

**Assignment No.1**

**Q.1 Explain the functions of BTES**

Robert Glaser developed this model in 1962. It explains the relationship between teaching and learning. It provides a simple and adequate conceptualization of the teaching process. This model belongs to the category of **psychological models of teaching.**

- It is called Basic teaching model because it presents a very basic analysis of the process of teaching in terms of the elements of teaching.
- This model applies to all levels of education i.e., elementary, secondary, higher etc.. It is also applied to subject matter related to any subject as a teacher can use this model for teaching them.
- Teaching for any length of time (40 minutes, 1 hour, weeks etc.) is possible using this model. It explains the whole teaching learning process by dividing it into four basic components
  1. Instructional objectives
  2. Entering behaviour
  3. Instructional procedures
  4. Performance assessment

**Assumptions of Basic Teaching Model**

- It is developed on the assumption that “every lesson assumes some knowledge on the part of the learner”
- Through instructional procedure, the teacher guides the learner from entry behavior to terminal behavior.

**Components of basic training model**

**Step 1: Instructional objectives**

The instructional objective is those objectives that the student should attain upon completion of a unit of instruction.

- These objectives may be stated in general, specific or in behavioral terms.
- For instruction to be effective and systematic, the instructional objectives are stated in behavioral terms.

**Step 2: Entering behavior**

- Every learner has initial behavior before he enters teaching-learning process.
- It is essential to detect the entering behavior of the learner before giving instructions.
- It is just like previous knowledge of a subject or the performance of the learner in terms of educational abilities.
- This step is important because only after this step the teacher can take the students from entry behavior to terminal behavior.

**Step: 3 Instructional procedures**

- It is the most active part of the teaching process.

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- It indicates the method, procedure, and strategies of teaching which depends on objectives and entry behavior of the learner.
- This component depends on two previous components.

#### Step: 4 Performance assessments.

- Here ultimate behavior of the learner is tested so that feedback may be given.
- If the need arises objectives may be modified, the instructional procedure may be improved and assessment of performance is made again.
- Evaluation techniques used for the purpose of assessment tests are observation, interview, rating scale etc.
- All four basic components are interrelated with one another. They interact and influence each other.
- If the performance assessment indicates that the learners have not been able to achieve the objectives set for them, necessary changes are brought about in any one or all proceeding components of this model so that the goals of instruction are attained.

#### Glaser's Basic Training Model

Glaser's models may be described in terms of the fundamental elements as under:-

1. **Focus:** – This model attempts to pin point the process and major activities comprising the entire teaching, learning process. It also brings into the light sequence to be followed in the instructional process.
2. **Syntax:** – In this model flow of activities is sequential as listed below:-  
(a) First, the objectives to be followed are fixed in accordance with Blooms Taxonomy.(b) Then the entering behavior showing the understanding and background of the student is determined.(c) Thereafter the instruction work is carried out to achieve the objectives keeping in view the entering behavior of the learner.(d) The ultimate behavior of the learner is determined by using a different type of tests.
3. **Social system**The model describes a teacher dominated classroom climate.Here students are receptive and appreciative of the teaching activities. The success of this model depends upon the competency and ability of the teacher in term of various skills like the formulation of objectives, use of proper strategies, techniques of evolution etc.
4. **Principles of reaction**Main principles of reaction are as follows.(a) Principles of interdependence: -The student's responses are to be understood and dealt within the light of the interaction and interdependence, process and assessments.(b) The principle of active involvement: -Proper execution of this model requires a lot of activity on the part of the teacher. The model requires the active involvement of the teacher from the beginning to the end. Understanding of the potential and deficiencies of the students is required at every stage of the teacher in order to achieve the objectives.(c) Principles of follow up: – An assessment is made after teaching. In case the results are not accordance with set

objectives, gaps and deficiencies are found out by the teacher. Then he tries to rectify the drawbacks by taking corrective measures.

5. **Support system:** – The teacher needs following support systems for its success.(a) Proper environment: – proper teaching learning environment and situations are required for the use of suitable teaching strategies.(b) Pre-service and In service facilities:- availability of adequate pre-service and in-service activities to the teachers to acquire needed skills for using this model.(c) Availability of appropriate evaluation device for the assessment of entering and terminal behavior of the students.
6. **Application:** – Since the model is quite systematic and structured, it is applicable to almost all the learning and teaching situations. It implies a personal contact between the teacher and the student. It implies a greater emphasis on the competency of the teacher rather than on his personality.

