, this study showed no significant difference between the knowledge that administrators and teachers held prior to the workshop. Administrators attended every workshop session and participated with the teachers in the group discussions. These administrators displayed very little knowledge that the teachers did not also possess. The concerns that these administrators frequently expressed to the workshop

leader centered on their own inadequacies in curriculum development and their lack of confidence when asked to chair curriculum development committees. Teachers and administrators working together to understand curriculum is very important, but there appears to be a clear need for separate workshops for administrators. These workshops would reflect the needs of administrators and be directed to meeting these needs. The mixed teacher-administrator groups frequently made it difficult for the administrators to express openly their lack of background in curriculum development. Their concerns were usually stated to the workshop leader during a private conversation, when the comment would be made, "I think that I need this more than the teachers."

The study of administrators' needs could include the extent of curriculum development knowledge that administrators currently hold as well as determining administrators' curriculum development responsibilities in a district. Most of the school administrators who attended were principals; however, special education directors, librarians, and subject matter supervisors were also present. There did not appear to be any specific difference between any of these members of the workshops and the teachers. The pre-assessments were not designed to differentiate by category of occupation, since the original

intent of the workshops was to educate teachers in the
fundamentals of curriculum development so specific
scores for these members are not available. The needs of
administrators and the interest of administrators in
this topic was an unintended outcome of this program.
The need is so strong that the workshop leader has been
asked to put on the teacher workshops for a group of
school principals that represent a study group of the
Massachusetts Association of Elementary Principals.

Third, research is needed to determine if the
curriculum development needs of varying types of school
districts are the same. For instance, do teachers who
work in rural schools far from access to universities
have different curriculum needs than teachers who work
in urban and suburban settings. Teachers in urban-sub-
urban schools appear to be able to take more course work
and may have developed different skills in curriculum
development than their rural counterparts. Research could
determine if each group would need the same objectives
and workshop sessions and what differences, if any, might
exist in the two groups.

Fourth, the question of voluntary participation in
in-service workshops could be examined. The guidelines
for effective in-service education states that participation
in in-service training should be voluntary, but the

complaint heard most often is that those who need training the most, frequently do not attend. The workshops could be presented to a group of teachers who volunteered to attend the workshops sessions and then presented to a group that were told that they must attend. The pre- and post-assessments of each group could be examined to determine if any significant difference occurred in the mean gain between the two groups. If the teachers who volunteered to attend the workshop showed a greater mean gain on the assessments than the group who had been made to attend the workshop, then a logical conclusion might be that for the workshops to be effective teachers must volunteer. However, if there was no significant difference between the two groups it could be inferred that it made no difference in learning if teachers selected the workshops or if they were made to attend. This study would aid in determining if it is of benefit to make disinterested or slightly interested teachers attend in-service training.

Fifth, curriculum in higher education needs to be examined to determine the extent to which curriculum development concepts are offered to pre-service and in-service teachers. The need for teachers to have a thorough understanding of curriculum development is very clear. Teachers work daily with curriculum in their classrooms and are frequently asked to aid in developing curriculum

at the school or district level. An examination of the
course content for pre-service teachers would indicate
which curricular concepts these individuals are being
taught before they enter schools to begin teaching. This
content could be measured against the principles of
curriculum development as described in the workshop objec-
tives. If necessary, recommendations for more extensive
coursework could be made to institutions of higher educa-
tion as a result of such a study. Further, courses, work-
shops, and other methods of reaching teachers who are
practicing in the field could be examined. A needs assess-
ment of teachers based on the objectives described in the
workshops could take place which would determine what
knowledge the teachers currently possessed about curriculum.
Institutions of higher education could then be given
recommendations about in-service programs to be held in
school districts or at the institution itself. In this
manner, institutions of higher education would take the
responsibility of insuring that teachers, both pre-service
and in-service, would be well grounded in the principles
of effective curriculum development.

This present study has practical implications for
schools. It has long been suggested that teachers are the
most qualified to write curriculum since they have the
closest proximity to the learner. The underlying assumption

here is that teachers know how to develop curriculum.
However, experience and research show us that the reali-
ties of the school belie this assumption. Teachers
attempt to write curriculum, but since they frequently lack
solid curriculum development skills and knowledge, the
resulting curriculum is often ill conceived. As this
research indicates, teachers and administrators are very
aware of their deficiencies in understanding curriculum
development. School systems can no longer ignore this need
if they are to have effective curriculum for their schools.
School systems have within their reach tools to transform
poorly designed curriculum into well structured environments
for learning. The teachers and administrators do indeed
need to be part of the curriculum development process. Yet,
if school systems and institutions of higher education do
not meet the challenge of providing school staffs with
appropriate knowledge about curriculum, it is likely that
elementary education will continue to be less than sound.
Through in-service education it is possible to provide teach-
ers with the theoretical and practical base for improved
curriculum development that will reflect positively on the
quality of the schools.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR GRADUATE STUDENT DEVELOPMENT

OF CURRICULUM OBJECTIVES

April 4, 1979

Dear Colleague,

I would appreciate your help in formulating objectives for the in-service program that I am developing as part of my dissertation. Attached to this letter is a form for you to use.

I know that you are very busy at this time of year, and I really thank you for your help and support for this.

I am enclosing a stamped self addressed envelope for your convenience. Would you please return this as soon as possible?

Thank you,

Sue Holloman

Sue Holloman

Following are four premises about skills that teachers
need for developing curriculum at the school level. Each
premise serves as a source for determining objectives that
teachers need to accomplish in order to be proficient in
curriculum development. Please read each premise and in
the space provided write objectives for teachers that you
think flow from the premise.

Thank you.

First Premise

A definition of curriculum is needed so that the varying
concepts of curriculum have clarity for those who would
work with and use them. Each theorist's definition may
vary, but all have attempted either by inference or
statement to define curriculum for their purposes.

Objectives

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Second Premise

The selected curriculum theorists have designed models for
curriculum that best demonstrate their viewpoint for
curriculum. All these models share common features and
adaptations of these models are currently in use in most
school curriculums.

Objectives

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Third Premise
A common concern among curriculum theorists is the formulation of a base upon which curricular decisions are made. This base provides the information for curriculum planning and leads to the establishment of objectives.

Objectives

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Fourth Premise
The body of curriculum contains elements that are recognized as being critical for effective curriculum development. These elements are frequently given differing emphasis by different curriculum workers, but the need for these elements to be present and effectively organized is shared by the selected theorists.

