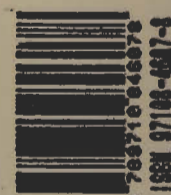


Curriculum Development in the Philippine Setting

Tomas Quintin D. Andres
Felizardo Y. Francisco

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
IN THE PHILIPPINE SETTING

TOMAS QUINTIN D. ANDRES
FELIZARDO Y. FRANCISCO



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Dedication

To All The Filipino Youth And Children
Who Shall Be Benefited From An Educational
Curriculum Adapted To The Philippine Setting

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The Authors

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Introduction

Much has been said and little has been done in the search for relevance in Philippine education. After twenty years of independent statehood, the Philippines faces a number of crucial problems which require a high level of vision, a courageous type of leadership, a substantial amount of discipline, and plain hard and honest work on the part of the Filipinos. Education has to play its role: to produce Filipinos who are aware of their country's problems, who understand the basic solution to those problems, and who care enough, know enough and have courage enough to work and sacrifice for their country.

What are some of the criticisms of the schools in the Philippines? One critic says that the school is a "joyless place which regiments and confines the human spirit." A Filipino university rector, speaking of the rulings on the internship and residency programs of medical graduates, asks: "When do we stop blindly imitating educational concepts and practices of highly-developed western countries?"¹ "The school", says a very influential critic, "is an agency for perpetuating the status quo, social, religious, political, economic injustices. The schools have prepared and still are preparing conformists, not original thinkers or challengers of social and political establishments". Education is a force for social disintegration", says a critic in the third world, "breaking up old cultures and promoting a modernity without significant relationship

¹Fr. Leonardo Z. Legaspi, O.P., "Medical Education: Going the Way of Blind Imitation", *The Sunday Times Magazine*, May 21, 1972, p. 4.

to the past, to the traditional culture of a people, or even to present realities". Another critic avows that the "school perpetuates intense class distinctions that separate people whom education ought to unite".² Are these criticisms not true of Philippine education?

These criticisms have led to the improvement not only of the quality of education in all levels, but also of the curriculum in all levels. The nature of the school curriculum in the Philippines is presently a focus of inquiry and contention, the curriculum not only in the elementary schools – the contents materials, methods, and goals of teachers working with our nation's younger pupils-but also in the secondary and higher levels of education. Various attempts are now being done to make Philippine school curriculums responsive to the demands of change and needs of the times. The new emphasis on Philippine history, character and culture stresses the importance of a curriculum that must be value-oriented, need-oriented, work-oriented, performance-oriented and love-oriented.

Since the curriculum is the core of educational efforts, it raws a wide range of reflection and thinking about the complex, inter-related, and interacting phenomena that it involves. This renders the study of curriculum development dynamic, innovative and at the same time controversial.

Before we move on further, let us define some important terms which will be used in the textbook.

²Casa Generalizia dei Fratelli della Scuola Cristiano, *Contact*, 1972, p. 30.

Part One

Historical Perspectives on Curriculum Development

The development of curriculum in history is basically founded on five outstanding motives, namely: (1) the religious; (2) the political, (3) the utilitarian, (4) the mass education motive, and (5) the motive for excellence in education.¹ The conflicting theories and philosophies that have influenced the changes in the curriculum offerings at different periods of history in different countries have been based on these motives.

¹J. Minor Gwynn et al., *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends* (London: The Macmillan Company, 1969), Chapter 1.

1

The Curriculum: Different Dimensions

The Traditional Versus Modern Dimension of the Curriculum

Traditional schools defined curriculum as a group of subjects arranged in a certain sequence peculiar to the subject field itself for the purpose of instruction. This definition is based on the assumption that the role of education is to fit the individual for his place in society.¹ Unique needs and interests have been placed second to "the common needs of all." Such traditional concept of the curriculum is now being challenged by those who see a broader dimension of curriculum.

The modern dimension of curriculum consists of all experiences for learning which are planned and organized by the school.² It is composed of the actual experiences and activities of learners inside or outside the classroom under the guidance of the teacher and for which the school accepts

¹Educational Resources Information Center, "Implementing Curriculum Change", *Educational Management Review Series* (Oregon: University of Oregon, 1966), p. 1.

²Richard Whitfield, *Disciplines of the Curriculum* (New York:s 1971).

responsibility.³ Curriculum, therefore, encompasses all learning opportunities provided by the school. This broader concept of curriculum implies that it exists not in the textbooks, nor in the course of study, nor in the lesson plans of the teachers but in the experiences of the learner. The curriculum becomes an enterprise in guided living and a specialized tool for directing the interests and abilities of the learner toward effective participation in the life of the community and the nation. It is concerned not only with community living but also with the personal improvement of the learner.

Some authors define curriculum as "the total effort of the school to bring about desired outcomes in school and out-of-school situations" or "a sequence of potential experiences set up in school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting."⁴

The elements that usually compose a curriculum are the following: 1.) A statement of aims and of specific objectives; 2) Some selection and organization of content; 3) Certain patterns of learning and teaching; and finally 4) A program of evaluation of the outcomes. All curricula are composed of these elements; they differ according to the emphasis given to each of these elements, according to the manner in which these elements are related to each other, and according to the basis on which the decisions regarding each of them are made.

Curriculum Planning

Before we define curriculum planning, let us first explain what a curriculum plan is. A *curriculum plan* is the advance arrangement of learning opportunities for a particular population of learners.⁵ A written curriculum plan is what we know as *curriculum-guide*. This term is also used to describe many types of written materials designed to give guidance to

³Osmundo N. Saguil et al., *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development* (Manila: Acenas Printing Press, 1965).

⁴Hilda Taba, *Curriculum Development Theory and Practice* (New York: Harcourt, Bruce and World, Inc., 1962), p. 9.

⁵J. Galen Saylor et al., *Curriculum Planning for Modern Schools* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966).

teachers and others in the final development of the curriculum in learning situations: statements of curriculum scope and sequence; courses of study for various levels and subjects; resource units including materials relating to units of work to be developed in different learning situations; suggestions as to teaching practices; and various kinds of bulletins used by study groups in organized curriculum study undertakings.⁶

Curriculum planning is the process whereby these arrangements of curriculum plans or learning opportunities are created. It occurs when lay or professional committees reach decisions as to new instructional programs to be added or old ones to be dropped or modified in the schools of a particular regional or local school district. Curriculum planning also occurs when school faculties plan to fit new programs into existing ones, and as the teachers responsible work together and individually to arrange specific learning situations for the pupils they teach. Curriculum planning is the process of preparing for the duties of teaching, deciding upon goals and emphases, determining curriculum content, selecting learning resources and classroom procedures, evaluating progress, and looking toward next steps.

- Curriculum Development

Curriculum development is defined as the process of selecting, organizing, executing, and evaluating learning experiences on the basis of the needs, abilities, and interests of learners and the nature of the society or community.⁷ It takes into consideration the following factors: 1) The nature of society which includes the cultural heritage, the needs and demands as well as the economic, social, political, cultural, moral and other problems of the people; 2) The interests, the needs, previous experiences and problems of the learners, and 3) The educational and psychological principles based on the findings of scientific studies and experimentation.

People involved in curriculum development inquire into the source and nature of the school experiences, the curricu-

⁶*Ibid.*

⁷Saguil et al., p. 15.

lum activities and experiences to be organized, the objectives of education and how these should be carried out through the curriculum, the role and responsibility of the school with regard to other educative institutions and the responsibility of the school in developing attitudes, skills and procedures.

Curriculum development is a cooperative venture among teachers, supervisor, curriculum expert, learners, parents and non-school people. It is also a continuous process since we can never exhaust the possibilities of improving the teaching-learning situation.

Curriculum Laboratory is a place or workshop where curriculum materials are gathered or used by teachers or learners of curriculum while *Resource Unit* is a collection or suggested learning activities and materials organized around a given topic or area which a teacher might utilize in planning, developing, and evaluating a learning unit. It consists of the following parts:

1. Introduction or short explanation of the importance of the topic;
2. Objectives or anticipated outcomes;
3. Content of the unit;
4. Unit Activities;
5. Evaluation; and
6. Bibliography of useful materials.

Course of Study is an official guide prepared for use by the administrators, supervisors, and teachers of a particular school or school system as an aid to teaching a given subject or areas of study for a given level or grade, combinations of grades or other designated class or group of learners. It usually includes the following:

1. Aims of the course;
2. The expected outcomes;
3. The scope and nature of materials to be studies;
4. Suitable instructional aids;
5. Textbooks;
6. Supplementary activities;
7. Teaching methods; and
8. Techniques of evaluation of achievements.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Differentiate the Traditional from the Modern Concept of Curriculum
2. Discuss briefly the following terms
 - a. Curriculum Plan
 - b. Curriculum Guide
 - c. Curriculum Planning
 - d. Curriculum Development
 - e. Course of Study

2

Two Schools of Thought on Curriculum Development

Two schools of thought predominated throughout the history of curriculum development; the progressive school and the essentialist school. Let us examine briefly each one of them.

The Essentialist School

The Essentialist school considers the curriculum as something rigid consisting of discipline subjects. It considers all learners as much the same and it aims to fit the learner into the existing social order and thereby maintain the status quo. Its major motivation is discipline and considers freedom as an outcome and not an means of education. Its approach is authoritative and the teacher's role is to assign lessons and recite recitations. It is book-centered and the methods recommended are memory work, mastery of facts and skills, and development of abstract intelligence. It has no interest whatsoever in social action and ignores completely relation to local community and life activities. Its measurement of outcomes and achievements are standard tests based on subject

matter mastery.

In the essentialist curriculum, learning is a realization, not a creation; education is a creature, not creator or society. The set curriculum is to train the learner for adaptation to the mores of society - thus the existence of certain fixed values. Education is considered as the eternal striving for the perfect or absolute.

Some representatives of the Essentialist school are H.C. Morrison, W.C. Bagley, H.H. Herne, M. Demiashevich, T. H. Briggs, Franklin Bobbitt, I.L. Kandel, Harold L. Clapp, Arthur Bestor, Robert M. Hutchins, Mortimer Smith, James D. Koerner, Hyman G. Rickover, and some idealists, realists, neo-Thomists and Scholasticists.

The Progressive School

The Progressive school which includes the pragmatists, experimentalists, reconstructionists, materialists and existentialists, conceives of the curriculum as something flexible based on areas of interest. It is learner-centered, having in mind that no two persons are alike. Its factor of motivation is individual achievement believing that persons are naturally good. The role of the teacher is to stimulate direct learning process for most effective individual expression of the learner. Its method emphasizes individual spontaneity, problem solving and development of creative responsibility. It uses a life experience approach to fit the student for future social action. Its major emphasis is individual life activities. The local community is utilized incidentally for the development of the "whole" learner. It advocates no final or fixed values in advance for it considers education as a reconstructor of society. Constant revision of aims and experimental techniques of learning and teaching are imperatives in curriculum development in order to create independent thinking, initiative, self-reliance, individuality, self-expression and activity in the learner. Its measurement of outcome and achievements are now devices taking into consideration subject matter and personality values. Representatives of the Progressive School are John Dewey, Boyd Bode, W. H. Kilpatrick, Carleton Washburne, Carson Ryan, Sidney Hook, James Tippet,

Caroline Zachry, E.L. Thorndike, Harold Rugg, George Counts, Murray and Dorris Lee, Alice Niel, H. Gordon Hullfish, Harold Taylor, Lindley J. Stiles, Nelson Bossing, Gertrude Noar and Harold Alberty.

Different Theories, Different Emphasis

Curriculum development has long been a focus of inquiry and contention. Conflicting philosophies of education have influenced curriculum principles and practices. A number of "self-evident educational truths" in the past are now seen to be rather educational myths, such as, Teachers know, children or learners don't; all learners should be treated alike; etc. In the United States, for example, the public elementary school curriculum had a strong moral tone in an earlier day. Later the curriculum was used to indoctrinate the youngster into "the American way of Life" as it was defined at that period of history.¹ Then the emphasis was on ways of helping immigrant learners to understand their new country. Later the focus shifted again, this time toward understanding one's neighbor and society in general. Recently, the curriculum has stressed the preparation of children for learning about the natural and social sciences. Spurred by the race in space, the American lawmakers urged their educators, scholars, and laymen to develop the "hard curriculum" of the natural sciences, mathematics, and foreign languages. There was an intensive curriculum work with remarkable results. The fundamental concepts of some curricula have changed. In many areas, new methodologies - programmed instruction, computer-assisted instruction, tutorials, large- and small-group instruction, and a variety of individualized instruction procedures - have been developed. Different curricular emphasis and instructional practice came up.

There is the curricular emphasis upon subject matter for the mind, with priority in value given to literature, intellectual history, ideas of religion, philosophy, and related studies.

¹Gerard Weinstein & Mario D. Fantini (Ed.), *Toward Humanistic Education A Curriculum of Affect* (New York: Praeger Publications 1970), p. 4.

This is based on the belief that by "seeing" ideas the learner develops as a finite personality, an absolute self. The role of the teacher is to bring the learner into harmony with the superior life.

There is the curricular emphasis on observable fact, the world of things. In the curriculum, the sciences are emphasized. It favors factual mastery in all areas of learning based on the belief that the mind is a receptacle to be filled with knowledge, stored for later use. Its main bases of knowledge and learning are precise and definite answers, objective recall and predominance of sense perception.

Another curricular emphasis is the school which defends its purpose through the tenets of scholasticism. It believes that the rational nature of man provides a measure for what is good and what is bad; this measure deals with the whole man, body and soul, intellect and will. It emphasizes being, reason and intuition. The curricular goal is fixed and unchangeable - God.

A curricular emphasis that is worth mentioning is that school which stresses the importance of experience-process. It assumes both an organism and an environment in continual interaction. This school believes that knowledge exists within experience. Experience is real, not just within a person, but is what it is largely because of the social context in which it takes place. Thus, experience depends upon its cultural context. The method therefore is to allow the learner to participate in this culture, develop needed skills, contrast the new and the old, discover new truths, changing ideas, analyze them and try them.

A recent curricular emphasis is that of existing choice. The learner must learn skills, acquire knowledge, and make decisions. He will work with problems - not to perpetuate a tradition, to pass on a common heritage, or to solve a social problem, but to learn about himself, to develop to his fullest potential because he wants to find out and to know. He must be personally involved. The curricular goals are personal awareness, personal choice, personal responsibility, and personal commitment.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Differentiate the essentialist from the progressive school
2. Discuss briefly the different points of emphasis in the making of a curriculum.
3. Describe the historical perspectives and motions on curriculum development.

3

Curriculum Development in the Philippines

In the Philippines a similar phenomenon happened with regard to curriculum development. The religious, political, economic and social influences and events that took place in the country affected and sometimes dictated the kind of curriculum developed in that particular epoch of Philippine history. Colonial rule in the country tailored the curriculum to serve colonial goals and objectives. Let us analyze the curriculum from pre-hispanic times to the present.

The Pre-Spanish Curriculum

Before the coming of the Spaniards the Filipino possessed a culture of their own. They had contacts with other foreign peoples from Arabia, India, China, Indo-China and Borneo. The diaries of Fr. Chirino attest to the historical fact that "the inhabitants were a civilized people, possessing their system of writing, laws and moral standards in a well-organized system of government. They did not have an organized system of education as we have now. They, however, possessed them

as expressed in their ways of life and as shown in the rule of the barangay, their code of laws—the Code of Kalantiao and Maragtas—their belief in the Bathala, the solidarity of the family, the modesty of the women, the children's obedience and respect for their elders, and in the valor of the men.¹

This informal education was the learning which the early Filipino received as a result of his interaction with others in the group of which he was a member. Ideas and facts were acquired through suggestion, observation, example and imitation. There was no direct teaching, no formal method of instruction. The learning of the basic habits, patterns of culture, ideas and new knowledge was unplanned and unsystematic. This was done mostly in the family, play group, neighborhood and occupational group. The youngsters learned their trade through experience. The farmers taught their boys how to hunt by actually taking them out into the woods and teaching them how to use the bow and arrow in catching wild animals. The fishermen on the other hand taught their youngsters by taking them to the river and showing them how to use nets and fish traps.