This approach generally known as Herbartian Five steps approach in the procedure of the Herbartian School of pedagogy propagated by J.F. Herbart(1776-1841) and his followers.

The formal steps involved in the approach as below:

- 1) Introduction / Motivation
- 2) Presentation
- 3) Comparison and association
- 4) Generalization
- 5) Application
- 6) Recapitulation

- **Introduction/Motivation**

This step is concerned with the task of preparing the students for receiving new knowledge. In preparation, nothing new is taught to students. Relevant to the topic in hand the teacher should make himself sure of what the pupils already know , by putting a few questions , based on the pupils previous knowledge. In general, with the help of this step, the teacher can check the students entering behavior before he starts teaching the lesson. Thus, testing previous knowledge, developing interest in the minds of students and maintaining curiosity of the students can be achieved with the help of this step.

The following activities involved in this step

- The assumption about the previous knowledge of the students in relevance to the lesson
- The testing of the previous knowledge
- Utilizing the previous knowledge for introducing the lesson
- Motivating thee students for studying the present lesson
- **Presentation**

It is the key step and only through which the actual process of teaching is going to take place. Here the aims of the lesson should be stated clearly and the heading should be written on the blackboard. We have to provide situation for both the teacher and the students to participate in the process of teaching and learning. Our ultimate

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aim of the presentation is to make the concepts understandable to the students. Therefore simple language is used. Appropriate and specific examples and illustrations of the concepts will make the understanding better. The interest of the students on the subject matter should be maintained continuously by the way of asking questions from time to time in this stage. The teacher should carefully and skillfully arrange his material so that his pupils may clearly and readily grasp it. The teacher should make proper use of questions, charts, graphs, pictures, models and other illustrative for demonstration and explanation.

At the end of each section a few questions concerning that section only should be asked to whether the pupils are now ready for the acquisition of new knowledge.

- **Comparison or Association**

More importance should be given in this stage to compare the facts observed by the students with another concept by way of giving examples. By making use of this comparison, the students can derive definitions or theories. The students are encouraged to give new suitable examples for the concept instead of the examples given in the book to make them think in an innovative manner.

- **Generalization**

This step is concerned with arriving at some general ideas or drawing out the necessary conclusions by the students on the basis of the different comparisons, contrasts and associated observed in the learning material present by the teacher. As far as possible the task of formulation should be left to students. The teacher at this stage should try to remain in the background for providing only necessary guidance and correction.

- **Application**

In this stage, the teacher makes the students to use the understood knowledge in an unfamiliar situation. Unless the knowledge of science is applied in new situations or in our day-to-day life, the study of science will become meaningless. This application of scientific principles will strengthen learning and will make the learning permanent.

- **Recapitulation**

This stage is meant for the teachers to know whether students have grasped and understood these concepts taught or not. This can be achieved by reviewing a lesson or by giving assignments to the students. Only through this step achieving closure (in teaching) is possible.

#### **Q.2 Follow up the steps of problem solving and project method in order to their application in the real life situation.**

In order to effectively manage and run a successful organization, leadership must guide their employees and develop problem-solving techniques. Finding a suitable solution for issues can be accomplished by following the basic four-step problem-solving process and methodology outlined below.

Step	Characteristics
<b>1. Define the problem</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Differentiate fact from opinion</li> <li>• Specify underlying causes</li> <li>• Consult each faction involved for information</li> <li>• State the problem specifically</li> <li>• Identify what standard or expectation is violated</li> <li>• Determine in which process the problem lies</li> <li>• Avoid trying to solve the problem without data</li> </ul>
<b>2. Generate alternative solutions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Postpone evaluating alternatives initially</li> <li>• Include all involved individuals in the generating of alternatives</li> <li>• Specify alternatives consistent with organizational goals</li> <li>• Specify short- and long-term alternatives</li> <li>• Brainstorm on others' ideas</li> <li>• Seek alternatives that may solve the problem</li> </ul>
<b>3. Evaluate and select an alternative</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evaluate alternatives relative to a target standard</li> <li>• Evaluate all alternatives without bias</li> <li>• Evaluate alternatives relative to established goals</li> <li>• Evaluate both proven and possible outcomes</li> <li>• State the selected alternative explicitly</li> </ul>
<b>4. Implement and follow up on the solution</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Plan and implement a pilot test of the chosen alternative</li> <li>• Gather feedback from all affected parties</li> <li>• Seek acceptance or consensus by all those affected</li> <li>• Establish ongoing measures and monitoring</li> <li>• Evaluate long-term results based on final solution</li> </ul>

**1. Define the problem**

Diagnose the situation so that your focus is on the problem, not just its symptoms. Helpful problem-solving techniques include using flowcharts to identify the expected steps of a process and cause-and-effect diagrams to define and analyze root causes.

