LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT*

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INTRODUCTION

Language curriculum development, like other areas of curriculum activity, is concerned with principles and procedures for the planning, management, and assessment of learning. But whereas in general educational practice, curriculum development has spawned a major educational industry, what is understood by curriculum development in language teaching has often been rather narrowly conceived. The focus has primarily been on language syllabuses rather than on the broader processes of curriculum development. Consequently there has been a relatively sparse literature on language curriculum development until recently. Such discussion that appears in the language teaching journals of the 1940s, 50s and early 60's, is primarily concerned with procedures for selecting the linguistic content of language courses. In this paper we will review issues and practices in language curriculum development and attempt to provide a framework for the discussion of current curriculum questions in language teaching.

1. THE NATURE OF CURRICULUM

Since "curriculum", "curriculum development" and "syllabus" have somewhat different meanings in British and North American

educational usage, a clarification of terms is necessary at the outset. As Stern (1983) points out, the field of curriculum studies is part of the discipline of educational studies. In both British and North American usage, in its broadest sense it refers to the study of the goals, content, implementation and evaluation of an educational system. Curriculum also has a more restricted meaning, referring to a course of study or the content of a particular course or program. Hence we talk of the "history curriculum" or the "French curriculum". In this narrower sense of curriculum, the term syllabus is often employed in British educational circles (Stern 1983: 434-5). In this paper, "language curriculum development processes" refers to needs analysis, goal setting, syllabus design, methodology, and evaluation. Syllabus design is thus viewed as one phase within a system of interrelated curriculum development activities.

1.1. The data for language curriculum development.

In language teaching, the data which serve as input to curriculum processes includes;

1. **information about the target language**; this may include both linguistic and pedagogic descriptions, data on particular varieties or registers of the target language, and information on language usage in specific contexts and settings.

2. **information about the learners**; this may include information relating to the age, sex, occupations, interests, problems, motivation, attitudes, and needs of the learners, their language profiency, and their language learning styles and preferences.

3. **information about the delivery system**; this will include data

on the context in which learning will be accomplished, such as information about the institutions, administrators, teachers, classrooms, texts, tests, resources, and timing and other characteristics of the educational system through which the program will be implemented.

4. **a learning theory;** this will specify the processes which constitute second or foreign language learning and the conditions under which it can be accomplished.

5. **a teaching theory;** this will describe principles for the selection, sequencing, and presentation of language learning experiences.

6. **assessment and evaluation procedures;** these will refer to how language proficiency and achievement will be measured, how learning difficulties and program deficiencies will be diagnosed, and how the program and its learners, teachers, curriculum and materials will be evaluated.

The goal of language curriculum development processes is to produce relevent, effective, and efficient language teaching programs. However at present no single model of language curriculum development can claim to have satisfactorily resolved the question of how these criteria are best applied in practice.

1.2 A brief historical perspective.

Since the focus of language teaching is **language,** it is not surprising that much of what has been written about curriculum issues in language teaching in the last 30 years has focussed primarily on how to specifiy the language content of a course or method. The success of language teaching was viewed as dependent

upon the quality of pedagogically motivated descriptions of the phonology, grammar and vocabulary of the target language. By the 1960s, this had resulted in (a) pedagogic grammars of English, (e.g.Zandvort (1962), Long (1961)); (b) contrastive studies of the structure of English and other languages (e.g. Stockwell and Bowen, 1975; Agard and Di Pietro, 1966); frequency counts and other lists of the core vocabulary and grammar of English (e.g. West, 1953; Hornby, 1955; Fries and Fries, 1961). The principles for the selection, sequencing and organization of learning content and experiences elaborated in Fries's The Teaching and Learning of English as a Foreign Language,(1945), Mackey's Language Teaching Analysis (1965) and in Halliday, McIntosh and Streven's The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching(1964), were considered the foundations of a scientifically based language teaching methodology. Language curriculum theory, if it was referred to at all at this period, was synonymous with the principles used to select and sequence the vocabulary and grammar underlying a text, course or method.

The major shift in perspective which current practices in language curriculum development demonstrate, reflect a movement towards functional, behaviour-based (though not **behaviourist**) and proficiency oriented views of language and language use. Such a paradigm shift, which was accompanied by the related shift towards communicative competence theory in linguistics, and towards the development of criterion referenced testing in the field of educational evaluation, is having repercussions across the whole spectrum of language curriculum development. New models of the nature of linguistic knowledge and language use and new

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theories of how linguistic communication is acquired have led to different formulations of the goals of language teaching, as well fundamental differences in the procedures used to plan, deliver and evaluate language programs.

2. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESSES.

2.1. Needs analysis.

Whereas traditionally the starting point in language curriculum development was language analysis, beginning with specification of what was teachable and learnable based on such criteria as frequency, difficulty, availability and teachability, current approaches to language curriculum development begin with needs analysis or needs assessment. The change in priorities is apparent from examining curriculum products of 20 years ago, such as Fries and Fries' Foundations for English Teaching (1961). This was a proposal for a linguistic corpus which could serve as a basis for the teaching of English in Japan.

> The effort here, then, has been to gather together the basic essentials of English structure--those structures which, if learned thoroughly, will provide a good broad and sound basis for both comprehending English as used by an educated native speaker and for producing English that will be understood by such a native speaker.(1961:2).

The Fries's corpus was the product of a method, a set of beliefs about the nature of language and language learning together with procedures for implementing these at the level of teaching technique (Richards and Rodgers:1982). No reference is made to the educational system in which the program is to be implemented, its goals and objectives, the needs of learners in that system, the teachers, or the resources and program

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constraints operating at that time in Japanese schools and colleges. While the option of having a method define the goals and content of a language course is still an available and widely practised option in language teaching (e.g. The Silent Way [Gattegno:1972;] The Natural Approach [Krashen and Terrell:1983])the concept of educational accountability has forced a more systematic approach to educational planning across the curriculum, including second and foreign language teaching. Increasingly since the 1960s, school districts have had to provide evidence that the programs they wanted funded are actually delivering the goods they promised. As Neuber expresses it;

> Increased sensitivity and accountability in the arena of human services is mandated by legislation,fiscal constraints, accreditation requirements, and emerging consumerism (1980:21).