Objectives

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX B

LIST OF OBJECTIVES ABOUT CURRICULUM

SENT TO EDUCATORS

March 30, 1979

I am, as part of my dissertation, developing a list of objectives pertaining to competences that teachers will need to attain for curriculum development. These objectives will result in the formulation of an in-service program for teachers to understand selected fundamentals of curriculum development. I have developed four basic premises that are based on common concepts that selected curriculum theorists hold. I have used these concepts to generate objectives for curriculum development.

I am interested in selecting those objectives which will directly aid teachers in their role of curriculum developer. Some of the objectives, while important for scholars and persons who are subject matter specialists, are not necessarily the most important for teachers.

I would appreciate your help in selecting those objectives which, in your opinion, are the most critical for teachers to have in developing competencies in curriculum development.

Would you please place a check mark on the objectives that you would select. The objectives appear on the enclosed three pages. I am enclosing a stamped self-addressed envelope for your convenience. Please feel free to add any comments that you feel are appropriate.

Thank you very much for your help.

Sue Holloman
Center for Curriculum
    Studies
University of
    Massachusetts

Sue Holloman

First Premise

A definition of curriculum is needed so that the varying
concepts of curriculum have clarity for those who would
work with and use them. Each theorist's definition may
vary, but all have attempted either by inference or state-
ment to define curriculum for their purposes.

Objectives

1. To recognize the varying definitions of curriculum as
used by selected scholars.

2. To define the term curriculum.

Second Premise

The selected curriculum theorists have designed models
for curriculum that best demonstrate their viewpoint
for curriculum. All the models share common features
and adaptions of these models are currently in use in most
curriculums.

Objectives

1. To identify the significant features of a given cur-
riculum.

2. To recognize various models of curriculum.

Third Premise

A common concern among curriculum theorists is the
formulation of a base upon which curricular decisions
are made. This base provides the information for

curriculum planning and leads to the establishment of
objectives.

Objectives

1. To identify the bases upon which curricular decisions
are made.

2. To describe the uses of data sources in curriculum
development. Such data sources would include: society,
learner, and subject matter.

3. To identify the aims for education held at the societal
level.

4. To describe the values a community holds for education.

5. To identify the effect on curriculum of the instruc-
tional and material resources of school and community.

6. To recognize the use of educational philosophy as it
applies to the selection of educational objectives.

7. To identify the uses of learning theories in curriculum
development as it applies to the selection of educational
objectives.

8. To recognize the impact of the hidden curriculum on
curricular decision making and action.

9. To distinguish the effects of class and school organi-
zation (including promoting, grouping, and classifying
procedures).

Fourth Premise

The body of curriculum contains elements that are recog-
nized as being critical for effective curriculum

development. These elements are frequently given differing emphasis by different curriculum workers, but the need for these elements to be present and effectively organized is shared by the selected theorists.

Objectives

1. To diagnose learner needs.

2. To select appropriate topics for content.

3. To evaluate concepts for appropriateness for learner.

4. To select appropriate subject matter content.

5. To organize curriculum content to improve learning for students.

6. To recognize integration or horizontal relationships of curriculum activities. This is sometimes known as scope and sequence.

7. To define instructional objectives for pupils.

8. To formulate instructional objectives for pupils.

9. To select appropriate learning experiences for pupils.

10. To design learning activities for pupils.

11. To organize learning activities for pupils.

12. To evaluate pupil performance.

13. To determine that the curriculum contains balance and sequence.

APPENDIX C

NEEDS ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR

TEACHER WORKSHOPS

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts
University of Massachusetts
Amherst 01003

Dear Educators,

Within a few weeks you will be attending a workshop
or workshops on curriculum development. Prior to the
first meeting, some information is needed. Would you
please take a few minutes and fill out the attached
needs assessment questionnaire? The purpose of the
questionnaire is to find out what you already know about
curriculum, so that the workshops can be best structured
to meet your needs.

Please answer carefully. Any comments that you
wish to make concerning your feelings about, or experiences
with, curriculum development can be included on the
questionnaire.

The questionnaires must be returned, within three
days, to the person who is locally coordinating the workshops
so that there is adequate time to use the information in
a positive way for the workshops.

Please bring an example of curriculum that you are
currently using with you to the workshop: either a district
curriculum guide or a textbook (teacher's edition) currently
being used.

I am looking forward to seeing you at the first
workshop.

                                        Sincerely,

                                        Sue Holloman
                                        Workshop Director

NEEDS ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE
CURRICULUM WORKSHOPS

Name_____Grade_____

School_____School System_____

_____

        The following items are designed to provide information that will be used to individualize the workshops on curriculum development that you will be attending. The results of the questionnaire will be used to structure the workshops in such a way that the needs demonstrated through the answers on the questionnaire will receive the most attention during the workshops.

_____

Please check the following:

1. Have you ever participated in curriculum development projects?

    Yes_____No_____

2. If yes, please answer the following (A through E)

    a. Did you feel knowledgeable enough about curriculum to feel that you could do a good job in constructing curriculum?

        Yes_____No_____Don't Know_____

    b. Did you follow a plan for your curriculum development?

        Yes_____No_____Don't Know_____

    c. Do you feel that the curriculum that you helped develop was successful?   Yes_____No_____Don't Know_____

    d. Is the curriculum still in use?   Yes_____No_____
Don't Know_____

    e. Did you enjoy your participation in curriculum development?

        Yes_____No_____

3. Have you ever written objectives for curriculum development?

    Yes_____No_____

4. Have you written criterion-referenced tests?   Yes_____
No_____Don't Know_____

On the next two pages are 18 statements concerning curriculum.
Please circle the number next to the statement that best describes
your familiarity with the statements.

   1   Not familiar

   2   Somewhat familiar

   3   Familiar

   4   Very familiar

   5   Extremely familiar

---

1. The various definitions for curriculum held by
    people who work with curriculum (Tyler, Taba, etc.)   1   2   3   4   5

2. The uses of data sources (society, learner,
    subject matter) in curriculum development   1   2   3   4   5

3. The aims that society holds for education
    as they apply to curriculum development.   1   2   3   4   5

4. The effect that community values have on
    education.   1   2   3   4   5

5. The effect that the material resources of your
    school and community have on the curriculum.   1   2   3   4   5

6. The use of educational philosophy as it applies
    to the selection of educational objectives.   1   2   3   4   5

7. The uses of learning theories in curriculum
    development as they apply to the selection of
    educational objectives.   1   2   3   4   5

8. The impact that "hidden" curriculum has on
    curricular decision making and actions.   1   2   3   4   5

9. The effects that class and school organization
    (including promoting, group and classifying
    procedures) have on curriculum decisions.   1   2   3   4   5

10. The methods of diagnosing the needs of the
    learners for curriculum development.   1   2   3   4   5

1   Not familiar

2   Somewhat familiar

3   Familiar

4   Very familiar

5   Extremely familiar

---

11. The methods of selecting appropriate subject
    matter content for learneers.   1 2 3 4 5

12. The methods of formulating instructional
    objectives for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

13. The methods of selecting appropriate learning
    experiences for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

14. The methods of designing learning experiences
    for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

15. The methods of organizing learning experiences
    for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

16. The methods of evaluating pupil performance.   1 2 3 4 5

17. The significant features of curriculum (objec-
    tives, learning opportunities, goals, etc.).   1 2 3 4 5

18. The models for curriculum currently in use
    (Tyler, Taba, Walker, etc.).   1 2 3 4 5

Please feel free to make any comments about your curriculum
experiences at the bottom of this page.

