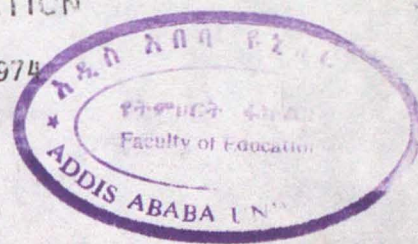


AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE PRACTICES
AND PROCESSES OF CURRICULUM
PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT
FOR GENERAL EDUCATION
IN ETHIOPIA SINCE 1974



by

Feleke Desta



A Thesis

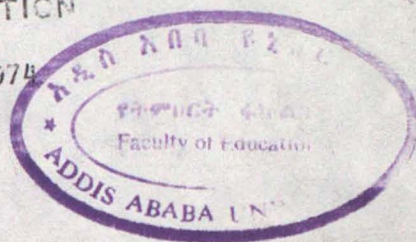
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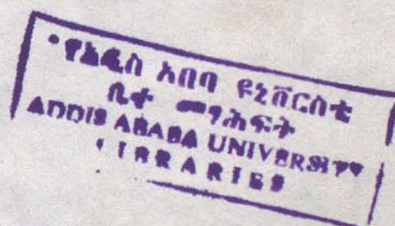
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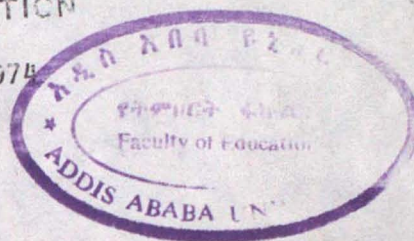


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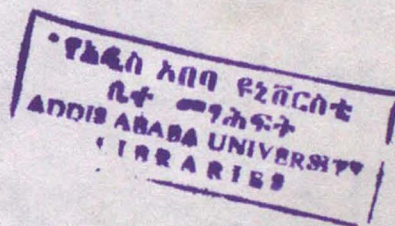
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ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

School of Graduate Studies

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BY

FELEKE DESTA



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June 22/90

June 22/90

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am greatly indebted to Dr. Abebe Bekele - Advisor of the Thesis - for his invaluable suggestions and insights that have undeniably helped to shape my thinking.

The Co-operation of all Department Heads of the Ministry of Education and the Professional staff of the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research (ICDR) in providing information is commended.

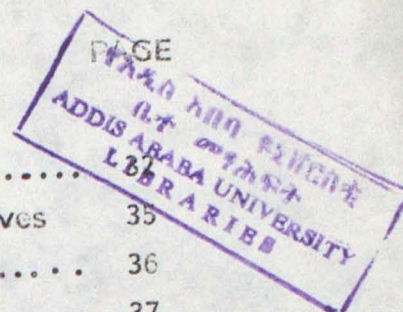
Appreciation is also extended to Mr. G.C. Last (Advisor of the Ministry), Ato Lemma Arity, Ato Kebede Teeku, Ato Tekle Ayano, Ato Wondafrash Kebede and Ato Ahmed Ali for their assistance in locating and providing various source materials. Finally I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Herwig Kempf (Director of Goethe Institute) for the encouragement and help he has given me in the course of my studies.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of schooling is to educate learners in such a way that they will be able to contribute to the welfare and strength of society, and to realize a full development of their potential as human beings. In order to do this, curricula are planned and developed, teachers are trained, text books and other materials are also produced.

To attain its end-result an educational program must be planned and developed systematically using a curriculum development model of one kind. This fact is one that has escaped many persons' attention in several places. A curriculum development model is said to be in actual use when professionals charged with the task share a sense of commonality exemplified by a strong network of its conceptual and methodological commitments that governs their work. Such a conceptual scheme serves to synthesize all undertakings and to reveal problem solutions that arise in learning.

The major objective of this study is to make an investigation into the Practices and Processes of Curriculum Planning and Development for General Education in Ethiopia since 1974 with a focus on the underlying model. In so doing, attempts are made to gather information from professionals working in the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research and officials charged with education policy decision-making at the level of the Ministry. This information is obtained through questionnaires and interviews from the two groups mentioned.

Results hardly suggest that there exists an agreed-upon curriculum development model which can direct the planning and

development of the educational program. In addition to this, the model which is often claimed to be one in use since 1974 appears missing.

In the light of the problems envisaged, it seems extremely important that curriculum planning and development must follow an agreed-upon model, set of procedures and pattern, if the educational program is to become effective. And this has to be clearly spelled out and known. Moreover, curriculum as the means to express fundamental values needs to take a closer study which cuts across needs of prospective learners, contemporary-society, and the large world of knowledge. Since curriculum development is a continuous area of study and improvement, and since needs change in time, curriculum planning and development must be research oriented rather than being a rule-of-thumb procedure.

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

INTRODUCTION

Education is one of the several partners that share the task of giving the pace of economic and social advancements provided that imaginative leadership combined with sound decisions and realistic planning is made. Like all other conscious undertakings, the plan for an educational program must be carefully and systematically worked out, thoroughly and patiently pursued, with high intent and vigor.

For many years several writers have been arguing vehemently to the point that those who make decisions on education in general and curriculum issues in particular, need to look closely at the path the system of education is following in order to see clearly the direction to which it is leading, and to be certain that it is not going toward undesired destinations.

Concerned, as it is, with "what should be taught" and to "what ends-in-view", curriculum stands at the center of education. Because it is the means by which education is transacted, it is increasingly seen as a key problem in education decision-making. This point is brought more clearly in Gordon and Lawton (1978, p. 224) who contend that "questions about curriculum are nearly always close to the central issue of educational debate, although they often appear to be neglected at the time". The literature on curriculum offers much knowledge and information as regards the **practices** and experiences undertaken in working out plans for educational programs from different perspectives. Under

certain circumstances, as can be learned from the bulk of the evidence, some ideas and conceptions may not have received the recognition due them, while others may have been played up beyond their legitimate worth and role.

The sources available for curriculum thinking and decision making are quite abundant. These, in turn have given substantive contribution to knowledge for planning and developing educational programs along certain conceptual frameworks or models. It is only when this knowledge is profitably used that productive, creative, and imaginative thinking in curriculum decision-making can come about in an educational atmosphere free of limitations from doctrinaire positions.

Curriculum planning and development is a continuous process of study and improvement. Indeed, as Willard B. Spadling commented, "Educational programs should stand or fall, persist or be modified, because of the quality of their effects upon students" (In Tabo 1962, p. VIII). Seen from this perspective, it is especially important to explicate and make known the model upon which the curriculum has been developed so that there will be ways for improving, revising, and modifying continuously.

This study therefore attempts, on a more general level, to make an investigation into the Practices and Processes of Curriculum Development for General Education in Ethiopia since 1974. Its main focus lies in pointing out the fact that more thought should go to planning and developing the curriculum along the Behavioural model, and in linking what has transpired with current ideas in the

"missing" model. The "missing" model is missing because it has apparently never been consciously adopted and supported by any actual practice.

BACKGROUND

Modern education in Ethiopia has a history of less than a century. In this relatively short period the system of education in general and the curriculum in particular, has undergone several stages of development with subsequent influences from abroad. Documentation in this respect is sufficiently detailed showing the various foreign influences to which the nation's schools have been subjected. As noted in the various works of those who have attempted to write on the development of modern education in the country, it is very well documented that, quite often, a simple adoption of curricula, curricular materials, school structure and the like of those foreigners who have had the greatest influence at a particular period in history had been put into effect (Teshome Wagaw 1979; Tadesse Terefe 1964; Ayalew G/Selassie 1964; Girma Amare 1961; 1982).

In the face of such influences, it is little wonder that the curriculum can be planned to meet the needs, concerns and demands of the Ethiopian society. Nonetheless, it is also well to remember the great effort enlightened nationals (together with foreign experts) - after a critical analysis of the education sector - have made with respect to the necessity of explicating the objectives of education before embarking on curriculum planning; the sources to be used to determine educational objectives; the

need to plan the educational program in view of its long range effects, its feasibility and relevance. As might be recalled this effort was shown in the Education Sector Review.

In this study-Education Sector Review-, interestingly enough, the view point which many curriculum theoreticians have been, and still are, promoting in their such time-honored works, 'Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction' by Professor Ralph W. Tyler (1949); 'Curriculum Development: Theory into practice' by Hilda Taba (1962); 'Curriculum Development: Theory into Practice' by Tanner and Tanner (1980); 'Curriculum: A Comprehensive Introduction' by John D. McNeil" (1985) - to cite but few -, has been reflected. Accordingly, the Task Force on Curriculum and Methodology (Task Force 9) had clearly established that "a set of well-conceived and well-articulated national aims or goals of education are the guide posts in curriculum planning and development". Furthermore, it also stated that the sources from which these aims and goals must necessarily come are 'the needs of the society, the needs of the individual, and human knowledge' (Education Sector Review, Task Force 9, 1972, p. 11). With this notion in view to facilitate the process of curriculum planning and development, this same Task Force had offered four general aims of education in Ethiopia as 'Economic; Cultural and Moral; Social; and Socio-Political' (ibid., pp. 11-13).

This very well indicates that there has already been a fertile theoretical ground upon which the plan for the educational program can start. But, before the proposals of the study were put into

effect, the February 1974 Revolution broke out introducing a new social order. Since this time because education had to respond to changes taking place in the society, a totally different conception and outlook had to guide the nature of curriculum planning and development.

As most in the field agree, curriculum planning requires systematic thinking that must follow an established set of procedures concerning decisions on the end - purposes of schooling. And these decisions need to be grounded on rational bases with a model that guides the whole endeavour. Curriculum, conceived as the means to express fundamental values which society at a particular period in history upholds, must necessarily employ some kind of model that can sufficiently direct its planning and development. Advancing this position Oliva (1988, p. 160) writes "using a model in such an activity as curriculum development can result in greater efficiency and productivity." Hence, it can be said, following a model in curriculum planning and development provides order to the process.

THE PROBLEM

Sometime after the 1974 massive upheaval in the country, a separate department within the Ministry of Education widely known as Curriculum Department (also called National Curriculum Development Center, and in 1989 renamed as Institute for Curriculum Development and Research - ICDR) entrusted to undertake the task of planning and developing curricula and curricular materials has been established.

As mentioned in *The Ethiopian School Syllabuses* (1984, p. VII), and Anbessu Diazen (1985, p. 28), this department is vested with the responsibility to plan curricula, and devise curriculum materials (text books, teachers' guides, supplementary reading materials and the like) for use in pre-school, primary, and secondary schools all over the country. In addition to these, it is also authorized to issue all directives and guidelines concerning curriculum development and change. Consequently, of the three curriculum design models which Taylor and Richards (1985) mention, the department, as noted in Anbessu Diazen (1985, pp. 28, 32, 37, 45), employs the Ends - Means model (which otherwise is also known as the 'Objectives, the Behavioural, and Tyler's rationale') to plan and develop curriculum for general education.

In the opinion of this researcher, except in Anbessu Diazen (1985), the model employed to this end has not been indicated elsewhere. Even in the Nation-wide study designated as the Evaluative Research on the General Education System of Ethiopia (ERGESE) the conceptual scheme upon which the curriculum plan is founded has not been mentioned. Despite this fact, ERGESE, in its Final Report, among other points, commented that "objectives lack clarity and are hardly attainable; teaching-learning too heavily relies on content, ..." (1979, E.C., pp. 26 - 27). These inadequacies and defects could have been much appreciated if the model used in the process has also been considered.

Although it is claimed that the Ends-Means model is employed to plan and develop curriculum for general education, there seems

to be little rational justification that this model has been used. This, then, calls the need for investigating the actual model upon which the practices and processes of curriculum planning for general education purposes has based itself since 1974.

Statement of the Problem. It is the purpose of this study (1) to identify the model used for planning and developing curriculum for general education since 1974; and (2) to examine the claimed model in light of the basic theoretical constructs of the Behavioural model.

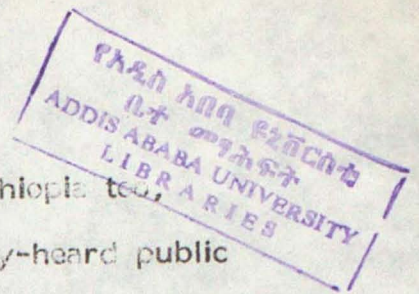
Correspondingly, it is the hypothesis of this study that there seem to be significant differences between the model claimed on the one hand, and the practices and processes undertaken on the other. To this end, some of the questions that this study seeks to answer are:

- (A) On what bases are educational objectives determined?
Who determines them?
What are the basic sources of data used to this end?
How are educational objectives formulated and stated?
- (B) What educational experiences are provided to attain these objectives?
What are the means used to select content and learning experiences?
- (C) How are the educational experiences organized?
What guiding criteria are employed to organize content and learning experiences?
- (D) How is the educational program evaluated?
What evidence is considered valid in evaluating the educational program?

By way of answering these questions, it remains to be seen whether or not the model in use is in conformity with the Behavioural model.

Importance of the Study. This study is felt to be important for the following major reasons.

First, it is generally accepted that curriculum decisions hold central positions in any formally organized educational undertaking - whether in totalitarian or in more democratic societies. This is because when planning educational programs not only are present situations analyzed, but future conditions are forecast as well. To plan for the wrong future at the very least, penalizes learners. As the enormous literature in the field justifies decisions like "what should be taught" and to "what ends - in view" can be dictated by the social philosophy, or the educational philosophy of a nation or even both. Inherent in such decisions are the value orientations of those running the system on the one hand and those charged with curriculum planning on the other. Differences in value commitments have revealed a good deal of variation that range all the way through conceptions of curriculum, to the nature of curriculum planning, and the model that the plan should follow. Consequently, different models have been proposed and put into effect for planning the educational program of a school system. Viewed from this perspective, it seems necessary to examine one's own experiences so as to identify the weaknesses of the model under operation and thereby propose one that appears feasible and more realistic.



Second, today as in many other nations, in Ethiopia too, the quest for excellence in education is a frequently-heard public demand. The means to meet such a demand is by way of planning educational programs that are more suited and attuned to holistic development. This task requires sufficient knowledge in the field. Emphasizing the importance of knowledge about curriculum planning and development, Short (1986) notes that "if there is lack of substantial knowledge regarding this process on the part of those charged with the task, it is likely that the determination of educational objectives, the selection and organization of content, its appropriateness, depth and coverage would be decided arbitrarily".

In precisely similar fashion McNeil (1985) comments, "Curriculum planning and development is a complex intellectual operation involving observations, study of conditions, collection of relevant information, and most of all judgement." Finally, he concludes that 'there can be no true curriculum ends without an intellectual anticipation and evaluation of consequences.'

These imply that curriculum planning is a **serious deliberation** and a complex undertaking in which decisions must be made consciously and intelligently. If curriculum matters are to be guided by whim or desire and if decisions are to be made arbitrarily, they do not only end up in the failure of the educational program but do also result in a loss of society's resources. Thus, to avoid problems of these and of other nature, it appears very necessary to plan the curriculum along a model of one kind. In doing so, it should

also be noted that a good deal of attention need to be given to the specifics of the educational environment and the nature of the society in which the curriculum is to operate. In general, taking into consideration the exercise since 1974, it is perhaps possible to assert that much of the decisions on curriculum are made with little or no account of the many faceted functions of education which demand that education should be a step ahead of the sector it serves. Therefore, in light of these points, it seems extremely important that those charged with the task be aware of this issue.

METHODS OF PROCEDURES AND SOURCES OF INFORMATION (DATA)

It is a descriptive - survey study that specifically aims at examining the extent to which the model in use is in harmony with the Behavioural model. To this end, the study employs the following methods of procedures to collect and analyze data.

Data Source. The sources of data are (1) books, periodicals, and documents; (2) professionals who are currently in charge of developing curriculum and curriculum materials; and those who have had a similar experience for a considerable period of time but are promoted to other departments within the Ministry and other sectors in the last five years; and (3) Heads of the various Departments of the Ministry who at present are in their respective positions and those promoted to other sectors.

Data Gathering Tools. Data are gathered by (1) examining available and accessible documents; (2) developing discussion (interview) items to a total of ten officials of which seven are at present members of the policy-advisory committee within

the Ministry. The other three also have had a similar experience (please see, Annex 1 for the items). From these officials information is obtained by way of discussions made in their respective offices through appointments; (3) developing and administering structured questionnaire items to the professional staff (only nationals) who are currently working in the department and those who have been promoted in the last five years.

In order to see whether or not the Ends - Means model is the one under practice, the content of the questionnaire items are framed in accordance with the basic notions and assumptions of those who promote the point of view (please see, Annex 2). To this effect, a questionnaire consisting of nineteen items is developed and distributed to a total of forty-five professionals (out of which thirty-seven are presently working in the department while the rest eight are those who have been promoted to other departments within the Ministry of Education and other sectors).

Sample. Of the non-probability sampling techniques, purposive sample is used since the number of the study group is limited.

Analysis of Data. To this end, the following procedure is used: first, the responses obtained from the questionnaire items are tabulated, interpreted and analyzed. As shown in Chapter Four, there are eight tables in which the responses of the study group are presented. In each table the reactions of the professionals is indicated both in number and percentage. The interpretation, analysis, and the ensuing discussion therefore, are based on the results obtained. Next, the views of the officials that have been gained from the discussion items are used to substantiate the interpretation, analysis and the discussion wherever deemed necessary.

Model used in the study and Rationale for the choice of the Model

Model used in the study. Among the three principal curriculum design models which Tyler and Richards (1985, pp. 57-72) have pointed out as the Objectives, the Process, and the Situational models; the Behavioural model (the other name for the Objectives model) is chosen for use in this study.

Other things being equal, this model as advanced by Professor Tyler and his proponents, offers a clear statement of the basics of the study of education and the relation of the principles involved to the practice of curriculum planning and development. Moreover, according to these authorities conducting needs assessment in one form or another, provides a focus for a consideration of high-level values in that this procedure takes into account the prospective learners, contemporary-society, and the nature of knowledge as potential sources and influences in curriculum decision-making.

In essence, this model proposes four fundamental and organically interwoven aspects in any serious attempt to work out a plan for an educational program. These, as presented by Tyler (1949) are:

- . Determination of educational objectives;
- . Selection of educational experiences (for the attainment of these objectives);
- . Organization of educational experiences; and
- . Evaluation of the outcomes of the educational program.