The sections below help explain key problem-solving steps. These steps support the involvement of interested parties, the use of factual information, comparison of expectations to reality, and a focus on root causes of a problem. You should begin by:

- Reviewing and documenting how processes currently work (i.e., who does what, with what information, using what tools, communicating with what organizations and individuals, in what time frame, using what format).
- Evaluating the possible impact of new tools and revised policies in the development of your "what should be" model.

### 2. Generate alternative solutions

Postpone the selection of one solution until several problem-solving alternatives have been proposed. Considering multiple alternatives can significantly enhance the value of your ideal solution. Once you have decided on the "what should be" model, this target standard becomes the basis for developing a road map for investigating alternatives. Brainstorming and team problem-solving techniques are both useful tools in this stage of problem solving.

Many alternative solutions to the problem should be generated before final evaluation. A common mistake in problem solving is that alternatives are evaluated as they are proposed, so the first acceptable solution is chosen, even if it's not the best fit. If we focus on trying to get the results we want, we miss the potential for learning something new that will allow for real improvement in the problem-solving process.

### 3. Evaluate and select an alternative

Skilled problem solvers use a series of considerations when selecting the best alternative. They consider the extent to which:

- A particular alternative will solve the problem without causing other unanticipated problems.
- All the individuals involved will accept the alternative.
- Implementation of the alternative is likely.
- The alternative fits within the organizational constraints.

### 4. Implement and follow up on the solution

Leaders may be called upon to direct others to implement the solution, "sell" the solution, or facilitate the implementation with the help of others. Involving others in the implementation is an effective way to gain buy-in and support and minimize resistance to subsequent changes.

Regardless of how the solution is rolled out, feedback channels should be built into the implementation. This allows for continuous monitoring and testing of actual events against expectations. Problem solving, and the techniques used to gain clarity, are most effective if the solution remains in place and is updated to respond to future changes.

### Q.3 What are the steps and characterizes in curriculum planning?

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The educational system, and schools in particular have a responsibility to individual children and the society at large to prepare future ready learners for the world.

This is why a standards based curriculum is very important – All good curricula are based on certain requirements and standards usually outlined by a controlling body.

1. Stand.org puts it best: At the heart of a high quality curriculum is the premise that all students are able to learn and are capable of being successful. In effect, a standard curriculum is built on high expectations and should be rigorous to undertake.
2. Because the curriculum prepares learners for life in the society, a curriculum obviously should be dynamic and evolve regularly to meet the needs of learners as well as the society. –
3. A curriculum should gradually build the learning experience. This means that it should allow for continuity of experiences as the learner progresses and grows.
4. Every curriculum should meet the needs of individual learners – whether it's for private or public schools, every student's needs should be considered while choosing a curriculum.
5. Because it caters to a wide variety of people, a good curriculum should be developed democratically. This means educators representing all grade levels and disciplines should be included in order to achieve cohesiveness that targets the success of every child.
6. Every aspect of the curriculum should have a clear objective or end goal to achieve.
7. A good curriculum is not rigid- it allows room for flexibility, monitoring and evaluation by administration.
8. It should provide sufficient scope for the cultivation of unique skills, interest, attitudes and appreciations.
9. It should be psychologically sound. It should take into account the theories of learning relevant to the fields of study. As such, a broad range of possible learning styles must also be considered.
10. Lastly, a Curriculum should be responsible for personality development of the learners.

The Curriculum is based on the needs of the people. • a good curriculum reflects the needs of the individual and the society as a whole. • The curriculum is in proper shape in order to meet the challenges of times and make education more responsive to the clientele it serves.

The Curriculum is democratically conceived. • A good curriculum is developed through the efforts of a group of individuals from different sectors in the society who are knowledgeable about the interests, needs and resources of the learner and the society as a whole. • The curriculum is the product of many minds and energies.

The Curriculum is the result of a long-term effort. • a good curriculum is a product of long and tedious process. • It takes a long period of time in the planning, management, evaluation and development of a good curriculum.