Needs assessment is a vital part of this process of accountability, and it has developed as a response to the demand for evidence of the relevance and outcomes of educational programs. One of the earliest examples of the needs analysis approach in language curriculum development was a study of the vocational needs of Swedish grammar school graduates (Dahllof:1963). Such studies led to the demand for language courses that matched the special purposes for which many learners needed foreign languages in the real world. Despite occasional charges that needs analysis is largely a trivial and useless activity it is increasingly seen as the logical starting point in language program development.

Goals of needs analysis

> Needs assessment refers to an array of procedures for
> identifying and validating needs, and establishing prio-
> rities among them (Pratt:1980:79)

In language curriculum development, needs analysis serves the purposes of:

1. providing a mechanism for obtaining a wider range of input into the content, design and implementation of a language program through involving such people as learners, teachers, administrators and employers in the planning process;

2. identifying general or specific language needs which can be addressed in developing goals, objectives, and content, for a language program;

3. providing data which can serve as the basis for reviewing and evaluating an existing program.

In language teaching the impact of needs analysis has been greatest in the area of special purposes program design, and a considerable literature now exists on the role of needs assessment in ESP (Robinson: 1980). But needs analysis is also fundamental to the planning of general language courses.

Parameters, sources and procedures.

Needs analysis may focus on either the general paramaters of a language program (e.g. by obtaining data on who the learners are, their goals and expectations, their present level of proficiency, the teachers' competence in teaching and in the target language, teacher and learner expectations, what the constraints of time and budget are, available resources, the kinds of tests and assessment measures used, etc) or by examining a specific problem in more detail, such as the kind of listening

comprehension training needed for foreign university students attending graduate seminars in biology. Answering these questions involves obtaining data from a variety of sources, including both subjective and objective forms of assessment (Pratt:1980).

The range of persons consulted in a needs analysis will depend on who the program impacts upon: data from learners, teachers, and administrators will be needed for all language programs; in other circumstances (e.g on-arrival programs for refugees) refugees already settled in the community, future employers, health and social workers may also need to be consulted. Determining needs is not an exact science however, since it involves both quantitative and qualitative data, requires the use of a variety of formal and informal data gathering procedures, and seeks to clarify needs that may by nature be changing or imprecise. Methods employed thus vary according to setting. Investigations of language needs in industry and commerce have employed participant observation, interviews, questionnaires, content analysis of job descriptions and job advertisements, tests, role play, and analysis of communcation breakdowns (Roberts 1980; Schroder 1981). In general, the greater the number of independent measures used, the greater the validity of the data obtained. But in practice, many needs analyses are carried out on an informal basis depending on the time and resources available (cf. Richterich and Chancerel: 1977, Richterich: 1983).

Situation and discourse analysis

A major issue needs analysis addresses has to do with what the learner will eventually be required to use the language for on completion of the program. Data of this sort may be obtained from target situation analysis. This refers to procedures for identifying the settings in which the learners will be using the target language, the role relationships in which they will be involved, the medium of communication, the types of communicative events, and level of competence required in the target language (cf. Munby: 1978). This will determine the type of language skills and level of language proficiency the program should aim to deliver. In order to obtain this information Essebaggers suggests,

> field-work needs to be done to find out: (a) a description of the language needs in real situations, (b) a description of the types of tasks or activities people need to engage in in order to function in particular situations, and (c) a description of the groups and individuals who need or want to function in these situations and what their language learning ability, motivation etc is (cited in Mackay and Palmer, 1981 p.31)

It may also be necessary to determine the linguistic demands of specific communicative acts and activities. In Munby (1978), these are arrived at by a process of inference and deduction from the data obtained from the communicative needs profile (see Fig.1) A more reliable source of information is often needed, however, involving obtaining language data in the settings the learners will encounter and analyzing it for its discourse and linguistic features. The level of analysis that the language data may be subjected to will depend on how the results are expected to be applied in syllabus design or materials preparation.

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Techniques used include frequency counts of the lexical or gramm-

_____INSERT FIGURE I ABOUT HERE_____

atical features of particular types of discourse as well as

discourse and conversational analysis of particular speech

events, speech acts, and interactional acts (Candlin et.al 1974;

Palmer: 1980; Jupp and Hodlin:1975).

Objective versus subjective needs.

The procedures outlined in the previous section lead to

description of needs in behavioral and linguistic terms. For

example an analysis of the needs for English in technical

occupations in European factories produced information such as

the following;

Skill	Situation	Functions.
Listening.	Tour of a factory.	Following a guided tour of a factory or department.
	Lecture.	Understanding a lecture on technical subjects.
	Factory floor.	Following instructions for operating procedures. Understanding explanations about technical faults.
	Telephone.	Understanding telephone enquiries about dates, deliveries, etc.

                          (Deutscher Volkshochschul-verband E.V.1981)

These are needs which are external to the learner and are termed

objective needs by Richterich(1972), in that they can be

determined by the teacher or curriculum planner on the basis of

information provided. By contrast, subjective needs refers to

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Questions on factors concerning the language needed for specific purposes