        Thank you for your cooperation.

                                        Sue Holloman
                                        Workshop Director

Comments:

APPENDIX D

POST-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR

TEACHER WORKSHOPS

Dear Educator:

You have completed the workshops on curriculum development. The following is a questionnaire that I would like you to fill out. The results will enable me to further improve the workshops for other teachers. Please answer carefully.

Thank you,

Sue Holloman
Workshop Director

Name _____Grade _____

School _____School System _____

_____

Please check the following:

1. Do you feel knowledgeable enough about curriculum to feel that you could do a good job in constructing curriculum?

    Yes_____   No_____   Don't Know _____

2. Did you feel that these workshops gave you helpful information about curriculum?

    Yes_____   No_____   Don't Know_____

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On the next   pages are 18 statements concerning curriculum.
Please circle the number next to the statement that best
describes your familiarity with the statements.

1. Not familiar
2. Somewhat familiar
3. Familiar
4. Very familiar
5. Extremely familiar

Below each question a space is provided for comments. Please
include any specific information that you learned as a result
of the workshops.

1. The various definitions for curriculum held by
    people who work with curriculum (Tyler, Taba, etc.)   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments:_____
    _____

2. The uses of data sources (society, learner, sub-
    ject matter) in curriculum development.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____
    _____

3. The aims that society holds for education as they
    apply to curriculum development.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____
    _____

4. The effect that community values have on education.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____
    _____

5. The effect that the material resources of your
    school and community have on the curriculum.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments _____
    _____

6. The use of educational philosophy as it applies
    to the selection of educational objectives.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____
    _____

7. The uses of learning theories in curriculum
    development as they apply to the selection of   1 2 3 4 5
    educational objectives.
    Comments_____

    _____

8. The impact that "hidden" curriculums has on cur-
    riculum decision making and actions.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____

    _____

9. The effects that class and school organization
    (including promoting, group and classifying   1 2 3 4 5
    procedures) have on curriculum decisions.
    Comments_____

    _____

10. The methods of diagnosing the needs of the
    learners for curriculum development.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____

    _____

11. The methods of selecting appropriate subject
    matter content for learners.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comment_____

    _____

12. The methods of formulating instructional objec-
    tives for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____

    _____

13. The methods of selecting appropriate learning
    experiences for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____

    _____

14. The methods of designing learning experiences
    for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____

    _____

15. The methods of organizing learning experiences
    for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments _____

    _____

16. The methods of evaluating pupil performance.
    Comments_____   1 2 3 4 5
    _____

17. The significant features of curriculum (objec-
    tives, learning opportunities, goals, etc.).   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments_____
    _____

18. The models for curriculum currently in use
    (Tyler, Taba, Walker, etc.).   1 2 3 4 5
    Comments _____
    _____

Please feel free to make any comments about your experiences

at the curriculum workshops at the bottom of this page.

                    Thank you for your cooperation,

                    Sue Holloman
                    Workshop Director

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT BY TEACHERS

April 8, 1979

Dear Teachers,

I would really appreciate it if you would take a
few minutes and work on this questionnaire for me. This
is a first draft of the questionnaire that I am using as
part of my workshops. I'm doing the workshops with teachers
in various communities around the state and I am anxious
that these questionnaires be clear so that I get back data
that will be helpful for my dissertation.

Would you please mark, on the questionnaire, any
unclear words, ambiguous statements, statements that were
worded in a way that didn't make sense, unclear directions,
and anything else that you feel that I should know. Would
you please answer the questions so that I will have a "feel"
for other teacher responses.

Please return these to the office this week. I need
to revise the questionnaire as soon as possible, as the
workshops begin in two weeks.

Thank you for your help. Please be honest with your
comments. Revisions are easy to make now and improved
questionnaires will result in better workshops for
teachers.

Sincerely,

Sue Holloman

NEEDS ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE
CURRICULUM WORKSHOPS

Name_____School_____

School System_____Grade_____

_____

The following items are designed to provide information that will be used to individualize the workshops on curriculum development that you will be attending. The results of the questionnaire will be used to structure the workshops in such a way that the needs demonstrated through the answers on the questionnaire will receive the most attention during the workshops.

_____

Please check the following:

1. Have you ever participated in curriculum development project?

   Yes_____ No_____

2. If yes, please answer the following (A through E)

   a. Did you feel knowledgeable enough about curriculum to feel that you could do a good job in constructing curriculum?

      Yes_____ No_____ Don't Know_____

   c. Do you feel that the curriculum that you helped develop was successful? Yes_____ No_____ Don't Know_____

   d. Is the curriculum still in use? Yes_____ No_____ Don't Know_____

   e. Did you enjoy your participation in curriculum development?

      Yes_____ No_____

3. Have you ever written objectives for curriculum?

   Yes_____ No_____

On the next page are 18 statements concerning curriculum. Please circle the number next to the statement that best describes your familiarity with the statements.