Although professor Tyler did not make use of a diagram to describe the process in his model, however, adapting Popham and Baker's (1970, p. 87) as well as Abebe Bekete's (1974, p. 36) illustrations, the model represented schematically may appear somewhat as follows:

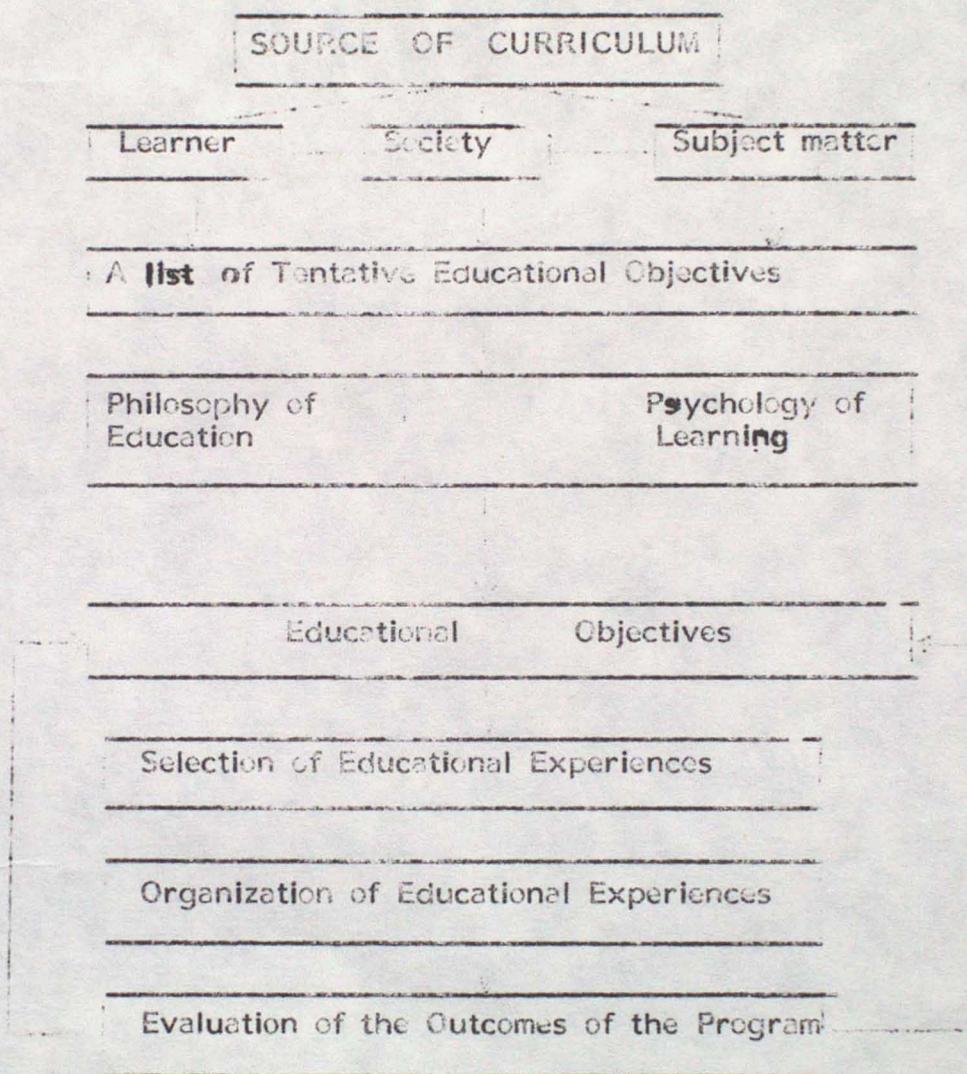


Figure 1. A Schema of the Behavioural Model.

The plan for the educational program that emerges as a final product of this synthesizing process, as the advocates of the model argue, is not a once - and - for all plan; rather is subject to improvement, revision and change by way of conducting systematic studies and evaluation. Hence, the assertion 'curriculum planning and development is a continuous process of study and improvement'.

Rationale for the choice of the Model. As most in the field agree, education is an intentional activity and the school a purposive social institution. Viewed from this perspective, it can be said, if education is to meet its intended purpose, then it follows that the curriculum has to be deliberately planned, systematically organized and consciously pursued.

Curriculum planning and development is a complex undertaking that must employ an agreed upon procedure in order to determine the end purposes of education. This task in turn demands that a good deal of attention be given to the three potential sources and influences if the knowledge schools promote is to prove its efficacy both to the development of the individual and the society at large. The Behavioural model therefore proposes that curriculum planning and development needs to base itself on a broader consideration of these sources in order to workout a feasible, realistic, and relevant set of intended learnings that can eventually produce socially efficient citizens.

Understood properly, this model has an important bearing to curriculum planning and development for general education purpose in the Ethiopian context. This is because, in developing

nations like ours, education is regarded as a means of liberating people from the ages-old cultural and economic backwardness, poverty, ignorance, disease and the like. Under such circumstances, schools must appropriately respond to the burning needs and concerns of the society that cry for solutions.

Perhaps, these may best be attained by way of presenting learners with the true picture of the social environment in which they happen to live and at the same time offering substantive and worthwhile knowledge that can have a transfer value. Unless the curriculum provides worthwhile knowledge from which both learners and society profit, it has to be admitted, all efforts would be doomed to failure and become waste of resources too. Therefore, to a nation like Ethiopia, it is hardly possible to plan the curriculum with an almost exclusive preoccupation of either one or two of the referents noted above. In other words, planning an educational program that primarily aims to fulfill needs and interests of learners, or one that seeks solution to problems of society, or one that cultivates the intellect of learners alone, appears of little use in our context.

Despite some of its criticisms (which have been discussed in Chapter Two), many writers (Taba 1962; Hawes. 1978; Tanner and Tanner 1980; McNeil 1985; Oliva 1988) strongly assert that no other model has proved to be as effective and comprehensive as the Behavioural Model. All its advocates believe that it is the best-known model for answering not only perennial curriculum questions but also to plan viable, realistic, and attainable educational programs.

By and large, it may be said, because it has many advantages over the other models, because it addresses itself toward educating a socially efficient citizen, and because of its implication to the practical study of education as well as curriculum planning and development, it is chosen as a frame of reference in this study.

Delimitation/Limitations of the Study. In view of the major issue the study is after, no attempt is made to examine programs related to Pre-school education, Special education, Technical and Vocational education, Teacher education, and the School experiment on Polytechnical education.

The high turnover of persons from the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research, and the Inaccessibility of some documents has put limitations from obtaining information as expected.

DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

Behavioural Model:- is a model proposed and advanced by professor Ralph Tyler for the planning and development of curricula. In the literature it is known in different names such as the Objectives Model, the Ends-Means Model, and also Tyler's Rationale.

Elementary (Primary) School:- is the first level of formal schooling that lasts for 6 years (grades 1 - 6).

Secondary (Junior and Senior) School - is the next level of formal schooling consisting of junior secondary - grades 7 and 8 - , and senior secondary - grades 9 to 12.



General Education - is that part of the plan for the educational program designed to provide learners with a common universe of discourse, understanding, and competence before they undertake any kind of specialized education.

Professionals - refers to those persons entirely engaged in curriculum development in the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research.

Authorities (Officials, Department Heads) - refers to those persons who are in charge of running the various departments of the Ministry of Education and who at the same time are members of the Policy-Advisory Committee of the Ministry.

Transitional Curriculum - refers to the curriculum that has replaced the one before 1974 and is still in operation in all schools except those seventy schools where Polytechnical Education is under experiment. (The term is not known in curriculum literature).

ORGANIZATION OF THE REMAINDER OF THE STUDY

This study is composed of the following five chapters.

Chapter one deals with the Introduction, Background, the Problem, Statement of the Problem, Importance of the study, Methods of procedure and Sources of Information, Delimitation/ Limitations of the study, and Definition of Terms used.

Chapter Two is a brief account of Review of the Literature and is subdivided into three main headings.

Chapter Three presents an overview of the practices and processes of curriculum planning in Ethiopia since 1974. Chapter Four is Interpretation, Analysis of data and Discussion of the Findings; and finally Chapter Five, Conclusions and Recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITRATURE

In this chapter a brief account of three main topics namely, "Definitional Issues of the Term Curriculum, Some Conceptions in Curriculum Planning and Development and, The Process of Curriculum Planning and Development for General Education using the Behavioural Model , is presented.

DEFINITIONAL ISSUES OF THE TERM CURRICULUM

Obviously the most fundamental concern of schooling is curriculum. Despite this fact, as documentation in the field justifies, Curriculum definitions, meanings and concepts have remained changing over the years. From these changes several differing definitions of the term have also emerged. To illustrate this point a few examples of eminent writers on curriculum is in order.

One of the first to attempt a definition was F. Bobbitt. In his widely referred and often quoted work - The Curriculum (1918) -, Bobbitt defined it as 'that series of things which children and youth must do and experience by way of developing abilities to do things that make up the affairs of adult life and to be in all respects what adults should be' (In Caswell and Campbell 1935, p. 67; in Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 24). According to Bobbitt, since the whole purpose of education is 'the preparation of the learner for life', the curriculum would then take as its primary purpose the ability to develop those

experiences which are considered worthwhile by the grown-ups.

✓ Next, taking a similar approach, Caswell and Campbell (1935, p. 66) wrote that Curriculum is composed of all experiences children have under the guidance of teachers. Here, too, experiences of all kind are bound within the domain of curriculum. Such definitions, it can be argued, that embrace 'experience' with all its underlying qualifications as the central theme of curriculum give or suggest little hint as to the types of experiences that should be properly provided by the school and those that could be promoted by other agencies outside the school. In other words, definitions of this type are so broad that they regard curriculum as mere experiences with little or no mention of their systematic deliberation as well as the knowledge component these so-called experiences are to promote.

⊗ Third, Smith, et.al., (1957, p. 3) conceived curriculum as "a sequence of potential experiences setup in school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting". These authorities approach curriculum from the view point of culture. Thus, they write, "the curriculum is always, in every society, a reflection of what people think, feel, believe, and do" (ibid.). Although it is true that the curriculum operates within a given society, and at a particular period in history, it should however be noted that there is a recognizable debate in the literature concerning such conceptions of curriculum. Since these arguments are founded on diverse grounds no attempt will be made to discuss them here.

✓ Fourth, it is other curriculum writers contention that curriculum be understood as "a written document" (Deauchamp 1975, p. 103); "a selection from the culture of society" (Lawton 1975, p. 6); and a plan of activities deliberately organized so that pupils will attain by learning certain educational ends or objectives' (Hirst 1974, p. 132). From these definitions, again it is not difficult to see what each writer meant by curriculum. Such distinctions not only make curriculum complex, but may also lead to serious conceptual and practical difficulties.

✓ Fifth, having gone through the various definitions that have been proposed by many authorities in time, Tanner and Tanner (1980, p. 38) suggest what they called a 'tentative working definition' as 'that reconstruction of knowledge and experience systematically developed under the auspices of the school (or university), to enable the learner to increase his or her control of knowledge and exeperience. Unlike the other definitions here three points seem to have deserved attention; (1) curriculum embraces both knowledge and experience; (2) curriculum needs to be planned and developed systematically; and (3) it is regarded as having some ends-in-view (in this case, presumably, increasing learners control of knowledge and experience).

→ Finally, there are other authorities who vehemently argue to the point that curriculum must be viewed in a more comprehensive and broader manner. This is because curriculum in its part and in its totality has to fulfill certain educational functions serving as an instrument to the society that aims to promote knowledge, values, beliefs, skills, and attitudes of some kind by way of its formally established institutions - schools -, to its most precious

resources - learners. Eventually the advocates of this view define curriculum as "a plan for an educational program" (Tyler in Giroux et. al., 1981, p. 17; Taba 1962, p. 11; Taylor and Richards 1985, p. 3; Squires 1987, p. 2; Oliva 1988, p. 10). According to these authorities, curriculum issues are central to education and, therefore, are characterized by a multitude of considerations.

In most treatments concerning this view, curriculum is taken to be at the heart of the educational enterprise. Hence, it is argued that curriculum issues must deserve care and attention for they cannot be simply taken for granted or justified in terms of what is 'natural' and 'normal'. Thus it is reasonably certain that curriculum is 'the means through which education is transacted'.

X "Without curriculum", note Taylor and Richards (1985, p. 2), "education has no vehicle, nothing through which to transmit its message, to convey its meanings, to exemplify its values." Viewed from this perspective, the proponents of this standpoint tend to reflect the fact that a definition of curriculum need not be restricted to explaining the term as mere experiences, subjects to be studied, or as being synonymous with education. Central to an understanding of curriculum is that it should nearly always be conceived in its totality rather than in isolated fragments. This is so because no curriculum grounded in either of the ways described so far can possibly be adequate enough to comprehensively explain the conceptions underlying its essence.

So far, it has been pointed out that many writers in time have attempted to define or at least to describe curriculum.

Unfortunately, the definitions that have been proposed are found to be as varied as the numerous writers who have advanced them. One way of explaining the rationale for this absence of commonality is difference in the educational ideology that each writer holds. In common parlance, an ideology is a system of beliefs and values held in common by members of a social group (or individual) irrespective of their (or the individual's) social class, political or economic positions.

Similarly, an educational ideology can be taken to mean "a system of beliefs that gives general direction to the educational policies and activities of those who hold these beliefs" (Taylor and Richards 1985, pp. 31-33; Scrimshaw (1983) in G. Squires 1987, p. 11; Bernstein (1976) in Cherryholmes 1982, p. 28). Incorporated in the explanations of educational practices and environments are the principles, rules and ideologies constitutive of those practices. Because these beliefs are about human nature, society, knowledge and education, it is likely that these beliefs influence one's conception of curriculum. In the face of these, perhaps, it may be possible to assert that curriculum embodies a set of principles and values that comes from somewhere and one that represents a particular view. Hence, the meaning of and knowledge about curriculum is not neutral for curriculum, in the final analysis, is a question of values.

In this study, the definition and interpretation accepted by the researcher and the one to be utilized in the ensuing discussion is that of Professor R.W. Tyler and his proponents.

SOME CONCEPTIONS IN CURRICULUM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

It is perhaps belabouring the obvious in saying that curriculum planning has been viewed from different vantage points. This is mainly due to the divergent standpoints people have concerning the functions of schools. Because the meaning one attaches to schooling naturally influences one's conception of curriculum there has been, and still exists, a garden variety of views as regards curriculum planning and development. For instance, to some, curriculum planning is virtually a political affair; to others, it is the sole prerogative of those conventionally labelled group of people known as curriculum experts. Still more, to others promoting academic excellence, transmitting cultural heritage, developing each learner's potential to its maximum limit, remaking or recreating society, are issues that curriculum planning should concern itself. In the confines of this study, it is not possible to do more than sketch the basic ideas underlying the following three points.

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Curriculum Planning. Schools, like other social institutions are a product of the society in which they exist, and hence tend to fulfill a number of educational functions. The curriculum, it can be said, is the instrument to serve these functions. Curriculum planning, therefore, should take place by looking at the whole canvass and following an established set of procedures if the educational program has to fulfill both its intended purposes and also be able to respond to changes in society. Curriculum

planning, according to Hass (1983, p. 5) is

The process of gathering, sorting, selecting, balancing and synthesizing relevant information from many sources in order to design those experiences that will assist learners in attaining the goals of the curriculum. It involves the consideration and use of planned goals and objectives.

This view clearly advanced the position that curriculum planning is a complex undertaking that requires orderly thinking involving a functional relationship between the steps it passes through. Moreover, it is also a deliberate and sustained effort whereby bits and pieces of information from one or two sources cannot be grafted together in an additive fashion. Rather, it is a conscious effort in which priorities are set and value judgements are made after a careful analysis and synthesis of the information obtained from different sources.

Again, according to this line of thinking the phrase curriculum development refers to 'developing the plans for an educational program, including the identification and selection of educational objectives, the selection of learning experiences, the organization of the learning experiences, and the evaluation of the educational program' (Tyler in Giroux et.al., 1981, p. 18; Taba 1962, p. 10; Smith, et.al., 1957, p. VII).

The potential adopters of this view propose that behind all curriculum planning there are decisions. Among others, these include such issues as sources of the curriculum, social forces and influences, the sociology of knowledge and the like. Furthermore, it is contended that curriculum planning has

certain characteristics. As cited in Becher and Maclure (1978, p. 20) Center for Educational Research and Innovation (OECD 1975, p. 13) has outlined three of these characteristics as follows:

First, the task of curriculum development must be institutionalized, at least to some extent; second, it must be a process of change intended to lead to improvement, and must include an element of feedback and evaluation (taking a broad interpretation of these); and finally, it must be capable of being described in relation to actual practice of school and classroom.

In advancing this notion Becher and Maclure note that these features allow 'curriculum planning to embrace a range of different activities, each of which attempts to offer some relational means of changing the curriculum, ... for what is deemed to be the better' (1978, p. 20). Reflecting their growing awareness, many writers have put considerable effort in arguing that curriculum should be planned consciously since it will be unrealistic if the knowledge that schools offer on the one hand, and the social realities on the other go astray. Too often, in pointing this fact, it has been concluded 'systematic curriculum planning and development is found to be more effective than trial and error' (Oliva 1988, p. 44).

Curriculum Planning as Politics. In an attempt to show the effect of politics on education some writers take curriculum planning as being more of a political affair than a professional undertaking. Of those who hold such views - Rowley (1971); Becher and Maclure (1978); Hawes (1978); Apple (1979) are few among many. According to these persons, since the content of education at schools, to a

larger degree, tends to reflect the views of politically dominant groups instead of expressing true educational needs, they contend that education in general and the curriculum in particular appear as a reflection of the political system. In this connection Rowley (1971, p. 36) observed that "every educational plan is a political document." Similarly, Williams (1961, p. 28) commented, 'the common prescription of education as the key to change, ignores the fact that the form and content of education are affected, and in some cases determined, by the actual systems of political decisions ...'. Although this is not the place to go into the technicalities of how people think or consider curriculum as a political document, it may however be worth noting the influence of politics when setting educational goals.

Curriculum planning and development, in its real sense, makes a rational attempt to set educational ends at a level which can be attained and also best suited to the socioeconomic needs of a country, particularly when decisions are made in accordance with what is possible in the time and with the resources available. But, "Unchecked political interventions from non-education sources can threaten the quality of educational programs" (Steller 1980, p. 161). Under such circumstances the purpose of education will be to confirm and perpetuate the authority of the day. In many cases, as Steller contends, it has been found that 'educational policy makers often tend to respond more quickly with more vigor to political demands than to true educational needs.' Consequently,

"The difference between what special interest groups and educational professionals perceive as curriculum needs could be very wide" (ibid., p. 162).

The implication of what has been said above is that basing curriculum issues on mere politics for the most part, neglects the great intellectual efforts made by educators in the field for years and eventually turns toward orienting learners into some kind of authoritarian philosophy. But curriculum, as many believe, cannot and need not be imposed by any one individual or group upon others.

Seen from this perspective, it may be argued, curriculum is the most important social policy that should be made on valid grounds. Though it sounds sensible and is also an advantage to the whole arena of education, the contention that "independence from politics would keep out the selfish aims and corrupt tactics of the politician" (Salisbury 1967, p. 410) seems hard to justify for no education can be neutral from the political undertakings of its time.

Curriculum Planning as a Co-operative Endeavour. Among the several controversies in curriculum planning and development one of much discussion and heated debate is the idea whether curriculum planning should be left to groups of people called 'curriculum experts', or that it should be a joint venture calling the participation of others from different fields. In effect, two different standpoints have been revealed. On the one hand,

there are those who strongly argue that curriculum planning and development is purely the task of specialists, therefore, neither teachers nor any other group need to take part (As cited in Caswell and Campbell 1935, p. 73 Bagley and Whipple are the Champions of this view).

On the otherhand, many writers on curriculum forcefully argue in an opposite direction. Correspondingly, they advance the position that curriculum planning should be taken as a cooperative effort and should call for the participation of many persons from various fields. These include education research workers, subject-matter specialists, psychologists, sociologists, educators, teachers, and parents. One reason for such wide participation is to avoid opposition or halfhearted support from those in other fields as well as the general public.

Curriculum planning, as Herrick (1950, p. 37) believes, 'is essentially the result of co-operative effort and by its very nature must draw upon many kinds of competencies.'