The Spanish-devised Curriculum

When the Spanish soldiers of fortune conquered the Philippines, they deemed it wise to bring Spanish missions to consolidate their control of the Filipinos, body and soul. The Spanish curriculum then consisted of the three R's — reading, writing and religion with undue emphasis on the last as a tool for perpetuating the colonial order.² The curricular goals were the acceptance of Catholicism and the acceptance of Spanish rule.

The schools then were parochial or convent schools. The main reading materials were the *cartilla*, the *caton* and the *catecismo*. The schools were ungraded and the curriculum organization was separately subject organization. The method of instruction was predominantly individual memo-

¹As quoted in O.N. Sagui, *op. cit.*, p. 19

²Letty J. Magsanoc, "The New Thrust in Education", *Focus Philippines*, Nov. 25, 1972, p. 10

rization.

According to Fr. Modesto de Castro, author of *Urbana at Felisa* (1877), the curriculum for boys and girls was aimed to (1) teach young boys and girls to serve and love God, (2) discover what is good and proper for one's self, and (3) enable the individual to get along well with his neighbors.³

The American-devised Curriculum

The American-devised curriculum was also dominated with the motive of conquering the Filipinos not only physically but also intellectually. The public school system established and headed by an American until 1935, was to train the Filipinos after the American culture and way of life. The curriculum was based on the ideals and traditions of America and her hierarchy of values. The reading materials were about Tom, Dick and Harry, George Washington and Abraham Lincoln. Filipino children were taught to draw houses with chimneys and to play the role of Indians and cowboys. They sang the *Star-Spangled Banner* and *Philippines, My Philippines* to the tune of *Maryland, My Maryland*. English was the medium of instruction.

The primary curriculum prescribed in 1904 by the Americans for the Filipinos consisted of three grades which provides training in two aspects.⁴

- a. Body training — singing, drawing, handwork, and physical education.
- b. Mental Training — English (reading, writing, conversation, phonetics, and spelling), nature study, and arithmetic. In Grade III geography and civic were added to the list of the subjects.

The intermediate curriculum consisted of subjects such as arithmetic, geography, science, and English. Science included plant life, physiology and sanitation.

³As quoted in O.N. Sagui, *ibid.*, p. 21
⁴*Ibid.*

In the collegiate level, normal schools were opened with a teacher's training curriculum appropriate for elementary mentors. It's aim was to replace the soldiers and the "Thomases."

The curriculum organization remained separate-subject. Group method of teaching was adopted. A significant aspect of the American-devised curriculum was the prohibition of compulsory religious instruction in the public schools.

The Curriculum During the Commonwealth

The period of the Commonwealth (1935-1946) may be considered as the period of expansion and reform in the Philippine curriculum. American-trained Filipino teachers applied in the Philippines the educational reforms they learned from the United States. These educational leaders expanded the curriculum by introducing courses in farming, trade, business, domestic science, etc.

The curriculum for the training of elementary school teachers was expanded by the Bureau of Education by elevating it from the secondary normal schools to the collegiate level, organizing eight regional normal schools. The collegiate normal schools which started operating in 1939 were for two years training beyond the high school.

Commonwealth Act 586, also known as Educational Act of 1940, reorganized the elementary school system by eliminating Grade VII and providing for the double-single session in which elementary pupils attended classes for one-half day only. This measure ushered the beginning of the decline of the efficiency of elementary education.

The Japanese-devised Curriculum

The Second World War led to the occupation of the Philippines by the Japanese Imperial Forces (1941-1945). Just like the Spaniards and the Americans, they devised a curriculum for the Filipino to suit their vested interest. They introduced many changes in the curriculum by including Nippongo and abolishing English as a medium of instruction and as a subject. All textbooks were censored and revised.

The Japanese-devised curriculum caused a blackout in Philippines education and impeded the educational progress of the Filipinos.

The Curriculum During the Liberation Period

In 1945, during the liberation period, steps were taken to improve the curriculum existing before the war. Some steps taken were to restore Grade VII, to abolish the double-single session and most especially, to adopt the modern trends in education taken from the United States.

Filipino educational leaders, such as Cecilio Putong, Prudencio Langaun, Esteban Abada, Martin Aguilar, Vitaliano Bernardino and others tried to develop a curriculum based on the characteristics and needs of the Filipino children and on the needs, problem, and resources of the community. However, their efforts remained in the ideational stage. The school curriculum remained basically the same as before and was still subject-centered.

The Curriculum During the Philippine Republic

The granting of independence to the Filipinos led to some educational reforms in the curriculum. Great experiments in the community school idea and the use of the vernacular in the first two grades of the primary school as a medium of instruction were some of them. Some of the reforms were merely extensions of the educational trends in previous decades. Others were implemented in response to circumstances in the culture. And still others were results of research and experimentation in education and related disciplines.

An experiment worth-mentioning that led to a change in the Philippine educational philosophy was that of school and community collaboration pioneered by Jose V. Aguilar.⁵

⁵Jose V. Aguilar was then Division Superintendent of Schools in the province of Iloilo.

The community school concept had for its goal the improvement of pupil and community life through the curriculum. Due to its successful implementation the community school concept was given official cognizance by the Bureau of Public Schools in June 1949.

Another experiment led by Aguilar was the use of the vernacular as a medium of instruction in the first two grades of the primary school. He believed that the primary school would "give them (the pupils) a leverage on social, political, and economic forces, and for those who go through these grades, the vernacular base may promote better learning in English."⁸ Upon evaluation by the Research Department of the Bureau it was found out that the experimental classes did equally well in all subjects and did even better in language arts and social studies. Presently all public schools conduct instruction in the first two grades and even in the entire primary grades using the vernacular as medium of instruction.

It is a source of gratification also to note that our schools are increasingly using instructional materials that are Philippine-oriented. This policy has been formulated by our educational leaders, the most recent example of which being Department Memorandum No. 30, 1966. This particular memorandum sets the order of priority in the purchase of books for use in our schools as follows:

1. Books which are contributions to Philippine Literature as provided under section 7 of Commonwealth Act No. 586, as amended by Commonwealth Act No. 658, and further amended by section 5 of Republic Act No. 4092.
2. Books on character education and other library materials, which should be utilized for classroom instruction, and the current advices of the President of the Philippines. Books and charts on science which will enhance the current program of the administration in science education.

⁸As quoted in O.N. Saguil, *op. cit.*, p. 28-29.

3. Library equipment and permanent features.

- a) Books locally published
- b) Books written by local authors
- c) Books and library materials published and approved lately as shown:

1. Literature, except the classics and books on Rizal, published not earlier than 1955.
2. Character Education and other subjects and general readings published not earlier than 1960.
3. Science, Arithmetic and other related subjects published not earlier than 1933.

The crucial role of instructional materials in the promotion of nationalism is now well recognized. According to responsible educational leaders, we are in great need of instructional materials that will give emphasis on the following areas:

1. The improvement of home industries so that they will be patronized. The popular preference for Philippine made products is an attitude worth fostering among our people especially when Filipino businessmen want their goods to be patronized. Our numerous home industries may be continuously improved so that they will be preferred not only in this country but also abroad.
2. The appreciation of the services of great men and women of our country. There was a time when Filipino pupils and students could speak about George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, and other great men of other countries, but could not intelligently discuss the lines and contributions of their own great men such as Rizal, Bonifacio, del Pilar, Mabini, Tandang Sora, etc. and others.
3. Preservation of our cultural heritage. We have a rich cultural heritage embodied in our native language, in our folk dances, folk songs, as well as in our customs, and traditions.

The Department of Education, in its attempt to keep up

with changing economic and social conditions of the country, had undertaken a program of curricula and course of study revisions. The areas studied include social studies, health and science, language arts, arithmetic, arts and physical education and work education.

In the elementary level, vocational education has been introduced as a part of the educational program of the Bureau of Public Schools. Vocational education has been preserved to develop a proper attitude toward work, to develop certain vocational skills and to enhance the agricultural-industrial development of the country. There are six major areas, namely: agricultural education, business education, fishery, home economics, home industries and trade industrial education, including trade courses for girls.

Work education includes training and experience in agriculture, fishery, homemaking, and family living, industrial arts, and other activities intended to develop knowledge, attitudes, proper work habits and skills and wise utilization of resources.

Another step taken in the direction of increasing respectability for technical education was the establishment of vocational schools. The curriculum of these schools provides for general culture and technical training. The students learn a trade and develop craftsmanship. This is one way of improving the manpower resources of our country.

The use of media like television, radio, filmstrips in our teaching helps a lot in the attainment of our instructional purposes and enrichment program. Media is used not only in Science but also in the Language Arts, (how to pronounce, spell, etc.), Social Studies (like geography, culture, economy, etc.), and Mathematics (fractions, percentage, problems).

In 1961, the Committee on the Reform of the Philippine Educational System was appointed by the Board of National Education, now known as National Board of Education. This Committee devoted a substantial part of its report to recommendations for curriculum improvement at different levels of the educational system. Its recommendations were based on an earlier study by the Swanson group, composed of

American educational leaders and professors headed by J. Chester Swanson and aided by Filipino officials in the Department of Education. The Monroe Survey Report made in 1925 was the first comprehensive assessment of the Philippine school system; it included in its findings specific recommendations concerning school subjects, instructional materials, time allotments, and the language of instruction, all these pertaining to the curriculum.

The Presidential commission to Survey Philippine Education, headed by former Secretary of Education Onofre D. Corpuz and composed of respected Filipinos, acknowledged the pivotal role of the curriculum to education when it titled its Education Survey Report of December, 1970, "Education for National Development: New Patterns, New Directions."⁷ The national educational aims identified by the Survey Commission were endorsed by the Board of National Education in 1972, which gave primary attention to educational planning in recognition of the centrality of the curriculum to education.

Article XIV, Section 5, of the 1935 Constitution of the Philippines, which defined the aims of education in the country, emphasized the important role that curriculum plays in transmitting the values of society to succeeding generations. Article XV, Section 8, Subsections 4 and 8, of the 1973 Constitution of the Philippines similarly emphasizes the aims of national education with a view to developing each citizen's self-realization and to promote the common welfare of the nation. All these underscore the Filipinos' concern for the curriculum.

In 1973 the Secondary School curriculum was revised to make it attuned and more responsive to the felt-needs of our times. It is both work and value oriented. It is a single-track curriculum which focuses neither on college preparation nor on vocational skills development alone; it further aims to equip the students with the knowledge of, an insight into, and

Dolores G. Garcia, *Curriculum Theory Application* (Quezon City: Philippines: Phoenix Press, Inc., 1973), p. 4

appreciation of the ongoing community life and problems.⁸ Hopefully, the new curriculum is a tool to correct the imbalance between manpower needs and educational outputs. Substantially, the work/value-oriented philosophy will decrease apathy for work and adherence to beliefs and practices that are roadblocks to the Filipino's growth and development as a nation. Relevant actual work experiences along academic subjects and proper integration of subject matter in classroom activities are employed to inculcate love and dignity of manual work, and preservation of wholesome Filipino ways of life. Character Education is fused with other disciplines for the inculcation of moral values, with love of God and fellowmen as foundations. The methodology is not anymore spoon-feeding but teaching the students how to learn and unlearn: to think and decide by themselves. Hence the conceptual and discovery approaches of the social studies and sciences are highly recommendable. The new trend is interdisciplinary and integrative approaches, putting aside the old subjects compartmentalization. Hence, teaching should be subject matter-centered, learner-centered as well as community life-centered. Thus, current issues and trends in agrarian reform, sex and population education, cooperatives, taxation, pollution, and drug addiction are integrated in the present secondary subjects. It is also worth mentioning the inclusion of Youth Development and Citizen Army Training courses. Local community resources are to be utilized to vitalize the instructional program.

In the collegiate level, steps are also being taken to make the curriculum respond to the needs of the times. New direction in education is being taken by the Philippine Normal College. As the center of teacher-training institutions all over the country, it implemented educational projects which aim to revolutionize the former ineffective curriculum by making education relevant to the realities of rural life. Teachers-trainees are asked to live and work with farmers for several months to get the interaction of the people, acquire the spirit

⁸Gonzalo A. Lavarias, "The Revised Secondary Education Curriculum: Its Implications", *Education Journal*, Manila: College of Education, University of the East, Vol. I (Nov. 1, 1975), pp. 30-34

of service to the people, and know the people's lives, needs, and aspirations. The same thing is happening with the medical and nursing professions: graduates of these schools are asked to train for some time in the rural areas. Several curriculum changes have also been implemented in the business collegiate program. Students are exposed to Filipino life situations. Textbooks and teaching materials oriented to Philippine setting are being used. Visual aids, case study method, open dialogue, project method, syndicated work are being used in teaching.

In summary, the curricular developments introduced in the Philippines since 1946 are the integrative-activity program, the broadfield curriculum, and the experience curriculum organizations; development of local supplementary curriculum materials, resources units, curriculum guides, courses of study, supplementary readers and other teaching-learning aids based on local resources, locally prepared teaching aids, Filipino-authored textbooks; democratic school practices and teaching methods, group processes; use of the vernacular and Filipino as medium of instruction, bilingualism; new approaches to the development of the community-school service program; practical arts courses in the general secondary curriculum as the foundation for specialized training and vocational courses in agricultural and trade schools for greater skills and specialization; continuous progression, non-graded curriculum, and individualized instruction.

Curriculum in The New Society

"To guarantee that the educational system would be relevant and responsive to the challenges and requirements of national, provincial and local development." President Ferdinand Marcos pursuant to Proclamation No. 1081 issued last Sept. 29, 1972, Decree No. 6 known as the Educational Development Decree of 1972, to take effect immediately.⁹

⁹As quoted in Letty J. Magsanoc, op. cit., p. 10

This Presidential education decree aims to make schools responsive to the needs of the New Society. It embodies all the proposals submitted by the Presidential Commission to survey Philippine Education to President Marcos. President Marcos issued the Educational Development Decree of 1972 as a national policy and as part of the law of the land. This decree institutes meaningful reforms that will decidedly improve the quality of life of the curriculum. Among its objectives are: to provide for a broad general education that will assist each individual in his development as a whole human being useful to his fellowmen and to his country; to train the nation's manpower in the middle level in skills required for national development; to develop the high-level professions that will provide leadership for the nation and advance knowledge through research; and respond effectively to the changing needs and conditions of the nation through a system of educational planning and evaluation.

To advance its objectives, the Educational Development Decree has formulated a ten-year program based on a number of principles, among them: improvement of curricular programs and quality of instruction at all levels by upgrading physical facilities; adopting cost-saving instructional technology and training and retraining of teachers and administrators; upgrading of academic standards through accreditation schemes, admissions testing and guidance counseling; and democratization of access to education by financial assistance to poor but deserving students, skills training programs for out of school youth and a continuing educational program for illiterate adults.

Among the curricular steps taken are the teaching of land and agrarian reform and cooperatives as individual subjects for study, the requirement of Family Planning and Philippine Constitution as compulsory subjects in the collegiate level; the National College Entrance Examination for all college applicants; and the extension of classwork into areas that would not otherwise benefit from education, like the farms and factories. Taxation and population education courses are offered at higher levels of education. Mandatory use of textbooks authored and published by Filipinos in the Philippines in the elementary and secondary levels and in higher

education courses, except for certain specialized and technical courses in college such as medicine, is also being implemented.

The thrust of the New Society curriculum is redirection of education towards what is relevant to national development.¹⁰ There were certain actions taken to improve the collegiate curriculum for this purpose, such as the opening of 10 manpower training center, three technical institutes, two agricultural universities (one at Musuan Bukidnon and another at Munoz, Nueva Ecija), upgrading of 100 agricultural schools, improvement of science education center at the UP, and four regional science teacher education centers in Laoag for Northern Luzon, at the Central Luzon Teachers College, in the Western Visayas, and at the Zamboanga State College.

