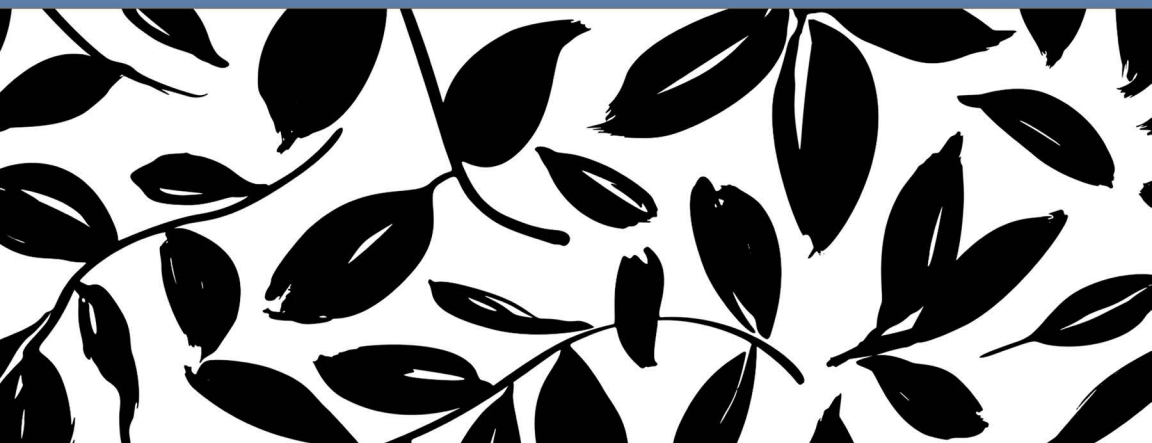Second Edition

What English Language Teachers Need to Know Volume III

Designing Curriculum

MaryAnn Christison
and Denise E. Murray

WHAT ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS NEED TO KNOW VOLUME III, 2ND EDITION

Designed for pre-service and novice teachers in ELT, *What English Language Teachers Need to Know Volumes I*, *II*, and *III* are companion textbooks organized around the key question: *What do teachers need to know and be able to do in order to help their students to learn English?*

Thoroughly revised and updated, the second edition of Volume III explores the contexts for ELT curricula; explains key processes in curriculum design; and sets out approaches to curricula that are linguistic-based, content-based, learner centered, and learning centered. Organized around the three pillars of teaching—planning, instructing, and assessing—chapters in the second edition are updated to include current research and theory to meet the needs of today's teachers, and feature new or revised vignettes and activities. New chapters help teachers understand both the technological and multilingual approaches that learners need to succeed today.

The comprehensive texts of this series are suitable resources for teachers across different contexts—where English is the dominant language, an official language, or a foreign language; for different levels—elementary/primary, secondary, university, or adult education; and for different learning purposes—general English, workplace English, English for academic purposes, or English for specific purposes.

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WHAT ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS NEED TO KNOW VOLUME III

Designing Curriculum

2nd Edition

*MaryAnn Christison and
Denise E. Murray*

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PREFACE

English language teaching worldwide has become a multi-billion-dollar enterprise, one that the majority of nations in the world are embarking on to lesser or greater extents. For many countries, English is seen as a commodity through which they will become more competitive in the global marketplace. While English may have national and personal advancement potential, it is also pervasive in the global media. Youth culture in particular is influenced by English-dominant media and marketing. As a result, English is being consumed and transformed transnationally.

The settings where English is taught vary from countries where English is the official and dominant language, such as the United States or Australia, to those where it is an official language, usually as a result of past colonialism, such as India or the Philippines, to those where it is taught in schools as a subject of study, such as Japan or the Czech Republic. In the first set of countries, when English is taught to immigrants or to international students, the language is often called English-as-a-second-language (ESL) and its teaching TESL. In the second set of countries, where it is taught to citizens and increasingly to international students, it is usually referred to also as ESL. In the third set of countries, the language is often referred to as English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) and its teaching as TEFL. Because both ESL and EFL carry ideological baggage, there is much discussion in the field about more appropriate terminology and the use of alternate terms. Some prefer to use (T)ESOL—(teaching) English to speakers of other languages—since it acknowledges that the learners may have more than one previous language and can be used to include both ESL and EFL contexts. Others prefer (T)EAL—(teaching) English as an additional language—for the same reason, whereas ESL implies there is only English plus one other. Other terms in use include English as an international language (EIL) and English language teaching (ELT). Whatever the terminology used, distinctions are increasingly becoming blurred as people move around the globe and

acquire their English in a variety of different settings, being taught by teachers from a variety of different linguacultural backgrounds.

In these volumes, we use ESL and EFL because they are still the most widely used terms, while at the same time recognizing the inherent reification of English in their use. When referring to teaching, we will use ELT to avoid confusion between the field TESOL and the shortened or unofficial name for the professional association called TESOL International.

Similarly, the terminology used to define the users of English has been contested. The most commonly used terms have been native speaker (NS), in contrast to non-native speaker (NNS). Both of these terms also assume ideological positions, especially since the NS is valued as the norm and the model for language learning, not only in those countries where English is the dominant language, but also in many EFL settings. Yet, the majority of English language users and teachers do not have English as their mother tongue or dominant language. In some ESL contexts, such as the United States, immigrant children in K–12 public schools and adult learners are referred to as English language learners or English learners (ELLs) or ELs, even though all English speakers, no matter their immigration status, are technically English language learners—we are both still learning English! Leung et al. (1997) have, therefore, proposed refining what it means to know and use a language with three terms: (a) language expertise (linguistic and cultural knowledge), (b) language affiliation (identification and attachment), and (c) language inheritance (connectedness and continuity). What is important then about the learners' (or teachers') language is their linguistic repertoire in relation to each of these criteria, not whether they are a NS. Because there is no general acceptance of such terms, we shall continue to use NS and NNS, while noting that they establish a dichotomy that is neither valid nor descriptive.

Much of the literature also refers to people learning English in formal settings as students and sometimes as learners. We have chosen to use the term learner, except when it leads to infelicitous expressions such as "learners learning." Student implies passivity; learner implies agency. For us, learners are vital collaborators in the educational enterprise.

Who Is This Book For?

We are writing this book for pre-service teachers and practicing teachers who may be new to the field of ELT or new to designing curriculum for ELT. Whether you are teaching in an English-dominant country, a country where English is one of the official languages, or a country where English is taught as

a foreign language, the information in this book is relevant to your context. We have also designed it for whatever level you may be teaching—elementary (primary) school, secondary school, college or university, or adult education. It also includes the information teachers need to teach general English, workplace English, English for academic purposes (EAP), or English for specific purposes (ESP). We realize that this is a big task, but we have used examples that represent the diversity of ELT settings. Of course, we cannot include examples from every country or grade level, but we have tried to be inclusive and ensure that whatever your current or future teaching situation, you will find the material relevant to your learners and situation. At the same time, we have been as specific as possible, rather than relying on generic characteristics of the field.

Our own experiences have covered a vast array of different age groups, contexts, and content areas—between us, we have taught in English-dominant countries, EFL contexts in every continent, young people, adults, university students, general English, English for business, English for science and technology, and EAP.

What Is This Book About?

In order to teach in these different contexts, teachers need understandings about the nature of language and language learning. With those understandings, they need to be able to facilitate student learning. This book is the third in a set of volumes titled *What English Language Teachers Need to Know*. Because student learning is the goal, we have oriented these volumes to focus on the notion of learning, asking the question: *What do teachers need to know and be able to do in order for their students to learn English?*

Volume I in this series provides the background information teachers need to know and be able to use in their classrooms. Teachers need to know (or know how to find out about) the characteristics of the context in which they work—the nature of their learners, the features of their institution, the policies and expectations of their nation/state, and the broader world with which their learners will engage. They need to know how English works and how it is learned. To become proficient in English, learners need to be able not only to create correct sentences in the classroom, but also to engage in conversations with other English speakers, and to read and write texts for different purposes. To accomplish this, teachers need to know how learning takes place both within the learner and through social interaction. Finally, teachers need to understand their role in the larger professional sphere of English language education so that they can continue to grow as teachers and expand the profession through their
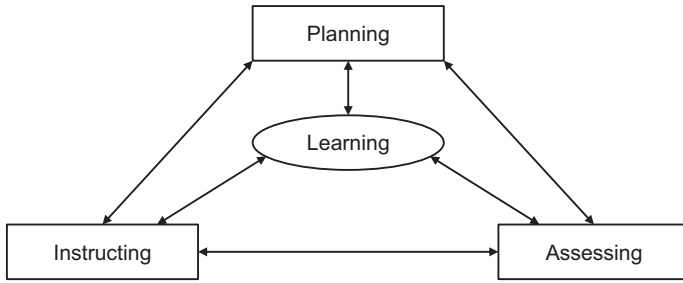
Figure 0.1 Model of the Instructional Process

own participation in its various enterprises. They also need to engage in their local communities to be informed of their needs and to inform their communities about the nature of English language learning. While we have provided separate sections on each of these important themes, the challenge of successful teaching is to know how to blend an understanding of learners, language, and language learning with knowledge of their content goals and how to achieve those goals. This is the subject of Volume II.

Volume II is organized around the three main aspects of teaching: planning, instructing, and assessing. However, this progression is not linear. The three aspects are reiterative. While planning instruction, teachers are assessing what their learners already know and what they need to know to reach their next curriculum goals. While instructing, teachers are constantly assessing whether their learners have acquired the language in focus and planning on the spot by reacting to student learning (or evidence of not learning). While assessing, teachers are constantly reviewing instructional goals to determine whether learners have achieved them and if not, why not, and how to plan for revision or next steps.

With the focus always on student learning, Figure 0.1 illustrates the dynamic, cyclical interaction of these processes.

Overview

Volume III helps pre-service teachers, practicing teachers who are new to the field of ELT, administrators, and policy makers understand and work with the theory and practice of developing ELT curricula in a variety of contexts and for a variety of language proficiency and age levels. It helps them design curricula that promote student learning. While curricula need to promote student learning, they also occur in contexts both historical and political. Curricula are inherently tied to the contexts in which they are designed and to the innovation

and management of both learning and educational institutions. Part I provides the contexts for curricula, demonstrating how different stakeholders and different views of education, of language, and of learning impact on the curriculum development process and the content of curriculum. Part II explains and illustrates the process of curriculum design for specific contexts. Parts III–VI provide examples from the different possible orientations to curricular choice—linguistic, content, learner, and learning. It is situated in current research in the field of ELT and other disciplines that inform it.

In all three volumes we include theoretical perspectives as well as directions for translating these theoretical perspectives into practice. We illustrate with examples from practice to guide the reader in the translation process. The three books together provide an iterative conversation concerning how to develop language programs that result in optimal student learning. They stem from the view that teaching is a thinking, reasoning, and sociocultural activity in which teachers make decisions based on the context of their classrooms.

The material in these three volumes is based on current research in the field and in other disciplines that can inform ELT. These include psychology, neuroscience, pedagogy, sociology, anthropology, cultural studies, and linguistics. The focus throughout the volumes is on outcomes, that is, student learning.

Each chapter includes activities for the reader—to reflect on the information based on your own experiences, to read further on a topic, or to conduct small-scale investigations into teaching and learning. We hope that you will have as much enjoyment engaging with the materials as we have had writing them.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Part I

CONTEXTS FOR ELT CURRICULA

Curricula are sociocultural artifacts that reflect local values and local beliefs about language and language learning; therefore, they do not necessarily transfer well to different contexts. However, many curricula have been exported, especially from the BANA (Britain, Australasia, and North America) countries, with variable results. As Edge notes for methodology, which just as easily applies to curricula:

> If what we (and particularly we who live in or draw on such centers of TESOL as the US or Britain) have to offer is essentially methodological, and if those methods are subversive and inappropriate, how exactly do we justify our activities? What sorts of future are we attempting to build with other people?
>
> (Edge, 1996, p. 17)

In Part I we explore the contexts for curricula. We begin with the nature of curricula themselves (Chapter 1), to answer the questions: What is a curriculum? And who is involved in curricular decisions? The remaining four chapters explore the landscape in which and for which curricula are designed. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the social, political, and historical contexts that influenced curricula design. Chapter 3 explores how English has spread to be the global language for commerce, education, and technology, among other endeavors and how curricula need to respond to the variety of English users. Chapter 4 focuses on how curricula for English language teaching need to respond to the multilingual context. It explores the notion that English learners are emerging multilinguals who learn English in a social context that is constantly evolving and changing. Chapter 5 explains how current trends in technology are affecting curricula and need to be considered in the curriculum development process.

Reference

Edge, J. (1996). Cross-cultural paradoxes in a profession of values. *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*(1), 9–30.

1

THE NATURE OF CURRICULUM DESIGN

VIGNETTE

I am working with a group of teachers and materials writers on a course for pre- or minimal-literate young refugees to Australia, ones who have some proficiency in spoken English but disrupted or limited experiences of formal schooling. The government has provided additional hours of English instruction to help them prepare for the regular adult program. We have already had several meetings and, based on research our center conducted, have decided to develop several modules on topics of interest to this clientele but also ones vital to their successful settlement in Australia: Your Future (work and study); Your Time Out (recreation); Your Money; Your Communication (including technology); Your Health and Well-being; and You and Me (interpersonal relations, cross cultural communication). The overall approach is content-based, with language determined by the content. At this particular meeting, we are working on the module on money. We begin by determining the outcomes we expect learners to be able to achieve at the end of the module, such as "Demonstrate an awareness of different forms of money (cash/virtual) and their use in various transactions (e.g., EFTPOS,[1] online banking, phone, post office, hire purchase)" and "Demonstrate an awareness of the implications of signing any contracts." We agree that the content needs to motivate and inform learners. So, we decide to include topics around paying rent, banking, food shopping, budgeting, and cell phones. This leads to four units for the module. To achieve the language and subject matter outcomes, we discuss what language learners will need—structures, lexis, functions, and text types. We

(continued)

(continued)

discuss the skills they will need—numeracy, critical literacy, and writing a note. A lot of discussion is focused on Australia being a highly literate country and that this group of learners needs to navigate literacy. The question is how to achieve this with pre- and minimally-literate learners. We discuss how to assist learners in seeing the connections between spoken and written language, how to use visuals, how to work with peers, and learning to learn. Content, outcomes, and language were mapped across each module to ensure sequencing of units within the module and across modules. Once the draft materials were developed, they were trialed with teachers in youth refugee classrooms and revised based on teacher feedback.

<div align="right">[Murray, research notes]</div>

Task: Reflect

1. What do you think was the advantage of starting the curriculum design process with content, rather than language?
2. Do you think it is appropriate to include non-language content in an English course? Why? Why not?
3. How can you assist learners in seeing the connection between spoken and written language, given that English does not have a one letter/one sound correspondence?

Introduction

> It [the curriculum] informs teachers, students, parents, teacher educators, assessment developers, textbook publishers, technology providers, and others about the goals of instruction. It provides direction, clarity, and focus around worthy ends, without interfering with teachers' decisions about how to teach.
>
> <div align="right">(Ravitch, 2010, p. 231)</div>

A curriculum is not a static set of documents, nor is it a list of things to be taught; it's a reiterative, dynamic process, one that is constantly being planned, implemented, and evaluated. Curricula are context-dependent, reflecting the needs of learners,

institutional values and policies, and teachers' beliefs. In addition, stakeholders can perceive the same curriculum in different ways. In this chapter, we will focus on what is meant by curriculum, on its essential scope, differing views of curriculum, and curriculum change. For example, there is the recommended curriculum, the written curriculum, the taught curriculum, and the learned curriculum, and each curriculum is different. In all contexts, there is also a hidden curriculum. (See Chapter 2 for further explanation and discussion of each of these types of curricula.)

Task: Reflect

Directions: think about your own language learning. How was the curriculum organized? Respond with "yes" or "no" to each statement. Share your reflections with a colleague.

_____1. The curriculum was organized around grammatical structures.
_____2. The curriculum was organized around texts.
_____3. The curriculum was organized around themes.
_____4. The curriculum was organized around the content I needed to study.
_____5. The curriculum was organized around competencies I was expected to master.
_____6. The curriculum was organized around tasks I was expected to carry out.
_____7. The curriculum was organized around projects I was expected to conduct.
_____8. The curriculum was organized by the class in negotiation with the teachers.
_____9. The curriculum was organized around a textbook.

Defining Curriculum

Educators often define curriculum differently. The literature often does not clearly differentiate among the terms—curriculum, syllabus, program, and course. In many British and Australian publications, syllabus seems to be the preferred term, while curriculum is used more in the United States. In English speaking countries the concept of curriculum has been considered synonymous with "a course of study" since the 16th century. In the most recent decades, the concept has expanded to include all of the experiences the school plans for learners to engage in, such that the term becomes meaningless (Montoya-Vargas,

2012). Furthermore, in many contexts a curricular framework is developed, often at a national or state level, and educators develop a more detailed implementation that is designed to fit the local context. An example of a curricular framework is the European Framework of Reference for Language (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2019), which we discuss in detail in Chapter 22.

For the purposes of this volume, *curriculum* is the name for the broadest organization of instruction, involving planning, teaching, and evaluating any plan for the teaching and learning of English. *Syllabus* refers to an instantiation of a curriculum, that is, "that part of curriculum activity concerned with the specification and ordering of course content or input" (Nunan, 1988, p. 14). *Program* encompasses all of the *courses* in a particular institution.

As an example, we follow with a description of an institution in an English-dominant country such as the United States, which prepares international students for their future university study. The institution has seven different courses of study: a TOEFL preparation course, an IELTS (academic) preparation course, three levels of general academic English preparation courses, one course for preparing students going into accountancy, and one course for preparing students going into nursing degrees. These seven courses constitute a program. The TOEFL, IELTS, accounting, and nursing-focused courses each have their own curriculum. The three levels of general academic English, however, have one overarching curriculum so that students can move from one course to the next. When a particular teacher teaches the TOEFL preparation course, she follows the curriculum, but uses her own instructional strategies. Her plan for the entire course is a syllabus.

Curriculum Approach

The overall approach to the curriculum may be determined at national or local levels and depends on policies and beliefs about language and language learning. In language education, there are four general approaches, each of which has different specific ways of organizing the curriculum:

- linguistic-based
    - structural,
    - notional/functional,
    - academic functions,
    - genre/text,
    - vocabulary, and
    - skills.

- content-based

  - the integration of language and content, and
  - topic and situational.

- learner centered

  - negotiated,
  - humanistic, and
  - task-based.

- learning centered

  - outcome-based,
  - competency-based, and
  - standards-based.

Each of these approaches is dealt with in separate chapters, but here, we need to introduce the possible choices because the approach taken influences the content of the curriculum.

Curriculum Content

No matter what approach is taken, in language instruction all aspects of language in use need to be included in instruction and assessment. We say "language in use" because language varies with context, with what is being talked about, with whom it is being used, and who the speaker is. As Fishman (1965) eloquently noted, "who speaks what language to whom and when?" English language in use consists of the following components:

- English sound system;
- English word system;
- English sentence structure;
- speech acts;
- English discourse structure, both written and spoken;
- varieties of English, by place and person; and
- cultural contexts.

(see Murray & Christison, 2019 for details)

Therefore, whatever approach is taken, the curriculum must consider where and how to include all these aspects of the language, which is referred to as scope and sequence.

Scope and Sequence

A curriculum needs to include both a scope and sequence for the content to be taught. *Scope* refers to the type and amount of content to be taught, while *sequence* refers to the order in which the content will be taught. Thus, for example, the scope for an IELTS preparation course would be the language needed for the test, along with sample tests and test-taking strategies. The course would need to teach:

- listening

  - conversation between two people in an everyday context,
  - monologue in an everyday context,
  - conversation between up to four people set in an educational or training context, and
  - monologue on an academic subject.

- academic reading

  - authentic, academic texts written for non-specialists.

- academic writing

  - description, summary, or explanation of graphs, tables, charts, or diagrams;
  - description of an event or of an object;
  - description and explanation of data;
  - description of stages in a process; and
  - written response to a point of view, argument, or problem.

- speaking

  - introducing oneself,
  - talking about a given topic, and
  - two-way discussion.

- how performance is measured in each section of the test
- test-taking strategies

  - types of multiple-choice questions (e.g., true/false, matching),
  - specific IELTS instruction (e.g., number of words in writing tasks),
  - taking notes during listening test,
  - completing the answer booklets, and
  - preparing for the actual test day (e.g., resting the night before).

- English structure at the word, sentence, and discourse level.

Note that in this example, the scope includes the English sound, word, sentence, and discourse systems. It also includes specific cultural contexts, both academic and general. Because IELTS includes speakers with different varieties of English in the listening task, language variation also needs to be included in the scope of the curriculum.

The sequence for the course would be the order in which these items were presented, practiced, and reviewed. So, for example, the teacher would probably choose to teach the language of description (both syntactic structures, such as *be* and *have* verbs, and discourse structure) before having learners attempt to describe a graph or diagram.

However, in language teaching, sequencing is incredibly complex. It is difficult because, unlike some other subject areas such as arithmetic, there is no pre-defined linear progression and much depends on what learners achieve along the way. Also, the sequencing depends largely on which approach to curriculum design is taken. For example, if an institution chooses a structure-based approach, then the curriculum will begin with what is generally considered the easiest structures to acquire. If a competency-based approach is used, then the sequencing will start with competencies on which others build, for example, teaching *greetings* before teaching *conducting a short telephone conversation*. If a content-based approach is chosen, then what language is taught in what sequence depends on what learners need to know to be able to work with the particular content.

Task: Explore

Find a curriculum document in current use in your context. Which approach is used? Are scope and sequence described so that teachers know what is expected? How is the curriculum evaluated for effectiveness?

The Role of Textbooks and Materials

Because curriculum, in our view, includes planning, teaching, and evaluation, it necessarily involves consideration of materials that facilitate instruction (see Chapter 7 for a fuller discussion of the interaction among program, courses, lessons, and curriculum). In many contexts, a textbook is the default curriculum. As Ravitch (2010) notes for K–12 education in the United States,

> To have no curriculum is to leave decisions about what matters to the
> ubiquitous textbooks, which function as our de facto national curricu-

lum. To have no curriculum on which assessment may be based is to tighten the grip of test-based accountability, testing only generic skills, not knowledge or comprehension.

(p. 237)

In U.S. K–12 education, textbook publishers design textbooks that meet the goals of the largest states because this approach brings in the largest profit. However, publisher also don't want to align the textbooks too closely to specific states, so the textbooks can also be used in other states. In general, "[t]he textbooks avoid controversy—which would hurt sales—and maintain a studied air of neutrality, thus ensuring the triumph of dullness" (p. 234), leaving learners either with an impoverished educational experience or having their teachers forced to supplement the textbook extensively. While Ravitch was expressly referring to U.S. K–12 education, the same indictment can be made regarding textbooks across many different contexts. In some institutions, new teachers are handed a textbook and left to their own devices. For inexperienced teachers or ones new to the particular context, the textbook can become a crutch.

In the context of the vignette, the curriculum and the textbook and materials were closely aligned because we were commissioned to develop both. Because one of the goals was to motivate learners, each unit begins with a DVD of a scenario related to the topic. Prior to watching the DVD, learners look at one shot from the DVD and have to predict what they think the DVD will be about. The actors in the scenarios are young and of different ethnicities, like the learners for whom it was designed. In the first unit of the module on money, two young men are sharing an apartment and having difficulty meeting the rent payments. They meet on the street and one young man discovers that his roommate has just bought very expensive running shoes because they were on sale. In the next scene, he offers his ATM card and PIN number to his roommate when he's reminded that the rent is due. However, there isn't enough money in the account because he paid for the running shoes. Next, they meet another friend who is not happy living with his brother, and so they invite him to share their apartment (and help defray rental costs). He agrees. The textbook provides follow up comprehension tasks, such as sequencing pictures of events, answering comprehension questions, advice on not giving ATM cards and PINs to friends, and so on. The mapping of the language outcomes for this unit is provided in Table 1.1.

Curriculum in Practice

How the curriculum is resourced, implemented, and learned can be quite different from the intention of the curriculum developers. These differences result

Table 1.1 Mapping Language Outcomes for a Teaching Unit on Money

Text Types	Functions	Structures	Lexis
Calendar ATM screen, ATM printout, EFTPOS receipt Bank statement Surveys Tips on security—from a bank website	Talking about frequency of activities Expressing necessity, obligation, lack of obligation	Frequency—every month/two weeks/week Monthly, weekly, fortnightly Regular and irregular verbs—past tense Past tense time markers used for sequencing: one day, then, after that Present simple: I pay, we pay Modals: I have to . . . pay the rent, clean my room. I don't have to . . . How old do you have to be to . . . drive, vote, drink in a hotel, go to college, etc.	Banking language: debit, credit, balance, transaction, cash withdrawal, account number, fee, EFTPOS machine, ATM, receipt, other bank ATM, statement Chores and responsibilities for sharing a house: pay bills, clean my room, cook, buy food, do my washing, pay rent

from decisions made by different stakeholders, such as teaching institutions, teachers, and learners. Consequently, different curriculum scholars have posited various ways of thinking about the curriculum enterprise. To illustrate, we discuss a traditional model and one resulting from research in Hong Kong. We also address the issue of the way curricula transmit culture in covert ways, referred to as the *hidden curriculum*.

Models of Curriculum Development

Tyler (1949), considered the father of curriculum development in the 20th century, stated that four fundamental questions should guide all curriculum development, whatever the subject matter:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain? (Defining appropriate learning objectives.)
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes? (Introducing useful learning experiences.)

3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized? (Organizing experiences to maximize their effect.)
4. How can we determine whether these purposes have been attained? (Evaluating the process and revising the areas that were not effective.)

These four questions, referred to in the literature as the Tyler Rationale, comprised the titles of four of the five chapters in his book. While Tyler's model has been a dominant force for curriculum design, it has been roundly criticized for implying discrete stages. However, he did note that any of these four questions can be the entry point for the design process. He also recognized that learners do not necessarily learn what teachers teach. "It is what he (sic) does that he learns, not what the teacher does" (Tyler, 1949, p. 63) that results in learning. A further criticism was that his claim that the process was value-free was invalid (Kliebard, 1971). Indeed, in our view his model overlooked how curriculum is interpreted and influenced by different stakeholders during the entire design and implementation process. Because stakeholders in ELT often have different views of language and language learning, it is essential for educators to understand the impact these different curricular interpretations have on learners. For example, an interpretation that rejects multilingualism and equity fails to provide an environment that fosters learning among minority communities (See Chapter 4).

A model that seeks to recognize the social, historical, political, and personal forces that affect curriculum is that of Glatthorn et al. (2006). They suggest six types of curricula: *the recommended curriculum*, *the written curriculum*, *the supported curriculum*, *the taught curriculum*, *the tested curriculum*, and *the learned curriculum* (see Chapter 2 for a full discussion of this model). Underlying all these types of curricula is the vision society has for its future and the role the curriculum plays in achieving that vision (Masters, 2020). Although Masters was referring specifically to school curriculum for compulsory school years, his perspective is equally relevant for English language teaching across different sectors (see Chapter 5).

In English language teaching, Adamson et al. (2000) developed a model based on their research into curriculum change in Hong Kong. They identified four types of curricula that arose during the process of curriculum design and implementation: the intended curriculum, the resourced curriculum, the implemented curriculum, and the experienced curriculum. Table 1.2 below shows who was involved and what the process and product were for each curriculum.

These decision-making steps are presented in a linear fashion, as are most of the models of the curriculum design process (see Chapter 6 for a discussion of the cycle of curriculum design). In practice, these different curricula interact.

Table 1.2 Processes and Products for Types of Curricula

	Intended Curriculum	Resourced Curriculum	Implemented Curriculum	Experienced Curriculum
Process	policy making	learning resources design	teachers' lesson planning	pupils' learning
Product	policy documents	learning resources	teaching aids	learning acts

As teachers put the curriculum into practice, they may add resources and suggest changes to the policy documents. As policy makers and others see what learning takes place (or does not), they may revise or add to learning resources or provide professional development for teachers so that they better understand the intent of the curriculum. However, what the Adamson et al. model does provide is four interpretations of the curriculum. The learning resources may not completely match the intended curriculum; the teaching acts may not implement the intended curriculum; teachers may not use the resources provided; and learners may not learn what teachers teach (as indicated by Tyler in his quote earlier). As we explain later regarding curriculum reform in Japan, the experienced curriculum (i.e., learners' English competency demonstrated through learnings acts) did not match the intended policy made by the ministry (i.e., fluency in communication). Although different terms to describe these different interpretations of curriculum are used by different scholars, all agree that multiple meanings can underpin definitions of a curriculum.

The Hidden Curriculum

Another aspect of a curriculum that is seldom discussed in models is the hidden curriculum (see also Chapter 2 for additional information on the hidden curriculum). Curricula are embedded in the sociocultural setting in which they are used. Consequently, they reflect the sociocultural and political beliefs of that setting. For example, Benesch (2001) criticized English for specific purposes (ESP) for being pragmatic, for focusing on the needs of content courses because of the "efforts of governments and private companies to promote English worldwide for political and commercial purposes" (p. 24). These purposes are hidden from the learners, whose own purposes and sociocultural backgrounds are not considered relevant to instruction. She calls for a critical perspective in ESP, in which pedagogy is based on consultation with learners and issues of race, gender, culture, and power are discussed in relation to the learners' own lives. Similarly, Auerbach and Burgess (1985) pointed out that the life skills content

for adult immigrants contains a hidden curriculum that trains refugees/immigrants to be obedient workers, accepting of their low social status.

Topics chosen for study indicate to learners what society values and considers important or unimportant. In many courses, these values may not be as overt as they are in courses in citizenship or culture. For example, an ESL/EFL textbook that includes topics about London, but showing only white, upper- or middle-class activities and places to visit, conveys to students that oppression of Britain's multicultural inhabitants, working class, and alternative young people is acceptable. How learners are expected to behave in schools reflects social norms—how they address teachers, how they ask (or don't ask) questions, how they are permitted to dress, or whether they have a loyalty oath. In general education in the United States, there has been much research showing how teachers, despite their stated intentions to treat all children equally, call on boys more than girls and call on students like them more than those from different ethnic or social backgrounds (see, for example, Spindler, 1982). Such teacher behaviors convey social status norms to the children. Therefore, it is incumbent upon curriculum developers to consider what sociocultural values are implied in the curriculum.

Curriculum Change

Curricula are, as we have already said, dynamic. Built into the curriculum process model that we describe in Chapter 6 is constant renewal, based on feedback from curriculum assessment. As well as this renewal process and the various interpretations of the intended curriculum, over time any of the stakeholders may choose or be required to change the curriculum. Changes in the environment can lead to the need to design a new curriculum or revise a current one. The student body may change. For example, in an immigrant or refugee program, the home countries of the learners change depending on government policy and on changing trouble spots around the world. For example, the war in Syria led to an increase in displaced refugees seeking asylum in Europe and the English dominant countries. Government regulations may change. For example, because of a lack of local medical professionals, English dominant countries have for several decades encouraged the immigration of such professionals and, in particular, international students into their nursing programs. Over time, nursing faculty have realized that the English needed to achieve the score on IELTS or TOEFL for entry to the program does not prepare these nursing students for the technical language nor the colloquial language used by peers, which they need to be successful. Consequently, many intensive English programs (IEP) design new curricula for courses these learners can take while pursuing their degrees.

Recently, because of the COVID-19 pandemic, the world has become aware of another environmental change, namely, the need to change the delivery system from face-to-face to online or hybrid delivery. Online learning requires a different curriculum, with different approaches to content, activities, and resources, as we will discuss further in Chapter 5.

Often change is initiated and implemented from above for social, political, or economic reasons. For example, many governments have begun English language programs for young learners in the belief that learning a language early will lead to improved language proficiency, which is needed for global economic competitions in the 21st century. However, if the change is top-down, without collaboration with or buy-in from all stakeholders, change rarely is diffused throughout the educational enterprise (Adamson & Davison, 2008; Goh & Yin, 2008). If all aspects of English language instruction are not aligned with the reform, then it is rarely adopted. For example, Japan became concerned that, despite six years or more of English language instruction in secondary school, students were unable to interact in English with other English users. Japan's curriculum focus was on grammar, rather than on the ability to use the language to communicate, and teachers often taught English through the medium of Japanese. Consequently, over the past three decades, the Japanese Ministry of Education (MEXT) instituted curriculum reforms that required teachers to focus on communication (Mondejar et al., 2011). However, the high stakes tests were not changed. They still focused on grammar and the written word; there was no speaking component. Consequently, teachers either did not implement the changes (Underwood, 2012) or, if they did, parents enrolled their children in private after-school tutoring so that their children would pass the tests, tests that determined whether students would be able to enter university. Furthermore, students did not meet the targets for students passing the Eiken (Test in Practical English Proficiency) Grade 3 by the last year of junior high school (Torikai, 2018). Of course, Japan is not alone in trying to implement a top-down curriculum change and finding it unsuccessful. In Hong Kong, Adamson and Davison (2008), and in Singapore, Goh and Yin (2008) found unexpected outcomes in the implementation of top-down K–12 reforms. In both contexts, reforms were reformulated by teachers and others.

Conclusion

Because curricula reflect the beliefs and values of language and language learning in the local community, they are usually best developed as close to the local community as possible. Unfortunately, in the field of ESL/EFL, very often curricula and/or textbooks are adopted from elsewhere, usually from an

English-dominant country. It is not surprising, therefore, that they find minimal acceptance from teachers or learners. Curriculum development is a complex enterprise, which, to be successfully adopted, needs to involve all stakeholders in the process, a point we expand on in Chapter 6.

Task: Expand

Re-read the earlier example about teaching money skills to refugees. Adapt this example to your own context. Using Table 1.1, choose what text types would be relevant for your learners. Then, map the language outcomes that result from teaching and learning these particular text types. Share your findings with a colleague.

Questions for Discussion

1. Explain how you would best use textbooks in your context.
2. What non-language beliefs are reflected in the curricula with which you are most familiar? Is it appropriate that these values be imparted to learners? Why? Why not? To what extent are the views of Benesch and Auerbach and Burgess applicable to your teaching context? Why?
3. If you were to teach in an unfamiliar context, how might you uncover the hidden curriculum in the school where you teach?
4. What approaches could the Japanese Ministry of Education have adopted in order to ensure that teachers would be willing and able to implement a communicative curriculum?
5. Go to the IELTS website and check whether the scope and sequence presented there map onto the specifications of the IELTS test (academic). In what ways could the scope and sequence be different?

Note

1. EFTPOS: Electronic funds transfer at point of sale.

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2

SOCIAL, POLITICAL, AND HISTORICAL CONTEXTS

VIGNETTE

I have been working with a group of in-service teachers on a U.S. federal grant for two years. Each week I am in the schools observing classes and helping teachers implement a model of instruction that integrates content and language. I have been "invited" by one of the teachers on the grant to visit her eighth-grade language arts class. I say that I am "invited" (and not simply invited in the usual sense) because one of the requirements of participation for the middle school teachers (Grades 6–9) who are involved in the grant is to collaborate with the university professors who are working on the grant and "invite" them to their classrooms for observations and informal discussion on a regular basis. The discussions that follow the observations are related to the implementation of the model. The collaboration is meant to help both the university professors and the classroom teachers learn more about how to help English learners achieve academic success.

For this observation, the focus was on the part of the model related to establishing a purpose. In the class observations, we were using a rubric in which teacher indicators for purpose had been identified. I wanted to see the teacher identify content concepts and content and language objectives and clearly communicate them to her learners. In the discussion with me after the observation, she was also supposed to tell me how the content being taught related to the State Core Curriculum for Language Arts.[1]

(continued)

(continued)

There were many good things about the lesson I observed, such as the fact that the content concepts were clearly identified for the learners and the objectives were posted. So, all in all, I was pleased with what I observed in terms of how the teacher communicated the purpose of the lesson to the students and was using the model for content and language integration. During the discussion, I asked the teacher to talk to me about how the lesson addressed the mandated State Core Curriculum for Language Arts in terms of the specific standards and objectives. After some moments, she finally admitted that it didn't fit the required core curriculum directly. However, she said that she really liked the lesson, had taught the lesson several times previously, and believed that her students liked it. I ask her if she would look at the core again and try to determine where her lesson might fit and what standard and objectives it supported.

[Christison, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. How does the teacher in the vignette view the state required curriculum in relationship to her own planning? How might her views be different from the administrators' in the district[2] in which she works?
2. Do you think her views about required curricula are typical or atypical of teachers? Do you think teacher views differ according to context?
3. In what other contexts are teachers asked to plan for and deliver instruction based on a required curriculum?

Introduction

The pendulum of curriculum design for English language teaching is constantly shifting with change being motivated by historical, social, and political stimuli. Many shifts are the result of changing political ideologies as diverse groups of teachers and other stakeholders call for different positions relative to solving problems and addressing curricular issues that have ranged from very traditional perspectives that place grammar teaching at the forefront of the curriculum to more progressive positions that focus on determining and meeting learners'

needs. Changes in curriculum design are also motivated by the changing views of scholars within the field as a result of new knowledge that is generated by research. In addition, educators have also come to understand the extent to which curricular changes are influenced by and are manifestations of social forces, such as the unprecedented global health crisis that the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic brought. In a short period of time, it changed educational curricula and how students were being educated on a global scale. On March 13, 2020, the OECD estimated that there were 421 million children in 39 countries affected by school closures and moving to home schooling and online learning (WE Forum, 2020). By July 13, 2020, the number had grown to over 1 billion in 143 countries (UNESCO, 2020). Developing an awareness of the extent to which curricular changes can be influenced by and are manifestations of social forces is crucial for curriculum developers so that they can build flexibility into the curriculum.

As was introduced in the vignette, K–12 public school teachers in the United States are expected to follow a required curriculum for content and grade level, but a required curriculum does not specifically dictate to teachers how they are to deliver its content. Because there is an expectation that they must teach to the core standards, the assumption made is that teachers do so. In the earlier vignette, we see that even though there is a required curriculum for language arts in the core standards and even though the teacher knew that she was expected to follow the standards, she did not.

For the teacher in the vignette, the core curriculum was not the primary force that drove her teaching or her decision-making process. There are always social forces and educational trends at work that influence how teachers will implement existing curricula. Both language teaching and curriculum development can best be understood if they are viewed in relationship to societal and contextual factors that influence decision-making. Curriculum must also be viewed against a historical backdrop of societal change both in terms of the field of English language teaching and the specific contexts, such as public schools, private language schools, government sponsored programs, intensive English programs (IEPs), or higher education.

Curricula are created to meet specific expectations; nevertheless, what ends up being taught in a classroom is the result of many different social and political forces, such as government initiatives and the influence of professional associations, publishers, researchers, parents, administrators, and even teachers' preferences. In this chapter, we focus on social, historical, and political factors that can influence the creation and implementation of a curriculum. The purpose of this chapter is to help you recognize that curriculum

is not a static concept; it changes in response to social, historical, and political forces.

Social, Political, and Historical Influences

Goodlad (1979) was perhaps the first to write about the social, historical, and political forces at work in curriculum development. He suggested that there were different types of curricula that result from these influences and offered some key distinctions among them. For example, he stated that in most educational units, there is an *ideological curriculum*—a curriculum created by scholars and/or teachers. The ideological curriculum is based on the ideologies of the curriculum designers, and it is intended to reflect the ideal blending of theory and practice as supported by research studies on teaching. The ideological curriculum is quite different from a *sanctioned curriculum*, a curriculum that has been officially approved by local leaders or administrators and may be subject to the political and social views expressed by these stakeholders.

Glatthorn et al. (2006) agree with Goodlad (1979) relative to the usefulness of thinking about different types of curricula that arise in response to social, political, and historical factors; however, they suggest a taxonomy that is different from Goodlad's and one that they believe to be more useful for English language teaching because the terms they use are directly related to issues that curriculum developers face (see also Adamson et al., 2000). Although curricula may be derived from a set of fundamental concepts, skills, and beliefs, in reality, they can be manifested in quite different ways. The types of curricula that we will discuss further in this chapter are adapted from Glatthorn et al. (2006) and include the following: *the recommended curriculum*, *the written curriculum*, *the supported curriculum*, *the taught curriculum*, *the tested curriculum*, and *the learned curriculum*. In this chapter, each of these curriculum types will be introduced and discussed in terms of purpose and function.

The Recommended Curriculum

A *recommended curriculum* stresses the content and skills that should be emphasized, and as such, is representative of what an ideal curriculum might be if the curriculum focused on educational factors related to teaching and learning. Therefore, it is often recommended by schools, local and national educational agencies, and by highly regarded professionals. It is general in nature and is most frequently presented as a list of goals, requirements, or policy recommendations. It also outlines the content and sequence for fields of study, such

as biology, math, or language arts. In the vignette that introduces this chapter, the state's core curriculum for language arts is an example of a recommended curriculum.

Recommended curricula are shaped by several key factors. Societal trends have a strong influence on policy makers who, in turn, have the capacity to influence policies that affect curricula. Advancements in digital technologies can also play a role as schools strive to help both teachers and learners in attaining technological literacy (Dugger & Nichols, 2003; Hasse, 2017). In the United States professional associations, such as Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International, the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP), the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM), the American Association of Intensive English Programs (AAIEP), the Consortium of English Accreditation (CEA), and Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment Systems (CASAS), play a role in shaping and influencing recommended curricula. Other countries also have a variety of professional movements that influence the content of a recommended curriculum, for example, the European Common Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which is used to describe language ability in foreign language learners on a six-point scale, is one such example. Professionals who translate research into recommendations in their writing and published works also play a significant part in a recommended curriculum.

A recommended curriculum serves a useful function. It can establish boundaries and endpoints for curriculum planning and promote equity and excellence in learning, including equal access to resources for all learners (Glatthorn et al., 2006), and it can help both teachers and programs develop effective instructional programs. In these ways, it is similar to the intended curriculum (Adamson et al., 2000) presented in Chapter 1.

The Written Curriculum

A *written curriculum* is more specific than a recommended curriculum. It is similar to the resourced curriculum (Adamson et al., 2000) presented in Chapter 1. The purpose of a written curriculum is to "ensure that educational goals of a system are being accomplished" (Glatthorn, et al., 2006, p. 8). In order to ensure educational goals, a written curriculum must provide more detail than a recommended curriculum. In some contexts, a written curriculum is referred to as a curriculum guide because curriculum developers include not only the general goals and objectives of the recommended curriculum but also the specific learning activities that should be used to guide learners in the achievement of the

objectives. A written curriculum can also include a list of the materials to be used with the specific learning activities.

Although written curricula are intended to help teachers implement the recommended curriculum, they are often subject to criticism. To understand the nature of the criticism, it is useful to look at the three functions of a written curriculum: (a) mediating, (b) controlling, and (c) standardizing. By looking carefully at these three functions we are able to gain insight into teachers' views and preferences. Written curricula are often used to "mediate between the ideals of the recommended curriculum and the realities of the classroom" (p. 9). What the educational experts, administrators, and local stakeholders think should be taught might be quite different from what the teachers think should be taught. Written curricula are meant to mediate "between the expectations of administrators and the preferences of teachers" (p. 9), thereby, helping the two very disparate groups reach general consensus.

Another function of a written curriculum is controlling. Written curriculum may come about because administrators wish to control *what* and *how* the curriculum is being taught. For example, if the teaching staff is comprised of novice teachers or if there is a great deal of turnover in teaching staff, administrators in English language teaching programs may exercise more control over the written curriculum than if the teaching staff were stable and experienced. It is also important to recognize that teachers and administrators may respond very differently to the controlling function of written curricula. Administrators use a written curriculum to ensure the curriculum is being taught and view oversight of the written curriculum as an important management responsibility, especially in terms of assuring quality and student achievement (Marzano et al., 2005). On the other hand, if the learning activities that are specified in the written curriculum do not reflect the most current knowledge about language teaching and learning (i.e., best practices), they may not be well received by the teachers. In addition, the learning activities specified in the written curriculum may not reflect what has traditionally been done, and could be rejected on that basis.

A third function of a written curriculum is standardizing. Although it is an important function of a written curriculum, it is a function that is difficult to implement for two reasons. First, as humans we are all unique, and as such, we each see the world from our own individual perspectives; consequently, even in local contexts, there will be an uneven quality to the delivery of written curricula because of the individual approaches that teachers will take. Second, not all written curricula or curricular guides are equal. The guides that are best received and implemented by teachers are those in which clear relationships have been established among stated goals, instructional objectives, and learning

activities and those that are aligned with teachers' beliefs about language and language learning (see Chapter 6 in this volume).

The Supported Curriculum

The *supported curriculum* is the curriculum as reflected in and shaped by the resources that are allocated to support delivery of the curriculum. It is also similar to the idea of the resourced curriculum (Adamson et al., 2000) discussed in Chapter 1. In a supported curriculum resources are hierarchically situated as presented in Figure 2.1. Curricula are influenced by the time that is allocated at the level of the school, as well as the time that a teacher allocates in the classroom. In addition, curricula are influenced by personnel decisions, which determine how many students are in a class. For example, Zahorik et al. (2002) found that fourth graders were more engaged in learning and with the concepts they were learning when they were in smaller classes. How learning episodes are spaced (e.g., four hours a week over 12 weeks or eight hours a week over six weeks) and how much time teachers ultimately have to work with students are also factors that affect what gets supported in a curriculum. In addition, a curriculum is influenced by the access that teachers and learners have to textbooks and other learning materials.

The Taught Curriculum

We have seen that there is a difference in the recommended curriculum and the written curriculum. Now we will focus on the differences between the taught curriculum and the recommended and written curricula. The taught curriculum is similar to the implemented curriculum (Adamson et al., 2000) presented in Chapter 1. The difference between a taught curriculum and the written and recommended curricula was highlighted in the vignette that introduced this chapter. The teacher in this vignette readily admitted that factors

the time allocated to a subject at the school
↓
the time allocated by the classroom teacher
↓
personnel allocations determined by administrators
↓
access learners have to textbooks and other learning materials
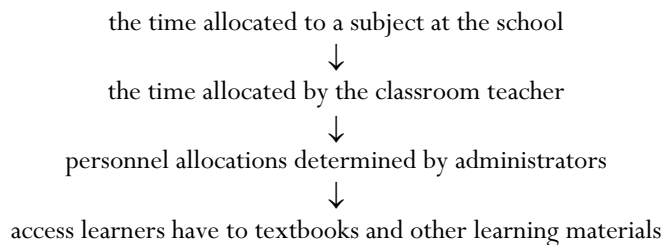
Figure 2.1 Pattern of Curricular Influence

other than the concepts delineated in the recommended curriculum (i.e., the standards and objectives) led her to select the content for her own lesson. She gave preference to teaching concepts that she had taught before and selecting concepts that she knew her students enjoyed but was unsure about whether they were part of the core. While differences are to be expected among teachers in terms of the concepts they choose to teach and how the concepts are taught, the extreme situation where each teacher develops his or her own curriculum is to be avoided. As the example in the vignette shows, without systematic monitoring, the taught curriculum, in effect, becomes the written curriculum because it represents the curriculum that outsiders see if they observe teachers in the classrooms. Outsiders assume that the concepts presented in the classroom and the instruction they see represent the recommended and written curricula.

Questions that both teachers and administrators must ask in any context are the following: Is there a relationship between the written and taught curricula? "How does the taught curriculum, regardless of its fit with the written curriculum, become established" (Glatthorn et al., 2006, p. 14)? Answering these questions is a complex process and administrators and teachers in language teaching programs must decide how to monitor the taught curriculum and determine its relationship to the written curriculum over time and across individual teachers.

The Tested Curriculum

The portion of the curriculum that is assessed by teachers in the classrooms or at the program or district levels represents yet another view of curriculum. There are a number of important factors to consider in thinking about a tested curriculum. When teachers create their own tests, there is a possibility that the tests may not correspond to what has actually been taught in the classroom as teachers may not be skilled in the design and development of language tests. Curriculum-referenced tests have the potential to drive instruction. From this point of view, the overall effectiveness of tests is determined by how the tests are constructed in relationship to the written curriculum. In other words, if a curriculum-referenced test has been created to measure understanding of the main concepts covered in the written curriculum and those main concepts have been the focus of instruction, then it is likely that the test will have a positive effect on both teaching and learning. If the curriculum-referenced test covers incidental concepts that are not covered in the written curriculum, the effect on teaching and learning will not be positive. Research suggests that there is not always a good fit between the content that is covered in classrooms and the

content that is covered or assessed on a standardized test (Berliner, 1984). A *standardized test* is a test that is built on the concept of consistency. In a standardized test, all test takers answer the same questions in the same way and are scored in a "standard" or consistent manner. TOEFL and IELTS are examples of standardized tests that focus on English proficiency.

The Learned Curriculum

The learned curriculum is the curriculum that represents what students actually know based on what behaviors they exhibit in relationship to the written curriculum. The learned curriculum is similar to the experienced curriculum (Adamson et al., 2000) presented in Chapter 1. As most teachers are aware, students do not learn everything that they are taught, even in the most effective instructional environments. Even though teachers establish objectives for learning that are inclusive of major content and language concepts, students will often focus on what is going to be assessed or tested and often only take seriously the information for which they will be held accountable.

The Hidden Curriculum

As discussed in Chapter 1, a hidden curriculum refers to the pieces of a curriculum that are outside the boundaries of intentional efforts or plans (Glatthorn et al., 2006). All students learn content and behaviors in formal learning contexts that are not part of the intended or recommended curriculum. It is reasonable to assume that the hidden curriculum would include social, political, and historical influences. The ideologies of society permeate most formal classrooms; consequently, students unconsciously learn the skills and traits of the larger society whether those are consciously taught or not.

Task: Explore

1. Educators define a curriculum as *what is taught* and instruction as *how something is taught*. Now that you have been introduced to different types of curricula in this chapter, do you think these general definitions can still be useful? Why or why not?
2. Do you think you can influence the hidden curriculum? If so, how? If not, why?

Perspectives on the Past

Understanding how historical factors may influence the development of curricula in any context is useful for teachers, curriculum designers, and administrators. However, it is important to remember that history itself is an artifact of the way in which humans have agreed to analyze certain events. In reality, historical events can be viewed from different perspectives, and specific historical events are packaged and presented in different ways based on cultural, social, and educational influences. In presenting the information in this section, we recognize that there may certainly be other ways of viewing the events that we present.

One context that we know quite well is the U.S. curriculum perspective in terms of the major historical trends and developments that have influenced education in both public schools and institutions of higher education. In the last century there have been at least eight different "periods" with each period resulting in predominant trends, exemplary leaders, and important and influential research. Because English language teachers work in many different contexts throughout the world, detailing all of the specific periods associated with one country would not be a useful exercise. However, to illustrate the importance of historical perspectives in understanding curriculum design and in understanding the contextual nature of curriculum development, we will provide two U.S.-based examples.

Progressive Functionalism

The period in the United States between 1917 and 1940 can be characterized by the confluence of two very different perspectives. One perspective can be considered progressive while the other represents basic functionalism. These different perspectives are evident in curricular movements in public school and higher education during this time.

The years from 1917 through the 1920s were filled with optimism and economic growth. Then, the Great Depression hit with the Wall Street crash on October 29, 1929. Throughout the early 1930s, schools began to shut down and economic recovery was slow and difficult. The 1930s also marked the rise of dictators in European countries—Germany, Italy, and Russia—and also in Japan. As a result of these events, the influence of Western democratic ideals on society in the United States was weakened. If we consider the predominant trends in education during this time, we can see how they were influenced by these societal events.

Progressivism as an educational trend can be characterized as a learner centered movement with a focus on paying attention to learners' interests and

needs by making relevant and interesting content a starting point for curriculum development. Both learner tasks and curricular content were influenced as the arts received more attention and developing learner creativity became more important. Progressivism is associated with the optimism and economic growth of the 1920s and is represented in the early works of John Dewey (1902), who saw the developing child as central to the design of curriculum.

The essence of functionalism as a predominant educational trend is the belief that a curriculum should represent the functions and activities of adult life as represented in a given society. These functions can best be understood by analyzing learning tasks and the operations needed to carry them out efficiently. The move to functionalism as an educational trend is associated with the difficulties that Americans faced during the Great Depression years. As a society, Americans were focused on how to improve their lives. To this end, they concentrated on how to improve efficiency in the workplace and eliminate waste. Functionalism is quite strongly associated with the works of Franklin Bobbit (1913), who was dedicated to the study of model adult behaviors.

Romantic Radicalism

The period associated with Romantic Radicalism extends from the mid-1960s to the mid-1970s in the United States. It was a time of upheaval, and the fabric of society was, in many ways, stretched to the limit. The country's youth were vocal about their support of a counterculture that espoused drugs, rock and roll, and openness in relationships. While at the same time, they were lashing out against the traditional values of hard work and the conventional family values.

During this period the very concept of an educational curriculum came under fire as some educational reformists argued for doing away with such curricular hallmarks as a scope and sequence, clearly articulated objectives, and explicit learning tasks (Holt, 1964). Instead, some argued that schools should emphasize the importance of attracting highly exciting and imaginative teachers who could involve students in learning in unique and exciting ways.

Alternative schools were established in public education, and some were completely unstructured (also called "free schools") while others shared many characteristics of traditional schools. The defining feature of an alternative school was that it was both strongly teacher centered, while at the same time also paid attention to children. Teachers shaped the curriculum and assumed many of the roles covered by administrators and specialists in traditional schools. Conventional methods of accountability and evaluation were replaced by learner self-assessments and teachers' anecdotal reports.

Many primary schools (i.e., kindergarten through Grade 6) moved to open classrooms in an attempt to respond to societal moods and pressures (Ravitch, 1983). At the heart of the open classroom movement was a desire to provide rich learning environments with centers of interest that would appeal to children and allow them freedom to choose what was of interest to them. Children were free to move from center to center at will, so there was little concern for order or discipline. The equivalent to open classrooms in secondary education was elective programs in which students were given the option of taking a series of short-term courses to replace required courses.

Task: Explore

In the preceding section of this chapter, the focus was on how social forces influence educational curricula. To this end, examples from a U.S. historical perspective were provided. What societal forces do you think are influencing curricular changes today in the country in which you work? Use the Internet to locate several sources or websites to support your perceptions. Discuss your answers with a peer or a colleague, if you can.

The Politics of Curriculum

Most teachers think of curriculum development in terms of its importance in preparing for classroom teaching and, therefore, associate the concept of curriculum development with the process that is centered around defining content, establishing goals and objectives, and delineating learning tasks. While these curricular concerns are certainly essential for most teachers, there is also another level in the curriculum development process that affects teaching and learning. It is particularly evident in sanctioned, recommended, and written curricula, and we call the types of forces, including people and agendas, that enable these different types of curricula, the politics of curriculum.

The politics of curriculum refers to the individuals and groups in any context that have the capacity to influence and change curricula. Within this curriculum-making process there are struggles for power as groups with differing points of view and distinctive agendas advocate for their positions. It is a process that is evident in all contexts and, ultimately, determines which belief systems and practices will gain the widest audience and receive approval from the most

powerful people. Although major sources of influence vary greatly and are specific to individual contexts, the process seems to be similar as issues of power and control are resolved in curriculum decision-making. An important question for English language curriculum developers to ask is the following: Who has the potential to influence the curriculum that I develop?

Because English language programs and curriculum developers reside in many different contexts, it may be useful to take a closer look at the potential stakeholders who can and do influence the process both directly and indirectly. The list that follows was created to help you explore the relative influence of different individuals and groups. As you review the list, do the following: note the level of influence from none (0) to considerable (3) or somewhere in between. Not all groups will apply in your context, so mark the ones that are not applicable with "NA." For some groups, you may not know the answer. In these cases, indicate that you do not know with "DK."

- national or federal governments, such as ministries of education in most countries or the Department of Education in the United States;
- state or provincial governments (such as state legislatures in the United States);
- state boards of education in the United States or boards of directors in English language teaching programs;
- chief educational officers at the national, state, or provincial level;
- local boards of education in the United States;
- local educational leaders, such as program directors or school principals;
- local teachers;
- local community members;
- parents;
- state and local non-teaching organizations;
- national and international teacher associations such as TESOL and IATEFL;
- state and local professional teaching associations;
- publishers;
- teacher unions;
- employers;
- other.

Task: Expand

Work with a partner or in a small group if you can. Use the preceding list. Prepare a chart in which you list all of the stakeholders that could

influence the curriculum decision-making process in your context. Rate the influence of each one. Share your perceptions with another group or another colleague in the context in which you work.

Questions for Discussion

1. In the United States, charter schools, home schooling, and school vouchers are becoming commonplace. If you know about these practices, do you agree or disagree with them? Why or why not? If you do not know about these practices, ask a colleague or do some research to discover what these practices entail. Then, determine if you agree or disagree with them and explain why or why not.
2. If you are working in a non-U.S.-based context, identify the most current educational trends. What might be the basis for these trends as they relate to societal forces at work?
3. What role do you think that politics plays in the development of curriculum in the context in which you work? Cite an example if you can.

Notes

1. In the United States, the core is a mandated curriculum specified by a state for content at each grade level. It is a curriculum that all primary and secondary teachers must follow.
2. Public schools in the United States are run by school districts, which are under the control of state and local governments. The governing body is called a school board, and the chief administrator is called a superintendent. There are over 13,500 school district governments in the United States.

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3

EMERGENT AND EMERGING ENGLISHES

VIGNETTE

I am teaching a workshop for graduate students in an MA TESOL program. The course is designed to help them "further develop their academic reading and writing" so that they can successfully undertake the other courses in the MA program. The class is multinational, with students from Japan, Thailand, Taiwan, and the United States. Some of the students from the United States are immigrants; some are native speakers of English. What all have in common is the need to improve their academic reading and writing. Michiko studied English for eight years in Japan, where the school used a grammar-translation methodology, and all the teachers were Japanese. She completed her BA in English at a Japanese university and began teaching English in Japanese government schools. She decided to complete an MA TESOL so that she could return to Japan and work in a private school. In order to gain entrance into the program, she took several general English courses to prepare her for the TOEFL examination. Like Michiko, Noy studied English in school in Thailand. However, she attended an international school, where most of the instruction was in English and the instructors were British. She completed her BA in accounting in the United States and decided to become an EFL teacher on her return to Thailand and has now enrolled in the MA TESOL program. Joyce, from Taiwan, also studied English at school, completing her BA in English in Taiwan before coming to the United States for the MA TESOL. In high school, her parents sent her to an after-hours school to practice her English with an American teacher. She plans to open a private English

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language school on her return to Taiwan. Patricia's family emigrated to the United States from Mexico when she was 12. She had studied no English during her schooling in Mexico. Her parents still speak limited English. She graduated from a California high school and received her BA in linguistics from a university there. On receiving her master's degree, she plans to teach in a community college or adult education center in California. Adileh came to the United States with her parents as refugees from Iran when she was a baby. She completed all her education in the United States. She plans to seek admission to a doctoral program in language education once she has completed her MA TESOL. Rosario is an older student, having gained admission to the course through a special seniors program. She emigrated from the Philippines with her husband and two children. Now that he has died, she is taking classes for interest only.

[Murray, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. Noy was exposed to British English, Joyce to American English, and Rosario to Philippine English. How do you think that affected their reading and writing for academic English at a U.S. university?
2. If you learned English in a school setting, for how many years did you study English? What variety of English was used?
3. If you are a native speaker (NS) of English, what variety do you speak?
4. How important is it for language learners to understand speakers from different countries?
5. In what ways is this class a microcosm of how English speakers interact in their daily work lives worldwide?

Introduction

Language is not static; rather, it is a social semiotic (Halliday, 1979). That is, it is a system of signs that signify meaning. Semiotics is the study of the different systems of signs that convey meaning, such as traffic signs that warn, advise, or command drivers. Because English is a social semiotic, it changes over time,

place, and the people who use it. In this chapter, we discuss how English has changed over time as a result of its contact with and use by people from different lingua-cultural backgrounds. Educators need to understand these different faces of English (Murray & Christison, 2021) and consider their impact on English language learners as they design curricula that best meet the needs of these learners.

English has become the global language for communication in industry, business, scholarship, entertainment, advertising, diplomacy, and the Internet. As a result, it is taught and learned around the world in an infinite variety of contexts and is estimated to be a multi-billion-dollar industry (estimated by *Market Watch* to be USD$131,950 million in 2020). English is taught in different settings with learners of different sociocultural backgrounds, different aspirations, and of different ages. Many of the teachers who teach in these settings are highly mobile, moving from country to country or from school to university settings. Consequently, any volume on curriculum needs to account for the possible different settings in which English is taught and in which English teachers may find themselves at some point in their lives. Furthermore, when designing curricula, educators need to examine their own contexts and the future English needs of their learners to determine which variety(ies) of English should be taught and/or used as the medium of education.

In this globalized use of English, we find that English is no longer the sole province of those speakers from English-dominant countries, such as the United States and England. How has this expansion of users affected the language? To answer this question, we will discuss two conceptualizations of the diversity of English use globally: World Englishes (WE), a model which sought to theorize these Englishes (Kachru, 1986), and English as a lingua franca (ELF), which seeks to describe the type of English non-native speakers (NNS) use to communicate increasingly with one another. This multiplicity of Englishes raises the question of which English should be taught, which is a question we will also discuss, but, first, we will discuss WE and later turn to the discussion of the complexities of English use in the 21st century.