Communication needs profile

STEP ONE

Selection of language skills, functions and forms required
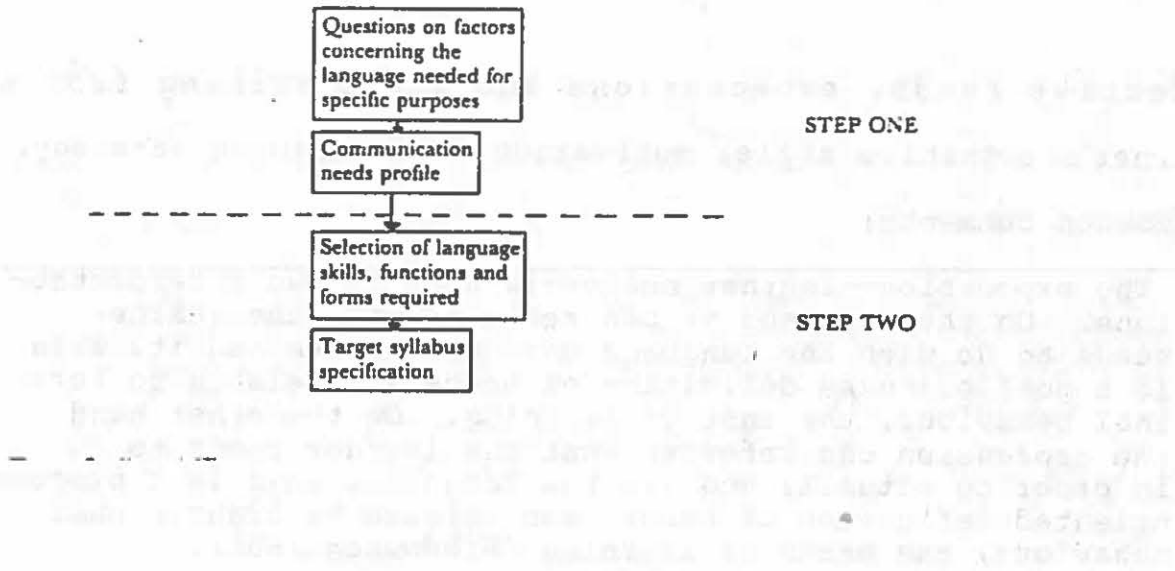
STEP TWO

Target syllabus specification

FIGURE 1: THE MUNBY PROCESSING MODEL. Munby 1978.

affective needs, expectations and wants arising from the learner's cognitive style, motivation, and learning strategy. As Widdowson comments;

> The expression--learner needs--is open to two interpretations. On the one hand it can refer to what the learner needs to do with the language once he has learned it. This is a goal oriented definition of needs and related to terminal behaviour, the ends of learning. On the other hand the expression can refer to what the learner tends to do in order to actually acquire the language. This is a process oriented definition of needs, and related to transitional behaviour, the means of learning (Widdowson 1981).

Subjective needs may be determined by observing learners engaged in learning tasks, by administering questionnaires and by interviewing learners about their preferred manner of learning, their motivations and expectations. Objectively determined definitions of needs may differ significantly from subjectively determined needs, and this may be reflected in differences between teacher and learner perceptions of,

1. course goals and objectives;

2. how the process of learning is understood;

3. what is seen as relevant content;

4. how class activities and learning experiences are evaluated;

5. the roles of teachers, learners and instructional materials (Brindley: 1983).

A curriculum specialist for example, may plan an EFL advanced writing course around concepts current in the field of writing, making use of process-based writing activities, group work, and peer feedback with minimal focus on product-based writing activities of a traditional sort. Investigation of learners' subjective needs however may reveal that they have very different

expectations as to what a writing course should be like, what the teacher's role should be, how errors should be corrected, and what they view as useful writing activities. Such information is useful in planning course objectives and activities.

Applications

The application of information obtained from needs analysis is in developing, selecting or revising program objectives. The relationship of needs analysis to subsequent phases of curriculum development is illustrated in Taba's model of curriculum processes:

Step 1: Diagnosis of needs.

Step 2: Formulation of objectives.

Step 3: Selection of content.

Step 4: Organization of content.

Step 5: Selection of learning experiences.

Step 6: Organization of learning experiences.

Step 7: Determination of what to evaluate and means to evaluate. (Taba:1962, 12).

In language program design, steps 3 and 4 correspond with what is often termed **syllabus design**, and steps 5 and 6 with what is referred to as **methodology**. A plan for stages 2 through 6, rationalized according to a particular philosophy of language and language learning, is generally referred to as a **method** if it takes the form of a prescribed set of teaching and learning procedures, derived from a specific theory of language and of the nature of second language learning. We will consider the issues raised in Taba's model under three categories: objectives (step

2), content and methodology (steps 3, 4, 5 and 6) and evaluation (step 7).

2.2. Objectives

The goals of any method or program design in language teaching are ultimately related to bringing about improvement in language proficiency. These are the long term goals or **aims** of a program or method, generally expressed in relation to listening, speaking, reading or writing skills. Even those who believe in grammar translation, pattern practice, or the memorization of word lists, ultimately justify such activities in terms of how they are believed to contribute to improvement in language proficiency. The fact that the concept of proficiency is an elusive one, together with the inadequate state of knowledge about the acquisition of language proficiency, accounts for the current lack of agreement in approaches to language curriculum development and methodology.

Language proficiency is generally conceived of as a multidimensional activity which relates to the ability to use language in a number of specific ways (Farhady;1982). Stern describes L2 proficiency as comprising,

" (a) the intuitive mastery of the **forms** of the language;
(b) the intuitive mastery of the linguistic, cognitive, affective, and sociocultural **meanings** expressed by the language forms;
(c) the capacity to use the language with maximum attention to **communication** and minimum attention to form;
(d) the **creativity** of language use" (Stern 1983, 346).

Proficiency, however described, refers to a product or result of successful language acquisition, and since it represents a very

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general concept, needs to be operationalized in making decisions about content and procedure in teaching. This is done through the development of program goals or **objectives**. In language teaching, a number of different ways of stating objectives are commonly employed, variations in practice reflecting different perceptions of the nature of second or foreign language proficiency. Current apporaches include behavioural, process, content, and proficiency based objectives.

Behavioral objectives

According to Mager, behavioural objectives should have three characteristics:

(1) they must unambiguously describe the behaviour to be performed;

(2) they must describe the conditions under which the performance will be expected to occur;

(3) they must state a standard of acceptable performance--the **criterion** (Mager 1962).

Influenced both by linguistic constructs such as "communicative competence" and educational philosophies such as "competency-based instruction", several attempts have been made to plan language programs around the use of behavioural objectives. The Council of Europe's **Threshold Level** specifications - (guidelines for language programs aiming at functional language skills in European settings) - includes behavioural specifications along with other forms of specifying curriculum goals (Van Ek:1977). Findlay and Nathan (1980) further develop the Threshold level objectives in developing behavioural objectives for use in a competency based curriculum. They make

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use of behavioural objectives as statements of minimal competencies for functional communication. For example objectives for a "common core" program include;

"Given an oral request, the learner will say his/her name, address and telephone number to a native speaker of English and spell his/her name, street and city so that an interviewer may write down the data with 100% accuracy."