Another significant change in the New Society has something to do with alien schools in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 176. These alien schools will have to follow the basic curriculum of the Department of Education, and may not be owned solely by aliens. Also, by virtue of a presidential directive, no student will be allowed to graduate without a semester of civic action work consisting of activities related to his particular course. Touching on Muslim literacy the *ustadz* and the *ulamias*, who are knowledgeable in Arabic were engaged to teach Filipino Muslims students to read and write in Arabic. The Department of Education and Culture also looked into the possibility of including materials informative of the ways of the Filipino minorities in social studies subjects currently being taught in Philippine schools, as well as eliminating materials offensive or objectionable to the Muslims and other minorities.

We can say that the emphasis of the curriculum of the New Society are on moral values, relevance, proper methods of teaching, retraining of teachers, vocational and technical education, bilingualism, national consciousness and cultural values.

¹⁰ Alice H. Reyes, "Some Notes On Educational Reform," *Sunday Times Magazine*, Sept. 17, 1972, p. 38

¹¹ Department Order No. 16, s. 1973.

The curricular redirection in the New Society can be briefly summarized as follows:

1. The curriculum should be redirected to place more stress on development of moral virtues particularly discipline, honesty, social responsibility, thrift, hard work, and obedience. Every learning situation should stress on moral and ethical values. The duties and responsibilities of citizenship should be under-scored.
2. As a means of integrating education and life, the content of all subject areas at all levels shall be related to the conditions of the times, to the actual needs of the people and the country. Considering that economic development is a major national goal, all school activities should be work-oriented and production-oriented.
3. The curriculum should reflect the urgent needs and problems facing the country today and should therefore include: Population Education, Nutrition, Food Production, Wise Conservation and Utilization of Natural Resources, Tax Consciousness, Cooperative Education, Consumer Education and Buy-Filipino Movement.
4. The curriculum should be viewed not in terms of facts or subject matter to be mastered but in terms of learnings to be acquired and applied in meeting everyday situations.
5. All teaching shall seek to develop comprehensive understanding of all the subjects, their interrelationships and their significance to everyday living.
6. Co-curricular youth programs shall be restructured and enriched to channel youth activities to positive and productive endeavors. The use of out-of-school learning situations shall receive more emphasis, and community problems which can be better solved outside the classroom shall provide the subject matter for teaching-learning situations. Parents

and community members shall be tapped for involvement.

7. Non-formal education or extension services for the community shall be recognized and credited as part of the school curriculum. A system of recognition such as issuance of certificates of proficiency to individuals meeting the requirements of short term non-formal courses shall be worked out.

The reforms in teaching methodology are as follows:

1. Objectives of instruction shall specify behavioral changes as primary outcomes of learning activities.
2. More and more, teaching strategies that are inquiry- and problem-oriented should be adopted in order to develop the ability to think, rationalize and make proper decisions.
3. Guidance and research should be given greater emphasis.
4. Courses should be restructured to allow testing in actual practice of theories learned in classrooms.
5. More opportunity should be given to out-of-classroom learning.
6. Evaluative methods should accordingly be revised. Examinations should measure ability to use knowledge or apply what is learned rather than mere memory or the idle accumulation of facts.
7. Incentive in the form of scholarship shall be provided for students to take technical and vocational courses. The possibilities for employment shall be increased by instituting a tie-up between educational institutions on one hand and business and industry on the other, not only for apprenticeship but for the use of the latter's facilities, equipment and expert personnel.

The reorientation of education in the New Society aims to reexamine and redirect the curriculum to make it more supportive of the New Society's goals specifically social reform

and economic development. It also aims to upgrade and revise teaching methodology to make it more productive of results particularly in achieving changes in attitudes and values which must be reflected in a marked change in the conduct and behavior of the products of our schools.

In summary the provisions of the New Constitution with regard to the curriculum are as follows:

Article XIV - Education, Science and Technology, Arts, Culture and Sports

EDUCATION

Section 1. The State shall protect and promote the right of all citizens to quality education at all levels and shall take appropriate steps to make such education accessible to all.

Section 2. The State shall:

(1) Establish, maintain and support a complete, adequate and integrated system of education relevant to the needs of the people and society;

(2) Establish and maintain a system of free public education in the elementary and high school levels. Without limiting the natural right of parents to rear their children, elementary education is compulsory for all children of school age;

(3) Establish and maintain a system of scholarship grants, students loan programs, subsidies, and other incentives which shall be available to deserving students in both public and private schools, especially to the underprivileged;

(4) Encourage non-formal, informal and indigenous learning systems, as well as self-learning, independent, and out-of-school study programs particularly those that respond to community needs; and

(5) Provide adult citizens, the disabled, and out-of-school school with training in civics, vocational efficiency, and other skills.

Section 3. (1) All educational institutions shall include

the study of the Constitution as part of the curricula.

(2) They shall inculcate patriotism and nationalism, foster love of humanity, respect for human rights, appreciation of the role of national heroes in the historical development of the country, teach the rights and duties of citizenship, strengthen ethical and spiritual values, develop moral character and personal discipline, encourage critical and creative thinking, broaden scientific and technological knowledge and promote vocation efficiency.

(3) At the option expressed in writing by the parents or guardians, religion shall be allowed to be taught to their children or wards in public elementary and high schools within the regular class hours by instructors designated or approved by the religious authorities of the religion to which the children or wards belong, without additional cost to the Government.

Section 4. (1) The State recognizes the complementary roles of public and private institutions in the educational system and shall exercise reasonable supervision and regulation of all educational institutions.

(2) Educational institutions, other than those established by religious groups and mission boards, shall be owned solely by citizens of the Philippines or corporations or association at least sixty per centum of the capital of which is owned by such citizens. The Congress may, however, require increased Filipino equity participation in all educational institutions.

The control and administration of educational institutions shall be vested in citizens of the Philippines.

No educational institution shall be established exclusively for aliens and no group of aliens shall comprise more than one-third of the enrollment in any school. The provisions of this subsection shall not apply to schools established for foreign diplomatic personnel and their dependents and, unless otherwise provided by law, for other foreign temporary residents.

(3) All revenues and assets of non-stock, non-profit

educational institutions used actually, directly, and exclusively for educational purposes shall be exempt from taxes and duties. Upon the dissolution of cessation of the corporate existence of such institutions, their assets shall be disposed of in the manner provided by law.

Propriety educational institutions, including those cooperatively owned, may likewise be entitled to such exemptions subject to the limitations provided by law including restrictions on dividends and provisions for reinvestment.

(4) Subject to conditions prescribed by law, all grants, endowments, donations, or contributions used actually, directly, and exclusively for educational purposes shall be exempt from tax.

Section 5. (1) The State shall take into account regional and sectorial needs and conditions and shall encourage local planning in the development of educational policies and programs.

(2) Academic freedom shall be enjoyed in all institutions of higher learning.

(3) Every citizen has a right to select a profession or course of study, subject to fair, reasonable, and equitable admission and academic requirements.

(4) The State shall enhance the right of teachers to professional advancement. Non-teaching academic and non-academic personnel shall enjoy the protection of the State.

(5) The State shall assign the highest budgetary priority to education and ensure that teaching will attract and retain its rightful share of the best available talents through adequate remuneration and other means of job satisfaction and fulfillment.

LANGUAGE

Section 6. The national language of the Philippines is Filipino. As it evolves, it shall be further developed and enriched on the basis of existing Philippine and other languages.

Subject to provisions of law and as the Congress may deem appropriate, the Government shall take steps to initiate and sustain the use of Filipino as a medium of official communication and as language of instruction in the educational system.

Section 7. For purposes of communication and instruction, the official languages of the Philippines are Filipino and, until otherwise provided by law, English.

The regional languages are the auxiliary languages in the regions and shall serve as auxiliary media of instruction therein.

Spanish and Arabic shall be promoted on a voluntary and optional basis.

Section 8. This Constitution shall establish a national language commission composed of representatives of various regions and disciplines which shall undertake, coordinate, and promote researches for the development, propagation and preservation of Filipino and other languages.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Section 10. Science and technology are essential for national development and progress. The State shall give priority to research and development, invention, innovation, and their utilization; and to science and technology education, training and services. It shall support indigenous, appropriate, and self-reliant scientific and technological capabilities, and their application to the country's productive systems and national life.

Section 11. The Congress may provide for incentives, including tax deductions, to encourage private participation in programs of basic and applied scientific research. Scholarships, grants-in-aid, or other forms of incentives shall be provided to deserving science students, researchers, scientists, inventors, technologists, and specially gifted citizens.

Section 12. The State shall regulate the transfer and promote the adaptation of technology from all sources for the

national benefit. It shall encourage the widest participation of private groups, local governments, and community-based organizations in the generation and utilization of science and technology.

Section 13. The State shall protect and secure the exclusive rights of scientists inventors, artists, and other gifted citizens to their intellectual property and creations, particularly when beneficial to the people for such period as may be provided by law.

ARTS AND CULTURE

Section 14. The State shall foster the preservation, enrichment, and dynamic evolution of a Filipino national culture based on the principle of unity in diversity in a climate of free artistic and intellectual expression.

Section 15. Arts and letters shall enjoy the patronage of the State. The State shall conserve, promote, and popularize the nation's historical and cultural heritage and resources, as well as artistic creations.

Section 16. All the country's artistic and historic wealth constitutes the cultural treasurer of the nation and shall be under the protection of the State which may regulate its disposition.

Section 17. The State shall recognize, respect, and protect the rights of indigenous, cultural communities to preserve and develop their cultures, traditions and institutions. It shall consider these rights in the formulation of national plans and policies.

Section 18. (1) The State shall ensure equal access to cultural opportunities through the educational system, public or private cultural entities, scholarships, grants and other incentives, and community cultural centers, and other public venues.

(2) The State shall encourage and support researches and studies on the arts and culture.

SPORTS

Section 19. (1) The State shall promote physical education and encourage sports programs, league competitions, and amateur sports, including training for international competitions, to foster self-discipline, teamwork, and excellence for the development of a healthy and alert citizenry.

(2) All educational institutions shall undertake regular sports activities throughout the country in cooperation with athletic clubs and other sectors.

The Presidential Decrees affecting the curriculum can be summarized as follows:

A. Presidential Decree No. 6-A (September 29, 1972)
AUTHORIZING THE UNDERTAKING OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS PROVIDING FOR THE MECHANICS OF IMPLEMENTATION AND FINANCING THEREOF, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES.

Section 1. Title - Educational Development Decree of 1972

Section 2. Declaration of Policy - To ensure maximum contribution of the educational system to the attainment of national development goals.

Section 3. Statement of Objectives - Educational system aims to:

- a. Provide a broad general education
- b. Train nation's manpower
- c. Develop high level professions
- d. Respond to changing needs

Section 4. Guiding Principles of the Ten-Year Program:

- a. Improvement of curricular programs and quality of instruction
- b. Upgrading of academic standards

- c. Democratization of access to educational opportunities
- d. Restructuring of higher education
- e. Training middle-level technical and agricultural manpower
- f. Shifting of funding elementary and secondary education from national to local government

Section 9. Appropriations - for the attainment of the objectives of this decree, P500,000,000 will be released out of the National Treasury - P50,000,000 for Fiscal Year 1972-73 and P50,000,000 annually until June 30, 1982

- B. Presidential Decree No. 146 (March 9, 1973)

UPGRADING THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES BY REQUIRING ALL HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES SEEKING ADMISSION TO POST-SECONDARY DEGREE PROGRAMS NECESSITATING A MINIMUM OF FOUR YEARS' STUDY TO PASS A NATIONAL ENTRANCE EXAMINATION AND APPROPRIATING FUNDS THEREFOR.

Section 1. Declaration of Policy. Pursuant to Presidential Decree No. 6-A, it is declared a policy of the State to maintain the highest quality of education for the purposes of national development...

- C. Presidential Decree No. 176 (April 16, 1973)
- IMPLEMENTATION SECTION 8 (7), ARTICLE XV, OF THE NEW CONSTITUTION

The Letters of Instruction affecting the curriculum can be summarized as follows:

- A. Letter of Instruction No. 47
INTEGRATION OF FAMILY PLANNING IN CURRICULA
- B. Letter of Instruction No. 48
ENCOURAGING THE DISCUSSION OF THE

PROPOSED CONSTITUTION IN UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, AND OTHER SCHOOLS

- C. Letter of Instruction No. 51

CREATION OF SPECIAL TASK FORCE TO STUDY SALARY PROMOTION SCHEME FOR ALL PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS

The Department Orders affecting the curriculum can be summarized as follows:

- A. Department Order No. 16, s. 1972 (June 27, 1972)
ADOPTION OF A WORK-ORIENTED CURRICULUM IN OUR SCHOOLS

- 1. Approaches that may be adopted in the re-orientation of the school curriculum to a work-oriented pattern:

- a. Curriculum Enrichment
- b. "Theory-and-Practice Scheme"
- c. Core Curriculum Organization

- B. Department Order No. 15, s. 1973 (April 27, 1973)
REVISED PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND HEALTH, PREPARATORY MILITARY TRAINING AND SCOUTING PROGRAM IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

- 1. Effective school year 1973-74;

- a. P.E. and Health, P.M.T. and Scouting Programs will be divided into two areas:
Youth Development Training and Citizen Army Training I.
- b. Y.D.T. comprises P.E., Health, and Scouting for first, second, and third year students of high school
- c. C.A.T. comprises all fourth year students who will take basic citizen army training for one academic year.

- d. Each high school will create a separate administrative unit headed by a qualified faculty member.

C. Department Order No. 16, s. 1973 (February 21, 1973)

REORIENTING EDUCATION IN THE NEW SOCIETY

1. Policies:
 - a. Curriculum Redirection
 - b. Reforms in teaching methodology and evaluative methods
 - c. Reforms in administrative practices and supplies management
 - d. Code of conduct for school officials and teachers

D. Department Order No. 20, s. 1973 (May 30, 1973)
REVISED SECONDARY EDUCATION PROGRAM, 1973

E. Department Order No. 21, s. 1973 (June 1, 1973)
CLARIFICATION ON THE REVISED PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND HEALTH, MUSIC, P.M.T., and SCOUTING PROGRAM

1. Youth Development Training - The schedule, 40 minutes per period, shall consist of the following:

	First Semester	Second Semester
Scouting	2 days	1 day
P.E.	1 day	2 days
Health	1 day	1 day
Music	1 day	1 day

2. Citizen Army Training - The schedule for both semesters, 40 minutes per period:

C.A.T.	-	2 days
P.E.	-	1 day
Health	-	1 day
Music	-	1 day

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Describe the Development of Curriculum from the Pre-Spanish time to the American Regime.
2. Describe the kind of curriculum developed during the commonwealth.
3. How relevant were these curricula at that time? Give your comment.

Part Two

Philosophic-Theological Dimensions in Curriculum Development

Curriculum development has to depend on philosophy for its fundamental norms. Every curriculum contains the meaning of life resulting from the philosophical thinking of its exponent. Not only that, there is also a theological dimension in every curriculum in the sense that all curricula developed are for man's perfection and the attainment of his ultimate end. Education of the total man implies a concern with his whole person. This concern should become both a deepening and broadening of his entire personality. Furthermore, if education is to be a broadening of his perspectives, then it must extend over his whole life. It must be life-long, permanent, continuing and encompassing his life's experiences.

Man, the target of the curriculum, is a rational animal made up of body and soul. He has God-given potentialities which are subject to full development. It is the role of education to facilitate the development of man's talents. Thus

the aim of education must be the perfection of the complete man. Once this educational goal is formulated, the next step is the means. Herein comes the curriculum which demands first attention, for the curriculum is so dependent on the educational aim that to achieve the former is virtually achieving the latter. Hence, the importance of philosophical-theological dimensions in curriculum development.