The Curriculum is a complex of details. • A good curriculum provides the proper instructional equipment and meeting places that are often most conducive to learning. • It includes the student-teacher relationship, guidance and counseling program, health services, school and community projects, library and laboratories, and other school- related work experiences.

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The Curriculum provides for the logical sequence of subject matter. • Learning is developmental. • Classes and activities should be planned. • A good curriculum provides continuity of experiences.

The Curriculum complements and cooperates with other programs of the community. • The curriculum is responsive to the needs of the community. • The school offers its assistance in the improvement and realization of ongoing programs of the community. • There is cooperative effort between the school and the community towards greater productivity.

The Curriculum has educational quality. • Quality education comes through the situation of the individuals intellectual and creative capacities for social welfare and development. • The curriculum helps the learner to become the best that he can possibly be. • The curriculum support system is secured to augment existing sources for its efficient and effective implementation.

The Curriculum has administrative flexibility. • A good curriculum must be ready to incorporate changes whenever necessary. • The curriculum is open to revision and development to meet the demands of globalization and the digital age.

#### Q.4 What is the role of psychology and sociology in curriculum development?

Education is fundamental to development and growth. The human mind makes possible all development achievements, from health advances and agricultural innovations to efficient public administration and private sector growth. For countries to reap these benefits fully, they need to unleash the potential of the human mind. And there is no better tool for doing so than education.

Twenty years ago, government officials and development partners met to affirm the importance of education in development—on economic development and broadly on improving people's lives—and together declared Education for All as a goal. While enrolments have risen in promising fashion around the world, learning levels have remained disappointingly low and many remain left behind. Because growth, development, and poverty reduction depend on the knowledge and skills that people acquire, not the number of years that they sit in a classroom, we must transform our call to action from Education for All to Learning for All.

The World Bank's forthcoming Education Strategy will emphasize several core ideas: **Invest early. Invest smartly. Invest in learning for all.**

First, foundational skills acquired early in childhood make possible **a lifetime of learning**. The traditional view of education as starting in primary school takes up the challenge too late. The science of brain development shows that learning needs to be encouraged early and often, both inside and outside of the formal schooling system. Prenatal health and early childhood development programs that include education and health are consequently important to realize this potential. In the primary years, quality teaching is essential to give students the foundational literacy and numeracy on which lifelong learning depends. Adolescence is also a period of high potential for learning, but many teenagers leave school at this point, lured by the prospect of a job, the need to help their families, or turned away by the cost of schooling. For those who drop out too early,



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second-chance and nonformal learning opportunities are essential to ensure that all youth can acquire skills for the labor market.

Second, **getting results requires smart investments**—that is, investments that prioritize and monitor learning, beyond traditional metrics, such as the number of teachers trained or number of students enrolled. Quality needs to be the focus of education investments, with learning gains as the key metric of quality. Resources are too limited and the challenges too big to be designing policies and programs in the dark. We need evidence on what works in order to invest smartly.

Third, **learning for all means ensuring that all students**, and not just the most privileged or gifted, acquire the knowledge and skills that they need. Major challenges of access remain for disadvantaged populations at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. We must lower the barriers that keep girls, children with disabilities, and ethnolinguistic minorities from attaining as much education as other population groups. “Learning for All” promotes the equity goals that underlie Education for All and the MDGs. Without confronting equity issues, it will be impossible to achieve the objective of learning for all.

**Achieving learning for all** will be challenging, but it is the right agenda for the next decade. It is the knowledge and skills that children and youth acquire today—not simply their school attendance—that will drive their employability, productivity, health, and well-being in the decades to come, and that will help ensure that their communities and nations thrive.

#### Understanding growth

To understand how the learning growth of each students, it is important to:

draw on your knowledge of these students

collaborate with your colleagues.

While growth in a general sense is welcome, optimal growth is the goal. Optimal growth means growth connected to learning excellence. What this looks like will depend on the student and their context.

It is important to note that growth can also be understood in a variety of ways. For example:

**Standards-referenced growth**, which focuses on a student's years of learning:

- this growth is in relation to the continuum of learning in the Victorian Curriculum
- some learning occurs incrementally along a learning continuum, but the rate and pace of learning is not always fixed and constant
- learning can develop in more complex ways through a web of connectedness that is dependent on students developing understandings, capabilities and dispositions in concert with one another. For example, being creative requires development of knowledge of creative processes; skills in creative thinking; and development of the disposition to be curious, adaptable and persistent.