If the conception that curriculum planning as a co-operative endeavour is accepted, it appears necessary to mention the importance of teacher participation in this respect. No matter how intelligently the curriculum plan may be worked out by other groups, without teacher participation it is hardly possible to assume that it would be effective in actual classroom practice. According to the proponents of this standpoint teacher participation 'ensures teacher ownership of curriculum, and continuity between development and implementation' (Corter, 1987, p. 6). Because

teachers are the interpreters and the guide in the implementation of the educational program, it is true that they need to have a part in curriculum planning. To this end, again Tanner and Tanner write:

... teacher involvement in curriculum development is an irrevocable fact of educational life. The classroom is a fertile field for theory development, and is practically a virgin field for that matter. ... (Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 674).

But in order to maximally benefit from teacher participation it has to be admitted, teachers must have adequate knowledge of and sufficient experience in curriculum work.

In reality, there are, at least, three major ways in which such knowledge may prove its importance: first, it enables teachers to undertake in consciously planned curriculum revision and improvement; next, it enables them explain their practices to others; and finally, it helps them react appropriately to pressures coming from outside.

THE PROCESS OF CURRICULUM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT FOR GENERAL EDUCATION USING THE BEHAVIOURAL MODEL.

Among the many attempts that curriculum theoreticians make to improve education and thereby facilitate the task of devising the plans for educational programs, one of the most significant is the effort they make to plan curricula using certain frameworks or models. Efforts in this direction, as mentioned earlier, have resulted in three principal models namely, 'the Objectives (which

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in this study the designation Behavioural is used); the Process, and the Situational Models'. This section, therefore, seeks to deal with only one of these models - the Behavioural model - with the requisite steps and procedures needed to plan and develop the curriculum for general education.

Basic Assumptions of the Model. Before undertaking this point it is important to note that just like curriculum the definition of education is one that has taxed many in the field. Across the literature a good deal of variation has been documented. As mentioned earlier, obviously all differences in this regard are reflections of the educational ideologies of their originators. Thus, by examining definitions of education it may be possible to analyze what has been conceived as essential to the process.

In essence, the Behavioural model bases itself on Professor R.W. Tyler's conception of education, in which education is defined as 'a process of changing the behaviour patterns of people' (1949, pp. 5 - 6). To avoid disputes over the term behaviour, Tyler used it in 'the broad sense to include thinking and feeling as well as overt action' (ibid., p. 6). Similarly, Tyler's proponents, addressing the same issue note:

The chief activity of education is to change individuals in some way; to add to the knowledge they possess, to enable them to perform skills which otherwise they would not perform, to develop certain understandings, insights, and appreciations (Taba 1962, p. 194).

From what has been suggested by Tyler and those who share his view point, it is reasonably certain to assume that education entails change in the behaviour patterns of the potential learners.

And this change eventually manifests itself in a variety of encounters which learners may come across. By and large, these changes take different forms as in thought, feeling, skills, knowledge, attitude, habits and the like. Properly understood all are the characteristic features of the educative process, and this is the imperative of the Behavioural model.

This model, besides giving order to the intricate task of planning for the educational program helps to conceptualize the process by showing established set of procedures. Moreover, the model also proposes that before embarking on a curriculum plan a good many types of information need to be considered in order to make adequate decisions. With such contentions, it generally recognizes the following points as its major concern: (1) making profound needs assesement; (2) examining the potential sources of data that enable to determine educational purposes; (3) selecting and organizing educational experiences that eventually lead to the attainment of these purposes; and (4) making comprehensive as well as systematic evaluation in order to appraise the worth of the educational program. In the remaining part of this section each of these concerns are treated in turn.

Needs Assessment. This is an important first procedure that lays the ground work for curriculum planning and development. Therefore, assessing needs in one form or another, has been found necessary to identify educational purposes.

Though defined in several ways, in the broadest sense, needs assessment is "a process for identifying programmatic needs that must be addressed by curriculum planners" (Oliva, 1988, p. 242).

Since the term 'need' may reveal several meanings, presumably, by restricting its use to a gap between actual and desired behaviour confusion may likely be avoided. To this effect, McNeil (1985, p. 93) writes:

In the context of curriculum, a need can be defined as a condition in which a discrepancy exists between an acceptable state of learner behaviour or activities and an observed learner state.

Thus, by obtaining information through this procedure, curriculum planners would be by far better off because as Unruh believes "... prior to involvement in making major decisions, it is necessary to identify needs and concerns through some systematic way of involving a diverse constituency. Assigning priorities can only be done after 'identifying these needs,' concludes Unruh (In Steller 1980, p. 163).

In view of this point it can be said, if those charged with education are to make realistic, feasible, and adequate decisions, needs assessment appears to be a crucial task. This is because, by assessing needs decision makers would be in a better position to define the objectives of education and thereby provide the ground upon which the curriculum can be planned.

Perhaps at this juncture, it seems reasonable to point out the fact that assessing needs for the purpose of general education

differ markedly from that for specialized education or training in a specific area. This distinction is brought out clearly by Mauritz Johnson Jr. who starts his proposition in saying: 'The basis of curriculum selection differs for training and for education'.

Accordingly, he describes the two terms - training and education - first, and then explicates how to go about to both ends as follows:

Training is the process of preparing an individual to perform defined functions in a predictable situation. The selection of curriculum content for training is based on an analysis of the specific functions to be performed and the specific situations in which they are to be performed.

Education is the process of equipping an individual to perform undefined functions in unpredictable situations. The selection of content for education is based on its having the widest possible significance and greatest possible explanatory power (In Giroux, et.al., (eds.), 1981, p. 82).

This conception, therefore, assumes that it is essential to take a good account of the basic ideas underlying each aspect while assessing needs.

Once the idea that assessing needs in a systematic and profound manner before setting educational ends is accepted, it is true that employing this procedure is not a one time operation, rather a continuing and periodic activity. Because needs, be it that of learners, society, or subject matter are not static. Hence, if education is to respond to change, a thorough needs assessment should be in order, for no educational program can claim to have "reached a state of perfection in which it ministers all needs" (Oliva 1988, p. 247).

Understood as such this procedure presupposes four complementary and interdependent steps. These, as outlined by McNeil (1985, p. 93), are:

Formulating a set of tentative goals statements; assigning priorities to different goals; determining the acceptability of learner performance in each of the preferred goals; and translating high priority goals into plans.

Sources For Determining Educational Objectives. Perhaps, before dealing with the possible sources from which data essential to determine educational objectives can be obtained it is necessary to be clear with the concept of educational objectives.

The educational literature uses a proliferation of terms, rather loosely, often interchangeably, to signify the ends-in-view of education. Educators speak of "aims", "ends", "outcomes", "goals", "purposes", and "objectives." Writers such as Bloom, Glasser, Popham, Mager, Tyler, and Gagne, use the terms goal, purpose, aim, and objectives interchangeably. On the other hand, educators such as Goodlad, and Ammons employ the terms goal or aim to denote a "remote end for the guidance of an educational activity" and objectives to indicate "the kinds of behaviour changes in the students to be brought about through learning experiences" (Abebe Bekele 1974, pp. 25-26).

Since there is little or no agreement among those in the field as to the preferred usage of these terms, it appears hard to give a definition that can be accepted by all. Nevertheless, on the basis of the conception of education offered by Tyler (1949, pp. 5-6)

and agreeing with Abebe Bekele (1974, p. 26), educational objectives can be construed as

statements which indicate the kinds of behaviour a society wishes its youth to acquire through schooling in order to understand and select those values which are derived from its conception of good life. In short, educational objectives denote what students are to know, believe or do.

From this conception, it then becomes logical to raise the question 'what are the sources for determining educational objectives?'

According to Tyler and those who share his position, curriculum planners need to identify educational objectives by gathering data from three sources: The learner, contemporary-life outside the school, and subject matter specialists. Before taking up each of these in turn, it is necessary to see how each source came to be regarded as the sole means to determine educational purposes.

Conflicting views Over the Sources. A review of the history of curriculum reveals that different positions have been held to determine the objectives of education. The first of these follows that the optimal development of the learner is the basic goal of education. Thus it looks at the learner in his world with his interests, motivations, capacities, and his day-to-day interactions with the environment as the sources of educational objectives.

The other position finds its basic orientation in the larger society. It, therefore, looks to the "social functions", or "problems of living", or in the words of Short (1986, p. 3) the "persistent life situations" described as "those situations that secure in the life of the individual in many different ways as he grows

from infancy to maturity". According to this line of thinking, curriculum planners have the task to examine present living in the society so as to discover the situations and problems which persist in the lives of all individuals. Furthermore, curriculum planners also seek to discover the problems faced by learners at each developmental level within the framework of persistent life situations and then set up learning activities designed to help them solve these problems. Consequently, these situations provide the basis of educational objectives.

The third position conceives the major fields of organized body of knowledge or what are known as the disciplines as the primary source of educational objectives. These disciplines, according to the champions of this position, are the results of the work of generations of scholars. Thus, as a result of mastery of skills, generalizations, and understandings of the various subjects embodied in the **disciplines**, it is believed that the intellect is cultivated and learners acquire increasingly more meaningful insights into the problems of present day living and eventually develop a system of values which would help them solve these problems. In this case too, curriculum planners, with the help rendered by specialists, decide the objectives of education.

As shown in the preceding overview, the basic philosophical orientation of each group has led to child-centered, society-centered, and subject centered curricula in time.

Bringing Considerations Together. Many educators and curriculum theoreticians seem to accept the fact that no single source is adequate enough to provide valid information to

determine educational objectives. Although some writers, for example Tanner and Tanner (1980) claim that these three main sources have been well recognized by John Dewey (in his early writings), however it is Tyler who has unambiguously stated and very well treated (both in depth and breadth in his Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction 1949). This same position is shared by, for example, National Education Association (1964); McNeil (1969, 1985); Doll (1970); Hass (1983); Taba (1962); Lowy (1977); Oliva (1988); L.N. Tanner (1983); Huenecke (1982); Klein (1986).

When educational objectives are determined on the basis of data gathered from these three sources, they can hardly be considered as matters of individual or group preferences. Inherent in the emphasis given to prior determination of educational objectives is that (1) their explication provides the foundation for curriculum planning and development since objectives give direction and guidance to other aspects; (2) until they are determined there would be no way of telling to what end the educational system is performing and even knowing what its mission is. Pointing to the importance of determining educational objectives as a very crucial task, Tyler (1949, p. 3) commented:

... If an educational program is to be planned and if efforts for continued improvement are to be made, it is very necessary to have some conception of the goals that are being aimed at. These educational objectives become criteria by which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional procedures are developed, and test and examinations prepared. All aspects of

the educational program are really means to accomplish basic educational purposes.

Given that the determination of educational objectives is indeed an important first step that presupposes an account of the three sources, the question becomes how do these sources satisfactorily discharge the necessary information toward explicating the purposes of schooling? A brief account of each is presented here under.

The Learner as Data Source. Despite the controversy on how studies of learners can be used to determine educational objectives, a good number of educators agree to the fact that they can, and do, provide relevant data to this end. In addition to those cited in Abebe Bekele (1974 p. 32) - Goodlad (1969 p. 125); Bowers (1963, pp. 266 - 268); Rehage (1965, pp. 29 - 49); Brackenbury (1967, pp. 89 - 108)-, other writers such as McNeil (1985, pp. 100 - 101), Tanner and Tanner (1980, pp. 142 - 186) have also expressed their position in support of this point.

Since studies of learners embody both their needs and interests, it appears necessary to identify the manner in which needs on the one hand, and interests on the other provide suggestions to determine educational objectives.

As has been stated previously, problems and doubts over the term need can possibly be avoided by confining its meaning to "something that, if it were to be missing, one would want to have replaced" (Barrow, 1984 p. 79), or to "the gap between

the present state of an individual and desirable objectives ... (Taba 1962, p. 286). Thus, investigations that attempt to find out gaps between the acceptable and the present status of students, according to Tyler (1949, p. 8), "are necessary studies to provide a basis for the selection of objectives which should be given primary emphasis in the school's program".

The other term which is coined with 'needs' is 'interests'. Several educators also believe that learning makes no headway without interest, but interest, per se, does not determine objectives. However, identifying interests of prospective learners could serve as a starting point, for students tend to learn and thus become involved more in those things which interest them. In this connection, it is believed that the effectiveness of the educational program depends on how well it is adapted to the interests of learners, year by year, as they proceed from one level to another, and also as they grow toward maturity. Emphasizing studies of learners as having important implications in the identification of educational objectives, Tyler contends that objectives should:

first, stress those things that are important for students to learn in order to participate constructively in contemporary society; second, be sound in terms of the subject matter involved; and finally, be in accord with the educational philosophy of the institution (Tyler 1976, p. 63).

At last, he recommends that clearly, 'the curriculum rationale should strongly emphasize, in curriculum planning, serious attention should be given to the interests, activities, problems and concerns

of the students' (ibid., p. 65).

Contemporary-Society as Data Source. Human needs and aspirations, and developments in science and technology are factors that have the potential to influence education and to which education will, in its turn, be called upon to act. There can be several reasons as to why schools offer different subjects at different times in history. Essentially they do so mainly for society is dynamic - that it changes and evolves. Again changes in convictions as to what youngsters need to learn reveals shift on the purposes of education. This is because schools, like all other social institutions, are a product of the society in which they exist, hence tend to reflect in their objectives the needs, desires and aspirations of that society.

Viewed from this perspective, it may be said, a study of contemporary society can suggest the kinds of knowledge, concepts, attitudes, skills, values and the like students are to learn and acquire at a particular time. But, how do these societal needs get identified so that they would be used to determine educational purposes?

In general, there are two ways in which societal needs, demands as well as concerns may be reflected. The first is by way of conducting comprehensive and systematic studies. In this endeavor, attempts are made to gather pertinent information from the large value system of the society, from its educational tradition, and from current problems that cry for solution. To this end, Tyler (1949, pp. 19 - 20) suggests that curriculum

planners need to develop a classification scheme that divides life into various spheres, such as 'health, family, recreation, vocation, consumption, civic roles and the like.' From a study of society emerge many potential educational objectives.

In the second case, needs are determined by the spokesman of the society (this can be the central government, the ruling party, or parliament - depending on the situation). Under such conditions these needs are expressed either explicitly or implicitly in legislations, proclamations, declarations, and other legal enactments that appear from time to time. These documents, therefore are supposed to contain what the sanctioning body presumes to be the problems of the society which have to be met by education.

No matter how one goes about identifying societal needs, it is inescapable that contemporary life outside the school must be considered if what is to be offered at schools is likely to be profitable to the society.

The position that society deserves to be one source from which suggestions to determine the purposes of schooling, according to Tyler (1949, p. 17), rests on two major points:

First, because life is continually changing, it is very necessary to focus educational efforts upon the critical aspects of this complex life and upon those aspects that are of importance today so that we do not waste the time of students in learning things which were important fifty years ago but no longer have significance at the same time that we are neglecting areas of life that are now important and for which the schools provide no preparation.

The other is 'transfer of training.' In a world today where both the individual and society are increasingly permeated by developments in science and technology, many educators are of the opinion that the only behaviour that is truly learned is the one that learners carry on with consistency so much so that it becomes part of their repertoire of behaviour. Here too, Tyler notes: "the learner must see the way in which what is learned can be used, and have the opportunity to continue employing the learned behaviour in the various situations he/she encounters" (Tyler 1976, p. 63). Thus, the study of contemporary life not only suggests information on "what to teach" but also sees the worth of what is to be taught in relation to its relevance both to the learner and the society.

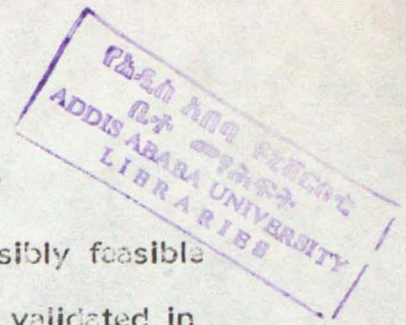
Subject Specialists as Data Source. The views of subject specialists, as the predominant source of information, to determine educational objectives was the virtually unchallenged aspect in the educational world for several decades. Identifying educational objectives on the views of these persons alone has revealed many problems upon the total educational program in that it has led, (1) to an almost exclusive preoccupation with fragmented subject areas; (2) to problems related with transfer of training, and (3) to problems of repetition with little or no reinforcement - to mention, but few.

Even when used as one source of data, subject matter specialists have also been criticized on several grounds, of which the following constitute the most serious ones; "the objectives

they propose are too technical, too specialized, or in other ways are inappropriate for a large number of school students; they do not list the objectives specifically; most of them begin with some outline indicating their conceptions of the subject field itself and move on to indicate ways in which it can be used for purposes of general education" (Tyler 1949, pp. 26 - 27).

But, if suggestions that can be of help toward the anticipated end is to be drawn from these persons, the question that they should be asked, according to Tyler, is "What can your subject contribute to the education of young people who are not to be specialists in your field ...". "If these specialists offer adequate answer to such questions", Tyler believes, "they can make an appropriate contribution, because, presumably, they have a considerable knowledge of the specialized field and many of them have had opportunity both to see what this subject has done for them and for those with whom they work" (ibid., p. 26).

Thus far it has been made clear that the determination of educational objectives is a complex task that requires attending to the three sources of data. In general, those involved in curriculum planning and development need to be capable enough to devise strategies for achieving the necessary information from each source without bias to either. When working to this end, it has to be admitted, knowing which source to consider may be difficult, but at the same time overlooking or even neglecting a significant one may be a more serious error. Hence, the proposition, 'Any curriculum ... that attempts to pit one factor against the



others is doomed to fail" (L.N. Tanner 1983, p. 39).

Validation of Objectives. Once the array of possibly feasible educational objectives are identified, they have to be validated in order to eliminate the unimportant and contradictory ones. To this end, Tyler advised the use of social and educational philosophy, and educational psychology as screening devices.

Validating the tentative lists of objectives is believed to be an important task because as Tyler cautions, "an educational program is not effective if so much is attempted that little is accomplished" (1949, p. 33). Therefore, in order to select those objectives that are important, attainable in some significant degree in the available school time, and consistent with each other, it is necessary that they must be validated in view of the two screens suggested.

Using the first device questions such as 'what ought to be learned', and 'should the school develop young people to fit into the present society as it is or does the school have a revolutionary mission to develop young people who will seek to improve the society?' can be answered adequately only with respect to philosophy. Moreover, Rohage (1965, pp. 29 - 49) asserts that "some concepts about the worth of the individual, about the nature of good life, about the place of education in helping young people to find that good life, about the role of formal schooling in this regard, and about the role of school in society" (in Abebe Bekele, 1974, p. 35) are issues related with the social and educational philosophy a nations' schools are committed to.