4

Philosophical Dimensions in Curriculum Development

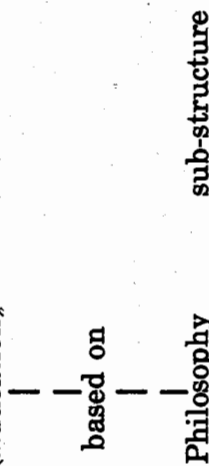
Curriculum Development as an instrument of education is based on philosophy which has man as its focal point. Philosophy studies man not only in himself but also in his relations with reality and in his relations with God. With regard to the first, philosophy is concerned with man's body and mind, passions and emotions, intellect, will and freedom, immortality, values and behavior patterns, culture, history and science. With regard to man's relation with reality, philosophy is concerned with the nature of reality, what man can know. With regard to man's relation with God, philosophy is concerned with God's existence, plan and providence.

Schematically, the philosophical dimensions of curriculum development can be shown as follows:¹

¹The scheme is based on Dr. Emerita Quito's nine-week lectures on the philosophical bases of education at De La Salle Graduate School of Education, 1975.

- Philosophical theories:
of Education:
- 1) Essentialist
 - 2) Progressivist
 - 3) Perennialist
 - 4) Reconstructivist

Curriculum Development super-structure
(Education)



relations with _____ Man, as the _____ God

- Nature of Reality I. Theories re: a) Does He exist?
What can man know? a) Materialist, b) Plan and Behavioral Providence?
Theories of Knowledge b) Evolutionary
c) Existentialist
d) Religious

- II. Theories re: Man as specific
a) mind-body problem
b) passions and emotions
c) intellect
d) will and freedom
e) immortality

- III. Factors that affect man:
a) History-Hegel, Bergson, de Chardin
b) scientific changes
c) cultural changes
d) socio-political
e) behavior patterns
f) values

Various Philosophical Approaches

There are two main approaches in curriculum development. One is the *Essentialist Approach* and the other is the *Progressivist Approach*. The former which is subject-centered and also known as the Traditional Approach, considers the curriculum as something to be learned in a dualistic point of view. It takes the mind and the matter as between the child and curriculum, particular and general, individual and society. However, when there is conflict between the two, the curriculum is always favored over the learner because the learner is considered as ordinarily self-centered and impulsive. Hence, he can not be the best guide. Thus, the learner is fitted into the curriculum. In reality and in practice, this is actually a subject-matter curriculum. Facts and skills are grouped homogeneously into subject fields (e.g. history, science, arithmetic) for the mind can not grasp the curriculum as a whole. But this seems confusing because subjects are supposed to be studied in relation to the whole curriculum and not simply as isolated ones.

Essentialism is based on the fact that the school has always been somewhat rooted in human needs. It errs in the perennialist direction when it misconstrues experience to mean that human need in all particulars has been and always will be the same everywhere. The application of Essentialism out of proportion tends to stack the educational cards toward conservatism, discourage experimentation and progress, obstruct development of other legitimate functions of the school, and thus, diminish the school's net utility and consequence to society.

In *Progressivism*, the learner is viewed in relation to another. Although somewhat dualistic in approach when there is conflict, the child's experience is favored over the curriculum. In this point of view, the child's experience and the curriculum differ more in degree rather than in kind. It is rather seen as a continuity - the learner as starting point and the curriculum as terminal aspect of one reality in the educative process of a living being.

Reconstructionism is a philosophy of magnetic foresight – a philosophy of ends attainable through the development of powerful means possessed latently by the learner. To learn how to exercise that power for these ends is the first priority of an educational curriculum.

The main thesis of the reconstructionist position is somewhat as follows:

1. The transformation of society by technological and scientific revolution is so radical as to require a new moral and intellectual consensus capable of molding and directing this transformation.
2. It is the task of educators to analyze the social trends, to discern the problems society is facing, to speculate on the consequences of the current social dynamics, and to project the values and the goals which need to be sought to maintain a democratic way of life.
3. A continuous critical reexamination of the meaning of the democratic way of life under the altered social conditions is needed.
4. Critical examination and reconstruction of the current problems and conditions, rather than incultation of traditional ideas, must constitute the core of the educational program of today.

Existentialism is a philosophical view which may be defined in various ways, but it does have three basic approaches which characterize the central features:

1. As a new attempt to deal with some old persistent ethico-religious problems.
2. As a group of revolts against the traditional way of thinking.
3. As a historical movement.

With regard to education, Existentialism holds that it is better to work together on the great fronts of human necessity than to divide on abstract issues or semantic hair-splitting. Curriculum needs a philosophical undergirding that stresses

these elements.²

1. A development of both the intellectual and affective potential of man.
2. An attempt to strengthen the conscious control of choice, through the *willed* intelligence.
3. The close interrelationship of means and ends (as with method and content).
4. A recognition of social and cultural forces as well as responsible individualism.
5. The necessity for education to furnish "binders" and "linkages" (respect, communication, love), to establish community, to rescue man from his loneliness, and to prevent social breakdown.
6. The need to bring man's values and value sources to the school.

Trinitarian Scheme of the Curriculum

Since the trinitarian search for the truth, the good and the beautiful is basically the aim of education, the curriculum which is its tool must necessarily be treated in the same manner. Hence, the Trinity scheme of the curriculum: 1) The search for truth: *Theory of Knowledge*; 2) The search for the Good: *Theory of Value*; and 3) The search for Beauty: *Aesthetic Value*.

The beginning point of truth in a curriculum depends on two categories: "Knowing that" or *proposition knowledge* and "Knowing how" or *cognitive action*. The former is derived from the knowledge of the First Principles and from the questions which the educators put. Knowledge from the First Principle is guided by the ascending hierarchy of the subject matter classified from Physical Sciences to Mathematics, Logic to

²Ryland W. Crary, *Humanizing the School Curriculum Development and Theory* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1968).

Metaphysics. The latter or cognitive action in a curriculum pertains to the learning skills. It is obtained in two ways: *empirical approach* and the *conceptual theory*. In the first the truth is discovered by noting what activities a person usually engages in and is later arranged to produce the learner's cognitive experience in each of them.³ In the second, the activities of the student are grouped under conceptual heads and rather than touching the details the emphasis is on the conceptual heads. This is the more practical approach.

In the treatment of subject matter of the curriculum as knowledge, there are two ways:

a) *Reading-to-wear*. In this aspect the subject matter is found, collected, systematized and printed in textbooks, encyclopedias and dictionaries so that the teacher will only make the appropriate selection in advance from this wardrobe of knowledge assigned to a student to acquire and make his own.

b) *Custom-made*. This is centered more on the pupil's problem. The curriculum is made in terms of the pupil's need. Hence there is no ready answer for any problem. No precise formulation is made in the curriculum in advance of the emergence of the problem. The curriculum is unfolded by making a selection from the store-house of culture. The selection of the subject matter is termed knowledge in the form adopted for use and is used only to the extent warranted by its outcome.

Most educators view the subject matter in a curriculum as ready-to-wear knowledge, that is, already with the status of knowledge. The subject matter is held as a truth tempered and hammered on the anvil of experience to as near perfect shape as human effort can bring it. Thus, the function of the school is to teach theory rather than to teach to a learner what to do in a particular and concrete situation. Pure theory is important because it gives the principles and frame of reference by which to organize the particulars of experience.

³J. McCulllan, "Knowledge and Curriculum," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 57 (March 1956), pp. 410-418.

The curriculum is considered as the funded capital of truth when it is taken from the repository of social heritage. There are three philosophical doctrines with regard to the truth of knowledge in the curriculum. They are as follows:

- 1) *Idealists*. Knowledge in the curriculum is true if it achieves consistency among observers. Many researchers use consistency rather than correspondence to test their objectives. To them a test is reliable and objective if the successive impressions of a single investigator tend to be consistent with each other and with those of other investigators operating under the same experimental conditions.
- 2) *Realists*. Knowledge is true if one's ideas correspond to his external reality. This proceeds from the metaphysical theory that there is an objective world independent of a human knower. Pupil 1 learns if his ideas or impressions correspond to this external reality.⁴ Hence, correspondence is a matter of external rather than internal relations. Truth is considered objective preexistent to the learning of it. The person engaged in education research literally finds the truth. The researcher discovers it in cutting through the cover of ignorance or misunderstanding during the period of search. Hence, truth is not temporal but eternal and inimitable.⁵
- 3) *Pragmatists*. Knowledge is true if it is workable. Ideas are true or false only in as much as they clear up some confusions that obstruct educational practice. Truth does not exist, it happens. The test of truth is in its workability.

The curriculum should also be shaped according to *values* as required by the needs of the individual and of the social culture. The needs of the individual can be *prescriptive* and *motivational*. The needs of society are also considered because education occurs in the social matrix.

⁴C. Perry, "Education: Ideas on Knowledge, *Journal of International Ethics*, Vol. 47 (April 1937), pp. 137-138.

⁵*Ibid.*, pp. 239-240.

Flexibility in the curriculum must be held in meeting the individual differences of learners since individuality is the ultimate nature of reality. Hence the curriculum should be broad enough to cater to every learner. He should, however, see the unity that is found in the breaking down into subject matters of the total scope of knowledge like mathematics, language, etc.

There are three doctrines in value theory. They are as follows:

- 1) *Values are internal and subjective.*⁶ These theories are biological and psychological in origin. The value of textbooks, curriculum or laboratories depends on how they satisfy wants and fulfill the needs of the student. They have no inherent values but are mere paraphernalia that are valuable or capable of being valued. Their value is precisely when learners and teachers project their feelings into them. In short, environment is worthless unless the human organism is able to restore his equilibrium when confronted with problems.
- 2) *Values resident in the curriculum are external and objective.*⁷ There is ontology of value with real existence in the laws of nature because everything has form or purpose. For example, the carpenter shapes the wood into a table. The value of the table is in its form and purpose. Therefore value is inherent in human desire; it antedates it.
- 3) *Value is both external and internal like a product of the relation between them.*⁸ Value is made of environment and organism. The nature of interaction is in "interest", meaning "to be between" as the word suggests. Hence this interaction connotes value as the relation between the poles of interest, namely between the learner and curricula. So inter-

⁶M. Hong, *Integration in Christian Liberal Arts College* (College Press, Mnn., 1955), pp. 123-147.

⁷J. Butler, "The Role of Value Theory in Education," *Education Theory*, Vol. 4 (Jan. 1954).

⁸*Ibid.*, pp. 72.

related are the poles that were the reaction to become habitual the resulting habit belongs to the environment as to the organism; to the curriculum as well as to the learner.

According to the first doctrine, values in a curriculum are consummatory when they involve simple and immediate likings. Further, values are consummatory when they satisfy unique wants which cannot be satisfied by any other thing. But satisfying all desires which are consummatory is not enough. There is no time to realize all worthy desires. Hence, there is a need to choose between desires.

To elucidate the matter, let us take a look on the two kinds of educational values: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic or instrumental values are such when they are adjudged as good for something depending on their consequences.⁹ Intrinsic values are adjudged good when their goodness is self-contained, inherent and not contingent. In choosing what is the good thing among desires, the hierarchies of values must be considered. They are as follows:¹⁰

1. Those with external values. The lowest of which is simple, immediate desire or animal desire e.g. spontaneous joy in play, song. The higher values are those rationally adjudged valuable in the light of their consequences and in harmony with the cosmic designs.
2. Those whose intrinsic values are self-contained and not inherent.
3. Temporal values must give way to external values.
4. More inclusive takes priority over the exclusive and many-sided over less-varied.
5. More intellectual content over physical content, as for example, Science has more value than Physical Education.

⁹E. Bayles, "Are Value Verifiable?", *Education Theory*, Vol. 10, (Jan. 1960), pp. 71-77.

¹⁰J. Brubacher, *Modern Philosophies of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1969).

Last but not the least, is the *Aesthetic dimension of curriculum*. The beautiful occupies a great deal in curriculum making. As art occupies a leisure part of life so the beautiful must occupy a leisure part of education. The beautiful can always enrich the aims of the curricular, make them better understood, and increase potentiality.

As a matter of fact, the aesthetic component in curriculum enhances appreciation and fixes the standards of later experience.¹¹ For instance when Mathematics is given its aesthetic component, it can make learning enjoyable because it arouses the affective state of the learner.

In truth and in fact, all subjects have aesthetic values but unfortunately many educators limit aesthetic values to the fine arts. This can be had by emphasizing the aesthetic creation and aesthetic appreciation or creative and appreciative mood. Through the joy of polished performance, a teacher could actually bring the subject matter to such a fine point of perfection that could enhance its appreciative values.¹² Routine, however, is the enemy of artistic teaching. By failing to recognize the uniqueness of the moment of teaching when there is a new set of learners, although with the same subject matter, the teacher could really paralyze the curriculum.¹³

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Describe the two main approaches in curriculum development.
2. Describe the Trinitarian scheme of the curriculum.
3. What is meant by aesthetic dimension of curriculum?

¹¹D. Arnstine, "Shaping the Emotions," *School Review*, Vol. 72, (Nov. 1964), pp. 241-271

¹²H. Rugg, *Culture and Education in U.S.A.* (London: William Ltd., 1972), pp. 364-370.

¹³C. Curran, "Artistry in Teachings," *Education Theory* Vol. 3, (April 1953), pp. 134-149.

5

Theological Foundations Of Curriculum Development

Man is a single unitary being with a duality of composition, a trinity of powers and a supra-sensuous destiny. Since the subject of education, and of curriculum development, is man, we can not be oblivious of the theological considerations during the process of curriculum process.

The triple theological foundations of curriculum development are the following:¹

- 1) *God-centeredness*. In man, body and soul are substantially united. Body and soul interact and are interdependent. The soul which is a spirit is immortal and continues to live. It is destined for an eternal life. A curriculum developed for the perfection of the whole man lacks a strong foundation if it puts aside this theological consideration.

¹Sian Ricarda S., and Regina F. Hernandez, *Principles of Education* (Manila: UST Cooperative), pp. 31-32.

2) *Christ-centeredness*. God's plan and providence can be understood only in the context of time and space. For this reason, He revealed Himself in the person of Christ, His model incarnated in a tangible Personality. Christ Himself said: "I am the Way, the Truth and the Life."

3) *Community-centeredness*. The community or the people of God is the extension of God and Christ through space and time. He continues to be present in the community, which is the connecting link between Him and man. The experience of the community leads naturally to service. God gives His people different gifts not only for themselves but for others. Each must serve the other for the good of all.² The curriculum must have for its aim the building and experiencing of community, and service to others. As Vatican II's Declaration of Christian Education puts it "a true education aims at the formation of the human person to the good of those societies of which as a man, he is a member and in whose responsibilities as an adult, he will share."³

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Enumerate the theological foundations of curriculum development.
2. Explain each theological foundation of curriculum development and provide examples.

²National Conference of Catholic Bishops of America, *To Teach as Jesus Did*, Nov. 1972.

³Vatican II, *Declaration on Christian Education*, Article.

Part Three

Psychological Dimensions Of Curriculum Development

Sound curriculum development can be effected only from a sound psychology of learning. Knowledge about the psychology of the learner and of the learning process is relevant to the three different matters of the curriculum which are as follows:

1. Selection and arrangement of content
2. Choice of the learning experiences
3. Plans for the optimum conditions for learning

The curriculum must be a means of initiating learners into activities and experiences which are worthwhile for them. For this purpose it must draw upon analyses of the nature of learning and the inherent human abilities it intends to develop.