World Englishes

English is used differently depending on both the characteristics of the person using it and the purpose for which it is being used. Both of these characteristics can affect the design of curriculum. In this chapter, we will focus on user characteristics. English variation based on the purpose for which it is being used will be discussed in Chapter 12, while variation introduced through digital communication is discussed in Chapter 5.

All languages (including English) vary depending on user characteristics, such as age, geographical area, social class, gender, and ethnicity. When language varies in these ways, the result is often referred to as a *dialect*. How do linguists determine what is a dialect and what is a language? There are no linguistic rules for making this determination. Different criteria for distinguishing between dialect and language have been used by different scholars for different purposes. Mutual intelligibility is the most commonly cited criterion. However, there are many different mutually intelligible varieties that are considered to be different languages. For example, Swedish and Danish are mutually intelligible, but they are considered separate (but related) languages. In contrast, speakers of many different dialects of Chinese are not intelligible to one another; yet, these speakers consider themselves to be speakers of Chinese. Other criteria, such as national boundaries, may be a determining factor in considering a variety to be a language, as in the case of Swedish and Danish. Another possible criterion is that speakers of the varieties have a shared literature and identity, as in the case of Chinese. We can see from these two examples that determining whether a variety of a language is perceived as a language or dialect is a sociopolitical construct, not based solely on linguistic features. To avoid this dilemma as regards English, Kachru (1986) developed the concept of WE, identifying three concentric circles of Englishes.

Kachru's Concentric Circle Model

According to Kachru's model (Kachru, 1986; Kachru & Nelson, 1996), the three different circles of countries are the *Inner Circle* representing the traditionally dominant English-speaking countries (e.g., Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States), the *Outer Circle* of former British colonies where English is an official language and/or used in public domains (e.g., India, Singapore, and Uganda), and the *Expanding Circle* which, as the name suggests, is an ever growing circle of countries where English is gaining significant status in some domains (e.g., Brazil, Czech Republic, Japan, Thailand, and Turkey). In the Outer Circle, English is used in *intra*national domains; in the Expanding Circle, it is used in *inter*national domains (Lowenberg, 2002).

Kachru's model and even Lowenberg's differentiation are contested (see, for example, Crystal, 1997; Modiano, 2003; Pennycook, 2010; Seidlhofer et al., 2004; Seidlhofer, 2011), especially because of the current blurring across the boundaries of the circles. Many Outer Circle speakers are NSs of English, a term previously used as a delineator of the Inner Circle. For example, in Singapore, where many families use English in the home, as well as in education or government, children may acquire English as their first language in the home. The division between Outer and Expanding Circles is similarly blurred.

Many countries in the Expanding Circle have bilingual programs, while others use English as the *medium of instruction* (EMI) for some subjects, for example, Germany (Klippel, 2008), China and Japan (Galloway et al., 2017), and Turkey (Aslan, 2017). The model also does not account for the complexities of language use in immigrant countries such as Canada, nor in multilingual countries such as India with its code-switching,[1] pidgins,[2] and creoles.[3] The Expanding Circle countries are also using English in *intra*national domains such as social media, television, popular music, and advertising.

Despite these criticisms, the Kachru model is useful for highlighting the differences in context between learners of English in the three circles. Therefore, we will use it as a framework for discussing English language teaching (ELT) as a worldwide phenomenon, while acknowledging that within each circle are many different contexts and that the circles themselves are porous and ever changing.

Task: Reflect

In which circle do you work or live? Think about the other two circles. How similar is your particular context to the other two? How different do you think the English language curriculum might be? How different (or similar) do you think it would be to teach in other circles? What questions would you want to have answered before you taught there?

The Use of English in the Three Circles

The use and teaching of English in each circle, as we have previously indicated, is complex and in flux. However, we can make some generalizations about different contexts within each circle.

The Englishes of the Inner Circle countries are not all the same. Within countries, especially Britain, Canada, and the United States, there is also variation. Some varieties are perceived by some to be more prestigious than others. For example, great stigma has been attached to the variety called African-American Vernacular English (AAVE) and controversies have waged over whether this variety has a place in schools. Similar battles have occurred over the years with, for example, Australian English not being deemed sufficiently prestigious for use in schools in Europe (Murray, 2010).

Inner Circle. The Inner Circle countries have large immigrant populations, as well as international students going there to study. ELT in these countries,

therefore, has largely focused on these two communities. This form of ELT is often referred to as English-as-a-second-language (ESL) because it is the learners' second or third language after their mother tongue. This distinguishes it from Expanding Circle countries where English had traditionally been taught as a foreign language (EFL). Just as the boundaries between Kachru's circles are permeable, so too, the boundary between EFL and ESL is flexible. Because it is a convenient and traditional way of referring to the two situations, we will use it in this volume.

The immigrant populations that are not proficient in English are served in K–12 schools, adult schools, workplace programs, and colleges/universities. In K–12 schools, ESL instruction may occur as stand-alone courses, as part of a bilingual program, or in special delivery of school subject areas (see, for example Chapter 15). In adult schools, programs vary considerably across the different BANA (Britain, Australasia, North America) countries (see Murray, 2005 for a full exploration of adult programs). Vocational programs may take place on site in workplaces or as pre-vocation programs offered by adult schools or colleges (see Chapter 9, Volume II). Again, the organization of these programs differs across the BANA countries (see Murray, 2011 for a full exploration of vocational programs). At college/university level, programs to help immigrant students are often stand-alone ESL courses or adjunct courses, attached to discipline subjects (see Chapter 15 in this volume). The ESL courses can be general English, preparation for specific university subject matter (e.g., accountancy), or preparation for academic study, called English for academic purposes (EAP). ESL curricula for international students may be in K–12 schools, for general English, preparation programs for university content study, EAP, or adjunct programs where an English language course is tied to a content area course.

Outer Circle. The varieties of English used in the Outer Circle have become nativized (Kachru, 1986), that is, the process through which English, in contact with other languages in multilingual settings, develops new, systematic linguistic features. *Nativization* is "[t]he linguistic readjustment a language undergoes when it is used by members of another speech community in distinctive sociocultural contexts and language contact situations" (Kachru, 1992, p. 235). These adjustments result in systematic forms that are features of a variety used widely in a community that accepts them as norms. They can occur at all levels of language—sounds, words, sentences, and discourse. They differ from the interlanguage forms used by those learning English (see, for example, Lowenberg, 1992). When this nativized variety is accepted as a legitimate variety with its own independent model of usage across a variety of sociolinguistic

contexts, it becomes *institutionalized* (Kachru, 1992). However, often this local variety is not institutionalized.

For example, Singapore has conducted campaigns to teach people "grammatically correct English." One such campaign launched in 1999, "The Speak Good English Campaign," included lessons in newspapers, on television, and on the web. These lessons identified Singapore English (Singlish) features and then provided Good English alternatives. For example, *Lah, lor*, and *leh*, which are particles from Malay, are used in Singlish for emphasis at the end of words or phrases. However, authorities within Singapore consider it (and other nativized forms) unacceptable usage because it is from Malay and does not occur in the Englishes of the Inner Circle, especially that of Standard British English. Therefore, even though Singlish is nativized, it has not become institutionalized.

Different countries in the former British colonies have chosen different orientations towards English. The aforementioned example of Singapore illustrates one such perspective. We will next discuss different perspectives that affect the role of English(es) in education.

India is a multilingual country with 1,576 languages/dialects classified as mother tongues, according to the 1991 census. The official language of the Central Government of the Republic of India is Hindi, with English as a secondary official language.

> Throughout India, there is an extraordinary belief, among almost all castes and classes, in both rural and urban areas, in the transformative power of English. English is seen not just as a useful skill, but as a symbol of a better life, a pathway out of poverty and oppression.
>
> (Graddol, 2010, p. 120)

In education, there is a three-language policy, as follows:

1. the mother tongue or the regional language,
2. the official language of the Union or the associate official language of the Union as long as it exists, and
3. a modern Indian or foreign language not covered in (1) or (2) and other than that used as the medium of instruction.

(Ministry of Education, 1966, p. 192)

In 1988, the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) engaged in curriculum renewal for the courses taken by students in English-medium contexts, with

the goal of improving communicative language learning. Teachers and learners did engage in more communicative activities and the final exam was changed in 1995. However, it remained a paper-and-pencil test, with the focus on reading, writing, grammar, and literature, and its revision in 2005 was even more built on memorization (Matthew, 2012). Consequently, the exam became the de facto curriculum.

Malaysia has followed a rather different path from that of India, as Lee et al. (2010) note:

> Among Malaysians, English is viewed rather equivocally. On the one hand, it is regarded as an important second language for instrumental purposes, a neutral language for social integration, and a pragmatic one for professional growth and career advancement. On the other hand, it is perceived in certain quarters as a language that threatens the status of the national language and erodes local cultures.
>
> (Lee et al., 2010)

As a result of British colonialism, English was the medium of instruction (MOI) in Malaysian schools. However, in 1970, this was changed to Bahasa Melayu, the official language of the country. In addition, there are primary schools where Chinese or Tamil are the MOI to meet the needs of the large Chinese and Tamil populations. As a result of these changes, over time there was concern that Malaysians were no longer competitive globally because they were no longer fluent in English. Consequently, in 2003 the government implemented a policy of teaching mathematics and science through English. Both primary and secondary teachers were given in-service training in the new curriculum, as well as in the English language. The policy was abandoned in 2009 because of a perceived lack of improvement in English. There are actually a number of reasons why the policy was not successful (see Patel, 2012 for further details), including issues of stakeholder involvement and teacher professional development, as discussed in Chapter 1. English continues to be a compulsory school subject at all levels of education, and most private schools and all private universities use English as the MOI, thereby advantaging the more affluent and disadvantaging rural and poorer populations in the new global knowledge economy.

What these three examples from the Outer Circle demonstrate is the tension between English and indigenous languages, as well as the importance of planning curriculum change with care and sensitivity to the needs, aspirations, and linguistic identities of the learners (Rashid et al., 2017; Murray, 2020).

Expanding Circle. Some writers have posited that nativization has occurred in Expanding Circle varieties, such as Europe (Kelch & Santana-Williamson, 2002) and China (Modiano, 2003), in addition to Outer Circle countries. However, there is no general agreement that such use is sufficiently established to have become norms of use.

More typical of the Expanding Circle is the teaching of English in the school system as an academic subject, with teachers sharing the mother tongue of their students. In many countries, universities use English as the MOI and/or the textbooks and research the students are expected to read are in English. However, the increasing use of English medium instruction (EMI) has been highly criticized for exchanging local identity and social cohesion for pragmatic economic advantages (e.g., Aslan, 2017; Doiz et al., 2013; Galloway et al., 2017).

Because of the perception that even after years of English, students are not prepared to use English as a MOI or to communicate with other speakers of English, countries have adopted different strategies. In primary and secondary schools, the European Union (EU) has adopted Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), in which subject matter is taught using EMI so that students learn both language and content at the same time (see Chapter 15 in this volume for a discussion of CLIL). A different strategy has been to begin language instruction at earlier and earlier ages, leading to the growing field of Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL).

In Japan, EFL became compulsory in primary schools as of April 2011, following a trial stage from 2002 to 2010. Prior to this, English was taught for six years in secondary schools and two further years in tertiary education, where the methodology was audiolingualism and grammar-translation, in an exam-oriented curriculum. The goal of introducing English in primary school was to foster positive attitudes and experiences with foreign languages, rather than to develop language proficiency. For teachers with negative experiences of learning English themselves, with limited models of instruction, limited spoken English proficiency themselves, and with large class sizes, the challenges were enormous (Araki-Metcalfe, 2012). Japan is not alone in facing this dilemma. Many other countries have introduced English in primary school, with similar difficulties and limited success, for example, Hong Kong (Adamson & Davison, 2008), China (Wedell, 2011), and Indonesia (Damayanti, 2008).

English in the 21st Century

While the framework of WE is a useful explanatory tool for describing nativized Englishes and English language instruction and use intranationally, it is

less robust for accounting for international uses of English. As English became widely used globally and NNSs outnumbered NSs, learners of English were no longer interacting primarily with native English speakers, but increasingly with diverse speakers from different linguacultural backgrounds. Scholars (e.g., Jenkins, 2006; Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011) have characterized this use of English as a lingua franca (ELF). Both WE and ELF argue that educators need to embrace a broader conceptualization of English than as one defined by NS use (Seidlhofer, 2009). Furthermore, ELF scholars consider English to be a resource for global communication that is not reflective of any specific culture. It has become a resource that multilingual speakers use as part of their linguistic repertoire. However, Kayman (2009) has argued that ELF is not the neutral communication tool many scholars claim it to be because it carries with it, its heritage of the United Kingdom and the United States.

Scholars, such as Jenkins (2000, 2007) and Seidlhofer (2011), have sought to describe this emerging and unstable variety of English. They are concerned that this instability will lead to a multiplicity of individual Englishes such that they are not mutually intelligible. In order to ensure mutual intelligibility and comprehensibility, they advocate establishing a core of English as a Lingua Franca, that is, ELF based on "the actual negotiated use of non-native speakers" (Pennycook, 2008, p. 37). To that end, they believe that by describing it, it can then be taught so that multilingual speakers interacting with one another will be able to use the same linguistic features and conventions. Their work is designed to describe mutually comprehensible and intelligible features of English and remove English features that are difficult to learn but not necessary for comprehension. In other words, the aim is to replace a standard based on Inner Circle Standard English(es) with a simplified standard (Jenkins, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Seidlhofer et al., 2004).

Others (e.g., O'Regan, 2014) have argued that ELF is not a singular, fixed variety of English; rather speakers are each using their own unique version of English as they interact globally. Furthermore, many who advocate for such a lingua franca position argue more as if they were prescriptivists than descriptivists because their work describes what should be, rather than what is. As Mollin (2006, p. 1) claims, the lingua franca English is a mere "Yeti of English varieties: everyone has heard of it, but no one has ever seen it." Despite the disagreements over the linguistic status of ELF, research into ELF has flourished and this work has influenced how many educators view English because the strength of the ELF position is in the argument that we need to reject traditional ideas about English that define the language in terms of NS norms and instead re-conceptualize it as a resource for global communication (e.g., Seidlhofer, 2011) among

lingua-culturally diverse groups. We next turn to the impact of World Englishes and ELF on curriculum.

Issues in Language Use for Teachers and Curriculum Developers

The variety of English language used in communities, the variety that is valued, and the variety that is chosen for the instruction of English result from complex sociocultural values and histories. Teachers of English and curriculum planners need to understand the issues around these three particular factors so they can best serve the learners in their classrooms.

Standard Varieties

All speakers have a range of varieties in their repertoire. However, within a speech community, a standard often evolves, usually based on the variety of those with power in the society. Thus, in both Britain and the United States, standards have developed such that regional or ethnic varieties within these countries have not traditionally been considered appropriate or "good English," especially for formal or public use. These attitudes were exported along with the spread of English, as we saw with the case of Singapore, and the preference for a particular variety expressed in some Expanding Circle countries (see later in this chapter). Standard varieties are no more linguistically pure or special than any other variety. They have achieved their status because of the political and socioeconomic power of those who speak that variety.

Traditionally, as previously mentioned, the Inner Circle was considered to be the circle of countries with NSs of English. The characterization NS has also been highly contested and misunderstood. Therefore, we turn now to a discussion of the ideological foundations of the term, along with the linguistic reality of the language used by speakers of English.

Who Is a Native Speaker?

The traditional approach was to define NSs as "people who acquired the language naturally and effortlessly in childhood . . . in the community which uses the language" (Cook, 2003, p. 28). It is the latter part of the definition that denies the reality of language use. Children of expatriates or in bilingual homes in all three circles may "acquire English naturally and effortlessly from childhood," but are not living in the community that uses the language. As Paikeday (1985, p. 2) so

eloquently states, "[o]ne would like to be able to assign each and every individual to one class or other (here native and non-native speaker), but the situation does not allow it." Yet, the myth of the NS continues, and its consequences can be dire for both language learners and teachers. While there may be no sociolinguistic basis for defining NS, and evidence that the NS concept is a myth, some would still claim that "we need it as a model, a goal, almost an inspiration" (Davies, 1996, p. 157). However, this issue of "model" and "goal" becomes problematic once one attempts to invoke the NS as the target for English language teaching, which necessarily rejects all other varieties. For example, which World English should be the target in India or France? Curriculum planners need to determine which NS variety should be the goal, model, or inspiration for their particular context.

Appropriate Variety of English for Instruction

Traditionally, many countries have shown a preference for one Inner Circle standard, usually British or American, as the model language for instruction and of educators. So, for example, Japan has traditionally chosen American English as the standard as a result of the intense contact with Americans post-World War II. In contrast, Italy, being part of Europe, has chosen British English. These countries often will not hire speakers of other varieties, such as Australian, Singaporean, or Indian English. As a result of this preference, often one expressed by NSs themselves, NS teachers are hired as adjuncts (i.e., someone hired on a contractual, part-time basis) specifically to provide NS models to learners. In many countries, such as Taiwan, these programs pay NS teachers more than local teachers. Furthermore, English learners may not relate to the standard taught in schools. In the United States, Goldstein (1987) found that some Hispanic learners adopted AAVE through their contact with African-American peers. Similarly, in Canada, Ibrahim (1999) showed that African immigrants chose to identify with AAVE speakers and acquired that variety. Immigrants to regional areas in Britain may choose to acquire the local variety, identifying with their peers.

While it is not too difficult to envisage accepting nativized varieties in classrooms and interactions, implementing such an approach in assessment is far more complex; for it is in tests, especially internationally standardized tests with their one correct answer, that variation becomes unacceptable. Lowenberg (for example, 2007) has written extensively on the ethics of using Standard American or British as the norm in test development. The issue for curriculum developers and teachers is which variety to choose as the model for instruction

(and assessment). Such decisions need to be part of the curriculum development process and be responsive to local contexts and to the future envisaged for their learners. About 80% of the English speakers in the world are NNSs. They are having an enormous impact on the English language such that the Inner Circle countries will no longer be the only models of English. Rather, English is not primarily being used between learners and NSs, but increasingly among NNSs as they go about their lives as we discussed earlier.

> There needs to be recognition that people learn the language in their own terms and to their own ends and these do not necessarily relate to the U.K. or any other country of which English is the mother tongue. . . . Policies must be sensitive to a global population of English speakers. English is more a family of languages than a single language with set rules and orthodoxies.
>
> (Jones & Bradwell, 2007, pp. 89–90)

Therefore, policy makers, curriculum designers, and teachers need to be mindful of the variety(ies) of English they choose for instruction to ensure learners are equipped with skills needed to interact interculturally in the 21st century (see Murray & Christison, 2021 for an expanded discussion on the increasing importance of intercultural competence for English learners). Furthermore, curriculum designers need to question the legacy of Inner Circle English being a requirement for hiring teachers.

Task: Explore

Conduct a short questionnaire with some of your colleagues or peers. If you are in a pre-service course or in-service workshop, give the questionnaire to ten of your peers. If you are teaching, give the questionnaire to five of your colleagues. Collate your results and share with a colleague or peer.

Questionnaire

Following are several statements about English. Rate your agreement with them on a five-point scale.

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree;
5 = Strongly agree

1. Only standard American or British English should be taught in EFL programs.	1 2 3 4 5
2. Indian English should be taught in schools in India.	1 2 3 4 5
3. Immigrants in Australia should learn to speak Australian English.	1 2 3 4 5
4. Students will learn English better if it is used as a medium of instruction for subjects like mathematics or science.	1 2 3 4 5
5. Students should learn to understand speakers of different varieties of English.	1 2 3 4 5

Conclusion

Although English has become the global language for use in many contexts, how it is used, how it is taught, and attitudes towards it vary across different countries. As it has spread, different Englishes have developed so that Standard British English or Standard American English can no longer be the only appropriate models used in education. Curriculum developers need to determine the most appropriate models for their particular contexts.

Task: Expand

Kachru, B. B., Kachru, Y., & Nelson, C. (Eds.). 2009. *Handbook of World Englishes*. Wiley-Blackwell.

This collection focuses on critical aspects and case studies of the theoretical, ideological, applied, and pedagogical issues related to English use around the world.

TESOL position papers are available at: www.tesol.org/about-tesol/press-room/position-statements/social-issues-and-diversity-position-statements

TESOL, the international professional association, has a variety of position papers about ELT. This URL takes you to the section of papers on social issues and diversity including English as a global language, multilingualism, and language varieties.

Questions for Discussion

1. What has been the effect of colonialism on the teaching and learning of English in the Outer Circle?
2. Why is Kachru's model arbitrary for describing the different Englishes in the world?
3. How would you best define NS?
4. How can curriculum developers decide which variety of English to use in instruction and assessment?
5. How important is it for learners to understand speakers of many different varieties of English? Why?

Notes

1. Code-switching refers to the systematic way in which bilinguals shift from one language to the other.
2. A pidgin is a contact language that develops when a dominant group does not learn the local variety. To communicate, the subordinate group adopts aspects of the dominant language. However, they simplify it and include features from their own language. Pidgins have no NSs and are used for a restricted range of uses.
3. A creole is a pidgin that has acquired NSs as children grow up using the pidgin. As more demands are put on the language, it becomes more complex, often as complex as any other language.

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4

THE MULTILINGUAL CONTEXT

VIGNETTE

I am in Norway working on a research grant for which I have been serving as a consultant. My colleagues and I are scheduled to visit two English classes with two different teachers as part of the data collection process. The school is one of the most diverse schools in the city with a high concentration of multilingual learners. In the first English class that we observe, many of the children are home language speakers of Norwegian. The readings are in English, but I notice that the teacher speaks quite a bit of Norwegian as do the children. In the second English class that we observe, almost all of the children are from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. They speak languages other than Norwegian at home and are learning Norwegian and English at school. For most of the students English is a third or even fourth language. In addition to the differences in composition of students between the two classes, I also notice other differences as well. In the second class, the walls are covered with student art that reflects the multilinguistic backgrounds of the students. One portion of the wall is devoted to greetings and how to say the equivalent of "Good morning," "Hello," and "How are you?" in at least eight to 10 different languages. Another part of the classroom contains a word wall, and it is covered with words and phrases from the content they are studying. Some smaller cards have been added to the word wall. These small cards contain words that are written in other languages. In the first class, we sat at the back of the room and had little contact with the students or the teacher. In the

(continued)

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second class, the teacher acknowledged our presence as visitors and gave the class 10 minutes to ask questions and find out as much as they could about us. They asked us where we were born, what languages we spoke, why we were at the school, what we liked to eat, where we had travelled, and what we were doing in the school. One of my colleagues was from China, and one was from Germany. We gave some direct answers, but we also involved the students in guessing. For example, when they asked us where we were from, we said, "What do you think?" and "Why?" The teacher then used the information we provided and created further questions to check comprehension. After 15 minutes, the teacher turned to the content of the day's lesson.

[Christison, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. How would you characterize the main differences between the two Grade 6 classes in terms of instruction?
2. What teaching practices does each teacher employ that you think might be beneficial for emergent multilingual learners? Why?

Introduction

In the 21st century, we see the world becoming more multilingual with human migration at an all-time high and modern societies witnessing an increase in the ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity of their citizens. As a result of these changes, educational contexts are also changing, and these changes have placed new demands on English language teaching programs, teachers, and administrators, as well as on course and curriculum designers. Even though there is increasing evidence of the benefits of multilingualism (Bialystok, 2009; Wei, 2000), monolingual ideologies continue to dominate mainstream education. In addition, teacher education programs in teaching colleges and universities have not yet made the necessary changes in curriculum to provide the type of curriculum and practical experiences that pre-service teachers need, so they are

often underprepared to deliver instruction that supports the needs of emergent multilingual learners (Alisaari et al., 2019; Cenoz & Santos, 2020; Gorter & Arocena, 2020). To effectively teach emergent multilingual learners and design curriculum that draws on and supports multilingualism, pre-service and practicing teachers and materials and curriculum designers need "specific training and professional learning activities to help them bridge these gaps in knowledge and skills" (Christison et al., 2021). Because many English language teaching professionals have been educated to embrace monolingual ideologies in which a native speaker "is seen as a yardstick for multilingual language attainment" (Christison et al., 2021, p. 276) and language separation (i.e., languages are rigidly separated for the purposes of second and foreign language instruction) is the norm, adopting multilingual ideologies, which aim to support and develop multicompetence (Cook, 1991) and help learners draw on their full repertoire of linguistic resources, is often a challenge.

As we noted in Chapter 3, English has become the global language for communication in industry, business, entertainment, diplomacy, and the Internet. As such, it is no longer the sole province of English dominant countries. The focus in English language teaching in the 21st century is on issues related to the role that emergent and emerging Englishes play, not only in English language teaching, but also in the design of curriculum, particularly World Englishes (WE) (Kachru, 1986) with its concentric circles model and English as a lingua franca (ELF), which focuses on the type of English that non-native English speakers use to communicate with one another. In addition to these discussions, we must also consider the multilingual context and the role that multilingualism now plays in English language teaching and the design of curriculum for individuals who are learning English.

Defining Multilingualism

There are many different ways in which scholars have defined multilingualism. At the broadest level a multilingual speaker is considered to be "anyone who can communicate in more than one language" (Wei, 2008, p. 4). According to this definition bilinguals (i.e., individuals who speak two languages) are also considered to be multilinguals, and English learners are, in fact, emergent bilinguals or multilinguals (García, 2009, 2011). Other scholars have proposed narrower definitions, for example, Grosjean (2012) considers regular language use as an important component and defined bilinguals as "those who use two languages (or dialects) in their everyday lives" (p. 4). Bassetti and Cook (2011) have pointed to the fact that some scholars have focused their definitions on the

advanced proficiency of speakers (e.g., Bloomfield, 1935), essentially promoting monolingual ideologies (e.g., two monolingual-like speakers), yet they also acknowledge that using minimal proficiency to define multilingualism is also an issue.

In educational contexts, definitions have often marginalized multilinguals and conceptualized them in terms of deficit models or lacking control over certain features of a target language, for example, English. In U.S. K–12 schools, the term Limited English Proficient (LEP) has frequently been used, and in post-secondary the term foreign students. As Grosjean (1989) has pointed out, a multilingual learner is "not the sum of two complete or incomplete monolinguals; rather, he or she is a unique and specific linguistic configuration" (p. 3). To be successful in designing courses and curricula for multilingual contexts, course and curriculum designers must be clear about the way in which they define multilinguals and, in addition, understand the complex discursive practices that underpin communication in multilingual classes. For the purposes of this chapter, we adopt the definition proposed by Cenoz and Gorter (2014), one that views multilingualism as an approach that utilizes two or more languages in education with a goal of developing multilingualism and multiliteracy. This approach to multilingualism takes into consideration all languages and discursive practices and views all learners as valuable assets that can be part of "bridges to new learning" (Christison et al., 2021, p. 275).

Multilingual Learners

In educational settings, multilingual learners have many different profiles, depending on the context in which they are learning (e.g., primary school or higher education), and most classrooms are made up of combinations of learners from diverse language backgrounds who may have distinctive mixtures of language skills and levels of proficiency. As an example, we offer a description of multilingual learners in a Grade 6 classroom that one of us (Christison) observed recently.

> *There are 20 students in the class, and nine of them are multilingual learners. Celia is 12 years old. She joined the class about three months ago. Her English skills are minimal, but she already speaks Spanish and Portuguese and reads at grade level or beyond in both languages. Amir's home language is Persian, but he started learning English in Kindergarten. His reading and writing skills in English are excellent and at grade level in all language skills, and his spoken language is indistinguishable from monolingual speakers of English in the*

class. Renée's home language is English, and she joined the class three months ago. She spent five years in a French two-way dual language immersion program in her previous school. Mama Obbid is from Ghana. She speaks English at school and Twi and English at home. Tomás prefers to speak Spanish, but his English skills are also very strong as English and Spanish are the languages his parents speak between them, and he was previously in a two-way dual language immersion program. He also speaks Swedish, which is his mother's home language, and Aymara, which is his father's. Carlos and Guillermo speak both Spanish and English, Spanish at home and English at school. Tomo speaks both Japanese and English fluently because Japanese is his mother's home language and his father is a fluent speaker of Japanese; Tomo speaks both English and Japanese at home. While his literacy skills are exceptionally strong in English, they are quite weak in Japanese. Frederic's home languages are German and French. He has been learning English in school for three years now, so his English skills are now at grade level.

In terms of the diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the learners, this type of classroom in K–12 contexts is becoming more and more common worldwide. In addition to English, these Grade 6 children speak ten additional languages among them; some are home or heritage languages while other languages have only been learned in school. The children not only exhibit varied skill development in English, for example, some children have stronger skills in speaking than in writing, but they may also have differential skill development in the other languages with which they are familiar; for example, some children may have no literacy skills in a heritage language but strong oral language skills.

In post-secondary contexts in BANA (Britain, Australasia, and North America) countries and also English as a medium of instruction (EMI) universities, as well as courses at local institutions in which English is the Medium of Instruction (MOI) (see Chapter 3), English for academic purposes (EAP) courses are comprised of multilingual learners from linguistically and culturally diverse contexts. Although the needs of post-secondary learners may be different from those of young multilingual learners (YMLs) and young adult multilingual learners (teens), most learners in post-secondary EAP contexts have strong literacy skills, in at least their home language(s) and very often additional languages as well, and they have a history of success in academic contexts. Nevertheless, post-secondary learners can benefit from classroom instruction that takes up many of the classroom pedagogies that are being used with K–12 multilingual learners, such as strategies that encourage learners to make use of their complete linguistic repertoires to make meaning.

Task: Explore

1. What advice might you give the teacher of the Grade 6 class in the example in terms of selecting instructional tasks and activities?
2. How might the teacher use instructional strategies to build on the strengths of the multilingual learners?

The Multilingual Turn

The term that is used to critique monolingual ideologies that have dominated research in applied linguistics and second language acquisition is known as the *multilingual turn* (May, 2014, 2019). The key ideas underpinning the multilingual turn are that multilingual learners and teachers bring unique understandings and diverse linguistic knowledge and resources to education. Grosjean (2012) has taken the position that multilinguals are qualitatively different from native speakers, not inferior. Even though recent research offers a complex and more fluid understanding of the language teaching practices that can be used to support Grosjean's position, deficit and rigid approaches to the acquisition of multiple languages, which view multilingual learners as inferior to monolingual native speakers, still persist. Nevertheless, in recent years, the boundaries have been softening.

Translanguaging

The term translanguaging can be traced to the Welsh educator Cen Williams (1994), who used both English and Welsh in the classroom space and provided students with opportunities to "recast understandings received in the other language" (García & Kleyn, 2016, p. 11). For example, learners might read something in Welsh and discuss it in English. The theoretical underpinnings of translanguaging, as we view them, originated with Cummins's (1979) interdependence hypothesis. In this hypothesis, Cummins posited a Common Underlying Proficiency for the language, which is crucial for understanding how languages develop in individuals who speak more than one language, including emergent bilinguals and multilinguals (García, 2011). This underlying proficiency allows for transfer to occur so that "not everything taught through one language has to be retaught through another" (García & Kleyn,

2016, p. 11). Common underlying proficiency explains why young learners who already have literacy skills in one alphabetic language, such as Spanish, are able to acquire literacy skills in an additional alphabetic language, such as English, faster than young learners who have no previous literacy skills. Cummins's model has been used to support the notion that multilinguals possess two separate linguistic systems although they are linked linguistically and cognitively. Stemming from Lambert's early work in bilingual education (1974), the terms used to discuss models of bilingual education (e.g., additive and subtractive bilingualism) conceptualized bilingualism as two language systems that are separate.

While instances of *code-mixing* (i.e., the *intra*sentential use of more than one language) and *code-switching* (i.e., the *inter*sentential use of more than one language) among multilinguals have long been recognized as common practices, these processes have also been interpreted through the lens of a monoglossic ideology of bilingualism (Del Valle, 2000). Central to the phenomena of code-switching and code-mixing has been the notion that these bi- and multilingual practices in which speakers alternate between and among languages are, in fact, transgressions when languages are seen as "autonomous, closed systems with their own linguistic structures" (García & Kleyn, 2016, p. 14).

According to García and Kleyn, *translanguaging* refers to "the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire, which does not correspond to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named languages" (p. 15). Moving from the language separation ideologies that underpinned traditional studies in bilingualism, to Cummins's Common Underlying Proficiency, which allowed for transfer, to multilingual views of language that embrace translanguaging theory, is difficult for many teachers and educators. Embracing a theory of translanguaging as English language teachers and as individuals who design lessons, courses, and curricula, means that it is necessary to begin teaching multilingual learners from a different perspective.

Implementing a Multilingual Pedagogical Approach

The process of translating the theoretical underpinnings of a multilingual pedagogical approach to teaching English, including pedagogical translanguaging, into school and classroom practices is no easy task. Teachers are socialized into disciplines through their pre-service practice teaching experiences, their experiences as teachers in their own classrooms, the professional associations, and the community of teachers with whom they share daily experiences of their students and teaching in their classrooms. As the theoretical concepts associated

with language development shift away from monolingual ideologies, they are being replaced by multilingual ones. Given that this shift is relatively recent, it is understandable that even if teachers have adopted a multilingual or translanguage stance, they may not yet have developed the skills necessary for an effective practice. As García et al. (2017) note, "teachers cannot imagine what they have not seen" (p. vi).

City University of New York's State Initiative for Emergent Bilinguals (CUNY-NYSIEB) in the United States provides a blueprint for how public education, research institutes, and higher education can work together to implement a multilingual pedagogical approach for schools and create instructional practices that are effective in educating emergent bi- and multilingual learners (García & Kleyn, 2016). The term, emergent bilinguals, is used because it focuses on the potential of bi- and multilingual learners rather than on their deficits in relation to English learning.

In their report, García and Kleyn introduced three principles related to the vision and mission of these types of programs and two non-negotiable principles for schools that want to participate in the CUNY-NYSIEB project. A summary of the three basic tenets or vision statements follows: (a) the creative emergence of individual language practices, (b) the dynamics of bilingualism, and (c) the dynamic processes associated with the teaching and learning of emergent bilinguals. Bi- and multilingual development is continuous and emergent and is responsive to context and the way in which language is used in the school, at home, and in the community. Bi- and multilingualism is dynamic, not simply additive (García, 2009). In other words, language users are able to adapt to different communicative situations and must be responsive to a complex set of interactions enacted by different human beings. To encourage the development of emergent bi-and multilingualism, it is important for educators to help bi- and multilinguals use their full linguistic repertoires in the classroom.

There are also two non-negotiable principles that all schools in the CUNY-NYSIEB project adhere to: (a) bilingualism as a resource in education and (b) support for a multilingual ecology for the whole school. Regardless of the structure of the school, all home languages of emergent learners are recognized and leveraged as crucial instructional tools, and as such, the entire range of language practices is evident throughout the school. All 67 schools in the CUNY-NYSIEB project came together to enact their vision of the CUNY-NYSIEB in ways that worked best for their individual schools. The project serves as an example for other schools and units and of how such programs can be implemented successfully.

Task: Explore

1. What are some ways in which teachers can make changes in their pedagogical practices to begin softening the boundaries associated with language separation ideologies?
2. How can teachers leverage instructional practices that embrace multilingual ideologies, particularly in English for academic purposes (EAP) contexts?
3. In your own words, explain what each of the vision statements from the CUNY-NYSIEM project means in terms of your own practice and the process of designing lessons, courses, and curricula.

Developing Curricula for Multilingual Learners

In order for multilingual ideologies to take hold in educational contexts, teachers must be seen as agents of change and given the tools to design and deliver linguistically and culturally appropriate instruction. García et al. (2017) stated that classrooms that support translanguaging pedagogies have two important dimensions. These dimensions are crucial for teachers in facilitating learning and in creating instructional materials and designing curricula. First, teachers must develop skills for carefully observing the languaging performances of their learners so that they can describe and assess their learners' practices. To address this first dimension in multilingual contexts with English, teachers must focus on paying attention to their learners and getting to know them. Of course, getting to know learners is important for all teachers, but it is critical for teachers of English working in multilingual contexts who wish to adopt translanguaging and multilingual pedagogies. In these contexts, teachers need to know the linguistic repertoires of their students, how they might use their repertoires to further learning in the classroom, and with whom they might use the different languages in their repertoires. As a first step in addressing this dimension, teachers and curriculum designers will need to focus on how they can collect this information in the short term as learning about students' linguistic repertoires through observation alone takes considerable time and delays teachers in using information about their repertoires to further learning. For example, in the Grade 6 classroom described in this chapter, how might the teacher

find out enough about the linguistic repertoires of her learners to determine that Tomás, Guillermo, and Carlos would be excellent partners to support Celia in making use of her linguistic repertoires to further learning or that Renée and Frederic would be able to support each other similarly? Of course, knowing the linguistic repertoires of learners is only a first step; nevertheless, it is an important one. (See García et al., 2017 for more detailed information on how teachers can move beyond this first step in addressing this dimension of translanguaging and multilingual pedagogies.)

The second dimension involves the ability of teachers to adapt instruction and assessment practices to the complex languaging practices of their learners. To address this dimension of translanguaging and multilingual pedagogies, teachers need many of the same skills that are required in other contexts. To adapt instructional and assessment practices for teaching English in multilingual contexts with a linguistically diverse groups of learners still requires that teachers plan for instruction, that content and language objectives are established for learners, that learners are given opportunities to use language in meaningful ways, that appropriate demands are placed on cognition relative to the introduction of new content concepts and unfamiliar academic language structures, that learners have opportunities to work together in ways that allow them to discover a multitude of ways of "knowing, being, and communicating" (García et al., 2017, p. xi) and use their linguistic repertoires as part of their sense-making process, and that the ways in which learners are assessed are consistent with the ways in which they learn.

Conclusion

Because the world is becoming more multilingual, we witness more English language teachers working in multilingual contexts with learners from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In these contexts, it is critical for teaching and learning to focus on specific characteristics of multilingual learners and on the ways in which teachers of English can make use of learners' linguistic repertoires and engage in multilingual and translanguaging pedagogies to promote learning in classrooms. In this chapter, we have described characteristics of multilingual classrooms at different levels and presented multilingual learners in classrooms in terms of their linguistic repertoires. We have also introduced important theoretical concepts, such as the multilingual turn and translanguaging, and discussed their importance in terms of specific teaching practices that promote multilingual and translanguaging pedagogies with a focus on how these changes affect the design

and development of curriculum, as well as the skills that teachers and curriculum designers need.

Task: Expand

García, O., & Kleyn, T. (2016). Translanguaging theory in education: Learning from classroom moments. In O. García & T. Kleyn (Eds). *Translanguaging with multilingual students*. Routledge.

This book brings together both theoretical and empirical contributions related to translanguaging through the practices of 67 schools in New York. This information is particularly valuable because the tenets of the project and its outcomes are applicable for programs and schools in other parts of the world.

García, O., Ibarra Johnson, S., & Seltzer, K. (2017). *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*. Caslon.

The overall purpose of this book is to advance social justice by introducing teachers to innovative, translanguaging pedagogies for teachers who are working with emergent bi- and multilingual learners in any classroom. The authors explain how to leverage students' full linguistic repertoires in teaching and learning and present pedagogical approaches and teaching methods that can be integrated into their practices.

Krulatz, A., Dahl, A., & Flognfeldt, M. E. (2018). *Enacting multilingualism*. Cappelen Damm Akademisk.

This book is for English language teachers, teacher trainees, and school administrators who work with multilingual learners. It offers a comprehensive overview of key theoretical concepts relative to multilingualism and is particularly useful for those individuals who work in contexts where English classrooms are filled with children who speak one or more languages at home and are expected to develop proficiency in English as well as a majority language. It serves as an important resource for teachers because it presents a wide range of pedagogical practices that support the development of multilingualism with English language development.

Questions for Discussion

1. What factors do you think might affect teachers' reactions towards implementing translanguaging and multilingual practices?
2. What evidence of a translanguaging or multilingual stance do you find in your own practice?
3. What types of support might teachers need in order to adopt translanguaging practices when teaching English in multilingual contexts?
4. What challenges do you think curriculum designers, including teachers who design lessons and curricula for their own classes, face in designing materials for teaching English in multilingual contexts?

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5

THE TECHNOLOGICAL CONTEXT

VIGNETTE

A colleague and I are working with an English language develop-ment center in Thailand that is charged with providing instruction in English for specific workplace settings, with the goal of ensuring that Thai professionals are competitive in the world where English is often the medium of communication. While some instruction has been and may continue to be delivered face-to-face, the goal is to provide access to the center's English language courses to all Thai citizens any time, any place. Therefore, online delivery of the course material is essential. The center employs highly experienced English language teachers and lecturers from the top universities in Thailand to write its face-to-face English language courses. However, it is recognized that these teachers will need special training in how to adapt and create online course material. In our planning meeting, we jointly design the two-week training program. Teachers will be introduced to the basic concepts of online course development, online instructional design, and effective types of online activities. The session will then examine the course syllabus and materials from the existing English for Doctors course and work with the facilitators on ways to effectively adapt the material for online delivery. By the end of the two weeks, the teachers will have jointly developed an online course, which they can use as a guide for adapting their own specific course for online delivery.

[Murray, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. In what ways do you think the syllabus for online delivery might be different from that for face-to-face (f2f) delivery in the *English for Doctors* course?
2. In what ways do you think designing materials for online delivery is different from that for designing print materials?
3. What types of digital applications do you think could be used for online English language courses? What types of teaching/learning activities would each be used for?

Introduction

> Teachers in L2 education cannot realistically meet their students' needs if they ignore these developments [new electronic literacies] or seek to forcefit the use of electronic media to traditional modes of communication or pedagogy.
>
> (Pennington, 2004, p. 87)

Although Pennington's comment was made more than a decade ago, her concerns continue to be valid as new uses of digital technology enter the global market and change and are changed by the language(s) we use on these platforms. These applications have added new communication tools and uses of language to the repertoire of English. Therefore, the teaching of English needs to include the teaching of this new language, as well as the use of new and emerging media for language learning so that learners will be able to navigate the digital global world for their education, workplaces, and personal lives. For language learners to be able to function globally in the 21st century, they must be as familiar with these uses of English as with traditional forms of communication, such as letters or telephone conversations.

The global COVID-19 pandemic has shown us how interconnected the world is and the role technology plays in these connections, whether for education or for connecting with friends and family. However, in education it has also demonstrated how essential it is to secure access, carefully design instruction, and provide teacher professional development in order to take full advantage of the

affordances of digital technology. At the same time as we have seen the challenges of digital learning,

> [w]e have seen more rapid progress in 2020 in bridging the digital divide than we have seen in the last 20 years. We have seen more uptake of technology-driven innovations in teaching, more outreach directly to families, and more collaboration time for teachers than were thought possible even a few months before the pandemic shut down in-person learning.
>
> (Darling-Hammond et al., 2020, p. 2)

These encouraging findings provide a starting point to reinvent schooling to create effective learning environments for English learners.

In this chapter, we will briefly explain the nomenclature that has evolved to characterize the phenomenon of using technology in language instruction and then the historic stages of computer-assisted language learning (CALL). There are a number of ways to explore the role of technology in language curriculum, many of which we discussed in Volume I, Chapter 15, and Volume II, Chapter 15. In this chapter, we will discuss the issues that need to be addressed when trying to embed digital technology in the curriculum: using technology to meet curriculum goals and objectives and helping learners to function in English on a multicultural digital world.

Task: Reflect

Directions: think about your own language learning. What technologies were used to facilitate instruction? What technologies frustrated you? What technology use did you enjoy? Why?

Key Definitions

Although the term technology is used indiscriminately, it is often used to refer solely to computer-based devices. However, technology is any item that extends human capacity, a definition that includes technologies as diverse as bicycles, blackboards, eyeglasses, writing tools (and in fact writing itself), as well as computers. We will primarily refer to the enterprise as digital technology. However, in English language teaching (ELT) numerous terms are used

to refer to the teaching of language using such technology in instruction. By instruction, we exclude its use by teachers for lesson preparation or grading, for example. Table 5.1 provides a list of terms in common usage.

Technology enhanced language learning (TELL) is used more in Europe than in North America while telecollaboration was used by Warschauer and Kern (2000) and others (e.g., O'Dowd, 2013) to identify uses where learners were networked together. This term was subsequently taken up by some other educators for this specific aspect of computers for instruction. CALL is the most widely used term for all aspects of digital technology use in language instruction, including for the names of professional associations dedicated to the study of computer use in language instruction (see *Task: Expand* at the end of this chapter). We recognize that the use of this term reifies the technology, placing it before learning; we also recognize that for many people, the mental image will be of a stand-alone desk-top or lap-top computer. However, we will use the term to encompass all the current devices and applications that are digital and used for instruction, such as smart phones, tablets, and virtual reality (VR).

Historic Stages of CALL

Warschauer (2001) posited three stages of how technology has been used historically for CALL. He asserted that in the 1970s to '80s, the approach to CALL

Table 5.1 Common Terms for Digital Technology in Language Instruction

Term	Acronym
Computer-assisted instruction	CAI
Computer-assisted language learning	CALL
Cyberspace	None
Computer-based instruction	CBI
Computer-based testing	CBT
Computer-based training	CBT
e-learning	None
Intelligent CALL	ICALL
Information and communication technology	ICT
Online language teaching	OLT
Online learning	None
Technology enhanced language learning	TELL
Telecollaboration	None

was structural. In the 1980s to 1990s, the approach was communicative, while in the 21st century it was integrative. For each stage he listed five characteristics of CALL: (a) technology, (b) English-teaching paradigm, (c) view of language, (d) principal use of computers, and (e) principal objective and then showed how the characteristics manifested themselves in each of the three stages. For the 21st century, he cites multimedia and the Internet; content-based instruction (CBI) and ESP/EAP; socio-cognitive; authentic discourse; and accuracy, fluency, and agency as the foci for each of the characteristics respectively. These foci contrast with, for example, mainframe computers and grammar-translation/audio-lingual for the period 1970s to 1980s. While Warschauer's description is a useful overview of the evolution of CALL in the United States, it does not hold for many other countries and even for areas within the United States. Just as mobile phones have been a leapfrog technology in countries (or regions) that had never had time to develop the infrastructure for landline telephones, so too CALL in many countries has jumped immediately into the mobile CALL.

Since Warschauer's article was written in 2001 technology has changed considerably, with the explosion of handheld devices and social media, neither of which are captured fully in his depiction of the third stage. Multimedia and the Internet include an array of applications that can be and are being used in language teaching. We would, therefore, argue for the following depiction of digital language teaching in the 2020s:

- The dominant technologies are handhelds and social media, which emphasize social and constant connectivity, as well as any time, any place access.
- The English-teaching paradigm is that of communities of practice (Anderson, 2008; Khalsa, 2012; Wenger, 1998), an essential aspect of constructivist approaches to learning. Constructivist approaches are learner centered. Learners play active roles in interpreting, processing, and generating knowledge through shared, purposeful activity, such as projects.
- The view of language is as a social semiotic[1] (Halliday, 1978), with its multiliteracies and multimodality (Christison & Murray, 2020).
- The principal use of computers (in their various guises) is for authentic discourse to connect people to achieve collaborative tasks.
- The principal objective is less concerned with accuracy or fluency than with collaboration.

We now turn to a discussion of how curriculum designers should approach including technology in instruction. We raise the issues that need to be considered to ensure that curricular goals drive the use of technology.

Using Technology to Meet Curricula Goals and Objectives

We believe that in the curriculum design process, technology needs to be considered as one of the possible resources for instruction. It needs to be chosen carefully in order to meet learners' needs. In some situations, administrators mandate a particular delivery mechanism (as in the vignette). However, the curriculum and learners' needs still have to be addressed. For example, Whittaker describes a redesign of a blended English language learning program for the Armed Forces of Bosnia-Herzegovina (Whittaker, 2012). She found that the curriculum's success depended on recognizing both the contextual and personal drivers for change that shaped the curriculum design. It was essential to engage the officer instructors and teachers throughout the process. Further, they adopted an iterative approach, taking time by designing and redesigning the course over a three-year period.

Although the COVID-19 pandemic has meant that many teachers and institutions have adopted technology use in the classroom, they have done so with minimal preparation. This emergency remote teaching is not the most effective scenario for effective technology adoption and student learning. To meet the goals and objectives of the curriculum, curriculum designers need to use a deliberative process that follows the path of successful innovation implementation. Innovation "results from deliberate efforts that are perceived as new, [and] that are intended to bring about improvements" (Stoller, 2012, p. 37). Stoller proposes three phases of such deliberate efforts: (a) initiation, (b) implementation, and (c) continuation/diffusion. We will use these three phases as the framework for our discussion but adapt the stages within each phase. In order for the design process to lead to effective digital use, the curriculum designers must be familiar with the change process and its impact on learners and teachers (Fullan, 2007).

Initiation

The initiation phase requires a careful assessment of the current landscape, as well as an assessment of what learning will be expected through the use of technology.

The assessment needs to include the following:

- Learner digital competence. Prensky (2001) coined the terms *digital native* and *digital immigrant*, the former referring to those who were "'native speakers' of the digital language of computers, video games, and the Internet" (p. 1). Digital immigrants, on the other hand, not being fluent in the use

of these technologies, use the technology with an "accent." Although it is often assumed that digital natives are effective users of digital technology, research has shown that even those who use digital technology frequently do not use it to maximum advantage (for example, Kim et al., 2013) or are unable to "read" the Internet accurately. While they may be adept at tweeting their followers on Twitter or creating content on TikTok, they may be less proficient at changing their security settings or formatting multimedia school projects. For example, middle and high school students in the United States could not distinguish between news and advertisements nor determine the reliability of information on a website or in a twitter feed (Wineburg et al., 2016). The Stanford History Education Group, after research of middle, high school, and university students and professors, found that all these groups used an analog approach to detecting fake news, for example, they used checklists that have been developed to guide a close reading of the text. The researchers found that dubious and invented websites often "passed" the most common checklist tests for facts, such as currency, relevance, authority, accuracy, and purpose, especially if the text alone was used as the data source, without reference to outside sources. On the other hand, they found that professional fact checkers left the website under examination and moved laterally, searching for websites that could attest to the trustworthiness of the source of information (Breakstone et al., 2018). Both digital natives and digital immigrants are also often unaware of the privacy and security issues around online communication, such as cyberbullying, sexting, or data theft, all of which are concerns for teachers according to a 2019 census of K–12 teachers in the United States (Vega & Robb, 2019).

- Therefore, curriculum designers need to determine what skills learners already have and what additional skills learners need to acquire. This information will inform decisions about which digital materials will be included in the curriculum, and which digital skills need to be taught.

- Teachers' digital expertise. Just as learners bring disparate digital skills to the classroom, so, too, do teachers. Research shows that the intended curriculum is not always the curriculum implemented by the teacher (see Chapters 1 and 2), especially if the teacher does not have the requisite skill set or understandings of the curriculum. Recent experiences with COVID-19 have shown that many teachers struggled to provide online learning and schools struggled to provide a road map for how to effectively include digital technology in the curriculum. However, a California study showed that teachers learned not only how to use Zoom and other online platforms, but also how

to organize instruction and curriculum in ways that are constructivist, such that, in planning both online and in-class instruction for the future, educators can "rethink school in ways that can transform learning opportunities for students and teachers alike" (Darling-Hammond et al., 2020, p. v). To achieve this level of competence required intensive professional development, peer teaching, and access to webinars organized by local university colleges of education.

- Therefore, it is essential that curriculum designers have knowledge of the gaps in teachers' digital expertise, so they can plan appropriate professional development in the implementation phase. These gaps are not restricted to technical expertise, but also include the critical approach to online life that we discussed for students. Additionally, educators need to be aware of the bias in artificial intelligence and the algorithms that now drive search engines, hiring decisions, and criminal/legal proceedings, to name a few (see, for example, Hao, 2019).

- Digital resources. Designers need to evaluate what digital resources are available institutionally and also what digital resources teachers and learners have access to.

- Although decisions for large purchases, such as learning management systems (LMS), are usually made at the institutional level, we take the position that English language teachers need to be involved in these decisions to ensure the choices made are ones that are usable and effective for language learners. For example, does the LMS have the facility for oral/aural practice embedded in the platform, or, at least, does it allow the use of other software, such as Audacity or Zoom, to be used seamlessly within the platform? Is the language used for instructions comprehensible to language learners and free of idiomatic expressions and technical jargon? Is the help facility for getting help in plain English? Does the LMS allow for synchronous communication? Are the assessment tools suitable for language learners? Language teachers also need to be involved in decisions about whether to use an LMS, such as Canvas or WEBCT, or a video and audio meeting platform such as Zoom.

- Similarly, English language teachers need to be involved in decisions concerning the choice of device(s) to be used. Many schools have a BYOD (bring your own device) policy. However, this policy places undue burden on teachers, who then need to be familiar with a range of different devices with different operating systems. In addition, it places a burden on learners who may have limited personal devices. While digital technology appears to be ubiquitous, as the current health crisis has exposed, there

remains a digital divide between those who live in technologically rich environments and those who do not. Many families still do not have access to computers or tablets at home or do not have sufficient bandwidth to support online learning. While smart phones are valuable resources in language classrooms, they are ineffective for class assignments such as projects or for using complex LMSs.

- A 2017 report in the United States showed that the disparity in access is still significant, with only 61% of children aged 3 to 18 having Internet access at home (Kewal Ramani et al., 2018). This percentage amounts to millions of children who are unable to complete homework assignments (Associated Press, 2019). The situation is similar or more extreme in many other contexts.

- Similarly, curriculum designers need to know what digital devices and bandwidth connections teachers have at home if they are to be assessing learners' work from their homes and/or teaching from home. If teachers and/or learners do not have adequate connectivity, curriculum designers are left with two options: either the school must provide access or the technology demands in the curriculum must be suitable for low-level connectivity.

- Administrative support. The Sloan Consortium (Moore & Vitale, 2018), which is now the Online Learning Consortium, is dedicated to advancing quality teaching and learning online and has identified five pillars of quality in online higher education, one of which is institutional commitment. Recent iterations have included institutional commitment as the pillar of scalability (Online learning Consortium, 2020). This commitment needs to be inclusive, that is, involving teachers, technology specialists, and administrators in collaborative decisions about the following: (a) technology purchases, (b) protocols and regulations for the use of technology, (c) technical support, and (d) teacher ongoing professional development.

- The role of technology. Key to deciding what language learning will be achieved is what role technology will play: language-learning focused software, productivity tool, or content tool. Technology can be used as either a tool, a tutor, or a tutee (Taylor, 1980). Taylor was the first to differentiate between these three uses of computers in education. For Taylor, when the computer is used as a tutor, it temporarily takes the place of a teacher by providing instruction and guidance. When used as a tool, it has no teaching attributes but facilitates instruction. Such uses include presentation programs, email, wikis, social media, and Learning Management Systems (LMSs). As tutee, the student programs the computer. While the latter has been used in general education, it has rarely been used in language teaching.

While the difference between tool and tutor is distinct and useful, many educators refer uncritically to the computer as a tool, much in the same way they might consider a pair of scissors a tool for cutting up a reading for a jigsaw activity.

- While a particular technology does not determine a particular curriculum approach, the two are interrelated. Different technological affordances facilitate particular approaches. Therefore, curriculum designers need to make informed decisions about which technologies support their preferred approaches. As already stated, we believe that it is the curriculum and the needs of learners that should drive the adoption of various technologies in the language classroom. Even when institutionally the decision has been made to convert an entire course to online delivery, decisions need to be made about what tasks to use, what multimedia technologies to use, whether to choose synchronous or asynchronous CMC, whether or how to have group or project work, and what LMS to use. These decisions depend on the curriculum objectives and the characteristics and needs of the learners. For example, if learners are in widely different time zones, synchronous CMC would be a burden on teachers and learners who might have to link up in the middle of the night or during a period of religious observance. Learners with limited bandwidth or access to regular electricity supplies might find it impossible to stay online for long periods of time, obviating regular collaborative class time. Teachers might have to send emails with attachments for students who cannot access certain websites either because of government censorship or filters in their local library where they go to use computers. Alternatively, teachers may mail a CD with the video components of the lesson to learners. Even when using an LMS, teachers might need to supplement it with other tools, for example, web-based conferencing applications such as Zoom, Skype, or Adobe Connect.
- If the decision is to choose a blended design or a f2f design with some CALL support, decisions also need to be made about whether to have a self-access language learning laboratory where learners can practice using commercial software, surf the web to complete course assignments, and so on. Decisions depend on curriculum needs.
- For example, when one of us (Murray) was working with colleagues to design a multimedia course in Australian citizenship for immigrants to Australia, we were aware that many of these learners had minimal literacy in their mother tongue, and many were beginners in English language learning. Our overarching approach was constructivist, encouraging students to actively engage in knowledge construction rather than knowledge

reproduction. Consequently, our design included visual materials, such as videos and a multimedia CD. The videos were of people who had become citizens, talking about their process and reasons for doing so. The CD was situated in a government office, with which the learners were already familiar. It used learning objects that students could access by rolling a mouse over symbols and icons, which consisted of short sequences of spoken or written text linked to learning activities such that learners could access the entire syllabus by completing matching, drag and drop, and sequencing activities based on spoken and written texts drawn from the video and workbooks (Murray & McPherson, 2006). Because many of the concepts related to citizenship privileges and responsibilities are highly abstract, the designers also provided supplementary fact sheets in multiple languages.

Implementation

The implementation phase requires initial professional development, as well as translating the technology decisions to the classroom. Because CALL is often challenging for teachers, a number of educators have proposed guidelines for developing CALL curricula. These educators all agree that an online course, for example, is not just a course where all the f2f materials are put on the web. For example, in the vignette, my colleague and I were planning professional development for the Thai instructors so that they would be able to adapt and develop online CALL curricula. We established the essentials of this training to be as follows:

- introducing teachers to the basic concepts in online course design (selection of content, cognitive load implications, scaffolding, etc.);
- introducing teachers to the types of effective online learning activities (e.g., drop-down boxes, rollovers, drag-and-drop);
- discussing and assessing (throughout the training) how particular types of activities can best facilitate the intended learning outcomes;
- introducing teachers to the nature and function of instructional design (ensuring coherence and cohesion in overall course content, choosing appropriate activity types, communicating with web designers), and guiding teachers in effective instruction writing to web designers; and
- adapting a portion of an existing course—English for Doctors—for online delivery, using instructional design concepts.

Another lens on a "successful technology-enhanced language learning environment" is provided by Butler-Pascoe and Wiburg (2003), who list 12 attributes

that cover all types of delivery mechanisms—online, hybrid, blended, or web-facilitated. Such a successful environment

1. provides interaction, communicative activities, and real audiences;
2. supplies comprehensible input;
3. supports development of cognitive abilities;
4. utilizes task-based and problem-solving activities;
5. provides sheltering techniques to support language and academic development;
6. is student centered and promotes student autonomy;
7. facilitates focused development of English language skills;
8. uses multiple modalities to support various learning styles and strategies;
9. supports collaborative learning;
10. meets effective needs of students;
11. fosters understanding and appreciation of the target and native cultures; and
12. provides appropriate feedback.

(pp. 15–19)

Yet another lens is provided by Chappelle (2001), who focused on the CALL tasks. She described six criteria for the appropriateness of tasks as follows:

1. language learning potential, that is, whether and to what level the task affords a beneficial focus on form;
2. learner fit, the extent to which the task is appropriate for the learners in terms of language level, learning styles, and learning strategies;
3. meaning focus (rather than only form focused);
4. authenticity, the degree of resemblance of the CALL task to the language and situations the student may encounter in an L2 situation;
5. positive impact, that is, whether the task creates motivation, increases interest in the L2 culture, and helps develop metacognitive learning skills; and
6. practicality—how easy it is for both teacher and student to use the task.

In a rather different approach, Levy and Stockwell (2006) begin their framework with the technology rather than the curriculum, focusing instead on CALL design. They note that CALL design needs to integrate elements from both

technology and pedagogy in a principled way and they provide guidelines and examples from a variety of different language teaching contexts.

To ensure appropriate use of and facility with technology in ELT, the TESOL International Association developed technology standards for both learners and teachers (Healey et al., 2011). These standards provide an elaborated framework for teachers, institutions, and administrators. For learners, there are three goals, and for teachers, there are four. Each goal is then elaborated through several standards, each of which has a number of performance indicators (see Chapter 22 for an in-depth discussion of standards in education). Goal 2 for teachers is particularly relevant for curriculum design: "Language teachers integrate pedagogical knowledge and skills with technology to enhance language teaching and learning" (p. vii). The focus is on teaching and learning, not merely on using technology because it is there. The standards for this goal are as follows:

> Standard 1: Language teachers identify and evaluate technological resources and environments for suitability to their teaching context.
> Standard 2: Language teachers coherently integrate technology into their pedagogical approaches.
> Standard 3: Language teachers design and manage language learning activities and tasks using technology appropriately to meet curricular goals and objectives.
> Standard 4: Language teachers use relevant research findings to inform the planning of language learning activities and tasks that involve technology.
>
> (p. vii)

For curricula where the computer is tutor, it is essential that instruction and guidance be provided within the course. The instruction needs to be scaffolded (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001). Scaffolding is achieved through careful sequencing, with each component building on previous ones. Learners are provided with linguistic models, followed by explicit instructions for how to practice the language themselves. They are then provided with effective, explicit feedback on their work. Feedback is the most difficult aspect of online tutor courses. Research has shown that language is best learned when there are opportunities for interaction and negotiation of input (Gass et al., 1998). When the computer is used as tool, this interaction can be achieved through human-to-human interaction using discussion lists, email, VOIP (voice over Internet protocol), or video conferencing. When the computer is used as tutor, interactivity (Murray, 2008) is used to provide feedback that is timely, specific, and multimodal. This feedback needs to provide more than "correct" and "incorrect" as responses to students' language use. The feedback needs to explain why the answer is correct or not.