The second screening device is educational psychology (or sometimes called psychology of learning). Since educational ends

are results to be achieved from student learnings, it is necessary that they should be selected with adequate knowledge of this discipline. Thus, effective application of this screen demands sufficient knowledge in educational psychology, in human growth and development by the group charged with this task. Tyler (1949, pp. 38 - 43), pointing to the importance of such knowledge wrote in some detail that it:

enables us to distinguish changes in human beings that can be expected to result from a learning process from those that can not; to distinguish goals that are feasible from those that are likely to take a very long time or almost impossible of attainment at the age level contemplated; gives us some idea with grade placement - the length of time required to attain an objective and the age levels at which the effort is most efficiently employed; deals with the conditions requisite for the learning of certain types of objectives; provides information on important psychological findings like that most learning experiences produce multiple outcomes, learnings which are consistent with each other-which are integrated and coherent-reinforce each other while those that are compartmentalized or inconsistent not only require greater time but may actually interfere with each other; involves a unified formulation of a theory of learning which helps us to outline the nature of the learning process, how it takes place, under what conditions, what sort of mechanisms operate and the like.

In general, the proposed list of tentative educational objectives before they take their final form must be carefully screened and validated in view of their 'congruency with values and functions, comprehensiveness, consistency, attainability and feasibility' (McNeil, 1985, p. 201) so that they would properly guide and direct the ensuing tasks.

Formulation and Statement of Educational Objectives. Very many educators Tyler (1949); Taba (1962); Lewy (1977); Saylor et.al., (1981); McNeil (1985) - to cite few, agree to the point that educational objectives should be formulated and stated unambiguously - so that they would not mean different things to different people; at a moderate level of generality - so that they would not appear too vague; and contain substantive elements - so that they indicate both the behaviour to be developed and the area of life in which the behaviour will operate.

Although there are several ways of formulating and stating educational objectives, as for example, 'indicating things which the teacher is to do; listing topics, concepts, generalizations or other elements of content that are to be dealt with; stating generalized patterns of behaviour which fail to indicate the area of life or the content to which the behaviour applies', the most useful one is 'to express them in terms which identify both the kind of behaviour to be developed in the student and the content or area of life in which this behaviour is to operate' (Tyler 1949, pp. 46 - 47; Taba 1962, pp. 12, 350 - 352; Saylor et.al. 1981, pp. 160 - 163; Oliva 1988, pp. 168 - 169).

As noted above, clearly formulated objectives have two dimensions - the behavioural and content aspects. To enable curriculum planners to effectively accomplish this task, Tyler recommends employing a graphic two-dimensional chart as shown in the following illustration. Note, however, that the example given (in Biological Science) is applicable to any subject area at any grade level.

ILLUSTRATION OF THE USE OF A TWO-DIMENSIONAL CHART IN STATING OBJECTIVES FOR A HIGH SCHOOL COURSE IN BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE*

Content Aspect of the Objectives		Behavioural Aspect of Objectives					6 Broad and mature interest	7 Social attitudes
		1 Understanding of important facts and principles	2 Familiarity with dependable sources of information	3 Ability to interpret data	4 Ability to apply principles	5 Ability to study and report results of study		
Content Aspect of the Objectives	A. Functions of Human Organisms							
	1. Nutrition	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
	2. Digestion	x		x	x	x	x	
	3. Circulation	x		x	x	x	x	
	4. Respiration	x		x	x	x	x	
	5. Reproduction	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
	B. Use of plant & Animal Resources							
	1. Energy Relationships	x		x	x	x	x	x
	2. Environmental factors conditioning plant & animal growth	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
	3. Heredity & genetics	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
	4. Land Utilization	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
	C. Evolution & Development	x	x	x	x		x	x

By using the x's, it is possible to indicate not only what kinds of behaviour are to be developed in the Biological science course but in connection with each of these kinds of behaviour to show the particular areas of content or experiences to which the behaviour is to apply (Tyler 1949, p. 51).

* Source: Tyler, R.W. Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction: Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949, p. 50.

Selection and Organization of Educational Experiences

The foregoing discussion has briefly pointed out how the ends to be attained by the educational program are to be determined, validated, formulated and stated. In the absence of well articulated and sufficiently clear educational objectives, it is hardly possible to select and organize educational experiences. As a result, prior determination of educational objectives is regarded as the most crucial task from the point of view of the Behavioural model.

In this section, the selection and organization of educational experiences is to be considered. The term 'educational experience' as used here refers both to content and learning experiences as exemplified in the model.

Selection of Content and Learning Experiences

Curriculum consists of both content and learning experiences. However, it should be understood that these two terms are not synonymous. The content of curriculum, by and large, refers to the compendium of information; that is related body of facts, laws, theories, and generalizations having a long range potential and utility aimed at bringing desirable change in learner behaviour.

Learning experiences on the other hand, are the specific kinds of activities by which the content is learned and as such they are reflected in learners response - actions and reactions they make to the various encounters in the environment. The distinction between the two terms is perhaps best illustrated by

statements from Tyler (1949, p. 63):

The 'term learning experience' is not the same as the content with which a course deals nor the activities performed by the teacher. The term 'learning experience' refers to the interaction between the learner and the external conditions to which he can react.

Furthermore, in order to attain the various type of objectives, he suggests that considerable attention be given to learning experiences that can 'develop skills in thinking; help in acquiring information; develop social attitudes;' and also 'develop interests' (Tyler 1949, pp. 68 - 79). Since the whole purpose of both content and learning experiences is to lead to the attainment of educational objectives, they need to offer learners an opportunity to develop their capacities so as to meet the anticipated ends..

Criteria for selecting content. Theorists show marked differences with respect to establishing a set of criteria that enable the selection of curriculum content. For instance, some prize those content which reflect the values of the planners, while others select content on the basis of their likely contribution to specific purposes holding the view that an activity can be justified on the results it produces. Since each curriculum orientation tends to give priority to different criteria, the discussion here would concern itself to a curriculum to be developed using the Behavioural model.

Although the range of content to be learned is infinite, several writers have attempted to provide a set of criteria in the light of all pertinent considerations. To illustrate,

McNeil (1985) suggests that those responsible for curriculum development for an entire school system must select general categories of opportunity called 'domains or areas of study'. Examples of sets of domains are 'symbolic studies; academic disciplines; and the personal, the social, and the academic' (McNeil 1985 p. 115).

Taba too developed such criteria as 'validity and significance; consistency with social realities; balance of breadth and depth; provision for wide range of objectives; learnability and adaptability to experiences of students; and appropriateness to the needs and interests of learners' (Taba 1962, pp. 267 - 289).

Contents are judged as good or bad when they meet the value expectations of the educational program. Therefore, if the content to be selected is to become profitable it needs to pay attention to the objectives of the educational program. The criteria which Taba advances supplies the basis for examining the extent to which knowledge organized under different subjects do justice to the desired perspective.

Since the content of curriculum should enable learners to develop knowledge and perspective which is commensurate with the overall objectives of the program, "an exclusive use of any one criterion or of a limited set of criteria involves a danger of an unbalanced curriculum" (ibid., p. 267). In order to develop those set of intended learnings that are fundamental and of greater worth only those which survive the test of these criteria need to be selected so that they would eventually help to attain the anticipated results.

In general, with regard to selection of content it can be said that during the process decisions should be made on the basis of the objectives the educational program is after. This can be carried out by developing an objective-content matrix. In such a matrix one dimension can be devoted to a list of the behavioural objectives of the curriculum and the other to the content components. The list of objectives, therefore, serves as a guide to curriculum developers to focus on preparation of certain types of materials.

Selected Behavioural Objectives from Home Economics.

Objectives	Content
	Nutrition
Recognition of terms	The student would be familiar with such term as vitamins, oxidation, protein, virus, immunity and epidemic.
Identification of specific facts	The student would identify sources of information about food; communicable diseases; ways of spreading disease; diseases caused by lack of vitamins.
Application of principles to novel situations.	The student would explain the consequences of enzyme changes on the digestive system.

Organization of Educational Experiences. Probably one of the instances in which a planned set of intended learnings differs from those that take place outside the school lies in the conscious effort made to organize the educational experiences of the curriculum. Without effective organization, learning may become chaotic and isolated.

Thus, it is by way of effective organization of educational experiences that the anticipated change in the behaviour of learners is most likely to take place. Therefore, organization is recognized as one of the important aspects in curriculum planning and development.

Organizing experiences has several educational functions. Among others, its primary function is to relate content and learning experiences so that they would produce the maximum cumulative effect. Hence, the conclusion; 'organization greatly influences the efficiency of instruction and the degree to which major educational changes are brought about in the learners' (Tyler 1949, p. 63).

No doubt, it is true that organizing educational experiences facilitates the efficiency as well as the effectiveness of the curriculum. But, how should one go about toward this end? Probably, all curriculum theoreticians agree to the fact that when considering organization the relationship over time (vertical relations), and from one area to another (horizontal relations), needs to be taken care of.

Considering the relationship between content and learning experiences from one week to the next, from one semester to

the next, from one year to the next so that the subsequent experiences build on the earlier ones is known as vertical organization. An example would be the way in which the experience in mathematics in grade two are related to those in the first grade, and those in the third grade are again related to those in the first and second grades, and so on. Vertical organization should extend all the way until learners reach a stage whereby they require specialized education. In general, each level of schooling should build upon the work of the preceding level with conscious efforts made to organize experiences across the levels so as to produce the maximum cumulative effect.

Horizontal organization, on the other hand, refers to relationships among the experiences in the several subjects within the same grade. For example, to what extent should content and learning experiences provided in grade Three English language reinforce those of primary science or of social studies?. Thus, considering the relationships among educational experiences in the several subjects and areas of the learners life is within the domain of horizontal organization.

Since the purpose of organization is to maximize the total effect of the various educational experiences, obviously it must employ certain criteria, identify the elements, and make explicit the organizing principles. A brief account of each is presented here under.

Criteria for Effective Organization. Without having a set of criteria clearly in view, educational experiences can hardly be organized to bring about desired effects. The three major criteria that must be considered to this end are 'Continuity, Sequence, and Integration' (Tyler 1949, pp. 84 - 86; Taba 1982, pp. 292 - 300; Saylor et. al., 1981, p. 21; Doll 1970, pp. 144 - 147; Oliva 1988, pp. 503 - 510).

Continuity, as noted by these authorities, refers to the established order of events and indicates how long certain events should be allowed to continue. In a sense, it is a vertical matter in that it affects the continuousness with which certain experiences shall be had during consecutive periods of time. In other words, it describes the extent to which the same kind of concept, or skill occurs and continues to be practiced and developed over a period of time. Thus, it is considered as a 'major factor in effective vertical organization' (Oliva 1988).

Sequence, indicates the order of time in which educational experiences are to be had, and as such deals with the question 'what is to follow what among the established experiences'. Though related to continuity, 'sequence as a criterion describes the reiteration of learning experiences not simply as a repetition of material, but as a return to a similar concept or idea at a more advanced level' (Saylor et.al., 1981, p. 21). Therefore, sequence can be taken as the order in which the educational experiences are organized over time.

Integration is the horizontal relationship of curriculum experiences, and correspondingly, the organization of these

experiences should be such that "they help the student increasingly to get a unified view and to unify his behaviour in relation to the elements dealt with "(Tyler 1949, p. 85).

Similarly, it is recognized that learning is more effective when facts and principles from one field can be related to another, especially when applying this knowledge. In general, if the educational experiences to be provided to the prospective learners are to effect desirable changes, then these criteria must seriously be attended to.

Organizing Elements. These are often described as 'the threads, the warp and woof of the fabric of curriculum organization' (Tyler 1949, pp. 86 - 89; McNeil 1985, pp. 149 - 150). These organizing elements, therefore, are 'concepts, skills, and values', and serve in achieving continuity, sequence and integration.

Quite often there is a tendency, on the part of some authorities, to assume that organizing elements are selected in light of the purposes of the educational program. According to McNeil (1985, p. 149).

When the curriculum goals are technical and vocational, skills are an appropriate element to use. When the curriculum goals emphasize moral and ethical domains with an integrative function, values are the preferred element for organization.

While this may be true for such purposes, it is well to remember that focussing on these elements when planning curricula for general education is unavoidable. -Because

general education aims at providing a common core of concepts, skills, attitudes, beliefs and habits to learners before they undertake any specialized education. So, when working to this end, to overlook either one or two of these elements will have a corresponding effect in establishing continuity, sequence, and integration.

Organizing Principles. These are generalizations that can be made regarding the way in which experiences of one level are effectively related to those of another level, and those in one area are related to those in another. Viewed as such, it is apparent that an effectively planned curriculum does not provide the same educational experiences at each level, rather it indicates that subsequent experiences be built upon the earlier ones but that they go in greater depth and breadth into the matters with which they deal.

Either in past or in current discussions, decisions regarding which organizing principles are valid, significant, and basic have not been found easy to make. Tyler, after a critical review of organizing principles that range all the way through 'logical; increasing range of activities included; the use of description followed by analysis' finally suggests:

Since there are so many possible organizing principles, it is important that in working upon any particular curriculum, possible principles of organization are examined and decisions made tentatively to be checked by actual tryout of the material to see how far these principles prove satisfactory in developing continuity, sequence and integration (Tyler 1949, pp. 96 - 98).

Evaluation of the Educational Program

Evaluation is an integral part of curriculum planning and development. As conceived by the advocates of the Behavioural model it can take place at various stages of program development to serve specific purposes. Many writers have dealt with the different meanings, purposes and aspects of evaluation. In this study, only those points reflecting the wider perspective will be presented.

Cronbach, taking a full account of the range of functions evaluation can serve in education, defines it as "the collection and use of information to make decisions about an educational program" (In Gronlund (ed.), 1968, p. 38). And this program may be a 'set of instructional materials distributed nationally, the instructional activity of a single school, or the educational experiences of a single pupil'.

Taking into account the types of decisions to be made, and the kinds of information to be considered during evaluation Cronbach concludes: "It becomes immediately apparent that evaluation is a diversified activity and that no one set of principles will suffice for all situations" (ibid.).

To Tyler and those who share his viewpoint, the definition they assign to the term emanates from their conception of education. Describing the need for evaluating educational programs Tyler writes:

It should be clear that evaluation then becomes a process of finding out how far the learning experiences as developed and organized are actually producing the

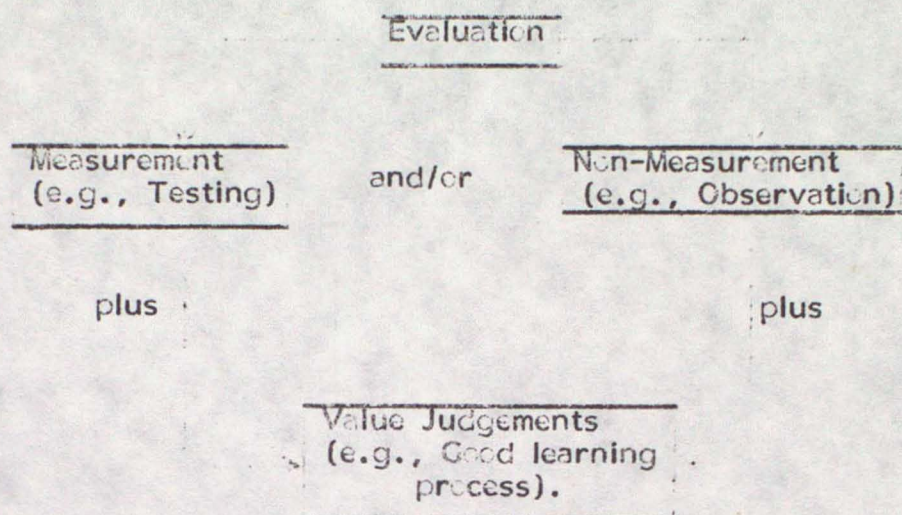
desired results and the process of evaluation will involve identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the plans. This helps to check the validity of the basic hypothesis upon which the instructional program has been organized and developed, and it also checks the effectiveness of the particular instruments, that is, the teachers and other conditions that are being used to carry forward the instructional program. As a result of evaluation it is possible to note in what respects the curriculum is effective and in what respects it needs improvement (Tyler 1949, p. 105).

This same view is also advanced by Taba (1962), Doll (1970); Lewy (1977); Squires 1987); Olive (1988); McNeil (in Giroux, et.al, 1981).

Procedures of Evaluation. Evaluation plays an important role, in providing useful information and feedback to those in charge of planning and developing the educational program, and making them aware how well the program is operating in relation to the targets set.

According to Gronlund (1985, p. 10), because evaluation always includes value judgement concerning the desirability of the results, one of its distinctive features is "the use of a wide variety of procedures". As an outgrowth of this concern he has made an attempt to depict the comprehensive nature of evaluation - in which the role of both measurement and non-measurement techniques are embedded within the process.

THE ROLE OF EVALUATION TECHNIQUES AND VALUE
JUDGEMENTS IN EVALUATION.*



This implies that, properly used, evaluation procedures can contribute to curriculum planning and development on the one hand, and to improve pupil learning, on the other, by:

- (1) clarifying the intended learning outcomes; (2) providing short-term goals to work toward; (3) offering feedback concerning learning progress; and (4) providing information for overcoming learning difficulties . . .
- (Gronlund, 1985, p. 8).

As has been stated previously, objectives determine how the intended set of learnings are to be selected and organized, and ultimately they again serve as evaluation criteria (evaluation itself becoming a method of searching as well as

* Source: Gronlund N.E. Measurement and Evaluation in Teaching. 5th edition. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, 1985, p. 6.

of ascertaining results). From this, it follows that 'the process of evaluation begins with the objectives of the educational program' (Tyler 1949, p. 110).

Conceived this way, it can be said, any evaluation of the curriculum must be in terms of its stated objectives. If the definitions of objectives support the effort to enquire into the effects of the educational program, it is likely that evaluation procedures would indicate the degree to which the anticipated changes have occurred. But, if otherwise, it would hardly be possible to translate evidence obtained from evaluation procedures in a way that can help curriculum improvement or revision. Consequently, Tyler concludes; "The process of evaluation may force persons who have not previously clarified their objectives to a further process of clarification" (ibid., p. 111).

In the manner suggested by Tyler (1949; In Chase and Ludlow (eds.) (1966); Taba (1962); Gronlund (1985); and Gronbach (In Gronlund (ed.), (1968), there are several ways of obtaining evidence on how objectives are being realized. These include, 'paper and pencil devices, collection of actual products of students, student records, sampling and the like.' At last, it can be said, any way of getting evidence about the kinds of behaviour represented by the educational objectives is an appropriate evaluation procedure. Thus, as in any involved undertaking, certainly, the total job of constructing and employing evaluation procedures needs to be conducted systematically, consciously, and diligently to make possible a careful study of the curriculum.

Functions of Evaluation. Evaluation is a process in which results are assessed and the successes of both parties (learners on the one hand, and the program on the other) can be appraised. But, to effectively serve these various purposes, evaluation should not be viewed as a collection of techniques, rather as a process guided by a number of general principles. To this effect, Gronlund notes, it is vital that these principles emphasize the importance of:

- (1) identifying the purposes of evaluation;
- (2) selecting appropriate evaluation techniques;
- (3) using a variety of evaluation techniques;
- (4) being aware of the evaluation techniques' limitations; and
- (5) regarding evaluation as a process of obtaining information on which to base educational decisions (Gronlund, 1985, p. 21).

When properly administered and carried out at every stage (planning, development, and implementation), evaluation serves or can serve many rather central functions in the school and in the development of curriculum. Correspondingly, indicating some of its important functions Taba notes:

First, evaluation enables to validate the hypotheses upon which the curriculum is based. In a sense all curriculum plans and approaches to instruction are only hypotheses whose efficacy needs to be tested (Taba 1962, p. 314).

Since no educational program can claim to be perfect, Taba is right in saying that the process of curriculum development and instruction, need a periodic check to indicate the points at which improvements in the program can be made.