6

The Main Theories of Learning

The different theories of learning can be grouped under three main categories, which are as follows:

- 1) Association Theories
- 2) Field Theories
- 3) Perceptual Theories

Under the *Association Theories*, worth-mentioning is the *Stimulus-Response Theory*, such as Thorndike's *connectionism*. According to Thorndike, the "association between sense impression and impulses to action" is the basis of learning.¹ Conditioning can either be *respondent* or *operant*. The best example of respondent conditioning is Pavlov's experiment. In his original studies, Ivan Pavlov (1927) found that dogs could be trained to salivate to a variety of *stimuli* (anything that produces thoughts, feelings, or actions), such as a tone, a bell, or a touch on the paw. He found that if you repeatedly rang a bell and then presented food to a hungry dog, soon

¹B.F. Skinner, *Cumulative Record; Enlarged Edition* (New York: Appleton-Century Crafts, 1961).

just the ringing of the bell alone was enough to produce salivation. In a series of other experiments, Pavlov and others found that a certain sequence of events seemed to produce the most effective learning.² The major point in this research boils down to this: events that occur repeatedly together or are associated together tend to be connected in such a way that in the future, the happening of one event (or stimulus) will increase the chance of a certain type of response or behavior to occur.

Operant conditioning refers "to the strengthening of a stimulus response pattern by following the response with a reinforcing stimulus."³

Defenders of the Association Theories hold that learning is non-purposive habit formation and is conditioned. Situation and connected response-reward and/or satisfaction reduce the need and hasten the learning or performance. Learning takes place when any change in behavior occurs.

The *Field Theories* descended from the *Gestalt* theory, which holds that experiences, information, and activities group themselves in a pattern or field new to the learner, forming a configuration, or gestalt. It emphasizes "wholes," the grasping of the whole field or idea and its surroundings. The parts get meaning from membership in the whole. It is learning by insight.

The Gestaltist explains learning as the formation of *behavior patterns* according to certain organismic laws—that is, the laws govern the reactions of an organism as a whole. These behavior patterns are interpreted as being an actual growth or maturation of the organism; experience is thus a growth or development of different behavior patterns. Emphasis is put upon the fact that the whole organism is concerned in the formation of these behavior patterns. For example, a movement or muscular co-ordination like writing is a type of *motor configuration* behavior pattern. In perceptual learning, the parts of anything being observed are

²Gerard L. Hershey and James O. Lugo, *Living Psychology* (London: The Macmillan Company, 1970), pp. 48-49.

³E. R., H Hilgard and R.C. Atkinson, *Introduction to Psychology* (4th ed., New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967).

interpreted in the light of the whole' that is, all of the relationships are seen as a whole—a configuration or Gestalt—and the parts take on meaning because of their relation to the whole. Learning to know is, therefore, acquiring behavior patterns that function when a stimulus (itself a configuration) is received and the individual must seek a satisfactory adjustment.⁴

The *Perceptual Theories* consider learning as self-perception. They are more concerned with "knowing" and "perceiving" activities. They believe that learning is part of a larger problem of organization, namely, perceptual organization. Their emphasis is on a functional holistic approach.

Tolman, the foremost exponent of this learning theory, states that the learner is following a sort of map, a cognitive map, which involves learning *meanings*. The organism is learning sign-significate responses, that is, the organism expects one stimulus (the sign) to be followed by another (significate) if a familiar route is to be developed.⁵

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Explain the three main categories of learning theories.
2. Why is a sound knowledge about the psychology of the learner and the learning process important in curriculum development?

⁴Thomas M. Risk, *Principles and Practice of Teaching in Secondary Schools* (3rd ed., New York: American Book Company 1958), p. 54.

⁵R.K. White, "The Case for the Tolman Lewin Interpretation of Learning," *Psychological Review*, 50, 1943 pp. 157-186.

7

The Nature Of Learning

Learning may be defined as a process which brings about a change in the individual's way of responding as a result of practice or other experience¹ or as a relatively permanent change in behavior.² Behavior changes with experience. New patterns of behavior take place when the organism senses its world, interprets it, responds to it, and then responds to the consequences of its own responses. Once the organism has undergone this cycle, it is never again the same. It hereby learns.³

In studying learning, modern psychologists have come to stress the fact that the learner is a unified organism acting in an environmental situation. This shows that learning situations are complex situations, in which many stimuli play a part. Modern psychology also emphasizes the importance of the learner as an intelligent, purposive organism. In curriculum development, we are interested primarily in the

¹F.L. Ruch, *Psychology and Life* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., Inc. 1963), p. 98.

²C. T. Morgan, *Introduction to Psychology* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1961), p. 187.

³J. E. Gaerlan and D.A. Limpingo, *General Psychology*, (Quezon City: Ken Incorporated, 1970), p. 76.

selection of learning experiences that will produce certain desired understandings, abilities, attitudes, habits of behavior or skills. The curriculum maker must see to it that the learner has or will have the experiences that make the acquired responses meaningful.

In interpreting learning as the acquisition of adaptations or response patterns of different kinds, we must have in mind that the learner is an individual whose reactions are affected by many factors—his feelings, motives, wants, purposes, and so on, all conditioned by his previous experience. Wheeler has set forth the importance of this consideration in his "law of configuration":

We propose the law that any reaction of the human organism as a whole is a unified response made to a total situation of some kind, and if to a specific detail, always to that detail in relation to other details. We may call this total situation a stimulus pattern or arrangement of stimuli. This is the law of configuration as applied to conscious behavior.⁴

There are four sets of factors to be considered in every learning situation. They are as follows:⁵

1. The raw data of sense perception from stimuli of the present situation (data furnished by the eyes, ears, sense of touch, and so on).
2. The learnings attached to these stimuli, coming from the past experience of the learner.
3. Data furnished by various organs of the body that are more or less concerned with the learning (movement of arms, legs, trunk, and so on)
4. Feeling-tone (emotional welling-up) resulting from the above, and feeling connected with the present situation or attitudes.

⁴R. H. Wheeler, *The Science of Psychology* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1932), p. 77.

⁵Thomas M. Risk, *Principles and Practices of Teaching in Secondary School* (3rd ed., New York: American Book Company, 1958), pp. 27-28.

Learning Curve

To clarify the nature of learning, let us take a look at the learning curve. This was discovered by Bryan while studying people mastering the telegraph code. His findings were the following:⁶

- a. Learning does not progress smoothly — it has ups and downs; there are good days and poor days.
- b. Learning is rapid during the first few practice periods, then it slows down as the ultimate skill is approached.
- c. There is a plateau in learning, a time when the learner does not seem to improve; he may actually slump downward.

The course of learning and proficiency can be plotted in learning curves. There is a rapid initial rise in the rate of learning. Then a plateau is reached whereby there is no appreciable gain in the skill. No improvement takes place. The rate of improvement tends to slow down and then rise again toward a physiological limit. The level of skill has been reached as far as the nervous system can aspire to. Once the plateau is reached, the standstill can be broken by keeping confident and encouraged, analyzing for better methods and continue keeping on. At times, the best technique involves giving up the work momentarily, and doing something very different like seeing a movie or working on a hobby. A learner may avoid the plateau if he maintains the same level of interest, throughout the task, if he employs the same learning procedure until he reaches his limit, and if he does not take in more than what he can in new materials or assignments.

A learning curve may be a positively accelerated or negatively accelerated curve. It is positively accelerated if the proficiency of the learner increases with more trials or practice. It is negatively accelerated if the change in per-

⁶D. A. Laird, and E. Laird, *Psychology: Human Relations and Motivation* (8th ed., New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967).

formed from the current trial to the next, is always less than the previous. This learning curve may be different for the different kinds of learning. Learning curves plot performance. Performance of a skill, may vary with mood or health or motivation or other factors.

Laws of Learning

The laws of learning are the results of continuous studies and experiments on the learning process. However, psychologists do not agree among themselves regarding the laws of learning, so that laws proposed by one group of psychologists may be rejected wholly or in part by another group. Some laws stress the organization of behavior into habits or associations, while others place emphasis on learning as the achievement of understanding. Nevertheless, psychologists are well agreed on some principles which can serve as guides in curriculum development.

Thorndike formulated three laws of learning: the *law of readiness*, the *law of effect*, and the *law of exercise*.⁷ The law of effect affirms that if the response is rewarded and the reward is satisfying or pleasant, the connection is strengthened; if the effect is unpleasant or annoying, the connection is weakened. Rewards are important for effective learning because of the simple fact that we learn better when we want to. Rewards are effective for learning only if the rewards are important to the person. Praise received from a respected teacher can be an effective reward. Even appropriate rewards are effective only if given at the proper time. The ideal time to give or to receive a reward is immediately *after* the right answer or response has been given.

The law of readiness states that when the learner is set for action, the activity consonant to the set is satisfying; activity inappropriate to the set is annoying or frustrating. Readiness involves the ability to participate effectively in the

⁷Eduard L. Thorndike, *Educational Psychology*, Vol. II, The Psychology of Learning (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1913), pp. 1ff.

desired learning activity. It depends upon the maturity of the individual—physical, mental, emotional, and social — which is a product of inheritance and experience. For example, a learner who does not know the fundamentals of fractions and decimal fractions is not ready for formal instruction in percentage. Such readiness for different kinds of work depends upon both maturity and training. Unfortunately, if we motivate learners to “want to” do work beyond their ability, dissatisfactions will result from their trying to do something for which they are not ready mentally or physically, and learners may become hopelessly discouraged.

The law of exercise states that when certain types of response or adaptations have been acquired, they are strengthened by further use, other things being equal, the more frequently the reaction is repeated, the more firmly fixed the reaction or habit becomes. Likewise, the more recent the exercise or repetition, the more effective or useful the reaction or habit, unless, of course, it is a bad habit.

Various other laws of learning have been proposed by Thorndike and others, among them the *law of frequency*, the *law of recency*, the *law of continuity*, the *law of emphasis*, the *law of cause and effect*, and the *law of similarity and contrast*. Guthrie in his contiguous conditioning theory states that “a combination of stimuli which has accompanied a movement will on its recurrence tend to be followed by that movement.” A stimulus response pattern is learned and improved with practice. Mastery of activity forms the habit and thereby give the customary learning curve. Edward C. Tolman (1886-1959) held that much learning is *sign-learning*, which is an acquired expectation that one stimulus will be followed by another provided a familiar behavior route is taken. Sign learning becomes an acquired expectation that one stimulus will be followed by another, provided a familiar behavior route is taken. Learning goes on in part through automatic processes with little rational direction from the learner and in part through processes in which the learner perceives relationships and acts with knowledge. The Hull-Spence Theory,⁸ a

⁸C.T. Morgan, *op. cit.*, p. 307.

mathematical model/formulated by Clark L. Hull (1884-1952) and Kenneth W. Spence recognized two sets of components in any learned performance: (1) habit strength (sHr), as a result of associative learning under reinforcement; (2) non-associative components, of which (3) drive is the most important. This expresses the *law of habit* formation, which states that, other things being equal, habit strength increases regularly with reinforcement to a maximum of strength.

Conditions Affecting Learning

Let us cite the conditions that affect learning. They are as follows:⁹

1. Learning will be most effective when the learning situations are related to life as realistically as possible.
2. Learning will be most effective when the learner gains confidence in his ability and also acquires favorable attitudes and good work habits.
3. Learning will be most effective when the environment contributes positively to the learning situation.
4. Learning will be most effective when the learning experiences help the learner gain an insight through practical use of the relationship with which he is having experiences.
5. Learning situations will be most effective when they are adapted to the needs, capacities, and interests of learners.
6. Learning will be most effective when the learners feel the need for the experiences and outcomes.
7. Learning will be most effective when the students are free from emotional tensions.

⁹T.M. Risk, *op. cit.*, p. 35.

8. Learning experiences will be most effective if they are adapted to the normal growth of the learners.
9. Learning will be most effective in situations that provide satisfactorily for student participation in planning and learning.

Levels of Learning

Briefly, the four levels of learning are as follows:¹⁰

- 1) *Motor* learning involves muscle control, like learning to jump or run.
- 2) *Sensorimotor* learning is a higher type of learning which requires the cooperation of muscles and senses. Playing the guitar and typing are sensorimotor activities.
- 3) *Ideomotor* learning is the combination of higher thought processes with muscular actions. Stenography and bookkeeping illustrate ideomotor functioning.
- 4) *Ideational* learning is the highest type of learning. It involves the use of ideas and intangible factors and learning to handle people. Muscles are not involved in this type of activity. Philosophizing is a good example of ideational learning.

¹⁰E.C. Ramos and R.J. Sichertman, *Introduction to Human Development* (Manila: Textbook Development Committee, De La Salle College, 1971), p. 59.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. What is learning? Explain.
2. Differentiate the different laws of learning.
3. Name some conditions that affect learning.

8

Curriculum Development And Management Of Learning

Learning is perhaps the most basic of all human experiences. It includes intellectual, emotional, and physical learning. The principles through which old behavior is modified and new behavior or learning is acquired are divided into three areas: (1) the subjective principles which are concerned with what the learner brings to the learning situation and includes self-concept, past experiences, intelligence, motivation, and emotions; (2) the objective principles which deal with factors relevant to learning situations and include rates of learning and forgetting, reviewing, rewards, reward schedules, self-rewards, generalization, and discrimination; and (3) special learning techniques which are used to increase learning efficiency and include massed and distributed learning, feedback, and overlearning.

In summarized form, the subjective principles of learning are the following:

1. New experiences are learned more effectively if they agree with or enhance our self-concept. On the other hand, if a new experience is painful and insulting, we tend to reject or to forget it even if its acceptance would help us to become better persons.
2. What is learned is a combination of the experience itself and the person's previous knowledge about that experience. To learn more effectively, a person should be aware of the influence of his limited and selective personal experiences and to maintain an open and flexible attitude.
3. Although high intelligence or learning capacity helps one to learn, it is not the sole cause of effective learning. Other factors such as confidence, creativity, leadership, and desire to achieve also helps.
4. When a learner is really interested and involved he will learn better.
5. When we are enthusiastic, we tend to learn better. Fearful situations impair learning ability. Mild stress or anxiety may help learning by making the learner more alert.

The objective principles of learning can be summarized as follows:¹

1. People differ in their rate of learning.
2. Forgetting is more rapid than learning.
3. Review is essential to retain what has been learned.
4. Learning is more effective when followed by appropriate rewards.
5. Habits are better formed when the sequence of continuous, intermittent, and variable reward schedules are followed.

¹Gerard L. Hershey & James O. Lugo, *Living Psychology* (London: The Macmillan Company, 1970), p. 52.

6. When the preceding schedules are followed, the behavior can become self-rewarding.
7. Generalization permits the learning of large amounts of information.
8. Discrimination permits appropriate usage of information learned through generalization.

Based on these principles of learning, let us take a look at some techniques of management of learning which should be guidelines for curriculum makers in curriculum development.

Planning the Sequence of Learning

In general, when there is a large amount of information to be learned, such as complex directions, it is best to distribute the total learning time into separate periods. In other words, learning section by section is a better technique than trying to give all the things to be learned at the same time. We call this *distributed practice*. On the other hand, we call *massed practice* learning to solve a problem or learning an entire sequence at one time with no rest or interruptions. Massed practice or practice sessions scheduled all together is not as effective as distributed practice or rest intervals scheduled between trials because in the latter, learning is done by stages. If the task to be learned is lengthy or complex, it is generally best to use distributed practice. However, individual learners may experiment with both procedures to find out which is best for them.

Learning By Feedback

Persons learn better when they are informed as to the correctness or incorrectness of their responses. This process is called *feedback*. Knowledge of results helps them to learn faster because full information is available and the task becomes more interesting. There is much evidence that people learn better when they are constantly informed as to how they

are doing and shown ways to improve.² In one experiment persons were asked to draw three-inch lines while blindfolded.³ Those who were informed immediately on how they were doing showed the best learning. Persons who were not informed about how they were doing showed very poor performance. Learning is superior when one receives continuous feedback regarding his progress.

Integrative Learning

Learning by *wholes* tends to be better than learning by *parts* because one sees the total pictures and understands the material better. It is quite generally agreed that the chief test of the value of what is learned is the ability to integrate it in the whole perspective of the thing. It is essential that the learner perceive the relationship of what is learned to the entirety of the situation or matter. Since this is what makes learning meaningful, the learner must see from day to day how his activity fits into a larger whole or how it is important because of its relation to a bigger picture.