**Age or year-level expected growth**, which focuses on a student's years of schooling.

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- At the level of schools and systems, this kind of growth can help identify priority cohorts that may need intensive support to reach minimum achievement standards.
- It might not account well for the diversity of students, such as those with disabilities, learning difficulties, or interrupted schooling.

**Growth in relation to targets and/or learning goals**, which can be set in different ways and by different people.

- A powerful motivator for your students is for you to work in partnership with them to set goals, informed by curriculum achievement standards. It can drive their learning when the goals set are achievable but challenging and you support them to reflect on and evaluate their own progress.

#### **Q.5 Enlist and explain philosophical categories that have particular relevance for curriculum development.**

Any approach to educational development is a multi-faceted affair, with many dimensions on which decisions must be made, and numerous alternatives from which to choose on each dimension. Of primary importance, however, is that the alternatives selected be commonly understood and agreed upon, and that they reflect consistency from one dimension to the next. A common thread throughout most formal education programs for minority people has been the relative absence of either of these conditions. Only rarely are the ends toward which minority programs are directed made explicit, and when they are, different interpretations exist so that the means used to attain the ends are often inconsistent and sometimes conflicting.

#### **The School and the Curriculum**

The four basic dimensions of any educational program are, 1) the goals or function, 2) the content, 3) the structure, and 4) the methods used. If an approach is to be effective, all four dimensions must be functionally integrated, and consistent with the underlying processes through which they interact to form a whole. That is, each dimension must be mutually reinforcing of each of the other dimensions if the total educational experience is to be cumulative and integrative for the student. To achieve such interrelatedness requires close attention to underlying processes of education, such as communication, cognition, and social interaction. We will examine some alternative goals and content for education as they relate to those processes first, and then turn to the structure and method through which they may be attained. In each dimension we will work toward a cross-cultural approach in the development of educational programs and practices for cultural minorities.

One of the most difficult, yet most important tasks in the design of any educational program is to make explicit the goals toward which the program is directed. When the task is complicated by such extensive and pervasive educational functions as those of potential interest to the school, and by the often conflicting and divergent expectations regarding schools in a minority setting, it often appears insurmountable. It is necessary, nevertheless, to attempt such a task, and we shall do so by first examining some of the goals of education in general, and then looking at the two most commonly espoused goals for minority education-"cultural

assimilation" and "cultural pluralism". An alternative goal of "cultural eclecticism" will then be offered as the basis for the ensuing discussion.

In most instances, school goals are bound to universalistic intellectual or social functions associated with the dominant society. The most explicit function to which the schools are directed is to the inculcation of the particular knowledge and skills deemed necessary for individual participation in the larger society. This is sometimes refined to place a more specific emphasis on the development of the mind, with a primary concern for factual knowledge and intellectual skills. In other situations, the emphasis is placed exclusively on the development of particular occupational or practical skills. Either approach is obviously narrowly selective from the totality of human experience, and is inevitably bound to a specific cultural definition of appropriate knowledge and skills. A less direct, but often explicit function attributed to the school is that of developing "citizenship" and the appropriate attitudes and understandings necessary for participation in a democratic society. Again, the emphasis is on preparation for the roles and expectations associated with membership in the larger society.

Some of the least direct and least explicit functions of the school become apparent when it is viewed in the context of cultural minority education. The traditional intellectual and social functions indicated above are then confounded by the additional and seemingly invidious factors associated with cultural differences, such as conflicting values, varied learning styles, diverse behavior patterns, non-conforming social allegiances, and alternative perceptions of reality. These factors, when thrust into the amalgam of traditional school policies and practices, reveal the extent to which the school serves a concomitant function of inducing acculturative influences in the domains of values, attitudes, beliefs and social behavior. In an effort to more directly accommodate these additional cultural factors, schools involved with minority education have been called upon to adopt some variant of the goals of cultural assimilation or cultural pluralism.

**Cultural assimilation:**

Though it is rarely made explicit, and is often unintended, one of the most distinguishing features of schools in cultural minority settings is their overwhelming press toward assimilation into mainstream cultural patterns. Whether intentional or not, the basic thrust of schooling is toward the breaking down of particularistic orientations and developing in their place, a universalistic orientation. Even where accommodations are made to include ethnic studies or bilingual education in the curriculum content, the structure, method, and processes through which the content is organized and transmitted are usually reflective of mainstream patterns and exert a dominant influence on the student (cf., Bayne, 1969). Schools are agents of the dominant society and as such, they reflect the underlying cultural patterns of that society. As long as they reflect the structure and social organization of the dominant society, they can be expected to perpetuate its values, attitudes, and behavior patterns within an implicit framework of assimilation.