Next, evaluation provides information on the weaknesses and strengths of the program by 'assessing the achievement of

students' (ibid.). Because curricula are planned to impart knowledge, concepts, attitudes, values, skills and habits of one kind, and because learners are not only the focal points of curricula, but at the receiving end too, indeed student achievement is one among the many ways of ascertaining the efficacy of the total educational program. These functions can be realized only when evaluation is considered as an indispensable aspect of program development that must be carried out continuously. Therefore, curriculum planners and classroom teachers must employ a wide variety of techniques to assess the success of both learners and the curriculum.

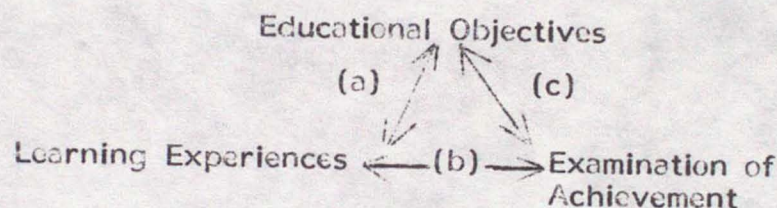
McNeil (1981) reflecting his position to this same end writes that, in a general sense, curriculum evaluation is an attempt to throw light on two questions: '(1) do planned learning opportunities, programs, courses and activities as developed and organized actually produce desired results? and; (2) how can the curriculum offerings best be improved' (In Giroux et.al., 1981, p. 253).

Evaluation Models. Unfortunately, the bulk of the literature deals with few models of curriculum evaluation. Nonetheless, three different approaches have been known to have become dominant in the field. These are concerned with: (1) achievement of desired outcomes; (2) assessment of merit, and (3) decision-making' (Lewy (ed.) 1977, p. 10). It should be clear that these models do not necessarily reflect alternative approaches to evaluation, rather they complement one another. 'None of



these models', as Lewy argues, 'became monolithically dominant in the field of evaluation practice' (ibid.). In the following paragraphs a brief account of each as advanced by its originator is presented.

The first model - Achievement of Desired outcomes - is the one proposed and advanced by Professor Tyler. Based on his conception of education and proposal for planning and developing the curriculum, this model is regarded as one of the best-known models of educational evaluation. Lewy's attempt to illustrate the model schematically looks some what as follows:*



In this model, it is clearly shown that the three foci-educational objectives, learning experiences, and examination of achievements -, are strongly connected to one another. Accordingly, the full and systematic study of the relationship among these aspects brings one closer to the overall notions of curriculum evaluation.

In this schema, arrow (a) refers to the correspondence between the objectives and educational experiences selected and organized for actual school practice; arrow (b) refers to examination of the relationship between the actual educational experience and its outcomes; finally arrow (c) refers to the appraisal of the educational outcomes in view of the anticipated objectives.

*Source: Lewy Ariele (ed.) A Handbook of Curriculum and Evaluation. New York : Longman Inc., 1977 p.11.

The second model - Assessment of merit or otherwise known as the Merit of an Entity - approaches evaluation in broad and general terms as 'the examination of the merit of a given entity'. The entity to be evaluated may be, 'a curriculum as well as any other thing' (Lewy (ed.), 1977, pp. 11 - 12).

Admittedly, Scriven's approach to the practice of evaluation is most appreciated for his contribution of two major conceptions - Formative and Summative evaluation. Scriven emphasized that "one may pose questions concerning the merits of a program during the process of its development or, alternatively, after the process of program development has been completed". The major point of this statement is that any evaluation of an educational program needs to undertake both formative and summative evaluation for each has its own merit in appraising the efficacy of the curriculum.

On a more general level, it can be said that formative evaluation results provide program developers data that may be of use to detect problems and thereby correct them accordingly. Thus, depending on the validity of the information gained revision and improvement of packages will be in order. Summative evaluation, on the other hand, takes place at the end of the process of program development and is strongly believed to "summarize the merits of the program." Results gained from this procedure, "may serve the consumers of the program in deciding whether they should use the program at all, or under what conditions they should use it" (Lewy(ed.), 1977, p. 12).

The third evaluation model - Decision-Making, claims that 'evaluation is worthwhile only if its results affect future actions'.

This notion as advanced by Alkin (1970), assumes that 'evaluation is a process of ascertaining the decision areas of concern, selecting appropriate information in order to report a summary of data useful for decision-makers in selecting among alternatives' (In Lewy (ed.), 1977, p. 13). Evaluation, from the point of view of this model, goes well beyond assisting the decision maker in that it also calls his attention to the existence of alternatives even if the decision maker himself does not perceive them.

Thus far, an attempt has been made to provide the major intents of each of the models. As has been stated previously, it can be said that in reality there is no one evaluation model that can in a sense be of absolute use. An almost exclusive preoccupation with one model of evaluation may give rise to a problem that may prevent performing a series of substudies at the various stages of program development and implementation.

CRITICISMS AND ADVANTAGES OF THE BEHAVIOURAL MODEL

Criticisms. Professor Tyler's model for curriculum planning and development, as noted earlier, appears in the curriculum literature with different names. Despite its wide acceptance, its acknowledgment as 'the best or one of the best known models for curriculum development', and above all, in the provision it makes to view, analyze and also interpret education in general and curriculum in particular, has remained a point of controversy.



First, there are those who, for example, attempt to comment that prior determination of the objectives or ends of the educational program and pursuing to meet them-as in the name the Objectives or Ends-Means model-dictates the nature of curriculum planning and development (Stenhouse 1975, pp. 53, 56; McNeil 1985, p. 99). In a similar vein, others commenting on the definition of education 'as change in the behaviour patterns of learners', say that it is too narrow and behaviouristic although Tyler and his proponents have very well explicated this point (Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 91).

The other point of controversy stems from the four fundamental questions that Tyler proposes for the planning and development of educational programs. The opponents, here argue that these questions are presented in a 'linear and sequential manner' (Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 84; McNeil 1985, p. 102).

Finally, there are also those who criticize the model on the grounds that it brings together 'three warring sects' (learners, society, and knowledge) to determine educational purposes (Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 86; McNeil 1985, p. 102). Needless to mention, many writers have argued (whether intuitively or consciously) over the point that educational programs that focus either on one or two of these sources are defective.

In essence, these and other criticisms, beyond revealing misunderstandings and misinterpretations of the Model's intent, are undoubtedly reflections of the educational ideologies these critiques advance.

Advantages. The Behavioural model appears, to have several advantages over the others for the following reasons.

First, to understand this model it is necessary to analyze its concept of education and the curriculum. Tyler and his proponents, in this model have precisely and unambiguously stated what they basically meant by education and curriculum. Other things being equal, it is this conception of education that is regarded as the logical starting point in curriculum decision-making.

Education, as a matter of rule, needs to bring about desirable change in the behaviour patterns of prospective learners. As all those writers who altogether promote this model believe, education refers to 'the aggregate of all the processes by means of which a person develops abilities, attitudes, and other forms of behaviour of positive value in the society in which he lives' (Good 1945, in Abebe Bekele 1986, p. 39).

Unless the fundamental idea to be pursued is set clearly it seems rather hard to presume that subsequent decisions would be logical, orderly and rational. Though the importance of unambiguously stating a definition for clarity of thought and the tasks that follow can't be overemphasized, it would appear witless to start with no ends-in-view.

Secondly, this model explicates the three potential sources for determining educational ends. All advocates of the model repeatedly caution against using any singular source as the basis toward identifying the purposes of schooling. The list

of tentative objectives drawn from studies and analysis of these sources are later on screened and validated using philosophy (social and educational), and psychology of learning. Unfortunately, such considerations seem to be missing in most treatments concerning curriculum in other models.

Finally, this model again offers a more comprehensive and broader view of evaluation. As established in the model, evaluation is not only confined to being an important operation in curriculum development but is also recognized as a continuous process that takes place in the early part of the development of the educational program; appears at every stage and aspect; and finally at some later point so that the intended change in behaviour may be appraised as a whole. Using information that has been obtained through various means and ways, curriculum revision, improvement, as well as change will be in order. Put differently, the model very well takes into account evaluation results before instituting either revision or improvement on the educational program.

In general, the Behavioural model specifies the major phases and a sequence for carrying them out. This model, 'as presented in the Tyler Rationale,' writes Huenecke (1982, p. 290), 'gained rapid, long-lasting and wide spread acceptance.'

CHAPTER III

AN OVERVIEW OF THE PRACTICES AND PROCESSES OF CURRICULUM PLANNING FOR GENERAL EDUCATION IN ETHIOPIA SINCE 1974

In this chapter a brief account of the practices and processes of curriculum planning and development in the country since 1974 is presented. Its major intent is first, to discuss and illustrate the procedures followed; and secondly, to detect some of the important pressures which have reacted on the curriculum.

The Need for Changing the Old Curriculum. Curriculum as the means through which education is transacted must undergo revision and improvement in order to meet changing needs and demands. In reality there are several factors that call the need for changing and reshaping it. These include "social changes, political revolution, economic transformation, advances in knowledge, and reevaluation of the past" (Taylor and Richards 1985; Gordon and Lawton 1978).

As can be imagined, the need for changing the old curriculum in Ethiopia has essentially come up as an outgrowth of only one of these factors, namely political revolution.

Change in political ideology and the resultant change in power, of September 1974 in Ethiopia, in the last sixteen years has exerted a considerable influence upon education. At the very least, changes have occurred in the objectives of education, in the meaning accorded curriculum and consequently in subject offerings- to cite but few. To illustrate, first, it has been stated that the aim of education is "to produce an individual

with all-round-developed personality ..." (Curriculum Department 1987, p. 10). Second, Curriculum is defined as "an educational state document which is to be strictly followed by all schools ..." (ibid., p. 121).

Once again, due to the revolution and power change curriculum planning has also suffered from a number of problems, not the least of which is absence of clearly articulated educational policy as well as a conceptual scheme or model that can direct this endeavour. To this end, it has been noted, until the enforcement of the program of the National Democratic Revolution (NDR) in April 1976, curriculum planning was entirely based on

The objectives of Ethiopia Tikdem of July 1974; Ethiopian Socialism proclamation of December 1974; the Declaration of Economic policy of 1975; the Land Reform proclamation of 1975; the Urban Lands and Extra Houses Proclamation of 1975; and other ensuing declarations (Ministry of Education 1985, pp. 11 - 13; Curriculum and Supervision Department 1981, p. 15).

Thus, it can be said that these were the first guides which were taken as stepping stones in reshaping the old curriculum. On the bases of these documents, people of diverse backgrounds and caliber were drawn from various sectors "for the job of replacing the curricula, text books, teacher's guides, and other instructional materials that were in use before 1974" (Curriculum and Supervision Department 1981, p. 2). Surprisingly, this task was undertaken in the face of 'strong opposition from Ethiopian Teachers Association and with little enthusiasm of other educated persons' (Curriculum and Supervision Department 1981, pp. 2, 13; Ministry of Education 1976 E.C., p. 63).

Instead of founding the reform in education on firm grounds such as evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of the then curriculum and thereby institute improvement and change through time, a totally revolutionary approach was employed. This kind of undertaking, in the hardest and crullest analysis, is more disruptive, and less orderly for it condemns everything of the past as having little or no contribution in developing the new. But, quite on the contrary, many writers on curriculum hold the view point that curriculum change entails a number of issues. For instance, persons such as Hawes strongly argue that curriculum change 'requires community support, costs money, depends on people not paper, and requires planning' (1978, pp. 18 - 24). In a similar vein, Taba too argues that curriculum change

requires a systematic sequence of work which deals with all aspects of the curriculum ranging from goals to means; involves creating conditions for productive work; involves a large amount of training; involves human and emotional factors; requires many kinds of competencies in different combinations at different points of work; and requires skilled leadership (1962, pp. 455 - 456).

These are but few of the issues involved in any serious attempt to curriculum change. As opposed to such conceptions, the so-called curriculum change in Ethiopia began by virtually condemning earlier practices. In more specific terms it has been claimed

The content was highly academic and as a result there was little attempt to train productive citizens; it encouraged the development of wrong attitudes so that students despised the traditional

handicrafts, ways of production and productive culture as a whole; the methodology was poor in which the spirit of enquiry and research were missing; the system of evaluation emphasized memorization and rote learning, and evaluation was a means for the selection of the few who were to serve the regime in its various organizational activities; and the like (Curriculum and Supervision Department 1981, pp. 1 - 2).

It must be noted that those charged with the task had to work out the New Role of Education merely upon the aforementioned accounts as briefly discussed here under.

The New Role of Education. Using the 'guides' mentioned above, the effort that had already begun to reshape the old curriculum as early as September 1974, produced three new educational objectives which read as 'Education for production; Education for Scientific Research; and Education for Socialist Consciousness' (ibid., p. 3). But, these same objectives - if they can be called such - were also held by the communist party of China that conceived education as 'a means of fostering socialist consciousness and culture through developing individuals intellectually, morally, and physically'. Furthermore it is also stated that;

Education is to unite thought and action, theory and practice, mental and physical labor, and is to play its part in three kinds of social practice; The struggle for production, the class struggle and scientific experiment. Education is to serve the ends of proletarian politics not the pursuit of individual goals and aspirations (Mauger, et.al., 1974. In Taylor and Richards 1985, p. 21).

With little doubt, it can be said, the objectives of Ethiopian Education have not at all been determined in the strict sense of the term, but either have been 'borrowed' or superimposed due to the ideological influence.

As frequently noted, the other 'important' document which had a strong bearing, for determining educational objectives and curriculum work is the NDR program of April 1976. Although few actual details are recorded as to how this program gave sufficient guidance for curriculum planning and development, however, it is strongly believed that the statements of this program were of great help. Since it is worthy of note the major point of the program is presented at some length.

There will be an educational program that will provide free education, step by step to the broad masses. Such a program will aim at intensifying the struggle against feudalism, imperialism, and bureaucratic capitalism. All necessary measures to eliminate illiteracy will be given for the development of science, technology, the arts and literature. All necessary efforts will be made to free the diversified cultures of imperialist cultural domination and from their own reactionary characteristics. Opportunities will be provided to allow them to develop, advance and grow with the aid of modern means and resources (Program of the National Democratic Revolution, April 1976 p. 15).

Despite the many shades of interpretations that are likely to be advanced from this very general statement, almost all documents take it as 'the corner stone that has essentially provided the direction toward the whole endeavor in education as well as for planning and developing the curriculum' (Curriculum and Supervision Department 1981, pp. 3 - 4; Ministry of Education 1976 E.C., pp. 61 - 63).

The Development of the "Transitional" Curriculum. The 'transitional' curriculum (the one which still persists in elementary and secondary schools, except those seventy pilot schools where the curriculum for polytechnical education is under experiment) was developed in view of the three educational objectives and the new role assigned to education. There is every justification for saying that the process of the development of the 'transitional' curriculum followed neither any established set of procedures nor was founded on the bases of the evaluation results of the old curriculum. It was rather patchwork, and piecemeal in its approach, characterized by mere inclusion and exclusion of content in the same old curriculum of the day.

However, despite the many problems faced right from the very start, it has been noted, "Ministry of Education with full and committee support of the government went on to prepare the transitional curriculum by organizing experts into different subject panels, each vested with responsibilities of its own" (Curriculum and Supervision Department 1981, pp. 13 - 15). To this end, at the beginning '220 teachers from schools all over the country and other 55 experts both from government and non-government agencies' were recruited for this undertaking on the bases of the following yardsticks;

- . Educational qualification and experience in a specified subject area,
- . Progressive attitude in general and commitment towards the Ethiopian Revolution,
- . Strict adherence to the principles of Marxism-Leninism,
- . General knowledge of the psychology of children and adolescents and human growth and development,

- . Knowledge of methods of teaching,
- . Some form of teaching experience,
- . Personal request to work on the program,
- . Sincere appreciation of the various proclamations that were being issued periodically and consequently (ibid., p. 13).

From the outset it may appear that persons of various backgrounds have participated to work out this plan. As the criteria clearly show the call was rather for those whose line of thought is in conformity with the order of the day. Accordingly, those selected on the basis of the aforementioned ground were then brought together under subject groups as shown in Figure 2 to carry out their new tasks as demanded.

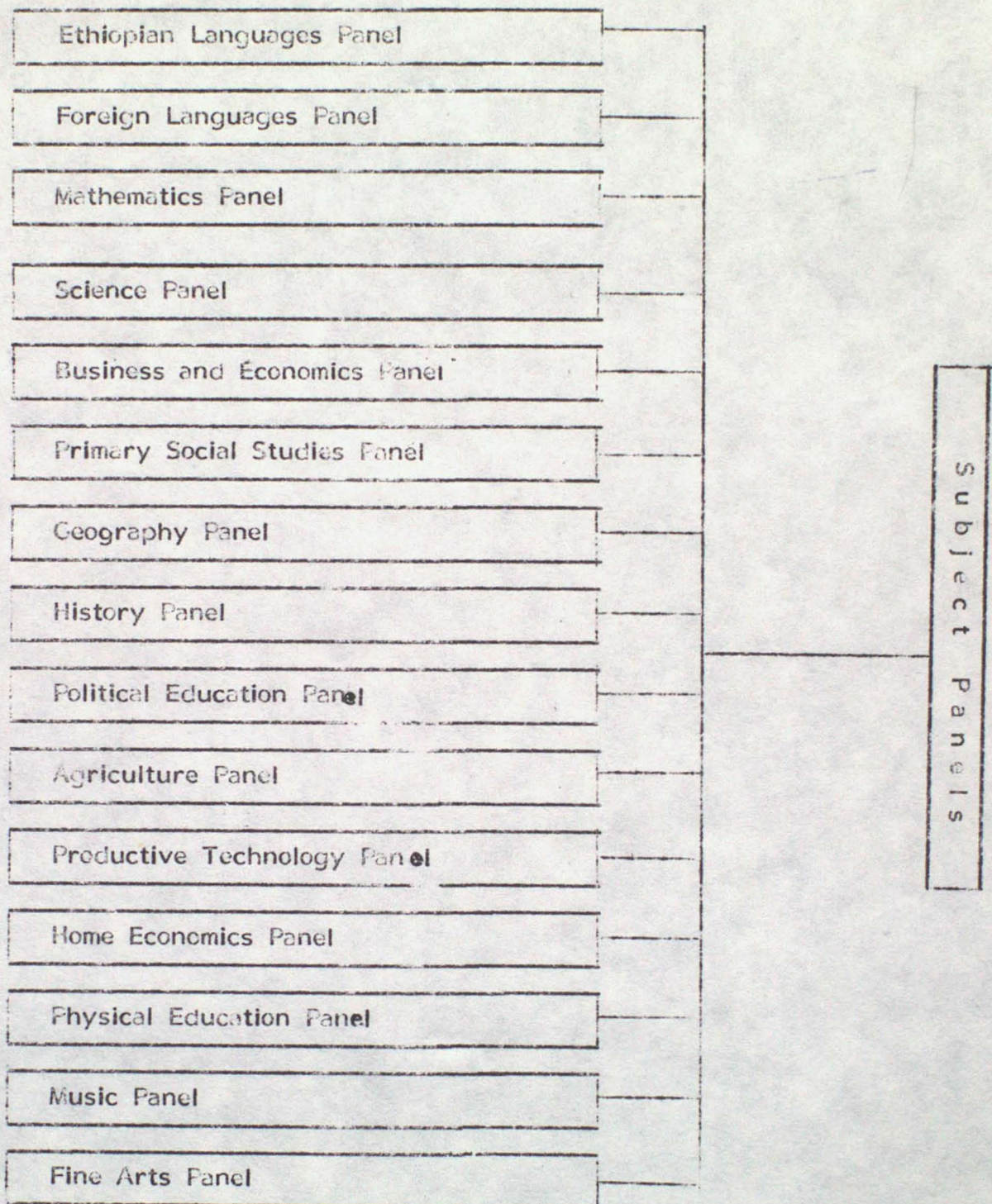


Figure 2. Subject Panels for Developing the 'Transitional' Curriculum

Source: Curriculum and Supervision Department, Curriculum change and Development in Ethiopia after the 1974 Revolutionary upheaval. Feb. 1981, p. 14, (unpublished)

Along this scheme each panel was also entrusted to.

prepare detailed syllabus for the subject area for each of the grades 1 - 12 including specific objectives, content, methodology and structure, order of presentation of content, period allotment for the specified content; write books - curriculum, student text, teacher's guides, workbook whenever there is a need, supplementary materials; prepare audiovisual aids corresponding to content in the written instructional materials; prepare prototype equipment and supplies; and prepare evaluation instruments (ibid., p. 15).