1	Not familiar				
2	Somewhat familiar				
3	Familiar				
4	Very familiar				
5	Extremely familiar				

1. The various definitions for curriculum held by people who work with curriculum (Tyler, Tabe, etc.).   1 2 3 4 5

2. The uses of data sources (society, learner, subject matter) in curriculum development.   1 2 3 4 5

3. The aims that society holds for education.   1 2 3 4 5

4. The values that your community holds for education.   1 2 3 4 5

5. The effect that the material resources of your school and community have on the curriculum.   1 2 3 4 5

6. The use of educational philosophy as it applies to the selection of educational objectives.   1 2 3 4 5

7. The uses of learning theories in curriculum development as they apply to the selection of educational objectives.   1 2 3 4 5

8. The impact that "hidden" curriculum has on curricular decision making and actions.   1 2 3 4 5

9. The effects that class and school organization (including promoting, group and classifying procedures) have on curriculum decisions.   1 2 3 4 5

10. The methods of diagnosing the needs of the learners for curriculum development.   1 2 3 4 5

11. The methods of selecting appropriate subject matter content for learners.   1 2 3 4 5

12. The methods of formulating instructional objectives for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

13. The methods of selecting appropriate learning experiences for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

14. The methods of designing learning experiences for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

15. The methods of organizing learning experiences for pupils.   1 2 3 4 5

16. The methods of evaluating pupil performance.   1 2 3 4 5

	1	Not familiar
	2	Somewhat familiar
	3	Familiar
	4	Very familiar
	5	Extremely familiar

---

17. The significant features of curriculum (objectives, learning opportunities, goals, etc.).   1 2 3 4 5

18. The models for curriculum currently in use (Tyler, Taba, Walker, etc.).   1 2 3 4 5

Please feel free to make any comments about your experiences.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sue Holloman

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHER WORKSHOPS

Interview Questions

1. Do you have a personal definition of curriculum?

2. Did you have one before the workshops?

3. Did your definition change as a result of the workshops?

    If yes, how?

4. Were you aware of the wide range of curriculum definitions prior to attending the workshops?

5. Would you please explain the uses of data sources for curriculum development?

6. How does society's aim for education affect curriculum development?

7. Do the values that your community had affect your curricular decisions?

8. Is there an effect on your curriculum due to the available resources of your community?

9. Why is educational philosophy useful in selecting educational objectives?

10. Why is knowledge of learning theories helpful in the selection of educational objectives?

11. Can you name some "hidden" curriculum that operates in your school?

12.   How has this "hidden" curriculum affected your
      actual curriculum?

13.   Does class and school organization affect curricu-
      lum?

      In what ways?

14.   Is it important to understand the needs of the
      learners?

15.   How are the needs of the learner diagnosed?

16.   What is the best method for selecting appropriate
      subject matter for the learners?

17.   What are the characteristics of instructional
      objectives?

18.   Do you feel knowledgeable concerning writing
      instructional objectives for learners?

19.   On what basis are learning experiences selected,
      designed and organized? Please explain.

20.   What types of evaluation are possible for pupil
      performance?

21.   What are the significant features of curriculum?

22.   Can you identify the characteristics of some models
      for curriculum that are currently in use?

23. Do you feel that you have more knowledge about
     curriculum development than you did when you
     began the workshops?

24. What sections of the workshops can be improved
     for future participants?

APPENDIX G

HAND-OUTS FOR TEACHER IN-SERVICE WORKSHOPS

UNDERSTANDING CURRICULUM FUNDAMENTALS

A Program for Teachers

Presented by:

Sue Holloman
Center for Curriculum Studies
University of Massachusetts

CURRICULUM DEFINITIONS

The word "curriculum" comes from a Latin root meaning "racecourse" and frequently the school's curriculum represents something like that. Curriculum is often thought of as a relatively standard ground that is to be covered by students as they race to the finish. Many current concepts of curriculum, then, are grounded firmly in the notion that curriculum is a racecourse of subjects to be mastered.[1]

Those who work with curriculum and have spent "lifetimes" pondering the meaning of curriculum do not necessarily agree with the concept of curriculum being a straightforward "race" by students with subject matter being the only ingredient. Curriculum workers have yet to settle on a single definition of curriculum. The range is sweeping. The selection of definitions developed by selected theorists is presented here. As you read the definitions, compare your definition with the various theorists.

James Macdonald's definition is precise and definite. He says that curriculum is "a plan for instruction."[2]

At the other extreme, George Beauchamp defines curriculum as all of the experiences that occur under the jurisdiction of the school.[3]

---

[1]Robert S. Zais, Curriculum, Principles and Foundations (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1976), pp. 6-7.

[2]Daniel Tanner and Laurel N. Tanner, Curriculum Development (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1975), p. 6.

[3]George A. Beauchamp, Curriculum Theory (Wilmette, IL: The Kagg Press, 1961), p. 34.

CURRICULUM DEFINITIONS

John Goodlad looks at the definition of curriculum from a variety of perspectives. For the student, curriculum is what he perceives to be intended for him in courses and classes. For the teacher, it is what he intends for the students so that they change their behavior. For teachers and administrators, it is the whole body of courses offered by the institution, including organized play, dramatics, etc. For citizens and policy makers, it is the body of educational offerings, and for philosophers or educational reformers, the curriculum might be the learnings to which a student should be exposed.[4]

Hilda Taba's definition states, "A curriculum is a plan for learning; therefore, what is known about the learning process and the development of the individual has bearing on the shaping of the curriculum."[5]

Smith, Stanley and Shores definition says that curriculum is "...sequence of potential experiences set up in a school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting."[6]

---

[4]John I. Goodlad, "The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction," U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, P. 11.

[5]Hilda Taba, Curriculum Development (New York: Harcourt Brace & World, 1962), p. 11.

[6]B. O. Smith, William O. Stanley and J. Harlan Shores, Fundamentals of Curriculum Development (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1957), p. 3.

CURRICULUM DEFINITIONS

Sinclair and Ghory view curriculum as "both external and perceived environmental conditions for learning." The external aspects of curriculum are the physical, social, and intellectual conditions that shape and reinforce behavior. They caution that although many writers have described the learning environment as a powerful determinant of pupil behavior, not all of the schools' environment should be considered curriculum. Sinclair and Ghory reserved the term "curriculum" for the environmental ingredients that have been deliberately shaped to create a context for learning.[7]

Is there a correct definition for curriculum. Most curriculum theorists do not think so, but they believe that it is important for those who are working with curriculum at a school or district level to be aware of the varieties of definitions and to have some general agreement for their own working definition.

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[7] Robert L. Sinclair and Ward J. Ghory, "Curriculum As Environments for Learning: A Practical Meaning and Model." Paper presented at AERA, San Francisco, April, 1979.

LEVELS OF CURRICULUM DECISION MAKING

Societal
Decisions made by boards and legislators at local, state and federal levels of government.

Institutional
Decisions primarily the responsibility of total faculty groups under the leadership of administration. At this level educational objectives are formulated and learning opportunities are suggested.

Instructional
Decisions primarily the responsibility of a teacher or team of teachers guiding a specific group of learners. It is the level closest to the learner.