<div style="border:1px solid">

Task: Explore

1. Conduct an online search and select two English language courses that are delivered online.
2. Analyze these two courses to determine to what extent they meet Chappelle's six criteria.
3. Analyze these two courses to determine to what extent they meet the 12 criteria established by Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg.
4. Analyze these two courses to determine to what extent they meet TESOL's technology Goal 2.
5. Would you recommend these courses to your students? Why? Why not?

</div>

Continuation/Diffusion

The continuation phase requires ongoing teacher professional development on the potential and varied uses of technology and formative and ongoing evaluation of its current uses.

Functioning in a Multicultural Digital World

For English language learners to successfully function in English in the 21st century requires a skill set that includes each of the following: (a) basic technical language, (b) the digital language(s) of communication, and (c) multimodal literacy.

Basic Technical Language

Learners need a working knowledge of the basic technical language of the characteristics of their devices and applications on their devices, such as the functions and names of icons, or structure of folders and files. For example, they need to understand that the symbol ≡ is called a *hamburger* and is the icon for accessing the menu. This knowledge is necessary so they understand the basic architecture of how their devices and apps work, but also to have a language for asking for help. Digital technology has multiple ways of failing or inducing mistakes by novice users, and so learners need to be able to explain what they did so technical support personnel or a teacher can help them. Computer professionals are

unlikely to be able to translate their technical language so that it is comprehensible to language learners.

The Digital Language(s) of Communication

As indicated in the introduction, not only can technology be used as a tool or tutor in ELT, but it also provides another dimension of language in use as content for language teaching. While in many contexts young people are more adept at technology than their teachers, it does not mean that they necessarily have the language to use it in English, or that they have the sociocultural expertise to know what to use, with whom, and when. Apps are constantly being created and adapted and the language of each evolves, based on the features and constraints of the app itself, and on the characteristics of the community of users. Thus, Twitter language differs markedly from email language or from the language on webpages, all of which vary from apps that are designed specifically for multimedia, such as TikTok or Instagram. The community of users, especially the early adopters (Rogers, 2003), often unconsciously establishes the language conventions. For example, Facebook, being the earliest comprehensive social media platform, is widely used across all age groups; however, it is increasingly eschewed by young people because "it is their grandmothers' platform." They instead have gravitated to later platforms, such as Snapchat or TikTok (a favorite platform of those aged 13 to 17 according to Kemp, 2019). WhatsApp has had broad appeal for audiences communicating around the world because international telephone calls can be made free via Wifi. It also has had appeal in countries where people want to communicate securely (WhatsApp has end-to-end encryption) because of fear of retribution from authorities.

Because of different user profiles across apps, the language has evolved according to the characteristics of the communities, such as age-related differences in language use. For example, older users tend to use fewer abbreviations, emojis, or Internet slang. One of us (Denise) texts and shares photos frequently on WhatsApp with a friend in another country. She was surprised that her friend who, although not a native speaker of English was a fluent user, often began a new interaction with "hey." This seemed rude to Denise, yet she knew her friend was not rude. She debated whether to mention this, assuming it was a second-language error. It was not until many years later, when she read Gretchen McCulloch's *Because Internet* (2019) that she realized it was both an age-related and expert-novice language difference. Similarly, many older people continue to use regular print punctuation while digital natives use punctuation playfully and often ironically, such as all caps for irony. Language learners need,

therefore, to understand and use the language of the Internet appropriate for the specific application and curricula need to include this instruction. As well as language use varying with age, it also varies over time. For example, LOL (laughing out loud) was used to indicate that the user was actually laughing, then it was changed to lol from around 2000 to mean not necessarily laughing because it can also be used for softening, irony, or even passive aggression (McCulloch, 2019).

The TESOL Standards (Healey et al., 2011) address this issue of language use, with the following goal for learners: "Language learners use technology in socially and culturally appropriate, legal, and ethical ways" (p. vi). The two standards for this goal are as follows:

Standard 1: Language learners understand that communication conventions differ across cultures, communities, and contexts.
Standard 2: Language learners demonstrate respect for others in their use of private and public information.

(p. vi)

Different technologies adapt language and each technology focuses on particular linguistic choices that are best suited for the technology, such as the abbreviations used in Twitter and texting (for example, Crystal, 2008). Communicators then move among the different media, depending on the context. While it might be appropriate to apply for some jobs via Twitter or email, for other job applications, it is inappropriate. Similarly, there has been considerable research on the structure of webpages (for example, "Eyetrack study," 2000) and the need to include web reading and navigation in English language instruction (Murray, 2008). We need more research of this kind that clearly shows how different registers and genres operate in the new technologies. In language instruction, the curriculum needs to expose learners to the different language uses, helping them identify what is appropriate for different audiences and contexts, just as we might instruct for varieties based on social class, ethnicity, or region. Additionally, English language learners need to be able to understand and use multiliteracies.

Multiliteracies

Multiliteracies is the term used by the New London Group (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; New London Group, 1996) to conceptualize the types of literacy young people need in order to operate successfully in an increasingly technological, multicultural, and multilingual world. They conceived of multiliteracies as a pedagogical approach that would make all classrooms inclusive of the

lingua-cultural and technological diversity of the 21st century. The term has since been widely used to describe multimodal literacy. *Multimodal literacy* is the use of language that combines two or more modes of meaning, where modes refers to the five semiotic systems: linguistic, visual, audio, gestural, and spatial (Anstey & Bull, 2006). Digital communication makes full use of the different modes, such as webpages with visual, linguistics, audio, and spatial modes on the same page. People make use of multimodal literacy when they use Instagram or attach a photo to a text. Learners need to be able to interpret these texts and also use them in their own communications.

Conclusion

As we indicated in Chapter 1, curricula are embedded in the sociocultural setting in which they are enacted, including the technological context. Technology use, therefore, reflects the attitudes towards and access to technology in the local community. There is "no single optimal mix. What configuration is best can only be determined relative to whatever goals and constraints are presented in a given situation" (Shaw & Igneri, 2006, p. 3). Therefore, in this chapter, we have provided a framework for curriculum designers that will help them determine the configurations of digital teaching that are best suited to the needs of their learners.

Task: Expand

Several CALL professional associations and journals have an online presence. The following are useful sites for further exploration of issues and trends in the area of CALL.

APACALL, the Asia-Pacific Association for Computer-Assisted Language Learning, has a forum, book series, newsletter, and special interest groups (SIGs).

www.apacall.org

CALICO, Computer-Assisted Language Instruction Consortium, has a journal, conference, and SIGs.

www.calico.org

EUROCALL, the European Association for Computer Assisted Language Learning, has an annual conference, an online journal, and SIGs.

www.eurocall-languages.org

IALLT, the International Association for Language Learning Technology, has an annual conference, a journal, and regional groups such as IndiaCALL.

www.iallt.org

In addition to these associations dedicated solely to CALL, ELT professional associations have interest groups that focus on CALL. The most active are:

IATEFL, the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language, has a Learning Technologies SIG:

http://ltsig.org.uk

JALT, the Japan Association for Language Teaching, has a Computer Assisted Language Learning SIG:

https://jalt.org/groups/sigs/computer-assisted-language-learning

The TESOL International Association has a Computer-Assisted Language Learning Interest Section that supports an Electronic Village at the Annual Convention, as well as an online Electronic Village:

https://my.tesol.org/communities/community-home?Community Key=060d8cce-83b4-41da-9227-8d36ac69f8e1

Questions for Discussion

1. Explain the difference between using technology as a tool and as a tutor. Provide examples from your own experience.
2. What are the six criteria for evaluating CALL tasks promoted by Chappelle? Provide an example of each.
3. How could you use social media to develop communities of practice in your classroom setting?
4. How could you incorporate teaching the language of digital technology in your classroom setting?

Note

1. Semiotics is the study of how people make meaning from signs. Scholars who study social semiotics investigate how meaning making is a social practice.

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Part II

KEY PROCESSES IN CURRICULUM DESIGN

While there are many models of curriculum design for English language teaching (for example, Graves, 1999; Nation & Macalister, 2009), we present in Part II a model that we have used extensively ourselves in a variety of different teaching contexts.

As indicated in Chapter 1, there is general agreement that curriculum includes planning, implementation, and evaluation. These three aspects of curriculum are not stages to be considered in a linear fashion; rather, the process is cyclical. For example, during implementation, evaluation may occur so that changes are made to the original intended curriculum. However, to simplify the presentation of a complex process, we will focus on each in separate chapters. Chapter 6 focuses on planning, Chapter 7 on implementation, and Chapter 8 on evaluation. We say "focuses" because the other aspects of curriculum design will be referred to in each of the other chapters in Part II, but they will not be the focus of the chapter. In Chapter 8, we discuss all issues around assuring program quality as they relate to the curriculum.

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6

THE CYCLE OF CURRICULUM DESIGN

VIGNETTE

My colleagues and I have been charged with setting up a new depart-
ment. Part of our task is to develop a curriculum to prepare learners to
enter Freshman Composition.[1] All students take an English placement
test and, depending on their score, can take Freshman Composition
or are required to take one or two courses prior to that. Our research
has shown us that these learners are largely immigrants or children
of immigrants. They have graduated from U.S. high schools but have
not yet mastered the English required of them at the university level.
Many are very proficient orally, but they lack academic English.
Although Freshman Composition is essentially a writing course, our
research has shown us that these learners have poor reading skills,
especially of academic subjects. While they take these preparatory
courses, they will also be taking General Education courses[2] in a vari-
ety of subject areas. We also know that to be successful in Freshman
Composition, they need to pass a final examination. This assessment
is a timed essay based on a reading passage, often of literature. Our
overall approach to teaching is to start with learners' background
knowledge and build on this in a constructivist approach. Therefore,
with all these needs in mind, we described the curriculum content as:
"This course develops students' ability to use English for academic
purposes. The focus is on literacy at the college level, with the use of
oral language to support and reinforce the development of reading
and writing. Emphasizing the connection between reading and writ-
ing, the course will include naturally sequenced, culturally relevant

(continued)

(continued)

reading selections and writing assignments that challenge students to examine and reinterpret their own experience and background knowledge. Recognizing the connection between oral and written language, the course will include peer discussion of reading assignments and essay drafts. Issues in the structure of English, both at the sentence and the text level, will be examined in the context of reading and writing assignments." To ensure students can respond to the timed essays in Freshman Composition, the curriculum includes timed essays and the final assessment for the course is a timed essay, but it uses readings of relevance to the particular learners, rather than a piece from literature.

[Murray, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. Think about your own learning to read and write academic English. What sort of instruction did you receive?
2. How do you think academic English differs from everyday English?
3. Why do you think it is important to begin instruction with what learners already know?
4. Have you evaluated peer writing? What was this experience like?

Introduction

Designing curricula is a recursive process. We will present a model for this process, recognizing that, in reality, curriculum developers often enter the process at any of the stages. Most models of curriculum development include *planning, implementing*, and *evaluating*. However, these processes are usually presented as three stages. In reality, the process is complex, recursive, and dynamic, and cycles through its various components. We will focus on planning in this chapter and explore implementing further in Chapter 7 and evaluating in Chapter 8.

Task: Explore

Directions: interview an administrator in an English Language Teaching (ELT) center. Use the following questions to guide your interview:

1. Please describe the curriculum in use in your center. What is the focus? What is the pedagogical philosophy of the center?
2. Who designed the curriculum?
3. How did the designers determine what your students needed?
4. How often is the curriculum reviewed? What is the process used for curriculum review?
5. How are new teachers helped to interpret the curriculum?

Curriculum Design Process

In this chapter, we provide a design process that we have used in our own ELT work. While it includes planning, implementing, and evaluating, it also elaborates on these aspects. The center of our process is student learning and student performance as a result of learning. Because student learning is central, the design process is what is often referred to as backward design. *Backward design* refers to starting the curriculum process with the outcomes of student learning, that is, what will learners know and be able to do as a result of instruction (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998). Although we present the process as linear stages, as we have already indicated, in reality the process is cyclical and recursive. What is important is that all the components of the process are addressed. These components are provided in Table 6.1, along with sample questions that need to be asked to elicit information for each component. We then describe each stage, providing examples from a variety of different ELT contexts.

We do not refer to "method" or "methodology" in the process. Although method and methodology have been variously described by ELT professionals (see Kumaravadivelu, 1994 for a critique of method), we consider methodology to be the activities, tasks, and learning experiences used by the teacher within the teaching and learning process. Most teachers choose methodologies based on their assumptions about: (a) language, (b) second language learning, (c) teacher and learner roles, (d) effective learning activities, and (e) preferred instructional materials. We will refer to these specifics rather than a method or methodology

Table 6.1 Process of Curriculum Design

Stage	Sample Questions to Ask
Understanding the context	
Determining theoretical framework	What is the broad sociocultural context of learning? For example, does learning focus on critical thinking, on learner autonomy, or on learner resilience and flexibility? Is the belief that all learners can be successful? Is there a commitment to equity? What outcomes are expected of learners? What beliefs about language and language learning are to be articulated through the curriculum?
Conducting stakeholder analysis	Who are the stakeholders? What do they expect learners to be able to do? What expertise already exists in the institution? How committed are various stakeholders to curriculum development/renewal? What aspects of the curriculum will be new to the teachers?
Conducting needs analysis	What do learners already know and what are they able to do? What do they need to know and be able to do?
Developing curriculum relevant to the context	
Determining outcomes/goals	What are the intended goals of the curriculum? What will learners be able to do as a result of the curriculum? What will learners have to do to achieve those goals?
Selecting approach to curriculum design	What approach to curriculum design is most appropriate for the outcomes and goals? Are teaching staff educated in using this approach? If not, can professional development be conducted?
Selecting content (scope)	What language content needs to be taught so learners can achieve these goals?
Sequencing content	How should the content be organized? Should there be a number of courses to reach the goals?
Selecting learning materials and activities	What materials help learners acquire the content? What activities help learners achieve the course objectives? What roles do teachers and learners take?
Assessing learning	How will learners be placed in different courses? How will we determine what learners have achieved? What do we do with this information?
Designing professional development	What professional development content will teachers require to implement the curriculum effectively? What professional development processes should be used to deliver the content?

(*Continued*)

Table 6.1 (*Continued*)

Stage	Sample Questions to Ask
Evaluating the curriculum (impact study)	
Tying instruction to context	Does instruction reflect the theoretical framework?
	Are teachers teaching to the curriculum?
	Are learners engaged in the curriculum?
	What impact does the curriculum have on instruction?
Tying learning to context	Does student learning achieve the goals/objectives of the curriculum?
	Does this learning achievement meet student needs?
	Does this learning achievement meet stakeholder needs?
	What impact does the curriculum have on learning?

Adapted from Murray, D. E., & Christison, M. A. (2020). *What English Language Teachers Need to Know Volume II: Facilitating Learning*, (2nd ed., p. 13). Routledge.

because many different activities and materials can be used within the different methodologies.

Understanding the Context

As we indicated in Chapter 1, curricula "embody a society's vision for its future and play a vital role in achieving that vision" (Masters, 2020, n. p.). However, because societies are complex, groups within them may have conflicting views relative to the knowledge, skills, and personal attributes required by learners to achieve the vision. Therefore, understanding the context in which an English language curriculum will be enacted requires an examination of three different groups' visions for the specific curriculum: (a) educators' beliefs about language and language learning, (b) stakeholders' specific interests and roles, and (c) the goals and needs expressed by the learners themselves. Because the curriculum design process is recursive, not linear, the three sections that follow inform each other to provide an environmental scan of the context.

Determining a Theoretical Framework

In Table 5.1 we raised a number of questions that help curriculum developers determine the approaches to teaching the knowledge, skills, and personal attributes that learners are expected to acquire. While a necessary step is to understand this sociocultural perspective, the theoretical framework will be elaborated and adjusted through input from the stakeholder and needs analyses. In the vignette, Murray and her colleagues chose a curriculum that was

based on both a stakeholder analysis and their own views of language and the language learner. What initiated the need for a new curriculum was university administrators' desire to help English learners be successful in both Freshman Composition and in their other university courses. However, quite often the driver for curriculum innovation is particular views of language and/or learning. Often these views change with the advent of new administrators with different understandings or with administrators learning about new approaches from other institutions or countries. For example, when Estonia gained its independence, it developed a curriculum framework that moved away from uniformity and toward a model that was inquiry-based and grounded in a "belief in the development of the individual, a commitment to equity and social inclusion, and . . . that every Estonian student was capable of learning successfully" (Masters, 2020, n.p.). In the realm of ELT, the worldwide trend of teaching English to young learners has grown exponentially as different governments have worried that their citizens might be left behind in mastering the English needed for a globalized economy. Whatever the impetus for designing a new curriculum, it is essential to have a common understanding of language and language learning. However, often the understanding of language and language learning is mandated by administrators, without consultation with educators. In the situation in the vignette, the expertise of the ELT professionals engaged in the curriculum design was solicited and respected. However, such collaboration may not be the case in other contexts.

In the early 21st century, Thailand, like many other countries, embarked on an ambitious reform agenda across all sectors and subjects, including the ELT. One (of many) theoretical framework was based on the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) model in the United States, largely because some key stakeholders had experience with this model while studying there. This model has since been revised by ACTFL in partnership with other national organizations. The five interconnected areas around which the standards are written remain the same, however:

- Communication: communicate effectively in more than one language in order to function in a variety of situations and for multiple purposes.
- Cultures: interact with cultural competence and understanding.
- Connections: connect with other disciplines and acquire information and diverse perspectives in order to use the language to function in academic and career related situations.
- Comparisons: develop insight into the nature of language and culture in order to interact with cultural competence.

- Communities: communicate and interact with cultural competence in order to participate in multilingual communities at home and around the world.

> (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015)

Thailand is not the only country to have adopted a curriculum framework from another country. The crucial question to ask when designing a curriculum is whether curricular models or even aspects of a curriculum from one context can be imported (or exported) to a very different context. In the Thai situation, for example, not all of the ACTFL areas are relevant to all Thai learners. In ELT, there are many other examples where such adoptions, while having some impact on some of the players, were not able to sustain an innovation because of local beliefs about language and learning (see, for example, Canagarajah, 2001; Chick, 2001; Katz et al., 2008).

The professional association TESOL International has developed a theoretical framework for providing exemplary instruction to language learners (TESOL International, 2018). This framework consists of six principles:

1. know your learners,
2. create conditions for language learning,
3. design high-quality lessons for language development,
4. adapt lesson delivery as needed,
5. monitor and assess student language development, and
6. engage and collaborate within a community of practice.

> (p. 8)

These principles can be used as a starting point in the curriculum development process. However, as already mentioned, this framework interacts with the information gathered from the stakeholder and learner needs analyses, which we discuss next.

Conducting a Stakeholder Analysis

In one sense, the stakeholder analysis is part of an overall needs analysis. However, we discuss a stakeholder analysis and a learner needs analysis separately to emphasize the importance of both. Through a *stakeholder analysis*, curriculum designers can identify the roles of different groups with a vested interest in English language learning in their specific context. Stakeholder analyses can be conducted through focus groups, surveys, and interviews.

In many contexts, changes in national language policy have led to top-down curriculum renewal, such as the teaching of English to young learners. Local implementers may resist, reject, circumvent, adapt, or subvert curricular change if those expected to implement the curriculum are not engaged in its development (see Kennedy et al., 1999, for examples from China, Hong Kong, and Malaysia). These implementers include principals or directors, heads of departments, professional development personnel, school superintendents, teacher educators, and teachers, all of whom are key stakeholders. Teachers are ultimately the agents of change or not (Fullan, 1991) because they have the responsibility to enact the curriculum.

One such case that demonstrates the disconnect between the national policy and the implementers is the English Language Syllabus 2001 in Singapore, a top-down, large-scale curriculum change. The curriculum focused on language use, with the goal of teaching learners to communicate effectively in English so that they could use language meaningfully and appropriately. However, teachers reinterpreted the curriculum based on their own previous teaching experiences and their understandings of their learners' needs. They interpreted their learners' needs through the lens of the final national English language examination, which focused on reading, writing, and grammar[3] (Singapore Examinations and Assessment Board, 2005–2013). Hence, the teaching of speaking and listening was neglected (see Goh & Yin, 2008 for a full description of the design process).

The stakeholder analysis is vital to curriculum development. It is necessary not only to identify the stakeholders, but also to determine what roles they play in curriculum implementation and uptake. These roles then need to be considered in the design so that the implementation successfully achieves the curricular goals. In the Singapore example, teacher expertise and ability to work with the new curriculum were not sufficiently considered. Nor was the role of the Singapore Examinations and Assessment Board considered in order to ensure alignment between the national exam and the new curriculum.

In vocational and workplace English language instruction, the needs analysis of necessity includes a specific work-task needs analysis, usually conducted onsite and therefore includes stakeholder analysis.

> Task analyses are generally used in curriculum development as educators observe and record their observations of the discrete steps included in workplace tasks such as setting up the salad bar for a cafeteria or making change for a customer at the cash register.
>
> (Burt & Saccomano, 1995)

Stakeholders, such as management and unions, need to be consulted and participate in the curriculum development process. In addition to the specific workplace language requirements, both Australia and Canada have vocational systems that provide detailed competencies for different vocational skills nationally, many of which are communication skills. Such taxonomies need to be considered in vocational or workplace ELT curriculum development. There is, however, sometimes a mismatch between employers' and employees' needs. While employers want to focus on specific workplace communication, workers may be more interested in general English that will transfer to contexts outside of the workplace.

In addition to the stakeholders who are directly involved in curriculum, there are also stakeholders in the wider community. So, for example, in many countries, governments have established generic or employability skills required of all citizens. Where these exist, they may need to be included in the English language curriculum. In addition, there is the role of English in the broader community. In Chapter 3 we explored Kachru's (1986) three circles of Englishes and how and why different varieties are valued. Therefore, the stakeholder analysis needs to explore these issues for the particular context. Is English used for wider communication in the community or is it only a subject of study in schools? Are all varieties of English valued? Which variety is considered the appropriate language for instruction? What does the wider community expect from English language education? Is the goal of language teaching to support individual development or national economic development in a global world?

Conducting a Needs Analysis With Learners

For curricula to be effective they need to be based on the language learning needs of the learners in their specific contexts. However, this focus on learner needs is not always employed in curriculum design, as indicated by a teacher from a university in Thailand, who stated: "We just thought 'this' is what our students have to learn" (Burton et al., 2008, p. 62). There are two aspects of learner needs: (a) objective needs based on biographic data and (b) subjective needs based on wants and desires for instruction and the future (Nunan, 1985). While the latter are more difficult to ascertain, it is possible to uncover some of the learners' subjective needs as they relate to what and how they want to learn, which influence aspects of the curriculum, such as the content to be covered.

Given the wide range of contexts in which English is taught (see Chapter 3), it is easy to see that learner needs are dependent on the context of learning. Thus, many of the learners' needs are identified as a result of the data collected through the process of stakeholder analysis. However, curriculum designers also need to

conduct a needs analysis of their actual learners. In the vignette, the curriculum designers had researched the types of students who entered the university needing English language preparation prior to Freshman Composition. In addition, they had conducted a survey of students to uncover their language use and preferences (Murray et al., 1992). Such a survey or questionnaire needed to be designed to uncover learner identities, experiences, and goals. The students were sufficiently fluent in written English to be able to respond to the survey themselves. In other situations, an interview may be more appropriate so that the interviewer can check for comprehension. For beginners, a simple agree/disagree survey or a survey in their home or preferred language may be more appropriate.

The following list provides some sample questions for a learner needs analysis. This is not a questionnaire for any specific group of learners; rather, it includes sample items for different types of learners. For example, 10c and 10d would be appropriate for learners undertaking an academic curriculum, while 2, 3, 10e, and 10f might be appropriate for adult immigrants; and 10g and 10h would be appropriate for learners in an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course in the tourism or hospitality industry. Question 6 would be somewhat irrelevant in compulsory education unless English is offered as an elective. These questions are provided to illustrate the types of questions that can be asked and adapted for use in particular contexts.

1. What is your age?
2. What is your occupation?
3. What is your marital status? If married, do you have children?
4. How many and which languages do you speak?
5. How long have you been learning English?
6. Where did you learn English?
7. What will you do when you finish this course/program?
8. With whom do you use English?
9. Why are you learning English?

    a. to pass a school subject,
    b. to pass a gatekeeping examination,
    c. to settle in an English-dominant country,
    d. to work for a multinational company,
    e. to study in an English-medium university, or
    f. other.

10. How difficult are these tasks for you in English? very difficult OK easy

    a. asking questions in class,
    b. participating in group work in class,

   c. reading a subject matter textbook,
   d. writing reports,
   e. reading labels on food,
   f. talking to the doctor,
   g. writing emails in response to a travel inquiry,
   h. answering questions from a hotel guest,
   i. reading newspapers, and
   j. reading webpages in English.

11. Which skills are most important for you?

   a. listening,
   b. speaking,
   c. reading, and
   d. writing.

12. How do you like to learn? Rank your choices.

   a. in groups,
   b. by reading,
   c. by writing,
   d. by thinking by myself,
   e. by being told by the teacher, or
   f. by memorization.

13. How important is English to you? very a little not at all

---

Task: Explore

These sample questions cover identity, experiences, and goals. Rearrange the list so it is categorized under these three aspects. What other questions could you add for each category? Give an example of how you think these questions might influence curriculum?

   In addition to a learner-response survey, it is also necessary to conduct a placement assessment, so that learners can be assigned to classes that are appropriate for their level of English proficiency and also so that teachers can determine what aspects of English to start teaching.

Developing Curriculum Relevant to the Context

The context, explored through values and beliefs about language and language learning, and through stakeholder and learner needs analyses, provides the impetus for developing the goals and objectives, the curricular approach, and the materials and activities for the curriculum.

Determining Outcomes and Goals

Goals and objectives need to be measurable in order to assess student learning. By aligning objectives and assessments, it is possible to determine the extent to which learners have mastered the curricular goals and objectives. Most curricula have a small, limited set of goals (usually around five or six) for which specific sets of objectives are developed. Objectives may include specific language objectives of what learners should know and are able to do with the language. They may also include learning how-to-learn strategies, that is, the extent to which learners have become independent learners. Learners can reflect on their own learning process and develop strategies appropriate for the curriculum and that align with their own learning preferences to become more effective language learners. Learning-how-to-learn also includes strategies for understanding instructional activities and directions. These strategies are especially vital for young learners and older learners with limited literacy and prior experiences in classrooms, both of whom may be unfamiliar with the routines of schooling. Table 6.2 provides sample goals (both language and learning-how-to-learn) and some possible specific objectives.

Table 6.2 Sample Goals and Objectives

Goals	Sample Related Objectives
• **Language** To develop English language competency for professional purposes, applying English to real-life situations.	Learners will be able to • respond appropriately to common personal information questions • interpret wages, wage deductions, benefits, and timekeeping forms • follow, clarify, give, or provide feedback to instructions
• **Learning-how-to-learn** Learners will take responsibility for the management of their own learning.	• organize workbooks and folders • evaluate the usefulness of specific activities and resources • work effectively in groups • learn from mistakes

Selecting a Curricular Approach

In Chapters 9 through 22 we discuss the most common curricular arrangements in ELT. While all curricula need to include all aspects of language, including subject matter around which the language is taught, and consider the learner and learning, each curriculum has a particular orientation or starting point. For example, in Turkey's hotel management and tourism vocational high schools and two-year associate degree programs (Yeşiltaş et al., 2010), the curriculum choices could begin with functions (see Chapter 9): What language functions do hotel staff need to engage in? Therefore, the curriculum might be designed around functions, such as *apologizing*, *making a polite request*, or *making an offer*. Equally, the curriculum choices could begin with content: a hotel employee manual, a national park brochure, or an airline website. Although the rationale for the choice of approach should emerge from the theoretical framework, stakeholder analysis, learner needs analysis, and the goals and objectives, curricular choices are often made for reasons suggested earlier, such as changes in administration or new ideas.

Selecting Content

Language teaching is somewhat different from teaching other subjects because content includes both the language to be taught and the subject matter in which the language is embedded. The scope (see Chapter 1) determines *what* and *how* much language and subject matter is to be taught. When determining the scope of language for the curriculum, all the following aspects of language need to be considered:

- language structures,
- language skills,
- genres,
- registers,
- speech acts/functions,
- sociocultural appropriacy,
- process/product,
- generic skills, and
- non-language outcomes.

We include non-language, such as body language, in this list because different cultures have different conventions of body language use and learners need to understand what is appropriate for English in their particular context.

Although the curriculum in the vignette was designed to prepare learners for Freshman Composition, the curriculum did not focus on writing only. It included the three other skills. Reading was considered essential as part of preparation for academic success, and listening and speaking were considered as starting points and vehicles for instruction. Writing instruction included process and product, academic genres, and a focus on the language structures that came out of the readings or written assignments.

Although language structures can be taught as a subject matter, in teaching language in use, it is necessary to provide contexts for use as referred to in Table 6.2. The subject matter content through which the language learning can be delivered needs to be chosen based on curricular goals and objectives and the curricular approach. For example, in Turkey's hotel management and tourism vocational high schools, subject matter would be centered around hotel management and tourism (Scholey, 2012; Yeşiltaş et al., 2010). For beginning immigrants, the content might be centered around *survival topics*, such as visiting the doctor or shopping.

Sequencing Content

Once the scope has been determined, the next issue is how to sequence the language and subject matter content. Sequencing is more complicated in language instruction than in subject areas, such as arithmetic, where there is a logical progression. Additionally, sequencing depends on what learners acquire along the way. The sequencing also differs depending on the curricular approach chosen. For a structural approach (Chapter 9), the most common progression is from what structures are considered to be simple to what structures are considered more complex. For a content-based course, such as survival skills for new immigrants (Chapter 21), the progression is often based on what language they need immediately and what language they can wait to learn. In an adjunct approach (Chapter 15), the content depends on the subject matter of the course to which the language course is attached. Some questions to ask when deciding on sequencing are the following:

- What subject matter knowledge builds on previous knowledge?
- What language functions build on other functions, texts, and grammar?
- What grammar needs to be included so that learners have the language to create texts or engage in tasks?

Once the scope and sequence have been determined, materials and activities that facilitate learning can be chosen.

Selecting Learning Materials and Activities

Materials and activities need to translate the goals and objectives into learning experiences for students. Often, materials or activities are chosen because the teacher thinks learners will enjoy them, or they have just seen the activity demonstrated at a conference. In other situations, materials and activities are chosen because a particular textbook has been mandated by the program, institution, state, or country. However, materials and activities need to be aligned to the goals and objectives of the curriculum and chosen because they will help learners achieve those goals. As a result, materials and activities are usually developed once the curriculum goals and objectives have been established. As mentioned previously, in most contexts, individual teachers choose their methodologies for implementing the curriculum, although national frameworks often make suggestions of the methods they consider most appropriate for achieving the goals and objectives.

In the project in Turkey a rather different approach was used. The curriculum goal was rather general: to improve the language skills of students in Turkey's hotel management and tourism vocational high schools. Rather than writing a new curriculum, the project trained a core of excellent teachers from around the country in current Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) methodologies (see Chapter 15 for an in-depth discussion of this curricular approach), materials design, and course design. This core group of teachers then wrote the textbooks, with guidance from the project leaders. Teachers were trained in using the materials and the materials were piloted and revised. The rationale for this approach was that "[m]aterials have an immediate impact on classroom teaching, pushing teachers to reflect on the innovation and encouraging them to change their methodology and content" (Scholey, 2012). It was hoped, therefore, that as the materials were adopted, all teachers would change their teaching to be compatible with CLIL methodology.

Assessing Learning

Teachers and other stakeholders only know whether learners have learned and are able to use language through assessment. Assessment must be aligned to the goals and objectives of the curriculum. Assessment can be both formative and summative (see Volume II, Chapters 11 and 12 for full discussions of assessment). Formative assessment provides teachers and others, including learners, with ongoing information about how to adjust instruction. When the summative examination is not aligned to the objectives and goals, the examination

often becomes the de facto curriculum, as in the case of the English Language Syllabus 2001 in Singapore, which was discussed previously in this chapter. In some workplace and ESP curricula the most appropriate form of assessment is observation of the learners in their actual workplace or other setting. For example, a curriculum to teach managers in the electronics industry how to give presentations can be assessed by observing them giving a presentation in their workplace. In an ESP curriculum designed to prepare learners for undertaking a degree in accounting, the assessment might entail an assignment co-evaluated by both language and accounting instructors.

Designing Professional Development

We have discussed how the planned curriculum and the implemented curriculum are not always identical, for example, the case in Singapore. This mismatch often occurs because teachers were not participants in the design process and were not provided with professional development (PD) opportunities to help them understand the new curriculum. All curricular change requires PD for teachers and other educators at the instructional interface. The PD needs to address what skills and knowledge teachers already have, what they will need to learn, the policy intentions of the curriculum, and the outcomes expected of learners. "[T]eachers learn by doing, by reflecting and solving problems, and by working together in a supportive environment" (Yates & Brindley, 2000, p. 1). Therefore, "[p]rofessional development needs to be sustained, intensive, and focused on the actual classroom" (Murray & Christison, 2019, p. 255). Episodic workshops have been shown to be less effective than PD that is ongoing, collaborative, coherent, and context-based (Allright, 2003; Crandall & Christison, 2016). Therefore, to ensure that teachers have the knowledge and skills needed to implement the curriculum (and for learners to achieve the desired outcomes), PD programs need to allow teachers to trial the new ideas in their own classrooms and then explore their experiences with other teachers, with support from administrators and curriculum designers or other facilitators. Plans for continuing PD need to be built into the curriculum development process.

Evaluating the Curriculum

Evaluating the curriculum is a large topic in itself. Therefore, we have devoted Chapter 8 to this topic. In this chapter, we simply acknowledge that it is an essential part of the iterative curriculum design process.

Conclusion

Curricula are embedded in the sociocultural, political, and historic settings in which they are used. Therefore, curricula need to reflect the beliefs and values about language and language learning of the stakeholders. As a result, curricula are best designed for local use, rather than adopted from outside contexts. If teachers have the opportunity to design their own curriculum, either by themselves or with colleagues, they will need to use the dynamic process we have described as a guideline. Depending on their current context, they may be entering the process at any stage. Having assessed whether learners are achieving the goals and objectives, teachers then need to go back to the curriculum and adjust where needed.

Task: Expand

In this chapter, we have briefly addressed a broad range of issues related to the process of curriculum design. We were not able to go into detail on many topics. The following resources will expand your knowledge of some of these topics:

Murray, D. E., & Christison, M. A. (2019). *What English language teachers need to know Volume I: Understanding learning* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

This volume has chapters on identity and context, language awareness, and theories of language learning.

Murray, D. E., & Christison, M. A. (2020). *What English language teachers need to know Volume II: Facilitating learning* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

This volume has chapters on selecting and adapting materials, planning activities and managing classroom interaction, and assessment.

Questions for Discussion

1. For your context, explain the different stakeholders that need to be considered when designing curricula. What role does each play?
2. What is a needs analysis? How can it be conducted? Why is it important in planning instruction?

3. Who do you think should be involved in the various stages of curriculum design? Why?
4. Explain the relationship between language and subject matter in English language teaching.
5. How do you think you could avoid the problem that Singapore teachers had when trying to implement their new curriculum?

Notes

1. Most U.S. universities require students to take one or two courses in composition, unless they test out of the requirement. These courses are usually referred to generically as *Freshman Composition*.
2. Most U.S. universities require students to take a broad range of courses outside their major. At this university, these courses are labeled General Education (GE).
3. The Primary School Leaving Examination now includes listening and oral components.

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7

CONNECTING LESSONS, COURSES, AND PROGRAMS

VIGNETTE

In the past few years, the students enrolling in my content-based instruction (CBI) course at the university have become quite diverse. Not only do I have both graduate and undergraduate students in the same class, but I now have content area secondary teachers who will be working with English learners in math, science, history, social studies, and language arts; primary school pre-service teachers (up to Grade 5), English as a second language (ESL) teachers in the TESOL Certificate program, and foreign language teachers, who have a primary interest in teaching languages other than English, such as Spanish, French, Chinese, and Arabic. Even though all of the students are beginners in terms of their knowledge of CBI, they are very different in most other ways in terms of their backgrounds and profiles. Some students are only interested in U.S. K–12 public schools while others want to work outside of the United States in both private and public sectors. They also want to work with different learner populations, from young learners to adults and in both academic to non-academic contexts. Some have already had teaching experience, while others have not. These different backgrounds and profiles translate into very different needs in my classroom.

My brain has been churning for days, trying to figure out how to adjust my instruction to accommodate the varied and diverse needs of the pre-service teachers in my course. What could they possibly have in common with one another? Last week I collected samples of

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(continued)

student "work." The work consisted of a written lesson plan from a class they had previously taught or a lesson plan they had created and hoped to use in a future class they might teach. I asked students to provide a written explanation or diagram, showing me how the lesson fit into the course they taught or planned to teach and how the course fit into the program. As I was looking over the sample materials that I had collected, I realized that a theme had begun to emerge. Few of the materials that I looked at seemed to provide evidence of students' abilities to make the appropriate connections at either the instructional level in terms of course objectives and learning tasks in the classroom or at the curricular level in terms of courses, programs, or schools. In some cases, the required connections could have even been extended beyond a school or program. Although I realize that I have my work cut out for me in terms of meeting the needs of this diverse group of pre-service teachers, I now realize that all of them can benefit from specific instruction on making curricular connections.

[Christison, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. Why do you think the teacher in the vignette asked for a sample lesson plan from her students?
2. Why do you think the teacher in the vignette also asked her students to explain how their lesson plans fit into their courses and how the courses fit into the program or school curricula?
3. When you prepare a lesson plan, where do you begin? Why?

Introduction

In Chapter 6, we introduced the cycle of curriculum development in which three specific stages in the process were identified—understanding the context, developing curriculum relevant to the context, and evaluating the curriculum (see Table 6.1). Within each stage there are specific activities that must be

undertaken, such as conducting stakeholder and needs analyses, determining goals, selecting and sequencing content, selecting learning materials and tasks, assessing learning, and tying instruction and learning to the context. These activities are referred to as the component parts of the cycle of curriculum development. Because an effective curriculum must be connected through its component parts, Chapter 7 will focus specifically on how these component parts are connected to one another. A key principle in making curricular connections is that each of the component parts in the cycle of curriculum development must be addressed regardless of the approach to curriculum design that one selects.

General Approaches to Curriculum Design

There are two processes that influence how individuals approach curriculum design. In order to understand the tensions that frame curriculum design (i.e., how a process can be both linear and iterative), we discuss both of these processes briefly. We use the term *technological process* (Tyler, 1950) to describe how connections are made within a curriculum. The term as Tyler originally used it describes a curriculum development approach in which terminal outcomes (i.e., what learners are expected to know and be able to do) are articulated early in the process and then steps are identified to achieve those outcomes. In this sense, the curriculum design process that we propose in Chapter 6 with its component parts presented in a linear fashion is a technological process. Regardless of the level at which curriculum design occurs or the connections that one is making, developing curriculum relevant to the context begins with outcomes and goals and, then, considers the additional component parts: (a) determining the content or scope, (b) sequencing the content, (c) selecting the learning materials and tasks, and (d) assessing learning in relationship to outcomes.

The teacher educator in the vignette that introduces Chapter 7 came face-to-face with the political and contextual realities of creating and implementing curricula as she experienced a shift in learner needs. In the context of the real world, the process of developing curriculum relevant to the context must be flexible, recursive, and iterative. We use the term *naturalistic process* (Glatthorn et al., 2006) to refer to the features of the curriculum design process that must be responsive to the context; therefore, it is concerned with the curriculum that is implemented, rather than the one that was planned.

In some contexts, beginning with outcomes that derive from an appropriate theoretical framework, which keeps learners' and stakeholders' needs in mind, may be desirable but unrealistic. For example, one of us taught English as a second language (ESL) in a non-academic, life skills program for adults for a

number of years. We learned that we had been given funding on a Monday of one week and were told that the program had to begin providing instruction almost immediately. As a result, there was little opportunity for lengthy, advanced planning. Fortunately, we were able to hire three teachers within two days; however, there were no materials for teachers and no curriculum guides. These teachers entered the curriculum design process by focusing on the creation of learning materials and activities. There was no time to do otherwise. As the program continued, teachers and administrators were able to focus on the other components of the curriculum development process and were able to articulate outcomes for the adult English learners and develop a plan to evaluate the curriculum (see also the vignette in Chapter 22 for another example). As the example in the vignette demonstrates, curriculum planning and implementation are recursive and iterative, but they must also be linear in the sense that they address terminal objectives. In almost any context, there will be tensions between the technological and naturalistic processes.

Types of Connections

Language educators and curriculum designers are always challenged with the task of making useful and appropriate connections within a curriculum regardless of the approach they take. The teacher educator in the vignette identified the inability to make connections as a common problem for all of her students (both pre-service and in-service teachers) in her course. Making connections that are integral to the development of learner knowledge and skills takes careful planning, extensive knowledge on the part of teachers and curriculum designers, and teacher and learner participation in an ongoing assessment process.

The curriculum design process includes different types of connections depending on whether one is making connections within lessons, across lessons, across courses within a specific program, or across programs within a language-teaching center. Teachers who are implementing the curriculum design process at the level of an individual lesson plan may be concerned with, for example, how to make connections between the specified outcomes for the lesson and the tasks students are asked to do. In a content and language integrated curriculum (see Chapter 15), teachers must also be concerned with making connections between selecting and sequencing content and the creation of content objectives, as well as with making connections between content and language objectives.

As soon as teachers move beyond one individual lesson to a series of lessons for a course, other types of connections are needed. For example, the curricular focus may shift to include how the tasks in which students participate in one lesson prepare them to meet the objectives for another lesson. Teachers who are
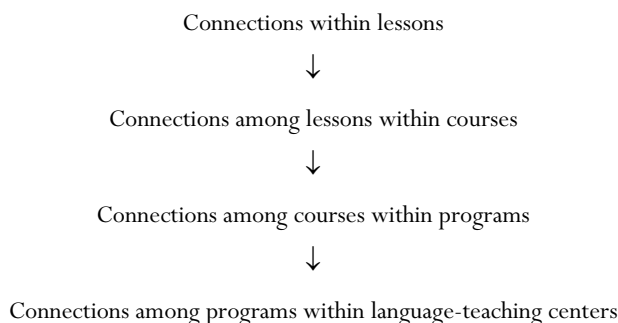
Connections within lessons

↓

Connections among lessons within courses

↓

Connections among courses within programs

↓

Connections among programs within language-teaching centers

Figure 7.1 Types of Connections in the Curriculum Design Process

responsible for teaching different courses within a program must be concerned with how the individual courses are connected to one another. For example, how do writing tasks in one course prepare learners to complete the writing tasks for a project in a subsequent course? Administrators of English language centers, which may include several different programs, must consider how the programs within the center are connected. For example, how are several very different programs connected to the center's goals and objectives?

In this chapter, we provide examples of how connections can be actualized at different levels of the curriculum design process, for example within lessons, within courses, and within programs. The types of connections one makes in the curriculum design process are similar metaphorically to the *matryoshka* dolls (Russian nesting dolls) that fit neatly inside one another (see Figure 7.1).

Making Connections Within Lessons

There are a number of important connections that need to be made within lessons. These connections include the following: (a) creating lesson objectives for both content and language, (b) selecting and sequencing content, (c) identifying essential or key questions, (d) developing learning tasks, and (e) assessing learning.

From a technological process point of view, lesson planning begins with the articulation of terminal learning objectives, and many second language teacher educators (SLTEs) suggest beginning with terminal objectives even though they recognize that the process of planning a lesson is not a linear one. There are several reasons for this preference in ordering. First, learning objectives are statements that represent what learners need to know and be able to do at the completion of a lesson; as such, they serve as natural connectors between

who is doing the learning, *what* is being learned, and *how* the learning is taking place (see Murray & Christison, 2019 for more information on writing objectives).

Teachers often arrive at learning objectives by asking key or essential questions. These are broad questions that learners should to be able to answer at the culmination of instruction, rather than after one activity or one class period. One of us (Christison) recently observed a third-grade teacher in the United States who was working with 17 English language learners (ELLs) in a class of 30 children. She was working on a theme called "Living Things" with a series of topics and sub-topics. The topic covered during the class was flowering plants (i.e., angiosperms) with sub-topics of monocots and dicots. The key questions she wanted students to be able to answer were the following: What are the properties of angiosperms (flowering plants)? How do monocot and dicot plants differ? In order to answer these questions, students needed to cover multiple sub-topics and participate in a variety of instructional tasks that extended over a series of lessons. The sub-topics included types of flowing plants (monocots vs. dicots), the characteristics of leaves, parts of a flower, and qualities of the vascular (i.e., circulatory) system in plants. In addition, all learners participated in a plant dissection activity and created posters featuring the plants that had been dissected and then labeled. Through the creation of their posters and their group presentations, they showed they could answer the key questions.

Learning objectives and course content must also be connected. The connection is an obvious one: the content selected is based on what learners are expected to know and be able to do. The learning activities and tasks should also be aligned with corresponding learning objectives to facilitate the fulfillment of course goals (Fink, 2003). Finally, the procedures that are used to evaluate the extent to which the corresponding learning objectives (i.e., the assessments) have been met are used to reinforce course and program outcomes and should mirror the content and learning tasks used as a part of the instructional process.

In summary, connections within lessons revolve around three important concepts: (a) the input that learners receive, (b) the tasks and activities used to acquire new skills and knowledge, and (c) the way in which learner output or performance is assessed (see Figure 7.2).

<div align="center">Input ⟺ Tasks or activities ⟺ Output (assessments)</div>

Figure 7.2 Connections Within Lessons

Making Connections Among Lessons

Lessons should be connected in obvious ways to courses. The most common way for lessons to be connected to one another is through outcome statements. Outcome statements are more commonly referred to as course or program goals. Goals typically define the purpose or end product of learning for a course or program and provide answers to the following questions: What is the overall purpose of the course or program? How will the learner be changed as a result of participation in the course or program? Each lesson should contribute to helping learners achieve the goal of the course. For example, if the course goal is to assist English learners in the development of academic writing skills, then each lesson should be focused on some aspect of academic writing and contribute towards the achievement of the course goal. A lesson that focused on writing in non-academic contexts would likely not contribute directly to the achievement of that course goal.

Lessons can be linked through the careful sequencing of content (see Chapter 15 for a discussion of content connections in planning curriculum and Murray & Christison, 2019). Lesson content is linked through content topics; topics are linked to themes, and threads are used to link themes (Stoller & Grabe, 2017). In addition to content, lessons can be linked through instructional tasks that support the completion of a project, such as a sequence of lessons that focus on writing a five-paragraph essay by completing individual tasks that are part of the writing process. Lessons can be connected to one another in other ways as well, such as through the development of specific vocabulary, grammar skills, or job skills or through the use of standards. There are several options for making connections among lessons. It does not matter so much what options curriculum developers and teachers choose; the important principle to remember is that there must be an obvious connection.

Making Connections Among Courses

Programs are made up of a series of courses, and the courses within a program must also be connected to one another in a logical and useful way. Building a cohesive set of courses for an English language program in any context begins with careful planning and the development of maps or templates (Jacobs, 2004). These maps or templates serve as tools for the creation and the assessment of the courses. In practice, curriculum designers of English language teaching programs have conceptualized the connection of courses within programs in traditional ways, such as through language skills (e.g., listening, reading, writing, and speaking or pronunciation) (see Chapter 14 on language skills); grammatical

Table 7.1 Curriculum Map or Template for Connecting Courses

	Course 1	Course 2	Course 3	Course 4
Key or essential questions				
Objectives				
Content				
Tasks and activities				
Assessments				

structures (see Chapter 9 on the structural syllabus) for different levels of language proficiency; or academic skills (see Chapter 11 on academic functions), such as outlining, taking notes, or writing an essay. While these different ways of connecting courses are useful for helping teachers make logical connections in a general sense, they are less useful in the assessment process.

A less common approach to connecting courses within programs is the use of curriculum maps or templates. In this approach, we are suggesting that the components that teachers use to make connections within lessons (i.e., key or essential questions, objectives, content, tasks, and assessments) are mapped across courses using a map or template such as the one in Table 7.1.

In English language programs, courses are often connected at different proficiency levels. Curriculum maps or templates can be created for each proficiency level and reviewed by instructors, supervisors, curriculum designers, program directors, and other key administrators. By looking at each of the components horizontally and across courses, it is possible to determine how the components can be linked together.

Task: Explore

Work with another teacher. Create a curriculum template using the components for your course that are identified in Table 7.1. What connections do you see between your courses? What changes would you need to make in the curriculum template in order to have stronger connections between the two courses?

Making Connections Among Programs

It is also possible to make connections among programs. For example, in some contexts, there are English language-teaching centers, which are administrative

units that are made up of different types of programs. It is possible that a center may oversee a program that focuses on providing English language instruction for adults working for local businesses. In addition, the same center may offer an academic writing program for students who have been admitted to the university, as well as specific content and language integrated programs (see Chapter 15) for specific departments within the university, such as engineering or business administration. Centers that have clearly articulated goals and objectives might make decisions to include programs based on how they support the center's overall goals and objectives. In other words, before adding new programs or when deciding whether to continue a program, centers would need to determine the overall fit of the programs for the center. It is likely that similar questions would need to be addressed by university departments that offer credit-bearing courses and programs for academic English learners. K–12 programs for English learners in the United States might be connected at either the school or district levels. The specific way in which English language teaching programs are connected to one another is dependent on the context, but in each context, curriculum designers must ask the following question: How are the seemingly different programs connected?

Making Connections Beyond Programs or Language-Teaching Centers

There are connections or levels of coherence that go beyond lessons, courses, programs, or centers. For some programs and centers, there is also a need to make connections with a specific discipline, for example, math, social studies, or history. These connections are often articulated in terms of standards (see Chapter 22) or benchmarks (see, for example, *Wisconsin's Standards for Social Studies* (Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 2018). In addition to the coherence in a curriculum provided by the internal organization of lessons, units, courses, programs, and centers, a curriculum may also derive coherence from a discipline or across fields by focusing on issues, themes, or real-life phenomena that are manifested in standards or competencies. Making connections beyond programs or centers is important for learners who must pass standardized tests or exams and will be in competition with students from other centers for jobs and other career opportunities.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have focused on the importance of coherence in curriculum design through a discussion of how both technological and naturalistic

approaches are valuable in making connections. We have also discussed the different types of connections that teachers and curriculum designers must consider. These connections include how teachers make decisions within lessons when they consider how to connect instructional tasks to learning objectives to the connections that administrators make in connecting courses and programs. We also provided a brief discussion of connections that go beyond specific programs and centers to connect with disciplines or fields of study through the use of standards.

Task: Expand

From the following list, visit the website that seems most appropriate for the context in which you work or see yourself working in the future. Find the standards documents on the website and review the standards. Some websites like WIDA and TESOL have more than one set of standards, so choose the one that is most appropriate. What types of connections do you see in the standards you reviewed? For what context would they be useful? Share your results with a peer.

1. www.wida.wisc.edu
2. www.cambridgeenglish.org
3. www.pearsonpte.org
4. www.TESOL.org

Questions for Discussion

1. In your own words, explain the differences between the technological and naturalistic processes in curriculum design and the importance of each in the process.
2. Give an example from your own experiences as either a teacher or a learner of how curriculum design is both linear and iterative.
3. Discuss at least two different types of connections that curriculum designers must consider.
4. In your own words, explain Table 7.1 to a peer.
5. If you were a program or center administrator, would you encourage the use of curriculum maps or taxonomies for connecting the components of the curriculum? Why? Why not?

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QUALITY ASSURANCE AND THE CURRICULUM

VIGNETTE

I am working with colleagues in an English language program in Australia to develop a quality assurance system for the center. We begin by identifying the different functions of the center, from course design and delivery to teacher selection and development to student movement from marketing to graduation. We have the staff who are responsible for each function delineate what the process of that function is by creating a reiterative process map or flow chart. For example, the course design and delivery function includes market research, academic research, choice of delivery modes, curriculum development, materials development, assessment and testing, accreditation, syllabus and lesson planning, course delivery, continuous improvement, and back again to market research and so on. Process maps for all functions include continuous improvement. Within each aspect of the function are listed its component parts around which decisions are made, including who is responsible for that particular component. So, for example, delivery mode includes internal, external, onshore, offshore, online, on campus, and multi campus. We are discussing continuous improvement for course design and delivery and have agreed that it should include student feedback, stakeholder feedback, convener (the person who coordinates multiple sections of the same course) reports, Academic Coordinator reports, tracking studies of students after they leave the program, self-assessment by teachers, all of which are currently conducted. Our next step will be to develop quality standards for these activities. We are guided to

(continued)

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some extent by our external accreditation body. However, we also engage in some additional quality control activities, such as the moderation of student assessment. All student final examinations/projects are graded by two teachers, and the grades are compared. We wonder how we can measure improvement in this activity. How great a variation in scores between teachers is acceptable? How can we achieve this moderation more efficiently without increasing teachers' workloads?

[Murray, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. Why do you think it is important to delineate the functions and processes of an organization?
2. How might this group of teachers come to closer agreement on grading?
3. How might this group of teachers analyze the feedback they receive for continuous improvement? What should they do with this feedback?
4. Do you agree with the list of continuous improvement methods? What would you do differently? Why? Share your ideas with a colleague.

Introduction

Quality assurance (QA) became popular in manufacturing and industry, where the importance of quality products can mean the success or failure of a company. It has, however, been taken up in educational circles, especially as governments and other stakeholders have demanded accountability from educators. This does not mean that educational enterprises had previously ignored quality, but rather that many of them did not feel the need for external evaluations of their quality. Internally, their own expertise told them what was and what was not quality. This attitude can be seen across educational curricula from decisions about whom to hire, to what should be included in instruction, to how learners are

to be evaluated. Parallel to this internal self-assurance about quality are systems for accrediting professional programs, such as for law and medicine, as well as program reviews of schools and departments, which are often conducted by an external reviewer. As we saw in the vignette, some language programs are also externally accredited. In this chapter, we focus on the importance of assuring quality in curriculum design. We define what is meant by quality in English language education, outline several approaches to QA, examine the methods for collecting data on quality, provide guidelines for the process of developing quality standards, and discuss the role of curriculum evaluation in the QA process.

Task: Reflect

Think about your own organization. How is quality defined? How is it measured? What is measured? How is this information disseminated? To whom is it disseminated? How is the information used?

Defining Quality

In the educational literature, there is no agreement about what constitutes quality or even what aspects of an institution need to ensure quality. It is considered an elusive and intangible concept by many (Sallis, 2002). "In language program contexts, quality becomes a function of student perceptions, student satisfaction, and the degree to which an institution can match or exceed stakeholder expectations" (Mercado, 2012, pp. 117–118). Some educators even question the integrity of student satisfaction as a measure of quality, concerned that students may not be the best judges of program quality (McNaught, 2009). Therefore, although teachers and administrators may believe that they know quality when they see it, they also need to examine quality from the perspective of their stakeholders. However, this does not negate their professional expertise or that of other professionals in the field. Parsons (1994), for example, considers three components of quality: client, professional, and management. By *professional quality*, he means whether the program meets the needs of clients as they are perceived by professionals. *Management quality* refers to the efficient use of resources to meet the goals of the organization. The Sloan Consortium,[1] on the other hand (Moore, 2005), identified five pillars of quality in online higher education: (a) learning effectiveness, (b) cost effectiveness and institutional commitment, (c) access, (d) faculty satisfaction, and (e) student satisfaction. From

these disparate views of quality, we can see general agreement that quality refers to perceived effectiveness of the institution in achieving its goals, vague as this definition is. For us, therefore, *quality assurance* is a system that examines both inputs, that is, all aspects of the language program, as well as outcomes, that is, student learning. For example, in the vignette, all the aspects (functions) of the program were delineated, as well as the processes involved in each function. Trying to operationalize quality is where it becomes more tangible, less elusive, and measurable. The next section describes some of the different approaches to operationalizing quality.

Approaches to Quality Assurance

Many approaches to QA are focused on systems, processes, and documentation, rather than continuous improvement. The former is the most common approach in accreditation schemes and used in the International Standards Organization (ISO), while the latter is the hallmark of Total Quality Management (TQM). As already indicated, many institutions undertake generic accreditation, rather than accreditation specific to English language teaching (ELT). For example, in Australia, universities are self-accrediting; however, they must meet the regulatory requirements of the Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency (TEQSA), which regulates all institutions of higher education (from diploma and above). TEQSA has established an Australian Qualifications Framework and a Higher Education Standards Framework, as well as a National Code of Practice for Registration Authorities and Providers of Education and Training to Overseas Students. TEQSA's goal "is to protect student interests and the reputation of Australia's higher education sector through a proportionate, risk-reflective approach to quality assurance that supports diversity, innovation and excellence" (TEQSA, 2020, n.p.). ELT programs within the university are, therefore, subject to this system, but may also choose to meet the standards of the National ELT Accreditation Scheme (NEAS), which provides quality assurance services and endorsement for everyone in the English Language Teaching community—language centers, ELT professionals, recruiting agents, and products and services, such as, homestay providers. Most ELT providers choose to obtain quality endorsement from NEAS because the field has long recognized its quality standard setting.

In the United States, many educational institutions seek regional accreditation from their regional Accrediting Commission for Schools (ACS), such as the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (ACS-WASC), the Northwest Commission on Colleges and Universities (NWCCU), and the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS). The ACS works with public,

independent, church-related, international schools, and proprietary pre-K–12 and adult schools. ACS-WASC organizes its standards for international schools around four areas: (a) organization for student learning; (b) curriculum, instruction, and assessment; (c) support for student personal and academic growth; and (d) school culture and environment. The curriculum and instruction standard has three sub-areas: what students learn, how students learn, and how assessment is used (for both accountability and for assessing student ongoing classroom learning, that is, summative and formative assessments). Each has a standard for the institution to meet. For example, the standard for what students learn states:

> The school provides a challenging, coherent, and relevant international curriculum for each student that fulfills the school's purpose and results in student achievement of the expected school wide learner outcomes through successful completion of any course of study offered.
>
> (ACS-WASC, 2017, p. 12)

Additionally, the WASC Senior College and University Commission (WSCUC) accredits degree-granting colleges and universities. All these institutions may also seek voluntary accreditation for their ELT programs through the Commission on English Language Program Accreditation (CEA). Although voluntary, institutions that wish to accept international English language students can choose CEA accreditation (among others) so that they can enroll such students. We discuss both NEAS and CEA in more detail later in this chapter.

Some educational institutions seek accreditation from agencies with a more focused remit, such as the Distance Education and Accreditation Commission (DEAC), which "operates as an institutional accreditor of distance education institutions" (DEAC, 2020). DEAC has standards such as curriculum delivery, educational media and learning resources, examination and other assessments, and student achievement and satisfaction, most of which are input measures of quality. The curriculum is reviewed by an external reviewer and evaluators conduct an onsite visit during which they interview key staff and faculty, which is typical of other accrediting agencies discussed earlier. Another approach is that taken by the organization Quality Matters, which focuses on quality in online and blended courses in both higher education and K–12 education. For higher education, they have eight general standards, with 42 specific standards (see Quality Matters, 2018 for details of these standards). The general standards areas are:

1. course overview and introduction,
2. learning objectives (competencies),

3. assessment and measurement,
4. instructional materials,
5. learning activities and learner interaction,
6. course technology,
7. learner support, and
8. accessibility and usability.

Although focused on quality in online and blended courses, it is clear from this list that for Quality Matters, technology does not drive either the curriculum or quality. In fact, a useful aspect of their approach is the concept of alignment. By this they mean that Standards 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 "work together to ensure students achieve desired learning outcomes" (Quality Matters, 2016–2020, n.p.). This focus on learning outcomes aligns with the focus on learning that ASC-WASC takes.

We provide more details of accreditation in the ELT field in this chapter and then provide a brief discussion of TQM. The agencies we discuss for ELT are NEAS and CEA, as representative of ELT accreditation.

ELT Accreditation

ELT accreditation is offered in a number of countries, in addition to NEAS in Australia and CEA in the United States. For example, the United Kingdom has Accreditation UK, which is managed as a partnership between the British Council and the industry association, English UK. In Canada, Languages Canada has developed a QA framework and language providers are evaluated on the framework by an independent third-party audit firm, Orion. In New Zealand, English New Zealand is responsible for the accreditation and quality assurance of many ELT centers in-country and abroad, while the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) is responsible for overseeing certificate-awarding ELT courses and language teacher education programs, among many other qualifications. Additionally, WIDA's five English Language Proficiency Standards provide a framework for quality instruction in K–12. The WIDA framework is discussed in detail in Chapter 22.