What then, does a school goal of assimilation have to offer the cultural minority, and what are some of its limitations? On the surface, a cultural assimilation orientation would seem to offer the minority student an

opportunity to gain access to the skills and resources necessary to participate in the larger society on equal terms with others. This expectation often goes unfulfilled, however, because of the school's inability to adequately respond to the differences in learning styles associated with differences in thought, communication and social interaction on the part of the minority student. Consequently, the requisite skills are not learned, status differentials are reinforced, and access to societal resources is further impeded, thus thwarting the minority students' aspirations. The school cannot contribute effectively to the assimilation process without careful attention to the unique cultural conditions out of which the minority student emerges.

If assimilation is desired and is to be achieved in full by a cultural minority, it must be supported by social, political and economic forces beyond those available through the school. Though the school may serve a useful, and even necessary function in the assimilation process, it cannot accomplish the task alone (cf., St. Lawrence and Singleton, 1976). If cultural assimilation is not desired, alternative goals must be adequately articulated so as to be able to assess the extent to which schools may or may not be able to contribute to their attainment. One such alternative goal that has received widespread attention is that of cultural pluralism.

**Cultural Pluralism:**

Whereas assimilation stresses the ways of the dominant society, cultural pluralism is intended to stress the ways of the minority society. Cultural pluralism is advocated as an educational goal by those who seek a pluralistic, multi-cultural society in which each ethnic, racial or religious group contributes to the larger society within the context of its own unique cultural traditions (cf., Banks, 1976). The school's task, therefore, is to recognize the minority culture and to assist the student to function more effectively within that culture. Heavy emphasis is placed on ethnic studies and minority language programs, but, as pointed out earlier, these are usually offered within the traditional structural framework of the school and have only tangential effect in terms of minority development goals. The primary beneficial effects are in the symbolic implications of the formal recognition of the minority group's existence by the school, and in the access to broader societal resources and experience by the minority group members who are employed to carry them out. Such access can result in positive influences of minority groups on the functioning of the school.

As presently espoused, however, with an emphasis on cultural autonomy and homogeneity, cultural pluralism falls short of being a realistic goal toward which the schools may direct their efforts. In addition to participating in various ways in the cultural traditions of their own society, most (if not all), minority group members also participate in varying degrees in the cultural traditions of the larger society. To maintain true cultural pluralism, a structural separation of cultural groups must exist (Gordon, 1964), and this is not the case in American society, with the school being but one example of structural interaction. Different cultural groups interact with each other in various ways for various purposes, resulting in diffuse acculturative influences and constant adaptation, within the context of a national social order. Under such conditions, the goals of education must necessarily extend beyond minority group boundaries, if the student is to be prepared for the larger social reality s/he will face as an adult.

Even if cultural pluralism were to be viewed as a realistic goal (and it may be, under certain conditions of oppression), we would still have the problem of using an institutional artifact of one society (i.e., the school) to promote the cultural traditions of another. To change the subject-matter (content) without a concomitant change in the structure, method and processes through which that content is conveyed, may in the end, only strengthen rather than weaken the influences of the larger society. To achieve educational independence does not necessarily lead to cultural independence, if the educational experiences remain within the structural framework of the dominant culture.

It would appear then, that neither extreme of complete cultural assimilation or separation is appropriate or adequate as an educational goal, nor are either realistically attainable through the traditional framework of the school. We must, therefore, seek an alternative goal that rests on the middle ground between assimilation and pluralism, and then devise a means by which such a goal might be achieved.

#### **Cultural eclecticism:**

Since there are features of both the assimilationist and pluralist perspectives which seem desirable in developing educational programs for minorities, we will devise an eclectic approach, which allows for minority selection and adaptation of those features which they deem most desirable, and attempts to overcome the previously stated limitations. The goal of this approach will be referred to, therefore, as "cultural eclecticism." This is not to imply that the school is to present a hodgepodge of cultural practices from which students choose at whim, but rather that the school will assist the student in understanding the nature of the diverse experiences which are a natural part of his/her existence, and thus contribute to the development of an integrated cultural perspective suitable to the student's needs and circumstances.