Even later on, that is after the establishment of a separate center (Department) for curriculum, a similar practice is underway. The scheme employed for the process of curriculum development is the one shown in Figure 3.



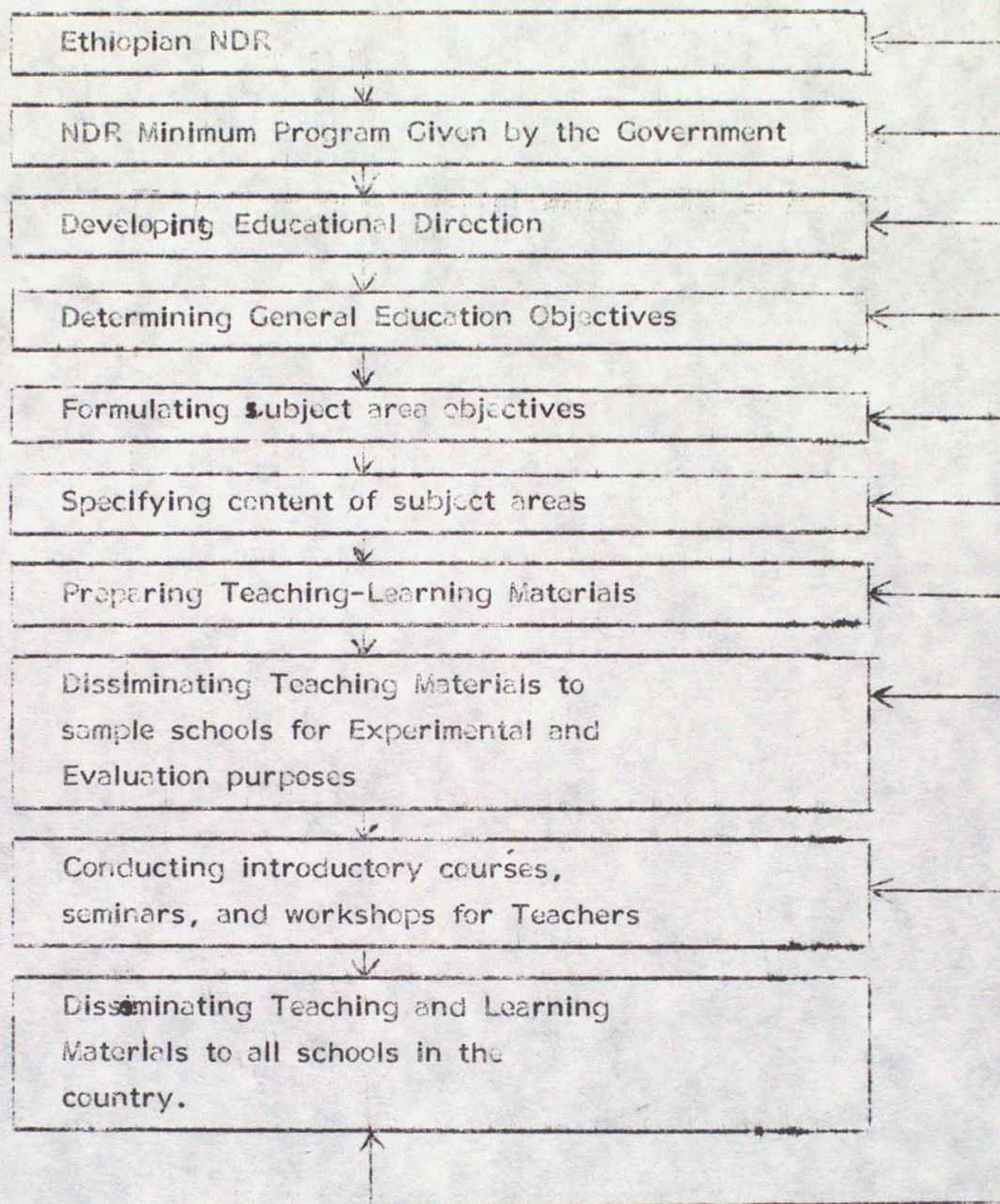


Figure 3. Flow chart of the Process of Curriculum planning and Development upto the Enforcement of the Workers Party of Ethiopia.

Source: Ibid., p. 17

In the course of time, this procedure was again revised so that it would replace the NDR program by the program of the Workers Party of Ethiopia (WPE) which was introduced in September 1984. Accordingly, the newly employed procedure for curriculum development looks somewhat as shown in Figure 4.

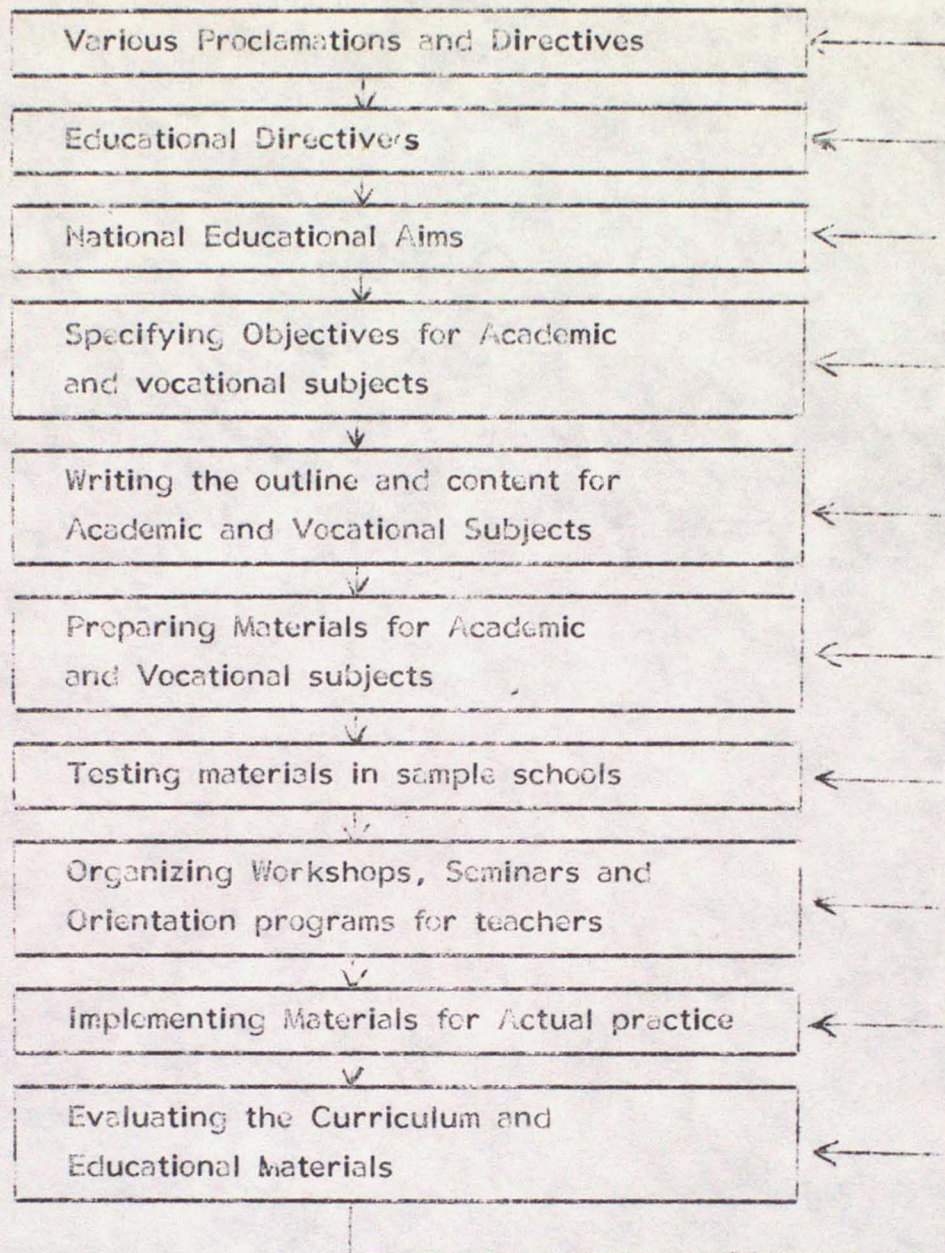


Figure 4. Flow Chart of the process of Curriculum Planning Development after the Workers Party of Ethiopia.

Source: Curriculum Department. The Beginning and Process of Curriculum Development in Ethiopia. Tir 1979, E.C., p. 33 (Unpublished) (Amharic) (My Translation).

In summary, it would not be unfair to say that at the beginning the main issue was that of excluding content which appeared contradictory to the 'new' mode of thought from the then curriculum. Since it was a politically charged atmosphere in which there had been neither a clear social philosophy nor an educational policy that can guide curriculum development the whole task was spontaneous and patchwork characterized by crisis management. So, until the enforcement of the NDR program and the coming into being of the first draft of Educational Directives, little progress was made in 'changing' the curriculum. Even after these two documents were put into effect, because decisions concerning education in general, and curriculum in particular were made by non-educative forces, it is very difficult to talk of any systematic curriculum development, for education was increasingly seen as an instrument to promote, perpetuate and advance the order of the day. At the same time one can hardly find documents that specifically deal with curriculum planning and development proper in the strict sense of the term. Instead, it can be argued, almost all documents are entirely concerned with and devoted to school expansion, increase in student population, materials produced and distributed to schools, achievements in literacy and other issues.

Nevertheless, it is worth noting the progress that has been made, at least theoretically, as regards the nature of curriculum planning and development in the last few years. This recognizable progress is very well depicted in a draft work entitled "Curriculum Guide," 1987. In this material, more thought seems to have been

given to the nature of curriculum planning and development with a focus on two points; first, to assist those professionals who join the Department (curriculum) with the basic conceptions underlying curriculum work. Second, to enable professionals working in the various panels concerning the importance of planning and developing syllabi and other curriculum materials in an integrated way by keeping in touch with each other.

Perhaps at this point it also seems necessary to mention the attempt made to indicate the 'model' used to plan and develop curriculum in the Ethiopian context. Although it remains to be seen whether or not this is a "model", the "Ethiopian Curriculum Model" looks some what as shown in Figure 5. Note, however, that Figure 6 and 7 are extensions of this same model and are presented to show the tasks as well as the responsibilities of each committee.

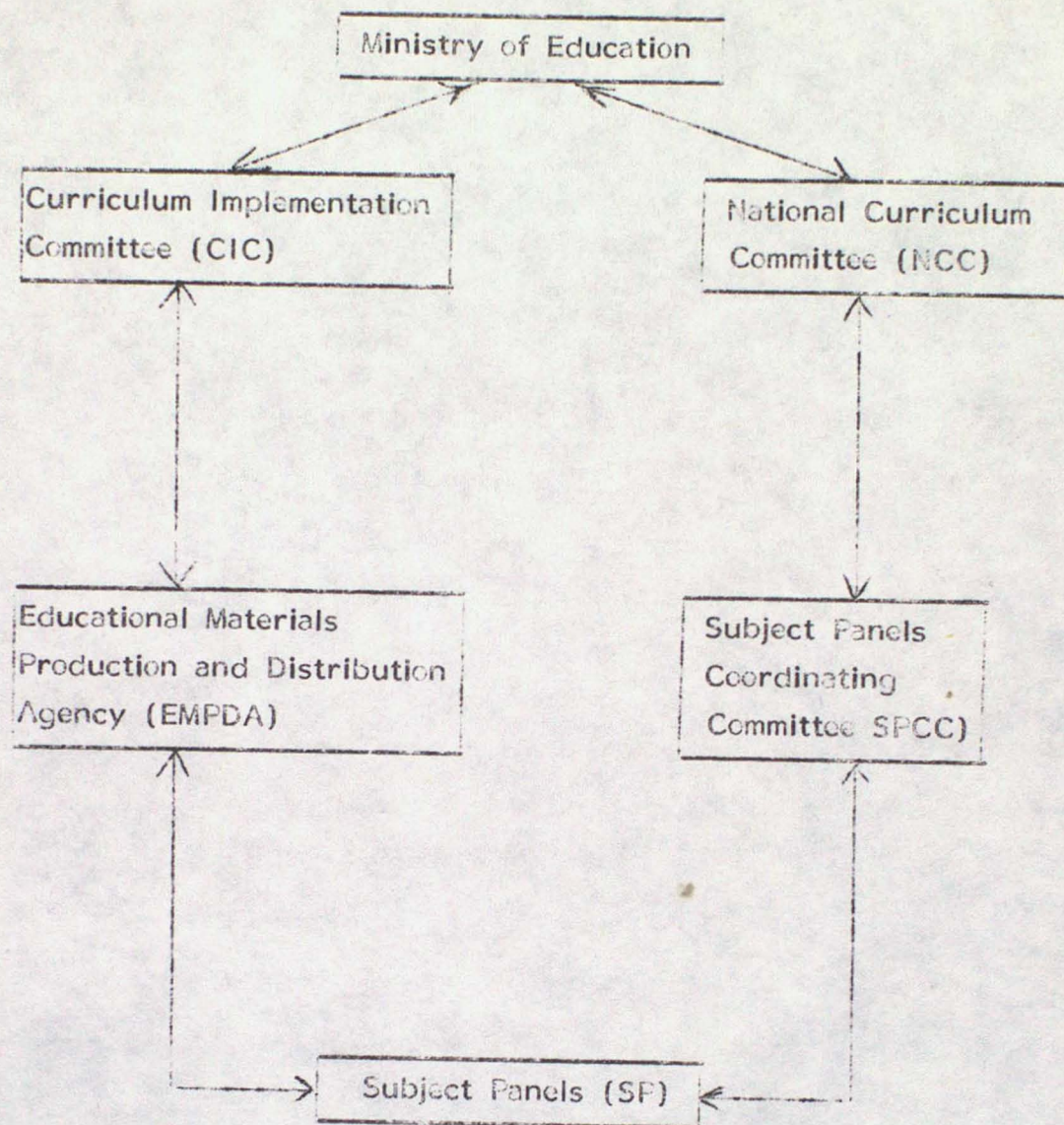


Figure 5. Ethiopian Curriculum Model

Source: Curriculum Department. Curriculum Guide.
Addis Ababa: 1987, p. 67. (Unpublished).

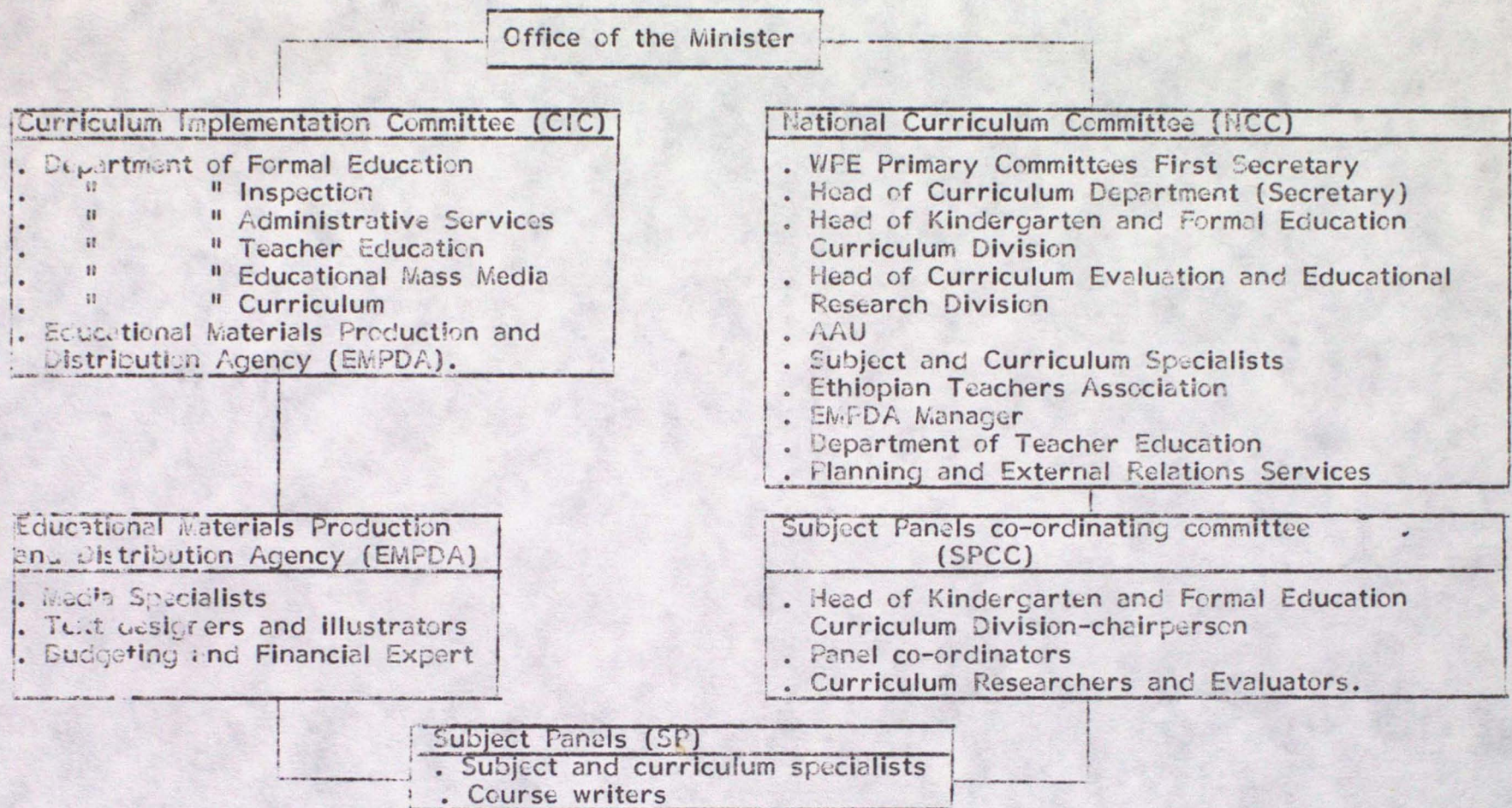


Figure 6. Members of the various Committees in Ethiopian Curriculum Model.