CEA. Although U.S.-based, CEA's mission is to "promote excellence in the field of English language teaching and administration, as well as to protect the interests of students, through the accreditation of English language programs and institutions worldwide" (CEA, 2020). As well as accrediting language programs within colleges and universities, it also accredits stand-alone ELT programs.

CEA has 11 standards areas, with 44 total standards. The 11 areas are those required by the Secretary of the U.S. Department of Education for accrediting agencies who wish to be approved by that department. Such approval allows the agency to accredit institutions that can accept international students. The standards areas include: mission; curriculum; faculty; facilities, equipment, and supplies; administrative and fiscal capacity; student services; recruiting; length and structure of program of study; student achievement; student complaints; and program development, planning, and review. The standards for curriculum are shown in Figure 8.1.

The standards are evaluated through a self-study by the institution, followed by a site visit from three trained evaluators who visit classes, conduct a tour of facilities, and interview administrators, faculty, and students in order to verify the contents of the self-study report. Throughout the process, CEA staff provide feedback and guidance. The process provides an opportunity for the institution to reflect on its own practice and provide data to demonstrate how it meets the standards.

NEAS Like CEA, NEAS is a non-profit agency that endorses English language programs in universities and stand-alone ELT programs, although it is not responsible for accreditation in Australia, which is monitored by a government agency. NEAS also accredits ELT programs in vocational colleges and in schools.

Curriculum Standard 1:
The curriculum is consistent with the mission of the program or language institution, appropriate to achieve the organization's goals and meet assessed student needs, and available in writing.
Curriculum Standard 2:
Course goals, course objectives, and student learning outcomes are written, appropriate for the curriculum, and aligned with each other. The student learning outcomes within the curriculum represent significant progress or accomplishment.
Curriculum Standard 3:
The instructional materials and methodologies are appropriate and supportive of course objectives.

Figure 8.1 Commission on English Language Program Accreditation Curriculum Standards (2020, n.p.).

Like CEA, it also has a global mission and members. Because the scope of NEAS extends beyond the program level, to include recruiting agents, individual professionals, and resources, the framework has 12 quality standard areas:

1. teaching, learning, and assessment;
2. the student experience;
3. resources and facilities;
4. administration, management, and staffing;
5. promotion and student recruitment;
6. welfare of students aged under 18 years;
7. strategy, risk, and governance;
8. online delivery;
9. ELT qualifications;
10. Education Agents;
11. products and services; and
12. ELT professionals.

(NEAS, 2019, p. 2)

The standard for teaching, learning, and assessment consists of six quality principles. Principles include: (a) course design supports quality learning outcomes; (b) course delivery, assessment, and teaching approaches optimize outcomes for students; and (c) students are encouraged to take control of their language learning. Each quality principle is supported by quality drivers, which identify the key elements of the principle that need to be employed to achieve and demonstrate quality. For example, two drivers of the course design principle require that "courses are designed to meet student learning needs, goals, and interests" and that "each course has specific objectives, which are achieved through detailed learning outcomes" (p, 4).

These two examples show that, although a range of methods and activities are promoted in the NEAS system, the approach to curriculum design values specific objectives, which would permit most of the approaches we describe in Chapters 9–22. However, it would be quite difficult for a negotiated curriculum approach (see Chapter 17) to meet the criteria.

Neither CEA nor NEAS focuses on continuous improvement although NEAS does require language centers to commit to continuously improving quality through systematic feedback from stakeholders, which is fed back into the quality improvement cycle (also a feature of ASC-WASC). TQM is the approach most often associated with continuous improvement, which is examined next.

Total Quality Management (TQM)

TQM focuses on continuous improvement, customer satisfaction, and the responsibility for quality resting with all involved in the enterprise, whether as suppliers, the workforce, or management. The goal is for employees to identify areas that need to improve and ways of improving them. Employees are seen as a team who are all working together to improve customer satisfaction. In education, several writers have expressed caution about implementing a TQM approach. They note that team work has not been traditional in either universities or schools, and also, as indicated earlier, that student satisfaction may not be the best measure of quality because students are poor judges of satisfaction. Bogue (1998) goes so far as to say that students can state they are highly satisfied in a survey and yet remain uneducated. He also argues that for systems to develop quality, they need to go beyond accreditation and assessment and include values and ethics. "Quality can only be defined in relation to the articulated values and purposes and the desired processes and outcomes of a particular program or service" (McNaught, 2009, p. 161).

For example, in the vignette, we described how one of us (Murray) worked with staff and faculty to develop a QA system for an English language program. As part of this process, we developed a Customer Service Charter, which was placed in prominent places where students and other stakeholders interacted with our staff. The Charter listed our mission and goals, but also delineated our service standards as:

> When you contact Aristotle Language Centre,[2] you can expect an innovative institution, which is well-resourced, offers a pleasant and safe environment, and maintains the highest standards. Our staff are dedicated professionals who are friendly and approachable. You can also expect us to
>
> - be courteous, efficient, and responsive to your needs,
> - be culturally sensitive and value the diversity of our customers,
> - provide up-to-date information about our products and services,
> - exercise the utmost integrity in providing services and programs, and
> - not disclose any information about you without your consent, except as permitted by law.
>
> (Murray, research notes)

Despite the possible limitations of TQM in education, the language center in the vignette did develop a continuous improvement process, which we will now describe.

Developing a Continuous Improvement Quality System

As indicated in the vignette, we first mapped out flow charts for the various activities of each unit in the organization. We had an overall QA leader and QA lead people in each unit. They developed the format for the mapping exercise. In the case of the English Language Programs (ELP) unit described in the vignette, maps were developed for each of the activities. As indicated for course design in the vignette, the mapping showed the processes within that activity. They also identified who was responsible for the activity and established a goal for the activity. Below are the six activities and the goals for each:

- student movement (goal: to ensure the most efficient and effective processing of students towards the achievement of their academic goals);
- physical facilities and environment (goal: to ensure the provision of professional facilities and a safe environment in which ELP will achieve its goals);
- teacher selection and development (goals: (a) to recruit qualified teachers with a diversity of skills and experience, while maximizing professional opportunities for all staff and (b) to achieve the strategic goals of ELP and the individual professional goals of all staff members by providing a range of high-quality professional development programs and research opportunities);
- course design and delivery (goal: to develop and ensure high-quality delivery of innovative academic programs based on careful identification of student needs and current ELP and TESOL research);
- independent learning center (goals: (a) to facilitate the independent development of English language and study skills by providing a comprehensive collection of ESL and other relevant resources and services for students and teachers and (b) to maintain a close liaison with teachers and to regularly disseminate information about available resources); and
- English for academic purposes (goal: to assist undergraduate students of non-English speaking background to achieve their academic goals and to integrate into the academic community by providing courses in English language and academic study skills and other support services).

English for academic purposes (EAP) was mapped separately because the EAP courses were credit-bearing for the university, unlike the other language courses, which prepared students for university or were stand-alone language courses. Within these activities some of the individual activities required their own maps. For example, teacher selection and development contained eight areas, two of which, induction of new teachers and professional development, had their own

goals and processes mapped. Having mapped our activities, we then examined how we could obtain data in order to improve quality on an ongoing basis.

Major Methods for Continuous Improvement

The major methods we devised were:

- formal and informal feedback;
- surveys, consultations, and focus groups;
- self-evaluation;
- course evaluation by students;
- complaints handling;
- system monitoring/data analysis;
- work redesign;[3]
- staff meetings;
- teacher action research;
- professional development; and
- mentoring.

Because curriculum is the central focus of an ELT institution, evaluating the quality of the curriculum is an essential component of QA. Mercado (2012), for example, suggests the following methods for continuous improvement of the curriculum:

- classroom observation;
- teacher input, such as offering suggestions or posing questions;
- exploratory scanning studies (focusing on specific aspects of the program) through

    - observation,
    - student language samples,
    - test results, and
    - action research;

- academic quality markers, such as

    - why students choose the program, and
    - what students consider when making their selection, and what students consider to be quality practices and service;

- training reports, such as during professional development; and
- environmental scanning, that is, assessing trends and issues outside the institution.

While the methods used by the center in the vignette and by Mercado at his institution provide ways of getting feedback from various stakeholders, from students to staff to funding bodies, the questions asked in surveys or focus groups and the focus of professional development all require a clear understanding of what the institution aims to achieve. While the goals can act as overarching areas for feedback, the key issue is how an organization knows when it has or has not achieved its goals. Therefore, there is a need for quality standards.

Developing Quality Standards

Quality standards may derive from a number of different sources, including:

- accreditation requirements;
- legislation and regulations;
- strategic and other plans;
- position descriptions, organizational charts, and awards;
- contracts, agreements, and schedules;
- professional association guidelines;
- research and best practice;
- national standards associations; and
- education and training.

When developing quality standards, all of the above sources need to be examined to determine which ones are binding standards (e.g., legislation or accreditation). In practice, accreditation agencies include any obligatory legislation or regulations. However, in some contexts, there are no accrediting agencies and then legislation and regulation provide the overarching standards. In the earlier section on accreditation we provided samples of standards from two ELT accreditation/endorsement agencies, samples that can be used by institutions whether they seek accreditation or wish to evaluate the quality of their programs.

Feedback Loops

Many, if not all, of the standards in most accreditation schemes focus on either having a QA system in place and/or the components of quality (e.g., CEA), rather than on ensuring continuous improvement as in the TQM model. To ensure continuous improvement, the language center described in the vignette included continuous improvement in all its maps. We conducted audits, based on the goals and standards, leading to recommendations for improvement in each area. Each recommendation was accompanied by the name/title of the

person responsible for implementing the improvement and the date by which it was to be completed. For example, in the teacher selection and development activity, some of the recommendations were that:

- the techniques of lesson planning be incorporated in the ELP teacher professional development program, and
- the curriculum framework be continually revised and refined to maximize teaching and learning for teachers and students.

These recommendations, as well as when, how, and with what effect they are achieved, then became the basis for determining whether improvement had been realized.

Task: Explore

If you are teaching, explore how QA is handled in your institution. How is it similar to or different from the discussion in this chapter? How would you develop a plan to introduce a rigorous, viable QA system in your organization?

Conclusion

This chapter has examined QA, whether it is to meet accreditation requirements or develop an institution committed to continuous improvement. For accountability, it is vital for institutions to be able to demonstrate the quality of all aspects and processes of their work. In Chapter 6 we described the various components of the curriculum design process. Each component needs to be part of the quality process. Mercado (2012) indicates that QA is not just valuable in and of itself, but it leads to student (and other stakeholder) satisfaction, which in turn enhances the reputation and in turn the durability of the program.

Task: Expand

Chalmers, D., Lee, K., & Walker, B. (2008). *International and national quality teaching and learning*. Retrieved from www.researchgate.net/publication/ 228622724_International_and_national_quality_teaching_and_learning_per formance_models_currently_in_use

This research report provides a comparison of quality assurance systems in higher education in 16 countries around the world.

McNaught, C. (2009). Ensuring quality programs. In M. A. Christison & D. E. Murray (Eds.), *Leadership in English language education* (pp. 156–171). Routledge.
This chapter provides an excellent overview of quality assurance models and their application to English language teaching.

Mercado, L. A. (2012). Guarantor of quality assurance. In M. A. Christison & F. L. Stoller (Eds.), *A handbook for language program administrators* (2nd ed., pp. 117–136). Alta English Publishers.
This chapter also provides an excellent overview for ELT QA.

The major accreditation/QA agencies that accredit or endorse quality ELT programs in the English-speaking world all have their own websites:

In Australia, National ELT Accreditation Scheme (NEAS) quality standards are available at: https://neas.org.au/about/

Information about Accreditation UK can be found at their website: www.british-council.org/accreditation.htm

Languages Canada standards are available at: www.orioncan.com/en/languages-canada

New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) standards are available at: www.nzqa.govt.nz/

CEA standards are available at: www.cea-accredit.org/

Questions for Discussion

1. Explain the relationship between QA and accreditation.
2. Why do you think the Sloan Consortium included access in its five pillars of quality?
3. What are at least two reasons why continuous improvement might be important for ELT programs?
4. Why do you think some people are critical of TQM?
5. What do you think is missing from CEA's curriculum standards?

Notes

1. The Sloan Consortium is now the Online Learning Consortium.
2. This is a pseudonym.
3. Work redesign was a formal process developed in consultation between university management and the union. This process was used when there were major changes in staff assignments or management structures.

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Part III

LINGUISTIC-BASED CURRICULA

In Part III, we present six different approaches to curriculum design that are linguistic-based in origin. By linguistic-based, we mean that these approaches to curriculum design are based on certain features of language (e.g., grammatical structures, language functions, or text types) that are given prominence for the purposes of organizing and designing curriculum. Chapter 9 presents the most common type of linguistic-based curriculum, a structural approach. It is based on the presentation and sequencing of grammatical structures and on an approach to teaching grammatical structure (i.e., to the form, meaning, and use) within a communicative framework.

The content of Chapters 10 and 11 is focused on language functions. In Chapter 10 we look at a notional-functional approach. It is based on what learners communicate through language. The starting point for this approach is based on social language functions, such as asking for directions, asking for help, greeting information, or giving personal information, but it also includes referential language to include metalinguistic notions. Chapter 11 narrows the focus of language functions to academic language functions. These are the language functions that language learners need to master to become successful learners in academic environments.

Chapter 12 features a genre- or text-based approach to curriculum design with text types, both written and spoken, serving as resources for making meaning. In this approach, the features of the particular text being taught determine the selection of grammatical structures and other linguistic features for instruction. Vocabulary is fundamental in the language learning process; consequently, it plays a major role in the design of curriculum. Chapter 13 focuses on the complex process of constructing a curriculum that promotes the acquisition of vocabulary and understanding the role that vocabulary plays in designing curriculum across various approaches.

The last chapter in Part III is Chapter 14. It examines approaches to curriculum design that are based on the four language skills—listening, speaking,

reading, and writing. The chapter considers the specific contributions of traditions in teaching each of the four skills, as well as the development of multiple skills in an integrated approach.

THE STRUCTURAL APPROACH

VIGNETTE

I have been hired to create an international program at a small college in the western United States and to design a curriculum for an intensive English program (IEP) to provide academic support for new international students who are non-native speakers of English. One of the first tasks that I face in designing the curriculum for the new IEP is to create a scope and sequence for teaching the grammatical structures in English at four different levels of English proficiency. This task is an expectation of both the college and the faculty, who are focused on academic English and are somewhat nervous about this new program. Because the IEP is new, all of the courses will need to be approved by the College Curriculum Committee, and this committee has requested supporting documents for the courses, such as the complete grammatical syllabus for all four proficiency levels. I have never created a grammatical syllabus, and I am feeling completely overwhelmed by the task at hand. As a survival technique, I hope to employ the grammar textbooks that I taught from in a previous IEP and use them to help identify potential structures for each proficiency level.

[Christison, research notes]

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Task: Reflect

If you were assigned to teach an English grammar class to beginning proficiency level English language learners, what ten grammatical structures would you teach? What ten grammatical structures would you select for advanced proficiency level learners? Why would you categorize the structures in this way?

</div>

Introduction

In this chapter, we use the term L2 to refer to any language acquired after a first or home language, making no distinction between second and foreign or among second, third, or fourth languages. The most common type of linguistic-based curriculum for L2 language teaching is the structural curriculum (also known as the grammatical syllabus). Structural approaches to curriculum design are based on the grammatical structures of a given language. The ordering or sequencing of grammatical structures for the purposes of teaching them to second language (L2) learners is based on the perceived complexity or simplicity of the structures by proficient users of the language, and this order may be different from the order in which L2 learners actually acquire the structures. In addition, individual variability and home language (HL) backgrounds affect the order of acquisition for the structures (Larsen-Freeman, 1975, 1978) (see Volume I, Chapters 11 and 12 for more information on orders of acquisition and developmental sequences in second language acquisition). This chapter will explain the structural approach to curriculum design, the procedures for creating this type of curriculum, its strengths and weaknesses, its influence on textbook design, and the types of classroom activities that support it. In addition, an example of a structural syllabus is provided in Appendix 9.A. It was prepared for English learners, so the structures are illustrated using example sentences from English rather than the grammatical terms that are often used for describing structures, such as present tense, present progressive, subject relative clauses, third-person singular -*s*, etc.

Defining Grammar

The structural approach is generally characterized as teaching grammar. Technically, *grammar* is defined as the underlying structure of a language that native speakers know intuitively. It includes the sounds, words, and sentences

of a language. The grammar of a language also encompasses how sounds, words, and sentences combine to create meaning and includes semantics and pragmatics. In a restricted sense, the term *grammar* in a structural approach is used to reference the study of word structure and how words combine to form sentences. Depending on one's approach to studying grammar, grammar can be *prescriptive* with a focus on the rules for the conventions of use for language structures, *descriptive* with a focus on how language is used in context, *generative* with a focus on how a series of rules can be generated to account for the production of an infinite number of sentences (Chomsky, 1957), or *systemic functional* with a focus on language as making meaning for a particular purpose or to carry out critical functions (Halliday, 1973, 1975).

The Grammatical Syllabus

A *grammatical syllabus* is the term most frequently used to describe what is to be taught in a structural approach. In order to develop a grammatical syllabus, curriculum developers must identify the language structures that are to be taught. The author of the vignette acknowledged that creating a grammatical syllabus for each of the proficiency levels for the new IEP she was directing was an expectation of both the college administration and the faculty (see Appendix 9.A for an example of a grammatical syllabus). Her task was to identify the discrete units of language structure that learners would study and determine at what proficiency level the structures were to be taught based on her perception of grammatical complexity. For example, *present tense* is thought to be one of the easiest structures for language learners, while *indirect object relative clauses* are thought to be one of the most difficult. In addition, there are other factors that affect decisions about how structures are to be sequenced in a grammatical syllabus, such as the frequency of the structure in the input, their contrastive difficulty in relation to a learner's first language, the situational need for the use of the structures, and their pedagogic convenience, such as when the structures might be introduced in the textbooks chosen for the courses or if the structures are known to the teachers.

Issues With a Structural Approach

As with all approaches to instructional design, there are issues with a structural approach. We will frame these issues in terms of perceived strengths and weaknesses. A structural syllabus can be attractive for many language learners because it presents language in an organized way and in manageable chunks. It can also help learners build their confidence with the language as they concentrate on

mastering specific components of the language in a classroom setting before attempting to work with them in real-life contexts. An understanding of grammar creates the core of language knowledge for the development of language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. A structural syllabus is often popular with teachers, especially inexperienced teachers. But, it is also popular with experienced teachers who may be new to the field of English language teaching (ELT). A grammatical syllabus provides teachers with an organized and balanced plan for the sequencing of lesson content that is gradual and systematic, thereby making it possible for both language learners and teachers to have similar expectations for learning. In English language programs with multiple sections of the same course taught by different teachers, a structural syllabus can also contribute to quality assurance, making it more likely that all sections cover the same content regardless of the teacher. The study of grammar enhances the likelihood of English learners noticing specific language structures in the input, thereby giving them opportunities to develop skills for self-monitoring and self-correction so that they can continue to improve and develop their language skills (Fotos, 2001; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004).

Some teachers and researches see that there are also weaknesses associated with teaching from a grammatical syllabus. Language in real-life contexts can be quite different from some language in classroom contexts, specifically if the language used in a classroom is motivated by the mastery of the grammatical forms in a structural curriculum. Activities that focus on form may be manageable and predictable, but they can also be mundane and boring for learners. When language is used for the purposes of communication, it includes many different structures that are motivated by language use and not by their sequence in a grammatical syllabus. In addition, there is no one-to-one relationship between a specific form and its function. For example, while the present continuous tense in English (i.e., *-ing*) can be used to describe something that happens at the moment (especially in sports commentating), it is also often used for complaining (e.g., *He's always playing video games*), among other functions. In reality, a form can realize more than one function and a function can be realized by more than one form (Azar & Hagen, 2019a).

Curriculum developers and L2 teachers must realize that the presentation of structures that is based on perceived complexity in a grammatical syllabus is somewhat arbitrary. The perceived complexity of structures for proficient users of a language may not represent language learners' perceptions at their stage of acquisition or level of language proficiency. Even though English present tense is frequently taught to beginning language learners, the third-person singular *-s* marker for present tense is a difficult structure for most English learners and is often one of the last structures to be acquired. In addition, most English language

teachers who have taught this structure to beginning proficiency level students recognize that there is a difference between how learners are able to use the structure in class under focused and somewhat controlled instances of language use and their ability to use the structure consistently and correctly in real-life situations outside of class. It is difficult to determine the extent to which formal classroom instruction that focuses on language structures will affect a learner's ability to use the structures accurately in real-life communicative encounters. At a very basic level, it is important for language teachers to recognize that the facility with which language learners acquire structures is determined by how difficult or easy they perceive the structures to be, rather than how simple or complex native speakers or their teachers perceive them to be (for example, Pienemann, 1998; see also Volume I, Chapters 11 and 12).

Teaching Grammatical Structures

In a structural approach, classroom instruction revolves around the language structures identified in the grammatical syllabus. Given that most English language learners are studying English in order to use it in real-life situations, an eclectic approach to studying grammatical structure seems to be the most practical one (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). An eclectic approach to teaching grammar includes both a focus on form and opportunities for communication. Classroom instruction that includes a focus on form and a focus on classroom interaction is more effective than instruction that does not focus on form or does not provide opportunities for communication and interaction (Azar & Hagen, 2019b; Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Ur, 2009).

Larsen-Freeman (2001, 2003) offers a model for teaching grammar that includes three dimensions for each structure taught—a focus on form, meaning, and use. Using this model, a five-stage lesson plan—introduction/staging, presentation, practice, evaluation, and summary (see Chapter 2 for general information on lesson planning) would include a presentation, practice, and evaluation stage for each structure taught for form, meaning, and use (see Figure 9.1.). Included in this lesson-planning model are practice and presentation stages for form, meaning, and use.

In addition to the structure of the lesson plan, there are other important considerations for curriculum designers relative to grammar in the classroom. For example, curriculum designers must decide whether form, meaning, and use are to be taught *inductively* or *deductively* (Savage et al., 2010). An inductive approach to teaching form offers learners many examples of the structure first before presenting the grammar rule. In a deductive approach, the grammar rule is given first and is followed by examples of the structure. A meta-analysis

Stage 1: Introduction/staging
Stage 2a: Presentation of form
Stage 3a: Practice of form
Stage 2b: Presentation of meaning
Stage 3b: Practice of meaning
Stage 2c: Presentation of use
Stage 3c: Practice of use
Stage 4: Evaluation
Stage 5: Summary/application

Figure 9.1 Stages in Planning a Grammar Lesson

of research on grammar teaching does not indicate that there is an advantage for either approach, but research does show that explicit teaching of the grammar rule is important for optimizing learning (Norris & Ortega, 2000) in both approaches.

Guided practice is important for each structure for its form, meaning, and use. Curriculum designers must think about how to structure grammar practice activities so that learners can be successful in understanding and using the structures. Many teachers believe that drills are important as a fundamental starting place for teaching structures because they assist learners in committing the structures to memory (Azar et al., 2009). When using drills with English learners, it is possible to control for vocabulary, task-types, and language structures so that the cognitive load is lessened for English learners. In addition, even learners with beginning level language proficiency skills are able to memorize appropriate responses or supply missing information based on grammar rules. Beginning language learners are limited in the types of responses they can give, especially responses that are deemed both correct and appropriate. For example, in response to the question, "*Where do you eat lunch?*" one English learner said, "*I am eating in the cafeteria.*" The response is correct in that the sentence is perfectly grammatical, but it is not an appropriate response to the question. An appropriate response would be something similar to, "I eat in the cafeteria." As grammar practice activities progress along a continuum of guided practice, learners can be expected to control a greater range of structures, vocabulary, and task-types. Curriculum designers must pay careful attention not only to sequencing the structures themselves but also to sequencing guided practice for each structure.

In addition to drills, there are many other grammar practice activities available for curriculum designers to consider. These activities include conversation

cards (see Diaz, 2002), *Find Someone Who* (Moskowitz, 1978). Christison and Bassano (2013) provide a description of activity prototypes, such as dialogs, grids and charts, interviews, sentence scrambles, strip stories, as well as specific examples of how to use them. Nunan (2005), Savage et al. (2010), and Ur (2009) also provide excellent resources for curriculum designers to consider. Folse (2016) focuses on the most common ESL grammar points in a very accessible way. This approach is especially helpful for teachers who may have little experience with teaching grammatical structures in English because Folse provides examples of real errors that L2 learners make so that teachers can begin to get a feel for learner language and different levels of proficiency. He then offers suggested teaching techniques for each example.

Many more resources are readily available for practicing English grammar. In fact, it is safe to say that the structural approach has had a huge impact on textbook design for English language teaching. Until the mid-1970s and early 1980s the main organizational principle for textbooks was language structures. Eventually, teachers began to embrace communicative approaches to language teaching, experimenting with activities that encouraged students to interact with one another in the classroom, much as they would in real life. English language teachers began looking for textbooks that offered their students more than the presentation and practice of grammatical structures. In addition to language structures, other organizational principles began to be included in textbook design, such as task-types and language functions. Nevertheless, there are still many English language-teaching textbooks that use language structure as the chief organizational principle.

Task: Explore

Use online and/or other resources. Identify five more grammar practice prototype activities as well as the structures you might use them with.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have presented the structural approach to curriculum design, explored its strengths and weaknesses, and recommended an eclectic approach, which considers form, meaning, and use (Larsen-Freeman, 2001, 2003) for the teaching of language structures. We also provided an example of an English

grammatical syllabus (Appendix 9.A) that can be used with English learners. While the identification and sequencing of language structures (i.e., the grammatical syllabus) provides the foundation for the structural approach, curriculum designers working in this approach must also contemplate the meaning of structures and how they are used in real-life contexts. This chapter has reviewed some of these considerations, particularly how to incorporate the teaching of grammar into the design of a lesson plan and what the options are for grammar practice activities.

Task: Expand

Work with a partner. Find 20 additional resources online, which include books, articles, videos, and websites, for teaching English grammar that go beyond those identified in the chapter. Prepare a written version of your document to share with others. Which of your resources are the same as the ones identified by the other partnerships? Which ones are different? Update your own document to include the resources you obtained from your exchanges with the other partnerships. How many resources do you have in total?

Questions for Discussion

1. What is an eclectic approach to teaching grammar?
2. How are inductive and deductive approaches to teaching grammar different? How might these different approaches affect the development of curriculum?
3. Do you think grammar drills should be included when teaching grammar in communicative language teaching? Why? Why not? Explain your response.
4. Work with another teacher or a peer in your class. Outline a lesson plan for teaching a language structure using the eclectic approach.

Appendix 9.A

EXAMPLE GRAMMATICAL SYLLABUS

Proficiency Levels

Beginning—Levels   One and Two
Intermediate—Level   Three
Advanced—Level   Four

Level One Structures

1. The boy is/'s happy.
2. He/she is happy.
3. Is the boy happy? Yes, he is.
4. He is not happy (isn't).
5. Is the man short or tall?
6. They are happy.
7. Are they happy? No, they aren't.
8. They are not happy.
9. Who is happy?
10. He is a student.
11. They are students.
12. He is Korean. He is from Korea.
13. He is not a student. They are not students.
14. The young man is a good student.
15. I/we/you am/are tall/good students.
16. Are you good students?
17. We are (we're) not good students.
18. John and Bill are good students.
19. What is a wall? Those are walls.
20. Is that a wall? Yes, it is. Are those walls? Yes, they are.

21. That is not a wall. Those are walls.
22. What is it? What are they? It is a door. They are doors.
23. This is a wall. These are walls.
24. This attractive picture/these interesting books are here.
25. My/your/his/her/our/their book. John's/the students' books.
26. This is not my book.
27. Whose book is green?
28. Whose books are those?
29. What color is the book?
30. The books are on the table. Are my books on the table? Where are they?
31. Mine/yours/his/hers/ours/yours/theirs/John's is red.
32. This pen is mine/ . . . Is this pen yours/ . . . ?
33. What kind of book is this?
34. There is a chair in the room. There is chalk in the room. There is some chalk. There are some chairs.
35. Is/are there any . . . ? There isn't/aren't any . . . ? No, there isn't/aren't. Yes, there is/are.
36. My office is in/on/at . . .
37. The boy is reading. Is the boy reading? The boy is not reading.
38. What is the boy doing?
39. He is eating a sandwich.
40. They are eating breakfast now.
41. He is working in a department store this year.
42. The teacher is listening to him.
43. Whom is John listening to?
44. John is eating breakfast, and I am too.
45. John is not working, and I am not either.
46. I am not eating, but John is.
47. We are going to read. Are we going to read?
48. Where is John going to be tomorrow?
49. When is the boy going to watch television?
50. John is going to be at home in/on/at . . .

Level Two Structures

51. Does John write a letter every day?
52. John does not write a letter every day.
53. John writes a letter in his room every day.
54. When does the boy watch television? Does the boy watch television?
55. What does John do every night?

56. How often does . . . ? John gets a haircut twice a month.
57. John usually gets a haircut twice a month.
58. Do you ever study in the library?
59. He knows the words now. He is studying the words now.
60. I feel happy today.
61. John does not eat eggs, and I don't either.
62. John eats eggs, and I do too.
63. I am/was sick today/yesterday.
64. I was here last night/two weeks ago/in 1995/at 8:30 PM/on July 4th.
65. How long were you in California? I was in California for three months/ from . . . to . . .
66. John read/did not read a newspaper yesterday. Did John read . . . ?
67. I sent John/him the package. I sent the package to him. I sent it to him.
68. John didn't hear the bell, and I didn't either.
69. John heard the bell, but I didn't. John didn't hear the bell, but I did.
70. Who saw the movie?
71. They liked that movie.
72. How did you go to Boston? How did she speak? How did John write . . . ?
73. How long is the room? How long did you stay in Boston?
74. How much coffee did you have? How many books did you buy?
75. many/a few/a lot of/some/any books—much/a little/a lot of/lots of/ some/any milk/a book.
76. I was reading the book at home last night.

Level Three Structures

77. John can speak French. John cannot speak French. Can John speak French?
78. Who can drive a car?
79. The Greens have been in Boston for two years.
80. The Greens have been living in Philadelphia for two years.
81. The Greens have been living in Philadelphia since 2003.
82. He is still in Boston. He isn't in Boston anymore.
83. The Browns have been in Japan already. They haven't been here yet.
84. We have always/often/rarely/seldom/frequently taken the train.
85. I have finally/just/at last/read that book.
86. I/we . . . could/was/were able to drive a car.
87. I will/won't go.
88. Maybe/perhaps/probably they will leave early.
89. The boy with the big nose is giving the book to the girl.
90. The boy wearing the funny hat took the girl to the party.

91. The boy who speaks French fluently gave the book to the girl.
92. The boy gave the book that fell on the floor to the girl.
93. The man whom I met last night took the book home.
94. The man took the book that I found under the desk.
95. The girl whose sister is in your class spoke to the man.
96. The girl whose sister you met at the party spoke to the man.
97. You can speak to John or Tom, whoever is at the desk.
98. You can take the novel or the play, whichever is available.
99. You can speak to John or Tom, whomever you see at the bank.
100. You can take the novel or the play, whichever you prefer.
101. pre-articles: another/other/others/whichever/all/while
102. You can/could take the subway.
103. Bill could have gone by car.
104. Bill has to get up early.
105. They must apply for a passport.
106. Do you have to go to the dentist?
107. John does not have to wear glasses.
108. Bill had to get up early.
109. Bill did not have to wear glasses.
110. John should be studying now.
111. Mary ought to be more careful.
112. John should not watch TV
113. Should I take an umbrella today?
114. John should have studied.
115. John ought to have studied.
116. John should not have watched TV.
117. Should you have asked John for the answers?
118. John had better slow down.
119. John had better not speed.
120. John must not talk so loudly.
121. Bob is as old as Tom.
122. Bob is not as old as Dick.
123. Bob is the same age as Tom.
124. Bob has as many children as Tom.
125. Bob has as much education as Tom.
126. Tom is older than Bob.
127. Dick has more children than Bob.
128. Dick is a more efficient worker than Tom.
129. Tom is a less efficient worker than Dick.
130. Dick drives more/less carefully than Tom.

131. Dick is the oldest of the three children. Dick is the tallest man in the room.
132. Dick has the most/least children of the three.
133. Tom is the most/least efficient worker of the group.
134. Joe drives a car the most/least carefully of the three.
135. Joan is taller than John. [the irregular comparative and superlative form, for example, good, better, best]
136. Joe may/might be working now.
137. I may/might not be there.
138. John may/might have read this book. John may/might not have read this book.
139. John could be tired. He could walk to his house.
140. John could be waiting for someone.
141. The Browns could have gone to Canada.
142. Jerry couldn't have taken the book.
143. Mary must need glasses.
144. The Browns must not be home.
145. Bill must/must not have done it.
146. They should/ought to be here soon.

Level Four Structures

147. John says that he is tired.
148. Mary asks whether you are tired.
149. Do you know where John went?
150. John said that he was tired.
151. Mary asked/asked me whether I was tired.
152. Mary asked me where John was.
153. Mary told John that she was hungry.
154. John told Mary to close/not to close the window.
155. How long/whether/that/the fact that John was tired did not affect my decision.
156. It is obvious that John is tired.
157. The man insisted that John close the door.
158. I enjoy studying English at this school.
159. He did not advise singing.
160. The doctor suggested my seeing/my not seeing a specialist.
161. He approved of writing it.
162. He is afraid of failing the test.
163. In addition to reading the story, I answered the questions that followed.
164. John wants to speak to the teacher.

165. Tom did not want to sing. Tom wanted not to sing.
166. Mary permitted me to drive her car.
167. John decided what to do. John decided where to go.
168. The teacher showed me how to study for the test.
169. It's difficult to learn English.
170. John is too tired to go to the movies.
171. The room is big enough. Kathy is leaving early enough. I have enough time.
172. John hasn't gone yet, but he wants to.
173. I would rather have a cup of tea.
174. I would rather not talk to him now.
175. I would prefer going to a play.
176. I would prefer not to stay home tonight.
177. I prefer coffee to tea.
178. I would like Italian food tonight.
179. The tower was designed by the city's leading architect.
180. It was mentioned that Mary had been late.
181. Mr. Green considers his wife a genius.
182. They elected Bob president. Bob was elected class president.
183. Mr. Green's wife is considered a genius.
184. I am going to have my eyes examined. Bob got his car washed.
185. Barbara listens to the radio when/whenever/while she cleans the house.
186. Tom is going to study chemistry before/after he studies biology.
187. Tom waited until Bob arrived.
188. Tom is going to leave as soon as he gets the money.
189. I have studied English since I arrived in the United States.
190. Tom cannot attend the party because he has a cold.
191. I put the book where it belongs.
192. Tom has such a bad cold that he cannot attend the party.
193. Tom left early so that he would be in class on time.
194. I am calling Joan to invite her to the party.
195. You may take this book even though/although/though/in spite of the fact that/despite the fact that I need it.
196. If John had studied, he would have passed the test.
197. If John were tired, he would take the bus.
198. Tom works for a newspaper, and, in addition, he is writing a book.
199. Tom seems to work hard, but he doesn't accomplish much.
200. John was unable to get to the party; nevertheless/however/on the contrary/yet/on the other hand/all the same/just the same he sent a telegram.

201. We can leave the sandwiches on the table, or we can put them in the refrigerator.
202. We can leave the sandwiches on the table; otherwise, we can put them in the refrigerator.
203. Tom cannot attend the party for he has a bad cold.
204. Tom has a bad cold; therefore, he cannot attend the party.
205. Tom left; then/next/later/after/afterwards/after/subsequently, John arrived.

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10

THE NOTIONAL-FUNCTIONAL APPROACH

VIGNETTE

I was attending the Third AILA World Congress in Copenhagen, Denmark and presenting a paper on language testing. AILA (Association Internationale de la Linguistique Appliquée) is an international professional association of applied linguists, so attendees at the conference were applied linguists like myself from all over the world. Being at an international conference in a city I had never been to before was very exciting, and it was equally exciting to attend the AILA conference and network with other applied linguists. Even though I considered myself primarily a language tester even then, I also had a wide range of interests in other areas of applied linguistics; consequently, I attended papers on many different topics during the AILA week (August 21–26, 1972). One of the most interesting papers for me was a paper given by British linguist David Wilkins on the notional-functional syllabus. I had heard about Wilkins's idea of moving away from a purely grammatical syllabus that focuses on language structures to one that focuses on language functions. As the grammatical syllabus at that time was almost sacrosanct for language teachers, Wilkins's suggestion of replacing it with a notional-functional syllabus was garnering him much attention at AILA and elsewhere in the world of applied linguistics. The ideas Wilkins expressed in his paper at AILA were well conceived and well received. Wilkins was promoting a view of curriculum design that was so exciting in terms of my own beliefs about communicative language teaching, and

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(continued)

I immediately began thinking about what these ideas would mean for the work that I did as a language tester. I was eager to talk about his ideas with others and genuinely wondered where these ideas would take the profession. I also thought just how timely Wilkins's ideas were in coming to light. A purely grammatical syllabus with its focus on form has its limitations for language learners who have primary goals that are related to achieving success in communicating and interacting in contexts outside of the classroom and for teachers who recognize this fact. I have many great memories from the AILA conference—from the beautiful venue in Copenhagen and the interesting linguists I met to the intellectual stimulation that I felt. If you had asked me then to predict what I would remember most about the AILA conference 40 years later, I would likely have said that it would be the Wilkins paper and my introduction to the notional-functional syllabus.

[Interview with Adrian Palmer]

Task: Reflect

1. What do you think a notional-functional syllabus would entail?
2. Why do you think the person being interviewed in this vignette said that Wilkins's idea for a notional-functional syllabus was timely?
3. What type of syllabus do you think the person in the vignette was most familiar with before he attended the AILA conference?
4. Can you think of two reasons why a functional syllabus may be preferable to a grammatical one?

Introduction

A notional-functional approach is concerned with analyzing language in terms of its communicative uses in specific contexts. As you learned in the vignette, British linguist David Wilkins (1976) outlined the basic tenets of this approach over 40 years ago. You can tell from the reactions of the interviewee in the vignette that the notional-functional approach to curriculum design is quite different from a purely structural approach with its focus on language structures. The structural

approach is often thought to be a *synthetic* approach because it is made up of separate, pre-selected, and ordered units of language (see Chapter 9, Appendix 9.A, for examples of grammatical structures). The notional-functional approach, as Wilkins conceived it, was intended to be an *analytic* approach because it was not meant to rely totally on linguistic features of language, such as one's choice of verbs, but to present language globally and in context.[1] In an analytic approach, semantic (meaning making) demands determine linguistic content.

Understanding the distinction between *synthetic* and *analytic* approaches to curriculum design is particularly useful when curriculum development is viewed from the standpoint of language learners. Synthetic and analytic are terms used to describe what learners do. In a synthetic approach language is taught in parts with the belief that learners will be able to synthesize or integrate the separate parts, such as when language forms are taught separately from a specific context. In an analytic approach, language learners work with samples of language that have not been controlled for structure. It is assumed that learners will be able to analyze the language to which they have been exposed and come to an understanding of its structure.

Synthetic and analytic approaches to curriculum design are the endpoints on a curriculum design continuum. Larsen-Freeman's (2001, 2003) eclectic model within a structural approach considers meaning and use in addition to form, thereby, adding features of an analytic approach to a typically synthetic one. Similarly, a notional-functional approach that also includes explicit teaching of language structures within a specific context incorporates features of a synthetic approach into a typically analytical one.

Notional-functional approaches are based on answers to the question, "What is it that learners communicate through language?" In order to make this determination, the needs of learners must be analyzed in order to ascertain what needs to be included in lessons, courses, and programs. The starting point for this approach to curriculum design is based on the communicative functions, such as *asking for directions*, *asking for help*, *greeting others*, and *giving personal information*. The chapter will explain this approach and provide examples from lessons and language courses.

Defining Notional-Functional

A notional-functional approach is based on what people do with language or what ideas they want to convey. The basic idea behind a notional-functional approach is to transfer *functions* and *notions* to acts of communication. Notions and functions form the basic organizational components of a notional-functional approach.

Notions and Functions

A *notion* is basically a concept or an idea. A notion can be very specific so that it is synonymous with a vocabulary word (e.g., *food, cat, car)*. Consequently, we can say that notions are expressed through nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives, and adverbs. Notions may also be very general. In this sense notions can be thought of in terms of such basic ones as *quantity, location, time, size, movement*, or *emotion*, to name a few. For example, the notion of time is important for all language learners and each language has its own agreed upon way of marking time. Becoming a competent and effective user of any language requires an understanding of the notion of time and how it is expressed in a new language. Curriculum designers must consider *how* and *when* the curriculum will help learners develop skills in working with time. The notion of time may be further specified as past time, and lessons may be structured to include structures such as the past tense and words and phrases typically used to express past time, such as *in 2010, last year, two weeks ago*, and temporal clauses, such as *before . . .* and *after . . .*

The notional-functional approach is also made up of language functions. A *language function* is a type of communicative act that is used to achieve a purpose and most often involves at least two people. Example language functions include *requesting help*, *giving suggestions*, *making promises*, and *offering apologies*.

Context

Another critical component of a notional-functional approach for curriculum designers is context. Context determines the relative importance of specific notions and functions. When context changes, the people, the location, the time, or even the activity may change, thereby affecting how language is used. For example, the language one uses to request help from a close friend may be quite different from the language one uses to request help from a superior at work or a stranger.

Major Characteristics of a Notional–Functional Approach

Barnett (1980) offered a list of characteristics of a notional-functional approach. These characteristics include the fact that there is a functional view of language (see also Chapter 11 on functional views of language) with a focus on doing something with language as opposed to simply studying language structures; consequently, a notional-functional approach is semantically based. The focus

of a notional-functional approach is learner centered, and the curriculum design process begins with an analysis of learner needs. It is learner needs that determine learning goals, content selection, the sequencing of content, the methodology chosen, and how learning is evaluated. Because the notional-functional approach focuses on doing something with language, the learning activities are driven by authentic language use and how learners operate in a given language context. In a structural approach, the sentence forms the basic unit for language teaching, however in a notional-functional approach, discourse (i.e., sentences in combination) is the basic unit for language teaching. With a notional-functional approach, there is less focus on grammatical accuracy than in a structural approach. Fluency and whether learners can achieve their communicative goals are more important than accuracy.

Curriculum for a Notional-Functional Approach

In terms of curriculum design for a notional-functional approach, there are three areas of consideration that are at the forefront: (a) the creation of a notional-functional syllabus, (b) the classification of functional categories, and (c) the identification of language functions.

A Notional-Functional Syllabus

The first step in implementing a notional-functional approach is to focus on the development of a syllabus. To this end, curriculum designers will need to identify the seven general components that underpin syllabus design for this approach.

1. Situation. The situations in which the English will be used must be ascertained. A situation will always include the following: the participants, the place or location, and the time.
2. Topics. The topics and what the learner will be able to do with them must be clarified. For example, topics related to everyday interactions, such as buying food, giving directions, and offering advice may be quite different from topics generated by academic situations, such as identifying main ideas, asking for clarification, or arguing for a specific point of view.
3. Language activities. The language activities in which the learner will engage must be identified and related to the situations in which the language is to be used.
4. Notions. The general notions that the learner will be expected to handle should be clarified. Examples of notions are time (time relation: past tense,

present tense; duration: until, since), quantity (countable, uncountable), space (dimensions, locations, motion), and so on.

5. Language functions. The language functions that the learner will perform should be identified and classified.

6. Language forms. The language forms the learner will be expected to use should also be identified. These forms are most often referred to as *exponents*—language utterances or statements that stem from the notions, language function, the situations, and the topics.

7. Skill levels. The degree of skill the learner will be required to display.

Functional Categories

There are different taxonomies for organizing language functions within a notional-functional syllabus. One of the most common organizational frameworks that work for a notional-functional design stems from general language use. In this framework, there are five general categories for language functions for curriculum designers to consider.

1. Language is often used for personal intentions to express one's feelings (e.g., love, joy, pleasure, happiness) and to talk about everyday needs and wants (e.g., hunger, thirst, fatigue, sleepiness). This is one of the most common uses of language.

2. Language can be used for interpersonal purposes to establish and maintain desirable social and working relationships (e.g., greetings and leave takings, introducing people to others, expressing pleasure at another's success, interrupting, or asking for clarification). Language used for interaction is known as *phatic* language, and it is important for most language learners whose goals are related to effective and successful communication with others (i.e., goals beyond reading and translating written text).

3. Attempting to influence the actions of others, such as persuading someone to change their plans or warning someone about an action you see as dangerous; these are examples of directive language. Directive language is typical in academic contexts and with higher-order thinking skills that require one to evaluate or make a judgment.

4. Language can also be used referentially, such as for talking or reporting about your actions (or the actions of others) in the past, present, or future. When you use language to talk about language this is also a type of referential language known as *metalinguistic* language. Examples of metalinguistic uses of language are paraphrasing or summarizing what others say.

5.   The imaginative use of language may also be important in some contexts and involves elements of creativity and artistic expression, such as using language to write poems, stories, lyrics, or plays.

Language Functions

Within each functional category there are specific language functions. Table 10.1 provides examples of how language functions such as requesting, apologizing, asking for directions, and complaining fit together with the functional categories for language use. The language functions that appear in the right-hand column of Table 10.1 are not to be interpreted as an exhaustive list. They are examples of language functions for each of the functional categories of language use. Specific academic functions are explored in Chapter 11. For an expanded list of language functions see Appendix 10.A.

Task: Explore

Table 10.1 presents an example of how categorical functions based on general language use work together with language functions in notional-functional syllabus design. Work with a colleague or peer. Select one or two of the categorical functions and add a third column to the table. See if you can predict what types of grammatical structures might be needed to carry out the language functions.

Designing Instructional Materials

In a notional-functional approach, learners can have free conversation about a variety of topics, such as famous people, the weather, and TV shows or debates about current affairs, politics, and the public media. Competent and effective language teachers should know how to manage all classroom resources and activities, such as facilitate free conversation and structure debates. They are also responsible for providing information to their students and engaging their students in diverse classroom activities. For experienced, proficient, and well-qualified teachers, this freedom in teaching and learning may be one of the strongest points in favor of a notional-functional approach. For new and inexperienced teachers or teachers who worry about their language proficiency level, the notional-functional approach presents a bigger challenge in terms of

Table 10.1 Functional Categories and Language Functions

Functional Categories of Language Use	*Example Language Functions*
Personal (talking about ourselves)	expressing emotions
	clarifying one's ideas
Interpersonal (maintaining desirable relationships)	greetings
	making introductions
	offering help
	apologizing
	sharing ideas
	clarifying
	making an inquiry
Directive (influencing others)	making requests
	persuading
	giving and receiving instructions
	accepting and refusing
	complaining
Referential (using language to reference things/using language to talk about language)	identifying items
	summarizing
	evaluating
	analyzing
	reporting
Imaginative (using language creatively)	discussing a poem or film
	writing a poem or a play
	telling jokes

classroom practices than the structural approach. Curriculum designers and textbook writers struggle with how to make the approach accessible to the latter group of teachers. Of course, the readiness of teachers to implement any type of curriculum is always a concern for curriculum designers, and it is one reason why the Curriculum Design Process (see Table 6.1) includes designing professional development as a necessary component of curriculum design. Curriculum designers must think about what professional development teachers will need in order to implement the curriculum effectively and what processes (i.e., strategies and tasks) should be used to deliver the content.

The ideas proposed by Wilkins in 1976 have had an effect on textbook design and have been realized in a number of successful textbooks for English language learners. Throughout the 1980s, one of us (Christison) used a textbook with

academic language learners who were young adults in which language functions served as the chief organizing principles (Jones, 1982; Jones & Von Baeyer, 1983). This text represented a direct attempt to implement the notional-functional approach. The text replaced a grammar-based text that I had been using for several years, so I was both nervous about the change and eager to make it. The language functions were introduced through dialogs and carried out and practiced through numerous language practice activities, both guided and unguided. In terms of the organization of the chapters, the book was very similar to the grammar book I had used previously, in that each chapter began with a dialog and included different types of language practice activities, including discussions. The grammatical structures had been replaced by language functions.

In the 1980s and early 1990s, both of us (the authors) consulted regularly for international English language teaching programs on curriculum design and language teacher education. Several of these programs were using texts that were not purely notional-functional in their approach to design, but were clearly a departure from other learner texts of the late 1970s and the 1980s with their focus on language structure (see Swan & Walter, 1984, 1985; Viney & Hartley, 1978, 1979, 1982). It was easy to see that these writers were influenced by concepts from the notional-functional approach, addressing language use, semantics, and a focus on meaning even though they may not have used the terminology proposed by Wilkins (1976). Similarly, most competency-based approaches (see Chapter 21) define competencies in notional-functional terms.

Issues in a Notional-Functional Curriculum

A notional-functional approach has both strengths and weaknesses. In terms of its strengths, it emphasizes the communicative purposes of language, so learners are introduced to sociocultural situations, as well as grammatical and cultural knowledge. The approach also recognizes that there is real purpose for using language and that learners' needs are at the very core of what is to be taught; consequently, it is likely that learners will be more motivated to learn than they would be with a decontextualized approach.

There are also a number of weaknesses associated with a notional-functional approach. Anyone who has ever tried to separate notions and functions will find that in practice the concepts are not as easy to separate and define as they seem to be based on simple definitions. In addition, it is hard to decide which functions or notions require more coverage or frequency than others, and it is difficult to determine how to sequence the functions. In the sense that notions and functions can be broken down into discrete components that can be taught separately, the notional-functional approach can be similar to a structural approach.

In an ideal setting, language functions are identified through a needs analysis. In reality, language functions and notions are often identified in advance and a notional-functional curriculum is similar in this regard to the identification of grammatical features in the structural approach. Although a needs analysis is a critical component of a notional-functional approach, it is not always easy to carry out a learner needs analysis in real life. For example, open entry/open exit programs create considerable variation in attendance, thereby making it almost impossible to identify specific learners' needs because the population of learners is never stable. Similarly, it is difficult to conduct a needs analysis with a group of multilingual learners who have minimal language proficiency in English.

In terms of combining language functions with language structures, there are also some challenges for curriculum designers who use this approach. The grammatical structures that are derived from the functions are not offered to learners in a systematic order. Many grammatical structures that are perceived to be important in terms of the context and the number of occasions of use may not be elicited by the language functions that are selected for inclusion because language functions can have many grammatical realizations.

Conclusion

A notional-functional approach to curriculum design places a major emphasis on the communicative purposes of language. The focus for both teachers and curriculum designers must be on what learners want and need to do with the target language (i.e., the language functions) and the ideas or concepts they need to know (i.e., notions) in order to communicate successfully with others. In this chapter, we have highlighted the basic tenets of a notional-functional approach and provided clarification of its key components—notions, functions—as well as the role of context. In addition, we outline the key characteristics of a notional-functional approach and provide guidance to curriculum developers on the design of a notional-functional syllabus by demonstrating how functional categories and language functions work together. Lastly, the chapter discusses issues related to a notional-functional approach and offers some insight into its influence on classroom teaching, including textbook design.

Task: Expand

Finocchiaro, M., & Brumfit, C. (1983). *The functional-notional approach*. Oxford University Press.

The theoretical bases of functionalism and notionalism and their practical classroom applications are discussed in this text. The text features the following: (a) a historical overview of language learning and teaching, (b) definitions of terms, (c) characteristics of the approach, (d) lists of functions and notions, (e) step-by-step techniques, (f) communicative activities, (g) the role of grammar, and (h) evaluation procedures. There is also a discussion of the general methodology and strategies that have been found to be the most effective in helping language learners use language appropriately in a variety of real-world situations. The volume also provides instructional techniques for reading, writing, and grammar that are consistent with the functional-notional approach.

This is a free e-book that can be downloaded online.

www.gobookee.net/notional-functional-language/

Questions for Discussion

1. In your own words, explain the differences between an analytic and a synthetic approach to curriculum design. Why do you think it might be important for curriculum designers to understand the difference?
2. What is the difference between a functional category and a language function? Provide three examples of each.
3. Without using your book, make a list of at least three key characteristics of the notional-functional approach and share your list with a colleague.
4. Can you think of other strengths or weaknesses of the notional-functional approach that are not mentioned in this chapter? If so, share your list with a colleague.

Appendix 10.A

Language Functions	Examples (Pronouns will change depending on the speaker (e.g., You should do it; I should do it) and the particular example.)
Agreeing	*I agree.*
	That is a good point.
	You are absolutely right.
Apologizing	*I am really sorry.*
	I can't tell you how sorry I am.
	Please forgive me.
	Please accept my apology.
Asking for help	*Excuse me, could you . . . ?*
	Could you give me a hand?
	Could you help me please? I'm . . .
	When you have a minute, could you . . . ?
Clarifying	*Is this true?*
	Could you explain?
	Could you say that again?
	Are you certain that is the case?
Disagreeing	*I cannot agree with your position.*
	Impossible.
	I don't agree.
	I think you're mistaken.
	I think you might be mistaken.
	I'm not so sure about that.
	I take your point, but . . .

Language Functions	Examples *(Pronouns will change depending on the speaker (e.g., You should do it; I should do it) and the particular example.)*
Drawing conclusions	*It follows that . . .*
	This means that . . .
	It seems to be the case that . . .
Expressing anxiety	*I'm very worried about . . .*
	It seems to be taking a long time.
	Do you have any idea about . . . ?
Expressing certainty	*I'm certain that . . .*
	There seems to be no doubt that . . .
	I'm sure that. . . . *It definitely is . . .*
Expressing obligation	*You should obey . . .*
	You have to . . .
	You must . . .
	You have got to . . .
	You had better . . .
	I've got an obligation to . . .
Expressing pleasure	*I feel great.*
	I think this is great.
	I'm really pleased.
	How wonderful!
	How marvelous!
	This gives me great pleasure.
Expressing sympathy	*I'm so sorry to hear that.*
	Please accept my deepest sympathies.
	I'm truly so sad for you.
Expressing wants	*I'd rather . . .*
	I feel like . . .
	I wouldn't mind . . .
	I would like to . . .
Giving advice	*If I were you, I would . . .*
	The best thing for you to do is . . .
	I think you should . . .
	You'd better . . .
	I think you'd better . . .

(continued)

(continued)

Language Functions	Examples *(Pronouns will change depending on the speaker (e.g., You should do it; I should do it) and the particular example.)*
Giving directions	*First go . . . then . . .*
	Do you have a map?
	Do you know where . . . is?
	Take a left at . . . then take a right at . . .
	Go straight . . . turn . . . then . . .
Giving opinions	*In my opinion, I think that . . .*
	I believe that . . .
	As I see it . . .
	My point is that . . .
	My view is that . . .
Giving suggestions	*What about . . .*
	I suggest that you . . .
	Why don't we . . .
	Why not . . .
	Have you ever thought about . . . ?
	Let's . . .
	You can . . .
	You could . . .
Making a concession	*OK, I'll do it.*
	If you say so.
	I can't argue with that.
	You've got a point.
	I take your point.
Making requests	*Would you help me, please?*
	Could you help me, please?
	Would you . . . ?
	I'd be grateful if you would . . .
	I wonder if you would please . . .
Making statements of probability	*It will rain later.*
	Perhaps I will see you this evening / later / next week / tomorrow.
	I might . . .
	It might . . .
	It will probably . . .

Language Functions	Examples *(Pronouns will change depending on the speaker (e.g., You should do it; I should do it) and the particular example.)*
Offering congratulations	*That's wonderful.*
	Congratulations!
	I'm so pleased for you.
	It's wonderful that you . . .
Persuading	*Can't I persuade you to . . . ?*
	It would be great if you . . .
	[COMP: Please add the line under "Please…"] *Please . . .*
	Could you please . . . ?
Refusing	*No, thank you.*
	I refuse.
	Sorry. I don't feel like it.
Stating or accepting blame	*You're to blame for . . .*
	You must take the blame . . .
	It's my fault that . . .
	It's your fault that . . .
Stating approval	*Well done.*
	I really enjoyed it.
	Great job!
	I've never done / heard / seen / tasted anything like this before.
	I think it's lovely.
Stating intentions	*He is planning to . . .*
	I've decided to . . .
	I've made up my mind to . . .
	I propose to . . .
	I mean to . . .
	I plan to . . .
Stating preferences	*I'd rather . . .*
	I'd prefer to . . .
	It would be better if . . .

Note

1. In practice, the notional-functional approach was criticized for the same reasons as the structural approach had been. It often led to teaching a list of linguistic features out of context and with no real, authentic communication.

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11

THE ACADEMIC LANGUAGE
FUNCTIONS APPROACH

VIGNETTE

I am observing a science class in a middle school. The middle school houses Grades 6–8, children aged 11–14. The students in the Science 2 class that I am observing are all in Grade 7 and are about 12 or 13 years old, depending on the month in which they were born. About 60% of the students are home language speakers of English and about 40% are English learners (ELs) who have varying levels of English language proficiency. For the past two weeks, the students have been studying the carbon cycle. Today the teacher has been reviewing important vocabulary, such as "atmosphere," "photosynthesis," "carbon dioxide," "greenhouse gases," "factory emissions," and "fossil fuels" in preparation for a problem-solving activity that she has designed called "Walk About"—an activity that will require students to make predictions. At the moment, students are working in partnerships with small whiteboards. The teacher points to a list of words on the overhead projector and asks, "Which of these words means to change light energy to chemical energy?" Students have 30 seconds to conference in their partnerships, decide on the word to write on their whiteboard, and hold it up. After each 30-second conference, she circles the word she is looking for on the overhead. She can see students' responses on the whiteboards, and students can check their answers and get immediate feedback from the overhead. She also repeats words and states her prompts in slightly different ways so that her learners stay engaged in the process and

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cannot choose words by a process of elimination. The teacher then moves to a short problem-solving activity, still using the conferencing teams. Her questions are directed at trying to get the students to understand how changing key components in the cycle affects outcomes. In other words, she is trying to get learners to make predictions. The teacher asks, "What would happen if there were not enough sun? What would happen if there were too many auto and factory emissions? What if many plants and trees died?" There are charts around the room labeled "Let me hear you say . . ." On these charts are printed numerous prompts for making predictions, such as "It would be . . ." "There would be . . ." "I might . . ." "Perhaps they would need to . . ." The teacher walks to one of the charts and says, "Use these phrases to help you make predictions." She waits while the students conference with one another.

[Christison, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. How does the lesson excerpt described in the vignette help the ELs work with difficult content while learning language?
2. What scaffolding techniques does the teacher use to help English language learners?
3. What academic language functions are used in this lesson?
4. What activities does the teacher use to help learners develop skills in using the academic language functions?

Introduction

English learners in many different contexts from primary to secondary schools to institutions of higher education are expected to engage with cognitively demanding and challenging content. In order to refer to learners in different contexts with some clarity and remain consistent with the literature and sensitive to research done in these particular contexts, we use the term English learners (ELs) to refer specifically to learners in K–12 public schools and the

term second language (L2) learner, L2 user, or L2 writer to refer to learners generally in all contexts who are learning any language after a first or home language (HL) has been acquired. In using the term L2, we are not distinguishing between second and foreign or among second, third, or fourth languages.

The example vignette was meant to focus on ELs in a public school in a U.S. context, but it could just as easily have focused on learners in a public school in another *inner* circle country such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, or in the United Kingdom (see Chapter 3 for a discussion of inner, outer, and expanding circle countries—Kachru, 1986 and Kachru & Nelson, 1996). In fact, the need for ELs to work with challenging academic content at the same time they are acquiring English is becoming increasingly more common in K–12 secondary schools in global contexts (i.e., in *outer* and *expanding* circle countries). For example, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) has emerged as a trend in Europe for teaching English (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Its focus is on academic content with both content (e.g., science, math, or geography) taught together with English as a foreign language (see Chapter 15 for more information on CLIL). The secondary school ELs in the vignette were working with difficult and challenging content in their science class and also competing academically with HL speakers of English. In these contexts, ELs in inner circle countries must do "double the work" of HL users of English as ELs must learn not only academic English but also cognitively challenging subject matter at grade level (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

Similar issues also exist in tertiary educational contexts even though most institutions of higher education require L2 learners to achieve a certain score on an English proficiency test (e.g., TOEFL, IELTS, or a local placement test) prior to admission. Regardless of this practice, most institutions have found that L2 learners who achieve the requisite cutoff score for admission still need additional assistance with academic English to be successful at the tertiary level. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses focus expressly on academic English, and they are typically designed to prepare L2 learners for the language demands of disciplinary contexts, such as courses in business administration, geology, and engineering. As such, "instruction represents a highly pragmatic approach to learning, encompassing needs analyses, evaluation, academic skills, disciplinary content, and tasks" (Carkin, 2005, p. 85). English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses focus on helping L2 learners develop general academic language and skills, such as note-taking and summarizing. EAP courses include a range of academic language functions that must be mastered by learners in order for them to understand text and communicate their ideas clearly, particularly in academic writing.