Experimental Approach To Learning

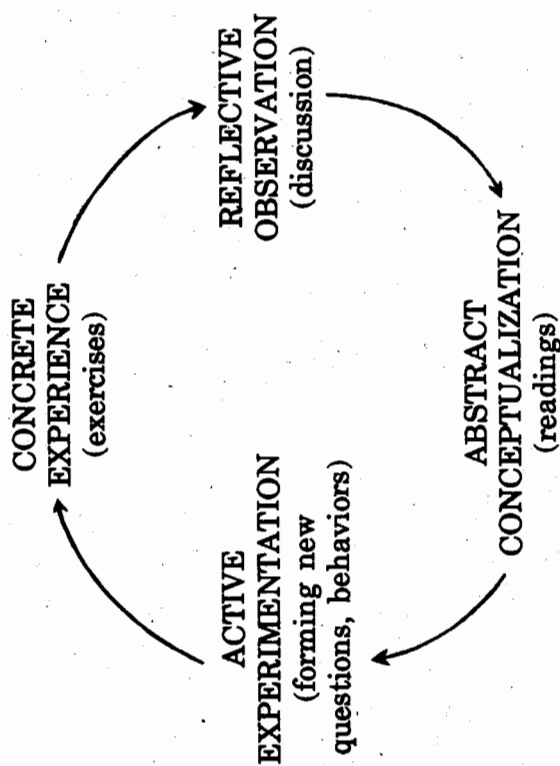
A learning model developed by Kolb, Rubin and McIntyre is the experiential approach to learning.⁴ It focuses on the experiences and reactions of the individuals in the group. The individual learners and not merely the teacher are the sources of data for learning. The emphasis is on the process, not solely on the content hence, it is a process philosophy of education.

²Goldstein and Rittenhouse, 1954.

³Greenpoon and Foreman, 1956.

⁴D. A. Kolb and I.M. Rubin, J. M. McIntyre, *Organizational Psychology: An Experiential Approach* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971), p.

The learning loop involves the following factors:



As shown on the preceding page, the experimental approach initially involves discussing an exercise, case, issue, or a problem to elicit concrete materials and to get the reactions of the learners. Reflective observations done in mini or big groups are discussed and interrelated. Reflections on personal feelings and beliefs, theoretical concepts are crystallized so that one is capacitated to draw his conclusions about his own style of learning, valuing, acting, and experiencing things.

Handouts and lecturettes are distributed to help in the conceptualization of ideas. Hopefully, through reflection and conceptualization, and with one's personal conclusions, learning is transferred from a classroom or group experience to actual work or real-life situations. The learner may then be stimulated to start developing and trying out new attitudes and behaviors or forming new questions about everyday events.

There are five factors used in experiential education as criteria to verify whether it is a useful philosophy of education. They are as follows.⁵

1. *Learning must be Current.*

New ways of doing things are constantly being introduced so that the various disciplines' focus of interest, techniques and sometimes content are changing. For learning to be current one must take into account all these things. Furthermore, being current can also mean the recycling and remodelling of old and perhaps forgotten techniques to fit new needs.

2. *Learning must be Eclectic.*

With the current trend to merge the different disciplines or to use the interdisciplinary approach, there is not one subject matter that can claim that it is the most important of all. It is therefore up to the learner to choose the positive and applicable characteristics from the various disciplines and to merge them into an effective tool.

3. *Learning must be inclusive.*

There is on-going search for new knowledge, hence, all the disciplines must contribute to the discovery of new and more important techniques.

4. *Learning must deal with the Essential, not Structures and Forms*

Experiential education focuses on-the-spot data and analysis, planning, action and evaluation are done on the here-and-now. Action is the focus of learning while reflection of an action can help one learn more effectively.

⁵Robert A. Dow, *Learning Through Encounter* (Valley Forge, Pa: Jualson Press, 1971), p.

5. *Learning must be Dynamic*

To be dynamic one is always growing and alive, hence, learning is an on-going process. Careful planning and control is however necessary for efficient learning.

Dow (1971) says that "experiential education addresses behavior, not attitude; it deals with action, not concepts. It is process philosophy. Its principal thesis is that learning is only learning when it results in some new behavior."

For a person to experience a learning situation in experiential education, he asks himself these questions: What happened or what was really happening? What can we learn that is applicable in other situations? What new things did I learn about myself? Thus, the emphasis is on process and new learning.

Experiential education requires a lot of skills on the part of the teacher. Since it is goal-oriented, the teacher is always ready to learn and is sensitive to the needs of the students. His goals are not his alone, but the goals of the learners. The experiential approach encourages the maximum participation of all learners so that each of them is responsible for his own learning. The teacher creates an atmosphere where learning is non-threatening and the individual is self-motivated. The climate for learning is non-judgmental so that it also encourages respect for the other person. One feels free to discover himself and helps others discover their potentials.⁶

This technique also applies the principles of human development and small group processes. The teacher is expected to be sensitive to the needs of individuals at different stages, capable and knowledgeable in leading groups, developing group cohesiveness, removing blocks to group interaction and permitting participants to play their own respective roles. Even if all these are expected from the teacher, he does not direct activities, he facilitates learning and emphasizes shared leadership.

⁶E.C. Ramos, *Experiential Approach in Learning*. A handout distributed during the Faculty Workshop of De La Salle University, 1975.

The distinct advantage of the experiential approach is the opportunity given to the teacher to grow not merely in knowledge and content but to grow and become a better person because of the spontaneous feedback given by the learners. Since it is an experiential approach, written data is not as clear and meaningful to the potential users, as the actual experience of using the technique.

Recalling and Learning

Recall is a very important factor in learning because the more we can recall effectively the more we learn. There are several ways of recalling. They are as follows:

- 1) *Self-recitation* while the material is being learned. Recall is helped by *recalling during practice*.
- 2) *Overlearning* helps the learner to have a better memory since he can recall more efficiently overlearned materials. Overlearning occurs when we have learned correct responses and we continue to practice the correct response. This technique is useful when correct knowledge is important, such as on a new job or in taking an examination. We want to be sure that we will know what to do even though we will be anxious. Overlearning assures a higher level of performance.
- 3) *Periodic review* helps to cut down the effects of forgetting.
- 4) *Following a logical pattern* makes us remember the materials better.

Guidelines for Curriculum Development

Based on the principles and on what have been discussed in the previous pages, curriculum developers must bear in mind the following guidelines in making a curriculum:

1. A good curriculum must encourage inquiry and creativity.

2. A good curriculum must be democratic with regard to procedures.
3. A good curriculum must accept individual differences.
4. A good curriculum must take into consideration scientific and scholarly techniques and findings.
5. A good curriculum must minimize memorizing and maximize discovery.
6. A good curriculum must take into consideration the potential for achievement through either the individual learner or the group.
7. A good curriculum must employ teacher resources in a multi-dimensional role.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. What are the subjective and objective principles of learning?
2. Enumerate the guidelines to be observed in making a curriculum.
3. Discuss briefly the following terms.
 - a. Learning must be current.
 - b. Learning must be eclectic.
 - c. Learning must be dynamic.

Part four

Social Dimensions In Curriculum Development

There is a story, often repeated in Tanzania, about the Christian missionaries who took over the schooling in a Wachagga village and taught with great zeal the basic skills of reading, writing, arithmetic, and reverence for the Lord. The missionaries did a fine job, sanctified by their own zeal, and when they left, all the young Wachaggans in the village had mastered the basics and could read, write, do arithmetic, and revere. By "all the young Wachaggans," we mean the sole two youngsters who accidentally survived the lions, sharks, drought, heat, European clothing, etc. This experience gave rise to the old Tanzanian proverb, "Caveat discipulus," which translates roughly "Beware of pedagogues peddling basic skills."

The Wachaggans, in their savage innocence, recognized too late a truth about education which is overlooked by an equally overwhelming number of curriculum developers in their civilized ignorance: That the kind of education, and therefore, of curriculum, in any society is determined by the

actual nature of that society itself and not by misperceptions or well-intentioned wishes about the nature of that society or culture. Like the Wachagans, we are in danger of developing an irrelevant curriculum unless we examine the nature of our culture and society as they exist and the nature of the forces which set its tone and emphases before we decide upon the education needed. Education must start and end on native grounds. This, however, is not to say that everything foreign must be eschewed; it only means that such adaptations of foreign sources could only play a supplementary and subsidiary role — and even at that, they should be adapted to the national needs and aspirations of the borrower country.

9

Education, For Society Or For The Individual?

One of the main functions of education is to prepare the individual to become a useful member of society.¹ By means of socialization as an educative process, the learner socializes with others and takes the roles expected of him in view of his social position. Every individual learns the behaviors required by his culture. Learning or education is defined as the way in which an individual acquires socially standardized behaviors. Among these are not only the approved ways of behaving and believing but also modes of thought and concepts which direct perception and understanding. This behavior, which may be both individual and culturally shaped, has sufficient regularities to make it amenable for explanation, understanding, and scientific investigation. Thus, the learning process is primarily social. The innate tendencies of a learner are modified, suppressed, or encouraged according to social demands around him. The individual internalizes the demands of his surrounding culture.

¹B.H. Meltzer et al., *Education in Society: Readings* (U.S.A.: Vail-Vallow Press, Inc., 1958), p. 139.

²Ivan Illich, *Deschooling Society*, *World Perspective*. Vol. 4 Edited by Ruth Nanda Anshen, (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1971), p. 41.

While the above-mentioned statements are generally accepted there are others, however, who ask this question: "Will the dominant change." Throughout life there are circumstances in which the individual can not have his own way. The needs of society must receive consideration. The purposes and desires of the people in the society where he belongs are in the forefront. The individual must weigh his own needs, consider the others' demands and then implement behavior that maintains harmony. Basic to this harmonization is the capability of the individual to know himself, to have integrated his experience and to be able to affirm his own values and goals. In this perspective, the individual sizes up the dimensions of society. He still has control over his own person and decision.

In curriculum development, the social phenomena must be taken into consideration, without forgetting that the individual must maintain his identity and individuality. The curriculum must assist the individual to understand the process of harmonization and to develop a repertoire of behaviors that will serve in a broad range of situations such as compassion, understanding, sensitivity, awareness, affection, acceptance, initiative and inquiry. The curriculum must foment a reasonable conformity to social norms and standards without going against individual expression. There must be *choice up to a point*.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Is education a preparation for individual self-development or for the individual's usefulness in a society?

10

Philippine Social Realities Affecting The Curriculum

The Philippine society today is different in many respects from what it was fifty years ago.

The Philippines is now politically independent — in fact a full-fledged Republic. We now have direct relations with most foreign countries including Red China and Russia on the basis of equality, reciprocity and dignity. Because of our beliefs and commitments to the democratic way of life we are now ranged against the other half of this divided world in a conflict which is ideological, economic, educational, political, moral, cultural and religious.

Our population has grown steadily from a few millions in 1900 to over 60 million as projected by the National Census and Statistics by 1989. But the production of our food supplies has not kept pace with the unabated increase of population. This imbalance has given birth to many intricate social problems the solution of which demand utmost resourcefulness in leadership and unflagging support in fellowship. The increase in population, unaccompanied by widespread enlightenment and a corresponding improvement in the eco-

nomic position of the individual and the greater part of society, generated pressures and created more problems never before encountered by our people. We now have a growing middle class — one not quite sizeable but certainly growing in number, in quality and in influence. An increasing number of Filipino physicians, nurses, educators, technicians, researchers and government career men are now going abroad and receiving advanced training in foreign countries.

Different means of communication, transportation and travel in our country have increased in number and have become faster and cheaper. Today, we have more newspapers, magazines, books and radio receiving sets. We also have televisions. There are more movie houses today both in the cities and in the provinces where foreign and locally produced pictures are regularly scheduled.

We now have thousands of both public and private schools, colleges and universities. Illiteracy has been reduced considerably. Various industries, some locally capitalized, and others foreign-owned, have grown in our countryside. Medical science has brought to our people the blessings and risks in the use of new wonder drugs.

Curriculum developers must have in mind that the problems of society are the problems of education. Education can not be divorced from the economic, political and social realities of a country. Any society in order to progress economically, must progress educationally. Industry needs to indicate the direction and dimensions of educational progress for manpower development. The question is, does such hold true in the Philippines or does it follow a reverse pattern, that is, that educational progress runs ahead of economic development? Is our curriculum relevant to the present society? Are our curricular offerings so prepared that their goals are made relevant to the economic demands of the society, not only for the present but also for the years to come?

Education must enrich society, improve the living conditions of its people, and make possible its optimum development. Herein lies the importance of the orientation, organization, enrichment, adaptation and development of the local curriculum. The curricular offerings must be made relevant

to the economic demands of society if we are to achieve the goal of producing people who are to provide direction and guidance in the operation of commerce and industry. Technical skills, researchers for the discovery of new products, constant improvement of technological procedures and needed managerial pool must be taken into consideration by curriculum developers in the Philippines.

Stress on studies and activities, related to history, values, social and economic life from the viewpoint of the Filipinos are factors for consideration. The curriculum must provide abundant materials to promote the unity of the people such that it should embody the latest gains in Science since it must give an education for effective participation in the modern society. Most of our degree courses are patterned abroad without adequate local study as basis.¹

The curriculum must keep up with the changing political, economic, and social conditions of the country. In the New Society, attempts have been made to reorient the curriculum in both content and emphasis on liberal education providing balance between academic learnings and work experiences for the development of leaders and creators of job opportunities. The new program is being redirected to ensure a greater recognition of the value of hard and honest work, unlike in the past when the emphasis was on languages and academic excellence.²

Economic development plan must be taken into consideration in order to draw guidelines for curriculum development.

The Filipino's increasing dislike for colonial mentality is an indication that the curriculum must be redirected to Philippine culture.³ Different groups have arisen to voice ambitious development goals. Our national history and

¹Isidro Atencio and Maximo D. Ramos, *Private Colleges & Universities in the Philippines* (Quezon City: Alemar's Publishers, 1973), p. 58.

²Manuel Juan L., *Source Book in Philippine Education* (Quezon City: Alemar's Phoenix Publishing House, Inc., 1972).

³Serrano, Lourdes G. "The Need To Reorient Management Program in the Business Collegiate Curriculum," *Comment*, The Graduate School West Negros College, Bacolod City, June 20-21, 1975.

character, socio-economic structure and broad social welfare measures have been emphasized. Much of the burden of bringing such goals to reality has fallen upon the schools. Evidently, if the schools are to carry out these changes, they must effect widespread curriculum change. Regarding this matter, we must recognize that the Philippines' chief characteristic is her cultural diversity, that her strength does not lie in being a tasteless, odorless melting pot. In the task of redirection to Philippine culture, the initial thrust would probably be to prepare textbooks and teaching materials oriented to Philippine setting, based on native business, economics, political and social conditions.

Because the Philippines is basically agricultural and there is urgent need for an expansion of agricultural production and mechanized farming, curriculum developers must take this into consideration. The curriculum must prepare the Filipinos to meet the growing agricultural needs.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Discuss the social realities affecting the curriculum.
2. Explain the statement "The problems of society are the problems of education."

11

Guidelines To Social Considerations In Curriculum Development

In summarized form, here are some guidelines to social considerations in curriculum development:

1. There are basic agencies in society that demand from educational curriculums some special skills, attitudes and knowledge. They are the family, the church, the state, economic agencies, non-commercial community and other social agencies.
2. School curriculum developers must take into consideration not only national and international needs but also local, regional and provincial needs.
3. In the efforts of curriculum developers to gear the curriculum toward the establishment of a sense of identity among Filipinos, cultural pluralism should be respected, thus taking into consideration the rich cultural heritage of all Filipinos, including the minorities.

4. Curriculum development must draw upon analyses of society and culture, of Filipino tradition and heritage, social pressures and established social habits. We must ask what the demands and requirements of culture and society are, both for the present and for the future.