"Given oral directions for a 4-step physical action, the learner will follow the directions with 100% accuracy".

Objectives for an ESP course for clerical workers include;

"Given a letter with 10 proofreading marks for changes, the learner will rewrite the letter with 90% accuracy in 10 minutes".

"Given the first and last names of 10 persons, 5 with Spanish surnames and five with English surnames from a local telephone directory, the learner will locate the names and write down the telephone numbers in 15 minutes with 90% accuracy".
                              (Findlay and Nathan:1980.226).

Process related objectives

Strict behavioural objectives are not commonly employed in language teaching programs however. An alternative is to use specifications of processes which underly fluency in specific skill areas, as objectives. For example Nuttall (1983) presents objectives for an intensive reading program in the following form;

After completing a reading course, the student will:
(a) Use skimming when appropriate to ensure that he reads only what is relevant and to help subsequent comprehension.
(b) Make use of non-text information (especially diagrams etc) to supplement the text and increase understanding.
(c) Read in different ways according to his purpose and the tope of text.
(d)Not worry if he does not understand every word, except when complete accuracy is important.
(e) Recognize that a good writer chooses his words carefully, and would have meant something different if he had chosen A rather than B.
(f) Make use of the reference system, discourse markers, etc,

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to help himself unravel the meaningof difficult passages;

Content- related objectives

Many language programs specify objectives in the form of the linguistic or communicative content which will be covered. In most commercial language teaching texts and courses, the objectives often assume little more than mastery of the content of the text, and this is the way objectives are presented in many language programs, particularly those organized around grammatical or other kinds of linguistic syllabuses. Sometimes content may be described in terms of topics and functions, and objectives related to function or topic areas. For example **Threshold Level English** includes specifications for 14 topic areas.

House and home	Learners should be able to discuss where and under what conditions they and others live, specifically;
types of accomodation;	describe the type of house, flat etc in which they live themselves, as well as those in the neighbourhood, seek similar information from others;
accomodation, rooms;	describe their own accomodation, house, flat, etc, and the rooms in in it, seek similar information from others; ....etc"

(Van Ek and Alexander:1980, 29)

Lists of functions, often related to specific situations or settings, are also commonly employed. For example a syllabus guide for Australian migrants being taught English for industry lists "core needs".

To ask;
    someone to lend you something
    someone to passsomething that's out of reach

To ask for;
    change in deductions

change in holiday dates
                          change in shift
                          help from workmates when the job is too much for
                          one person
                          etc   (Macpherson and Smith: 1979)

Proficiency-related objectives

    A program may specify objectives in the form of a level of

proficiency, such as "survival English", or "Level 3 on the

Foreign Service Oral Proficiency Scale". An example of the use of

proficiency based objectives in large scale language program

design is the Australian Adult Migrant Education On-Arrival

Program, a program for immigrants (Ingram 1982).

    In order to ensure that a language program is coherent and
systematically moves learners along the path towards that level
of proficiency they require, some overall perspective of the
development path is required. This need resulted ....in the
development of the Australian Second Language Proficiency Ratings
(ASLRP). The ASLRP defines levels of second language proficiency
at nine (potentially twelve) points along the path from zero to
native-like proficiency. The definitions provide detailed
descriptions of language behaviour in all four macroskills and
allow the syllabus developer to perceive how a course at any
level fits into the total pattern of proficiency development
(Ingram:1982, 66).

Likewise instruments such as The Foreign Service Institute Oral

Interview (a scale which contains five levels of oral proficiency

supplemented by ratings for accent, grammar, vocabulary and

fluency) can be used to not only assess proficiency for

diagnostic or placement purposes but also to establish levels of

proficiency as program objectives. The American Council on the

Teaching of Foreign Languages in 1982 published Provisional

Proficiency Guidelines,

      a series of descriptions of proficiency levels for speaking
      listening, reading, writing, and culture in a foreign
      language. These guidelines represent a graduated sequence
      of steps that can be used to structure a foreign-language
      program (Liskin-Gasparro:1984 11).

However Ingram and others have stressed that proficiency descriptions complement rather than replace the use of program objectives, since particularly at the lower levels, they tend to resemble profiles of incompetence and hence are hardly suitable as statements of objectives (Brindley 1983:39).

The lack of a consensus on the role and nature of objectives in language teaching reflects different perceptions of the relationship between objectives, content, and methodology. Objectives are sometimes viewed in relation to linguistic content, and sometimes seen as behavioural or performance outcomes. Critics of the use of behavioural objectives have pointed out that language teaching goals include reference to attitudes and learning processes, in addition to linguistic skills. They argue that observable behaviour and exact criteria of performance are not easily stated for many aspects of language knowledge. The behavioural objective approach likewise assumes that every learning outcome is under the control of the teacher and his/her bank of objectives. The use of proficiency scales derived from empirical studies of learner performance on actual real world tasks meets some of the objections raised against the impracticality of the use of objectives, but at present the development and validation of proficiency scales is still in its infancy (cf Higgs 1984: Higgs and Clifford 1982).

On the other hand few language programs or methods operate without explicit or implicit objectives. Where the program fails to make objectives explicit, teachers and learners have to infer

objectives from the syllabus, materials, or classroom activities. Teachers hence typically understand objectives merely to refer to what they intend to cover in class, either as instructional goals (e.g. "to develop learners' confidence in speaking"), as course descriptions (e.g. "to concentrate on listening skills"), or as descriptions of the material they intend to cover (e.g. "to cover chapter three of Strategies")(Brindley 1983). Without clear statements of objectives, questions of content, methodology, and evaluation cannot be systematically addressed.

2.3. Content and Methodology

In Taba's original formulation, curriculum development proceeds from the specification of objectives, to selection and organization of content, to selection and organization of teaching and learning experiences. Language curriculum practices this century have reflected a variety of different approaches to the question of content and methodology. Some curriculum models and teaching methods are primarily **content oriented**, and see the language syllabus as the fundamental basis for methodology. Others are primarily concerned with **instructional processes** and operate without an explicit language syllabus. Let us consider these two options and their implications for language curriculum development.