Source. Ibid., p. 69

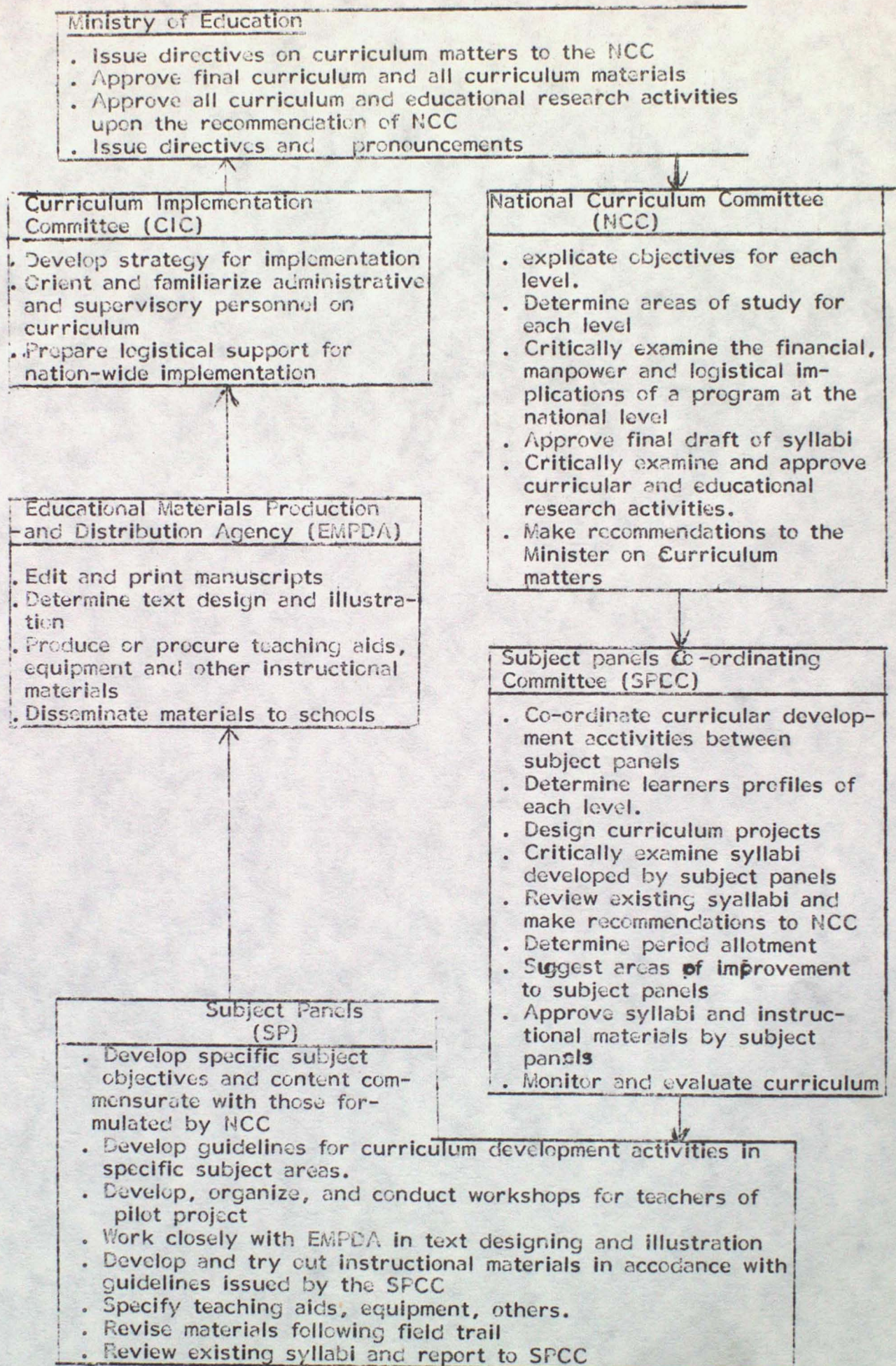


Figure 7. Duties and Responsibilities of the Various Committees

CHAPTER IV

INTERPRETATION, ANALYSIS OF DATA, AND DISCUSSION ON FINDINGS

In order to validate the major ideas and the basic questions of the study, data obtained from the questionnaire, and information gained through interview items are presented in this chapter. This part of the study is therefore concerned with interpretation; analysis of data, and discussion on the findings.

Analysis of Data and Discussion on Findings

Following are eight tables in which the reactions of respondents to the items raised in the questionnaire are presented.

TABLE I

Experience of Professionals in Teaching and Curriculum work

Range in years	Level							
	Primary		Secondary		Primary TTI*		Curriculum	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1 - 5	10	22	8	18	6	13	14	31
6 - 10	3	7	8	18	4	9	25	56
11 - 15	1	2	2	4	1	2	5	11
16 - 20	-	-	2	4	-	-	1	2
21 and above	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total							45	100

As shown in Table I above, professionals charged with the task of planning and developing the curriculum for general education, seem to have had a good deal of teaching experience

: *TTI - Teacher Training Institutes for Primary Schools

at different levels of schooling in the country. It has been found that twenty-two percent had taught in primary schools for 1 - 5 years; seven percent for 6 - 10 years, and two percent for 11 - 15 years. On the other hand eighteen percent had taught in secondary schools for 1 - 5 years; another eighteen percent for 6 - 10 years; four percent for 11 - 15 years, and another four percent for 16 - 20 years. Similarly, thirteen percent had taught in primary teacher training institutes for 1 - 5 years, nine percent for 6 - 10 years and two-percent for 11 - 15 years.

Furthermore, as can be understood from this same table it appears that there exists wide difference with regard to the experience of these professionals in their current undertakings. Accordingly, thirty-one percent seem to have worked for 1 - 5 years; fifty-six percent for 6 - 10 years; eleven percent for 11 - 15 years, and two percent for 16 - 20 years in curriculum development. This difference may perhaps have some influence on their work.

To a question posed to find out whether or not the professionals use or are given a curriculum development model, fifty-six percent said 'yes', thirty-one percent said 'No' and the rest thirteen percent did not at all attempt the item.

Perhaps on the basis of what the study group has reflected, it may be argued, professionals in the department have little orientation concerning the model employed. Quite on the contrary, most writers on curriculum believe that any plan for an educational program must base itself on either of the three models

noted earlier, if it is to be profitable. There is an obvious reason for holding such conceptions. First, 'curriculum designs are the end results of curriculum decisions' (Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 683), therefore, it is essential that the model to be pursued must be clearly articulated and known since it guides the whole endeavour in curriculum work.

Next, it would be difficult to see any direct link between the objectives of the program and its outcomes, if the curriculum is not, or has not been, planned using a model of one kind. Last, but not least, any curriculum planned and developed without a clearly established model may likely be subject to many pressures. Subsequently, there will be little rational justification to deal with revision, improvement and accordingly solve problems that arise within the program. Because there is more than one model upon which curriculum plans can be erected, the reactions made by thirty-one percent and the other thirteen percent seems to backup the earlier contention, that is, inadequate orientation about curriculum development models.

But, on the other hand, it is quite possible to argue from a different direction as regards the professionals response pertaining their conception of curriculum model. That is, probably Figure 5 (Chapter III) depicting 'curriculum decision-making structure' in the Ethiopian context, but labelled as the "Ethiopian Curriculum Model" might have been a source of confusion since all of them have mentioned it in their response to 'rationale for the choice of Model'.



By and large, since any adequate design of curriculum should define the important components of the model it uses, determine the pattern of their relationships to each other, and the ensuing tasks to be performed, it seems unlikely to take the curriculum decision-making structure as a curriculum Model. This is because, a curriculum model and its attendant theory, according to some writers, should be capable of

- (1) accounting for all the factors that are involved in curriculum;
- (2) defining the coherence of these factors both to themselves and to their action points; and
- (3) predicting and controlling the educational behaviour of the learner" (Macdonald, et.al., (eds.), 1965, pp. 17 - 18).

TABLE II

Suggestions about the Curriculum Development Model and on Ways of Determining Educational Objectives

Alternatives	Respondents	
	No.	%
One that focuses on the disciplines (academic subject areas)	13	29
One that focuses on fulfilling the needs and interests of learners	-	-
One that focuses on problems of society	32	71
One that pays equal attribute to all the three mentioned above	-	-
Total	45	100

As shown in Table II many (seventy-one percent) of the respondents have demonstrated that the model they use is one that focuses on 'social problem solving'.

In view of the response obtained and as learned during discussion from authorities, curriculum planning and development since 1974 has virtually been geared toward solving problems of Ethiopian people. This assertion seems to be in accord with the social philosophy that has been enforced over the last sixteen years. Confirming this position, professionals again in response to 'Rationale for the choice of the model' have said; The bases for the choice of the model are the goals of Ethiopian education (education for production, class struggle and consciousness, and scientific research). With this focus, formal education is expected to produce individuals that are armed with knowledge, attitudes, values, skills and abilities which would enable them to solve the problems of society. Thus, in every subject area (at both levels of the school system) all possible effort is made in developing syllabi, student text and supplementary reading materials that are in harmony with these goals. Furthermore, since the orientation is that education should reflect the political, economic, and cultural life of the society, much attempt is made to meet this end. From this then they conclude that the model in use can be termed as social problem solving.

In general, this contention seems to be in accord with Macdonald, et.al., ((eds.) 1965, p. 53) who argue that choice of models for curriculum planning 'is centered in the nature of the basic orientation and in the resultant structure of curricular operations derived from this orientation'.

To the item dealing with 'ways of determining educational objectives', all (hundred percent) of the respondents agree to the point that educational objectives are determined by way of legislations, proclamations, declarations, government and party programs, social and economic policies that appear from time to time. This practice, as all professionals have witnessed is one that had began earlier (as early as September 1974) and is still on going. This same opinion has also been reflected by all officials during discussions. To this end, it has been expressed that the reform in education, the process of the development of the 'transitional' curriculum and that of present undertakings are illustrative of this fact.

Moreover, explaining the clarity of the 'given objectives of education' in guiding their effort to plan and develop the curriculum, the degree of their feasibility and attainability, the professionals have forwarded the following comments:

First, they can hardly be conceived to mean the same thing to different persons because they are vague, too general and broad. Due to the various shades of interpretations that are likely to be drawn from these 'three phrases' they have remained as points of dispute even among members of the same subject panel.

Second, they are more politically attuned than expressing true educational needs and concerns. This tendency, as the respondents note, can be detected from a closer examination of the content of the various subjects offered at schools.

Third, even the five so-called National Aims of Education (which were later on drawn from the 'goals') are of little

help in guiding our effort, because the guiding social philosophy, indiscriminately, is supposed to be perpetuated across all grades and subjects. This problem is faced to a greater degree during content selection, commented the respondents. Thus, they conclude that neither the 'goals' nor the 'aims' are of help to direct our effort to plan and develop the curriculum.

As has been previously stated although they often appear to have deserved little or no attention at different places and times, 'the question of ways and means of determining educational objectives is nearly always close to the central issue of educational debate.' According to Dewey they must be determined from 'the educational function.' In Dewey's words "the educative process in its integrity and continuity should determine them For education is itself a process of discovering what values are worthwhile and are to be pursued as objectives (in Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 78). To give clarity to this conception, Tanner write:

In ... any scheme where educational objectives are determined from outside the educational function or process, the educational cause is surrendered. ... The incessant external pressure on schools to censor certain materials, to avoid controversial issues, to indoctrinate for certain ends, or to minister to narrow and special interests-all are examples that impinge on the educative process and to serve to make it non-educative or miseducative (ibid.).

Finally, they conclude that, 'such pressures stem from conditions that are outside the educative process and run counter to the concept of education as enlightenment'.

Closely related to this point is the question of sources or data bases used to determine educational objectives. Here too the same result has been obtained. That is, while seventy-one percent of the respondents contend, the major source referred to is 'problems of contemporary society' the remaining twenty-nine percent are of the opinion that it is based on the disciplines.

In essence, the various sources of consideration to determine educational objectives have been recognized since the time of Dewey. To this effect he noted that

the fundamental factors in the educative process are; (1) the learner - the immature, underdeveloped being; (2) society certain social aims, meanings, values incarnate with the matured experience of the adult; and (3) organized subject matter - the specialization and divisions of the curriculum (Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum 1902. pp. 4 - 8, in Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 79).

Having mentioned these factors, Dewey too cautioned that they should be viewed in 'organic interaction but never one in isolation from the other two'. Warning the tendency of stating these factors 'in their separateness, to insist upon one at the expense of the other, to make antagonist of them," he wrote:

When this happens a really serious practical problem - that of interaction is transformed into an unreal, and hence insoluble, theoretical problem. Instead of seeing the educative process steadily as a whole, we see conflicting terms. We get the case of the child vs the curriculum; of the individual nature vs social nature. Below all other divisions in pedagogic opinion lies this opposition (ibid., p. 4. In Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 79)

This conception of Dewey was intelligently elaborated and changed into the practice of curriculum planning and development by Professor Ralph Tyler as explicated in his "Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction" (1949).

At any rate, it should be clear that any undue consideration of these fundamental sources and influences, have given rise to 'three basic curricular patterns, that are different from each other by the extent to which they are used as the initial and over-riding referents for planning curriculum'.

Within the curriculum field, there has been a long term struggle over data bases essential to determine educational objectives. Despite the disagreements, concerning the relative importance and weight to be assigned to each source, curriculum theoreticians seem to be of one mind on one thing, that is, "criteria for curriculum development should be drawn from these sources" (Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 673).

TABLE III
Patterns of Stating Objectives

Alternatives	Respondents	
	No.	%
In terms of Teacher Performance		
In terms of the Behavior students are required to develop	14	31
In terms of Topics, concepts, generalizations and other elements of content	3	7
In terms of both the Behaviour to be developed in the learner and content in which this behaviour will operate	28	62
Total	45	100

As shown in Table III, with respect to patterns of stating objectives, many (sixth-two percent) of the respondents seem to hold the view that both the behaviour to be developed and the content or area of life in which this behaviour will manifest itself are taken care of.

Infact, when well articulated and unambiguously stated, objectives can serve several educational purposes, as in, for instance selecting desirable learning experiences; defining the scope of the educational program and the emphasis to be made; and forming one of the major components of evaluation.

Stating objectives in the manner suggested by many (sixty-two percent) of the respondents implies that there must be rational bases for their formulation and statement.

One of these rational basis is recognizing the fact that educational objectives have two insparable components namely, content and behaviour. Thus a statement of objectives to be

complete, useful and meaningful, must consider both the behaviour to be developed in the learner and the content in which this behaviour will operate (Tyler 1949, pp. 46 - 74; Taba 1962, p. 200; Saylor et. al., 1981, p. 150; Abebe Bekele 1986, p. 47). Put differently, this means that any statement of objectives that tells the behaviour to be developed without specifying or indicating the area of life where this behaviour will manifest itself is poor enough to guide the selection of educational experiences, and evaluation of the outcomes of the program. Understanding this point has ~~two~~ important implications for planning and developing curriculum.

First, curriculum objectives should not be stated in the form of content only (Tyler 1949, pp. 44 - 46; Gronlund 1970, p. 8, in Abebe Bekele 1986, p. 47). Second, objectives should not be stated in terms of behaviour only (Goodlad 1966, pp. 46 - 49, in Abebe Bekele 1986, p. 50). In either case, there are serious problems that are likely to be faced. For instance, when statements of objectives appear with lists of topics, concepts, generalizations or any other elements of content, these objectives, 'do indicate the areas of content to be dealt with by students but they are not satisfactory objectives since they do not specify what the students are expected to do with these elements'.

But the point of view held by sixty-two percent of the respondents when examined in relation to the findings of one of the Task Forces of the Nation wide study (ERGESE) reveal

uncomfortable facts. As regards this point it is documented that

At elementary school level all objectives of Amharic language, many of Home-economics and Handicrafts have been found consisting either content or behaviour only. Similarly, at the secondary level all objectives of Amharic and English language, many of the objectives of mathematics, physics, Home-economics, ... have also been found consisting either behaviour or content only (Curriculum Development and Teaching-Learning Task Force vol. 1, No. 1, Nehasse 1978 E.C. pp. 215 - 216). (My translation).

In the face of these and other facts, it seems very doubtful to believe the response obtained. Probably the only thing that can be said is through time these professionals might have become aware (at least theoretically) that any statement of educational objectives needs to include the two substantive elements.

TABLE IV
Suggestion on Basis for the Selection of Content

Alternatives	Respondents	
	No.	%
Consistency with objectives	33	73
Validity and Significance	-	-
Balance of Breadth and Depth	-	-
Learnability and adaptability to the experiences of learners	-	-
All of them	12	27
Total	45	100

As shown in Table IV, nearly the majority (seventy-three percent) of the professionals seem to believe that the basis

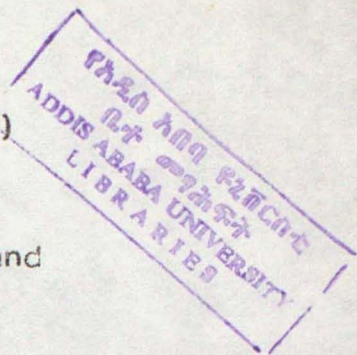
for selecting content is 'consistency with the stated objectives'. But, according to the proponents of the Behavioural model, selection of content and their accompanying learning experiences include the ones listed in table IV and others.

In fact, selection of content 'has always been a problem in curriculum development', argued Taba. To this effect, she noted 'today the problem of a rational basis for selecting curriculum content is especially crucial for several reasons:

First, because of the ferment in education, proposals for what to include in the curriculum or to exclude from it emanate from a variety of sources based on a variety of considerations, some of which are either insufficient, irrational, or both. Second, the explosion of knowledge has made the classical simplicity of school subjects impossible. As specialized knowledge increases, it is necessary either to add more subjects or to assign new priorities in the current offerings to make room for new knowledge and new concepts Finally, an improved educational technology presumably permits an expansion of what can be learned in a given period of time (Taba 1962, pp. 263 - 264).

Despite these and other problems, writer's on curriculum strongly believe that for an educational program to fulfill its intended purposes, what is to be learned in the available school time, needs to have the potential to illustrate its efficacy along several dimensions.

In the context of this argument content is taken as that organized body of accumulated knowledge in which concepts, values, skills, attitudes, artistic heritage and the like that altogether contribute to the universe of the curriculum



are included. Further, curriculum content, as Lewy (1977) explains 'denotes not only bits and pieces organized in a systematic way to make up subject fields but also events and phenomena which cut across the boundaries of subjects.' Hence, in curriculum planning and development decisions concerning the specific content to be included, the how of making these decisions and the principles that underlie should be made on rational bases. This conception demands that those responsible for curriculum development, especially for general education, need to attune the criteria they set in a more comprehensive manner.

TABLE V
Means for Determining Learning Experiences

Alternatives	Respondents	
	No.	%
Considering content with which the subject would deal	10	22
Considering activities the teacher performs	30	67
Considering activities the learner performs	5	11
Considering learners prior experiences that would give them the opportunity to experience the behaviour required by the objective	-	-
Total	45	100

Regarding the determination of learning experiences many (sixty-seven percent) of the respondents hold the view that the means used to this end is 'considering the activities of the teacher'.