5. The curriculum must prepare the learners to participate as productive members of our culture. Not all cultures require the same kind of knowledge. Nor does the same culture need the same kinds of capacities and skills, intellectual or otherwise, at all times. An analysis of culture and society thus provides some guide for determining the main objectives of the curriculum, for the selection of content, and for deciding what to stress in learning activities.

6. Diagnosing of the gaps, deficiencies, and variations of the backgrounds of Filipino students is an important step in determining what the curriculum should be.

7. The task of selecting and organizing learning experiences in curriculum development must take into consideration the culture of society.

8. Society's concept of the function of the school determines to a great extent what kind of curriculum schools will have. Current conceptions of the functions of the school by society are as follows:

a. *Education preserves and transmits the cultural heritage.* Since all cultural traditions have roots, cultural continuity is possible only if education preserves this heritage by passing on the truths worked out in the past to the new generation, thus developing a common cultural background and loyalties. In the main the transmission of the accumulated wisdom of the race and of basic truths and value is emphasized.

b. *Education is an instrument for transforming culture.* Education can and does play a creative role in

modifying and even reshaping the culture in which it functions. Education and public policy are intimately related, and progress in one is limited without progress in the other. They maintain that education must deal with the needs of current culture and even help shape the future.

c. *Education results in individual development.* Some progressive educators emphasize the creative role of education in society by stressing the development of a creative individual. This point of view centers educational effort on the development of all the powers of the individual, especially his creative imagination, his physical and emotional powers.

9. To establish what demands society makes on education and what contribution education can or should make to culture, especially in a complex and changing society, is not an easy task. Thus, a continuous examination of the goals and demands of this changing society and of the forces operating in it is in order to keep the curriculum reality-oriented: to determine what knowledge is most worthwhile, which skills must be mastered, which values are relevant.

10. In order to develop an adequate curriculum, a sustained study of the culture in which education functions and a sustained effort to mobilize the resources of the social sciences such as biology, anthropology, sociology and social psychology and to translate whatever is learned about society or culture into educational policy are needed. The best thinking of our generation in determining what society is and needs, and which of those needs education can serve must be enlisted.

11. One way of gaining social perspective in curriculum development is by analyzing the impact of technology and the changes it has produced or is producing in society. Expansion of technology has brought vast changes in what modern man is required to do. The extension of transportation and communication now requires man to take into account a physical environment which "includes the whole earth, and perhaps outer space." Many sources attest to the disorganizing effects of technology on man and his values and insti-

*Taba, Hilda, *Curriculum Development Theory and Practice* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1962), p.

tutions. It has produced a dangerous confusion of values and beliefs. How one views the role of education in a technological society of the near future depends on how deeply curriculum developers have contemplated the nature of the pending changes.

12. There are new conditions which set new tasks for curriculum developers:

1) A tremendous enlargement of the environment to be understood and the culture to be transmitted. There is an unprecedented expansion of knowledge. According to J.C. Licklider the amount of information available to the literate world doubles every fifteen years or so.² Never before have curriculum developers faced such a sea of data while trying to answer the question: "Of all the knowledge in the world, which should be taught and in which schools?" If data is increasing that fast, curriculums must be updated to at least communicate a small percentage of this new facts. The curriculum must be modified to accept these facts. A good example of this increasing knowledge, for instance, is the wide acceptance of computers in business. The masteral program in business offers computer technology in some Philippine colleges.

2) An ever increasing demand for increasingly skilled and literate workers. As new occupations have sprung up, demands have been made on the educational institutions to prepare the nation's workers. The classified ads section of our dailies shows an abundant demand for analysts (financial, marketing, production, etc.) which necessitates action from the curriculum developers.

3) The necessity for the establishment of intercultural communication among the diverse cultures as a basis for building a world and national community.

²As quoted in Lourdes G. Serrano, "The Needs to Reorient the Management Program in the Business Collegiate Curriculum", *Comment, The Graduate School, West Negros College, Bacolod City*, June 20-21, 1975, p. 29.

Herein enters the necessity of a critical analysis of the institutional reality, the activation of human concern, the opening of communication, the clearing of channels, the recognition of the interdependence of nations, the development of comprehensive learning situations designed to tap the range of relevant experience and to nurture the range of the human potential, an analysis of available research bearing upon institutional choice, a critical appraisal of established subjects with respect to their significance, relevance, and potential.

4) The difficulties involved in sustaining wide latitudes of free individual choice in a world of magnified power and shrunken space and time. There is competition among nations, school systems, provinces and among individuals. Competing nations vying for technical and industrial supremacy have revised their science and technical curriculums to best their rivals. Competing schools have launched dynamic and innovative curriculums.

Shifts in political control of a nation, province or community in themselves may cause curriculum changes. The incoming political power may seek to alter the school curriculum so as to bring them more in line with their social and political beliefs, just as we are now taking among others Family Planning, the New Constitution, Land Reform and others.

In school districts, the school administrator or regional director or the officer-in-charge of higher education may harbor educational ideas that differ from current practice and all this may come to institute curriculum changes.

5) A constantly accelerating rate of change which makes forecasting hazardous and outspeeds the efforts of education to draw abreast of needs. Robert

²As quoted in L.G Serrano, op. cit., p. 33.

Hutchins believes that the aim of an educational system is the same in every age and in every society where such system can exist; *it is to improve man*.³ While this general objective is true in every age, the realization and details of this objective depends a lot on the changes of reality. The curriculum must be geared to the creation of minds which can cope with the problems of living in a rapidly changing world. There is need for thinking in terms of multiple causation and multiple consequences, for an ability to deal with the ambiguities and uncertainties of the future in place of certitudes regarding past phenomena. Curriculum developers should devise a means for shortening the cultural lag between social realities and cultural attitudes, between beliefs and expectations, by preparing the learner for living in a changing society. Ideas and facts from the behavioral sciences should be translated into their educational implications, that is, into questions and suggestions regarding educational practices, the conceptions of the educational tasks, and the ideas about the curriculum and instruction.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Enumerate the functions of the school as conceived by our present society.
2. What are the new tasks besetting curriculum developers today?

Part Five

Methodological Dimensions In Curriculum Development

The process of curriculum development cannot be thought of in terms of the production of typical courses of study or printed guides, the pre-selection of subject content, or the adoption of uniform textbooks. These concepts of curriculum development are passe.

Curriculum development is a complex undertaking that involves many kinds of decisions. Decisions must be made about the general aims which the schools are to pursue and about the more specific objectives of instruction. The major subjects of the curriculum must be selected, as well as the specific content to be covered in each. Decisions must be made about the choice of the type of learning experiences with which to implement both the content understanding and other objectives. There must be an evaluation of what learners are

achieving and the effectiveness of the curriculum in attaining the desired objectives and ends. Last but not least, a choice must be made regarding the over-all pattern of the curriculum.

There are at least three facets to curriculum development: a continuous appraisal of the existing program in terms of emerging needs; changes where evaluation indicates they are required; and the operation of an effective on-going educational program while making changes.

According to Bernardino and Fresnoza, curriculum development involves the following activities: (a) planning the experiences to be utilized, (b) organizing them into a program, (c) implementing this program, and (d) evaluating the curriculum which was thus developed.

Since curriculum development is a task which requires orderly thinking, we must examine both the order in which decisions are made and the way in which they are made to be sure that all relevant considerations are brought to bear on these decisions. The suggested order might be as follows¹:

- Step 1: Diagnosis of needs
- Step 2: Formulation of objectives
- Step 3: Selection of content
- Step 4: Organization of content
- Step 5: Selection of learning experiences
- Step 6: Organization of learning experiences
- Step 7: Determination of what to evaluate and of the ways and means of doing it.

Before we discuss each of these steps, let us first examine the nature of curriculum planning, how to implement curriculum changes and the different approaches to curriculum design.

¹Taba, Hilda *Curriculum Development Theory and Practice* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1962), p. 8.

12

Curriculum Planning

The need for exactness and particularity in making decisions about ends and means demands scientific curriculum planning. In the Philippines, a growing awareness of a need for rational curriculum planning is manifested in concerted efforts towards generating specific and precise educational ends.

Developing a curriculum rationally involves two factors: (1) identifying relevant substantive decisions at increasing levels of specificity and precision and (2) checking for consistency between and among the ends-and-means decisions by a two-way process of derivation and evaluation at each stage and by referring to data sources for basic information.¹

Curriculum planning as we have defined it in the beginning of this book is the process whereby the advance arrangement of learning opportunities for a particular population of learners is created. The trend in approaches to curriculum planning is to give as wide as possible a participation in planning by all persons professional and lay who are affected. Decisions in the curriculum are made on several different levels. Some decisions about what content to include in the curriculum are made by state legislations, such as

¹Dolores G. Garcia, *Curriculum Theory Application* (Quezon City, Philippines: Phoenix Press, Inc., 1973), p.

requirements to teach the New Constitution. Still others emanate from the Department of Education and Culture. Others are made by the school regions or districts. Many decisions which shape the functioning curriculum are made by local schools and by teachers, either in groups or individually.

Basically, there are two major issues as to who plans the curriculum which should be considered at this point as we are examining the nature of the curriculum planning process.² They are as follows: (1) national or state and local curriculum control; and (2) the relationship of laymen, academic scholars, and elementary school secondary school and collegiate educators in curriculum planning.

The existing uniformity and the national influences in the curriculum are frequently cited as an argument for stronger national curriculum control. However, many curriculum leaders have observed that real progress in curriculum development is on a broken front. Schools do not achieve minimum or other standards at the same time. Neither do they develop with equal interest and success new ventures in the curriculum. Due recognition to the role of local and regional experimentation in curriculum development must be granted.

Open-mindedness is an indispensable characteristic in those who plan the curriculum. An understanding of the values of the past practices and of school and community traditions is important. Adherence to traditional practices gives stability and continuity to the school program; curriculum leaders, however, need constantly to analyze and evaluate all aspects of the program of schools to make certain that only the best program is provided, and to avoid inhibiting the acceptance of new ideas.

Many forward-looking curriculum planning groups reckon public opinion as carefully as possible. The usual expressions of public opinion through communications to the

²J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander, *Curriculum Planning for Modern Schools* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966).

board of education and school personnel, statements in public meetings, "letters to the Editor," and the more occasional public opinion polls are very important data for curriculum planners. Also it would seem to behoove curriculum planning groups to establish clear-cut channels through which organized special-interest groups can present their proposals for curriculum change for consideration.

Well-founded criticisms on the curriculum and education must be listened to by curriculum planners. Remediation of curriculum ills strengthens the school program. In addition to this, curriculum leaders should study critically and thoroughly educational practices in other countries of the world, seeking to find plans, methods, and programs that will be useful in improving the curriculum of our country. There is wisdom in adopting relevant foreign educational practices in the Philippines so that we as a people are not to become a closed society that resists change and experimentation. Russia, for example, has something to contribute to our thinking on the relation of education to national purpose; England, on the education of the intellectually talented; Germany and Finland, on vocational education; the Scandinavian countries, on adult education; and so on.

The use of research in curriculum planning is a twentieth-century development. Research affects curriculum decisions in many ways. First, either sound proposals presented for consideration by curriculum planning groups are based on research or they are hypotheses to be tested by actual tryout in the school program. Second, those who engage in curriculum planning can do their jobs much more efficiently if they are aware of, or at least review, studies of available research relating to their ideas for curriculum change. Third, curriculum planning is frequently adversely affected by the absence of research to justify existing practices. Foundations too may have direct influence on curriculum planning in the sense that their support of particular research projects and individual programs within school systems may have direct bearing on the curriculum. National curriculum projects designed to develop new organizations of curriculum content and new instructional materials are important for curriculum developers. It is worth-mentioning that most of the recent

significant research which has helped to shape the curriculum has come out of colleges and universities. The educational profession is itself a force which affects curriculum planning since the tendencies of the professionals to develop sets of beliefs and practices constitute possible limitations on curriculum development.³

Testing programs and standardized test data have to be considered by curriculum planners along with many other types, including the comparison of local arithmetic goals and those of the test makers, the backgrounds of local pupils and of the population on which the norms were based and needs in arithmetic as compared with those in other curriculum areas. Curriculum planners certainly need data about pupil achievement in making their decisions as to curriculum needs and achievements. One large area of policy making must deal with curriculum evaluation, including the evaluation of pupil progress. Such a policy should include criteria for the selection and use of tests, and means of helping teachers use tests in the diagnosis of pupils' learning successes and difficulties. Accrediting associations render also services to curriculum planners in the sense that they delineate somehow the standards for effective education.

The learners' needs, the culture, the society and the teachers are other factors to be considered in curriculum planning. Curriculum planning should be made by those most directly involved in the carrying out of learning activities for pupils: teachers, school administrators, boards of education, and parents. These participants in curriculum planning should acquaint themselves with the great body of literature available and with the views of national and international educators and leaders who have established themselves as insightful and scholarly authorities in education. They should study researches, evaluate experiments, judge innovations, read reports of organizations, listen to comments and criticisms, examine projects sponsored by the government or foundations, and in any other feasible ways become highly

³Paul R. Klorth and Jack R. Frymier, "Curriculum Development: Dynamic of Change," *Review of Educational Research*, 33:318, June, 1963.

knowledgeable on educational matters, but those directly involved in the operation of schools in the country should make the decisions necessary for the education of the learners.

Lastly, it must be stressed here that any curriculum study must not be done on a trial-and error basis and the leadership must be protected against such waste by a deep respect for and knowledge of educational research in the field in question and by proper organizational procedures provided at the central source. Curriculum planning through in-service programs is under the leadership of the staff and administrative officers who are responsible for the supervision of instruction. The work of an in-service study group is neither an end in itself but rather a means of instructional improvement. In case the in-service group intends to develop teaching guides or other materials to be used in the curriculum, provisions should be made for the actual use of such materials by the teacher-recipients.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Discuss briefly the important considerations in curriculum planning.
2. How do accrediting associations render services to curriculum planners.
3. Why is open-mindedness an indispensable characteristic among those who plan the curriculum?

13

Implementing Curriculum Change

There are some considerations involved in implementing curricular change. There is a need for carefully planned programs of change in the curriculum. There must be an examination of the place of formative process, and summative evaluations of curriculum programs and of the practical materials for the actual process of installing new curricula in schools.¹

Change And The Curriculum Development

Before he can develop the skills needed to manage programs of innovation, a curriculum developer must have some knowledge of the change process itself. He must plan for the consequences that arise from the different change strategies employed. His effective curriculum change program must maintain the relevance of the schools to the current needs of society.

¹Warren Mellor, "Implementing Curriculum Change," *Educational Management Review Series*, Number 20, (August 1972), pp. 1-2.

Knowledge acquired through the behavioral sciences provides some guidelines for programs of change. One of the concerns of a curriculum innovator is personnel administration as it relates to educational change. He looks, also, at the characteristics of innovation, the adoption of an innovation, and the ways in which some innovations are implemented on a broader scale.

Specialist personnel must be employed if full benefit is to be obtained either from the planning process or from the implementation of plans once developed. At the same time, administrative leaders should be involved in developing policies. In fact, if curriculum leaders adopt a planning outlook involving as many people as possible, a system of "rolling reform" can develop. Such programs, particularly in curriculum, will enable schools to become more vital and relevant institutions.

Management of Change³

Change is defined as any alteration in the properties of one or more system elements; the number of system elements; the relationship between system elements; the properties of the client system as defined by the analyst, and the relationship between the client system and its environment.

Client systems are defined as any recipient of a change element; any group of system elements characterized by natural boundaries (a school, a community, a nation, etc.); any group of system elements enclosed by arbitrary boundaries established by the analyst, and any group of system elements directly or indirectly affected by a change element.

System elements are defined as discrete phenomena, whether material (buildings, students, people, pupils, etc.) or immaterial (ideas, attitudes, values, etc.) that are interrelated and can be considered parts of client systems.

³M.V. Salazar, *Conceptual Model Management of Change*, Air Transport Course, September, 1972.