ANY CURRICULUM DESIGN OR PLAN,
IF IT IS TO BECOME EFFECTIVE
IN IMPROVING CURRICULUM, MUST
MAKE EXPLICIT AND CLEAR THE
BASES UPON WHICH DECISIONS ARE
MADE.[1]

---

[1]Virgil Herrick and Ralph W. Tyler, Toward
Improved Curriculum Theory, (Chicago: The University
of Chicago Press, 1950), pp. 49-50.

DATA SOURCES FOR CURRICULUM

Subject Matter

Subject matter specialists frequently are the source
for most curriculum decisions. It is important that
their influence over the total curriculum be kept in
perspective. Ralph Tyler points out that objectives when
derived from subject matter specialists should answer
the question "What can your subject contribute to the
education of young people who are not going to be
specialists in your field."[3] Subject matter specialists
have a considerable knowledge of the specialized field
and can make an important contribution concerning
specific knowledge.

It is important that subject matter specialists
strive to keep their curriculum objectives from resulting
in a fragmented curriculum. They must look at the know-
ledge available in their field and ask how this knowledge
can contribute to solving societal problems and they
must be willing to look at inter-disciplinary and cross-
disciplinary approaches to curriculum.[4]

Hilda Taba in stressing the need for a careful look
at subject matter tells us that it is necessary to study
the subjects which compose the school program in order
to decide which intellectual skills and understandings
are important for each.

---

[3]Tyler, p. 17.

[4]Daniel Tanner and Laurel Tanner, Curriculum
Development (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.,
1975), p. 115.

DATA SOURCES FOR CURRICULUM

Subject matter, then, is a key source for educational objectives, but curriculum makers are cautioned to balance this source against the needs of the learners and the desires of society.

VALUES AS A DATA SOURCE

Some curriculum theorists believe that the ultimate
data source for curriculum is the use of values held in
the community and society. John Goodlad suggests that
a completely value-free position for selecting purposes
for schools and making curricular decisions is not only
undesirable, but impossible.

When the characteristics of society are examined
and when educational objectives are formed, the values
held will guide curriculum developers to some characteris-
tics and not to others. It is best to admit and define
these value positions at the outset of curriculum plan-
ning, so that they will openly be taken into consideration
when curriculum is being developed.

"Curriculum planning involves more than seeking
data. It involves, rather, the sensitive utilization
of values and data simultaneously."[1]

---

[1] John I. Goodlad, "The Development of a Conceptual
System for Dealing With Problems of Curriculum and
Instruction," U.S. Department of Health, Education and
Welfare, p. 28.

PHILOSOPHY

School systems generally have a formal statement
of philosophy. This statement of philosophy usually
attempts to define the nature of a good life and a good
society for it's young. This philosophy was defined
by John Dewey as "the general theory of education."[1]

Ralph Tyler feels that the uses of philosophy
are to act as a screen to separate unimportant and
contradictory objectives.[2] The objectives of the school
should match the school's philosophy.

---

[1]John Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York:
Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1916), p. 384.

[2]Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum
and Instruction (Chicago: The University of Chicago,
1950), p. 22.

PSYCHOLOGY AND LEARNING THEORIES

When objectives are being considered for inclusion into the curriculum it is important that they be screened for appropriateness through what is known about the psychology of learning. Objectives should not be written that would result in expected changes in learners that cannot be accomplished through the learning process. Knowledge about the learner and learning is relevant to making a host of curriculum decisions. A curriculum decision cannot be made adequately without knowing a good deal about learners and learning. A knowledge of children's thought processes at various age levels should determine the best time to teach any particular subject, what the sequence of these experiences should be, and how to translate what is taught into learnable experiences.[1] Therefore, objectives should not be written which are unattainable for the age child for which they are intended.

Possible objectives when checked against a theory of learning may be selected as appropriate or rejected because they are probably unattainable, inappropriate to the age level, too general or too specific, or otherwise in conflict with the psychology of learning.[2]

Psychology also tells us that learning experiences produces multiple outcomes. Curriculum makers should

---

[1]Hilda Taba, _Curriculum Development_ (New York: Harcourt Brace & World, 1962), pp. 76-77.

[2]Ralph W. Tyler, _Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction_ (Chicago: The University of Chicago, 1950), pp. 24-28.

PSYCHOLOGY AND LEARNING THEORIES

examine educational objectives to group them for the
greatest use. They should be sure that objectives
reinforce each other and are integrated so that maximum
psychological benefit of learning can be derived.

HIDDEN CURRICULUM

The hidden curriculum centers on messages received by learners from the physical, social, and intellectual environment of a school. This aspect of the curriculum includes the unstated and unplanned messages given off by the rules and traditions that are part of the way of life in a school and its classrooms. It also includes the unintended learning that results from teacher expectations for behavior and academics for the students.

The school that has clear objectives and commitment for staff and pupils will be positively affected by the hidden curriculum. A school whose objectives and commitments are hazy and indistinct will probably find themselves in a counter productive atmosphere. If the hidden curriculum of a school is at variance with the stated curriculum the message received by the learners will be one of confusion.

A school, then, must be clear in its goals for students and must ask itself if a hidden curriculum in their school could keep the goals from being fully met.[1]

For example, certain planned experiences are designed to teach children to read, but through these experiences the children can also learn to dislike reading by the atmosphere and the pressure of the reading program.

---

[1]Robert L. Sinclair, "Toward a Meaning of Curriculum," University of Massachusetts, 1976 (Mimeographed); Robert L. Sinclair and Ward J. Ghory, "Curriculum as Environments for Learning: A Practical Meaning and Model," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, April, 1976.

HIDDEN CURRICULUM

"Thus, both the experiences that teach children to
read, and those that teach dislike of reading must be
counted as part of the curriculum even though the latter
experiences were not planned for and are unintended."[2]

_____

[2]Robert S. Zais, Curriculum Principles and Founda-
tions (New York: Thomas Crowell Co., 1976), p. 8.

LEVELS OF THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN AND USEFUL ACTION WORDS FOR OBJECTIVE FORMULATION

Benjamin Bloom and his colleagues have identified six levels of the cognitive domain.[1] There are action words which are useful when objectives are written. When objectives are developed at the various levels there are certain words which are often used for each level. The following is a list of selected action words for each of the six cognitive levels.

Knowledge

to define	to distinguish	to know
to recognize	to identify	to recall
to match	to name	to select
to memorize	to label	to list

Comprehension

to translate	to transform	to illustrate
to change	to restate	to interpret
to rearrange	to demonstrate	to explain
to express	to infer	to summarize

Application

to apply	to generalize	to choose
to organize	to use	to transfer
to restructure	to classify	to dramatize

Analysis

to discriminate	to put into lists	to analyze
to compare	to diagram	to categorize
to describe	to subdivide	to differentiate

---

[1] Benjamin S. Bloom, ed., Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook I Cognitive Domain (New York: David McKay, Inc., 1964).