The type of language that is needed in these different contexts to interact successfully with challenging academic content is referred to as academic language. *Academic language* is the specific language through which school subjects are taught and assessed (Schleppegrell & O'Hallaron, 2011; Zwiers, 2014). Academic language includes various disciplinary registers that require the use of complex language and present difficulties for learners in all contexts (Moore et al., 2018). Academic language cannot simply be picked up from daily interactions and casual communication. There are many L2 learners who struggle with academic English even after years of studying English or living in an English dominant country. Language learners need specific, explicit, and intensive instruction to develop the competency levels with academic language that are needed for academic success, particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels (Schleppegrell, 2004, 2007).

In K–12 environments in the United States, the academic achievement success rates of ELs fall well below the norms for school children whose primary language at home is English. For example, in the United States only 4% of eighth grade ELs and 20% of students who were formerly classified as limited English proficient (LEP) achieve scores at proficient or advanced levels on the National Assessment of Educational Performance (NAEP) (Perie et al., 2005). NAEP is the only ongoing assessment in the United States that is based on learner performance in the content areas. A comparison of performances across the 17 OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) countries shows that performances of ELs in content areas vary (OECD, 2007). The focus of much educational research in recent years has been directed towards understanding the challenges and difficulties L2 learners face in achieving a level of competency with academic language that supports literacy development and academic achievement in content areas, particularly in math and science.

The academic language functions approach to curriculum design is based on the specific academic language that L2 learners need in order to become successful in academic environments. In this chapter, we will explain the importance of an academic language functions approach in contexts where academic subjects, such as math, history, and biology, are taught in English, the target language. The chapter also offers several workable taxonomies for identifying academic language functions and provides examples of a curriculum design process that is meant to target language demands in an academic language functions approach.

Defining Academic Language

Academic language is the term used to represent the literacy-based/language demands of schools, such as the language used in textbooks, essays, research

articles, classroom discussions referencing academic content, and tests. It is different from the language used every day in informal social situations. Cummins (2001) has identified two different types of language proficiency that are necessary for success in schools—BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). BICS is basically the social language of schools. It is the language used informally in daily communication. It is informal, grounded in the here and now, and includes many contextual clues, such as facial expressions, gestures, physical objects, and actions that can be observed. The language functions introduced in Chapter 10, such as greetings, requesting information, giving information, and expressing feelings, are associated with Cummins's notion of BICS. The language functions introduced in Chapter 10 for referential language (i.e., using language to reference things or ideas or using language to talk about language—*metalinguistic* functions) are associated with Cummins's notion of CALP. Academic language is abstract and governed by conventions that are specific to particular disciplines or content areas (Moore et al., 2018; Zwiers, 2014). It contains technical vocabulary and the use of a wide variety of accurate descriptors rather than non-technical slang. Academic language contains more connective devices than social language, such as transition words like *nevertheless, moreover*, and *however*.

The language of school can be viewed along a continuum with social language and academic language occupying the end points. Social language is best represented as it occurs in natural face-to-face communication and informal interpersonal exchanges. Academic language is best represented as it occurs in the skills needed to comprehend content that is challenging, discuss concepts and ideas, and analyze and evaluate academic text. It is heavily dependent on literacy and requires the use of specific text structures to write successfully for academic purposes. In between the two end points of academic and social language, we can place tasks that share features of both, such as writing email messages to peers or instructors, asking for specific information related to a class, clarifying a process for completing an instructional task, leaving notes for friends, making lists, telling a friend about a new movie or book you read, explaining how to do a task or what you know about a topic, or evaluating a classroom activity.

Cummins's distinction between the two different types of language proficiencies (2001) has helped non-language specialists (i.e., content area teachers and mainstream faculty in institutions of higher education) develop a more sophisticated understanding of the academic language needs of L2 learners. L2 learners develop BICS in a relatively short period of time so that they can interact with their peers and teachers quite effectively. Non-language specialists who interact successfully with L2 learners for social language purposes are often misled into believing that L2 learners are also proficient users of English

in academic contexts, attributing lack of learner academic success in school to laziness or intellectual slowness, thereby disadvantaging and labeling the learners. The more likely profile is that L2 learners have developed BICS but not CALP because CALP takes much longer to develop—over seven years for ELs in K–12 contexts who do not already have academic language in a home language (Thomas & Collier, 2003, 2009). L2 learners in higher education who have already been academically successful in their first language (e.g., international or study abroad students) often develop academic language in the L2 quite quickly because they likely benefit from the academic language expertise they have already developed in their first language. However, some ELs who were educated in K–12 schools (e.g., in the United States or Australia) have difficulty acquiring CALP; hence, tertiary institutions often include academic language development courses in their service-oriented/conditional admit/pre-admission curricula.

Academic language is the specific language through which academic subjects are taught and assessed. This language includes the specialized vocabulary, grammar, discourse, textual markers, and functional language skills associated with academic instruction and the mastery of academic materials and tasks. Academic language requires that L2 learners have sufficient background knowledge in general English so that they can successfully apply that knowledge to specific disciplines. For example, the words *division* and *product* have very different meanings in the disciplines of math and business. Academic language development tasks must be incorporated into all subjects and content areas; consequently, all content area and mainstream teachers need an extensive knowledge of academic language in their content areas (Schleppegrell & O'Hallaron, 2011; Zwiers & Hammerla, 2017).

Defining Academic Language Functions

Academic language functions are the specific tasks, purposes, or uses of language in academic environments, excluding the social uses of school language, which are similar to the social uses of language outside of the language classroom. Academic language functions include comparing, classifying, analyzing, persuading, synthesizing, and evaluating (see Table 11.2 for additional examples of academic language functions).

Researchers have used other terms to refer to the concept of academic language functions. In the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), Chamot and O'Malley (1994) used the term *learning strategies*, while Oxford (1990) used the term *language learning strategies* in her research.

Table 11.1 Social and Academic Language Functions

Social Language Functions	Academic Language Functions
Asking for help	Classifying
Asking personal questions	Comparing/contrasting
Describing	Defining
Expressing feelings	Describing
Giving information	Negotiating
Greetings	Persuading
Leave takings	Sequencing
Requesting information	Summarizing

Doyle et al. (1983) and Nunan (1989) prefer *academic tasks* (see also Chapter 19), but institutions of higher education often use the term *academic skills*. In this chapter, we use the term *academic language functions* to reference literacy-based tasks, such as defining, sequencing, comparing attributes and content concepts, summarizing text, and sequencing (Dutro & Levy, 2008; Dutro & Moran, 2003).

In order to clarify the meaning of academic language functions, we list some social language functions and some academic language functions in Table 11.1. Examples of social language functions are presented in the left-hand column while examples of academic language functions are presented in the right-hand column. The language functions in the left-hand column are typical of social language, while the ones in the right-hand column are typical of academic language. Neither list is meant to be exhaustive but rather is meant to show examples to highlight the differences. For a list of additional academic language functions, see Table 11.2.

Academic Language Functions in the Classroom

One of the important benefits for learners in working with academic language functions is that they can apply the skills they have developed from working with social language functions, such as describing—a language function that can occur in both social and academic contexts—to an academic setting. For example, perhaps an L2 learner wants to describe a car he has just purchased to one of his friends. If he is to be successful in this endeavor, he will need to talk about specific features of the car that would make the purchase a good one when "evaluated" by peers (e.g., the make and model, color, speed potential,

Table 11.2 Typical Academic Language Functions for Secondary School Contexts

Academic Language Functions

Analyze	Infer
Argue for/against	Inquire
Classify	Interpret
Compare	Label
Contrast	Negotiate
Critique	Organize
Define	Persuade
Describe	Predict
Enumerate	Represent
Evaluate	Re-tell
Explain	Sequence
Generalize	Summarize
Hypothesize	Symbolize
Identify	Synthesize

engine, and gas consumption). To do this, the learner would need to determine on which features he should focus and then provide details about the features. If learners know how to describe in one context, they can apply that skill to another context, such as describing a picture of the human brain in an anatomy class or a proposed model of efficiency in a business class.

Curriculum developers and teachers working in the tradition of an academic language functions approach must identify the most common academic language functions and then operationalize the general academic language functions by focusing on the language with which learners need to engage. Table 11.2 offers a list of some of the most common academic language functions that operate across content areas in most contexts.

Teaching academic English or designing curricula from the perspective of academic language functions requires teachers and curriculum designers not only to identify the academic language functions but also to operationalize each function by specifying the language demands associated with each of the functions. Table 11.3 presents a selected number of academic language functions—classify, predict, persuade, sequence, and synthesize. For each of these functions the language demands, instructional tasks, specific words and phrases, and appropriate language samples have been specified.

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Task: Explore

Using Table 11.3 as a guide, select two additional academic language functions from Table 11.2 and specify the language demands, instructional activity, tasks, words, discourse markers, and phrases. Then, provide example formulaic expressions. Share your work with others. Finally, combine your work with Table 11.3 so that you have an expanded list of academic language functions with their specified language demands.

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Table 11.3 shows the curriculum design process for connecting academic language functions to the specific language demands associated with the instructional activity and the specific tasks in which learners will participate. In addition, useful words, phrases, discourse markers, and sentences can be targeted to the specific context.

Table 11.3 The Curriculum Design Process for Specifying Language Demands

Academic Language Function	Language Demand	Instructional Activity and Appropriate Language Frames
Classifying	Learners use words, phrases, or sentences to place an object, action, event, or concept in the category to which it belongs	Instructional activity: group objects or ideas according to their characteristics or identify the rules that govern class or category membership Tasks: create a collaborative poster that features categories and offers examples of each one, participate in word sorts, or sort and label in pairs Words: sort, categorize, select, belongs to, fits into, features, traits of, qualities of Phrases and discourse markers: _____ consists of [quantity] categories. Formulaic expressions: The [quantity] categories of _____ are _____, _____, and _____ We can classify _____ according to _____ _____ and _____ are types of _____ because _____ The most salient characteristics of this group are _____ These _____ are arranged according to _____

(continued)

Table 11.3 (continued)

Academic Language Function	Language Demand	Instructional Activity and Appropriate Language Frames
Persuading	Learners use phrases or sentences to present ideas, opinions, and/ or principles with the intent of convincing others of a position or conviction	Instructional activity: state reasons for an action, make decisions, explain why, state your points of view, provide support, convince others of your position Tasks: participate in an anticipatory chart/set, conduct a Socratic seminar, participate in a debate Words: although, because, defend, show, rationalize, argue, convince, influence, sway, urge, claim, evidence for, have to, ought to, should, appeal Phrases and discourse markers: moreover, furthermore, for this reason, in my opinion, it seems to me Formulaic expressions: My primary reason for thinking this is _____ It is vital to consider _____ The advantages of _____ outweigh the disadvantages of _____ These facts/reasons/data strongly suggest that _____
Predicting	Learners use words, phrases, or sentences to express a notion or idea about an action in the future based on evidence available in the present time frame	Instructional activity: make inferences from selected information, hypothesize, and make predictions Tasks: make guesses and check correctness, apply the scientific method, find patterns, and use text structure and visuals to make predictions about the text Words: guess, estimate, speculate, conclude, conclusion Phrases and discourse markers: in light of, due to, since, maybe, perhaps, obviously, evidently Formulaic expressions: I predict that _____ Given _____, I hypothesize that _____ If I use _____ then I predict _____ I foresee _____ because _____ Based on _____, I infer that _____ My conjecture is that _____ I anticipate that _____
Sequencing	Learners use words, phrases, or sentences to express the order of information: first, next, then, and finally	Instructional activity: sequence objects, ideas, or events Tasks: describe or make a timeline, develop a continuum, create a cycle, explain a process or retell a narrative sequence Words: first and other ordinals, next, then, and finally, simultaneously, initially Phrases and discourse markers: at which point, at this time, simultaneously, subsequently. Formulaic expressions: First, _____ and second, _____ While _____ was _____, _____ was _____ Finally, _____ completed _____ Previously, _____ had decided to _____ Initially _____ Sometime later _____ In the first step/stage _____

Academic Language Function	Language Demand	Instructional Activity and Appropriate Language Frames
Synthesizing	Learners use phrases or sentences to express, describe, or explain relationships among two or more ideas	Instructional activity: combine or integrate ideas to form a whole group Tasks: collaborate on a poster, create a compare/contrast matrix, create and use mnemonics, write summaries, solve a problem by proposing multiple solutions, write a short paper from an outline, defend a point of view Words: combine, contain, entail, merge, form, put together, consist of, combination Phrases and discourse markers: partitives, such as a part of, a segment of, almost all, hardly any Formulaic expressions: From my perspective, _____ means _____ The main point(s) is/are _____ The point that _____ makes is related to _____ in that _____ The concept of _____ can be expressed as _____ I think that _____ and _____ 's viewpoints are related in that _____

Managing Language Demands and Cognition

A taxonomy that both English language teachers and curriculum developers have found useful in managing demands on cognition in designing curriculum using an academic language functions approach is Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom, 1956; Bloom & Krathwohl, 1977). The taxonomy assists teachers and curriculum designers in thinking about instructional tasks and the language demands of those tasks. Bloom presented six different levels of cognitive demand as follows: (a) knowledge, (b) comprehension, (c) application, (d) analysis, (e) synthesis, and (f) evaluation. Knowledge, comprehension, and application are often referred to as lower-order thinking skills because they require less demand on cognition while analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are known as higher-order thinking skills because they require greater demands on cognition. (For definitions of each level and descriptions of tasks associated with each one, see Chapter 15 for information on using the taxonomy within a content and language integrated approach and Volume I, Chapter 10.) Figure 11.1 presents each of the levels in Bloom's Taxonomy with a list of descriptors for academic language functions for each level. These descriptors can be used in writing performance objectives for learners. The information is not meant to be exhaustive, but it is useful for teachers and curriculum designers because it provides a system for managing cognitive and language demands.

While English language teachers certainly want to challenge their students, they also want to find a way to create a balance for learners. When both language and cognitive demands are too high for extended periods of

time, learners experience anxiety that can interfere with learning. When language and cognitive demands are insufficient for learners to feel challenged, this feeling can also interfere with learning (see Csikszentmihalyi, 1997 and his model for explaining optimal learning experiences). Using a tool, such as Figure 11.1, can guide teachers and curriculum designers in selecting cognitive and language tasks that are balanced. For example, with new concepts and language, a teacher may want to begin instruction by using tasks associated with the lower levels of cognition, such as knowledge and comprehension, until learners become familiar with the concepts. At that time, they are likely ready to be challenged with more difficult tasks and better prepared to handle the additional demands.

To meet these demands, Hammond and Gibbons (2001) propose a scaffolding model for managing demands on cognition and increasing motivation. In this model, two factors are considered: the amount of challenge presented by the academic task and the amount of support or scaffolding[1] that the teacher provides to the students in order that they may accomplish the goals of the task. If the challenge is high and the support is too low, the chances for failure are very high. If the challenge is not high enough and the teacher offers no support, boredom will result and behavior problems will most likely result. If the teacher is providing support for the learners, but the challenge is low, learning is not likely to occur even though the teacher may be attempting to engage the students in learning. An ideal situation for English learners is for the challenge of the task

Lower-order thinking skills

Level 1 Knowledge: arrange, define, duplicate, label, list, memorize, name, order, recognize, related, recall, repeat reproduce, and state.

Level 2 Comprehension: classify, describe, discuss, explain, express, identify, indicate, locate, recognize, report, restate, review, select, and translate.

Level 3 Application: apply, choose, demonstrate, dramatize, employ, illustrate, interpret, operate, practice, schedule, sketch, solve, and use.

Higher-order thinking skills

Level 4 Analysis: analyze, appraise, calculate, categorize, compare, contrast, criticize, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, examine, experiment, question, and test.

Level 5 Synthesis: arrange, assemble, collect, compose, construct, create, design, develop, formula, manage, organize, plan, prepare, propose, and set up.

Level 6 Evaluation: appraise, argue, assess, attach, choose, compare, defend, estimate, evaluate, judge, predict, rate, select, support, and value.

Figure 11.1 Using Academic Language: Bloom's Taxonomy

to remain high and the support to remain high. In this way, teachers are able to extend learning capability. See Vygotsky (1978) for more information on the Zone of Proximal Development and the importance of providing learners with opportunities to interact with more knowledgeable others and Cummins (2001) for information on how the intersection of two continua—degree of cognitive demand and context embeddedness—create four quadrants that provide guidance to teachers on how they can manage cognition through the selection of activities in different quadrants.

Task: Expand

Do a search online for academic language. Visit at least three different websites. From the resources you find on websites, select two ideas that you think would be helpful for you in designing materials for a curriculum that focuses on academic language functions. If possible, share your list with a colleague.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have provided you with an introduction to an academic language functions approach to curriculum design and also provided background information across academic contexts where language learners are required to work with difficult and complex academic content while learning English. We offer background information to explain why there is concern about the development of academic language across many different contexts. In addition to defining academic language, we have provided examples of academic language functions, and introduced a process for curriculum design that attaches language demands to the cognitive demands of learning in an academic context. Bloom's Taxonomy and a scaffolding framework have also been offered as useful tools for managing cognitive and language demands.

Questions for Discussion

1. How would you define academic language? How is it different from social language?
2. In your own words, explain the difference between Cummins's two types of language proficiency.

3. What is an academic language function? Provide an example.
4. How can teachers and curriculum designers tie academic language functions to the language demands of learners?
5. Why is it important to manage cognitive and language demands in the curriculum design process?

Note

1. Scaffolding theory was first used in the literature when Wood et al. (1976) described how tutors interacted with preschoolers to help them solve a problem. Vygotsky (1978) later used the term to refer to the support given by experts when assisting novices. Cazden (1983) defined a scaffold as temporary framework to be used during the construction of new knowledge. Ovando et al. (2003) further defined scaffolding as "providing contextual supports for meaning through the use of simplified language, teacher modeling, visuals and graphics, cooperative learning, and hands-on learning" (p. 345), and this is a term consistent with its use in the scaffolding model described by Hammond and Gibbons (2001).

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12

GENRE- AND TEXT-BASED APPROACH

VIGNETTE

I am observing an adult ESL class for immigrants and refugees in Australia. The students are beginners and have a variety of language backgrounds: Burmese, Farsi, Singhalese, Dinka, and Sudanese Arabic. The previous day, the class had taken a field trip to a nearby wildlife park, where they had been able to observe many different Australian animals, pat kangaroos, hold koalas, and learn about native animal habitats, diets, and life cycles. As well as touring the exhibits, the park's education officer had conducted a lesson about the animals, adjusted to the students' language level. On the day that I am observing, the teacher is helping the class write recounts about their experiences at the wildlife park. The teacher uses the whiteboard to present a grid for scaffolding the structure and grammar of the recount, including simple metalanguage such as "recount," "spoken," "written," and "paragraphs." The teacher elicits key vocabulary, such as names of animals and descriptive adjectives. She does this through "wh-" question prompts, such as "where," "when," and "who with." In this way, the students develop a skeleton oral recount together. She then asks them to write their own individual recounts. As the students work on their recounts, she walks around, supporting students as needed. The students are very engaged in the activity and happy to relate what they did at the park.

[Murray, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. What are the aspects of instruction that helped learners achieve success in writing their own recounts?
2. What else do you think this teacher might do to extend learners' ability to write recounts?
3. What other topics could the teacher use for teaching recount?
4. How important do you think it is for learners to understand the structure of recount? When might they use it outside the classroom?

Introduction

In Chapters 9, 10, and 11, we detailed how curricula can be organized around sentence-level structures and notions and functions. However, language also occurs in extended texts, whether written or spoken. In Chapter 9 of Volume I, we have an extensive discussion of the structure of language beyond the text. In this chapter, we will only discuss the way curricula have been organized around the level of text in a genre/text approach.

Defining Text and Genre

Text has been variously defined. Van Dijk (1977), for example, uses text for the abstract theoretical construct, with its linguistic realization being discourse. In contrast, Halliday (1978) asserts that language is abstract and realized in text (either spoken or written). Other scholars use text for written language and discourse for spoken language (Cicourel, 1975). For our purposes here, we will use *text* to refer to any extended language in use, whether written or spoken. Genre also has many different interpretations. Although it began as a literary concept, three distinct schools of genre-based curricula have developed over the past few decades: (a) English for specific purposes (ESP), (b) systemic functional linguistics (SFL), and (c) North American New Rhetoric Studies (Coffin, 2001; Hyon, 1996). For ESP researchers and practitioners, particular genres in particular contexts have a specific set of textual features to achieve a communicative purpose (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990). Within ESP, "[g]enre refers to abstract, socially recognized ways of using language" (Hyland, 2007, p. 149). Within SFL, "genre represents the system of staged goal oriented social processes through

which social subjects in a given culture live their lives" (Martin, 1997, p. 13). Both ESP and SFL approaches to genre have been influential in ELT, as well as in developing theoretical and research-based studies. In contrast, New Rhetoric scholars have focused more on theory and research, examining the relationship between text and context, taking the view that discourse structures of a genre are less important than the actions it accomplishes (Miller, 1984; Orlikowski & Yates, 1994).

Each of these perspectives will be discussed in more detail in the section on the major characteristics of genre-based curricula. Because genre- and text-based curricula is a rather clumsy term, we will refer to curricula that take texts as their organizing principle as GB (genre-based).

Task: Explore

Many studies consider the business letter to be a genre. Find five business letters and analyze their schematic structure and the types of syntactic structures (such as tense, connectives, and types of verbs). From this brief analysis, would you agree that the business letters have sufficient commonality of schematic and syntactic structure to be considered the same genre?

Major Characteristics of GB Approaches

Although there may be a variety of implementation options, most GB approaches use an integrated curriculum, even when used for a writing program. Common across these three genre schools is the view that *genres* are socio-culturally recurring ways of using language to achieve specific purposes. Genres make use of both schematic text structure and syntactic features of language, such that texts in each genre are distinct from other texts with different social purposes and structures. Because genres are culturally bound, learners from different cultural backgrounds may not be familiar with the genres of English. The starting point, therefore, for the GB curriculum is to identify the genres learners will need for their particular purposes in learning and using English. The intent is for learners to engage with whole texts, not decontextualized sentences or utterances. Both ESP and SFL approaches explicitly teach the structures of genres (as the teacher in the vignette was doing) because they believe that learners need explicit instruction in both the linguistic features and the schematic structure

(i.e., organizational hierarchy) of the genre in order to be able to achieve mastery (see, for example, Christie & Misson, 1998).

Common to both ESP and SFL approaches is the centrality of needs analysis, premised on the notion that curricula can only be developed if designers determine the specific skills, texts, communicative situations, and linguistic forms learners need for their occupational, educational, or professional lives (Hyland, 2007). How then are these principles and characteristics realized in actual curricula?

While GB ESP approaches were originally mostly used in English-dominant countries, such as Australia and the United Kingdom, over the past several decades they have been used extensively and studied throughout the world. SFL initially influenced several curricula in Australia and the United Kingdom. These educators subsequently have influenced curricula in Singapore (Ministry of Education Singapore, 2010), Hong Kong (Dreyfus et al., 2016; Firkins et al., 2007), and Thailand (Kongpetch, 2006), among other countries. Here, we will discuss the genre approach used in ESP and, then, specific examples of GB curricula in Australia and Singapore.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

ESP includes, for our purposes here, English for academic purposes (EAP). By its very definition, ESP is context-specific. However, general curricula are sometimes developed, such as the national ESP curriculum framework developed in Ukraine (Havrylyuk-Yensen & Kurant, 2010; Borg, 2019). This framework was then used as the basis for designing ESP curricula for individual courses in different faculties across 15 universities. Consequently, "[t]here is a shared revised understanding across FL [foreign language] departments of what ESP is" (Borg, 2019, p. 29) and of how to design and implement effective ESP courses. However, most scholars and practitioners agree that the goal of ESP is to "help learners master the functions and linguistic conventions of texts that they need to read and write in their disciplines and professions" (Hyon, 1996, p. 698). EAP, on the other hand, is often a more general framework, with Swales (1990) identifying a general model for what he calls "creating a research space" with three "moves": establishing a territory, establishing a niche, and occupying the niche. Each move has several steps, which, he claims, are common across disciplines for academics writing for their field. While other educators have recognized that different discourse communities may have overlapping genres (for example, Hyland, 2007), most researchers claim that different disciplines construct genres differently (Hewings & Hewings, 2001). For example, a report in one

discipline may have a quite different schematic structure and syntactic features than a report in a different discipline.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1988) recognized both absolute and variable features of ESP, as follows:

- Absolute Characteristics
  - ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner.
  - ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.
  - ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse, and genres appropriate to these activities.
- Variable Characteristics
  - ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines.
  - ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English.
  - ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level.
  - ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.
  - Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

<div align="right">(pp. 4–5)</div>

Because of its very nature, ESP follows no particular methodology. Both the language and subject matter content vary with the discipline.

Australian SFL Curricula

To understand GB curricula based on SFL, it is important to have a basic understanding of SFL. In a nutshell, SFL is a way of viewing language as a strategic, meaning-making resource and, therefore, focuses on the functions of language—what language does and how it does it. The linguistic choices that speakers make are delineated in system networks. The choices include semantic, grammatical, and textual categories that are all in service to the function of language. These choices are not made linearly, but in a system. In other words, choices are constrained by other categories in the network.

GB curricula based on SFL have been the underpinning of many curricula for different groups of learners in Australia. The earliest implementations were for the disadvantaged schools project, where learners were explicitly taught the texts

they would need for schooling and their other needs. The goal was to empower socially and economically disadvantaged young people (Martin & Rothery, 1980, 1986). Since then, SFL-based GB has been used in a variety of curricula across Australia, including the 2012 national curriculum (ACARA, 2012). In this chapter, we will focus on the model that was developed in Australia's Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) and used since 1992. The curriculum developers layered a competency model over a GB model (see Chapter 21 for more details of competency-based models). Over time, the framework has been revised and adjusted to address changes in Australia's immigration program. The current framework for the post-beginner course includes modules with learner objectives as follows:

- engage in and listen to basic spoken dialogues;
- read and write basic story texts;
- read and write basic opinion texts;
- develop basic English language skills for job seeking;
- develop basic visual and multimodal literacy (i.e., literacy that uses one or more of the communication modes, such as audio or spatial); and
- develop basic English vocabulary for work, health, and safety.

<div align="right">(TAFE NSW, 2019, n.p.)</div>

In the 2008 curriculum, the competencies were expressed in terms of learning outcomes, such as these sample outcomes for the Certificate in Spoken and Written English (CSWE) II for speaking (NSW AMES, 2008):

- can negotiate a spoken transaction for goods/services/to obtain information,
- can participate in a short conversational discussion, and
- can participate in a short conversation involving a recount/explanation.

Each learning outcome had accompanying assessment criteria, conditions of assessment, and a sample task. For example, the learning outcome "can negotiate a spoken transaction for goods/services" had the following assessment criteria, conditions of assessment, and sample tasks.

Assessment Criteria
- uses appropriate strategies in transactional exchange, for example, opening, making requests, confirming/checking, and closing;
- gives contact details intelligibly;

- records relevant details;
- uses appropriate vocabulary;
- pronounces key utterances intelligibly; and
- requests goods/services using questions or statements.

Conditions of Assessment

- face-to-face/telephone;
- known interlocutor, fluent in English;
- contact details include name, address, and telephone number;
- relevant details may include price and features of goods/date and time of service; and
- time limit: two minutes.

Sample Tasks

Sample tasks included learners role-playing making an appointment, arranging a service call, or buying an appliance.

The outcome was at the genre level, such as the aforementioned service negotiation or the personal recount the teacher was teaching in the vignette. As an example of genre structure, the schematic structure and syntactic features of a recount are provided in Table 12.1.

SFL Influences in Singapore's English Curriculum

Singapore's national curricula across all subject areas recognize the importance of 21st century competencies and are, therefore, focused on learning outcomes. The various sub-syllabi begin with general beliefs and principles that underlie

Table 12.1 Structure of Recounts

Schematic Structure	Syntactic Features
• orientation to the context • records of events, usually series of paragraphs in temporal sequence • reorientation with a closure of the events • optional coda with a comment on the events	• specific participants • past tense • verbs of action • temporal connectives to indicate sequence of events • time and place phrases

the curriculum. For primary level English language, one of the principles is that "[l]anguage is a system with rules, patterns, and conventions, which can be used to create various discourses or types and forms of texts, both print and non-print, for different purposes, audiences, contexts, and cultures" (Ministry of Education Singapore, 2020, p. 13). Therefore, one objective is that learners will be able to "[s]peak, write and represent in standard English that is grammatical, fluent, intelligible, and appropriate for different purposes, audiences, contexts, and cultures" (p. 6). A learning outcome that demonstrates achievement of that goal requires that the learners can "[r]espond to a wide and extensive range of texts for enjoyment and understanding how grammatical/lexical items and semiotic modes are used in diverse contexts" (p. 21).

To achieve the outcome, learners need the skills for using language to shape the meaning of texts, such as the specific language features of different types of texts. Text types (genres) include personal recounts, factual recounts, narratives, descriptive reports, and arguments and should include multimodal communication that uses the linguistic, visual, gestural, audio, and spatial modalities (see Chapter 4 for a detailed discussion on multimodality). For all language skills, learners are exposed to texts and their genre features are discussed and explicitly taught.

So, for example, for *information reports* at primary level the features that need to be taught are:

- adjective, adjective phrases and clauses for clarity in descriptions of participants and setting;
- language for comparing, contrasting, defining, and classifying to indicate relationships between facts;
- third person pronouns for conveying a sense of distance and objectivity;
- the simple present for indicating the timeless nature of facts; and
- action verbs, mental verbs and linking verbs for conveying a variety of meanings.

(Ministry of Education Singapore, 2010, p. 96)

New Rhetoric

In contrast to the explicit teaching of generic structures as proposed in SFL and ESP, the New Rhetoric school argues that "learning a new genre is not a conscious process and that genres are generated in response to a task . . . [and] they assert that students acquire new genres in the process of struggling to solve a problem" (Coffin, 2001, p. 113). For New Rhetoricians, overt awareness and knowledge of schematic and other linguistic structures comes as a result of successful performance; in other words, what the writer or speaker wants

to achieve, whether to inform, amuse, or persuade, and so on. New Rhetoric emerged as a counter to the logical argumentation of classical Greek rhetoric; it recognizes the interplay of text and context. Consequently, it also emphasizes the transitory nature of genres, recognizing that they change over time and place, constantly being contested (Freedman & Medway, 1994).

Task: Explore

Examine an ESL/EFL textbook used at your institution. To what extent are whole texts represented? Is their structure presented deductively or inductively? Compare your findings with those of a colleague.

Issues in a GB Approach

Some educators consider genres and their linguistic features to be "subjective, culture-bound, vaguely defined, or even irrelevant to diverse types of ESL/EFL learners" (Hinkel, 2011). Such educators have argued that it is impossible to identify all the schemata and structures for every genre (Bottomley et al., 1994), especially because, being sociocultural artifacts, they are constantly evolving. In fact, "full descriptions of the structures of most oral and written genres have yet to be developed" (Murray, 1994, p. 63). Even if learners replicate the structures of the genres they need to use, they may not have the mastery that they need to make the appropriate rhetorical choices for a particular task. As already indicated, genres vary across disciplines; furthermore, they may have other genres embedded within them, or several genres may be mixed for deliberate effect, such as in infomercials, which coopt information texts to advertise. Many modern texts are, in fact, multimodal (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000), as discussed in Chapter 4. Additionally, individual texts of the same genre may vary from each other, variations that result from individual contexts of text construction. McCarthy and Carter (1994) criticize SFL genre approaches for not sufficiently accounting for such variation.

Because GB approaches include explicit teaching, many who advocate critical pedagogy criticize such explicit instruction because they believe it prevents learner agency (Benesch, 2001) by denying them the opportunity to shape their own goals and how to reach them. However, relations of power are exercised and enacted through discourse (Fairclough, 1989). Consequently, proponents

of GB approaches assert that if learners can master the genres of power and consciously understand how power operates through language, they will be empowered (Delpit, 1995; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Luke & Dooley, 2011). In a study of children's written texts, Hultin and Westman (2013) found that these first-grade children resisted "prescribed dominant genres. This resistance [was] seen as a creative way for children to use their power and agency by creating hybrid genres" (p. 280). Bhatia (2004), on the other hand, claims that learners need to fully master standard genres to be able to use them creatively. This tension between the genres of power and the agency of people without power plays out during the curriculum design process as choices are made on language content. It is, therefore, incumbent upon curriculum designers to be knowledgeable about the local ideologies that impact on generic choices.

While genres may be fluid, all language learners need to acquire not only the conventions of sentence-level structures, but also the conventions of text structure. There is ample research evidence to show that even if learners master English sentence-level grammar, they may not be able to create and use texts appropriately, whether written or oral (Hammond, 1986). In assessment, for example, learners may be able to successfully perform one task, but not another, because the required genre is not one that they have already mastered (Murray, 1994). For example, in academic writing, new English learners often use personal narrative when a formal information text is required when they have not yet mastered the genre of information texts.

Teaching in a GB Approach

As indicated earlier, New Rhetoric is less involved in curricula. Therefore, in this section we will only examine instruction using ESP- or SFL-oriented curricula, both of which use explicit teaching of genre characteristics, along with enabling linguistic structures and vocabulary.

The SFL instructional model typically has a five-part iterative cycle as follows:

- building the context,
- modeling and deconstructing the text,
- jointly constructing the text,
- independently constructing the text, and
- linking the text to related texts.

(Feez, 1998)

This process creates scaffolding (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001) for learners to move from being unable to perform the task, to being able to do the task

collaboratively, to being able to do it independently, to being able to apply that knowledge and skill to a different task.

The Singapore curriculum of 2010 provides guidelines for its approach to teaching that includes:

> systematic and explicit instruction of grammar, with a focus on word, phrase, and sentence level grammar before a gradual incorporation of text level grammar at the Upper Primary and Secondary levels . . . the use of a variety of print and non-print resources that provides authentic contexts for incorporating the development of information, media, and visual literacy skills in the teaching of listening, reading, viewing, speaking, writing, and representing.
>
> (Ministry of Education Singapore, 2010, pp. 8–9)

SFL GB curricula all recognize and incorporate multiliteracies (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000), a term designed to capture the changing nature of literacy in a world that has culturally diverse literacy practices and whose technology is changing literacy communities and artifacts. For example, email, Twitter, and Facebook have all afforded new literacies. SFL curricula have sought to capture these evolving genres by including different modes of communication in instruction, such as in the Singapore example.

In the SFL model, the linguistic theoretical base is an understanding of language as meaning making in context, which includes the connection between context and the language system. It, therefore, teaches register (see Chapter 9, Volume I), that is, the varieties of language that result from characteristics of the use or function to which the language is put. Typical registers are sports announcer talk, talk about the weather, or writing about health. Genres make use of specific registers, for example, a chemistry laboratory report will have specific structures, but also use the register of formal chemistry (Robinson & Stoller, 2008).

Teaching ESP GB curricula also involves explicit instruction of the structures of genres and the language of registers. However, because "ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1988, p. 4), there is considerable variation in teaching ESP courses. An area that is often overlooked in ESP curricula for occupational purposes is the casual conversation needed in the workplace (Gatehouse, 2001), a language skill that has been shown to be essential for non-native speakers to be able to both adapt to and be accepted in the workplace (Eggins & Slade, 1997). Like SFL curricula, ESP curricula have recognized the need to include new technology, although not always consciously accepting multiliteracies in their broadest sense.

Conclusion

GB approaches provide learners with the texts they will need for their lives, whether educational, occupational, or social. While there are potential disadvantages to GB, these can be overcome by planning carefully and by providing learners with opportunities to explore and create, as well as by helping them understand the flexible and fluid nature of texts.

Task: Expand

Derewianka, B. (2012). Knowledge about language in the Australian curriculum: English. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, *35*(2), 127–146. Also available at: http://ro.uow.edu.au/sspapers/129

This article has an excellent overview of SFL and its application to curriculum.

English for Specific Purposes (formerly *The ESP Journal*)

This international journal carries articles about theory and practice in ESP, including studies of genres of different professions and disciplines. The journal began publishing in 1980.

The Asian ESP Journal

This journal has articles about ESP theory and practice, including studies of different professional and academic genres across Asia, Africa, and the Middle East. Journal issues are available online at www.asian-esp-journal. com

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Questions for Discussion

1. Explain in your own words the differences and similarities among the SFL, ESP, and New Rhetoric approaches to curriculum design.
2. Think of English language learning examples for the genres *personal recount* and *factual recount*; think of text examples you could use in an ELT classroom.

3. How could teachers help learners understand the fluid nature of genre?
4. Why do you think some people criticize explicit teaching as restricting learners, rather than empowering them?
5. What is your opinion of the importance of multiliteracies in ELT? What text-types would you include in any curriculum you teach? Why?

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13

A VOCABULARY APPROACH

VIGNETTE

I am in Indonesia conducting English language teacher education programs for the U.S. Department of State. My assignment for the week is to conduct half-day workshops for teachers at one of the largest English language teaching programs in Jakarta. For the past three days, the workshops for teachers have been conducted from 9:00 AM to 12:00 noon each day. Following the workshops, I enjoyed an informal lunch with the level supervisors and the two directors. During the afternoons I consulted with the curriculum team, the level supervisors, and the two directors, on an overall revision of the curriculum; however, yesterday, it seemed as if they didn't really know what to do with me, so today I suggested that I visit classes because knowing more about the classes, teachers, and students would help me develop a better understanding of their curriculum in practice. The first class that I visited was a Level 2 class (Level 8 is the highest) with adolescent learners. There were about 20 students in the class. When I entered the class, the students were copying vocabulary words from the board into their notebooks. I noticed that the words were all related to clothing and weather. Once the teacher decided that most of the students had completed the copying activity, she moved on to a dictation of the words, which was followed by a partner dictation. Finally, students completed a cloze exercise with the vocabulary words in their workbooks. The second class that I observed was for young learners. The students were between the

(continued)

(continued)

ages of six and eight, and there were about 15 students in the class. The teacher asked the students to join her by sitting around her on the floor while she read the story. She then took large colored cards from a box and asked the students, "Who can show me where the blackboard is? The teacher's chair? The bookcase? The garbage can? The door? The pencil sharpener?" Students were chosen to respond and given colored cards with the appropriate words. They took the cards and taped them to the items in the classroom. When students finished with this activity, most of the items in the entire class are labeled. The teacher told me after class that she would leave cards in place for a week and then would take them down using a similar process in which she would ask individual students to retrieve them. The cards would be mixed up and the learners would put them up again. Although the students might not actually be reading the words, they were definitely becoming familiar with them and learning to recognize them in conjunction with the items in the room.

<div align="right">[Christison, research notes]</div>

Task: Reflect

1. What do the two different lessons in the vignette have in common instructionally?
2. How do the two lesson excerpts described in the vignette help English learners (ELs) work with vocabulary?
3. What activities does the teacher use to help learners develop vocabulary skills?

Introduction

Vocabulary is fundamental to the language learning process. One of the main barriers to student comprehension of text (both spoken and written) is a low-level understanding of social and academic vocabulary. Vocabulary often plays a major role in second language (L2) instruction and is frequently the key organizational feature of a curriculum around which other aspects of the curriculum design revolve, such as grammatical structures or instructional tasks. Given the

prominence that vocabulary has played in the design of L2 courses, curricula, and textbooks, it seems logical to recognize vocabulary as an approach to curriculum design in much the same way as language structures or functions are (see Nation, 2009, for an example of texts promoting a vocabulary approach). Vocabulary is often the organizing principle and the key factor in curriculum design. However, it is also true that vocabulary plays a major role in the design of curriculum across different approaches (Folse, 2004). As we look at vocabulary in this chapter, we will consider the role of vocabulary from these two vantage points.

Acquiring vocabulary involves more than looking up words in a dictionary, memorizing lists of words, and using them in sentences. It is a complex process that involves many factors, such as the activation of students' background knowledge and their ability to use vocabulary words in context. For example, teachers do not expect their students to know the technical vocabulary of biology before they study biology or take a course in biology. However, it is also important to remember that in addition to understanding technical vocabulary, learners need to be familiar with the vocabulary used to teach biology. As experienced teachers know, English learners with low level language proficiency may not know the basic vocabulary that is used to teach the important concepts that underpin biology, such as words like *assumption, predict, theory, hypothesis*, and *evaluate*. Yet, these words are important in understanding and discussing academic science texts. Content teachers often assume that L2 students can comprehend this type of vocabulary, when, in fact, they cannot. The words and phrases that support the technical vocabulary are not frequent in informal face-to-face communication, so it is not likely they can be picked up in the same manner as everyday social language. These words and phrases need to be explicitly taught along with the technical vocabulary of the discipline.

This chapter focuses on understanding the role that vocabulary plays in designing curriculum, particularly in academic settings. It also covers the various options available for curriculum designers who wish to focus on vocabulary, including the role of vocabulary in teaching the four skills.

Defining Vocabulary

Fundamental to any discussion of vocabulary in curriculum design is coming to an agreed upon understanding of what it means to "know" a word. Folse (2004) states that a definition of vocabulary is more than a list of single words. It also includes phrases, idioms, and phrasal verbs. To this end, vocabulary can be defined to include all of the following: (a) all the words of a language;

(b) the sum of words that are used by, understood by, or at the command of a particular person or group; (c) a list of words or phrases or formulaic expressions arranged in some logical fashion; or (d) a repertoire of communication possibilities to include words and their collocations. A *collocation* can be defined as the habitual juxtaposition of a particular word with another word or words with a frequency greater than chance (e.g., to take a risk, to do homework). These juxtapositions are determined nowadays most frequently by looking at *corpora* (i.e., samples of real-world text) that are derived through the use of an automated process. In the past decade, *corpus linguistics*, which is the study of language as it is expressed in real-world samples of language, has begun to have an impact on curriculum design as teachers and curriculum designers consult corpora to find the exact collocations and the frequency with which they occur (Biber et al., 1998; McCarthy & Carter, 2006; O'Keeffe & McCarthy, 2010).

Determining how words are used and juxtaposed with other words is an important feature of second language (L2) vocabulary instruction. For example, while the phrases *heavy rain, strong rain*, and *big rain* are all technically grammatically correct combinations, an examination of corpora would confirm *heavy rain* to be the most frequently used phrase among proficient users of English; thus, it would be the appropriate collocation. The use of corpora for identifying technical vocabulary and determining the characteristics or a specific genre for genre-based approaches (see Chapter 12) to curriculum design is becoming much more common than it was in the past. In addition, corpora are also being used by teachers and curriculum designers in other ways, for example, to teach grammar and vocabulary (see Folse, 2015; McCarthy, 2015).

Vocabulary differs relative to the difficulty it presents for learning, depending on the learners' orientation to the vocabulary and on whether the vocabulary word being learned is an unknown word for a known concept, an unknown word for an unknown concept, a known word for an unknown concept, a known word for a known concept, or a known or unknown word that can cover more than one concept. For example, in one context, a young English learner (EL) may be studying about plants in a content and language integrated course and learning about the process of *photosynthesis* (i.e., using sunlight to synthesize food from carbon dioxide and water) for the first time. In this case, the EL would be learning a previously unknown word for a previously unknown concept. In a different context, beginning language proficiency adult learners in a non-academic context may be learning the basic vocabulary for describing clothes in English; the concepts are already known, so the task is simply to learn the vocabulary for referencing clothing. In a lesson in a biology class, an EL may

come across the word *palm* in reference to trees and be confused because previous experience with the word *palm* has been in reference to the inner surface of the hand. In the biology class *palm* is used to refer to a particular type of tree—a *palm tree*. For the EL in the context of a biology class, *palm* was a known word, but it was being used to refer to a concept that was not known by the learner. Similarly, the word *skirt* could be familiar to an adult learner as a common piece of clothing. However, in a vocational program that focuses on automotive repair *skirt* is not a piece of clothing but is a cover for the rear fender cutout or a portion of the piston.

Technical vocabulary words have very specific meanings. As ELs gain experience in different contexts, they learn the specific meanings of words. For example, a learner might assume that the word *leaf* can be used in reference to all tree foliage; however, through a variety of experiences, a learner may discover that a leaf on a palm tree is called a *frond*, thereby, requiring the learner to refine her definition of a *leaf*. The difficulty level for learning new words is affected by all of these factors and must be considered by both teachers and curriculum designers in the selection of vocabulary.

Nation (2005) lists various types of knowledge that are involved in knowing a word. These types of knowledge fit into three categories. Knowing a word involves knowing its (a) form (e.g., spelling, pronunciation, and word parts); (b) meaning (e.g., the concept that the word represents, what it can and cannot refer to, what other words are related to it); and (c) use (e.g., the part of speech, the sentence patterns it fits into, and its collocations). Given the diversity of meanings associated with defining vocabulary, it is easy to see why designing curriculum to teach vocabulary to L2 learners has been described as a complex task.

Task: Explore

Choose a chapter from a textbook for English learners or use a lesson plan that you have created. Identify the vocabulary targeted for the lesson plan or chapter you have chosen. Categorize the vocabulary in terms of their difficulty level. Does the vocabulary target known or unknown concepts? What other factors influence the difficulty of learning vocabulary in the lesson? Share your results with a peer, if possible.

English Vocabulary

There are some general pieces of knowledge about English vocabulary that can aid curriculum designers and teachers in making choices about what vocabulary to include in a course or program and how to do it. These two important pieces of information are related to (a) English *etymology* (i.e., the origin of words and where they come from) and (b) the use of frequency word lists (Nation, 2005). English vocabulary comes from two major sources—Germanic (Anglo Saxon or Old English) and Latin, which came into English indirectly through French after the Norman invasion of England in 1066.

Curriculum designers need to be knowledgeable about the origins of English words and how they interact with the frequency of words in English. The main source of high frequency words in English is Anglo Saxon with Germanic words making up 97% of the most frequent 100 words in English, 57% of the first 1,000, 39% of the second 1,000, and 36% of the remaining words. On the other hand, Latin words make up only 3% of the first 100 most frequent words, but they make up 36% of the first 1,000 most frequent words and 51% of the second 1,000. Overall, Latin words make up over 90% of the words in the Academic Word List (AWL). Academic vocabulary is, therefore, based more on Latin and Greek roots than is everyday spoken English vocabulary. Therefore, word study activities that specifically focus on academic vocabulary can be very helpful in acquiring Latin and Greek words and roots. In addition to the use of academic vocabulary, academic lectures and texts tend to use longer, more complex sentences than are used in spoken English.

Nation (2005, 2010) considers the frequency counts of these different types of words and makes the following recommendations for L2 vocabulary instruction. Because there are between 1,500 and 2,000 high frequency words that are most important (West, 1953), he recommends that ELs be taught these high frequency words early on and as quickly as possible. He also points out that there are thousands of low frequency words that do not need to be targeted or taught because they will be acquired over time and are relative to a specific context; therefore, they should not take prominence in curriculum design. Rather, Nation recommends that teachers and curriculum designers focus on helping ELs with vocabulary learning strategies so that they can be successful in acquiring the large numbers of technical and low frequency words that they will encounter. For courses in which ELs must work with challenging academic content with large numbers of Latin words, centering instruction on strategies that target word study through affixation (i.e., learning the meanings of prefixes and suffixes and recognizing them in words) would be a logical application of Nation's recommendation.

Issues in L2 Vocabulary Learning

Folse (2004) identifies several myths about teaching vocabulary to ELs. Identifying these myths is important as they have the potential to influence the choices that teachers and curriculum designers make when selecting vocabulary for inclusion in lessons, courses, and programs and determining how vocabulary should be taught.

1. The first myth that many language-practitioners embrace is that grammar plays a more important role in foreign language learning than vocabulary. While using incorrect grammatical constructions can certainly interfere with communication, selecting the wrong vocabulary words prevents the intended message from getting across; therefore, the focus for instructional materials, even at the very early levels of language proficiency, should include appropriate and meaningful vocabulary, opportunities for the development of learners' vocabulary, and strategies for vocabulary learning.
2. A second myth is that word lists are not useful. The use of word lists can be an effective strategy, especially for beginning level proficiency students, who can benefit from working with short lists of words and simple definitions or synonyms. Text that includes glossed words and their meanings are the most useful for L2 learners when working with new concepts and words (Prince, 1995). Word lists do not promote a deeper knowledge of vocabulary, but they do aid in the memory retrieval process, making it possible to access new words more readily. This fact is especially evident when the vocabulary in lists is used in both written and oral communication strategies. Teachers and curriculum designers must remember that while word lists can be useful, they cannot be the only source of vocabulary learning.
3. The next myth concerns the use of *semantic sets* for introducing vocabulary. Semantic sets are groups of words that all fit into the same semantic category. The most common way of introducing vocabulary at the beginning proficiency levels is through semantic sets, such as days of the week, clothes, sports, transportation, colors, rooms in a house, food, to name a few. However, L2 learners have difficulty remembering words taught through semantic sets (Folse, 2004; Tinkham, 1993, 1997; Waring, 1997), so teachers and curriculum designers need to explore other ways of presenting vocabulary.
4. Translation can sometimes be useful for ELs as a personal choice. L2 learners who were exposed to the words and their corresponding translations had better task scores than L2 informants who were exposed to words and their corresponding pictures (de Groot et al., 1994). This finding is not

meant to suggest that translation be included in the design of a course or curriculum; however, if it is a learner's request or choice, it should not provoke negative feedback from teachers. A quick translation from a teacher or peer can lead to comprehension of more than just a word, especially if the word is pivotal in understanding a text and is a form of scaffolding (see Chapter 11).

5. While guessing the meaning of vocabulary in context can be a useful reading strategy, especially for L2 learners at the advanced level and native speakers, it is not an effective vocabulary learning strategy, particularly for learners with low levels of language proficiency. While contextual clues may be prevalent in authentic materials, they are often missing from texts that are used for ELs. Even if contextual clues are present, L2 learners must know the vocabulary associated with the context. Teachers and curriculum designers should remember that L2 vocabulary should be taught and practiced.

6. Another myth is that "good" L2 learners need to employ only a few strategies to help them learn new L2 words. In fact, L2 learners need a variety of vocabulary learning strategies, and these strategies should be taught, practiced, and included in the design of a course or a curriculum. Vocabulary learning strategies include such activities as auditory rehearsal (i.e., repeating information over and over again either in one's mind or aloud), keyword imagery (i.e., visually descriptive or figurative language), and word study.

7. The seventh myth is that only monolingual dictionaries should be used in language classes. Folse (2004) argues that the use of bilingual dictionaries should be encouraged in the design of courses and curricula.

8. The last myth concerns the purposeful teaching of vocabulary. Folse (2004) states that it is a myth to believe that L2 vocabulary does not need to be taught and that L2 learners will pick it up simply by exposure to written text or oral language. Course and curriculum designers, as well as teachers, must incorporate the purposeful teaching of vocabulary and the use of vocabulary learning strategies in the design process for all proficiency levels in all contexts.

Planning for Vocabulary Instruction

Nation (2018) asserts that teachers and curriculum designers should plan for vocabulary learning just as they plan for other aspects of curriculum design, and he makes the following fundamental recommendations.

1. Determine the number and type of words that should be targeted for student learning. In order to make this determination, it is important to consider

four different classes of vocabulary words: (a) high frequency words, (b) academic words, (c) technical words (words related to a specific topic), and (d) low frequency words. It is also important to select words from each of the categories. High frequency words, which include function and some content words, should be given priority in beginning proficiency level classes. Targeting fewer words and working with these words in depth is better for retention than targeting more words and providing fewer opportunities for practice.

2. Incorporate the psychological processes used in learning when teaching vocabulary. These processes include the following: (a) helping L2 learners notice targeted vocabulary in the input in either spoken or written form and getting them to attend to targeted vocabulary by giving them multiple exposures to the vocabulary (Schmidt, 1990, 1995), (b) providing multiple opportunities to retrieve targeted vocabulary, and (c) promoting the creative use of targeted vocabulary by providing opportunities to use new vocabulary in new contexts. The more deliberate the attention that learners give to words, the more likely it is that these words will be learned (Hulstijn, 2001).

3. Space out vocabulary learning. L2 vocabulary learning is a cumulative process that entails learning form, meaning, and use. Teaching L2 vocabulary should be spaced out over time so that it is possible to focus on each part of the process and avoid information overload. Vocabulary instruction that is spaced out allows learners to explore the forms, meanings, and uses of vocabulary more in depth, which is not possible when all of these types of language are introduced and practiced in a single teaching encounter.

Vocabulary Development and the Four Skills

L2 learners develop knowledge about vocabulary based on the different ways in which they learn it. Although it is important that vocabulary be taught to L2 learners explicitly, it is also important for curriculum designers to remember that vocabulary can also be learned incidentally through all of the four skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Listening and Speaking

Teachers and curriculum designers should plan listening and speaking activities to increase learners' repertoire of words. In addition, listening activities that focus on vocabulary development should include interesting content and provide opportunities for learners to receive input that involves them in negotiating

meaning with their peers. For example, listening to stories can be useful in building vocabulary if the story is interesting, comprehensible, and involves a certain degree of repetition (Elley, 1989). Speaking activities that provide learners with opportunities to work together cooperatively can be valuable, especially if the activities involve problem solving activities and role-plays, which give learners opportunities to recycle important vocabulary and use it both receptively and productively. Eliciting specific vocabulary from students can be achieved through the use of semantic maps. Semantic maps are graphic organizers, and their purpose is to display visually the connections between words, phrases, and concepts to assist learners in understanding and recalling information. The use of semantic maps is meant to focus L2 learners on specific vocabulary and give them opportunities to explain and justify connections in the semantic map.

Reading and Writing

In addition to listening and speaking, reading and writing can promote learners' vocabulary enrichment. L2 teachers should select reading materials that are appropriate to the level of their students. Nation (2018) states that materials for language learners should include graded readers, especially at beginning levels of language proficiency. Even though graded readers are criticized because they are not authentic (i.e., texts that are used in real world contexts outside of the classroom), Nation argues that they can play an important role in the development of L2 vocabulary. If L2 learners do not know the meaning of a significant number of words in a text, they will not read it. He proposes that the value of a text, whether graded or authentic, should be measured by the readers' responses to the text. Most academic English learners will also need to transition to working with unmodified texts. When unmodified texts are used, teachers will likely need to adjust instruction and focus on guiding learners through the text by using glosses and visuals, such as pictures, graphs, and maps, which contribute to text comprehensibility for L2 learners and should be included in the design of curriculum.

Because reading large quantities of text promotes vocabulary development (Grabe & Stoller, 2011), it is important for curriculum designers to focus on how to make reading interesting and enjoyable so that L2 learners will read. In addition to encouraging reading as part of L2 vocabulary instruction, L2 teachers should explicitly teach high frequency words (Grabe & Stoller, 2011). A lack of vocabulary knowledge most certainly gets in the way of being able to enjoy reading a text, but it is also one of the main difficulties L2 learners have when writing in the target language (Johnson, 2017; Johnson, Acevedo, & Mercado, 2016); therefore, teachers should encourage learners to see writing tasks as opportunities to expand their L2 vocabulary.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

In order to deal with the large number of vocabulary items in the lexicon, L2 learners need to develop strategies. These strategies need to be taught and developed in the classroom using the high frequency words so that learners can use the strategies independently to deal with the thousands of low frequency words that they will encounter over time (Teng, 2015). Nation (2005) identifies four important vocabulary learning strategies: (a) inferring meanings from context, (b) learning from word cards, (c) using word parts, and (d) using a dictionary. L2 learners need guidance and opportunities to develop skills with these strategies (see Nation, 2005, 2008, 2018, for guidelines for teaching each of these recommended strategies). Vocabulary strategy instruction is an important component in the curriculum design process.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have outlined some basic considerations for L2 vocabulary in curriculum design. In doing so, we consider how curriculum designers need to define vocabulary by thinking about what it means to know a word and include notions such as formulaic expressions and collocations in their definitions. In addition, we have looked at some issues in vocabulary learning and English vocabulary learning more specifically. We have also provided some basic guidelines and recommendations for planning vocabulary instruction and including vocabulary instruction in teaching the four skills. Finally, we stress the importance of including vocabulary learning strategies in the design process because of the number of low frequency words that L2 learners will encounter in academic texts.

Task: Expand

Folse, K. S. (2004). *Vocabulary myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching*. University of Michigan Press.

This book breaks down the teaching of second language vocabulary into eight commonly held myths. The goal is to foster a paradigm shift that views vocabulary development as fundamental in the L2 learning process.

Nation, I. S. P. (2018). *Learning vocabulary in another language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.

This is a book about teaching and learning vocabulary and the role that vocabulary plays in a language development program. The goal of the book is to promote vocabulary development within a balanced language course that consists of four main strands—learning vocabulary from meaning-focused input, form-focused instruction, meaning-focused output, and a balanced course in fluency development. The goal of the book is to help teachers and curriculum designers determine how vocabulary fits into all strands.

Questions for Discussion

1. What does it mean to know a word? What are the different levels of knowing described in this chapter?
2. What do you think are the main concepts that teachers and curriculum designers should know about English vocabulary?
3. Explain your position on each of the following pedagogical practices for teaching L2 vocabulary: (a) the use of dictionaries, (b) the effectiveness of word lists, and (c) teaching ELs how to infer or guess meanings from context.
4. Name one vocabulary learning strategy that you see as important for inclusion in the curriculum design process and explain why teaching vocabulary strategies to L2 learners might be considered important.

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14

A LANGUAGE SKILLS APPROACH

VIGNETTE

I am working as a private consultant for an English language-teaching center in Brazil. I have been hired to provide an evaluation of the center's curriculum and make recommendations for changes or improvements. I am working closely with the center's administrators, but I report to the Board of Trustees. I have been told that the purpose of the evaluation is part of the board's desire to be proactive in implementing quality control measures at the center. Prior to my arrival, I studied and familiarized myself with a number of written documents, including most of the center's textbooks, a number of sample lesson plans, and the curriculum guides. I believe that I have a good idea about the center's intended curriculum based on what they have sent me. As part of the process, I have been visiting classes and will do so again tomorrow. So far today, I have observed six courses, and I have three more to observe before the day ends. After that, I will spend several days interviewing stakeholders—administrators, staff, instructors, students, and even some parents—before I write my report. On paper the center presents itself as having a very traditional curriculum that is based primarily on the four skills. The center offers eight levels with four courses at each level—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. There are other optional courses available for different levels. For example, at Levels 1 and 2, there is a pronunciation course; for Levels 4–8, there is a conversation club; at Levels 6 and 8, the course is U.S. culture. Today, I have observed two

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listening classes, two speaking classes, one reading class, and one writing class. The classes were at Levels 3–6. In the Level 4 listening class this morning, the students first read a text, talked about it, and then participated in a cloze listening activity that targeted specific words and phrases from the reading. After that, they participated in a pair dictation with some words from a previous lesson. In this activity one partner listens while the other partner dictates, and then they switch roles. In the Level 6 listening class, the students principally listened to, took notes on, and then discussed a portion of a documentary film about rain forests. Then, they worked in small groups to answer questions with one paper being submitted from each group. In the Level 5 reading class the students talked about the content of a reading they had been assigned from their textbook on the topic of U.S. culture. They had a very interesting and lively discussion about dating and U.S. movies—a discussion that was based more on the students' personal ideas about U.S. culture than on information given in the reading itself. In the Level 2 writing class, students copied lists of words into their notebooks. Then, they wrote in their journals for ten minutes and exchanged letters they had previously written to one another.

<div align="right">[Christison, research notes]</div>

Task: Reflect

1. Which of the language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—do second language (L2) learners use in each of the four classes described earlier?
2. Based on the language skills being used, do you think the courses are appropriately titled? Why or why not?
3. For the purposes of curriculum design, do you think it's possible to separate the four language skills? Why or why not?

Introduction

In this chapter, we will focus on the language skills approach to curriculum design. In this tradition of curriculum design, there are basically two models

that have had a major impact on the design of instructional materials and on second language (L2) writing in English language teaching (ELT) programs and centers. In the first model, each language skill—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—is considered separately in different courses. In the second model the skills are integrated in some fashion. One course may include all skills or a combination of skills. Each model will be considered separately in terms of both its history and practice. Then, we will look at each of the skills separately and at some of the basic concepts for skill development that have influenced language teaching and the design of curriculum.