The Linguistic Syllabus and the Language Curriculum

The concept of a language syllabus has been fundamental in the development of language teaching practices in the twentieth century. In the work of British EFL specialists such as Palmer, West, Hornby and French, and American specialists such as

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Travers, Fries, and Lado, questions concerning the linguistic content of a language program were considered primary. This led to the vocabulary and grammatical studies of the 20s and 30s which culminated in the development of the first lexical and grammatical syllabuses for teaching English as a second or foreign language. The result was the syllabus movement. Structural and lexical syllabuses were prepared which specified the essential grammar and vocabulary a language course should cover, and the order in which it should be presented. A properly constructed syllabus was believed to **assure** successful learning, since it represented a linguistically and psycholinguistically optimal introduction to English.

The view that the content of a language course can be defined in terms of a linguistic syllabus underlies many method statements in language teaching. It is implicit in the ideas of such people as Asher and Gattegno, and also underlies the older audiolingual and audiovisual methods. An alternative view of the linguistic content of a language course is seen in the **Notional-Functional** syllabus and the **English for Specific Purposes** approach to language program design. The Notional syllabus, proposed by Wilkins, redefined the language content needed when English is taught for general communicative purposes, to include not only grammar and vocabulary but the notions and concepts the learner needs to communicate about. In ESP approaches to program design the content of the syllabus derives from a needs analysis of the learner's specific communicative requirements.

Structural-Situational, Aural-Oral, Audiolingual, Notional-Functional and most ESP approaches to language teaching share the

fact that they include content specification and syllabus design as a fundamental process in language curriculum development. They each make concrete proposals for a language syllabus, and the syllabus forms the basis for subsequently determined instructional procedures. The direction of development is from OBJECTIVES to CONTENT to METHODOLOGY. In such a model, methodology is concerned with choosing learning experiences, activities and tasks which will lead to mastery of the linguistic content of the syllabus, and at the same time attain the objectives of the language program. While language curriculum development may follow such procedures, this sequence of events is by no means inevitable. There are curriculum models as well as method options in language teaching which operate without a pre-specified corpus of language content (i.e, a syllabus) and which see instructional theory and learning processes as fundamental organizing principles for the language curriculum. We will refer to these options as process-oriented alternatives.

Process oriented alternatives in the language curriculum

An alternative to planning methodology in language teaching around a pre-specified linguistic corpus, is to develop methodology directly from an appropriate instructional theory. In the field of language teaching such theories typically contain an account of underlying processes in second or foreign language acquisition, identification of the conditions that need to be met in order for these processes to be used effectively, and a specification of relevant teaching and learning tasks and activities. An explicit pre-specified linguistic syllabus may not

be employed, since the mastery of linguistic content is viewed as the outcome of the teaching process.

Current method options in language teaching which can be classified as responses to innovations at the level of instructional theory rather than at the level of the language syllabus, include Silent Way, The Natural Approach, Counseling Learning, and Total Physical Response. Asher's Total Physical Response, for example, is designed to provide language learning experiences that reduce the stress and anxiety adults experience in foreign language learning. "The task is to invent or discover instructional strategies that reduce the intense stress that students experience" (Asher 1977:2). One of the primary conditions for success is through relating language production to physical actions. His method does not pre-determine content. It does not depend on published materials, but allows the teacher to develop her own syllabus and materials, following the recommended instructional procedures.

Curran's Counseling Learning is likewise predicated upon assumptions about how people best learn. It is based on Currans "whole-person" model of learning, and is an application of group counselling procedures. Curran saw the problems of adult foreign language learning as resulting from emotional or affective barriers created by learners, and his method is designed to counter the anxiety and negative emotions of defense assumed to impede foreign language learning by adults. As with Total Physical Response, there is no predetermined syllabus nor

materials in Curran's method. Specific linguistic or communicative objectives are not provided, which means it is ultimately a teacher-dependent approach in which procedure, rather than content, is specified.

Language curriculum models which move from objectives directly to instructional procedures without pre-specifying the linguistic content to be taught in the form of a linguistic syllabus, include nationally implemented curriculum projects such as the Malaysian Communicational Syllabus (1975), which is one of the first large scale language curriculum projects in which activities, tasks and classroom procedures are specified in place of the usual inventories of functions, notions, topics, grammar and vocabulary. It was derived from a needs analyses of the English language needs of Malaysian school leavers. Some 24 general objectives were then developed. For example,

        follow and understand a talk on specific topics;
        follow and understand a conversation or discussion on
        day-to-day matters;
        make a telephone call and converse through that medium;
        verbally or in writing report on an incident, a process,
        a discussion etc;
        read for information and pleasure from various sources;
                (Malaysian English Language Syllabus:1975 v-vi).

The syllabus then goes on to specify a number of language "products" or tasks and suggests strategies for realizing them. The level at which the tasks are to be accomplished is also suggested. Procedures suggested for classroom use include various kinds of communicative tasks, activities, role plays and simulations and the syllabus provides sample situations as a guide to the teacher. No language, however, is specified. For example, under the product "Description of visually perceived

information", 18 sample situations are given as suggestions around which the teacher can organize classroom activities:

A friend receives a postcard from his family in England care of your address. As he is staying with another friend, you decide to telephone him to tell him about the post-card. At his request, relay the message on the postcard and describe the picture on the reverse side to him.

A foreign visitor has expressed interest in a poster showing local tourist attractions. Describe the attract-ions as shown on the poster.
(Malaysian English Language Syllabus:1975 36)

In reality, the task of choosing the language content needed to realize such tasks falls on the classroom teacher and textbook writer.

A curriculum which specifies procedures, activities, and tasks, rather than linguistic content, is sometimes refered to as employing a task-based on process-based syllabus (Prabhu 1983), Candlin (1983), Long (1983). It specifies interactional and communicative processes as primary organizing principles for language teaching, rather than language content per se. Long (1983) suggests that the concept of task can be used both to identify learners' needs, organize the syllabus, organize language acquisition opportunities, and measure student achievement, and that such an approach obviates the need for linguistic-syllabuses of the traditional sort. Prahbu argues,

The focus here for the course designer is entirely on what to do in the classroom, not on what (piece of language) to teach; and the only syllabus that is compatible with such teaching and can be supportive to it is a specification not of language items but of kinds of classroom activity--that is to say, a process-based syllabus.(Prabhu 83, 2).