LEVELS OF THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN AND USEFUL ACTION WORDS
FOR OBJECTIVE FORMULATION

Synthesis

to write	to produce	to create
to originate	to design	to modify
to develop	to formulate	to construct
to compose	to plan	to manipulate

Evaluation

to judge	to evaluate	to appraise
to consider	to weigh	to rate
to conclude	to criticize[2]	

---

[2]Program Development Center of Northern California, Educational Planning Model: Programmed Course for Writing Performance Objectives (Bloomington, Indiana: Center for Dissemination of Innovative Programs, Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., 1978), pp. 29-38.

LEVELS OF THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN AND USEFUL ACTION WORDS FOR OBJECTIVE FORMULATION

Benjamin Bloom and his colleagues have identified five levels of the affective domain.[1] There are action words which are useful when objectives are written. When objectives are developed at the various levels there are certain words which are often used for each level. The following is a list of selected action words for each of the five affective levels.

Receiving

to accept   to listen
to choose   to select
to ask   to attend

Responding

to approve   to volunteer
to tell   to recite
to acclaim   to help

Valuing

to choose   to invite
to share   to appreciate
to support   to join

Organization

to formulate   to relate
to defend   to put in order
to abstract   to define

Characterization

to discriminate to complete
to behave   to practice
to serve   to verify

---

[1] R. Kathwohl, B.S. Bloom, and B. B. Masia, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II Affective Domain (New York: David McKay, 1964).

PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES

The definition of a performance objective is: a
clear, precise statement of what the learner is expected
to do by the end of a prescribed learning period. It
describes how the learner is to demonstrate competency and
how well the learner is to perform in order to demonstrate
competency.[1] In other words a performance objective must
contain:

1. What is to be done.

2. How it will be done.

3. How well it will be done.

Following are six objectives. Three are written
clearly and follow the criteria for objectives. Three are
not written correctly.

Please check the three objectives that are written in
performance terms.

_____1. To be able to repair a radio.

_____2. Given a list of 35 chemical elements, the
          learner must be able to recall and write the
          valences of at least 30.

_____3. Read the six poems listed below for the purpose
          of learning to enjoy poetry.

_____4. After class discussions and films concerning the
          Monroe Doctrine, the learner will know how the
          Doctrine has been related to the United States
          foreign policy.

---

[1]Program Development Center of Northern California,
Educational Planning Model: Curriculum Development
Manual (Bloomington, Indiana: Center for Dissemination
of Innovative Programs, Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., 1978),
p. 10.

PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES

_____5. Learners will complete a word recognition test
         after three weeks of instruction.

_____6. To be able to write a summary of the factors
         leading to the depression of 1929.

NORM AND CRITERION REFERENCED TESTS

School achievement can be measured either by a teacher or district built test or by a standardized test. A <u>norm-referenced</u> test is one that is developed by the use of standarized achievement test data which has been collected and used to provide a relative basis for the interpretation of test scores. When a standardized test is given it is possible to compare the performance of the students to a specific group of students who have taken the test before them. A national sample of students provides the norming group. We can determine whether a score is high or low by contrasting it with scores obtained by students of the same grade level in the norming group.

A <u>criterion-referenced</u> test is one that is used by a school or district to measure the achievement of students on the school's own objectives. They are typically teacher-built and designed to measure the degree of proficiency attained on a specific set of objectives.

In a norm-referenced test the major concern is: How does the individual or group compare with others? Answers to this question are most useful in insuring a minimum level of relative performance in class, school or school district. Criterion-referenced tests ask: How does the individual or group behave and what do they know? They are useful in monitoring student progress, diagnosing strengths and weaknesses, and in prescribing instruction.[1]

---

[1] Bruce W. Tuckman, <u>Measuring Education Outcomes, Fundamentals of Testing</u> (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1975), pp. 375-394.
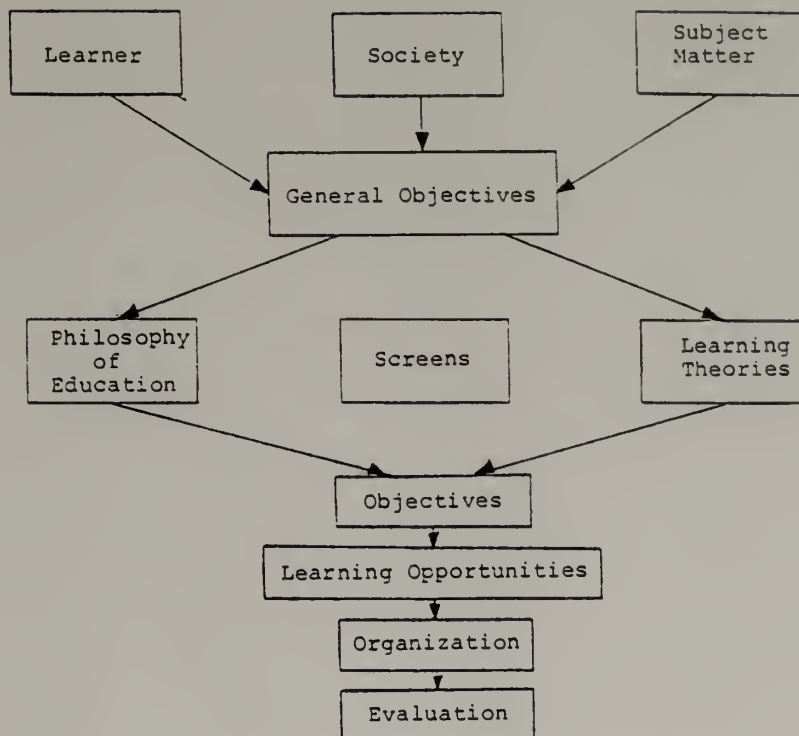
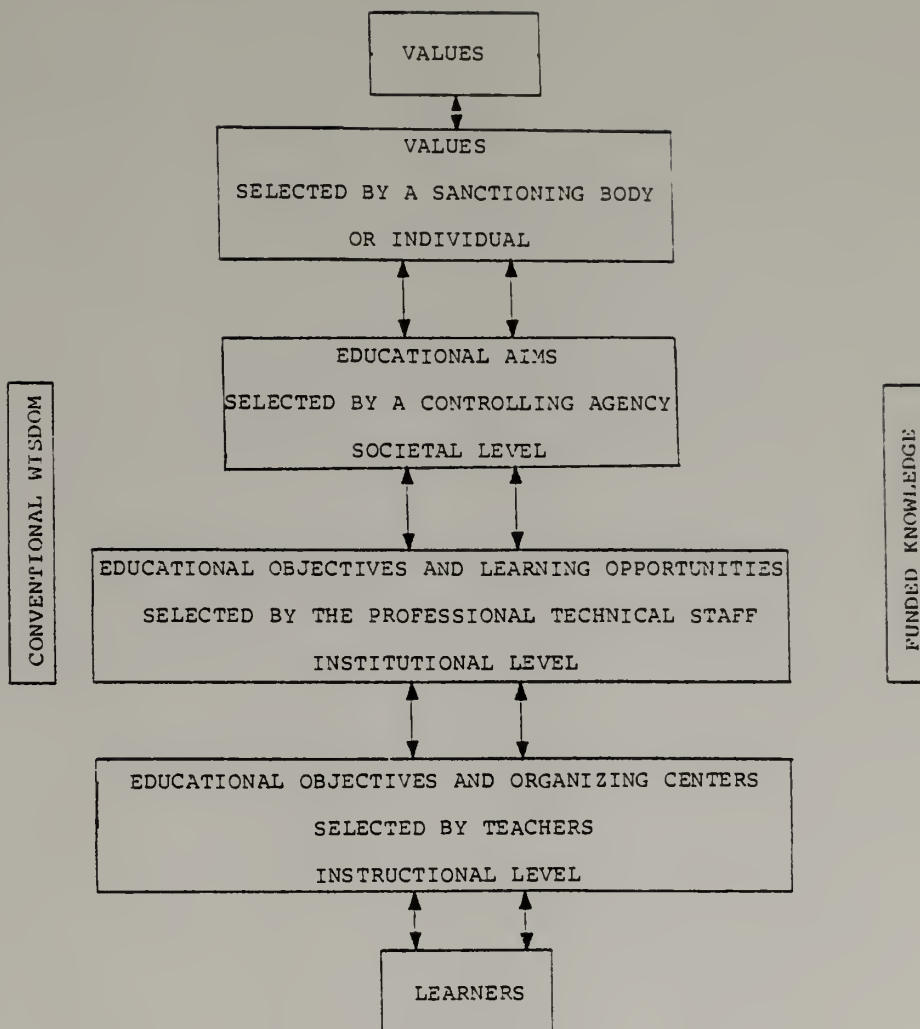Fig. 1. Ralph Tyler's method for organizing curriculum.