Language Skills as Separated

For the purposes of language teaching, language has traditionally been divided into four separate skills areas—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The four skills can be conceptualized in other ways. For example, listening and reading are known as the *receptive* skills, and speaking and writing are known as the *productive* skills. We can also think of the four skills in terms of oral language and literacy. Listening and speaking are the skills needed for oral communication, while reading and writing are skills needed specifically for literacy development. The idea of separating the teaching of language into language skills is considered the norm for most English language teachers, and the view is easily recognized in the research, materials development, language-testing traditions, and the practices of teacher education programs over the past four decades. Considerable research has been conducted on each of the four skills (see Hinkel, 2006; Newton et al., 2018 for overviews); textbooks have been created that focus on each of the four skills; language tests focus on different language skills; and teacher education programs frequently include classes that focus on language skills, such as teaching second language (L2) writing or reading. The skills-based approach to curriculum design has also been widely used by textbook writers and curriculum designers. The English language-teaching center in the vignette conceived of its curriculum in relationship to the four skills with courses in listening, speaking, reading, and writing that were taught at each of the eight levels. In 1978, when one of us (Christison) took a job as an English language program administrator for an Intensive English Program (IEP) in the United States, the curriculum that she initially designed was skills-based (see Table 14.1) with listening, reading, and writing at each of the three levels; pronunciation at two levels; and a conversation program that focused on speaking and interaction with the conversation partners. At the advanced proficiency level, students could take one course (with approval of the advisor) in

Table 14.1 Skills-based Curriculum for a Small IEP

Courses → Levels ↓	Reading	Writing	Listening	Pronunciation	Conversation
Beginning	9:00–9:50	10:00–10:50	11:00–11:50	2:00–2:50	3:00–4:30
	AM—M-F	AM—M-F	AM—M-F	PM—M-F	PM—MWF
Intermediate	8:00–8:50	12:00–12:50	10:00–10:50	1:00–1:50	3:00–4:30
	AM—M-F	PM—M-F	AM—M-F	PM—MWF	PM—MWF
Advanced	9:00–9:50	11:00–11:50	1:00–2:30		3:00–4:30
	AM—M-F	AM—M-F	PM—T/Th		PM—MWF

the mainstream curriculum.[1] This type of curriculum was typical of most IEPs in the late 1970s and early 1980s.

The four skills approach to curriculum design in North America has its roots in *structural linguistics*. Structural linguistics is based on the early work of Ferdinand de Saussure (Harris, 1987; Joseph, 2012). The purpose of structural linguistics is to classify language in different ways, such as classifications made up of phonemes, morphemes, lexical categories, phrases, sentence types, or, in this case, language skills. In North America, this approach to curriculum design is easily recognized in the early work of Charles Fries and Robert Lado (Lado & Fries, 1958) at the University of Michigan. Together, they designed a program for ELT that was based on the principles of structural linguistics. The program was separated into language skills but preserved the primacy of spoken language in the methodology, which focused almost exclusively on speaking and listening and using drills for the practice of grammatical structures that were identified for each level. This method ultimately became known as the audio-lingual method.

In the United Kingdom and throughout Europe, the separation of language into the four skills was a utilitarian decision and was motivated by the need to teach academic and technical language; consequently, it was socially rather than structurally driven (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Nevertheless, it was similar to the four skills approach in the United States in that all four skills were taught and the development of spoken English was given top priority (see Chapter 16 on the topic and situational approach to curriculum design). A four skills approach has also been typical for languages other than English. There were single skills taught, such as reading scientific German in the days when most science journals were in German. The same holds true for English today.

Language Skills as Integrated

The rationale for an integration of language skills is that in real-world contexts it is difficult to separate and isolate language skills. For example, when we listen to others in a conversation, it is likely that we will also need to respond to them and, therefore, speak. When students are listening to an academic lecture, it is likely they will need to take notes and, therefore, use the skill of writing.

Examples of skill integration can easily be found in many public schools in North America that embrace this notion in their curricula (see examples in the *Expand* activity in this chapter). Because literacy development lies at the heart of the educational goals for public school, many schools have also focused on embedding literacy skills (reading and writing) across the curriculum. Creating an integrated language curriculum that is dedicated to both the acquisition of knowledge and the development of all language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—is critical.

Another rationale that supports the conceptualization of language skills as integrated is captured in UNESCO's Statement for the United Nations Literacy Decade from 2003 to 2012 (UNESCO Education Sector, 2004), which offers a perspective on the role of literacy in society. Literacy is much more than a compilation of skills for reading and writing. To understand the concept of literacy one has to understand the way in which literacy is integrated into the social and cultural practices, the way in which we engage and the relationships we form and how they develop, and how the degree to which we are literate affects the information that we are able to access. Literacy skills can either limit or expand an individual's ability to contribute to society.

With the introduction of the notion of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972), the way in which language-teaching professionals primarily think about language has changed because Hymes's view includes form and function in integral relationship to each other. This perspective is in contrast to Chomsky's abstract view of competence in relation to form. Canale and Swain (1980) extended the theoretical bases of communicative competence to include three competencies: (a) grammatical (words and rules that govern them), (b) sociolinguistic (use of appropriate of speech), and (c) strategic (the use of strategies). Bachman and Palmer (1996) added pragmatic competence (using language to accomplish tasks in context). This view of language as communication is in contrast to the structural view of language with its separation of language into parts. In a communicative view of language, language skills are integrated to accomplish certain tasks rather than separated to practice language skills. An integrated skills approach is consistent with communicative language teaching (CLT) as it

places an emphasis on helping learners communicate effectively both inside and outside of the classroom.

Widdowson (1978, 1993) led the way in language teaching by requesting that teaching and curriculum design place a strong emphasis on integrating the four skills and providing opportunities in the classroom for meaningful communicative exchanges, such as problem- solving activities, discussion, and a wide range of tasks. Nunan (1989) followed suit by providing a set of principles that should guide the design of teaching materials and the integration of skills. These principles include using authentic language (i.e., examples of language actually used by proficient speakers in context), creating opportunities for continuity in the development of language skills from comprehension to production, and creating explicit connections from the classroom to real-world contexts. Carter and Nunan (2001) further stated that learner goals in relationship to the context for language learning are key components in an integrated skills curriculum. More recently, in their review of the research on teaching language skills in academic contexts, Newton et al. (2018) made a case for the fact that language skill development is best approached "through integrated-skills activities and tasks" (p. 244).

All four skills are important in the development of communicative competence. Language curricula are designed in such a way that teaching writing is often linked to reading and teaching speaking is often linked to pronunciation, grammar, and such pragmatically-based activities as giving presentations in class and using library resources for research. Most teachers try to incorporate all four skill areas into their instructional planning process, although it is likely that some classes may focus more on one set of skills more than on another due to the role that specific courses play in the overall curriculum and meeting the objectives of learners (Oxford, 2001).

Defining Language Skills

Each language skill is complex and can be looked at in different ways. For curriculum designers, how language skills are conceptualized is dependent on the context and the goals of the learners involved. For example, in a curriculum for non-academic adults who are mostly interested in obtaining jobs as soon as possible, the skill of writing will be conceptualized quite differently than it would be in a curriculum for young academic bound adults at the university who are planning to work as researchers or professionals in business. Adults involved in non-academic language-teaching programs may need to write in order to complete

a job application, make lists, give written instruction, or write informal letters, while students involved in academic language-teaching programs may need to write a paper presenting the results of their research or to take notes in classes.

In addition to differences in how skills are conceptualized in terms of context and learner goals, each skill is made up of different processes that involve "bottom-up" processing in which learners attend to specific data and "top-down" processing in which learners use their knowledge about the world in the process of understanding. In this section of the chapter, we focus on some of the key processes that teachers and curriculum designers need to consider as they make decisions about creating materials and curriculum for teaching each of the four language skills.

Listening

Listening is a primary means of acquiring a second language. It involves a set of complex cognitive processes that allow humans to make sense of spoken language, and processing takes place at different levels of cognitive organization, such as phonological, grammatical, propositional, lexical, and discoursal (Rost, 2005).

When L2 learners first begin to listen to input in a language they have not heard before, the language sounds simply like noise. At the beginning levels of language proficiency, listening activity should be directed towards guiding learners' attention to features of the input. Curriculum designers need to focus on how to provide L2 learners with opportunities to listen to and recognize sounds, and recognize and comprehend words and syntactic or grammatical parsing. As language proficiency develops, L2 learners also need to listen for phrases and larger chunks of language. To achieve these goals, some researchers have argued for enriched input for L2 learners (Ellis, 2003). Enriched input can easily be made available to L2 learners through the use of a wide variety of unscripted and scripted digital recordings, which have numerous exemplars of the targeted language and structures. L2 learners can listen to digital recordings multiple times according to their own schedules, thereby, enriching the input they receive.

Listening comprehension is the process of making meaning from the language input that is heard and then relating it to real-world experiences, including connecting the input to the representations in one's personal memory files. Comprehension involves four processes that are overlapping in nature: (a) identifying salient information in the input; (b) activating appropriate schemata; (c) making inferences; and (d) updating representations (Rost, 2005).

To address the first process, an L2 listening curriculum should help learners identify salient information by teaching them to use strategies that proficient speakers use to signal saliency, such as intonation and pausing. Rumelhart (1980) offered the term *schema (schemata* for the plural and adjectival forms) to represent the organizing mechanism we have for developing long-term memories. The central component of comprehension is the activation of these schemata or concepts. Comprehending what a speaker says depends to some degree on the activation of the concepts we share with the speaker. L2 learners may not have shared understandings with mother tongue speakers because of different cultural and educational backgrounds; therefore, they need opportunities to activate their own background knowledge. Curriculum designers must consider how L2 learners can build background knowledge in relationship to the acquisition of new knowledge, thereby, helping learners make inferences and providing them with opportunities for discussions that are based on the acquisition of new knowledge are all important components in developing comprehension skills.

Goh (2008) and Vandergrift and Goh (2012) have identified three dominant approaches to listening instruction that have the potential to influence the design of curriculum.

These three approaches can be characterized as follows:

1. Text and comprehension. In this approach, the focus is on demonstrating accurate comprehension. The listening input is words, phrases, sentences, and written passages that are read aloud. The instructional focus is on decoding sounds; listening to, imitating, and memorizing sound and language patterns; identifying details; and demonstrating understanding.
2. Communication and comprehension. For this approach, the focus shifts to the comprehension of language in interaction for the purposes of achieving an outcome. The listening input in this approach is spontaneous language, scripted or semi-scripted recorded texts, and authentic (i.e., real world) language. The instructional focus is on understanding information appropriate to the purposes of its use in interaction, practicing listening skills, and responding to spoken input in a socially appropriate way.
3. Learner awareness and the listening process. This approach is similar to the communication and comprehension approach in terms of the listening input. The instructional focus shifts to emphasize a focus on metacognitive awareness and using strategies to increase comprehension and cope with problems and teach learners how to listen and understand their own listening processes.

Speaking

Speaking in a second language involves knowing the linguistic forms of the language, knowing how the forms are used to fulfill various functions, and using a set of communication strategies to perform the different functions. The focus for teaching the linguistic forms in an L2—the sounds, segments, syllables, and prosodic features—has traditionally been associated with pronunciation courses (see Volume I, Chapter 6). While most English language programs include courses in pronunciation, how to structure the course in terms of learners and their goals has become complicated as English is a world language, and very often English language teaching classrooms are comprised of learners from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Unlike other international languages, the profile for English speakers worldwide is such that non-native speakers outnumber native speakers at least four to one (Graddol, 2006). This information means that non-native speakers use English with other non-native speakers more than they do with native speakers, thereby, confounding issues of intelligibility and accent reduction, which are the hallmarks of traditional courses in English pronunciation.

In addition to learning the linguistic forms of spoken English, learners must know how the forms are used to fulfill a variety of functions. These functions are traditionally associated with speaking courses that focus on providing opportunities for interaction with partners or in small groups. For the most part, the opportunities provided are *interactional* (i.e., for the purpose of maintaining social relationships) and *transactional* (i.e., for the purposes of communicating information) (Tarone, 2005). When learners work in small groups and are taught strategies for clarifying, questioning, and including others in a conversation, they are working with interactional functions. When L2 learners are given instruction on how to give presentations in class, they are working with transactional functions of language. English language teachers and curriculum designers need to be certain that both functions are included in the instruction that focuses on the development of speaking skills and that learners are given ample opportunities to interact with one another as it is these types of interactions in the classroom that prepare them for English as an international language (EIL) in contexts outside of the classroom.

Relative to issues related to intelligibility and from the perspective of English as a world language, Jenkins (2000) offers some noteworthy views on teaching. From her perspective learner to learner interaction is crucial to the development of accommodation skills, which prepare learners for English as an international language (EIL) communication outside of the classroom. In fact, Jenkins states that it is only such interaction that is able to promote these particular skills.

While teacher-led tasks and activities that are more controlled than learner to learner interactive activities certainly have their place in an English language teaching classroom, particularly for beginners, curriculum designers must also consider how to include learner to learner interactive activities that have the potential to prepare learners for EIL contexts outside of the classroom. Jenkins (2000) also states that learners do not converge on one another's L2 accents; rather, the accommodation or convergence among learners takes the form of replacing L1 features that are high risk, in other words, features that would interfere with intelligibility in EIL contexts.

Reading

There are two levels of processing around which most instruction in L2 reading revolves, namely, *decoding* (i.e., the ability to apply one's knowledge of letter to sound relationships to correctly pronounce written words) and *comprehending* (i.e., attaching meaning to written language). A comprehensive L2 reading curriculum should provide learners with opportunities to develop skills for each level of processing, and the inclusion of both decoding and comprehension is an important feature of a well-conceived curriculum for teaching reading skills.

Reading makes use of numerous processing skills that involve bottom-up (i.e., decoding) and top-down (i.e., comprehension) processing. The skills that are included in L2 reading instruction should be driven by the needs of the learners and the context in which the learning is taking place. For example, a young L2 learner acquiring literacy for the first time needs a reading program in English that includes a focus on the development of the alphabetic principle (i.e., the understanding that there are systematic and predictable relationships between letters and spoken sounds) and the use of decodable texts (i.e., texts that contain words in which letters and phonemes are consistent with what has been taught to beginning readers). A young adult in an academic English program at the tertiary level has needs that are different from a young non-literate learner. An academic English learner needs to be able to use text comprehension strategies to be able to understand and work with academic texts.

There are a number of factors that are of concern for most L2 reading programs and should be considered in the design of a reading curriculum. These factors include the following:

1. phonological awareness and development of the alphabetic principle,[2]
2. decoding,
3. fluency and automatic word recognition,
4. vocabulary development,

5.   reading comprehension strategies,
6.   access to reading materials, and
7.   sustained silent reading.

Not all programs will include all factors; the focus for any reading program is dependent on the learners and the context. For example, a reading curriculum that is designed for young English learners who are learning to read for the first time in any language would most certainly include phonological awareness, the alphabetic principle, decoding, and automatic word recognition, while a reading program designed for intermediate proficiency level learners in an English for academic purposes (EAP) program at a university would not include these factors as the EAP learners already know how to read in another language. The EAP reading program curriculum would likely include vocabulary development, comprehension strategies, access to a wide array of reading materials, and development of the practice of sustained silent reading among learners.

Another useful tool for L2 reading curriculum design takes the form of guiding principles for L2 reading curricula. Grabe and Stoller (2018) created a series of 12 principles that are meant to guide classroom teachers, materials writers, administrators, and anyone who is involved in the design of an L2 reading curriculum. The authors state that their curricular principles are not meant to be confused with teaching techniques; however, English language teaching programs can draw upon the principles to create an evidence-based curriculum for reading.

Writing

The field of L2 writing has emerged as its own discipline in the 21st century (see Hedgcock, 2005); however, it has become quite diversified in terms of its goals (see, for example, Leki, 2000; Matsuda et al., 2003; Pennycook, 2001), and to date, no "unitary theory or model of L2 writing has emerged" (Hedgcock, 2005, p. 610). This means that the field encompasses different approaches to teaching L2 writing, such as a structural approach, a rhetorical approach, and a text-based approach (see Hyland, 2019 for a review of the major approaches in L2 writing), and that English teaching programs approach L2 writing in different ways.

Some approaches are bottom-up, which means that the focus is on learning to write smaller components of language first before tackling longer pieces of prose; others are top-down models and are concerned with communicating a message through an extended piece of prose, such as writing a letter or an essay. Moving from guided to free writing tasks, recognizing key features of

expository text, using journals to develop fluency, developing an effective writing process, citing sources correctly, and using rhetorical structures are likely concerns for most L2 writing programs although not all programs will include all of these features. The characteristics of learners and the context in which they will write should determine which approach an L2 writing curriculum should take. Writing can be the key factor motivating the design of the curriculum, such as in academic contexts where programs might have a series of courses that specifically focus on L2 academic writing. The skills of writing might also be considered as one of the language skills included in an integrated skills approach to curriculum design.

Task: Explore

Think about the context in which you teach or wish to teach in the future and your understanding of the L2 learners in that context. If you were to design a curriculum for that context, what would be the three most important components you would include in designing a curriculum for each of the four skills? Use the information outlined in the "Defining Language Skills" section in this chapter to focus your response. Share your results with a peer.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have considered the language skills approach to curriculum design by looking at two different models—one model in which each skill is considered separately and one in which the skills are integrated. We have also reviewed some of the theoretical foundations for each model. Finally, a significant portion of this chapter has dealt with each of the language skills and the processes involved that affect choices in a curriculum design process.

Task: Expand

Next you will find links to selected curricula for public schools in Ontario, Canada, and in New Zealand. See if you can determine what the approach is to teaching the four skills by reviewing and discussing these documents with a peer.

Ministry of Education. Ontario Curriculum for language arts. Grades 1–8.

www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/curriculum/elementary/language18currb.pdf

Ministry of Education. Ontario Curriculum for secondary. Grades 9 and 10.

www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/curriculum/secondary/english910currb.pdf

The New Zealand Curriculum Online

https://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz

Questions for Discussion

1. In your own words, explain the differences in the two models that are possible for use in a language skills approach to curriculum design.
2. Provide an example of a bottom-up and a top-down processing activity for each of the four skills. In what contexts might you use each of these activities?
3. What do you think is the benefit of enriched input for the development of L2 listening skills? Do you think it can be effective for improving listening? Why or why not?
4. According to Jenkins (2000), why is classroom interaction between and among English learners particularly important?

Notes

1. Each course met five days a week for 50 minutes or T/Th for 90 minutes. Conversation met Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays for 90 minutes. There were two fulltime instructors who taught four courses each and an administrator who taught three courses. A part-time coordinator and a group of students who served as conversation partners, either as volunteers or on an hourly wage, staffed the conversation program.
2. *Phonological awareness* includes *phonemic awareness*—the understanding that spoken language is made up of individual speech sounds or phonemes; however, it goes beyond sounds and includes the ability to break sentences into words and words into syllables and recognize and produce rhyming words.

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Part IV

CONTENT-BASED CURRICULA

Content-based instruction (CBI) refers to any curriculum in which content is the point of departure, rather than language as in Part III. In this approach language is seen "largely as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study" (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 5). Advocates of CBI believe that language and content learning support each other. As learners acquire more language, they can access and learn more content; as they learn more content, they improve their language (for example, see Stoller, 2004). Various frameworks have been proposed for CBI, the most commonly cited being that of Brinton et al. (2003), who differentiate among adjunct curricula, topic curricula, and sheltered curricula. Met (1999), on the other hand, places content-based courses on a continuum with content-driven at one end and language-driven at the other.

For this volume, we have divided content-based approaches into two types: those that integrate required content such as academic subject matter in K–12 schools or at tertiary level (i.e., content and language integrated approaches); and those that choose content that is motivating and useful for learners (i.e., topical and situational approaches). Each type has a range of implementations, and the differentiation is not distinct. The most defining characteristic of CBI is that language in all its complexity is driven by the linguistic needs of the content.

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15

A CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED APPROACH

VIGNETTE

I am interviewing an IT[1] teacher whose class consists of immigrants and refugees. Attached to the IT class is an English class, taught by an ESL teacher, who observes IT classes and collaborates with the IT instructors to develop a supporting English language curriculum. When asked about the difficulties in trying to arrange such an adjunct class, John explains,[2] "The bureaucracy plain and simple. I have a Certificate 2 in Information Technology. There are minimum entry requirements. I have to prove that they [the immigrants/refugees] met minimum entry requirements. The minimum entry requirements are that they must have studied to Year 10 of high school or done Year 11 IT studies or a particular range of subjects in Year 12, and how can you possibly say that for somebody from the refugee camp who's got no paperwork. How can I enroll them? And I have spent a lot of time trying to convince people that they need to make exceptions to the rules to get this up and under way. As it was, we just got a director's dispensation. We knew that these students came from a different set of backgrounds, and we knew that teaching styles were going to have to be different. We are going to have to accommodate them. We call it hand holding. We do a lot more hand holding than we probably do with the IT students. As far as the English side is concerned, I couldn't say whether they're missing out on English. I think it's probably going to be swings and roundabouts. What they lose in a lot of the oral English they'll probably make up with in the written because, for example, one of the tasks that we give them is to install Windows.

(continued)

(continued)

They have to be able to take a computer and install Windows on there and modify it so it suits their requirement or a client's requirements."

[Murray, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. What surprised you about this interview?
2. What do you think John means by "hand holding"?
3. What do you think the English teacher would have to teach to prepare the students for the IT class on installing Windows?
4. How important do you think it is for these particular learners to take an introductory IT course?

Introduction

The integration of content and language is a pedagogic practice for English language teaching that has been evolving and growing in popularity in recent decades in response to the growth of English as a world language and the unprecedented levels of human migration, which have resulted in momentous demographic changes. It provides a means of teaching English through the study of content. In this type of instruction, language learners are not expected to have proficiency in English before working with subject matter content, and language support is provided alongside instruction for content area specializations. This approach to language teaching and, therefore, to the design of curricula to support the practice is quite different from traditional language teaching where the study of subject matter is delayed until language learners reach a certain level of proficiency.

The integration of language and content is a concern for teachers working in many different contexts. "It has spread to virtually all parts of the world and has been implemented at all educational levels" (Snow & Brinton, 2017, p. 2). For example, in mainstream K–12 courses in U.S. public schools, teachers must integrate content and language because grade level classes are most often comprised of both first or home language (L1 or HL) speakers of English and English learners (ELs) in the same classroom. These classes are frequently taught by

content area teachers, not language specialists; however, they can also be taught by language specialists who have developed content area expertise. For example, an English language specialist with content expertise in history may teach a U.S. history course to a group of ELs in Grade 5. In the vignette, the IT content and language integrated course for adult learners was taught by a content area teacher who was an IT specialist in collaboration with a language specialist. In Europe and other countries, teaching content subjects, such as math and geography, through the medium of English is often provided in secondary schools to learners who have already gained basic skills in English during their primary schooling. In these contexts, teachers are content area specialists who are proficient speakers of English but not L1 or HL speakers. In each of these different contexts, teachers must be concerned about the development of subject matter expertise alongside English language skills. Many practitioners believe that a general English curriculum (e.g., a skills-based or structural approach) cannot prepare ELs for the demanding linguistic, rhetorical, and contextual challenges of the real world (Johns, 1997).

In this chapter, we explore the notion of content and language integration in the design of curriculum in English language teaching. We will first take a broad overview of the concept by looking at some of the different ways content and language integration is manifested in English language teaching and some of the specific terms that are used. We then turn our attention to options for delivery of instruction and characteristics of content and language integrated courses and programs as we see them. Finally, we look at two specific models for integrating content and language—an adjunct model, which was first proposed by Brinton et al. (1989) and has primarily been used in higher education, and a sheltered instruction model known as SIOP (Sheltered Instructional Observation Protocol) (Echevarria et al., 2016), which has been primarily used in K–12 contexts.

Describing Content and Language Integration in Context

There are a number of terms that are now used to describe the integration of language and content in different contexts. We use the general term content and language integration as an umbrella term to refer to courses and programs that make a dual commitment to the development of subject matter expertise and language skills. We recognize that there are a number of terms that are associated with specific programs or contexts in current use. We review some of the most common ones here, but the list is not meant to be exhaustive.

Content-based Instruction

The term content-based instruction (CBI) has been used consistently to describe courses and programs for over 50 years (see, for example, Bassano & Christison, 1992; Cantoni-Harvey, 1987; Christison & Bassano, 1992, 1997). In the United States, it is an umbrella term that refers to all types of programs for both adults and children who make a dual commitment to content and language development (Crandall, 1993; Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al., 2017; Stoller, 2004). While CBI is not identified with a specific researcher or "designer," Brinton et al. (1989) were the first to propose "prototype" models for CBI and these models (e.g., adjunct, sheltered, and theme-based instruction) have been used in a variety of contexts. The term CBI applies to courses taught by both content area specialists who are most often L1 or HL speakers of English and courses taught by language specialists, such as English language teachers.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is a recent movement for integrating language and content that began in Europe (for example, see Volume 1, Chapter 3 for an example of CLIL in Germany; Coyle et al., 2010; Genesee & Hamayan, 2016; Llinares & Morton, 2017). Even though there is no established orthodoxy for CLIL and implementation varies greatly, it can generally be described as learning a curricular subject through the medium of a non-native language, such as studying history or geography in English in countries such as France, Germany, Poland, and Spain (Coyle et al., 2010). The Commission of European Communities (2007) states that CLIL has been found to be effective in all sectors of education from primary through to adult and higher education (Ruiz de Zarobe & Jiménez Catalán, 2009). Teachers working with CLIL in Europe are content specialists in their own disciplines and also proficient speakers of the target language (in this case, English).

It should be noted that other countries outside of Europe have tried to adopt a content and language integrated model with varied results. Tsuchiya and Perez Murillo (2019) describe successful CLIL projects in Japan and Spain; other countries, such as Malaysia, have had mixed results with CLIL at the tertiary and primary levels (Sopia et al., 2009, 2010). The reasons for the differences in outcomes are difficult to identify and explain (see Chapter 3 for further discussion and also Patel, 2012). To understand the effectiveness of CLIL, it is necessary for CLIL research to mature and evolve so that CLIL specific issues are researched and then connected to a broader research base (Coyle, 2008). Cenoz (2015) supports this point of view, stating that CBI and CLIL share the same initial

properties and are not pedagogically different from each other. She presents examples from Basque education, showing no essential differences between CBI and CLIL and suggests that research findings across CBI and CLIL be actively shared.

Dual Language Immersion

Dual language immersion (DLI) is a type of education in which learners are taught literacy and academic content at grade level in two languages. One of the languages is designated as the partner language, for example, Chinese, French, and German in the United States. Learners receive instruction in math, science, and social studies in two languages and according to a curricular plan by grade level. For example, if math instruction in Grade 2 is in English, in Grade 3 math would be taught in the partner language. One-way immersion provides majority language children with an opportunity to learn a foreign language in an immersion context. Two-way immersion brings together children from two different home language backgrounds so that they have a chance to learn another language in an immersion context and can also benefit from multiple sources for input in the partner language (Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Fortune & Tedick, n.d.). Another term for dual language immersion is bilingual education.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

English for specific purposes (ESP) is a term that has been widely used in international contexts to describe courses for adults who have immediate and identifiable content knowledge and academic needs, such as specific writing or reading needs related to an academic context. ESP specialists work closely with experts in the disciplines to determine what learners will be required to do and how to design activities to assist learners in interacting with content in context-appropriate ways. One of us (Christison) taught a small group of four academic English learners who were all studying automotive mechanics in the vocational school at the college. Their automotive mechanics teachers (i.e., the discipline and content expert) asked the ESP specialist (i.e., Christison) to provide instruction that targeted learning how to read the automotive blueprints and becoming familiar with the required language. The automotive mechanics teacher commented,

> It's not their general English skills I'm worried about. I'm not trying to sit down and have a conversation with these boys. My job is to certify them as mechanics. They all have a good sense about cars, but if they

cannot read the printouts and the blueprints, I won't be able to recommend them for a certificate.

In tertiary settings in the United States, EAP (English for Academic Purposes) is the term often used in place of ESP (Benesch, 2001; Johns, 1992) to refer to English teaching programs that focus on the training of students in higher educational settings to use academic language appropriately for study. In the United Kingdom, EAP courses often focus on helping students achieve the requisite score on IELTS (International English Language Testing System), and in the United States, the focus is most often on TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). In English medium universities, students may spend time working on their academic English before starting a degree program or EAP courses might be offered alongside degree or disciplinary courses.

English Medium Instruction

English medium instruction (EMI) (Deardon, 2014) is essentially CLIL delivered in a tertiary context. The content of the course is delivered in English, which is not the students' L1 or HL. The goal of EMI goes beyond the development of content knowledge and English language skills and aims to create global citizens and promote the internationalization of tertiary institutions. EMI course offerings have greatly increased in recent years especially among post-graduate courses (Macaro, 2015).

Sheltered Instruction

In North America the term *sheltered instruction* originally referred to a content and language integrated class for English learners that was typically taught by an English specialist with content area expertise. In its current use in the U.S., it refers to a model of providing content and language instruction in classrooms with both L1 and HL speakers of English (Echevarria & Graves, 2007). In the U.S. it is also known as *structured immersion*, SDAIE (specially designed academic instruction in English), CELT (content-based English language teaching), and *mainstreaming*.[3] The primary goal of sheltered instruction is to make grade-level academic subject matter comprehensible for all learners through the use of various types of scaffolding techniques. One of the most widely used models for sheltered instruction in North America is SIOP (Sheltered Instructional Observation Protocol) (Echevarria et al., 2016). SIOP will be covered in detail later in this chapter. Another model that has been widely used is CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach; Chamot & O'Malley,

1994). This model focuses not only on content and language but also on the development of three different types of learning strategies: (a) metacognitive, (b) cognitive, and (c) socio-affective.

Theme-based Instruction

A theme is defined as an idea or concept that is explored through a series of texts, tasks, or lessons. Courses that provide theme-based instruction are organized around specific concepts that are considered to be relevant and of interest to learners (Stoller & Grabe, 2017). Themes provide the overarching organizational framework for a course or a unit within a course. Theme-based teaching is possible at virtually all levels of instruction (children through adults) and with students at all levels of language proficiency, although it is best suited to learners who have at least an intermediate level of language proficiency. Learners need to have sufficient proficiency so that they are able to participate in meaningful communication and so that theme-based materials can be found and exploited through level-appropriate texts and tasks.

Workplace Literacy

Workplace literacy is a term used to refer to the skills employees need to have in order to be successful in carrying out their work functions and managing the demands of their jobs in productive ways. These skills include both essential and specific skills for the workplace, as well as soft skills, for example, how you interact with colleagues, solve problems, and manage your work. A number of different acronyms and abbreviations have been used to describe programs that integrate language and content in workplace environments (see Volume II, Chapter 9 for an extensive discussion of workplace literacy). In the United States the term VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language) has been used (Wong, 1997) to describe teaching English with a focus on learning the language needed for a trade or a job. Australians employ the term English for the workplace (EWP) to refer to the same type of program.

Options for the Delivery of Instruction

There are three potential options available for the delivery of instruction for content and language integrated courses. Either the English language teacher or the content area specialist can deliver the instruction. In addition, the language teacher and content area specialist can collaborate with each other, thereby taking advantage of shared expertise, as in the vignette.

English Language Teacher or Specialist

In this option, the English language teacher or specialist delivers the instruction for the content and language integrated course. The advantage of this option is that the English language teacher already has expertise in how to teach language and is already sensitive to the language needs of the learners. The disadvantage is that the English language teacher may not have sufficient background in the content area. Developing expertise at the level needed for secondary and university content areas may not be a realistic expectation for English language teachers unless they were also content area specialists and had developed expertise in a content area.

Content Area Specialist

In this option, the content area specialist delivers the instruction. The obvious advantage of this option is the content area expertise of the teacher. The disadvantage is that the content area specialist may not know enough about language, thereby making it difficult to provide the necessary modifications in instruction to make content comprehensible for English learners (see Volume I, Part II on language awareness). CLIL teachers are most often content teachers who are proficient non-native speakers of English. In the United States, content teachers are most often native speakers who may or may not have experience in learning another language. For either of these groups of content area specialists, teacher language awareness is critical.

Collaborative Effort

The third option for the delivery of instruction is a collaborative effort between English language and content area specialists (see the adjunct model in this chapter for further discussion and exemplars). Some programs have had success using this option (Gee, 1997; Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991). This type of collaboration seems to be both desirable and necessary, yet despite the instructional desirability of this option there are often reasons why it is not implemented. For example, programs often lack the financial resources, administrative support, and flexibility in terms of personnel to implement the adjunct model or to assign more than one instructor to cover a course (Goldstein, 2017).

Characteristics of Content and Language Integration

Although many English language-teaching programs in many different contexts promote the integration of language and content, there is no single methodology

supported by the field, but the focus for all of the programs is making content and language comprehensible for language learners. It is beyond the scope of this short chapter to list all of the techniques that teachers might use to make this happen. Instead, we have identified six characteristics that are common to content and language integration in most contexts.

Identifying Content Concepts

In each content area (whether it is in physics or adult life skills), teachers must first be concerned about determining the content knowledge that learners must master. Planning for content does not begin at the level of a lesson, but rather at the level of a unit or a course, so that all content is connected, such as in theme-based teaching. We see the connected feature of content as one of the chief differences between a content and language integrated approach and a topical and situational approach (see Chapter 16 in this volume for more information on a topic and situational approach to curriculum design). In a content and language integrated approach, the most important questions that teachers and course designers can ask themselves are the following: What information should students know at the end of a course or unit? What important questions should they be able to answer? How are the content concepts connected? In terms of planning, answering these questions is where teachers who integrate language and content begin. Figure 15.1 provides a conceptual framework or flow chart for the identification of content concepts, beginning at the top level. The bi-directional arrows indicate connections that must be established between concepts, sub-topics, and lessons. When content concepts have been determined in a hierarchical manner as in Figure 15.1, the essential details associated with individual lessons can be created.

Writing Content and Language Objectives

Once content concepts have been identified (in the hierarchical manner suggested in Figure 15.1) and important questions have been framed, teachers can then determine what learners will do in order to demonstrate their understanding of the content concepts. These understandings are written as performance objectives for content concepts because the focus is on student performance—what they will actually do to demonstrate their knowledge of the content concepts. The criteria for performance objectives include identifying the following: (a) what students will be able to do (e.g., the thinking skills such as identify, list, categorize, tell, etc.); (b) what they are expected to learn (i.e., the content concept); (c) how they will demonstrate what they have learned (i.e., what
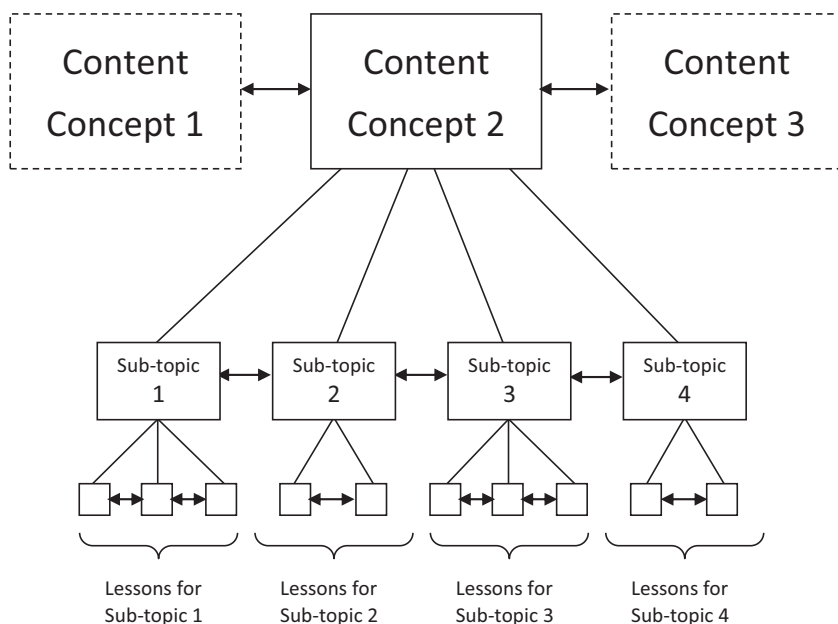
Figure 15.1 A Conceptual Framework for Identifying Content Concepts
Reprinted from Murray, D. E., & Christison, M. A. (2011). *What English language teachers need to know Volume II: Facilitating learning* (p. 156). Routledge.

strategies they will use); and (4) what the conditions for practice will be (e.g., grouping strategies, time allocated, type of input, or type of response).

Deriving Language From Content

Most content specialists have difficulty in identifying and creating language objectives because they attempt to identify language objectives prior to identifying content, for example, "My students need help with past tense verbs" or "I think students could benefit from working on writing complete sentences." While it may be true that students need help with or could benefit from a focus on these components of language, in terms of integrating content and language, determining language objectives in advance of or separate from content is inconsistent with the methodology. In the planning process, language objectives cannot be determined in advance of content because the content one chooses determines the language that learners will need. Language objectives are derived from content objectives. In our experience in working with content specialists, those who have experienced the most success in writing language objectives are teachers who wrote language objectives once content objectives had been

established and appropriate texts (construed broadly here to include all types of text, including media, and not simply textbooks) had been chosen.

Many teachers have found it useful to think about the language related to concepts in two different categories—content-obligatory language and content-compatible language (Snow et al., 1989). *Content-obligatory language* is the language that must be learned in order to understand the content concepts. *Content-compatible language* is language that supports the students in learning the content but is not critical to understanding the content concepts.

Managing Demands on Cognition

Another characteristic of content and language integration is that purposeful attention is given to managing demands on cognition. Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa (1976) first made the distinction between "surface fluency" and "conceptual-linguistic knowledge" in a second language. Cummins (1979, 1980, 1992, 2001) later formalized these terms as basic interpersonal skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (see Chapter 11 for further discussion on these concepts). Inventories of thinking skills, such as Bloom's Taxonomy (see Chapter 11), are useful to both language and content specialists in managing demands on cognition as they help teachers and curriculum designers categorize and select tasks in terms of how cognitively demanding they are. When content concepts are more demanding, teachers should select familiar or less complicated language and process the concepts using familiar learning strategies. When concepts are less cognitively challenging, teachers can select more complicated language and introduce new strategies for learning. When the language is difficult, teachers should think about initially selecting thinking skills that are cognitively less demanding.

It has been our experience in working with both content and language specialists that identifying content concepts, writing clear objectives, deriving language from content, and managing demands on cognition are the defining features of courses and programs that integrate content and language and that promote positive outcomes for their students.

Task: Explore

Use Figure 15.1 to help you design a conceptual framework for a content and language integrated unit for a course you teach or might wish to teach in the future.

Content and Language Integrated Models

Content-based programs have been heavily criticized on both pragmatic and theoretical grounds because "instructors can only have a limited understanding of the writing that students compose for their content courses and so [EAP scholars] have thus advocated different forms of collaboration between EAP instructors and instructors in the disciplines" (Molle & Prior, 2008, p. 553). We now discuss one such collaboration between English language teachers and discipline instructors, in an adjunct model, as in the vignette. This section also discusses a model for sheltered instruction referred to as SIOP that has been widely used by content area specialists.

The Adjunct Model

Brinton et al. (1989) were the first to describe a framework for CBI in relationship to adjunct courses. Adjunct courses occur mostly in institutions of higher education when two courses (e.g., a disciplinary content course and a language course) are paired. Instructors in the language courses collaborate with content instructors to provide support to English learners in the content course. The content course provides the "point of departure for decisions about what to teach in the language class" (Snow & Brinton, 2017, p. 7), and language objectives are identified relative to the linguistic needs of the English learners in the content course. Brinton et al. (1989) defined an adjunct model as follows:

> In this model, students are enrolled concurrently in two linked courses—a language course and a content course—with the idea being that the two courses share the content base and complement each other in terms of mutually coordinated assignments.
>
> (p. 16)

While this is the definition for the prototypical adjunct program, many variations exist in actual implementation. For our purposes in this chapter, we will use adjunct to refer to any curriculum in which content and language teachers collaborate with the goal of helping learners achieve content goals. We will discuss the variations further in the section on implementation.

    Major Characteristics of the Adjunct Model. Although there may be a variety of implementation options, adjunct programs have a number of features in common:

- collaboration and coordination between a content/discipline teacher and a language teacher,
- integration of content and language,
- administrative resources to support such coordination,
- a need for the language teacher to have some mastery of the content area, and
- a language component oriented around the discipline content, including the following:
  - vocabulary,
  - grammar,
  - materials (often authentic, disciplinary),
  - assignments, and
  - assessments oriented around the discipline.

Adjunct programs are more common in ESL situations, although some do occur in EFL contexts. How then are these principles and characteristics realized in actual curricula?

Implementation. Adjunct models have been primarily used in higher education; however, the ways in which adjunct courses have been implemented have been quite diverse. For example, the two programs described by Brinton et al. (2003) were for freshmen at UCLA and for Francophone and Anglophone students at the University of Ottawa. Benesch's (1988) edited volume details a variety of different college-level programs that have linked courses. In contrast, the program referred to in the vignette was for immigrants and refugees at a Technical and Further Education (TAFE) institute in Australia.

As indicated in the vignette, this TAFE program links an introductory credit-bearing course on IT to a language course. The language instructor observed all the IT classes and based her language instruction on the content delivered in those classes. The two instructors met frequently to coordinate instruction. Students were graded in each class separately. The goal was for the learners to achieve credit for the content class, as well as meet the language requirements for the Adult Migrant English Program (see Chapters 12 and 21 for more information on the curriculum for the AMEP). As well as the language support provided by the adjunct language class, students were supported in the IT class by an instructor who understood their language needs and adjusted instruction accordingly.

Thus, the curriculum for the language course required considerable juggling on the part of the language instructor. She had to include the following:

- IT language (vocabulary, sentence structures, genres, and pragmatics),
- genres specified by the AMEP curriculum, and
- competencies from the AMEP curriculum.

The link could be achieved because the AMEP curriculum is genre-based and many of the genres are sufficiently broad that genres in the IT class could fit as models and could be used for assessment. One of us (Murray) observed a class in which the language teacher was playing a listening tape for a help desk. She was asking students questions such as: What's the problem? What's the relationship like? What are the suggestions? Do they fix the problem? Then, she elicited from the students some of the language the help desk worker used in the tape, such as: *How can I help you? Can I just ask you a few questions? Is there paper in the printer?* The help desk dialog meets the AMEP language requirement of "can participate in a spoken transactional exchange." At the same time, it meets IT content curriculum objectives.

Issues in an Adjunct Curriculum. As indicated in the introduction, an issue in both ESP (including EAP) and CBI is whether English language teachers should or can have the knowledge of disciplines in order to teach academic content (Bruce, 2002). Adjunct programs are considered a possible solution to this dilemma. However, as we demonstrated in the examples of implementation, even when language teachers collaborate with content instructors, they still need to be able to navigate the discipline content.

A further issue is that such programs place language in the service of other disciplines. There is a tension between content and language, and often language loses out. Students themselves may be more interested in following up on content in their language class than following up on general language content the language teacher may choose (Guyer & Peterson, 1988). They may even see the language course as a tutoring program for the discipline (Iancu, 1993). Benesch (1996) adds that the "pragmatic stance" (p. 736) means that teachers have accepted the status quo of institutionalized power differentials, rather than taking a critical pedagogic approach to them. She discusses her own efforts in a linked psychology/ESL class, in which she helped students challenge the anonymous, large-scale lecture mode that alienated them from the psychology lecturer, by inviting him to the smaller ESL class. He willingly engaged in dialogue with the students, humanizing himself and the subject matter for the students. The

language teachers themselves may also feel disempowered, as if they were the "flight attendants" to the discipline faculty "in the cockpit" (Goldstein et al., 1997). The collaboration and coordination required for a successful linkage means that the institution has to support the linkage with funding to allow faculty time to talk with each other about their courses (Guyer & Peterson, 1988). Often these collaborations begin through grants but are then not sustainable.

The Sheltered Instruction Model

In this section we discuss SIOP, a sheltered instructional model for CBI (Echevarria et al., 2016). It is a research-based and validated model of sheltered instruction that has been widely and successfully used across the United States for over 15 years. Although it has been revised and updated, the basic structure of SIOP has remained constant. The SIOP Model is intended to support K–12 content area teachers who have both L1 and English learners in their classes. The model helps teachers plan and deliver lessons that support English learners in acquiring academic knowledge at the same time they are also developing English language proficiency.

Major Characteristics. The SIOP Model consists of eight interrelated components: lesson preparation, building background, comprehensible input, strategies, interaction, practice/application, lesson delivery, and review/assessment. There are 30 teacher indicators (i.e., teachers' actions) associated with the eight components, such as content objectives being defined, displayed, and reviewed with students or use of a variety of question types, including those that promote higher level thinking skills. These indicators are associated with positive outcomes for learners (Echevarria et al., 2006; Echevarria & Graves, 2007). Although originally designed as a protocol for classroom observation (Guarino et al., 2001), it has since been updated and revised. Teachers now use SIOP in planning for instruction and in lesson delivery. The original researchers and authors have extended SIOP materials beyond the list of teacher indicators to provide ideas for classroom activities that support the model (Vogt & Echevaria, 2007). Although the teacher indicators have remained consistent, the original researchers and authors have developed versions of SIOP for both elementary and secondary (Echevarria et al., 2013a, 2013b).

Implementation. The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) collaborates with schools, states, and districts to design and conduct SIOP Model professional development programs. There are a number of different workshops and support

services available (see https://solutions.cal.org/institutes-events/cal-institutes). The SIOP team provides a range of services, including workshops, coaching, site visits, and technical assistance. The team works closely with teachers, professional development specialists, school and district coaches, administrators, and paraprofessionals as they learn to plan, implement, and support instruction using the SIOP Model. They also support the development of district and school level coaches who can assist teachers in implementing the model locally.

Teachers can work independently with SIOP as the teacher indicators are clearly and succinctly described. Because schools and districts want to make a positive impact on student learning and go beyond what is possible with an individual teacher, they also try to implement peer coaching models that support a team of teachers in implementing the SIOP Model.

Issues With the SIOP Model. The issues with sheltered instruction and, consequently, with the SIOP Model are not so much issues with sheltered instruction or SIOP but are related to the expectations of teachers, schools, districts, and states for the academic achievement of English learners. These issues arise in contexts where English learners are educated in classrooms alongside home language speakers of English. The SIOP Model was never meant to serve as a quick fix. In order for the SIOP or for that matter any model of sheltered instruction to be successful, the indicators need to be implemented consistently over time and built into the teaching culture of schools or districts.

The SIOP Model appears to be deceptively simple because the indicators are well organized and clearly stated; however, in reality, the model is complex and many layered. It requires commitment and hard work over the long term to unpack the specific features of instruction that underlie the broadly stated indicators. It is difficult for some teachers to remain committed to changing instruction even with the considerable support available for SIOP practitioners. The SIOP Model is often embraced with great enthusiasm initially; however, if expectations are not met, enthusiasm for the model can often wane. Unfortunately, some teachers continue to give lip service to the model when, in fact, they are not diligent in attending to the indicators. These issues are not a fault with the model. As SIOP is a research-based model it has the potential to have a positive impact on instruction when implemented over time and with fidelity.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we present the content and language integrated approach to curriculum design. We introduce several terms used to describe programs in

this approach, such as CBI, CLIL, DLI, EMI, ESP, and workplace literacy. The options for the delivery of instruction are also discussed, as well as the defining characteristics of content and language integrated programs. Two models of content and language instruction—the adjunct model and SIOP—were presented, described in some detail, and discussed in terms of their strengths and weaknesses.

Task: Expand

Explore at least one of the following websites and find an activity or a suggestion related to content and language integration that was not covered in this chapter to share with a partner or a small group.

https://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/multilingualism/about-multilingualism-policy_en
www.teachingenglish.org.uk
www.clilcompendium.com
www.onestopenglish.com
www.tesol.org
https://americanenglish.state.gov
www.cal.org/siop/

Questions for Discussion

1. In your own words, explain the advantages and disadvantages of each option for the delivery of instruction in a content and language integrated approach.
2. What are the main characteristics of the content and language integrated approach?
3. What is sheltered instruction? How is it different from an adjunct model?
4. In your own words, explain the adjunct model. In what contexts do you think an adjunct model might be preferable for English learners?
5. What is SIOP? In your own words, explain how it works.

Notes

1. Information Technology.
2. The transcript has only been altered for clarification.

3. We use the term *mainstreaming* here to refer to the placement of L2 students in classrooms originally designed for L1 speakers of English. In other contexts, mainstreaming is a term used only in connection with special education students. Mainstreaming for English learners (ELs) has a negative connotation because content area teachers may not have developed skills as language specialists and, therefore, do not know how to integrate language and content effectively. The intent of mainstreaming was predicated on shared responsibility for the education of all children. Content area specialists were to develop skills as language specialists sufficient to be able to integrate language and content for the ELs in their courses. Developing a cadre of content area teachers who have skills as language specialists and socializing content area teachers in schools to embrace these dual responsibilities has been immensely challenging.

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16

A TOPICAL-SITUATIONAL APPROACH

VIGNETTE

One of my former graduate students has taken a job as a materials developer/curriculum designer for a private language school in Japan. He has been asked to develop 10 units of study and has been given four months to develop the materials. In four months, he will be departing for Japan and working there for a year creating and adapting teaching materials, doing some program administration, and teaching the course that he is designing, among others. The school has decided to add a course for its students that will focus on higher education study in the United States, and it is this course for which the 10 units are targeted. The school has given him the situations for the 10 units already, explaining that these are the situations that they want students to study, and they want to use communicative language teaching (CLT) as the methodology. Each unit is to have five lessons that can be completed during a 90-minute class. The units they have specified are as follows: at the airport, at the dorm, at the supermarket, at the post office, at school, in the computer lab, in the classroom, at a restaurant, at a party, and on a date. These are not the situations that I would have chosen given the intent of the course, and I suspect they are not the ones that my former graduate student would have chosen either; nevertheless, he believes that they are not really negotiable and that he should try to do his best to accommodate their wishes. On a positive note, he also said that the situations were very general, thereby giving him a great deal of flexibility.

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Although he is excited about this project, he has come to me for help. He says that he feels a little bit lost in this process and is wondering if I can advise him on how to get started by suggesting a plan or a taxonomy for the first unit.

[Christison, research notes]

Task: Reflect

Do you find each of the situations presented to the curriculum designer in the vignette equally useful considering the goals of the project? Are these the situations you would have chosen? If you were asked to develop units for teaching English that were to be based on situations similar to the ones in the vignette, how would you begin? What organizational framework or taxonomy might you use? Do you think that having the situations for the units and the number of lessons in each unit specified in advance will prove helpful in designing the curriculum? Why or why not?

Introduction

Topical and situational approaches to curriculum design are often considered separately, so you may be wondering why we have put both topical and situational approaches together in one chapter. We have linked topical and situational approaches in curriculum design because both approaches are focused on the practice of teaching grammatical structures and vocabulary as dictated by a specific topic and/or situation. In addition, as the field of English language teaching developed and matured and as views of language as communication took prominence among language-teaching professionals, the importance of considering topics within specific situations has grown in popularity.

The relationship between topics and situations can be seen on a continuum. At one end is the general English view, in which topics are seen in relationship to basic language proficiency. In this view topics are included in the curriculum with no specific situation in mind because the topics are basic to all situations (e.g., food, clothing, color, and shapes). When approaching curriculum design

from this point of view, designers begin with the topics, rather than beginning with the situations in which the topics occur. At the other end of the continuum are topics that are only used for specific situations, such as situations that require a great deal of technical language. When approaching curriculum design from this point of view, designers begin with the specific situation and consider only those topics that are relevant and useful for L2 learners in a particular situation.

In between the two ends of the continuum are points that represent other types of relationships between topics and situations. For example, one type of relationship begins with situations that are quite general, and then topics are selected. In the vignette, the situations that were given to the curriculum designer were general in the sense that topics within these situations apply to a large number of students who would be seeking higher education experiences in the United States; however they would not include all learners, for example, non-academic adult immigrant learners. Nevertheless, this relationship is different from the relationship between topics and the situation exemplified in the learner driver example in this chapter (see The Learner Driver Curriculum). In this case, the topics are selected for a specific purpose, yet no specific situation has been identified. Both of these examples demonstrate different relationships between topics and situations that can be represented through different locations on a topical-situational continuum. By using the term topical-situational approach, we hope to capture a more realistic view of the relationship between topics and situations in the curriculum design process than we could do by considering each of them separately.

The principal organizing feature of a topical-situational approach is identifying *what* and *how* language is used with a particular topic and/or in a particular situation, and grammatical structures and vocabulary are identified and learned as they become important for talking about a topic or in a situation. This chapter will focus on a topical-situational approach to curriculum design by reviewing its beginnings in the Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching, defining the procedures for creating this type of curriculum, and discussing the issues that arise in its use, as well as its influence on textbook design, including the types of classroom activities that support it. We also offer examples of topical-situational curricula in practice.

Situational Language Teaching

The topical-situational approach to curriculum design that we propose in this chapter has its roots in the Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching. The Oral Approach as a methodology originated in the early 20th century and is associated with the work of British linguists A. S. Hornby (1954) and Harold

Palmer (1923) and their focus on developing an approach to language teaching that was more communicative than structural (see Chapter 9). The Oral Approach was based on a set of principles for the selection and organization of content. There was an emphasis on vocabulary and grammatical structures, particularly as they related to improvements in reading. The early work on vocabulary led to the creation of a basic list of vocabulary words for teaching English (West, 1953). Coinciding with the interest in vocabulary was the focus on grammatical content. English was analyzed into sentence patterns that could be used to internalize English sentence structure. The work resulted in a standard reference for English sentence patterns for English teachers and textbook writers (Hornby, 1954).

Another emphasis in the Oral Approach was the situation in which the vocabulary and grammatical structures were to be taught. The focus on a specific situation came about as a result of the influence of linguists, such as M. A. K. Halliday (1973, 1975), who emphasized that language structure needs to be tied to meaning and to a context or situation. As a result of this emphasis on situations, the approach became known as Situational Language Teaching. Australia adopted this approach for teaching English to immigrants and published a textbook, *Situational English for Newcomers to Australia*, with both teacher and student books at different levels (Australian Government Public Service, 1966–1980). These volumes underwent many revisions and editions in the period 1966 through 1982.

Hornby's 1954 *Guide to Patterns and Usage in English* presented procedures for developing a curriculum based on situations. It included how to do the following: (a) select vocabulary and grammatical structures, (b) sequence these items, and (c) introduce new items in context or in the situation. For Hornby, the context to which the syllabus was linked was the classroom. Current approaches to situational curriculum design have gone beyond topics that are useful in the context of a classroom. They include a broad array of real-life topics (see examples included in this chapter), depending on the needs and interests of L2 learners (see Richards & Rodgers, 2014, pp. 44–57 for additional background and further discussion on Situational Language Teaching).

Traditionally, situational language teaching began with spoken language. Language forms and vocabulary were taught orally before they were presented in written form. Common techniques for introducing spoken language in situational language teaching were dialogs or short listening passages, and these classroom activities manifested themselves in teaching materials. Language structures were also taught inductively. Explanations of grammar were discouraged as learners were expected to deduce the meaning of vocabulary and structures based on the situation. Teachers tried to make certain that learners had ample

opportunities to deduce target language meanings through the practice activities and the specific examples. The language practice techniques that were most commonly used to help learners deduce meaning with this approach were choral repetition (particularly of dialogs), dictation (including partner dictations), drills (including mechanical and communicative), controlled oral-based reading, and guided writing tasks. These language practice techniques found their way into many of the materials associated with situational language teaching. As the field matured and developed and as communicative language teaching grew in popularity, the practices associated with situational language teaching changed. Modern English language teaching methodologies use situations to anchor language-teaching materials but do not necessarily subscribe to the principles or use the traditional practice activities that underpinned early views of Situational Language Teaching.

Topics in Language Teaching

A topic is a concept or an idea that is, hopefully, interesting to the learners but at least necessary. In a general English curriculum, there has been a traditional set of topics covered in most beginning level textbooks, such as colors, food, clothing, shopping, jobs, animals, furniture, or tools. These topics are covered in most general English textbooks because the related vocabulary associated with these topics was thought to be necessary for the development of basic language skills. The vocabulary words that are associated with these topics are called *semantic sets* (see Chapter 13). The focus of a topical approach to language teaching is not on learning new concepts but is primarily on learning words in the target language that are necessary for talking about known concepts. Of course, it is also possible that teachers and curriculum designers may select topics that introduce L2 learners to unknown concepts, such as the use of color and shape in art, the history of jazz, and important inventions, or topics that are life skills and workplace related, such as in the examples that follow in this chapter, but it is not the most common practice.

In a topical approach to curriculum design, topics are not inherently connected through their content as they are in a content and language integrated approach. Some curriculum designers have tried to connect topics in creative ways through creating story lines that link topics or by including the same characters throughout a series of units. In terms of the content, the fact that topics need not be connected is one of the chief differences between a topical-situational approach to curriculum design and the content and language integrated approach (see Chapter 15), and that they are not required topics, such as they often are in academic courses.

A Process of Curriculum Design in a
Topical-Situational Approach

We propose a topical-situational approach to curriculum design. In this approach, curriculum is organized around specific topics and situations and the purposes that people have for using the topics and participating in the situations. There are three basic assumptions that underpin a topical-situational approach to curriculum design. First, language is used to accomplish specific purposes. Second, language use is motivated by topics and situations. In other words, when the topics and situations change, the language and how it is used may also change. Third, different types of performances are necessary to meet the purposes that individuals have for using topics and participating in situations.

Because we see the relationship between topics and situations on a continuum depending on the strength of the relationship, it is not likely that all teachers or curriculum designers will begin the process with a situation. Some may begin by selecting topics without having a specific situation in mind (e.g., The First Aid Certificate in this chapter), whereas some begin with a specific situation (e.g., The Learner Driver Curriculum in this chapter). Figure 16.1 describes a process for curriculum design that ties topics to a specific situation (i.e., there is a strong connection between topics and a situation). In this process the situation is the basis for selecting and presenting language vocabulary, structures, and genres. In the vignette, the curriculum designer was given a list of situations from which to work. The next step would be to identify and sequence the topics and the grammatical forms. Curriculum designers who begin the process by identifying topics enter the process at Stage 2. Figure 16.1 shows the hierarchical relationships in the procedures for a topical-situational approach to curriculum design. For a curriculum that includes multiple situations, such as in the vignette, this procedure should be carried out for each situation.

Task: Explore

Work with a partner or peer. Describe a group of learners in terms of age and goals for learning. These should be learners that you can see yourself working with in the future. Think of a situation in which these learners are likely to participate. Use the procedures outlined in Figure 16.1 and develop a skeletal outline for one unit using a topical-situational approach to curriculum design.

Issues in a Topical-Situational Approach

There are a number of issues or concerns that need to be addressed in a topical-situational curriculum. One concern that is specifically addressed by a topical-situational approach is the development of skills for communicative purposes. With this approach students learn how to use the target language in communicative situations. The communicative focus motivates learners to see that the "foreign" language they are learning can be used to meet day-to-day communication needs. In addition, the focus is first on topics and situations with grammatical structures surfacing as they interact with topics or with topics in specific situations. In a topical-situational approach, grammatical structures are derived from topics.

The approach poses some challenges for teachers and curriculum designers who are planning to use this approach for general English teaching. It is much more difficult than it would seem at first glance to predict the vocabulary and structures needed in general situations. The more specific a designer can make the situations the better. In the vignette, the designer was given ten very general situations for the design of a course curriculum. Creating specific situations that are based on his experience and knowledge of higher education in the United States would make his task as a curriculum designer much more efficient and would also make the course useful and worthwhile for the learners.

A topical-situational approach to curriculum design is better suited for short-term courses that are geared towards the development of specific skills for specific purposes (see examples in this chapter for The Learner Driver Curriculum and The First Aid Certificate) because general English courses take

Stage 1: Identification of the situation(s)
↓
Stage 2: Selection of topics (including vocabulary words)
↓
Stage 3: Sequencing of topics (including vocabulary words)
↓
Stage 4: Selection of grammatical forms and genres/texts to support the topics
↓
Stage 5: Sequencing of grammatical forms
↓
Stage 6: Identification of specific techniques and procedures for teaching vocabulary and grammatical structures and genres

Figure 16.1 Procedures for a Topical-Situational Approach to Curriculum Design

longer and are geared towards general proficiency. Making such a decision does not mean that learners cannot develop overall proficiency by participating in short-term courses geared to specific topics or situations or that improved proficiency cannot be a goal for a course.

Another challenge with a situational approach for curriculum designers is that it is difficult to motivate recurring grammatical patterns in a dialog that does not sound artificial. Often the actual language practiced in the classroom is not the language used in real life. Although the careful sequencing of instructional materials is a historical component of both topical and situational approaches, there have never been any criteria for the sequencing of materials; therefore, it is left up to the curriculum designer to determine the order of presentation of topics and grammatical structures.

Influences on Textbooks and Materials

Topic and situational curricula have had a huge impact on the design of textbooks for both English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL). Some of the most successful textbook series, beginning in the 1960s, were influenced by Situational Language Teaching. These books include *Streamline English* (Hartley & Viney, 1979), *English for Today* (Slager, 1972), and *Kernel Lessons* (O'Neill, 1973). In fact, all textbooks that have included dialogs as part of the learning materials were an attempt to create language for learner use that was based on situations. Curricula for adult life skills programs were based on specific situations and scenarios that adult immigrant learners would encounter in their new environments or in their jobs. ESP and workplace literacy courses also springboard from a curriculum tied to a specific situation that has relevance for learners' lives.

A Topical–Situational Approach in Practice

In content and language integrated approaches, the content is often selected because it is necessary for the completion of a degree or a certificate. Topical-situational curricula are not necessarily tied to certificates or degrees, although they can be. As well as choosing topics and situations of interest and need for learners, some instructors also select topics that lead to a certification that is useful to the learners. As these examples suggest, it is possible to have a purely topical syllabus without considering the specific situations in which the topics may be used.