Such an approach is contrasted with a "product" oriented model, that is, one which is organized around language content. The resulting syllabus "would expect to be concerned as much with the

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learning experiences it offered to learners as with the subject matter content of those experiences" (Candlin 1983:9). Candlin suggests that such a syllabus might be realized through the use of a series of problem-solving tasks which involve a focus both on language, how it is learned, and how it is used communicatively. In the context of general curriculum theory, Stenhouse (1975) discusses the process-model of curriculum design as an alternative to the standard Means-Ends model, and suggests that it offers an alternative to pre-specifying learning outcomes in the form of objectives (Stenhouse:1975,74-97).

Methodology

In language curriculum development, two views of the relationship between objectives, selecting and organizing content and selecting and organizing learning experiences are found, and this has had a significant impact on the history of language teaching methods (cf, Richards 1984). Despite such differences in how the question of language content will be addressed in the language curriculum, all methodological practices in language teaching contain similar underlying components. These are;

1. a linguistic dimension, which serves as a justification for what aspects of language will be taught;

2. a psycholinguistic dimension, which includes (a) a theory of the processes presumed to underlie and account for different language skills and abilities, such as those involved in "listening to a lecture", "listening to conversation", "extensive reading", "intensive reading", "expository writing", "carrying on a conversation", etc; (b) a theory of how such skills and

abilities are acquired, i.e. a theory of second/foreign language acquisition. This specifies both the nature of language acquisition processes and the conditions necessary for successful use of these processes.

3. a teaching dimension, which includes (a) a description of learning experiences, activities and tasks which relate to the the above processes, and (b) an account of the role of teachers, learners, and instructional materials in the learning system.

Various attempts have been made to examine methodology in language teaching from a broader perspective than that of particular methods. Mackey's approach (Mackey 1965) was in terms of the content, organization, presentation and repetition of items in the materials themselves, and the concepts of selection and gradation owe much to Mackey's analytic framework. Bosco and Di Pietro (1970) make use of a taxonomy of eleven features to analyze methods, three of which deal with linguistic content and organization and eight of which deal with teaching and learning assumptions. In Richards and Rodgers (1982), methods are analyzed according to how they respond to issues at three interrelated levels of conceptualization, organization and technique. At the level of **approach**, assumptions, beliefs and theories about the nature of language and language learning operate as the theoretical foundations for the method.   These are operationalized at the level of **design** in terms of the objectives the method seeks to attain, the type of syllabus it employs, the types of learning activities and tasks made use of, and the role of teachers, learners and instructional materials in the

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instructional system. At the level of **procedure**, techniques and procedures used to present and practice language within a unit of instruction are detailed.

Models for the analysis of methods seek to identify the fundamental principles underlying all methods. **Methodology** in language curriculum development is concerned with the principles underlying instructional practices in language teaching, including those which lead to particular methods. But actual classroom practices cannot be validly inferred from the philosophy or theory underlying a method or methodology. Empirical study of classroom processes and practices is necessary to determine exactly what constitutes the instructional process itself. Differences between teaching methods at the level of classroom procedures and processes have been found to be much less significant than is commonly supposed. Swaffar, Arens and Morgan (1982) for example, conducted a study of differences between what they term rationalist and empiricist approaches to foreign language instruction. By a rationalist approach they refer to process-oriented approaches in which language learning is seen as an interrelated whole, where language learning is a function of comprehension preceding production, and where it involves critical thinking and the desire to communicate. Empiricist approaches focus on the four discrete language skills. Would such differences be reflected in differences in classroom practices?

> One consistent problem is whether or not teachers involved
> in presenting materials created for a particular method
> are actually reflecting the underlying philosophies of
> these methods in their classroom practices.
>   (Swaffar et.al 25).

They found that many of the distinctions used to contrast

methods, particularly those based on classroom activities, did not exist in actual classroom practice.

> Methodological labels assigned to teaching activities are, in themselves, not informative, because they refer to a pool of classroom practices which are used uniformly. The differences among major methodologies are to be found in the ordered hierarchy, the priorities assigned to tasks.
> (Swaffar et.al 31)

Long and Sato (1983) found similarly that the actual behaviours of teachers in classrooms can differ significantly from the philosophy of the method they are using. They looked at language use between teachers and learners in classrooms taught by teachers trained in "communicative" methodology. They then compared their findings with how native speakers outside of classsrooms conversed with learners of a similar level of language proficiency to the classroom learners. They found the type of language the "communicative" classroom teachers used was very different from the language used outside of classrooms. It shared many of the features of the mechanical question and answer drills characteristic of audiolingual "non-communicative" class-rooms.

The literature on methodology in language teaching is considerable, and much of it consists of descriptions of alternative procedures for teaching different aspects of language proficiency in different skill areas. Very few studies have addressed actual classroom practices, nor sought to demonstrate relationships between specific methodological options and the attainment of particular curriculum objectives. Determining the impact of instructional procedures and measuring the effectivness

of language curriculum processes belongs to the domain of evaluation in curriculum development, to which we now turn.

2.4. EVALUATION

The field of evaluation is concerned with gathering data on the dynamics, effectiveness, acceptability and efficiency of a program, for the purposes of decision making (Popham 1975; Jarvis and Adams;1979).

> Evaluation is the determination of the worth of a thing.
> It includes obtaining information for use in judging
> the worth of a program, product,procedure or objective,
> or the potential utility of alternative approaches
> designed to attain specified objectives (Worthen and
> Sanders:1973 .19)

The relatively short life span of most language teaching methods and the absence of a systematic approach to language program development in many institutions where English is taught is largely attributable to the fact that adequate allowance is not made for evaluation procedures in the planning process. In the absence of a substantial data base from which to arrive at informed decisions about how effective a language program is or how its results are achieved, change and innovation often reflects merely trends and fashions in the profession, rather than an attempt to build from what is known. Consequently, much has been written about the design of language teaching courses, syllabuses and materials, but very little has been published about the impact of programs, methods, instructional strategies and materials, on learners. In this section we will briefly consider the goals of evaluation in language teaching, the forms of evaluation which are currently in practice, how evaluation is

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accomplished, and what its applications are.