Fig. 2. Goodlad's curricular decisions, levels of authority and responsibility, derivations, evaluations, data sources, and transactions in a conceptual system for curriculum. Goodland, "The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction," p. 65.

Fig. 3. Decker Walker's Schematic Diagram
of the Main Components of the Naturalistic Model.
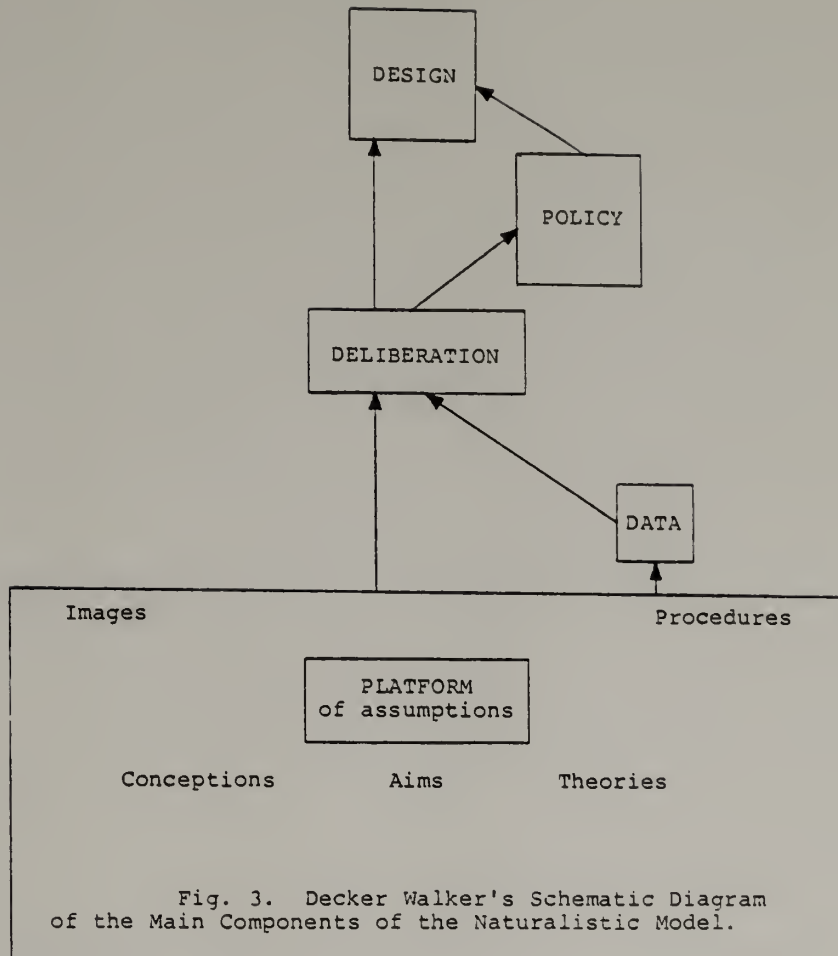
HILDA TABA'S INVERTED CURRICULUM MODEL[1]

Step One: <u>Producing Pilot Units</u>
Experimental production of pilot units by groups of
teachers. Units developed as models which illustrate the
characteristics of good curriculum. Concentrated on
limited area (one school, one subject, etc.).

Step Two: <u>Testing Experimental Units</u>
The pilot units which were created by individual teachers
for individual classrooms need to be tested in other and
different classrooms. The units can be perfected, taking
into consideration other learners and other teaching styles.

Step Three: <u>Revising and Consolidating</u>
The modifications need to be assembled and shaped into
outlines representing general curriculum for all types of
classrooms. The outlines need to be examined for con-
sistency in reflecting relevant principles and criteria.
The rationale should be consolidated and the theoretical
considerations should be examined.

Step Four: <u>Developing a Framework</u>
The units need to be examined for scope and sequence.
Curriculum specialists enter the curriculum here and check
to make sure that the general framework is clear. It is
possible that some shifting of content will take place at
this time.