We provide two such examples of topical curricula for adult immigrants and refugees in Australia, one leading to learners achieving competency on the

written portion of the driver's license test and the other leading to a First Aid Certificate from St. John Ambulance. In each case, the instructors and other stakeholders believed that there was a need for the particular certificate. The students who took the learner license course included female refugees from Africa with multiple children, who needed to be able to drive to take their children to school and to medical appointments, and other learners who wanted a driver's license for their work. The First Aid Certificate is required for many occupations in Australia. Additionally, it provides learners with useful personal skills such as CPR. In both cases, learners were high beginners. The third example is for air traffic controllers and aviation language. We provide detailed information about the curriculum design and context for one example, that of the learner's license, to illustrate designing a curriculum from a situational perspective.

The Learner Driver Curriculum

A community center for immigrants in Australia realized that many of their recent female arrivals were disadvantaged not only because of their low levels of English literacy but also because of their isolation. Because of poor public transport in the area, they were unable to attend the Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) classes and other services (see Chapter 12 for details about the AMEP). They also weren't able to engage in their children's schooling, such as taking them to and picking them up from school or access many government offices. Some of these women asked their home tutor[1] to help them get a driver's license because they realized that being able to drive would be a door to their successful settlement in Australia.

Anyone living in Australia who wants to drive a car must first obtain a learner driver permit. In the state in which this curriculum was used, new drivers had to first take a "Learner's License Test." The test has two parts:

- In the *Give Way test* the learner analyzes 12 Give Way diagrams and circles the vehicle that must give way. The learner must get every question correct in order to sit for the Theory test.
- In the *Theory test* the learner completes 40 multiple-choice questions and must get no more than 12 wrong to pass the test. The learner can have an interpreter for this part of the test.

In addition, learners must complete a two-page form, which includes personal details, such as name and address, as well as questions relating to health and organ donation. To get a provisional license, learners must eventually sit for the practical driving test.

One of the senior English language teachers designed a curriculum with input from the tutor and also the motor vehicle department from the state. The curriculum goals were for learners to:

- develop and use learning strategies to understand the Driving Rules content;
- use effective problem-solving skills to correctly interpret the situation inherent in the multiple-choice questions, as well as in the range of answers;
- use L1 and L2 verbal and non-verbal strategies in order to interpret the Give Way diagrams;
- write a formatted text;
- read road and warning signs;
- collate and present ID documents as required by the transport authority;
- follow spoken test instructions in English; and
- budget for the $21 test payment.

<div align="right">(Hemming et al., 2004)</div>

Topics around which instruction was based were the following:

- give way to the right rule,
- pedestrian and children's crossing,
- follow procedures in an emergency,
- follow regulatory signs, and
- tailgating.

These goals and topics motivated the grammar, texts, and vocabulary for the curriculum. For example, functions and language structures for the give way rule included "which" question forms, giving reasons using present tense, and giving reasons using "if." In addition, the teachers aligned these linguistic elements with the AMEP curriculum framework (see Chapter 12). The methodology teachers used was modeling and demonstrating the texts, having learners work together to construct the texts, and then to construct them independently. Such texts included directions for cars at different intersections so the drivers follow the give way rules. Rules were demonstrated by using props, such as matchbox cars, large sheets of paper marked with the different types of intersections, and small road signs to use on the intersection sheets. Additionally, in some classes, where learners were having difficulty mapping print diagrams with the three-dimensional world, teachers had the women "physically locate themselves in the

space by using their bodies" (Hemming et al., 2004, p. 1). The teachers mapped intersections on the classroom carpet and different students took the role of the cars (based on the color of what they were wearing that day). They used paper plates and frisbees as steering wheels.

The First Aid Certificate

The English language learners in this class had a range of career goals: nursing, engineering, child care, and aged care. They all felt that having a First Aid Certificate would help them enter the job market in such areas, as well as improve their English. The language center collaborated with St. John Ambulance personnel on the curriculum design of a course to teach the practical skills and language needed to pass the First Aid test. These skills and language were linked to specific simulated situations for students to practice and demonstrate competency. Furthermore, the learners were able to practice cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) on a training mannequin lent to the language center by St. John Ambulance. The learners followed the CPR directions of the teacher and then repeated those directions back to the teacher as they performed CPR on the mannequin, linking physical activity with the associated language.

The curriculum was developed around the language needed for students to be able to take the practical First Aid test. The language used in the test was integrated with the AMEP competencies (see Chapter 12 for more details on the AMEP curriculum framework). The class that one of us (Murray) observed was practical; the learners had to simulate phoning an ambulance service to request assistance for an elderly woman who had fallen in a suburban street and grazed her hand, which was bleeding; she was in pain and shock. This task met the competency "can participate in a transactional telephone conversation." Another curriculum objective from the AMEP curriculum framework was "can provide a spoken explanation." In the First Aid lesson, the students explained how to assist a victim of snakebite.

Air Traffic Controller Training and Aviation English

English is the language of aviation. This flight academy (https://panamacademy.com/air-traffic-control-training) provides training to air traffic personnel around the world. The academy offers basic courses in aviation English from ICAO (International Civil Aviation Organization) Levels 2–5 and assessment of aviation English proficiency. However, they also offer courses that are directed to specific situations that air traffic controllers encounter. These courses focus on the development of skills and language for the specific situations. These

situation-based courses use aerodrome simulations that depict the actual aerodrome environment with buildings, taxiways, ramps, runways, and variations in aerodrome lighting to depict differences in night, day, and dusk conditions, as well as differences resulting from varied weather circumstances. The instruction is tied to specific emergency situations and the skills and language needed in those situations, such as bird strikes, the incursion of ground vehicles and other aircraft, emergency evacuation, landing gear failure, aborted takeoff, missed approach, and emergency landings with fire and rescue. The language is tied to the emergency situation being targeted. The courses are designed to develop the necessary skills, including language skills, in learners so that they can conduct ICAO ATC (Air Traffic Controller) operations. Common across all three examples is the use of simulations of the real-world situation under study.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have considered topics and situations in the curriculum design process. We link the topical and situational approaches by considering the relationship between topics and situations on a continuum that represents the strength of the relationship. It is possible to have a purely topical curriculum; however, most topics can easily be linked to situations. The chapter considers the theoretical basis for a situational approach to curriculum design by reviewing the basic tenets of the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching. We also offer procedures for developing curriculum using a situational approach. Finally, we provide examples of topic and situational approaches in practice.

Task: Expand

Conduct an online search. Locate two additional examples of programs or courses for a topical or situational curriculum. Share your results with a peer or with your class.

Questions for Discussion

1. In your own words, describe the differences between a topical and a situational approach.
2. Of the three examples given for topical and situational approaches in practice in this chapter, where would you place the examples on a continuum depicting the strength of the connection between topics and situations?

3. What are the strengths and weaknesses of a situational approach to curriculum design?
4. What are the basic assumptions that underpin a situational approach?

Note

1. The Home Tutor Scheme is designed for immigrants who cannot attend formal classes because of class location or timing, or for personal, cultural, or work-related reasons. The scheme has been in place nationally since 1974 (see https://immi.homeaffairs.gov.au/settling-in-australia/amep/volunteer-tutor-resources for information about the curriculum for the scheme).

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Part V

LEARNER-CENTERED CURRICULA

In one sense, all curricula should be learner centered. However, in Part V, by learner centered we refer to curricula where the priority is *process* rather than content, that is, on how the learning environment is arranged. The curriculum is designed around *how* learners learn, rather than around goals of *what* they are to learn. This part consists of three chapters.

For convenience, we have two separate chapters—one on negotiated curricula and the other on humanistic curricula. This division is not that distinct. However, they have followed two rather different trajectories. Negotiated curricula are largely associated with British and Australian programs, while humanistic curricula have their origins in the United States. Both have been used in different countries, but negotiated curricula in ELT are especially associated with Candlin and Breen and Nunan; humanistic curricula, with Stevick. Further, in a negotiated curriculum, not only do designers and teachers decide what and how to learn with reference to the learners, but learners themselves are involved in deciding what and how to learn (Nunan & Lamb, 2001).

The remaining chapter is on approaches that grew out of a focus on learner centered curricula. Chapter 19, which is titled "A Task-based Curriculum," focuses on having learners engage in tasks that they will likely encounter in the world outside the classroom. In this chapter, we include project-based curricula because, essentially, projects are extensions of tasks. Projects are an activity that takes place over a long period of instruction, perhaps even an entire term. The project itself may be broken into various tasks. In both cases, curriculum is organized around the tasks or projects.

What is common to all these approaches is:

> A strongly-felt pedagogic intuition that the development of competence
> in a second language requires not systematization of language inputs or

maximization of planned practice, but rather the creation of conditions in which learners engage in an effort to cope with communication.

<div align="right">(Prabhu, 1987, p. 1)</div>

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17

A NEGOTIATED CURRICULUM

VIGNETTE

Sally is a highly experienced teacher in the Australian Adult Migrant English Program[1] (AMEP) in a case study described by David Nunan. In her interview, she describes her experiences trying to implement a learner centered, negotiated curriculum. The AMEP had previously used a centralized curriculum. Sally's previous experiences included advanced learners, but mostly she had worked with low-level, on-arrival learners. Her current group was intermediate students who had already taken several English classes. Although all learners were labeled intermediate, they varied in age, proficiency, literacy skills, confidence, and motivation. In the initial days of the course, she tried to conduct a needs analysis but found that the students could not articulate what they wanted, so she wondered whether she should start by reviewing what they'd done in previous classes. She believed in a negotiated curriculum and had successfully worked with previous learners to develop their own curricula. She also felt she couldn't develop a list of objectives for such a disparate group of learners. So, she structured the course herself for the first several weeks, asking students at the end of each week what had worked well, what had not, and what they wanted to do differently. Included were all aspects of the curriculum, not just methodology. They all said they did not like pair work. So, Sally committed to it as a chance for more language practice and explained her reasons for using pair work. Students were pleased to have been consulted and agreed to continue with the pair work, and, in fact,

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they became more engaged in such work and began both to enjoy and learn from it.

[Summarized from Nunan, 1988]

Task: Reflect

1. Why do you think these students disliked pair work? How do you feel about learning using pair work—for yourself? for your students?
2. Why do you think this experienced teacher found it so hard to negotiate with this group of students?
3. How might this teacher have approached the class differently?
4. Do you think it is useful to ask students how they feel about class activities, content, and structure? Why? Why not? When is the best time to do this? Share your ideas with a colleague.

Introduction

It has been claimed that one important outcome of involving learners in ongoing curriculum development is that not only does it increase the likelihood that the course will be perceived as relevant, but learners will be sensitised to their own preferences, strengths, and weaknesses. They will become more aware of what it is to be a learner, will develop skills in "learning how to learn" and will be in a better position to negotiate the curriculum in the future.

(Nunan, 1988, p. 53)

A negotiated approach to curriculum design places the learner in the driver's seat by requiring teachers to respond to learner needs, desires, and reflections on language learning. Such an approach empowers learners to become autonomous. This design, therefore, places the responsibility for curriculum development on the individual teacher because each class will differ in its collective needs and desires. While the humanistic approaches discussed in Chapter 18 also rely on learner-centeredness and helping learners become empowered and autonomous, the balance is rather different. In humanistic approaches, teachers become facilitators in the learning process. In negotiated approaches, teachers design the learning process with the learners based on

ongoing learner needs and preferences. Further, the humanistic approach was prevalent in the United States while the negotiated approaches were a focus in the United Kingdom and Australia and initially associated with Lancaster University (e.g., Candlin, 1984, who noted that all aspects of the curriculum should be negotiated).

Defining Negotiation

A negotiated approach grew out of a number of themes prevalent in the 1980s. One theme was the desire to have learners move away from dependence on the teacher to become more autonomous learners. Another was learner needs-based design. A third impetus came from the desire to have teachers themselves become more self-directed and independent from textbooks or prescribed curricula. A final direction came from the recognition that curriculum design is an ongoing process during and after instruction, not just in planning instruction. Breen and Littlejohn (2000b) also noted that negotiation in the classroom has been shown to facilitate second language acquisition. In negotiating the curriculum with learners, the teacher provides more opportunities for rich classroom discourse.

   Who then is involved in the negotiation? In the pure version of a negotiated curriculum, only the teacher and the learners are involved. In this approach, the learner is considered to be a fully functional language user (of their first and other languages), who has "a highly relevant initial competence of communicative knowledge and abilities" (Breen & Candlin, 2001, p. 12). Further, the learner, from previous experience, has views about language and language learning, whether previously articulated or not. Learners also have their own interests both in terms of content and the learning process. These interests then provide learner input in the negotiation. Teachers in turn have their own beliefs about language and language learning and even specific content interests. However, because learners' needs and wants are critical to engagement, they supersede teachers' predispositions. However, as professionals, teachers can use learners' expectations, needs, desires, and interests to fashion the learning experiences.

   Further, "[t]he extent to which it is possible or desirable for learners to be involved in their own learning will obviously vary from context to context (and, indeed, from learner to learner)" (Nunan & Lamb, 2001, p. 28). As in the vignette, Sally was committed to pair work, but students expressed dislike for it. However, through her explanations of its usefulness, students were willing to try it again. With their more positive attitudes, they began to enjoy and learn

from pair work. Öztürk (2012), for example, contends that English preparatory programs at universities in Turkey provide a context in which a negotiated curriculum is almost unavoidable: There is no national curriculum; learners come from different sociocultural, ethnic, and socioeconomic backgrounds, and have different levels of English, and different needs and wants. Additionally, teachers have different backgrounds from the learners. In this context, Öztürk claims that a pre-course needs analysis is not possible. However, some learners in some contexts might still resist.

In this chapter, we will define a negotiated curriculum as one where "the discussion between all members of the classroom to decide how learning and teaching are to be organized" (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000a, p. 1) determines the curriculum. They provide a pyramid of the various curricular components that can be negotiated: the wider educational curriculum, a specific language/subject curriculum, a course, a series of lessons, a sequence of tasks, and a task (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b, p. 35). In other words, what is to be negotiated is *all* aspects of the curriculum that we discussed in Chapter 5.

Task: Reflect

Think about your own language learning. Were any aspects of the curriculum negotiated between teacher and learners? Why/why not? How would you have felt had the teacher asked for your input on content, activities, or materials?

Major Characteristics of a Negotiated Curriculum

Nunan (1985) sets out how teachers can work with learners in each aspect of the curriculum: needs analysis, goal setting, deciding input, deciding content, ordering input, staging language, choosing materials, choosing activities, and evaluating instruction. We will discuss only a few of these aspects, looking at how teachers and learners can work together to plan instruction. We have chosen aspects and examples that teachers in almost any educational context could make use of, acknowledging that most teachers will not be in a position to implement a negotiated curriculum approach in its purest form.

Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is one of the areas in which most curriculum design experts agree that learners need to have some involvement. There are problems, however,

because often teachers have no idea who will be in their class (their English level, their reason for learning English, etc.) until the first day of class. "Establishing the learning needs of the individual student can only come about through the often lengthy process of getting to know each individual student" (Nunan, 1985, p. 4).

Because curriculum design is ongoing throughout instruction, needs analysis can be conducted at different times and for different purposes. For example, before a particular lesson or unit, a teacher might conduct a needs analysis to determine what types of learning activities students prefer. The needs analysis might have the types of questions in Table 17.1.

Choosing Activities

The choice of activities and class arrangements is the aspect of curriculum for which teachers most often seek learner input. Some teachers survey students at the beginning of the course, while others assign activities and then ask students to evaluate the activity, as Sally did in the vignette. This feedback can be in response to a survey or can just be a quick "like/don't like response" using check marks. Some teachers have students hold up different colored cards for whether they liked it or did not like it. While a quick response is useful, it often does not get at why students like or do not like a particular activity and so how it might be adjusted to meet learner needs and desires. As well as asking whether students like/dislike a particular activity, it is also useful to find out whether they have learned from it. For example, a survey such as that used in Table 17.1 could be expanded as in Table 17.2.

Table 17.1 Language Learning Needs Analysis

Learning Situation	How Important Is This for You? Circle a Number. 1 = not important 2 = a little important 3 = important 4 = very important			
Grammar rules	1	2	3	4
Pronunciation	1	2	3	4
New words	1	2	3	4
Speaking	1	2	3	4
Listening	1	2	3	4
Reading	1	2	3	4
Writing	1	2	3	4

Table 17.2 Learning Activity Needs Analysis

Learning Activity	*How Much Did You Like This Activity? Circle a Number.* *1 = did not like it* *2 = liked it a little* *3 = liked it* *4 = liked it very much*				*How Much English Did You Learn FromThis Activity? Circle a Number.* *1 = nothing* *2 = a little* *3 = quite a lot* *4 = a lot*			
Using a textbook	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Practicing with the whole class	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Practicing with a partner	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Practicing in a group	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

Choosing Content

Subject matter content (as opposed to language content) provides a unique opportunity for learner-centeredness. The content can be chosen for a number of learner related reasons:

- the content is of intrinsic interest to the particular learners,
- the content is what learners will need for either their social life or their work life, or
- the content is learner generated.

Many textbooks choose subjects that are dear to the hearts of their teachers but are of little interest to learners. However, finding out what learners actually need in order to conduct their lives in English can be a useful starting point for choosing content. Table 17.3 provides a set of sample questions that can be asked of students, depending on their context. Some could be used for any context; others, such as listening to lectures, would be used for students preparing to study in English.

Learner generated content can include student writing that is used as texts in the classroom (see, for example, Dixon & Nessel, 1983). It can also mean that all texts used in the course are found and brought to class by the students (Hall, 2001). This is particularly effective in advanced English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses, where learners are all interested in the same subject matter, as was the case in the example Hall provides. Learner generated content can also

Table 17.3 Learner Content Needs in English

Content Area	How Important Is This For You? Circle a Number. 1 = not important 2 = a little important 3 = important 4 = very important				How Confident Are You in This Area? Circle a Number. 1 = not confident 2 = a little confident 3 = confident 4 = very confident			
Reading a newspaper	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Understanding TV	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Reading signs and notices	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Listening to lectures	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Talking to my co-workers	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Talking to the doctor	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Reading websites	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Writing emails for work	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

include having students collect samples of language use in their contexts and bring them to class. These samples can be printed texts or they can be a dialog they overheard or were engaged in (see, for example, Murray, 2005). Chapter 5 in Volume I of this series also has a detailed discussion of using learners' lives as resources in the language classroom (Murray & Christison, 2019).

Designing Assessment

Assessment is probably one of the areas that teachers are most reluctant to negotiate with learners, and in some contexts only negotiated formative[2] assessment is possible. One type of formative assessment that can be used with learners of all ages and proficiency levels is a learner diary. Advanced learners can keep a narrative diary. For beginners, the teacher can provide headings (negotiated with the learners) or sentence frames for learners to complete, such as the following:

- This week I studied . . .
- This week I learned . . .
- This week I used English with . . .

Learners can be prompted in their writings with starters such as "Things I find hard in English are . . ." or "Things I'd like to be able to do in English are . . ." Or, after an instructional unit on paraphrasing, the teacher can have students respond with yes/no or rate themselves on a five-point scale to various statements, such as the following:

- I can think of synonyms for words;
- I can re-write verbal phrases; and
- I know that I must not take phrases from the original.

For a writing course where the task was an autobiographical essay, Litz (2007) negotiated the scoring rubrics with his learners using the following steps:

- students examined and discussed teacher provided samples that represented each level for the task;
- in groups students commented on each sample;
- students decided on which attributes of the task, such as organization and vocabulary, should be assessed; and
- students discussed and decided on the criteria for each attribute for each level, such as "Poor organization of ideas. No paragraphs and sentence marker errors" for organization at Level 1.

Given the principles and characteristics of negotiated curricula we have discussed, we now provide an example of how they have been realized in actual curricula.

Implementation

Negotiated curricula have been implemented in a variety of different contexts, such as an academic reading and writing course in a Japanese university (Oke, 2017), a listening and speaking course in a Vietnamese university (Nguyen, 2011), and a writing course in Iran (Abbasian & Malardi, 2013). The most system-wide reform based on a negotiated approach to curriculum was attempted in Australia in the national Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP), which is referred to in the vignette. Prior to 1980, the program used a centralized curriculum. From 1980, it devolved the curriculum in the belief that teachers better understood their own local context and were, therefore, better able to make curricular choices for their learners. Teachers were expected to negotiate content, materials, and methodology with their learners.

Nunan's (1988) study of the program showed that teachers felt the need for a number of supports if they were to achieve an effective negotiated curriculum. These needs included:

- non-mandatory curriculum guidelines;
- in-service for the development of program-planning skills;
- procedures for deriving more homogeneous class groups;
- more resources, such as counseling, and bilingual and curriculum support;
- more appropriate teaching/learning materials; and
- smaller classes.

<div align="right">(adapted from p. 163)</div>

This list is probably not dissimilar from what teachers using other curricular types might request if asked. The third point regarding more homogeneous groupings is clearly one of the issues that Sally in the vignette had to deal with. She was used to a more homogeneous group of learners who were beginners and had very recently arrived in Australia. Therefore, many of their needs would be in common, unlike those of the disparate intermediate group she was faced with in the vignette. It is intriguing that the characteristic that Sally found most impeded a negotiated curriculum, in other words, the disparate group, was the one that Öztürk (2012) considered to be the reason for choosing a negotiated curriculum in the Turkish context. We would concur with Sally, however, that negotiating with a homogeneous group is much easier than with a disparate group.

Task: Explore

Select a language program with which you are familiar. Interview several teachers. Ask them which aspects of the curriculum they negotiate with learners and which they do not. Ask them why they do or do not negotiate these aspects. Also ask them whether they have a disparate learner group or not. Does this affect their decisions? Share your results with a colleague.

Issues in Negotiated Curriculum

The major criticisms leveled against negotiated curricula have been the following: (a) they expect each teacher to be a curriculum designer; (b) learners may not be the best judges of what and how to learn or learners may consider that teachers are "lazy"; and (c) it makes progression through a range of courses quite difficult. We will deal with each of these issues in turn.

Teacher as Curriculum Designer

Although in this volume we have set out a process for teachers to be able to engage in curriculum design, experience with negotiated design in the AMEP in Australia has shown that for all aspects of curriculum to be negotiated between teacher and learner is an overwhelming task that most teachers do not have the training or experience to be able to implement. In a review of the AMEP, Bartlett and Butler concluded that

> the learner-centred curriculum created a great deal of stress, that teachers were required to have a range of new skills if the ideals of the learner-centred curriculum were to become reality, and that teachers required assistance and support in a number of areas.
>
> (cited in Nunan, 1988, p. 37)

These support areas included needs analysis, course planning skills, educational counseling, conflict resolution, and assessment skills.

The Learner as Curriculum Co-designer

In Chapter 8 (Quality Assurance and the Curriculum), we noted that Bogue (1998) expressed grave reservations about whether learner satisfaction was a viable measure of quality. He claimed that students can state that they are highly satisfied in a survey and yet remain uneducated. Many educators have experienced the teacher who is popular but does not help learners achieve their learning objectives and outcomes. Öztürk (2012) notes that in his Turkish context, although a negotiated curriculum might seem "unavoidable," students expect the teacher to be "the source of knowledge" (p. 38) and students are likely to feel uncomfortable discussing instruction with "highly respected" teachers. In some cultural contexts, for the teacher to ask instructional opinions from the class implies the teacher is lazy or has abandoned them (Grognet, 1996). Teachers also felt they needed multilingual support to be able to negotiate effectively with their learners (Bartlett & Butler, 1985).

Establishing Continuity Across Programs

Lack of continuity across programs so that learners could progress easily from one course to the next was cited as a major reason for the abandonment of the learner centered curriculum model in the AMEP (Burns & De Silva Joyce, 2007). Burns and De Silva Joyce also noted that this lack of continuity was also

felt by learners, who did not feel they were receiving feedback on their progress. Consequently, in the early 1990s the program underwent major curriculum and policy changes. A national curriculum framework was adopted in 1992, in response to a 1985 review of the AMEP (Campbell, 1986), a review that recommended a curriculum that had clearly defined learner pathways. The national curriculum framework is text-based and the certification of learner progress is achieved through the assessment of competencies. Providers of the AMEP are evaluated based on three criteria—reach, retention, and results.[3] These changes, while allowing for local syllabi and methodologies, resulted in less negotiation, although teachers still valued learner input into their instructional decisions. They did, however, allow students to progress more smoothly from one class to another, as well as provide data for program evaluation.

Conclusion

While in some sense, all curricula should focus on learners' needs, the negotiated curriculum is the most all-embracing manifestation of a learner centered curriculum. In its purest form, all aspects of the curriculum are negotiated between teacher and learner at the class level. This practice, however, places considerable responsibility and burden on both teacher and learner. It expects the teacher to have curriculum design skills, as well as negotiating skills. It expects learners to be self-aware about their own learning needs and desires. It also makes articulation between courses within a program quite difficult and time-consuming because there are no pre-established standards for exit from any given course. Despite these drawbacks, teachers might want to consider including some aspects of negotiation in any curriculum.

Task: Expand

Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner-centred curriculum: A study in second-language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

This volume provides details of the components of a learner centered curriculum, as well as an evaluation of the AMEP's negotiated curriculum.

Breen, M. P. & Littlejohn, A. L. (2000) (Eds.), *Classroom decision making*. Cambridge University Press.

This volume has an excellent introductory chapter by the editors, in which they trace the origins of the negotiated curriculum and provide a detailed description of such a curriculum. The various chapters provide examples of negotiation in K–12 and tertiary education around the world and cover all aspects of the curriculum.

Questions for Discussion

1. Explain the relationship between a learner centered and a negotiated curriculum.
2. How can learners' lives be used as input into the curriculum?
3. For what types of learners do you think a negotiated curriculum works best?
4. How could a teacher build learner self-assessment into any type of curriculum?
5. Why do you think some people are critical of negotiated curricula?

Notes

1. The AMEP is a national program for teaching English to immigrants and refugees who do not have functional English. In the Australian context, "migrant" refers to immigrants.
2. Formative assessment is any assessment conducted during instruction to provide learners and teachers with information about what has/has not been learned. Teachers and learners can then use this information to plan the next stages of instruction. Formative assessment contrasts with summative assessment, which provides a final summation of student learning.
3. Reach refers to how many potential eligible immigrants/refugees the program teaches. Retention refers to whether students stay in the program, that is, do not drop out.

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18

A HUMANISTIC CURRICULUM

VIGNETTE

I am in Rabat, Morocco working at the Summer Institute of English (SIE) for four weeks. The leadership team came a week early to plan and work together; SIE will be three weeks long with one week for inspectors and two additional weeks for teachers. It is designed for secondary school English teachers and is an initiative sponsored by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in cooperation with the British Council and the English Language Teaching Division of the U.S. Embassy in Morocco. The teaching staff for SIE consists of two university professors from Morocco, six senior inspectors, two English language specialists sponsored by the British Council, four from the United States, and one Fulbright[1] awardee. One English language specialist from the United States serves in a part-time administrative capacity. Each member of the teaching staff is responsible for four eight-hour workshops over the course of the three-week program so that teachers and inspectors will have choices. The Moroccan professors and the English language specialists from England and the United States also give at least one plenary. One of the workshops that I have prepared focuses on how teachers can facilitate classroom interaction among their students. In this workshop, I have focused on six different activity types that promote interaction and can be used with different content, topics, or grammatical structures. In an attempt to get

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teachers thinking out of the box, I have also chosen some content and topics that are humanistic in nature; these are topics I thought would be interesting to them but may not be typical for their classrooms based on what I have seen in their textbooks. I prepared a "Find Someone Who" activity that included questions about the teachers' wants and desires for the future, past experiences, and opinions about things happening in the world. I told them about the origins of the activity[2] and a bit about a humanistic approach to language teaching. The Moroccan teachers participated fully in the interactive activities that I had planned. On day four of the workshop, they used the activity blueprints that I had given them to plan their own activities and then present them to one another. At the conclusion of the workshop, the teachers told me they were eager to try some of the activities with their own students. After the last class a couple of students approached me and asked if we could talk about humanistic teaching during the tea break. Because I consider myself a humanist at heart, I was eager to discuss this topic with them. In discussion, they told me that while they truly enjoyed the interactive activities and could see that the interaction would be useful for language acquisition, they were worried about implementing the activities in their classrooms. The two young men were deeply religious and were worried because they had read a definition of humanism somewhere that attached prime importance to human rather than divine matters. I explained that my own definition of humanistic education was simply as a philosophy that affirmed an individual's ability and responsibility to lead an ethical and personally fulfilled life that would, hopefully, contribute to the greater good of humanity. I told them that in order to do this, I thought that one must reflect on one's beliefs and values and that the classroom could give learners opportunities to do this. They considered my definition, and we agreed that there were likely many different definitions of humanism and humanistic education and that the workshop had given them much to consider and think about in terms of their future teaching.

[Christison, research notes]

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Task: Reflect

1. What is your definition of humanistic education?
2. What are the two different definitions of humanistic education given in the vignette?
3. Do you think it is possible to merge these two definitions? If yes, how? If no, why not?
4. How do you think small group/interactive activities support a humanistic language-teaching curriculum?

</div>

Introduction

The humanistic approach to curriculum design presented in this chapter differs from the negotiated curriculum that was discussed in Chapter 17 in some important ways. Even though a humanistic approach also promotes a learner centered curriculum that emphasizes helping learners become empowered and autonomous, the balance is different from a negotiated curriculum. In humanistic approaches, teachers become facilitators in the learning process. Furthermore, and as mentioned in Chapter 17, humanistic approaches have been more prevalent in the United States., while the negotiated approaches have been a focus in the United Kingdom and in Australia.

In the late 1970s, one of us (Christison) attended a workshop at an English language-teaching conference offered by Gertrude Moskowitz, who was one of the early promoters of a humanistic curriculum. The audience participated in, what we perceived to be, unusual language-learning activities that she had created, including the now famous "Find Someone Who" activity (Moskowitz, 1978) and in small group activities in which we gave our opinions, talked about our preferences, shared personal information about ourselves, and acknowledged others in our group. The group of workshop attendees was very enthusiastic about these experiences, and most of us were eager to take what we had learned in the workshop back into our classrooms. When Ms. Moskowitz asked if we had enjoyed our experiences in the workshop, felt positive about learning, and could see our students responding in similar ways, the overwhelming majority answered with a resounding "yes." She then told us that what we had experienced were language-learning activities that supported ideas associated with humanistic education.

Humanistic education is an approach to learning that is based on the early work of humanistic psychologists, most importantly, Abraham Maslow (1998)

and Carl Rogers (1969). In fact, Carl Rogers has been called the Father of Humanistic Psychology, and he devoted his professional efforts toward applying the results of his research in psychology to person centered teaching. In person centered teaching, the teacher serves as a learning facilitator who demonstrates empathy, caring about students, and genuine interest in their thoughts, feelings, opinions, and ideas. In terms of humanistic education, these qualities are thought to be key traits of effective teachers. Humanistic education also applies to the work of other humanist pedagogues, such as Maria Montessori (2006), who proposed an educational philosophy that builds on the way that children naturally learn and considers the whole child in the learning process, including their social and emotional learning, as well as their cognitive development, and John Dewey, U.S. philosopher and educational reformer, who championed a humanistic approach to education in the United States in the late 19th and early 20th centuries (see Dewey, 1897, 1910, 1916).

In second and foreign language teaching, humanistic approaches emerged in the 1970s and 1980s and are most often associated with the works of Charles Curran (1976), Caleb Gattegno (1976), and Georgi Lozanov (1979). The approaches that these educators promoted sought to engage the whole person—the intellectual, emotional, social, and artistic—because each component plays an important role in human growth and development. The objectives of humanistic education also include developing individual self-esteem. Self-esteem underpins the skills that contribute to the development of learner autonomy and are associated with the abilities to set and achieve appropriate goals.

Humanistic education in second and foreign language teaching and learning is also associated with the work of Earl Stevick (1976, 1989, 1990). Unlike Curran, Gattegno, and Lozanov, Stevick did not propose a specific methodology for humanistic language teaching. Instead, Stevick stated that his intention was

> neither to promote 'humanism' in language teaching nor to discourage it—neither to attack nor to defend any form of it. Instead, [he] ha[s] tried to sort out a few terms and the ideas that have sometimes been attached to them and to provide certain new information.
>
> (1990, p. 144)

Stevick's work has made it possible for other language teaching professionals to consider the ideas associated with humanistic language teaching in greater depth.

Humanistic approaches to curriculum design emphasize the "natural desire" of everyone to learn; consequently, they focus on the need for learners to feel empowered and to have control over their learning process. To accomplish this

result, the teacher must relinquish some control and take on the role as a facilitator of learning, working to create positive learning experiences for the students and build positive affect in the classroom. Helping learners build a positive self-concept and understand themselves as learners is also an important component of humanistic approaches. This chapter explains the approach and offers humanistic principles that English language teachers and curriculum designers can follow in the design process in order to show the wide range of possibilities for addressing humanistic elements.

Defining Humanism

At its very basic level, humanism is concerned with any activity that involves humans—our needs, wants, desires, or experiences. Humanism can also be described as a particular attitude or perspective on life or on humanity, and humanists share certain attitudes, beliefs, and perspectives about the human experience. In the vignette, the author's students asked her about a definition of humanism that "attached prime importance to the human experience" leaving them to wonder about the role of "divine matters" in humanistic education. In the vignette, the author proposed a definition of humanism as "a philosophy that affirms an individual's ability and responsibility to lead an ethical and personally fulfilled life that, hopefully, contributes to the greater good of humanity"; as such, it was a definition that neither embraced nor excluded the possibility of "divine matters." For many humans, "divine matters" are an essential part of the human experience. How one embraces and interprets humanism is, to some degree, very personal. The general definition of humanism provided in the vignette does not seem controversial. There are few, if any, educators who would argue with the basic tenets put forth in the definition. Educators want their learners to be personally fulfilled, and teachers should be their strongest supporters and the ones they can count on. As English language teaching professionals, we want our learners to be concerned about others' welfare and to contribute to making the world a better place. The practice of bringing these values into a second and foreign language classroom is what we refer to as humanistic language teaching.

Stevick (1990) outlines five overlapping components associated with a definition of humanism. These overlapping components and their orientation appear in Table 18.1.

Teachers and curriculum designers must determine how each of these components can be realized in the curriculum design process. The following questions are associated with each of the components and can help focus the curriculum design process:

Table 18.2 Principles for Humanistic Language Teaching

Humanistic Principles	Curriculum Design Question(s)	Checklist and Indicators
Principle 1: Learner Choice and Control	Are the students given opportunities to exercise choice or control in their own learning?	
Principle 2: Learner Concerns and Interests	In what ways does the curriculum reflect students' interests, needs, and concerns? How are learners given input into the content of the curriculum?	
Principle 3: The Whole Person	Are both the cognitive and affective domains an integral part of the learning process?	
Principle 4: Self-evaluation	Are students given an opportunity to evaluate their own learning? If yes, then how? Do they learn about themselves in the process?	
Principle 5: Collaboration	Are cooperation and collaboration encouraged? If so how?	
Principle 6: Teacher as a Facilitator	Is the teacher functioning as a facilitator of learning? What are the indicators?	

Principle 1: Learner Choice and Control

In humanistic language teaching, students are always given opportunities to exercise control over their own learning. Learners are encouraged to make choices that range from deciding what book to read, which classmates to work with, or what roles to assume during group work to larger choices, such as periodically setting future life goals. By exercising some control and choice in their own learning, learners are encouraged to focus on the content of interest to them for the amount of time they choose (within reason). This principle supports the component of humanism referred to as "intellect," which is defined as making personal choices and having the freedom to control one's own mind and how one thinks. Humanistic language teachers believe that it is important for students to be motivated and engaged in the material they are learning and that giving learners choices and control over their learning contributes to these factors.

Principle 2: Learner Concerns and Interests

Humanistic education focuses on learners' concerns and interests because it is believed that the overall mood and feeling of the students can either hinder or foster the process of learning. Learners respond best to learning when the

content is interesting, meaningful, and relevant to their lives and experiences. In humanistic language teaching, it is important to embrace what makes people feel good about themselves and about learning.

Principle 3: The Whole Person

Humanistic educators believe that both feelings and knowledge are important to the learning process, so humanistic language learning activities are those that "explore the students' values, ideas, opinions, goals, and feelings, as well as their experiences" (Terrell, 1982, p. 281). Unlike traditional educators, humanistic teachers do not separate the cognitive and affective domains. This aspect of humanistic language teaching means that the design of lessons, in terms of the objectives and the activities and tasks that support the objectives, should include activities that promote the development of the learners as individuals. While drills, the memorization and practice of dialogs, and creative interactive activities that give language learners opportunities to practice language forms and functions are considered useful for language development, they are not designed to promote learners' understanding of themselves as learners, for example, to understand their preferences in learning or their strengths and weaknesses as learners.

Principle 4: Self-Evaluation

Humanistic educators believe that the process of grading done by the teacher is mostly irrelevant because the traditional grading process encourages students to work for the grade and not for satisfaction associated with personal achievement. Humanistic educators often disagree with routine testing because success in testing frequently involves the need for rote memorization as opposed to meaningful learning. They also believe testing does not always provide appropriate educational feedback to the teacher. Self-evaluation supports the component of humanism called "responsibility," which is defined as accepting the need for scrutiny of one's own work and a process for considering others' points of view.

Principle 5: Collaboration

The ability to work together successfully with others is an important component for success in modern society—working among friends, with family, or in the workplace. Encouraging learners to develop social relationships is a component of humanism, and humanistic language teaching encourages interaction and cooperation in the classroom through collaborative work that focuses on the

completion of group projects, problem solving in small groups, and the revision and modification of assignments. The approach that language teachers have used to foster interaction among learners is referred to as cooperative learning, which is defined by the presence of two overarching principles—positive interdependence and individual accountability (Johnson & Johnson, 2009; Johnson et al., 2008). The presence of these principles in the design of activities and tasks for learners makes cooperative learning different from collaborative learning. For recent accounts of cooperative learning in different contexts in language teaching see McCafferty et al. (2006).

Principle 6: Teacher as a Facilitator

The teacher's role in humanistic language teaching is to guide and assist learners as they take on more responsibility for their learning. Envisioning the teacher as a facilitator requires a change in standard teaching approaches. The purpose of facilitation is to move the responsibility for learning from the instructor to the student (see Volume II, 2nd edition, Chapter 3 for information on gradual release models of teaching) so that learners are ultimately able to take responsibility for learning, while teachers provide assistance and encouragement in the learning process. A teacher who sees her role in the classroom as a facilitator of learning tends to be more supportive than critical and more understanding than judgmental. In order to be successful as a facilitator, a teacher must not only be genuine but also come across as genuine rather than as simply playing a role. This is best accomplished if the teacher is, in fact, genuinely concerned for her students. A facilitator's job is to foster an engaging environment for the students and ask inquiry-based questions that promote meaningful learning and thereby promote learner freedom that is essential in a humanistic approach to language teaching.

The Affective Domain

In almost all formal classroom environments, teachers spend considerable time addressing the cognitive aspects of learning; however, the affective aspects are also important and comprise an important part of humanistic language teaching. These affective aspects are reflected in the component of humanism defined as "feelings," which includes learners' emotions, values, motivations, and attitudes, and all of these can affect learning (Dewaele, 2013). For several decades, second and foreign language researchers and teachers have talked about the importance of creating a low affective filter in the classroom (i.e., creating a low-stress and low-anxiety environment) (e.g., Krashen, 1987, 1988; Krashen & Terrell,

1983). The ability of teachers to recognize that learners have varied orientations to learning (both positive and negative) and differing commitments to the process of learning is important in creating positive affect.

Benjamin Bloom (see Krathwohl et al., 1964) conceived of five categories or levels in the affective domain. These levels are useful for teachers and curriculum designers in trying to identify learners' orientations and commitments to learning, and, consequently, are important in the curriculum design process. Each of the levels represents the degree of commitment required on the part of the learners. These levels are—*receiving, responding, valuing, organizing*, and *characterizing*. The level receiving (i.e., awareness) represents the lowest degree of commitment, and characterizing (i.e., learners are firmly committed to the experience) represents the highest. The basic premise is that when learners are committed to the process of learning they have a positive orientation towards it. Just above the level of awareness is the responding level. At this level, learners react to classroom information in some way but nothing more. At the valuing level, learners begin to attach value to classroom information, and at the organizing level they begin to put together information according to their own schemata, which leads to the development of a commitment to learning. Table 18.3 provides a summary of these levels of commitment.

The difficulty for teachers and curriculum designers in identifying learners' overall commitment to learning is that each learner may have a different orientation, and all groups of learners are different. For teachers who have multiple groups of students in a teaching day, the latter is an important consideration. Teachers and curriculum designers can balance these two concerns by bringing the affective domain to the planning process. Planning for the affective domain

Table 18.3 Levels of Learner Commitment

Levels of Commitment	Description
Receiving	Learners are aware of classroom information, but they do not react.
Responding	Learners react to classroom information in some modest way, but there is nothing more.
Valuing	Learners begin to attach value to classroom information and see its relevance.
Organizing	Learners begin to put together information according to their own schemata, which will ultimately lead to the development of a commitment to learning.
Characterizing	Learners are firmly committed to the experience of learning in the classroom and have a positive orientation towards it.

works best when teachers and curriculum designers focus on the particular group of learners with whom they are working even though the plan may not be a perfect fit for all learners. In the process of developing a plan, teachers and curriculum designers begin to recognize that learners are likely to have different commitments to learning. A humanistic curriculum should not only help learners recognize their level of commitment to learning but also give them skills to move to a higher level if that is their goal.

Task: Explore

Select two lessons that you have prepared or two that you use in the program in which you are teaching. Use Table 18.1 to help you determine how the principles of humanistic language teaching are being realized in these materials. Create a rubric to show how the humanistic principles were applied in the materials you selected and share your results with a colleague. Talk about whether you were pleased with the results or whether you intend to make changes to future lessons. If you intend to make changes, explain why.

Humanistic Language Teaching in Practice

Stevick's work (1980, 1990) serves as a model for evaluating language teaching methods and approaches in relation to their humanistic components. The purpose in reviewing Stevick's work in this chapter was to determine if the methods he proposed could be helpful to curriculum designers as a way of determining the degree of humanism that may be present in a given language teaching model or curriculum.

Historically, the language teaching methods that have been most notably associated with humanistic language teaching are Curran's Counseling Learning, Gettegno's Silent Way, and Lozanov's Suggestopedia. Stevick (1980, 1990) reviewed and evaluated Counseling Learning and the Silent Way in relation to the five components of humanism—feelings, social relations, responsibility, intellect, and self-actualization (see Table 18.1)—thereby, creating a model that teachers and curriculum designers can use to both understand and evaluate the components of humanism that can influence any language teaching model, approach, or curriculum.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have taken a closer look at the role of humanism in language teaching and defined humanism in terms of its basic components—feelings, social relations, responsibility, intellect, and self-actualization—and translated them into a set of principles for use in the curriculum design process. We have also discussed the affective domain and its importance in L2 teaching. Finally, we looked at humanistic language teaching in practice by noting the usefulness of Stevick's work in evaluating different models, approaches, and curricula in language teaching.

Task: Expand

Humanistic education is concerned with the whole person, which includes one's social and emotional needs, as well as one's written work or spoken language. More information on humanistic education can be found on the British Council website https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/humanistic or by following these links.

https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/community-language-learning
https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/chia-suan-chong-a-trip-down-memory-lane-methodology
https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/how-maximise-language-learning-senior-learners
https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/storytelling-celebrate-cultural-diversity

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Questions for Discussion

1. In your own words, explain humanistic language teaching to a colleague or peer. How do you think it is different from other forms of language teaching?
2. Choose one of the principles for curriculum design that supports humanistic language teaching and explain how it is connected to at least one of the components of humanism.
3. How do you characterize the teacher's role in a humanistic curriculum? How is it different from the role of the teacher in a negotiated curriculum?

4. In terms of second language acquisition, why do you think that the affective domain is important? How can language teachers and curriculum designers include the affective domain in lesson planning and program goals?

5. Select two learners whom you are teaching or have taught and that you know well. Explain to a partner the level of commitment to learning for each of them and provide a short comment explaining why you placed these learners where you did.

Notes

1. Fulbright is a U.S.-based and U.S.-funded program for the international exchange of students and scholars. It is broadly recognized, and its awards are highly competitive and considered prestigious.
2. The "Find Someone Who" activity originated with Gertrude Moskowitz in a book entitled *Caring and sharing in the foreign language classroom* (1978).

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19

A TASK-BASED CURRICULUM

VIGNETTE

I am teaching a class called "American Culture," but the course in practice is really a course in U.S. history with some cultural components integrated into the curriculum as motivated by historical topics. It is an ESL class in the Intensive English Program (IEP) at the college where I work, and it is intended for intermediate-high to advanced level proficiency students. There are 24 students in my class from six different language backgrounds—Arabic, Korean, Japanese, Portuguese, Spanish, and Thai. The students are from 10 different countries. We are about halfway through a 15-week semester, so there is a college expectation (but not a requirement) that teachers will give midterm exams. Midterms are to occur either this week or next week. As students have several short assessment opportunities throughout the term and as I am required to give a final exam, I have decided not to give a midterm. Instead I have decided to give my students the option of pursuing projects. This is a huge experiment for me, and I must admit that I am a bit nervous. I have prepared a set of guidelines for the students and provided a shortlist of possible projects they might pursue, including creating their own midterm exam based on the content of the course to date, asking peers to take the exam and provide feedback, compiling a summary of the feedback, and making a short class presentation about what they learned. I also included ideas for projects such as resource papers that would go beyond the information we covered in class and creative projects

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that involved incorporating art and music into their subject matter. The list is not meant to be exhaustive, and I will encourage the students to propose original projects. They are also required to create a rubric for the evaluation of their project and grade themselves against the rubric. As we have used rubrics in class, students are familiar with the concept. I am requiring that they review the rubric with me in advance so that I can work with them on their indicators of effectiveness. They can work alone or in groups of two, three, or four persons. I'm thinking that I should also give students who want to take the midterm exam the option of doing that; however, I don't think that anyone will take me up on that.

[Christison, research notes]

Task: Reflect

Why do you think the teacher in the vignette decided to use a task-based or project-based assessment for her students instead of a midterm exam? Why do you think she would allow some students to take the midterm instead of doing a project? Why do you think the teacher required a rubric for the project? If you were the teacher in the vignette, what kind of project options might you give your students? Do you agree with the teacher that projects would be a good option for students in lieu of a midterm exam?

Introduction

One of the major developments in language teaching and learning that came about in the 1980s, in conjunction with the popularization of communicative language teaching (CLT) methodology was the emergence of task-based language learning (TBLL), which was derived from task-based learning (TBL; Willis, 1996). In fact, TBLL is thought to be a subcategory of communicative language teaching (CLT) (Nunan, 1991, 2004). It is also referred to as task-based language teaching (TBLT) by other scholars (Ellis et al., 2019; Van den Branden et al., 2009). TBLL is an important movement because it highlights the

fact that learners need both knowledge about language and the ability to use language to achieve communicative or other goals. A task-based approach to curriculum design focuses on tasks and on the fact that language is the instrument that learners use to participate in and complete tasks. Tasks can be small and completed in one class session, or they can be much larger, for example multi-step tasks that cover a full semester, such as a project. By focusing on tasks, learners are afforded opportunities for meaningful interaction with the target language and can process and recycle language more naturally. A task-based curriculum creates the need to learn language by using it, so it is consistent with communicative language teaching.

Defining Task-based Language Learning

The concept of organizing language instruction around tasks came into the field of English language teaching from mainstream education (Shavelson & Stern, 1981). However, the concept of pedagogic tasks has been a topic of discussion among practicing teachers in all content areas for decades and is not a recent invention.

Central to a discussion of TBLL is a definition of a task—what it is and how to define it. As Long (1985) states, tasks

> include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, taking a hotel reservation, writing a check, finding a street destination, and helping someone across the road.
>
> (p. 89)

In other words, "task" is meant to represent the hundred and one things people *do* in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. "Tasks" are the things people will tell you they do if you ask them, and they are not applied linguists. In order to make the concept of task viable within TBLL, it must involve language; however, within the scope of tasks that involve language, there is the question of how tasks should be defined.

Prabhu's provocative research (1987) showed that his students were able to learn language by participating in non-linguistic motivated tasks, just as well as when they were concentrating on linguistic motivated tasks. In non-linguistic motivated tasks, language is also likely involved; however, the motivation for participation in a task is not simply to complete a language exercise or drill but to communicate meaning—to achieve one's purpose or accomplish one's

goal. Prabhu's work encouraged researchers and teachers to focus on meaning-focused language tasks instead of on purely language, such as drills or other language practice exercises because these tasks may focus on language form but have little concern for meaning. Widdowson (1998) cautioned, however, that the distinction that some researchers have made between drill and language practice exercises and meaning-focused tasks is far too simplistic. To develop communicative competence, language learners must ultimately pay attention to both form and meaning. Within the framework of TBLL, teachers and curriculum designers are primarily interested in tasks that involve "meaning-focused language use" (Ellis, 2003, p. 3). In this chapter, we will adopt a meaning-focused view of tasks as they relate to TBLL.

Categorizing Tasks

There has been an extensive debate on what constitutes a "task" for the purposes of language teaching and learning, and teachers, curriculum designers, and researchers have categorized tasks in different ways.[1] The most common distinction is the one made between *exercises* (focused on accuracy and the form of language) and *tasks* or *activities* (focused on developing fluency through meaning and use of language). Researchers have also tried to distinguish between *pedagogic* tasks (tasks used for the purposes of classroom learning) and *real-life* tasks (tasks involving the real-world use of language), although there are arguments among researchers that real-life tasks are not possible in the language classroom. The fact that pedagogic tasks differ from real-life tasks is not a bad thing. By their very nature, pedagogic tasks make language accessible for language learners, particularly at the early proficiency levels when the language associated with real-life tasks (e.g., complicated syntax, speed of delivery, unfamiliar vocabulary) affect comprehensibility. Tasks are differentiated in other ways. There is an emphasis in mainstream education on critical thinking and differentiating between *higher-order thinking* tasks and *lower-order thinking* tasks (see Chapter 11 on academic functions in this volume). Tasks may be categorized and grouped based on almost any prominent feature of tasks. These groupings are called *task-types*. The most common and most frequently used way of categorizing tasks is according to the four language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Teachers and curriculum designers must always keep the development of the four skills in mind when they plan for and select tasks. Prabhu (1987) divides tasks into three main categories—information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap. Each of these categories is discussed next.

Information gap tasks involve a transfer of information from one person to another, from one form to another, or from one place to another. In order for

this to happen, language learners are generally required to decode or encode information. An example of an information-gap activity is pair or small group work in which each member has a part of the total information and attempts to convey it verbally to the other(s) in order to solve a problem or answer a set of questions.

Reasoning gap tasks require learners to derive new information from information that has been given to them either orally or in writing through inference, deduction, or perceiving patterns or relationships. Problem solving processes that ask learners to decide on a solution and support their decision or explain their decision-making process work well with language learners. One example that we have used is asking learners to decide on a travel itinerary for an upcoming trip and determine how arrival and departure times, layovers, airline choice, cost, travel dates, etc., will affect their decisions. Another useful task involving problem solving is to compare and contrast two stories relative to their story maps (i.e., characters, setting, and events) or two fairy tales, such as Cinderella, relative to the different ways they are told in different cultures.

Opinion gap tasks involve identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to information or a situation. One example is story completion; another is taking part in a discussion about social issues. Learners are encouraged to use factual information to support their opinions, so discussions that follow instructional activities wherein learners are exposed to factual information through reading texts are ideal. Learners may also be asked to formulate arguments to justify their personal opinions. In opinion gap tasks, there is no objective procedure for demonstrating whether outcomes are right or wrong. Because learners will vary in their opinions, there is no reason to expect the same outcome from different learners.

Another way of categorizing tasks was created for the *Australian language level guidelines* (Scarino et al., 1988). Curriculum designers looked at the purposes of a wide variety of tasks and offered the following categories:

- interacting and discussing,
- interacting and deciding or completing a transaction,
- obtaining information and using it,
- giving information,
- making a personal response, or
- providing a personal expression.

Another system of task-types used in the level guidelines focuses on higher-order thinking skills. These task-types include the following:

- enquiring,
- interpreting,
- presenting information,
- problem solving,
- creating,
- composing, and
- judging/evaluating.

(see Clark et al., 1994)

The purpose of categorizing tasks is to ensure that in the curriculum design process, there is a means for learners to engage with a range of learning experiences and participate in a range of language learning tasks in different contexts. This process is important for learners because they need to be prepared to manage the variability that arises in a variety of contexts outside of the classroom in the real world. In the process of categorizing tasks, teachers and curriculum designers need to consider how tasks fit together and how each task builds on or extends previous learning so that learning is perceived as continuous and cumulative.

TBLL in the Classroom

L2 classrooms have expanded their role in the teaching and learning process. While classrooms remain as formal settings for instruction and guided practice, it is also important to recognize that L2 classrooms have become "center[s] for purposeful communication and meaningful exchanges" (Pica, 2005, p. 439). In many classrooms this change has resulted in learners taking a more active role in their learning by participating in collaborative tasks and projects. While these types of classroom activities have become popular with teachers and learners alike, they have also changed the nature of instruction, making some researchers wonder about the long-term effects of a lack of emphasis on language (Pica, 2002). How teachers select tasks and how they decide to implement them in the classroom are of primary concern in TBLL. Task characteristics need to be identified so that tasks can be selected to support learners' needs. In addition, there must be a system for task implementation that meets communicative needs but also allows for a focus on language.

Task Characteristics

In terms of designing tasks for instructional use, it is helpful to think about the characteristics of tasks, particularly if tasks are to be purposeful and

contextualized. Task characteristics can serve as a checklist for the design of tasks and include the following:

- Purpose—the reason for undertaking the task (i.e., the learners' goals and objectives) is clear.
- Context—a context may be real, simulated, or imaginary. In considering context teachers and curriculum designers should consider who, how (interactional circumstances), where, when, and what (in terms of experiences and relationships).
- Process—the procedures for completing the task, including the roles of the learners and teacher, is carefully considered. It is important for teachers to determine how the procedures or processes get communicated to the learners.
- Result—the specifications for the expected response(s), including the product that is to be produced, are included.
- Input—the characteristics of the input that learners receive (see also Nunan, 2004; Bachman & Palmer, 2010) is delineated. Teachers need to determine whether the input needs to be modified and, if so, how.
- Difficulty factor—includes linguistic, cognitive, and performance time. These can be manipulated to make tasks easier or more difficult.
- Language factor—the characteristics of the task that are related to language are specified. How does the task support learners in developing their language skills?

Task Implementation

In TBLL, the core of the lesson and the main organizing principle is the task itself (see Nunan, 2004; Willis, 1996; Willis & Willis, 2007 for example frameworks for creating tasks and task-based learning lessons). Using Doyle's (1983) definition of "academic task," Simpson and Nist (1997, p. 378) enumerate three components that are necessary for teachers and curriculum designers to consider in task implementation. These components are as follows:

1. the products that learners formulate,
2. the operations or procedures they use to formulate the products, and
3. the resources that learners have available to them while they are generating a product.

The operations or procedures for task sequencing or the sequencing of a task in the implementation cycle include pre-task, task completion, and task review.

Pre-task. In the pre-task phase, the teacher focuses students' attention on what will be expected of them during the task cycle. A teacher could also prime the students with key vocabulary words or grammatical concepts, although this priming activity for the task makes the task cycle very similar to the traditional present-practice-produce (PPP) paradigm. Some teachers prefer that learners themselves be responsible for selecting the appropriate language for a given context. In the pre-task phase, the instructor models the task either by doing it or by presenting a picture, audio, or video demonstrating the task.

Task Completion. Students normally work in small groups to complete a task although how a task is processed is dependent on the task itself. The teacher's role is typically limited to an observer or facilitator.

Task Review. If completion of a task has resulted in tangible linguistic products, for example, a narrative or expository text, a collage, a PowerPoint presentation, an audio or video recording, or an exhibition, learners can critique one another's work and offer constructive feedback. Rubrics are helpful for this phase of the task so that learners are clear about whether they have achieved the objectives or not. The teacher can also, with input from learners, summarize what language students have learned during the task. Such a summary can alleviate anxiety of learners who are used to more traditional approaches and worry that they are just doing a task, not learning language.

If a performance or presentation factor is built into procedures for task implementation, there are additional phases that must be considered—planning for the presentation, practicing with peers, making the presentation, and analysis (i.e., students reflect on what they learned).

Task: Explore

Choose a task you have done in the classroom that your students seemed to enjoy or locate a task in a text. Identify the task characteristics and create a plan for task implementation as per the specifications given in the chapter.

Table 19.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of TBLL

Advantages	Disadvantages
Task-based activity is student centered.	It is not for beginners.
Learners have more freedom in learning.	Tasks make it difficult to predict learning.
Learners are exposed to more and varied input.	It is difficult to focus on specific language.
A natural context of language use can develop among learners.	Some students speak too much while others may not speak enough.
Language arises from learner needs.	Some learners may feel they are not
Learners develop strong communication skills.	learning language.

Issues in TBLL

As with all types of instructional activity, there are issues related to TBLL. Table 19.1 offers teachers and curriculum designers a list of issues to consider based on perceived advantages and disadvantages. There is no perfect approach to curriculum design. Teachers and curriculum designers must consider the issues and make choices based on what they believe to be in the best interests of their learners.

Project–based Curricula

Projects are an extension of tasks. They come from the same theoretical understandings of language learning, that is, that language learning takes place when learners are engaged in purposeful communicative activities (Ellis, 2003). They also require learners to work collaboratively to achieve a certain goal or outcome and they change the role of the teacher. "In project-based teaching, the rigorous application of curriculum gives way to the skill or art of managing the learning process" (Debski, 2006, p. 41). As one learner stated, "There's a real task for us to drain our brains. It offers us a good chance to learn what we want to learn. So we feel responsible and interested in the project" (Gu, 2002, p. 24), thus allowing for learner agency.

Projects have been used in general education long before the task-based approach to ELT developed out of CLT. For example, the Dalton Plan originated from the work of progressive education scholars, such as John Dewey (1916) and Marie Montessori (2006) (see also Chapter 18), in which students engaged in monthly assignments, using the classroom as a laboratory. Direct instruction was minimal, with learners discovering solutions through their own explorations. One such implementation is at Ascham School for girls in Australia,

where one of us taught. Their project-based system is centered on three main components: the lesson, the study, and the assignment. The girls attend classes that focus on the delivery of the curriculum; in studies they learn how to work both independently and in groups in partnership with their teacher. In assignments, they plan their own work for an entire week with some direction from their teacher. Their plan is based on their own interests (Ascham School, 2021).

Within ELT, projects can vary a great deal as the following examples demonstrate:

- high school students research higher education institutions to practice an admissions interview (TESOL, 1997),
- students interview community members to write a report about attitudes towards building a playground in the local park,
- students create a resource website for an intensive English program (IEP) to provide useful information for future students (Debski, 2006), and
- Chinese and American students collaborate via the web to create a PowerPoint presentation on strategies for marketing, for example how to market Suzhou freshwater pearls in Georgia, U.S. (Gu, 2002).

Projects can be semester-long or for a shorter period. In a strong version of a project-based curriculum, the entire curriculum is constructed around projects. In a weak version, projects are included, along with a variety of other activities. For example, one of us (Murray) taught in an IEP that used a topic/situational approach (see Chapter 16 in this volume), with a different topic each week. Each Wednesday afternoon was devoted to learners working in groups and undertaking a research project off campus. The lessons prior to the afternoon projects were spent providing language input and practice to help them prepare for their project. For example, if the project involved interviewing local people at the beach about beach safety, the previous lessons would include how to interview, as well as the language of safety and beach culture. The weekdays immediately after the project excursion were spent helping students write up their project and learn how to request help for what they found difficult in the project.

Assessment of project-based curricula is more complex than in some other approaches. Aspects other than acquisition of language may need to be assessed, such as student investment in the project, the quality of collaboration, and the amount of English used in the project. Because the goals of project-based learning are learner empowerment and carrying out a project that has an application to real-world issues, assessment can be self-, peer-, and/or teacher-based. Portfolios are also a useful assessment tool for projects.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have focused on key components of TBLL by defining tasks, introduced models for organizing tasks, provided suggestions for identifying characteristics of tasks, and created a system for task implementation, thereby making it feasible to incorporate tasks within lessons, courses, and programs. We also discussed the advantages and disadvantages of TBLL and took a detailed look at one task-type—project-based tasks.

Task: Expand

Additional resources on task-based language learning (TBLL) and task-based language teaching (TBLT) include

http://tesolexpert.com/home/CommunicativeTasksAndTheLanguage
    Curriculum.pdf
https://eslspeaking.org/task-based-language-learning/
https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/a-task-based-approach
www.kansai-u.ac.jp/fl/publication/pdf_education/04/5rodellis.pdf

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Questions for Discussion

1. In your language teaching, do you make a distinction between exercises and tasks or pedagogic tasks and real-life tasks? Why? Why not?
2. How do you ensure that your students experience a range of tasks through your teaching and through interactions with you?
3. How might you modify one of the tasks you currently use to make it more complex and worthwhile for your students (see task characteristics and task implementation in this chapter)?
4. What are the issues involved in project-based curricula?