In developing an eclectic approach, we are assuming that each minority group has unique characteristics that distinguish it from other groups, and that all groups share characteristics common to the larger society. We are also assuming that variations exist within and between groups, in orientation toward minority vs. dominant cultural characteristics. Some individuals and some groups wish to stress the minority culture, while others are oriented toward the dominant culture, with still others desiring the "best of both worlds." Our concern then is with the development of an educational approach that respects this vast diversity, while introducing everyone to the range of options available, so that they themselves are able to exercise some degree of choice in their individual or group life style and goals. Such an approach must recognize the multifaceted and dynamic nature of a large, complex, open, continually evolving society, and must allow for the varied cultural expressions of ethnic, religious and political beliefs and practices within the broader framework of that society. It is through such variation and diversity that the vitality of the society at large is maintained, and our understanding of the range of human potential and capabilities is deepened. We are building, therefore, on the notion of "multiculturalism as the normal human experience" (Goodenough, 1976) and are attempting to make evident and accommodate to a condition that already exists, but is largely ignored.

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Thus, we present a goal of "cultural eclecticism" for minority education, in which features of both the assimilationist and pluralist ideologies are incorporated with the emphasis on an evolutionary form of cultural diversity to be attained through the informed choices and actions of individuals well grounded in the dynamics of human and cultural interaction processes. Eclecticism implies an open-ended process (rather than a dead-ended condition) whereby individuals or groups can adapt and define the functions of the school in response to their changing needs, assuming that they understand those functions and are in a position to influence school programs sufficiently to make them fully compatible with their needs. How then, might the school be made flexible enough, in structure and method, as well as content, to accommodate such potentially diverse demands? To respond to that question, we will build upon the perspectives outlined above, seeking ways to restructure the social organization of the school so as to foster a closer linkage between socialization and formal education processes. To accomplish this, we will work toward an experiential, community-based approach to learning, in which what is learned derives its meaning from the context in which it is learned. We will begin with an examination of instructional content, since the structure and method we develop should be built upon and consistent with what it is we are trying to teach. The content should, in turn, reflect the full range of processual and situational features necessary to achieve the goal of cultural eclecticism. With such a goal in mind, we will turn now to the development of a curriculum framework for minority education.

#### **Curriculum: Process and Content**

Curriculum, in its conventional usage, refers to the "scope and sequence" of the subject-matter conveyed in a school. Curriculum development, therefore, generally focuses on the selection and organization of specific knowledge and skills to fit particular developmental needs of the student and the unique operational structure of the school. Curriculum development usually does not explicitly address the social context in which learning takes place, nor does it consider the underlying cultural processes by which the content is acquired and utilized. These considerations are usually implicit to the cultural framework from which the curriculum is derived, with the school considered a "given" in that framework.

As the previous discussion has indicated, however, content, context and process are all intertwined, so that any one dimension can be affected by cultural variables and thus affect the outcome of the educational process. In the context of this discussion, curriculum development will, therefore, encompass all discernible dimensions that enter into the determination and implementation of the directed learning experiences by the school. From this perspective, the scope and sequence of the curriculum will be extended to include the interaction between content, process and context, and thus go beyond the usual culture-bound determinations that are associated with an emphasis on content alone. The approach developed here will proceed from an assumption of the unique social and cultural conditions of the child as a "given," rather than the universality of a particular body of knowledge or a particular mode of learning. We will begin the discussion on the latter assumptions, however, with a look at the subject-oriented approach currently reflected in school curriculum, and then move toward a more cross-culturally applicable alternative.

### The subject-oriented curriculum:

The approach to curriculum design currently reflected in the schools is drawn from the classical Western tradition of the categories of knowledge. In their most general form, these categories are represented by the major academic disciplines of the humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, mathematics, languages, and aesthetics. In their more specific form, they are represented by the list of typical subjects taught in the schools today. At the elementary level, this includes subjects such as the language arts (reading, writing, spelling), arithmetic, science, social studies, and art. At the secondary level, the categories become more specialized with subjects such as history, literature, algebra, biology, drama, and French. If a secondary program includes a vocational emphasis, the curriculum may extend beyond the knowledge categories to include a variety of occupational skill-oriented subjects, under general headings such as industrial arts, distributive education (business), home economics, or agriculture.

In all of these subjects, the emphasis is on transmitting a predetermined body of knowledge or a particular set of skills from those who possess such knowledge or skills to those who do not. Thus, to a large extent in a subject-oriented curriculum, the learning process becomes subordinate to, or is determined by the nature of the content. Such an approach to curriculum presents at least two sets of problems in minority education, one in regard to content, and another in regard to process.