Step Five: <u>Installing and Disseminating New Units</u>
This involves training large groups of teachers in the use
of the units. New teaching skills may need to be taught
at this time.

This is a process that takes place over a long period
of time rather than the usual year or so that new
curriculum usually is installed.

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[1]Hilda Taba, <u>Curriculum Development</u> (New York:
Harcourt Brace & World, 1962), pp. 457-459.

APPENDIX H

CURRICULUM WORKSHOPS WORK SHEET

CURRICULUM WORKSHOPS
WORK SHEET

Your personal definition of curriculum_____
_____
_____

Take an objective currently in use in your school's
curriculum and tell which data source was used to generate
the objective.
Objective_____

_____
Learner_____
Subject Matter_____
Society_____
Screen the objective through the following:
Community Values_____
Philosophy of School_____
Psychology and Learning Theories_____
Will the objective be affected by "hidden" curriculum?
_____

Are your school and community resources adequate for the
implementation of the objective?_____

_____
_____

What components are present in a well written curriculum?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____
_____

If you were selecting a model for curriculum, would you
select one of the presented models or design your own?__
If you selected one, which one did you select?_____
If you are designing your own, draw a quick picture of it.

APPENDIX I

LETTER TO EDUCATORS INTRODUCING IN-SERVICE

PROGRAM FOF TEACHERS

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts
University of Massachusetts
Amherst 01003

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Dear Colleague,

Many school systems encourage teachers to aid in the development of new curriculum. This is a practice which helps insure that those closest to the learner and the learner's needs, the classroom teacher, will be a part of the decision making process that results in curriculum for their students. The problem arises when these teachers have not had sufficient training in the basics of curriculum development to adequately develop quality curriculum.

A program is being developed to prepare teachers to understand selected fundamentals of curriculum development. It is designed to be presented through a series of four workshops held at the school or district level. Each workshop will center on a concept for curriculum that teachers should understand, so that when they are asked to serve on curriculum development committees they will be competent and productive. The workshops will involve the teachers: through discussion, peer teaching and practical activities, in understanding and working with curriculum concepts. These workshops will prepare teachers to understand selected basic concepts of curriculum so that they will be able to function knowledgeably at any grade level or in any subject when curriculum needs to be developed.

Through a needs assessment given to the teacher prior to the workshops, the workshops will be individualized. The workshops can be combined or extended, depending on the teacher needs for in-service work.

If you are interested in more information about these workshops for your school or district, please contact me as soon as possible.

/s/ Ms. Sue Holloman
Director, In-service
Curriculum Study
Center for Curriculum
Studies, University
of Massachusetts
Rm 429 Hills North
413-545-3642

Home: 30 Wyndward Rd.
        Longmeadow, MA 01106
        413-567-0376

APPENDIX J

DESCRIPTIVE LETTER OF IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

<u>Understanding Curriculum Fundamentals</u>

<u>Description of Program</u>

This program is designed to be a short course in the basics of curriculum. Teachers are frequently asked to serve on curriculum committees, or to make decisions concerning curriculum for their classes and find that they have not had appropriate coursework for this. This program is designed to allow teachers the opportunity to work with basic curriculum concepts. Teachers at the conclusion of the workshops should feel confident concerning their ability to be effective when the need arises to work with curriculum.

This program centers on four basic premises about curriculum. They are:

1. What is curriculum?
   Hand-outs, a slide presentation, and discussion will allow teachers to see the wide range of curriculum.
2. Where does curriculum come from?
   Through a series of worksheets, teachers will be introduced to the origins of curriculum for their community.
3. What elements does a "good" curriculum contain?
   Teachers will work with objectives, evaluation, and the learning experiences found in curriculum.
4. What kind of models for curriculum are in use today?
   A series of models for curriculum will be given to the teachers in the form of hand-outs.

At the conclusion of the workshops, teachers will be able to take an objective of their choosing through all the steps of curriculum formulation. Teachers will

have a booklet to take home containing most of the
material covered in the program.

This program is designed to be individualized so
that teachers who have demonstrated competencies in
certain skills will not be expected to complete that
section of the program.

Sue Holloman
Workshop Director

APPENDIX K

SELECTED CORRESPONDENCE FROM PARTICIPATING

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

BONDSVILLE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
61 Main Street
BONDSVILLE, MASS. 01009
Tel. 413 / 283-3961

RONALD J. LAVIOLETTE, Ed.D., Principal

June 26, 1979

Mrs. Susan Holloman
30 Windward Road
Longmeadow, Massachusetts

Dear Sue,

I want to express a sincere thank you for the workshops
you conducted for the Bondsville, Quabaug and Special
Subject teachers this past May and June.

In terms of their effectiveness, I have had feedback
from those who have participated and they are extremely
excited about utilizing some of the theories and putting
them into practice this coming year.

I shall follow up your workshops in the fall and you may
be sure that the Palmer School System will certainly
gain from the knowledge you so willingly shared with
us.

Thanks again.

Sincerely,

Ronald J. Laviolette, Ed. D.
Principal

RJL:je

Wilbraham Public Schools

WILBRAHAM, MASS. 01095

FRANCIS P. REDDINGTON, Superintendent Of Schools
LOUIS M. GIANTRIS, PHD., Assistant Superintendent For Curriculum
JOHN M. TREBBE, Director Of Business Services
TELEPHONE 413 596-3884

May 21, 1979

Ms. Sue Holloman
Workshop Director
University of Massachusetts
School of Education
Amherst, Massachusetts 01003

Dear Sue:

On behalf of the Administrative Council, I would like to thank you
for taking the time to help us to gain a better understanding of the curricu-
lum development process. I can assure you that everyone went away from the
two sessions more aware of the things they need to consider as they work with
their staff on curriculum.

Good luck as you prepare to try out this program with other teachers
and administrators. Should you require any help from us, please do not hesi-
tate to call at any time.

Sincerely,

Louis M. Giantris, Ph.D.
Assistant Superintendent

LMG:jp

cc: Administrative Council

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF WARE, MASSACHUSETTS

Peter V. Thamel, Principal

Office: Ware High School   Tel. 967-6234

May 17, 1979

Ms. Sue Holloman, Principal
Main Street School
767 Main Street
West Springfield, Mass. 01089

Dear Ms. Holloman:

Thank you for the great workshop. The evaluations have been good to excellent and I thought it was a tremendous program.

Your check will be coming in the mail shortly. Again, thanks very much.

Sincerely yours,

IN-SERVICE COMMITTEE
WARE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Peter Baltren

Carolyn Streeter

Peter V. Thamel

PVT/s