The goals of evaluation

The primary focus of evaluation is to determine whether the goals and objectives of a language program are being attained, i.e., whether the program is effective. In cases where a decision must be made whether to adopt one of two possible program options geared to the same objectives, a secondary focus is on the relative effectiveness of the program. In addition evaluation may be concerned with **how** a program works, that is, with how teachers and learners and materials interact in classrooms, and how teachers and learners perceive the program's goals, materials and learning experiences. Evaluation differs from educational research in that even though it shares many of the procedures of educational research (tests, assessment, observation), information obtained from evaluation procedures is used to improve educational practices rather than simply describe them (Popham:1975).

Summative versus formative

A widely used distinction is between evaluation carried out at the completion of a course or program in order to measure how effective it was in attaining its goals (summative evaluation), and evaluation carried out during the development and implementation of a program, designed to modify and revise aspects of the progam or the materials and to ensure the efficiency of the program (formative evaluation).

Summative evaluation may be used to support decisions about

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the continuation or modification of the program and typically involves the use of criterion referenced or other achievement tests based on the program objectives. Typically differences between pretest and posstest scores are used as evidence of program effectiveness. Most institutions lack the resources necessary to measure a program's effectiveness through a true experimental design with the use of control or comparison groups. As Pratt notes,

There is adequate guidance in the literature as to how to control such factors as differences in student aptitude between two classes, but little as to how to control teacher differences in instruction; even the imposition of detailed lesson plans does not guarentee equivalent teaching. Finally, to compare the efficiency of two programs, they must be aiming at the same results and evaluated by tests equally appropriate to both curricula.(Pratt;1980 421).

Other measures of a program's effectiveness are also available however, such as interviews with graduates and dropouts from the program, interviews with employers and others who have contact with the learners after completion of the program, as well as interviews with teachers (Pratt:1980). Summative evaluation may be concerned with gathering data about a program over a period of years, which will ultimately be used to make decisions about the future of the program.

Formative evaluation addresses the issue of the efficiency and acceptability of the program, and frequently involves subjective and informal data (e.g. obtained from questionnaires or observation). Bachman suggests the following processes are involved in formative evaluation;

The process of formative evaluation parallels that of program development, and comprises two types of activity; the internal assessment of what the program is supposed to be, and the gathering and interpretation of external information

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during field testing....Given a particular objective set, one
aspect of internal assessment is to evaluate these objectives
themselves. Is the rationale for each objective cogent? Are
there undesired consequences associated with achieving cert-
ain objectives?....Another aspect of internal assessment is
content-based review. Are the materials accurate? Do they
constitute an appropriate range, in both difficulty and
interest, vis-a-vis the learner?...Once the developer is
satisfied, on the basis of the internal assessment, that the
program incorporates the intended objectives and processes,
he or she must then determine how it can most effectively
produce the intended outcomes. This typically involves field-
testing. (Bachman:1981.110-111).

Formative evaluation thus addresses such criteria as the
appropriateness of the program's objectives, the degree of
preparation of teachers, their competence in the classroom, the
usefulness of the syllabus, text and materials, the effectiveness
of scheduling and organization, the selection and use of test
instruments. Pfannkuche proposes a comprehensive model which is
characterized by a focus on the attainment of goals:

        a certain set of learning goals and objectives are ident-
        ified, and an assessment is made as to how well these goals
        are being met during the course of instruction.
                                            (Pfannkuche;1979.254).

This model involves the following processes;

    1. Identify a set of program goals and objectives to be
       evaluated;....
    2. Identify program factors relevant to the attainment of
       these objectives;....
    3. For each factor in Step 2, develop a set of criteria
       that would indicate that the objectives are being
       successfully attained....
    4. Design appropriate instruments to assess each factor
       according to the criteria outlined....
    5. Collect the data that is needed.
    6. Compare data with desired results....
    7. Match or discrepancy?...
    8. Prepare evaluation report....
                                    (Omaggio 1979;254-263)

_____insert Figure 2 about here_____

Pfannkuche emphasizes that such a comprehensive approach to
formative evaluation can only be realized if one or two aspects

Step 1: Goals and objectives → A set of communication goals and objectives in the areas of listening and speaking is identified

Step 2: Program Factors to be evaluated

Student achievement	Teacher behavior	Learning activities	Student attitudes toward learning activities	Tests	Texts	Classroom environment

Step 3: Develop criteria

List performance standards	List desired behaviors	List desired activity types	List desired attitudes	Content, face validity, reliability	Adequate activities, relevant vocabulary and grammar	Opportunity for practice; grouping used effectively, appropriate conversational stimuli used

Step 4: Design instruments

Create valid & reliable speaking & listening tests	Create checklists; select behavior observation measures	Create checklists	Design questionnaire, informal interview questions	Prepare item analysis and reliability checks	Create checklists	Create checklists, select behavioral observation measure, plan informal interview

Step 5: Collect data

Administer tests	Schedule observation, interview or taping	Schedule observation or taping, examine lesson plans	Administer questionnaire; schedule interviews	Analyze tests	Do text analysis	Schedule observation or or taping; plan interviews

Step 6: Compare collected data with desired results

Step 7:

Match? Successful aspects of program	Discrepancy? Suggest ways to improve program