As previously discussed (in Chapter Two), learning experiences are significantly different from content in that the

former refer to 'the interaction between learners and the external environment to which they can react'. This fact assumes that the means for determining learning experiences lie neither on content nor on the activities of the teacher, instead it demands an understanding of learners past experiences that have the potential to evoke the behaviour required by the new task.

To Tyler and those who promote his view point, 'learning takes place through the active behaviour of the student; it is what he does that he learns not what the teacher does.' Viewed as such, the task of the teacher would be-that of guiding, facilitating, directing and supporting student learning so that learners would develop the mode of knowing and acting as set in the objectives of the educational program. Hence, the means to determine learning experiences must seriously take into account learner's prior experiences and see to it that these experiences are adequate enough to provide them the opportunity to practice the behaviour required by the objectives.

Pointing to the importance of using the perspective of students for whom learning experiences are to be designed, Tyler writes:

The initial activities should attract the attention of each student and seem worth doing because they can help him learn something he wants to learn, because they are interesting to do, ... These activities should also be well within his present ability to carry on successfully so that he can gain confidence in going on to further activities (Tyler, In Giroux, et. al., (eds.) 1981, p. 26).

Because learning experiences that are appropriate to attain a given objective differ widely with the nature of the objective aimed at, they need to be determined from the point of view of learners.

TABLE VI

Suggestions on Criteria Employed to Organize Educational Experiences.

Alternatives	Respondents	
	No.	%
Political ideology	-	-
Continuity and sequence	3	7
Continuity and Integration	7	15
Sequence and Integration	-	-
Continuity, Sequence and Integration	35	78
Total	45	100

The majority (seventy-eight percent) of the professionals, as shown in Table VI, seem to believe that they employ the three criteria which the proponents of the Behavioural model recommend for effective organization of educational experiences.

It is true that continuity, sequence, and integration are the criteria to be met in building an effectively organized group of learning experiences. As very well explicated by those who promote the model, a plan for an educational program must take a good account of these three criteria in order to provide learners with experiences that build upon one another across subjects in the same grade, the ones passed as well as those coming.

Although the majority (seventy-eight percent) of the professionals contend that they employ these criteria while planning and developing syllabi and other related materials, it is highly disputable when viewed in relation to the other findings as shown in table IV and V. At the same time there seems to be some justification to accept this contention. This is demonstrated in their response to the 'How' and 'Why' of considering vertical and horizontal organization. To this end, they have suggested: In order to avoid repetition, redundancy, as well as duplication of content, each subject panel works out a 'flow-chart'. The 'flow-chart' contains the main ideas to be treated in a given subject area at different grade levels. Then, flow-charts, of all subjects are examined and discussed in a meeting whose members are heads of the various subject panels. By so doing, both vertical and horizontal organization across grades and subjects is strictly observed. In this undertaking these criteria are subsumed. At last, these same respondents cautioned that it is well to remember that such practices are only recent developments.

On a more general level, it may be said, a good number of the professionals are well aware of one among the many essential aspects for effective organization of educational experiences. However, it still remains questionable for it requires an intensive examination of the syllabi all the way through.

TABLE VII

Suggestions on the Organizing Elements of Educational Experiences.

Alternatives	Respondents	
	No.	%
Concepts and Values	4	9
Concepts and skills	-	-
Values and skills	7	15
Concepts, values and skills	34	76
Total	45	100

As shown in Table VII above, again the majority (seventy-six percent) of the respondents have suggested that the organizing elements they consider are 'concepts, values and skills.

According to some curriculum theoreticians, 'understanding organizing elements is a distinguishing attribute of the curriculum expert' (McNeil 1985, p. 150).

Thus, it may be said that the majority (seventy-six percent) of the study group probably seem to have recognized what curriculum specialists call the 'threads, wrap and woof of the fabric of curriculum organization.' Because these elements are embedded and embedded within each subject area at different levels of schooling, they are strictly observed in the organization of educational experiences. Furthermore, these elements are also points of concern in vertical and horizontal organization of learning experiences.

In fact, it is possible to find organizing elements in many plans for learning, irrespective of the model on which the curriculum has been erected. But they may be in defective

balance, mostly because 'these elements are poorly identified or have an inadequate theoretical rationale' (Taba 1962, p. 422). An examination and analyses of curriculum guides, as Taba argues, could reveal that "while each involves something of all elements, these elements can be inadequately related to the central emphasis'. This implies that although these organizing elements can be apparent in any curriculum, the degree to which they are in harmony with stated objectives may become questionable. For instance, if the objectives heavily rest on developing loyalty to and appreciation of certain ideals, then values serve as the major organizing element rather than skills or concepts.

But in developing curriculum for general education, the emphasis should go to neither, rather to all. This is due to the fact that the main intent of curriculum for general education is 'to provide for a common universe of discourse, understanding and competence' (Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 64). So, it is necessary that curriculum developers need to appropriately identify and include them when working to this end.

Even if the majority (seventy-six percent) of the respondents say that they make use of these organizing elements it still seems questionable to believe the degree to which they have appropriately utilized them in actual practice without an intensive examination of the syllabus across grades.

TABLE VII

Views on Evidence considered valid in Evaluating the outcomes of the Curriculum.

Alternatives	Respondents	
	No.	%
Change in the Behaviour Patterns of learners	5	11
Mastery of content of the different subjects offered	32	71
Success in National Examinations	8	18
Total	45	100

With respect to evidence which professionals consider more valid in evaluating the outcomes of the educational program, a good deal of variation is recorded as shown in the Table VIII above. However, many (seventy-one percent) seem to hold the view that they take 'mastery of content' of the various subjects offered at both levels of schooling.

As it appears, the point of view which these professionals held is in sharp opposition with the basic assumptions of the Behavioural model. Curriculum, as used here, is a plan for an educational program that aims at introducing a series of desirable changes in the behaviour patterns of learners. Behaviour, as conceived by the proponents of the model, refers to a wide spectrum of ideas in which knowledge, attitude, feelings, skills, values and other overt actions are subsumed. Taken together these comprise the objective of the educational program. An evaluation of curriculum, therefore, needs to appropriately appraise the over all change brought in learners behaviour.

Mastery of content, success in national examinations, or any other evidence is only the manifestation of an aspect of the behaviour and not all of it.

In evaluating the outcomes of the curriculum, writers on the subject recommend the use of a wide variety of techniques, instruments and procedures, in order to validate the degree to which the plan is functioning as intended.

Unless understood properly, evaluation of the outcomes of curriculum can become "short sighted and narrow minded if it deals with the retention of facts and information" and not with the overall effects of the educational program upon the learner (Tanner and Tanner 1980, p. 87). Similarly, when the objectives and functions of the curriculum are narrowly conceived, "evaluative criteria become narrow-minded, and important interactive elements in the curriculum tend to be overlooked (ibid., p. 717).

Finally, in curriculum development and evaluation, 'important insights can be derived from viewing the curriculum not as an admixture of isolated elements' (ibid., p. 718).

Summary of Major Findings

In the following paragraphs only the major findings are presented with few actual details.

First, a slightly-above average (fifty-six percent) of the subjects of the study seem to believe that they plan and develop the curriculum using some kind of model, while nearly one-third (thirty-one percent) did say that there isn't any, and the remaining

(thirteen percent) did not at all attempt the item.

Second, the attempt to identify the curriculum development model in use has resulted on one that focuses in social problem solving. This has been confirmed by many (seventy-one percent) of the respondents.

As regards the ways and means used to determine Educational Objectives, all (hundred percent) have accepted the point that they are determined centrally by the sanctioning body through legislations, proclamations, directives, economic and development plan policies, at the beginning; but later on through government and party programs.

Again, the quest to find out the sources of information for determining educational objectives has revealed a similar result. Accordingly, many (seventy-one percent) of the professionals have confirmed that 'contemporary society is the predominant data base.

Third, results obtained with regard to patterns of stating objectives has revealed large differences among the respondents. Consequently, many (sixty-two percent) contend that their statements of objectives include both substantive elements - behaviour and content; while some (thirty-one percent) claimed that they state them in terms of the 'behaviour students are supposed to develop; and finally very few (seven percent) say in terms of 'topics, concepts and the like things'. Although many (sixty-two percent) seem to have recognized the conception which many writers advance, unfortunately the contention appears questionable. This is because the 'Nation wide study'(ERGEE), as one of its

findings has indicated that 'most statements of the objectives in many subjects, at both levels of the school system, consist of either of these substantive elements and not both (A full account of the information and details can be found in Abebe Bekele 1986, pp. 39 - 58).

Fourth, the basis for selecting content as maintained nearly by the majority (seventy-three percent) of the respondents, all too often relies on 'consistency with the objectives'. However, there are also those, but few (twenty-seven percent) who seem to believe that content selection must take into account not only 'consistency with objectives' but 'validity and significance, Balance of breadth and depth, learnability and adaptability to learner experiences'.

Fifth, with regard to means for determining learning experiences a good deal of variation has been exhibited among the respondents. Accordingly, many (sixty-seven percent) suggested 'the activities the teacher performs'; some (twenty-two percent) 'content with which a subject area deals with and very few (eleven percent) 'learners prior experiences' as means to this end.

Sixth, considering criteria for effective organization of educational experiences, it has been noted that the majority (seventy-eight percent) of the professionals are of the position that they employ 'continuity, sequence, and integration' appropriately. Similarly, suggestions on the organizing elements have demonstrated that again the majority (seventy-six percent) hold the view that 'concepts, values, and skills' are taken care of.

Finally, as regards evidence considered valid in evaluating the outcomes of the curriculum, the respondents have exhibited recognizable differences. To this end, many (seventy-one percent) are of the opinion that 'mastery of content of the different subjects offered' is more valid. The remaining eleven and eighteen percent have given more thought to 'change in the behaviour patterns of learners' and 'success in National examinations' respectively.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the analyses, the ensuing discussions, and major results obtained, the following conclusions and recommendations are made.

CONCLUSIONS

In the confines of this study, it is not possible to do more than (1) point out the major importance of Planning and developing curricula for general education following an agreed upon model; (2) examine whether or not the model claimed is in line with the basic theoretical constructs of the Behavioural model.

As the bulk of the evidence in the field witnesses, the increased interest in curriculum appeared concomitantly with different conceptual schemes (models) to guide the planning and development of educational programs. In the strict sense of the term, because there is no such thing as unplanned curriculum- save the Hidden-, every formally organized and hierarchically structured educational offering is founded upon some kind of model.

A curriculum development model, which is the end result of curriculum decisions, can therefore be taken as a compass to those charged with the task. However, as many writers strongly argue, 'selecting a curriculum model is not as simple as saying "I will take this one" from a range of alternatives. Rather, it is a "highly professional task which requires knowledge of various possible designs and an understanding of the value

commitments embedded in each design". Granted this, it can be said, each curriculum development model grows out of a series of assumptions concerning the end-purposes of schooling, who should make what kind of curriculum decisions, data bases or sources to determine educational objectives, selection and organization of learning experiences, and last but most important the nature of evaluating the outcomes of the program. Thus, a plan for an educational program, if it is to be profitable, needs to provide ways for continuous revision and improvement; and also be grounded upon some model to develop the desired set of intended learnings.

As has been stated previously, the major theme of this study is examining the Practices and Processes of Curriculum Development for General Education in Ethiopia since 1974. With this focus, attempts have been made to see if the model claimed (Ends-Means) has actually been put into effect in view of the basic notions and assumptions underpinning the Behavioural model. On a more general level, it can be concluded that, (1) undeniably many attempts have been made to revise, improve, and also change syllabi, textbooks, and other curriculum materials from the very beginning, but hardly founded on any evaluation of the past, or following any systematic procedure; (2) as it appears, few actual details are known about the concept of a model in curriculum planning and development; (3) in the face of the points mentioned above, and as most of the results of this study have revealed, the model on use has very little to do with the one claimed.

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Finally, it seems necessary to be aware of the following point; although changes in society exert certain demands upon education, as Tanners (1980, p. 88) note, these demands, 'need to be interpreted by educators in light of the educative process. Otherwise, externally imposed demands may undermine the educative process'.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- (a) To assist policy making that can direct curriculum planning and development, important educational decisions seem to be made at the outset. That is, since education is the business of all, it must be made through the involvement of diverse constituency in which educators, education research workers, psychologists, sociologists, teachers, parents and other groups can take part.
- (b) Concerned, as it is, with 'what should be taught' and to 'what ends in view', curriculum planning and development must make explicit the model upon which it is erected. Therefore, it is very necessary that the rationale for the choice of the model and its essential aspects need to be clearly spelled out, for such explication enables those charged with the task to work out the plan competently and also institute improvement, revision, or change on some valid bases.
- (c) Any attempt to revise, improve, modify and change the curriculum needs to base itself upon research findings that recognize and take a full account of the overall implications it will have on learners, learning, knowledge, and the society at large.
- (d) Finally, though many of the professionals have had a good deal of teaching experience, however they seem to lack appropriate knowledge and organization in their current undertakings. Thus, on top of their academic qualification they need to have knowledge proper in curriculum planning and development.

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ANNEX 1

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
EDUCATION FACULTY

DEPARTMENT OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

13 MARCH 1990.

Discussion Items With Officials

N.B. The following items are to be addressed to Heads of Departments who now hold their respective posts in various departments of the Ministry of Education and those who have been transferred to other sectors.

INTRODUCTION

Among the many efforts that are being made for improving education, one of the most significant and potential most far-reaching trends is the effort to plan and develop curricula for general education. In this regard, it has long been realized that any curriculum plan, if it is to become effective, must make explicit and clear the model upon which it bases itself.

Viewed from this vantage point, this interview is part of a study which is being made to produce a THESIS that will contribute to a professional overview of "THE PRACTICES AND PROCESSES OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR GENERAL EDUCATION IN ETHIOPIA SINCE 1974". Since the purpose of the study is to gather pertinent information as regards current perceptions, attitudes and opinions of those who are actually engaged in Education Policy decision-making, your assistance and your frank responses will be much appreciated.

Thank you for your
cooperation in advance.

ANNEX I

Interview

1. What are the major policies that guide the nature of curriculum development for general education since 1974?
2. How are the goals of Ethiopian education determined?
3. Who determines or sets these goals?
4. What sources are referred to in determining these goals?
What are the bases for goal setting?
5. Is there any influence of other nations in this respect?
How strong is it?
6. Does the Ministry of Education provide policy statements that can guide curriculum developers with respect to the kind of model that they should employ to develop the curriculum?
7. In what respect does your department contribute to this end?
8. Compared to the pre-revolution period, to what extent has the curriculum been made relevant to the needs of the country?
9. What, in your opinion are the major problems or shortcomings of curriculum development since 1974?
10. What do you propose as a remedy to these problems or shortcomings?

Do you have any comments or suggestions on the proceedings of curriculum development so as to make it as relevant as possible to national needs?

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7.8

ANNEX 2

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

EDUCATION FACULTY

DEPARTMENT OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

13 MARCH 1990

Questionnaire to be filled by professionals in the Institute for
Curriculum Development and Research (ICDR)

Introduction

Among the many efforts that are being made for improving education, one of the most significant and potentially most far-reaching trends is the effort to design and develop curricula for general education. In this regard it has long been realized that any curriculum design, if it is to become effective, must make explicit and clear the model upon which it bases itself

Viewed from this vantage point, this questionnaire is part of a study which is being made to produce a THESIS that will contribute to a professional overview of "THE PRACTICES AND PROCESSES OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR GENERAL EDUCATION IN ETHIOPIA SINCE 1974." Since the purpose of the study is to gather pertinent information as regards current perceptions, attitudes and opinions of those who are actually engaged in the task, your assistance and your frank responses will be much appreciated

Thank you for your cooperation in
advance.

N.B. Please, do not write your name.

P A R T I BIODATA

A. Your experience in the field of education (please, specify in years)

- . In primary school teaching. _____ years.
- . In secondary school teaching _____ years.
- . In primary teacher training _____ years.
- . In curriculum Department (Now ICDR) _____ years.
- Total _____ years.

P A R T II

Please put ✓ mark in the box to those items that appear with choices and write, in brief, what you think is appropriate to the open-ended ones.

1. Is there any model that you use for planning and developing the curriculum for general education (Please give reasons for your response)

A. Yes ☐

B. No ☐

2. If your response to item Number 1 is "YES" which of the following models is the one under practice?

A. One that focuses on the disciplines, that is, academic subject areas. ☐

B. One that focuses on fulfilling the needs and interests of learners. ☐

C. One that focuses on problems of the society. ☐

D. One that pays equal attribute to the disciplines, needs and interests of learners, and the society. ☐

E. Other, please specify. _____

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4. How are the goals of Ethiopian education determined?
- A. Through legislations, proclamations, and other legal enactments. ☐
- B. Through profound and systematic assessment of needs. ☐
- C. Other, please specify. _____

5. If your response to item Number 4 is "A", are these goals sufficiently clear and understandable in guiding your efforts? (Please give reasons to your response).
- A. Yes ☐
- B. No ☐
6. To what extent are these goals realistic and attainable?

7. If your response to item Number 5 above is "No", what is the problem?

6.
8. What sources do you refer to in order to determine the objectives of the curriculum for general education?

A. The needs and interests of potential learners. ☐

B. The problems and aspirations of the society. ☐

C. The nature of organized human knowledge. ☐

D. All of them ☐

E. Other, please specify. _____

9. How do you state educational objectives?

A. In terms of teachers' performance. ☐

B. In terms of the behaviour students are required to develop. ☐

C. In the form of topics, concepts, and other elements of content. ☐

D. In terms of both the behaviour to be developed in the learner and content in which the behaviour will operate. ☐

E. Other, please specify. _____

10. On which of the following bases do you select the content of the curriculum for general education?

- A. On the bases of their consistency with the objectives. ☐
- B. On the bases of their validity and significance. ☐
- C. On the bases of their balance of breadth and depth. ☐
- D. On the bases of their learnability and adaptability to the experience of learners. ☐
- E. Other, please specify. _____

11. How do you determine learning experiences that are to be included in the Curriculum?

- A. By considering the content with which a subject area would deal. ☐
- B. By considering the activities to be performed by the teacher. ☐
- C. By considering the activities to be performed by the students. ☐
- D. By considering learners' prior experiences so that it would give them the opportunity to exercise the kind of behavior required by the objective. ☐
- E. Other, please specify. _____

12. Do you consider the organization of content and learning experiences Horizontally and Vertically?

A. Yes ☐

B. No ☐

13. Please, specify the "HOW" and "WHY" of your response to item number 12.

14. Which of the following criteria do you use in order to effectively organize content and learning experiences?

A. Political Ideology. ☐

B. Continuity and sequence ☐

C. Continuity and integration ☐

D. Sequence and integration ☐

E. Continuity, sequence, and integration ☐

F. Other, please specify.

15. Which of the following elements do you consider most when organizing the content of the curriculum?

- A. Concepts and values ☐
- B. Concepts and skills ☐
- C. Values and skills ☐
- D. Concepts, values, and skills ☐
- E. Other, please specify.

16. What means and ways do you employ in order to ascertain whether or not the stated curriculum objectives have been attained? (please, mention a few of them).

17. Which evidence do you consider more valid in evaluating the effectiveness of the curriculum you have designed?

- A. Change in the behaviour patterns of learners. ☐
- B. Mastery of the content of the different subjects taught. ☐
- C. Success in National Examinations. ☐
- D. Other, please specify.