Note

1. Ellis (2003, pp. 4–5) offers an excellent summary of different definitions of *task* that have been proposed by researchers. For the purposes of this chapter, we will consider meaning-focused language tasks.

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Part VI

LEARNING-CENTERED CURRICULA

We have chosen to use the term "learning centered" for the three approaches in Part VI. Others have used this term differently. For example, Nunan and Lamb (2001) said that learner centered curricula were focused on learning, by which they meant on the *process* and *content* of learning. We have preferred to call these approaches learner centered (Part V). For us, "learning centered" refers to the commonality of the three approaches in this part—that they are all focused on *what* is learned. Others have referred to this approach as a focus on *product* (Nunan, 1988), rather than process, with which we agree.

The three approaches focus on what learners know and are able to do, that is, on the learner and the learning, rather than on the teacher and the teaching. Chapter 20 explains outcome-based curricula, a design advanced by Spady (1994). Chapter 21 examines competency-based curricula, where learning outcomes are expressed in terms of competencies. Chapter 22 explores standards-based curricula, where outcomes are expressed in global goals that can then be broken down into smaller "can do" statements. All these approaches are interested in *outcomes* and what learners can do. While many documents use competency, outcomes, and standards interchangeably, each has a rather different history and trajectory. Therefore, rather than trying to deal with them all together, we have chosen to provide individual chapters so that readers can see more clearly how they differ and are similar in implementation.

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OUTCOME-BASED EDUCATION

VIGNETTE

I am working with a group of English language teachers from a university in Thailand who are required by university management to revise all their courses to be outcome-based. The university itself has overarching outcomes for all graduates. All courses that students take need to align with these outcomes. The general descriptors of these overarching outcomes are "being knowledgeable, being ethical, proficient thinking, capability, a thirst for knowledge and a capacity to learn, leadership, public mindedness, and retention of Thai identity amidst globalization." The English language teachers are exploring how they can align and revise their content-based courses. These are courses they teach for other departments, such as business, law, architecture, and medicine. After I provide brief presentations about the nature of outcome-based curricula, I meet with groups of teachers who teach courses in each of the different subject areas. They bring with them their current syllabi to use as starting points. Each group focuses on one aspect of the capability outcomes, that is, communication skills, because this seems to fit their programs best. In fact, many complain that they are at a disadvantage because they are teaching language skills, so only this overarching outcome applies to their courses. I challenge them to think also about the other outcomes and how their courses address those attributes. One group that teaches business English recognizes that in teaching business oral presentations, they need to address aspects of proficient thinking, such as critical thinking and problem solving, when their students choose a topic for their

(continued)

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presentation, select specific content to argue their point, and organize their presentation with main ideas and supporting details. They also decide that their course also teaches skills in information technology and, therefore, they teach one of the attributes of capability identified by the university—information technology. Students demonstrate this skill by researching content online and using PowerPoint and other slide software for their presentations.

[Murray, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. How might these groups of teachers also include concepts related to leadership in their courses?
2. How might these groups of teachers include *being ethical* in their courses?
3. Do you agree with the list of outcomes that this university developed? What would you do differently? Why? Share your ideas with a colleague.

Introduction

Outcome-based education [OBE] means clearly focusing and organizing everything in an educational system around what is essential for all students to be able to do successfully at the end of their learning experiences. This means starting with a clear picture of what is important for students to be able to do, then organizing the curriculum, instruction, and assessment to make sure this learning ultimately happens.

(Spady, 1994, p. 1)

Although many other educators and scholars have contributed to OBE, Spady is often considered the world authority. The definition he provides above requires that in a particular educational context, the stakeholders know exactly "what is essential for all students to be able to do" (p. 12) and know how to embody that knowledge in curriculum design and how to design assessment to measure this

essential learner performance." OBE has been interpreted in three ways. The first focuses on student mastery, usually of traditional subject matter, where the teacher's role is to ensure that all students learn. This form of instruction is often called mastery learning. The second includes mastery learning but also includes some higher order generic skills, such as critical thinking, which was referred to in the vignette. The third view focuses on outcomes that are related directly to students' future life roles, such as being a productive worker or an active, responsible citizen. In this view, learners know what is expected of them and take some responsibility for their own learning. Furthermore, as Spady notes in the quotation at the beginning of this section, OBE is a system. The goals and values, therefore, permeate all aspects of the educational enterprise. Everything is driven by the outcomes, not by course credits. This third focus is what Spady calls transformational OBE, as opposed to traditional or transitional OBE; competency- and standards-based approaches can be considered either traditional or transitional OBE.

In this chapter, we will discuss only transformational OBE, in which educational outcomes reflect the complexities of life outside the classroom. Transformational OBE has its roots in the work of Tyler (1949) (see Chapters 1 and 2), and Bloom (1956) (see Chapter 10, Volume II), and it is the approach favored by Spady. Competency-based and standards-based approaches are discussed in Chapters 21 and 22. Spady (1994) relates transformational OBE to total quality management (see Chapter 8) used in the corporate world with its focus on "[e]stablishing within the organization the conditions that motivate and empower individuals to use the potential that is within them" (p. 41).

Task: Reflect

Think about your own language learning. Was the approach transformational? Did you have a clear understanding of what you were to do with that language? How did the assessments you took align with what you were required to do? How did both align to your life outside of school?

Defining Outcome

Outcome is used loosely by many educators and businesses for many different types of programs. Here, we will use Spady's conceptualization because this

chapter is explicitly about OBE as Spady and his colleagues have elaborated and implemented it over several decades. For OBE practitioners, outcome is "a culminating demonstration of learning" (Spady, 2008, p. 4), where demonstration means that learners actually perform the skill or competence, not just demonstrate knowledge about it. These OBE practitioners, therefore, focus on outcomes with action verbs such as describe, construct, or design, rather than non-demonstration verbs such as know, understand, or value. By *culminating* they meant "what [learners] could do as a result of all the learning experiences and practices they had engaged in" (Spady, 2008, p. 5). Therefore, the focus is on *whether* and *what* students learn, not on *how* or *when* they do.

Many competency-based models (see Chapter 21) focus on behavioral objectives that are discrete skills and tasks, such as "students will be able to read, interpret, and follow directions found on public signs." In contrast, Spady (1994) has developed a framework of complexity with six different types of demonstrations of learning from the simple to the complex:

- discrete content skills,
- structured task performances,
- higher-order competencies,
- complex unstructured task performances,
- complex role performances, and
- life-role functioning.

The higher-level performances are grounded in the contexts in which people operate as workers, parents, sons and daughters, citizens, and players, that is, the transformational aspect of OBE. While the Thai university referred to in the vignette includes outcomes such as "public mindedness" and "being ethical," the framework rubrics are not all described in demonstrable terms; instead, most refer to "having." Higher-level performances require integrating, synthesizing, and applying knowledge and skills so that learners are able to perform.

Major Characteristics of OBE

Although there may be a variety of implementation options, all successful transformational OBE is supported by four underlying principles:

- having a clear focus on learning results, sharing, and modeling that focus, and aligning all instruction and assessment to those results;
- designing curriculum (in all its aspects) back from the desired results;

- having high expectations of all learners, while recognizing not all learn in the same time or in the same way; and
- employing a range of opportunities for learners to learn and demonstrate successful learning.

These principles need to be applied consistently, systematically, creatively, and simultaneously.

In addition, OBE has a very specific definition of what "based" means. For Spady, *based* in this context means five closely related ideas: (1) defined by, (2) designed from, (3) built on, (4) focused on, and (5) organized around. This combination of five ideas implies something much deeper and more impactful than simply being "oriented toward" and/or "related to" something (Spady, 2008, p. 7). In other words, in OBE all aspects of the curriculum are driven by the desired outcomes.

OBE has been primarily implemented in general education (not English language education) in North America and elsewhere, with very specific approaches to defining and assessing outcomes with the goal of creating comprehensive reform. Instructional and learning activity is governed by progress towards specific objectives. Outcomes are specified in the form of learner behaviors, skills, attitudes, and abilities. Instruction is then designed so that teachers can coach learners to a mastery level of each outcome. Through this coaching, learners take an active role in their own learning and are assessed against these outcomes (see Marzanoat et al., 1993 for a model for assessing student outcomes). In transformational OBE, continuous, formative assessment during the learning process "aims to inform the learning experience of each learner" (Van der Horst & McDonald, 2001). Such assessment needs to determine what is to be assessed, how the learner is to carry out the demonstration, and in what setting or circumstance. Each of these criteria has to be considered in designing the assessments. Within the Spady model, the outcomes need to be transformative to help learners become productive citizens, problem solvers, and autonomous learners. Such outcomes, he believes, require a systemic restructuring of education, of curriculum, courses, and programs.

The generic types of role performances used by a number of K–12 school districts in the United States and Canada include learners (who are self-directed, continuously developing, lifelong, and collaborative) and thinkers (who are capable of perceptive, constructive, and complex thinking). He sets out a framework for the roles that can be used as a basis for developing outcomes:

- listeners and communicators,
- teachers and mentors,

- supporters and contributors,
- team members and partners,
- leaders and organizers,
- implementers and performers,
- problem finders and solvers,
- planners and designers, and
- creators and producers.

Many of the roles in Spady's framework are ones that industry and governments have identified as essential, generic, job-readiness, or soft skills, as opposed to technical or hard skills. For example, the Canadian Office of Literacy and Essential Skills identifies reading, document use, writing, numeracy, oral communication, thinking, digital technology (originally, computer use), working with others, and continuous learning as essential for the workplace (Department of Employment and Social Development Canada, 2015). Australia has developed seven general capabilities: literacy, numeracy, information and communication technology capability, critical and creative thinking, personal and social capability, ethical understanding, and intercultural understanding. These capabilities are addressed in the K–12 curriculum to "equip[ping] young Australians to live and work successfully in the twenty-first century" (Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority, n.d.; see also Chapter 21 on competency-based approaches to curriculum design for a more detailed discussion of workplace skills and their role in English language instruction). The Thai example in the vignette includes role qualities, such as leadership, creative thinking, problem solving skills, and communication skills. Thus, we can see the connection between OBE's goal of developing productive citizens and workplace skills defined by industry, although OBE proponents do not envisage education as servicing industry, but as empowering learners to have fulfilling lives. We next provide an example of how these principles and characteristics are realized in curricula, including English language education.

Implementation

The most system-wide reform based on Spady's approach was attempted in South Africa. South Africa is a diverse country in terms of culture, language, religion, and ethnicity. There are 11 official languages, as well as braille and South African Sign Language. Each official language can be learned in schools as a home language, a first additional language, or a second additional language. OBE was first introduced in 1998 and implemented with a Revised National Curriculum in

2002. Inspired by the constitution, the Revised National Curriculum Statement identifies 12 critical and developmental outcomes across all education, outcomes that are to be embedded in every curriculum.

The South African Department of Education states that the critical outcomes envisage learners who will be able to:

- identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;
- work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organization, and community;
- organize and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;
- collect, analyze, organize, and critically evaluate information;
- communicate effectively using visual, symbolic, and/or language skills in various modes;
- use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others; and
- demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognizing that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation.

The developmental outcomes envisage learners who are also able to:

- reflect on and explore a variety of strategies to learn more effectively;
- participate as responsible citizens in the life of local, national, and global communities;
- be culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts;
- explore education and career opportunities; and
- develop entrepreneurial opportunities.

(Department of Education, n.d., p. 11)

For English as an additional language (EAL), the South African Department of Education's (2002) curriculum describes five learning outcomes:

- Listening: The learner will be able to listen for information and enjoyment, and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations.
- Speaking: The learner will be able to communicate confidently and effectively in spoken language in a wide range of situations.
- Reading and viewing: The learner will be able to read and view

for information and enjoyment, and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural, and emotional values in texts.

- Writing: The learner will be able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes.
- Language structure and use: The learner will know and be able to use sounds, words, and grammar of the language to create and interpret texts.

(pp. 10–11)

A closer look at the application of the 12 critical and developmental outcomes in EAL can illustrate how the overarching outcomes become instantiated in curriculum. In addition to defining the learning outcomes, the curriculum also delineates assessment standards and text types that can be used in instruction or assessment. For example, the learning outcome for Grade 4 reading and viewing, along with its assessment standards that determine whether the learner has mastered the outcome, are presented in Table 20.1.

While the learning outcome remains constant across grade levels, the assessment standards change at different grade levels, using more and more complex tasks and texts. For example, a sample of the Assessment Standards for Grade 9 is as follows:

- reads different kinds of stories (e.g., adventure stories) and factual texts;

Table 20.1 Sample South African EAL Learning Outcome Grade 4

Learning Outcome Grade 4	*Assessment Standards*
READING AND VIEWING	Reads short texts with visual support:
The learner will be able to read and view for information and enjoyment, and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in texts.	• words and sentences with pictures • an advertisement • picture stories with simple captions • comic strips • signs in the environment (e.g., traffic signs) Reads, listens to, and/or sings a simple, popular song Uses reference books for language learning: • bilingual/monolingual dictionary • grammar reference book • multimedia courses, where available

Adapted from Department of Education. (2002). Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 Languages—English Second Additional Language (p. 18).

- reads some short authentic texts (e.g., a valentine card);
- critically views an advertisement; and
- demonstrates a reading vocabulary of about 3,000 words.

(Department of Education, 2002, p. 39)

In addition to establishing assessment standards for each learning outcome for each grade level, the curriculum details assessment principles, continuous assessment (see, for example, Puhl, 1997), and managing and recording assessment results. These details provide teachers with guidelines for instruction and assessment, creating standards for instruction across the cultural, religious, and ethnic diversity of the nation.

Spady (2008) later expressed disappointment in the development and implementation of OBE in South Africa on the grounds that the critical outcomes were not expressed in outcome language and were inconsistent across the 12 outcomes. He further claimed that they were not being used as the drivers of curriculum, instruction, and assessment, nor were they transformational. In fact, Spady's framework for OBE education includes standards for implementation, which include not only instruction and assessment, but also a collectively agreed upon mission statement, a plan for ongoing program improvement (see Chapter 8), and the need for the outcomes to be publicly derived.

Task: Explore

Examine the reading and viewing outcome with its attendant assessment standards and determine to what extent this standard reflects (or not) the overarching critical and developmental outcomes. What do you think might account for any differences? To what extent do they reflect Spady's approach to OBE learning?

OBE Curriculum Design

From Spady's own writings and the curriculum developed in South Africa, we can see to what extent OBE incorporates the features of curriculum design described in Chapter 6. Most emphasis is placed on defining outcomes and on assessing them. While Spady does note that the mission needs to be collectively agreed and outcomes publicly derived, he does not specify the need for either

stakeholder or learner needs analyses. They are perhaps implied because OBE outcomes should be transformative so that learners become productive citizens, problem solvers, and autonomous learners. This implies that institutions or governments wanting to base their curriculum on OBE design would need to determine the characteristics of productive citizens, problem solvers, and autonomous learners in their particular context. In the case of South Africa, the outcomes are inspired by the constitution, whose preamble states that the aims of the constitution are to:

- heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice, and fundamental human rights;
- improve the quality of life for all citizens and free the potential of each person;
- lay the foundations for a free and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by the law; and
- build a united and democratic South Africa able to take its rightful place as a sovereign state in the family of nations.

(Department of Education, 2002, p. 1)

From this document, we can see the genesis for some of the critical and developmental outcomes and how those outcomes in turn are realized as specific outcomes for English as an additional language. In the case of the Thai university in the vignette, the overarching outcomes were derived from the university's 2008 decision to have all curricula outcome-based in order to produce "valuable global citizens." This in turn was motivated by the Office of the Higher Education Commission's Thailand Qualifications Framework for Higher Education, which instituted a national quality assurance system across higher education institutions.

Curricula need to identify the content and its sequencing, and both language content and contexts for that language. The South African EAL curriculum includes a language structure and use outcome, but it is very general. However, on examining the range across grade levels, it is easier to see the sequencing. What the curriculum does delineate is recommended text types (see Chapter 12 for text-based curricula). For example, for Grade 4 oral, written, and multimedia texts are suggested, such as short, simple instructions; simple songs; signs in the environment; simple forms; and short extracts from television programs.

Although in principle any methodology could be used, OBE supports integrated approaches. So, for example, although the outcomes are presented separately, the South African curriculum states that they are expected to be integrated when taught and assessed. OBE also supports a constructivist approach, that is, OBE is learner centered and collaborative, with learners actively interpreting, processing, and creating knowledge (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

While the context for the language content is not mandated in OBE, the South African curriculum suggests that teachers might use themes of interest (see Chapter 15) to the specific learners in their setting, whether rural or urban, that unite the country. In the case of the Thai university in the vignette, the language courses were all content-based, and so the outcomes needed to include the specific content areas, such as business or law.

Issues in an OBE Curriculum

Because OBE focuses on *whether* and *what* students learn, its implementation is in conflict with the way schools have historically been organized, especially K–12 schools. Most school systems are regulated, with calendars that determine "[s]chool years, curriculum structures, courses, Carnegie units of credit,[1] promotion processes, funding, and teacher contracts" (Spady, 1994, p. 153), all of which mitigate against a curriculum that is focused only on *what* is learned, not *how*, or *when*. Now in the 21st century, with both globalization and technology impacting on every aspect of our lives, including education, OBE proponents argue that the industrial age model of education is even less effective than it was in the 1990s. As Spady and Schwahn (2010) note:

> Anyone can learn anything from anywhere at "anytime" and in "anyway" from world-wide experts using the most transformational technologies and resources available to enhance their personal interests and life fulfilment.
>
> (p. 2)

Therefore, in the 21st century, learning is the constant, and time is the variable, in contrast to the industrial age paradigm, where time is the constant and learning the variable.

As we indicated in Chapters 1 and 2, how the curriculum is resourced and implemented, and what the effect is on learning can be quite different from the intended curriculum. These differences result from decisions made by

institutions, teachers, and learners. It is for this reason that Spady and other OBE proponents argue for a whole institutional commitment to change.

OBE has been heavily criticized as promoting personal values and beliefs, rather than academic excellence. Spady specifically notes that OBE curricula need to separate personal and religious values from civic values, such as honesty and fairness, which make for stable communities. He further notes that OBE requires that outcomes be demonstrable and measurable, which is not possible with personal values, such as positive self-concept. The South African implementation discusses values, but it considers values in the context of language learners needing to be able to analyze and contest the values in texts produced by others and to know how they express their own values in the texts they produce. Similarly, the Thai university includes public mindedness and retention of Thai identity amid globalization. Spady and Marshall (1991) emphasized that OBE shifts the focus of educational activity from teaching to learning; skills to thinking; content to process; and teacher instruction to student demonstration of learning. However, Glatthorn (1993) claimed that the ultimate effectiveness of OBE in school reform has not been clearly established through research.

Conclusion

OBE focuses on learning and how learners can demonstrate their learning. Furthermore, that learning should contribute to the development of civic life by developing learners who can fulfill the roles of community life, such as being team members or problem solvers, and contribute to the empowerment of the individual. Because OBE assumes that all learners should achieve to their capacity, learners need to have the time to achieve, as well as be provided with the educational experiences that help them to achieve.

Task: Expand

Marzano, R. J., Pickering, D., and McTighe, J. (1993). *Assessing student outcomes: Performance assessment using the dimensions of learning model*. ASCD.

This volume provides a framework for outcomes-based assessment, as well as tools and rubrics for using the framework in assessment. It is available online at https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED461665.pdf

Schlebusch, G., & Thobedi, M. (2004). Outcomes-based education in the English second language classroom in South Africa. *The Qualitative Report*, *9*(1), 35–38.

This article provides an evaluative study of the implementation of OBE learning of English in Black townships. It is also available online: https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol9/iss1/3

Spady, W (1994). *Outcome-based education: Critical issues and answers*. American Association of School Administrators.

In this volume, Spady sets out a detailed framework for OBE and also addresses the criticisms that have been leveled against OBE.

Questions for Discussion

1. Explain the relationship between outcomes and assessment.
2. Think of English language learning examples for the six different types of demonstrations of learning. Share with a colleague and compare your examples.
3. How could a teacher build Spady's framework of roles into her own classroom, even if she is not using OBE?
4. Why do you think South Africa chose a "language structure and use" outcome as well as outcomes for speaking, listening, reading, and writing?
5. Why do you think South Africa chose "reading and viewing" not just "reading" as an outcome?
6. Why do you think some people are critical about including personal values in curricula? Is this the case in your context?

Note

1. U.S. schools use the Carnegie unit to measure educational attainment. It is time-based, being 120 hours of contact time with an instructor over a year for secondary students. Universities translate this into student hours or credit hours, which is 12 hours of contact.

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A COMPETENCY-BASED CURRICULUM

VIGNETTE

I am observing a low intermediate adult ESL evening class in California. The class members have mixed ethnic and educational backgrounds, but the majority is Hispanic. Kate is teaching a unit on preparing learners for work, both the language they will need and the behaviors expected of them in the United States. In the previous lesson, they had learned how to shake hands, make eye contact, and greet others at an interview. In tonight's lesson, she is teaching them personal and job qualifications. Kate writes two headings on the chalkboard: personal qualities and job qualities. She asks learners what qualities would impress a potential employer, what would make the employer want to hire them. As learners volunteer different answers, such as "good worker," "many experiences," "presentation," "diplomat," and "respect," she asks them whether each is a personal or job qualification. If the learners choose the correct categorization, she writes it on the chalkboard under the appropriate heading. If they choose the incorrect categorization, she queries them about the nature of the category until they correctly identify whether it is job or personal. She also prompts them for ideas they have not themselves volunteered, such as "loyalty" and "dependability," explaining the meaning and providing examples to illustrate the meaning. The adult program uses a competency-based curriculum, based on learner needs and the CASAS Life Skills Test for its assessment. The competencies related to tonight's lesson are: Follow procedures for applying for a job, including interpreting and completing

(continued)

job applications, résumés, and letters of application, and identify appropriate behavior and attitudes for getting a job.

[Murray, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. How does this lesson excerpt help learners achieve the CASAS competencies?
2. What else do you think this teacher might do during the rest of the lesson?
3. What activities might the teacher use to help learners practice the new concepts?
4. Why do you think CASAS includes non-language competencies, such as appropriate behavior and attitudes? Do you think the inclusion of non-language competencies is appropriate? Why? Why not? How can those competencies be measured?

Introduction

Competency-based education (CBE) has a long history outside of language education, especially in training programs. One impetus for the development of CBE was to divide skills or qualifications into their component parts such that learners could achieve credit for learning parts of an overall skill, as opposed to having to meet all requirements for a particular qualification, such as for a trade. Additionally, within training programs was the recognition that some competencies were applicable to many different jobs and, therefore, allowed for joint training. For example, in the Australian Vocational Education and Training (VET) system, a unit on applying basic communication skills (myskills, 2021) can be used in the following training packages: sport, fitness and recreation industry, racing, public safety, information and communications technology, pulp and paper manufacturing, visual arts, crafts and design, business services, defense, and automotive.

The application of CBE to English language teaching began in the United States in the 1970s. These competency-based language teaching (CBLT) programs were developed to teach recent immigrants and refugees who had an immediate need to be able to use English in their daily lives. They were

therefore sometimes labeled "survival skills" or "life skills." Since then, CBE has been adopted in many countries with different goals, while still remaining a major focus in adult English language teaching (ELT) in immigrant receiving countries and in workplace ELT.

Defining Competency

Competency or competence has different meanings in the field of ELT. It has been contrasted with proficiency in Chomsky's (1957) model of language. In this model, competence refers to the underlying knowledge about the language that a native speaker has. *Competency*, on the other hand, is language in use. Hymes (1971) formulated "communicative competence," placing language in its socio-cultural context, in contrast to Chomsky's individual, cognitive model. For Hymes, communicative competence includes not only the rules of speaking but also the sociocultural norms and values that guide interaction and cultural behavior within specific speech communities. Other applied linguists have expanded on this notion. "In our view, *intercultural competence* is the ability to develop a specific knowledge base, a set of skills, and attitudes that are effective and appropriate in intercultural interactions" (Murray & Christison, 2021). These intercultural interactions take place in *intercultural space*, the environment in which people with different lingua-cultural backgrounds try to navigate their world (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2000; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). Communicative competence as a concept and goal in language teaching was taken up by advocates of communicative language teaching (CLT). In CBLT, however, "*competency* is an instructional objective described in task-based terms, such as "Students will be able to . . . that includes a verb describing a demonstrable skill, such as *answer, interpret*, or *request*" (Peyton & Crandall, 1995).

Like outcome-based approaches (see Chapter 20), the focus is on *whether* and *what* students learn, not on *how* or *when* they do it. Critical to this definition is the necessity for objectives/competencies to be demonstrable so that they can be measured. To help you understand how to develop measurable objectives, we have created Task: Explore for you to investigate the issue.

Task: Explore

Use the following table to examine the list of verbs used in ELT objectives. Categorize them into demonstrable and not demonstrable. How could each be measured?

Objective Students Will Be Able To:	Demonstrable or Not?	Measurement Tool
Understand word stress		
Write grammatical sentences		
Develop skill in using and evaluating evidence		
Use comparative adjectives and conjunctions correctly		
Be familiar with various styles of writing such as description, narration, and argumentation		
Use learning strategies in academic contexts ranging from science, mathematics, and social studies, to literature and composition		
Use a variety of lexical phrases to participate in a discussion		
Become aware of the language of giving thanks		
Take part in an opinion gap activity		
Analyze essay prompts		

Major Characteristics of CBLT

Although there may be a variety of implementation options, all successful CBLT programs include the following (Weddel, 2006):

- assessment of learner needs,
- selection of competencies based on those needs,
- instruction targeted to those competencies, and
- evaluation of learner performance in those competencies.

After conducting a broad literature review of CBLT, Auerbach (1986) included an expansion of these four steps in her critique, as follows:

1. A focus on successful functioning in society: The goal is to enable students to become autonomous individuals capable of coping with the demands of the world.
2. A focus on life skills: Rather than teaching language in isolation CBLT in adult ESL teaches language as a function of communication about concrete tasks.
3. Task or performance centered orientation: What counts is what students can do as a result of instruction.
4. Modularized instruction: "Objectives are broken down into manageable and immediately meaningful chunks" (quoted from Center for Applied Linguistics, 1983, p. 2; cited in Auerbach, 1986).
5. Outcomes which are made explicit a priori: Outcomes are public knowledge, known, and agreed upon by both learner and teacher.
6. Continuous and ongoing assessment: Students are pre-tested to determine what skills they lack and post-tested after instruction in those skills.
7. Demonstrated mastery of performance objectives: Rather than the traditional paper-and-pencil tests, assessment is based on the ability to demonstrate pre-specified behavior.
8. Individualized, student centered instruction: In content, level, and pace, objectives are defined in terms of individual needs (adapted from pp. 414–415).

The teacher in the vignette was implementing CBLT as described by Weddel (2006) and Auerbach (1986). She was targeting specific competencies that focus on essential life skills. She made explicit to learners what they were learning and why. Next, we provide examples of how these principles and characteristics are realized in actual curricula.

Examples of Implementation

CBLT approaches have largely been used in the adult ESL sector although many countries have used such an approach in other sectors. For example, the Arlington, Virginia, public schools introduced High Intensity Language Training (HILT) as a competency-based program to teach English and academic content to limited-English-proficiency students (Chamot, 1985). In a study of secondary general education in Cameroon, Nkwetisama (2012) found that the intended curriculum (see Chapter 1) was using a communicative approach and was learner centered, but teachers and learners were not making full use of CLT methodologies so that learners could use English in communicative

situations (that is, the implemented curriculum differed from the intended curriculum). Therefore, he proposed a competency-based approach because CBLT "seeks to bridge the wall between school or the classroom and everyday real life" (p. 519). To help teachers implement such an approach, he lays out the content and language components for different competencies in the curriculum, such as "describing a job." Riyandari (2004), in contrast, details the difficulties of implementing such a CBLT approach in Indonesian universities, where the goal of the introduction of CBLT across sectors in Indonesia was to prepare students to communicate in English in the job market. However, CBLT encourages autonomy of learners, which is culturally inappropriate for many Indonesians. In addition, teachers are not knowledgeable about the basic characteristics and procedures of the approach, classes are too large to have dynamic interactions, and teachers have poor mastery of English (Marcellino, 2008). These challenges mitigate against learners achieving the communicative objectives in the curriculum. We now provide detailed examples of implementation of CBLT in the United States, Australia, and Canada.

Adult ESL Education in the United States

As indicated in the vignette, CASAS is a competency-based assessment model. It grew out of California's concern in the 1970s with the variety of instructional models used in adult education that had no overarching rationale. CASAS was developed by the California Department of Education and a consortium of local adult education agencies in order to provide a consistent approach to adult ESL. Since then, it has been adopted by most U.S. states, largely because, initially, refugees had to be enrolled in a CBLT program for the institution to receive federal funding and CASAS was the only adult assessment system of its kind to be approved and validated by the U.S. Department of Education in the area of adult literacy. CASAS has adapted to the different federal reporting requirements, such that currently the CASAS assessment and reporting system meets the accountability requirements of the U.S. Department of Labor's Workforce Investment Opportunities Act of 2017. As well as being used in all U.S. states, it is used in Singapore and other countries outside the United States. CASAS focuses on employment and life skills for adults and youth, using specific, measurable competency statements. The competencies cover a range of different topic areas:

- basic communication,
- community resources,

- consumer economics,
- health,
- employment,
- government and law math,
- learning and thinking skills, and
- independent living.

<div align="right">(CASAS, 2020)</div>

For each content area, specific components have been identified. For example, health includes "understand basic principles of health maintenance" and "understand forms related to heath care." Competencies related to understanding principles of health maintenance include the following:

- interpret information about nutrition, including food labels;
- identify a healthy diet;
- identify practices that promote dental health; and
- identify how to handle, prepare, and store food safely.

<div align="right">(CASAS, 2008)</div>

English language teaching institutions using CASAS choose among the competencies based on their learners' needs and current language proficiency. They may also make use of the ESL Model Standards developed in California (see Chapter 22 for detailed descriptions of these standards). These standards are based on developmental stages in second language acquisition and the nature of communicative competence. Taken together with the CASAS life skills competencies, they provide a framework for developing individual curricula in adult English language teaching. The CASAS assessment and reporting system meets the accountability requirements of the U.S. Department of Labor's Workforce Investment Opportunities Act of 2017, and the assessments align with the English language proficiency standards for adult education (see Chapter 22 for details on these standards).

Adult Migrant English Program in Australia

A competency-based model was also developed in Australia's Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP), in response to a 1985 review of the program (see Committee of Review of the AMEP, 1986) that showed that the negotiated curriculum that was being used was placing burdens on teachers as curriculum

developers and not providing continuity and progression for learners (see Chapter 17 on a negotiated curriculum). Additionally, funding bureaucrats wanted more accountability and had developed a three-category (i.e., reach, retention, and results) evaluation of institutions that were providing the AMEP program. The curriculum developers layered a competency model over a text-based model (see Chapter 12 for more details of the AMEP's text-based model). This choice was a pragmatic one because the curriculum was accredited within Australia's Vocational Education and Training system, which was a system that adopted competency-based training models. Feez and Joyce (1995), in discussing the competency-based model they developed, indicated the following:

> an acknowledgement by NSW AMES[1] of the reality of competency-based training did not mean a lack of awareness of its limitations. However, in order to influence the training agenda providers had to be part of that agenda and could not merely criticise it from a safe distance as has been the privileged position of some academic commentators.
>
> (p. 27)

Chapter 12 provides examples of AMEP competencies, along with their relevant assessment criteria, conditions of assessment, and sample tasks.

Canadian Language Benchmarks Assessment

Canada also developed a CBLT model for teaching adult immigrants and refugees. Canada's Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada (LINC) Program provides free basic language instruction in English and French. The curriculum is based on the Canadian Language Benchmarks Assessment (CLBA) (Centre for Canadian Language Benchmarks, 2012), which indicates the amount of training required to achieve specific LINC Program outcome competency levels. The CLBA has 12 benchmarks or reference points along a continuum from basic to advanced. Benchmarks are described in "can do" statements such as:

- can write short letters and notes on a familiar topic,
- can identify signals in speech for collaboration, turn-taking, and interruptions,
- can complete extended application forms, and
- can write down everyday phone messages.

The benchmarks, as well as being used for the assessment of learners, are used as the basis for curriculum design.

Workplace ELT

Another ELT area in which CBLT has been used extensively is workplace programs (see Chapter 9, Volume II for an extensive discussion, as well as specific examples of workplace programs). Grognet (1996), for example, describes the process for planning, implementing, and evaluating workplace programs. While she does not explicitly refer to CBLT, the process she describes is the same as that delineated earlier in this chapter. In her description of needs analysis, Grognet includes task analysis and the observation of workers on the job, as well as how learners interact in other work functions, such as participation in union meetings. She notes that needs and instruction do not have to be restricted to on-the-job skills, but can include skills for positions that learners may hope to have in the future. She argues that her model is learner centered and that learner centered processes (see Chapter 17, for example) are consistent with workplace ESL.

To help you become more familiar with CBLT, we have provided a task (Task: Explore). This task has a selection of competencies taken from a variety of different CBLT curricula. We invite you to explore where these competencies might be relevant and what instructional tools you would use to help learners achieve mastery.

Task: Explore

The following competencies are taken from a variety of different CBLT curricula. For each competency, decide for which type of program it would be suitable and describe the methods and materials you would use to help learners achieve the competency.

Competency *Learners Will Be Able To*	Types of Programs *That Are Suitable*	Methods and Materials for *Mastering This Competency*
Communicate simple personal information on the telephone		
Request time off at work		
Clarify or request clarification		
Read a procedural text		
Take notes during an academic lecture		

(continued)

(continued)

Competency Learners Will Be Able To	Types of Programs That Are Suitable	Methods and Materials for Mastering This Competency
Distinguish between fact and opinion in a newspaper article		
Point to letters corresponding to the sounds made by the teacher		
Identify the sequence of a simple narrative passage		
Identify and paraphrase pertinent information		
Identify a problem and its probable causes		
Interpret data in a graph		
Negotiate a spoken transaction for goods/services		
Use and respond to basic courtesy formulas (greetings, welcoming, introductions, etc.)		

Competency-based Curriculum Design

The rationale for CBLT is that jobs, tasks, or activities require certain competencies, "each of which is composed of a number of elements of competency" (Docking, 1994, p. 11). Therefore, any task can be divided into its component competencies, such that the accretion of the parts leads to competency as a whole. The curriculum, therefore, consists of these elements, often expressed as competencies themselves. While superficially these elements may seem to be objectively derived and discrete items, Docking (1994) identifies the factors that influence educators during the process of determining competencies as follows:

1. Philosophical: our beliefs about education and training and about work.
2. Sociological: our concerns about equity and mobility.
3. Economical: concerns about employability and cost/benefit.
4. Political: concerns about award[2] conditions and national productivity.
5. Pragmatic: what we believe can be reasonably taught and learned.

6. Historical: what has always been taught.
7. Occupational: what makes us feel unique and useful.
8. Psychological: what we believe can be meaningfully defined.
9. Institutional: what we are required to include for professional recognition.
10. Assessable: what we believe can be assessed and certified.

(pp. 11–12)

All these beliefs impact the curriculum design so that any competency-based curriculum is responsive to individual contexts and, therefore, not highly portable. Contexts for language content in ELT competency-based curricula often seem self-evident because the competencies are related to specific life skills areas, such as in CASAS or the CSWE. However, the principle behind CBLT is that specific competencies are transferable. The CSWE does not specify the context for achieving a particular competency, often stating "in a relevant context" or "in a range of contexts."

Although in principle any methodology could be used, most competency-based systems have supported CLT because it "is based on a functional and interactional perspective on the nature of language. It seeks to teach language in relation to the social contexts in which it is used" (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 154).

Issues in CBLT Curriculum

As we indicated in Chapters 1 and 2, how the curriculum is resourced, implemented, and its effect on learning can be quite different from the intended curriculum. These differences result from decisions made by institutions, teachers, and learners.

Competency-based curricula have been heavily criticized as "socializing immigrants for specific roles in the existing economic order" (Auerbach, 1986, p. 411) or, more broadly, as subscribing to economic rationalism. Auerbach claims that this focus may prevent teachers from using learner-centeredness in their classrooms. This claim is related not only to survival curricula, but also to vocationally-oriented ones, where "there would be pressure to adopt a narrow focus of competence, focusing on a restricted repertoire of behaviour based on tight specifications of standards" in contrast to methodologies "that develop the capacity to deal with the new, the innovative, and the unexpected" (Bottomley et al., 1994, p. 22). CBLT is not the only curriculum model to have been accused of being rationalist, instrumentalist, reductionist,

and product-driven. Outcome-based and standards-based approaches, because they are focused on outcomes, have also had to address such charges. Even task-based language teaching has been seen as normative in some contexts (see Gong & Holliday, 2013 for a discussion of TBLT textbooks in China).

While Auerbach, among others, has recognized the possible restrictions of CBLT, others such as Docking (1994) have identified its potential as:

- a means of promoting and rewarding excellence, by writing competencies that demand sophisticated and high-level performance;
- a means of justifying certification decisions, not on a normative basis but based on *real* standards;
- a means of ensuring consistency in standards between lecturers, across time, across campuses and between internal and external modes of delivery;
- a means of raising standards to meet competency profile requirements and *not just pass marks*;[3]
- a means of ensuring the credibility and continued resourcing of education and training providers;
- a means of avoiding cultural bias and facilitating equity;
- a means of meeting the need for flexibility and diversity *and* consistent comparable standards;
- a means of interfacing and integrating different forms of learning including different education and training sectors, and different levels of education,
- a means of communicating curriculum expectations to students and colleagues and providing a shared language of outcomes for education, training, and work; and
- a means of empowering learners to take more responsibility for their learning, to increase their options, and to take advantage of opportunities for learning as they arise.

(pp. 15–16)

CBLT proponents have also been accused of being behaviorist, largely because CBLT divides tasks into discrete components and assumes that the whole is comprised of its components alone. In fact, as van Ek (1976) noted when talking about the Council of Europe's Threshold Level, which was a precursor to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for Languages:

> [I]t should perhaps be pointed out right at the beginning . . . that a behavioral specification of an objective by no means implies the need for a behavioristic teaching method. The way in which the objective has been defined does not impose any particular methodology—behavioristic or otherwise on the teacher.
>
> (p. 5)

This is borne out by the implementations discussed earlier, where we have seen that CBLT has largely adopted more communicative methodologies rather than ones based on structuralism. Indeed, Auerbach (1986) herself noted that CBLT is learner centered.

Assessment is a crucial part of a curriculum and is built into CBLT; however, *what* is assessed and how it is done is critical in CBLT. CBLT has been criticized because for learners to achieve a competency requires that they achieve all its aspects in order to be considered competent. Full completion of the task is necessary in many occupational training situations; however, the assessment of language competency creates a quite different situation. A trainee plumber who cannot correctly replace the washer on your tap cannot be considered to be competent in this skill. However, when the focus is on language in the CSWE, for example, such as "can write a recount," learners must be able to correctly use the schematic structure, as well as the specific syntactic features of a recount. If the learner fails to use temporal connectives, then they have not achieved the competency. There is no partial completion. However, in life contexts outside of the classroom, partial completion of texts can still communicate the primary message. The reason is because interactants primarily focus on meaning, not on discrete linguistic items.

Conclusion

CBLT focuses on what is learned and how learners can demonstrate their learning. While it has mostly been adopted in adult education for immigrants and refugees, it has also been adopted in different countries and for different sectors of society. While there are potential disadvantages to CBLT, these can be overcome with careful planning and by providing learners with opportunities to explore both language and different contexts for its use. Competencies do not have to be restricted to ones that are instrumentalist but can include competencies of higher complexity, such as in Spady's (1994) model (see Chapter 20).

Task: Expand

www.cal.org/caela/

This is the archived website for the Center for Adult English Language Acquisition in the United States. It hosts numerous digests and other documents that outline CBLT approaches for adult ESL.

www.casas.org

This is the website for CASAS, used in adult ESL in the United States. It provides lists of competencies in a variety of areas.

www.myskill.gov.au

This is the website for Australia's competency-based training programs. Although it is not specific to ELT, it provides excellent examples of competencies across a range of communication skills.

Pettis, J. C. (2007). Implementation of the Canadian Language Benchmarks in Manitoba: 1996 to the present. *Prospect*, *22*(3), 32–43. Also available at: www.ameprc.mq.edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0003/239232/ Implementation_of_the_Canadian.pdf

This article provides an excellent case study of using a competency-based assessment system for curriculum development.

Questions for Discussion

1. Explain the relationship between competencies and assessment.
2. Think of English language learning examples for the health competencies in CASAS. Share with a colleague and compare your examples.
3. How could a teacher build Spady's more complex competencies into a CBLT curriculum?
4. Why do you think some people are critical about competencies restricting learners, rather than empowering them?
5. What is your opinion of Docking's list of the influences on determining competencies? How can curriculum designers ensure that no one influence dominates or controls decisions?

Notes

1. NSW AMES (New South Wales Adult Migrant Education Service) was the provider that developed the CSWE curriculum framework for use across the AMEP nationally.
2. In Australia "award" refers to the legal documents that outline the minimum pay rates and conditions of employment.
3. In Australia, "marks" refers to points assigned for a performance/assignment.

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22

A STANDARDS-BASED CURRICULUM

VIGNETTE

TESOL International Association colleagues and I are on a task force to develop Pre-K–12 standards for English language learners in the United States. Through an iterative process involving members and affiliates, the task force has decided on three overarching goals: Goal 1: to use English to communicate in social settings; Goal 2: to use English to achieve academically in all content areas; and Goal 3: to use English in socially and culturally appropriate ways. Each goal has three standards, each of which has descriptors that elaborate student behaviors that meet the standard and sample progress indicators that teachers can use to determine whether learners have reached the standard. The progress indicators are assessable and observable. The standards specify what learners should know and be able to do and have been developed in grade level clusters. For each standard for each grade level cluster, we are developing vignettes to help teachers understand the standards by presenting classroom-based instructional sequences. We have solicited real-life vignettes from teachers around the country. At this particular meeting, we are working on choosing a vignette for Grades 9–12 for Goal 1, Standard 3: Students will use learning strategies to extend their communicative competence. The vignette we are evaluating is for an intermediate class of learners who have completed driver's education and are about to do the practical driver training. The teacher has invited a police officer to talk to students about road safety, peer pressure, and so on. He plays them a video of teenage car accidents, asking

(continued)

(continued)

them to look for the causes of the accidents. One student did not understand much of the officer's lecture, including "excess speed." However, in the video, he notices the camera move from a speed limit sign saying 65 to the speedometer reading 80. He asks his friend in their home language whether he thinks excess means "too much." The teacher and the officer ask what "excess speed" means and the student is able to answer correctly. The officer asks how he figured it out. The student explains and the teacher compliments him on his use of learning strategies.

[Murray, research notes]

Task: Reflect

1. How does this lesson excerpt demonstrate that this learner's performance met Goal 1, Standard 3? Do you think this one sample is sufficient evidence to determine that the student has achieved the standard?
2. What else do you think this teacher might do during the rest of the lesson to build on learning strategy use?
3. What activities might the teacher use to help other learners use these strategies?
4. Why do you think the TESOL standards include learner strategies?

Introduction

Standards-based education, like outcome-based and competency-based, is focused on what learners *know* and are *able to do*. The standards movement in education began in the United States, in response to the publication of *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Because of concern over the United States' dismal education outcomes, various groups began seeking educational reform. In 1988, the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics began developing standards for mathematics. In 1989, the National Governors' Association education summit agreed on six goals for education to be reached by 2000, leading to federal money to support the development of standards in mathematics and other subject areas. In 1994, Congress passed Goals 2000: Educate America Act. Starting in 1991, TESOL International

Association responded to these initiatives by investigating standards for ESL learners (not funded by the federal government). The writing and field reviewing of the TESOL Pre-K–12 standards were conducted over a three-year period, mostly by volunteers, resulting in the 1997 publication of the standards (TESOL, 1997). This document was supported by documents on assessment (TESOL, 1998, 2001), implementation (Agor, 2000; Irujo, 2000; Samway, 2000; Smallwood, 2000), and teacher education (Snow, 2000).

The standards movement was not confined to the United States. In more or less the same time frame, Australia was developing its framework of stages (McKay & Scarino, 1991) and Alberta, Canada, was developing its learner outcomes (Alberta Education, 1997). Since then, standards have been developed in many countries for different types of learners, for example, English for Occupations in Thailand (English Language Development Center, 2005) and English as an additional language/dialect in Australia (ACARA, 2012).

Defining Standards

Standard has different meanings in different arenas. For example, most countries have a standards organization responsible for overseeing standards setting by professional associations and other entities. Standards Australia defines them as "published documents setting out specifications and procedures designed to ensure products, services, and systems are safe, reliable, and consistently perform the way they were intended to. They establish a common language which defines quality and safety criteria" (Standards Australia, 2013). TESOL defined *standard* statements that indicate "what students should know and be able to do as a result of instruction" (TESOL, 1997, p. 15). Critical to this definition is the necessity for standards through which learners can demonstrate learning so that they can be assessed. This often involves benchmarks of performance.

Task: Explore

1. Does your country have a standards organization such as Standards Australia?
2. Are there standards documents for ELT in your country?
3. Do they include performance indicators and benchmarks of performance? Why? Why not?

Major Characteristics of Standards-based Curricula

Although there may be a variety of implementation options, all successful standards-based programs include:

- overarching goals or standards,
- descriptors that provide "can do" statements for what learners can do to achieve that particular standard, and
- assessment criteria to determine whether learners have achieved the standard and to what extent.

Some standards are described in terms of levels of proficiency. Others describe the standards and then the performance at different levels of proficiency. All standards-based systems aim to ensure transparency and accountability, as well as provide guidance for curriculum developers, textbook writers, and classroom teachers. Many standards specify either language or subject matter content because they are designed for a specific context in which they will be used. However, they usually do not mandate a particular methodology, although the nature of the standards often implies one, such as communicative language teaching.

Examples of Standards-based Curricula

Standards have now become common worldwide. In this chapter, we have chosen to focus on only a few of these standards and how they affect curriculum design. We will discuss the standards developed by the professional association—TESOL International Association—and the Common European Framework of Reference for Language (CEFR), which is used in Europe for curriculum design, textbook writing, and assessment. In addition, we will discuss the California Model Standards for Adult ESL that we referred to in Chapter 21, and the Standards of English for Occupations developed in Thailand. These four sets of standards provide contrasting contexts and interpretations of standards for ELT.

TESOL Pre-K–12 Standards

In the vignette, we described part of the process used in the first iteration of TESOL's Pre-K–12 standards. Since then, educational changes at the U.S. national level have led to a revision of the standards so that they interact more easily with more recent legislation and national curricula efforts[1] by connecting them to the

core curriculum content areas. In 2006 (Gottlieb et al., 2006; TESOL, 2010), they were updated to be consistent with the WIDA (World-class Instructional Design and Assessment) language development standards (WIDA, 2012). This framework includes five language development standards, which have remained the same since 2004, and includes both the social and academic language that learners need to be successful in U.S. schools. The standards are as follows:

Standard 1: English language learners communicate for social, intercultural, and instructional purposes within the school setting.
Standard 2: English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of language arts.
Standard 3: English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of mathematics.
Standard 4: English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of science.
Standard 5: English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of social studies.

(WIDA, 2012, p. 4)

Subsequently, TESOL adopted the WIDA standards completely. These standards describe criteria for six levels of performance for both receptive and productive language, from *entering* to *bridging*, the latter referring to the stage where learners can transition to mainstream classes.

The WIDA standards identify three dimensions of academic language: discourse, sentence, and word/phrase. Each dimension has corresponding performance criteria for learners, as well as the features that exemplify the criteria. These linguistic dimensions are all instantiated through the sociocultural contexts of register, genre, topic, situation, and participants' identities and social roles. For example, the dimension discourse has linguistic complexity as a performance criterion, which has features such as density of speech/written text, coherence and cohesion of ideas, and variety of sentence types to form organized text. Language users choose specific features depending on the sociocultural contexts. During instruction, teachers use specific contexts to facilitate student learning of the linguistic features in focus.

Common European Framework of Reference for Language

The CEFR developed from the Council of Europe's threshold level (van Ek, 1976), the level at which learners could independently use the second language

in its country of use. Because the threshold level was used for curriculum development across many countries in Europe, it became a de facto standard for the 36 languages for which curricula were developed. While neither the threshold level nor the CEFR explicitly ascribe to the standards movement, the descriptors parallel those of other standards documents. The CEFR documents refer to competencies: general competencies and communicative language competencies. However, we have chosen to include the CEFR in the chapter on standards rather than in Chapter 21 on competency-based curricula because of its broad scope and its implied Europe-wide standards of use. In contrast, the competency-based approaches have been used in limited domains, such as workplaces or with adult immigrants. The CEFR in fact details such a wide range of domains that Cook (2011, p. 145) has claimed that "the CEFR aims at a whole description of human existence," and the framework itself is context-free. In other words, the framework can be used without being tied to instructional programs and can, therefore, be a surrogate for language proficiency testing.

The CEFR's goal is "to facilitate communication and interaction among Europeans of different mother tongues in order to promote European mobility, mutual understanding and co-operation, and overcome prejudice and discrimination" (CEFR, 2001, p. 2). The focus, therefore, is on communication, on "what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and language skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively" (p. 1). CEFR's full title includes learning, teaching, and assessment. To that end, it identifies six levels of proficiency, described in "can do" statements as in Table 22.1 below. EAQUALS (The European Association for Quality Language Services, n.d.-b) has expanded these six levels into 11 through the addition of "+" to provide finer distinctions among the levels, which are necessary in many programs, especially short courses. The CEFR refers to the "can do" orientation as an "action-based approach"; B1 is equivalent to the threshold level in van Ek (1976), with C2 being mastery. The descriptors cover all four of the language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In Table 22.1, we provide all levels, but only one of the specifications at each level. For the full level descriptors, see the Council of Europe's website (https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97).

The CEFR also provides a self-assessment grid so that learners can identify their level for listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, and writing. The category of spoken interaction seeks to demonstrate the way listening and speaking interact in actual use. For example, at A1, the lowest level, the self-assessment for spoken interaction is:

Table 22.1 Common European Framework of Reference for Language Levels

Description	Level	Sample Specification
Proficient user	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning
Independent user	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussion in his/her field of specialization
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.
Basic user	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g., very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment)
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type

> I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I am trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.
>
> (Council of Europe, 2019, p. 26)

This example very clearly shows not only how an individual uses language but how speakers also need to work with their interlocutors to achieve each person's communicative goal.

Task: Explore

Go to the Council of Europe's website (https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97). Use the self-assessment in Table 2 on pages 12–30 to assess ten of your students. How useful are these descriptors for describing the achievement of your students? How could they be used to determine the curriculum for their next stage of English learning?

English-as-a-Second Language Model Standards for Adult Education Programs[2]

As mentioned in Chapter 21, these model standards are to be used in conjunction with the competency-based CASAS. These standards go beyond curriculum standards of what learners need to know and be able to do. They include the following:

- program standards,
- curricular standards,
- instructional standards,
- standards for student evaluation,
- descriptions of proficiency levels,
- descriptions of course content,
- sample lessons,
- general testing standards, and
- testing materials.

(California Department of Education, 1992)

This list shows that the document serves as a basis for quality assurance (see Chapter 8) because of its comprehensiveness.

The three curricular standards, which are framed as quality principles, are as follows:

- Curricular Standard 1: The curriculum is focused on meeting students' needs as determined by assessment of students' language proficiencies, goals, and interests.

(p. 3)

- Curricular Standard 2: ESL instruction integrates language components—vocabulary, grammatical structures, language functions, pronunciation—in units on topics that are important to the students.

(p. 4)

- Curricular Standard 3: In the design of curriculum, students' levels of literacy skills—whether in their primary languages or in English—are an essential consideration.

(p. 4)

The proficiency levels are written as "can do" statements for students, as in other standards documents. Each level includes performance indicators in

terms of what students can do at work, in listening, in speaking, in reading, in writing, and in comprehensibility. A performance indicator for Beginning Level High for speaking is: "Students can communicate survival needs using very simple learned phrases and sentences" (p. 15). This performance contrasts with Advanced High-Level speaking: "Students can engage in extended conversation on a variety of topics but lack fluency in discussing technical subjects. Students generally use appropriate syntax but lack thorough control of grammatical patterns" (p. 18).

These standards have been superseded by the federal English Language Proficiency Standards for Adult Education (American Institutes for Research, 2016), which focused on the rigorous instruction, academic language, and critical thinking that would prepare learners for careers and postsecondary education. These standards are aligned to college and career readiness standards for English language arts, literacy, and mathematical and scientific practices. These latter standards were not designed for English language learners. The English Language Proficiency Standards for Adult Education (ELPS) are framed as "can do" statements with five levels of performance. *Descriptors* detail learner performance at each level. For example:

Standard 5: ELLs can conduct research and evaluate and communicate findings to answer questions or solve problems.

The Level 1 descriptor includes what an ELL can do with support, such as carry out short, shared research projects and label collected information, experiences, and events. The Level 5 descriptor includes what an ELL can do without support, such as carry out short and more sustained research projects to answer a question or solve a problem and synthesize information from multiple print and digital sources.

Other standards refer to literary and informational texts in social and academic contexts. Because these standards are aligned with career and academic standards, the focus is on language required in those contexts, rather than on survival language (see Chapters 16 and 21 for more on survival English). In this regard, these adult standards differ markedly from the California model standards.

Standards of English for Occupations

The Ministry of Education in Thailand developed standards for English language needed in 25 occupations in order for "workplace personnel [to] communicate competently in English" (English Language Development Center, 2005, n.p.).

The purpose of the standards was to provide guidance for curriculum developers, for individual self-assessment, and for workplace training needs and courses. Each occupation has the following four standards:

- Standard 1: understanding and interpreting spoken and written language on a work topic
- Standard 2: using spoken and written English to participate in work interaction
- Standard 3: using an appropriate language variety and register according to audience, purpose, setting, and culture
- Standard 4: understanding and using nonverbal communication appropriate to audience, purpose, setting, and culture

Standards 3 and 4 are similar in scope to Goal 3 in the vignette. Occupations range from golf caddies to doctors, to hotel front desk staff, to spa therapists, and to IT project managers. The 25 occupations reflect the industries in which Thailand has been developing an international presence.

Each standard has benchmarks at basic, intermediate, and advanced levels, with benchmark indicators. Because of the complex nature of the work doctors and IT project managers do, the performance indicators are more complex than for other occupations. For example, the benchmarks for spa therapists are only at the basic level. The indicators for Standard 3 are as follows:

1. Respond appropriately to basic compliments, complaints, criticism, etc.
2. Use polite language to interact with guests, especially when persuading, and negotiating.
3. Respond to and use humor appropriately.
   (English Language Development Center, 2005, p. 56)

Standards–based Curriculum Design

Like competency-based and outcome-based, standards-based curriculum design is a backward design, starting with the goals or standards. The CEFR, for example, has six levels, but it is possible to design a curriculum for a specific group for whom the objectives are a subset of the standards in the descriptors, even though the framework is context-free. For example, the CEFR defines many settings within the larger domains of personal, public, occupational, and educational. For each domain, they list contexts of use for locations, institutions, persons, objects,

events, operations, and texts. Therefore, it could be possible to develop a curriculum for adult learners of English who are beginning learners who need immediate language to negotiate with government agencies and their English classrooms (if they are not yet working or in school other than language school). In a different context, the objectives may be focused on the receptive skill of reading (for example, to read university textbooks in English). The CEFR provides lists of tasks, strategies, and texts that can guide curriculum development. However, the starting point would be the descriptors, that is, the "can do" statements.

A series of case studies of curriculum design based on the CEFR (The European Association for Quality Language Services, n.d.-a) shows that, rather than starting with a learner needs analysis, many of the language schools in their study examined their current curriculum documents and re-wrote them as "can do" statements. These case studies also showed that the institutions implemented the new approach and evaluated it, often leading to different assessment procedures, such as changes in report cards that identified student learning in terms of "can do" statements. This adaptation is common for institutions that already have curricula developed over time, ones that they believe meet their learners' needs. In the face of curriculum renewal efforts, they often adapt rather than re-invent. However, in order to determine whether the new approach meets stakeholder needs, it is essential to evaluate the implementation from the perspective of all stakeholders.

In contrast to the CEFR, TESOL's Pre-K–12 2006 standards are not context-free. Although the general standards might provide some guidance for another context, they are specific to the U.S. current context. The ESL Model Standards for Adult ESL Programs are also context-specific, describing course content and instructional standards in contexts for immigrant/refugee learners, such as shopping and transportation. The sample standard provided earlier referred to survival needs, clearly indicating that the content is focused around immediate survival. The Standards for Occupations are also completely context-specific so that language and subject matter content are determined by the occupation.

A vital aspect of standards-based curriculum approaches is assessment, the determination of to what extent learners have achieved the standards. The CEFR framework has extensive descriptors for use in assessment. The self-assessment tool can be used to establish a portfolio (Council of Europe, n.d.) to present to prospective employers, for example. While TESOL does not specify particular assessments, the standards are aligned with the Common Core State Standards and its assessment procedures (National Governors Association for Best Practices Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). However, as Ross

points out, at issue is "how curriculum content can be validly assessed to demonstrate that target-level benchmarks have been achieved" (Ross, 2011, p. 794). This question of validity (see Volume 2, Chapter 12 for a definition of validity) is especially vexing for language learners taking subject matter assessment in English because the language of the test affects performance (for example, Wiley & Wright, 2004).

Issues in a Standards-based Curriculum

As we indicated in Chapters 1 and 2, how the curriculum is resourced and implemented, and its effect on learning can be quite different from the intended curriculum. These differences result from decisions made by institutions, teachers, and learners. The standards we have described represent intended curricula. How they are implemented varies.

Like competency-based language teaching and outcome-based education, standards-based curricula have been accused of being rationalist, instrumentalist, reductionist, and product-driven. In addition, in the United States and Australia, a major criticism has been of federal government overreach. In both countries, states have the responsibility for education and the notion of national standards has always been rejected. The counterargument for a national standard has been the need for learners to be able to move seamlessly from one state to another, as well as the need to reduce the inequality of achievement across states. Furthermore, without standards of performance, not only is there variation across language programs, but also, in many cases, the textbook or the national examination (see, for example, Stewart, 2009 on Japan's entrance examination) becomes the de facto standard.

Often, standards-based curricula are a top-down change to the status quo, what Nation and Macalister (2009) call "power-coercive." Top-down change is often resisted or adapted (see Chapters 1 and 2 and the CEFR case studies). However, as we saw with the TESOL standards, standards can be developed using a bottom-up process. The Common Core Standards in the United States were instigated by governors from a number of states, along with state school chiefs who believed their state standards were insufficient. They received extensive input from national subject matter associations, teachers' unions, parents, and other stakeholders. Like most standards frameworks, their implementation is left to the local level to determine methodologies and activities and tasks. However, particular orientations to learning are embedded in many standards documents. For example, the TESOL standards advocate for language in use

and the acquisition of academic language so that learners can succeed in their content areas. The WIDA standards are specifically targeted at K–12 content area readiness.

Conclusion

Standards-based education focuses on what is learned and how learners can demonstrate their learning. Standards have been adopted throughout the world as a means of guiding curriculum, improving levels of student performance, and demonstrating accountability to government and citizenry. While there are potential disadvantages to standards, these can be overcome with careful planning such that the process is both top-down and bottom-up and by maintaining some flexibility in delivery at the local level.

Task: Expand

https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97

This is the website for the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

www.tesol.org/advance-the-field/standards

This is the website for TESOL's standards projects. As well as the Pre-K–12 standards, TESOL has also developed standards for teachers, adult education, technology, and teacher education programs.

www.acara.edu.au/verve/_resources/English_as_an_Additional_Language_ or_Dialect_Teacher_Resource_05_06_12.pdf

This is the website for the Australian EALD resource. The resource includes learners' proficiency levels in the different skills at different stages in terms of "can do" statements. The resource is a supplement to the Australian Curriculum: Foundation to Year 10, which is standards-based.

https://lincs.ed.gov

This U.S. government website houses the various standards documents developed for adult education, including ESL.

https://esol.excellencegateway.org.uk/

This website hosts the Adult ESOL Core Curriculum in the United Kingdom, which is a standards-based curriculum.

Questions for Discussion

1. Explain the relationship between standards and assessment.
2. Think of English language teaching tasks and strategies that could be used to teach the spa therapist benchmark indicators. Share with a colleague and compare your examples.
3. How do standards-based curricula differ from competency-based curricula? What do they have in common?
4. Why do many standards include proficiency levels and descriptors?
5. How can curriculum developers who are using a standards-based approach ensure buy-in from teachers?

Notes

1. The National Governors Association and the Council of Chief State School Officers led the development of Common Core State Standards to provide U.S. students with high-quality education in subject areas such as mathematics and language arts.
2. The model standards and CASAS are just one of several curricula guidelines used by U.S. states in adult education.

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