Step 8: Prepare evaluation report and make recommendations for changes
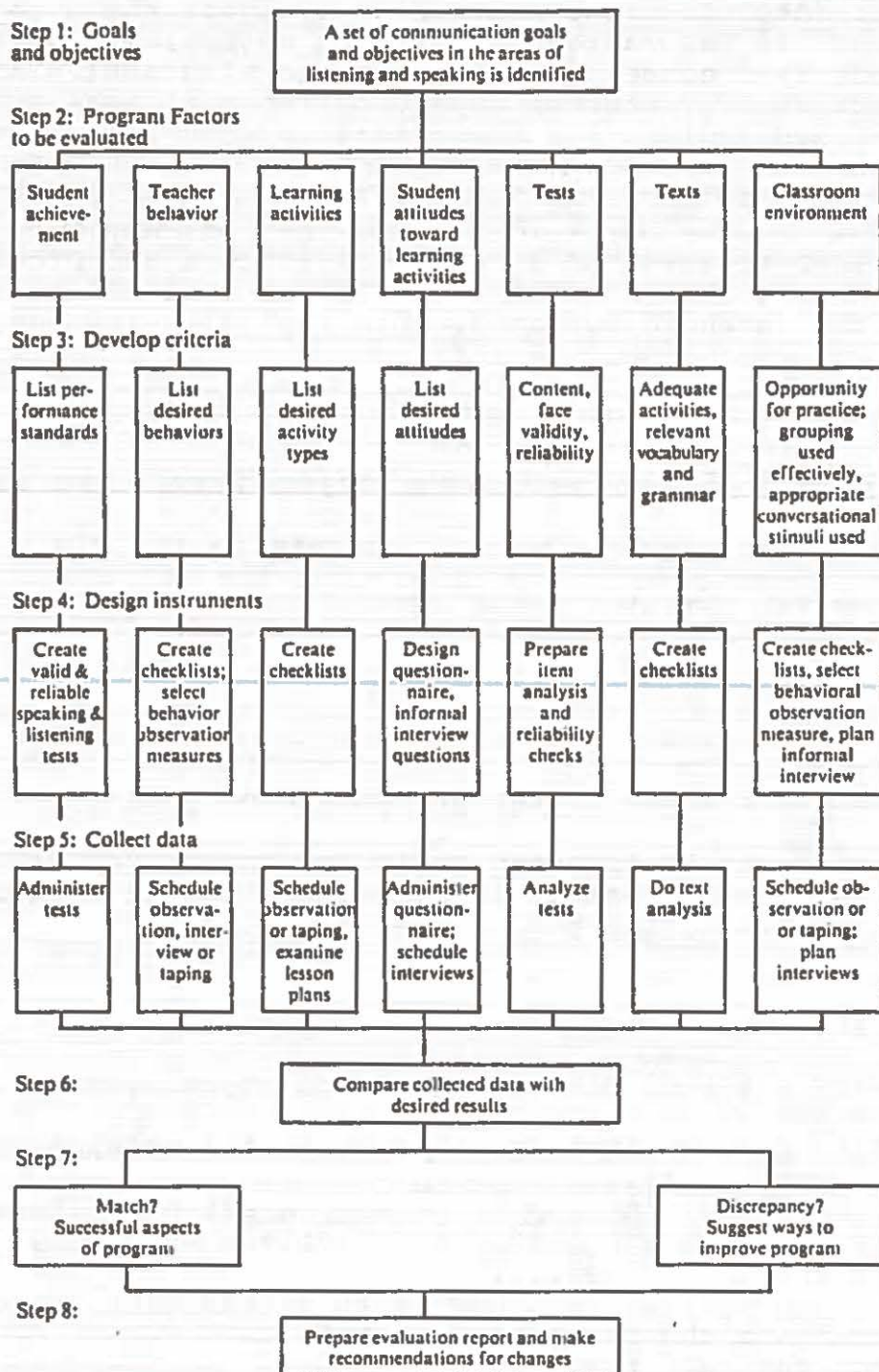
FIGURE 2. A MODEL FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION FOR A LISTENING/SPEAKING COURSE. From Omaggio et.al. 1979: 262.

of the language program are evaluated at a time, the total picture emerging over a period of several years.

Procedures used in conducting formative evaluation are varied. Bachman emphasizes that "although the most useful information is of an informal and subjective nature, this is not to say, however, that it cannot be systematic"(Bachman:1981.115). Evaluation of the program's objectives may involve the use of needs analysis procedures; analysis of program characteristics may make use of checklists; in class-observation may provide data on the efficiency of the program and the use of equipment and materials; empirical data on the processes actually used in teaching a method or course may be used to determine the degree of fit between the philosophy underlying a mewthodology and the classroom processes that result from it (Long 1983); data on the acceptability and difficulty of materials may involve questionnaires to teachers and learners; enrollment and attrition figures for a program may be used as evidence of student attitudes about the program; interviews with students and teachers may identify weaknesses in content, sequencing and materials; analysis of test results may be used to identify whether the content and methodology are consistent with the curriculum and appropriate to the objectives and the learners.

Although evaluation is the final phase in Taba's model of curriculum processes, evaluation processes apply to all phases of curriculum development, and formative evaluation procedures in particular have to be developed at the same time as objectives, syllabuses, learning content and activities are being planned. A

curriculum is hence in a sense a retrospective account of how an educational program was developed. For as Stenhouse observes,

> A curriculum, like the recipe for a dish, is first imagined as a possibility, then the subject of an experiment. The recipe offered publicly is in a sense a report on an experiment. (Stenhouse 1975: 4)

CONCLUSIONS.

In this survey of the state of the art in language curriculum development we have seen that in teaching English as a second or foreign language, some aspects of curriculum development have traditionally been given higher priority than others. Thus there is a relatively extensive literature on the nature of language syllabuses (e.g.Yalden 1982: Brumfit 1984), on teaching method (e.g. Rivers 1981), on testing (e.g. Lado 1961: Oller 1979) and more recently on needs analysis (e.g. Richterich 1983), but relatively little on the development of objectives or on curriculum evaluation in language teaching. As Stern observes,

> It is,however, only very recently that language teacher have begin to take note of ideas in curriculum theory. Previously the language curriculum went its own way.There are certain parallels between the development of general curriculum theory and the development of curriculum theory in language teaching, but very little movement of thought across these two trends has taken place.
> (Stern 1983:441-2).

Curriculum development in language teaching has not typically been viewed as an integrated set of processes that involve systematic data gathering, planning, experimentation, and evaluation. This is reflected in teacher training courses; courses on teaching method typically focus on techniques of presentation and practice and seldom examine outcomes or classroom processes; courses on language testing typically deal

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with techniques for item writing and with the psychometrics of analyzing test data, but seldom present testing within a framework of educational evaluation; courses on language and language learning often fail to demonstrate the relevance of such theory to language curriculum processes. The language teaching profession has yet to embrace curriculum development as an overall approach to the planning of teaching and learning. Our profession has evolved a considerable body of educational techniques, but little in the way of an integrated and systematic approach to language curriculum processes. Such an approach may be crucial however, if we are to develop a more rigorous basis for our educational practices.

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