The content problems derive from the presumption that the classical Western categories of knowledge are universally applicable and can be appropriately adapted to any learning situation. In an examination of the academic disciplines as a basis for curriculum planning, Lawton (1975: 72) identifies four different justifications for their use:

- 1) Because reality is like that. The disciplines are presumed to be close approximations of how the "real world" is organized.
- 2) Because different sorts of questions are being asked. The various disciplines use different approaches to gain alternative perspectives on the world.
- 3) Because children develop in that way. The disciplines reflect the processes by which children classify experience.
- 4) Because disciplines promote more economical learning. The disciplines provide a structure for organizing and disciplining thought, and thus, simplify understanding.

Such justifications for the disciplines may be considered adequate if viewed within the context of a culturally uniform and stable Westernized society. They do not, however, take into account the confounding variables created when the disciplines are confronted by cultural perspectives divergent from those reflected in the Western categories. The categories used to analyze and organize reality from an academic perspective often have little relation to the categories required to carry out the functions of everyday life and, therefore, often appear irrelevant or artificial outside the academic context. If the categories of learning employed by the school cannot be tied to the experiences of the student, they will not stimulate much interest or understanding.

Another problem with the subject-matter approach to curriculum content has to do with the emphasis on static, discrete knowledge and skills in a rapidly changing and expanding social and cultural environment. Although the subject areas of the curriculum are occasionally updated (often in a piecemeal fashion, however) to account for new understandings and changing societal conditions (e.g., "new math," computer programming, or "modern art"), much of what is taught remains rooted in out-moded knowledge and obsolete skills. An emphasis on knowledge and skills will inevitably reflect a lag between what is known and what is taught, and thus provide little preparation for the changing conditions of the future, and may even necessitate unlearning as new conditions are encountered.

In addition, the subject approach separates knowledge into discrete categories which are dealt with independently of one another, disregarding the overlap and inter-connectedness between subjects. The student who is not acquainted with the cultural patterns that would normally serve to integrate academic subjects with one another and with reality, will find their content disjointed, unpredictable, and thus of little value. The task of transforming academic subjects into a meaningful and coherent educational experience is difficult enough with Anglo students who are presumably already familiar with the requisite underlying cultural patterns of organization and use. To do so with minority students for whom such "equivalence structures" may not be available requires more resources than are available to the teacher or the school. Modifications in content or teaching method to make the subjects more palatable or to "fit the student's abilities and interests," are of minimal value without situational and processual changes as well.

This brings us to the process problem associated with the subject-oriented curriculum. This problem derives from what Freire (1971) has critically labeled the "banking concept" of traditional schooling, in which "knowledge is a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing" (p. 58). Though Freire presents his case in the framework of cultural oppression, his analysis of the attitudes and practices that accompany a traditional educational approach is not limited to such conditions. He lists the following as characteristics of the banking concept of education (p. 59):

- a) the teacher teaches and the students are taught;
- b) the teacher knows everything and the students know nothing;
- c) the teacher thinks and the students are thought about;
- d) the teacher talks and the students listen-meekly;
- e) the teacher disciplines and the students are disciplined;
- f) the teacher chooses and enforces his choice, and the students comply;
- g) the teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the action of the teacher,
- h) the teacher chooses the program content, and the students (who were not consulted) adapt to it;
- i) the teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his own professional authority, which he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students;
- j) the teacher is the subject of the learning process, while the pupils are mere objects.



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Though this may state the condition in the extreme, it illustrates how the academic world of knowledge and learning can become disassociated from the experiential realities outside the school, and potentially interfere with the student's own processes of inquiry. When viewed in a minority context, the implicit patterns of interaction and cultural assumptions that are reflected in the banking concept (as an expression of the subject-matter approach), are clearly stacked against the student. The teacher's authority is predominant and the student's role is that of passive recipient.

The problem lies not with the teacher or the student, but with the structural framework within which the teacher and student interact. The educational process leaves little room for accommodating to the unique cultural and situational needs of the minority student (cf., Chance, 1973). Even when the curriculum content is opened up to include subject matter electives such as "ethnic studies" or "bilingual education," the content is still cast in the structural and processual framework of prevailing educational ideology, with only limited opportunities for alternative categories of reality and patterns of interaction to be included. Community patterns and categories are modified to fit the framework of the school, rather than the school modifying its patterns and categories to fit the framework of the community. In effect, all responsibility for establishing equivalence structures is relegated to the student.