Change element is defined as a material or immaterial phenomenon that is foreign or new to the client system (this includes new combinations of system elements, i.e. new relationships).

Change agent is defined as the carrier of a change element (whether or not he is conscious of his role as such). This term is applied only to human beings.

Resistance to change is defined as efforts by the client system or of individual system elements to frustrate or slow the introduction of a change element or to alter its properties.

The *Change Process* may be described as follows:

- A. The change element appears in the environment of a client system.
- B. The change element is "carried" into the client system by a change agent (consciously or unconsciously).
- C. The client system reacts in any of the following ways:
 1. by rejecting the change element
 2. by accepting the change element
 3. by accommodating itself to the change element
 4. by altering the properties of the change element.

Another model of the change process traces the path of a change element from the environment to personal value systems:

- A. The change element appears in the environment, altering its properties.
- B. Client systems adjust their structures (properties of systems elements, number, positioning, relationships) to adapt to the new environmental requirements.
- C. Individual human beings within the client system adjust their behavior to the requirements of the new structure.

D. The new behavior patterns are institutionalized as "fixed" by a corresponding adjustment in attitude, sentiments and values.

In the implementation of curriculum change, it is suggested that curriculum leaders of planners follow the analysis sequence stated below:

A. Identification of factors:

1. What (or who) is the client system? What are the relevant system elements? Where do we draw the boundaries?
2. What is the change element? What are its antecedents or sources?
3. Who is the change agent?
4. How is the change element being received? What is going on?

B. Analysis of client system:

1. Identification of system elements
2. description of their characteristics and properties
3. description of relationships between system elements (dependence, interdependence, conflict, etc.)
4. relative potencies of system elements (Which is strongest? Weakest?) and internal power structure.

C. Analysis of change element:

1. How *pervasive* is it (i.e., what side effects will it have)? Can these be reduced?
2. How *risky* is it (to the client system)? Can it be taken in small doses (divisibility)? Can it be "re-turned" (reversibility)?
3. How *profitable* is it to the client system? Can profitability be increased?

4. How *communicable* is it? Can it be demonstrated rather than merely described?
5. How *plastic* is it? How much distortion can it stand before losing its value?

D. Analysis of change agent:

1. conscious or unconscious effort
2. motives
3. status and position in client system

E. Prediction of the change process outcomes:

1. What is the predicted reaction of each system element and of the client system to the change element and to the change agent?
2. How will the change element and the change agent alter the properties or relationships of system elements?
3. What resistances are predicted from each system element? What form do they take? Why?
4. What are the possible distortion effects of resistances on the change element?
5. Predictions should be on short-run or long-run basis.

F. Rational Intervention (Management of Change)

1. What will be considered tolerable end results? Short-run, long-run?
2. What should be the strategy for intervention? Short term? Long term?
3. How can resistance be overcome?
4. Program the intervention process.

Strategy for Curriculum Change

Curriculum change requires a systematic sequence of work which deals with all aspects of the curriculum ranging

from goals to means. The last decade has not only brought many changes in curriculum content methods and practices; it has also forced some radical alterations in the concept of the curriculum.

Curriculum change must be goal-directed. A strategy for curriculum change involves creating conditions for productive work. Effective curriculum change involves a large amount of training. Change always involves human and emotional factors. Curriculum change requires many kinds of competencies in different combinations at different point of work.

Managing curriculum change requires skilled leadership. How people react to proposed changes is greatly influenced by the kind of climate for change that the curriculum leader has created. He must begin by having the enthusiasm for progress and change which builds a healthy climate. A dynamic school will be constantly seeking and introducing new methods, new standards, new ways of learning. There must be an enthusiastic support for these changes. Creating the right climate is more than just passing changes on. It involves encouraging teachers to seek ways of improving their jobs. Seeking suggestions and ideas from people requires that a curriculum leader listen and seriously consider suggestions.

When major curriculum changes are to be installed, careful planning and preparation are necessary for success. Here, then, are six steps that curriculum leaders have found helpful in initiating major changes.

1. Get ready to sell

Much of the difficulty a curriculum leader encounters in getting cooperation stems from the people's lack of understanding of how the change will affect them. With a little effort he can find most of the answers to the people's questions before they are even asked. What is the reason for the change? Whom will it benefit and how? Will it inconvenience anyone and for how long? Will training or retraining be necessary? How will the training be carried out? Will earnings be effected? When does it go into effect? Will there be a transition period when ad-

justments can be made? Armed with the answers to these questions, a curriculum leader can head off many objections and can develop a plan to present the change.

2. Identify sources of help

Why should a curriculum developer shoulder the burden alone? Staff people can frequently be a great help in preparing to sell a change by explaining technical aspects and demonstrating new techniques. Instead of fighting them it would be smarter to recognize the potential staff specialists have for helping initiate a change. After all, the long-range responsibility of staff specialists is also to promote a progressive, productive, profitable institution.

One of the most overlooked sources of help in intruding changes are the informal leaders in the institution. With their help the job becomes easier. Giving recognition to the leader puts him in a cooperative frame of mind and on the curriculum developer's side. He maintains and strengthens his leadership.

3. Anticipate objections.

Change that upset routine, require new knowledge or skills, or inconvenience people who are bound to meet with some objection or resistance. Looking at a change from the teachers' point of view will usually be enough to help determine what their objections are likely to be. Knowing the objections, we can, with little creative thought, turn these objections into advantages. We can not force people to our way of thinking. If we want cooperation not just grudging compliance, we must win it. People are going to have to be made to feel that the change is really best for them, and that will not happen until their objections are seriously dealt with.

4. Sell benefits

Everyone is concerned with "What's in it for

me?" "Will the change mean more satisfying work, greater security, an opportunity to show what I can do, more responsibility, more pay, less fatigue, less confusion, greater independence?" The benefits used to motivate people to cooperate should be put on as personal a level as possible. It would be dishonest, however, not to recognize any disadvantages that a change may bring. These can usually be countered with long-range benefits.

5. Listen in depth

People affected by the curriculum change have a right to be heard. Their questions may be their way of demonstrating interest in their jobs or a means of making suggestions which would facilitate the change. If people concerned are treated with respect, like an equal, they probably will respond in kind. They will feel better, too, if they know their concerns have been considered.

6. Follow-up

It is easy to resent the salesman who loses complete interest in us just as soon as the sale is finalized. After having conscientiously sold the benefits of a curriculum change is it not of tremendous long-range importance for a curriculum developer to see that his promises have materialized? Did any difficulties develop that he had not anticipated? Are adjustments necessary to realize the full potential benefit of the change? A sincere interest in how the change has affected the people involved and a willingness to make adjustments help build the climate in which future changes will be initiated.

Current methods of curriculum change are by means of in-service training, conducting study groups, workshops, work conferences, in-service courses and supervisors and principals helping teachers to introduce modification in organizing their content and learning experiences.

A sequence of curriculum change may be summarized as follows: (1) Production of pilot units, 2) Testing experimen-

tal units, 3) Revising and consolidating, 4) Developing a framework, and 5) Installing and disseminating new units.

Ritz and others (1970) briefly explain the model used by the Eastern Regional Institute for Education in planning the selection and development of curricula.³ They have devised a schematic representation providing a general view of the procedures involved and their sequence. Basically the model consists of two phases — selection and augmentation or development. A key decision point serves as a link to connect the two phases. Four alternatives exist at this decision point: a program may be ready for installation, rejected, held for future action, or submitted for augmentation.

A paper by Hartley (1972) identifies the curricular-instructional implications of a Planning-Programming-Budgeting systems (PPBS) approach.⁴ Despite common charges to the contrary, such an approach need not be dehumanizing, anti-curriculum, or too sophisticated for educators. Nor is it decision-making by computer.

This approach takes into account the operation problems confronting local school officials such as lack of funds and time, understanding, day-to-day crises, and resistance to change. Indeed PPBS portrays specific school activities as part of an overall organic system. It thus serves to bring together formerly separate functions such as curriculum development and financial administration. For too long, the tail (budget) has been wagging the dog (curriculum).

The following are the steps in applying PPBS to the curriculum

- formulate goals, objectives, and learner skills
- design curricular programs to achieve stated objectives

³William Ritz, and others. *ERIE's Model for Selection and Augmentation of Process Curricula* (Syracuse, New York: Eastern Regional Institute for Evaluation, 1970).

⁴Harry J. Hartley, "PPBS: A System Approach to Educational Accountability." Paper presented at Supervision of Instruction Symposium 3: Accountability and the Supervisor, April 1972. Columbus: Ohio State Department of Education, 19 pages.

- analyze more systematically the feasible alternatives
- provide staff with better planning information and resources
- compare costs with program accomplishments
- increase teacher involvement in planning and decision-making
- identify direct instructional costs in a program budget
- specify program priorities and educational values
- promote innovative programs, teaching, and evaluation criteria
- increase public understanding of and support for the schools

The Educational Technology Publications has produced a series of five booklets entitled "How to Get New Programs into Elementary Schools." Its intention is to assist the school administrator in the installation of new curricula. The first booklet (Mahan and Gill 1972) explains that information is based on experience of extensive curriculum installation in New York and Pennsylvania. Each step in the installation process is described and accompanied by references, resources, and a checklist. The booklet suggests that careful planning and attention to the opinions and needs of teachers who participate in the program are paramount. Stress is laid on:

- the need to secure teacher cooperation
- care in selecting new programs
- preview, preparation of the program
- evaluation to determine the effectiveness of the new program

⁴James M. Mahan and Jean F. Gill, *How to Install a New Curriculum. How to Get Programs into Elementary Schools*, Number One. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1972)

The second publication in the series (Gill and Harty 1972) presents an administrator's plan book.⁶ It has space to list important telephone numbers, to record actions taken, and to note the results of the actions. The aim is to provide documentation of the installation effort in order to pinpoint difficulties and to serve as a detailed model for other program installations. The plan book is organized with charts summarizing the steps outlined in the previous volume.

Bickel and Gill (1972) deal with the process of curriculum selection.⁷ They begin with a definition of what a new curriculum program should be and suggest the composition of a search/selection/committee. A search procedure incorporates a curriculum-criteria matrix to aid in making the final selection. An extensive appendix lists sources of information about new curriculum programs.

The fourth volume in the series is by Renker and others (1972).⁸ It describes the techniques employed in collection and using data in the initial phase (readiness) of a curriculum installation. The primary focus is on decision-making and on data-based procedures to use in decision-making. Application of these procedures is analyzed in three case histories of individuals who employed decision-making approaches in their installation endeavors.

Finally, Renker and Bush (1972) call for an assessment procedure to measure pupil attainment of instructional objectives. Prior to developing such a system, the administrator schedules activities designed to assess faculty members' ability to use pupil-instruction objectives. After any deficiencies have been remedied, there is a need for continual faculty involvement in developing and carrying out such a system.

⁶Jean F. Gill and Harold Harty, *Administrative Plan Book for Curriculum Change. How to Get New Programs into Elementary Schools*, Number Two. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1972).

⁷Robert F. Bickel & Jean F. Gill, *How to Select a New Curriculum. How to Get New Programs into Elementary Schools*, Number Three. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1972).

⁸Marcia M. Renker & others, *How to Use Data to Make Curriculum Installation Decisions. How to Get New Programs into Elementary Schools*, Number Four. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1972).

Gagna and Elfner (1971) describe a plan for the implementation of an individualized system of elementary education.¹⁰ Along with philosophical assumptions, curriculum, and instructional procedures, they examine:

- instructional program-communications
- evaluation procedures
- personnel management
- financial management

The different phases of the implementation process are analyzed, including preparation, development, staff training, and installation. For each of these phases the authors detail the actions necessary by county and district officers, by development teams, and by principals, teachers, and parents.

Work Conference

In installing curriculum change, a participatory process should be used providing for the widest possible involvement of the professional staff and the community members. Here are the steps or stages in a work conference:

1. Opening session
 - a. Keynote address and inspirational speeches
 - b. Organization of the conference
 - (1) Election of leaders and conference staff members
 - (2) Organization of the conference
2. Group work - Presentation and discussion of problems

¹⁰Marcia M. Renker & Bush, Steven J. *How to Develop a Pupil Assessment System for a New Curriculum. How to Get New Programs into Elementary Schools, Number Five.* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1972).

¹¹Robert M. Gagae and Elinor A. Elfner, *Plan of Operation for an Individualized System of Elementary Education*, (Tallahassee: Florida State University, 1971).

3. Consolidation of group reports leading to formulation of the entire conference report
4. Closing session
 - a. Evaluation of the work conference
 - b. Disposition of the results of the work conference
 - c. Planning for the future

Discussion Groups

Group discussion is an important means of improving inservice growth of the school personnel, particularly in relation to curriculum work. The following outline presents a number of suggestions gathered from different sources for making the work of discussion groups more effective.

Purposes of Discussion Groups

1. To select key problems and to define and limit the problems so that they may be profitably explored within the framework of the conference
2. To explore the selected problems through sharing of ideas and information and to develop new insights into the problems
3. To arrive at some decisions about the problems and to prepare a report to the planning committee of the conference.
4. To increase the understanding and skill of the participants in the use of the techniques of group discussion
5. To get acquainted with members of cooperating groups
6. To discover new and helpful resource materials

Responsibilities of Each Group Member

1. Participates in the selection of problems and ways of working in the group
2. Contributes ideas and suggestions related to the problem

3. Makes short statements, not speeches; talks to the point; keeps the discussion moving
4. Does not monopolize; does not wangle over verbal differences or small points
5. Requests clarification, facts, and information when necessary
6. Assumes whatever responsibilities are needed to help the group come to valuable and practicable solutions

Responsibilities of the Leader

1. Helps the group get acquainted
2. Helps the group get under way in the selection of basic problems
3. Helps the group move through practical problem-solving steps in working toward solutions to the problems
4. Assumes the responsibility for keeping everyone participating
5. Helps members find ways of satisfying their individual needs-self-expression, prestige, personal achievement, social contacts, group recognition, etc.
6. Plans the time carefully so that all points receive due consideration
7. Tactfully discourages anyone who would talk too much
8. Summarizes (a) when a major point is finished, before going on to another, (b) when the discussion has been long drawn out or confused, (c) shortly before the close of the period.

Responsibilities of the Recorder

1. Keeps a running account of the main problems, issues, ideas, facts, and decisions as they develop in the discussion

2. Summarizes points discussed and reports to the group from time to time as the leader suggests
3. Prepares the final report in collaboration with selected members of the group
4. Presents the report of the group to the general planning committee

Curriculum Change in the Philippines

The Philippines is in a period of change, progress, and growth. Change, too, in the modern world is more frequent and progress more dynamic. Growth is unparallelled, and it certainly will not stop in the foreseeable future.

A few of the common changes are: Automation and technological improvements have become almost a way of life—tape-controlled machines, automatic handling and processing, and mechanical packaging. Nearly all technological improvements involve the learning of new skills. Demands for increased production and lower costs have resulted in a mushrooming of methods improvement activity. Introduction of new methods and equipment is frequently followed by new standards of costs, quality, and performance. Computers have brought new ways of processing and analyzing data, setting standards, measuring performance, allocating materials, controlling inventories, dispatching finished products, making decisions, keeping records and accounts, and so on. Staff specialists in methods, engineering, quality control, maintenance, production control, and personnel are constantly seeking ways to upgrade efficiency and are constantly making changes. Changing concepts of management have resulted in new approaches to handling people.

All the prevailing conditions outside and inside the Philippines warrant curriculum change if our schools are to play a vital role in effecting progress in the complete sense of the word. The observation of Dr. Antonio Javier, Division Superintendent of Schools for Batangas in his conference position paper on curriculum deserves our attention.¹¹

¹¹Antonio Javier, "Reorienting the Curriculum," *The Philippine Journal of Education*, (July 1972) pp. 12-13; p. 49.

It is unfortunate, however, that the Philippines as a developing country is simultaneously faced with the equally vital problem of accelerating economic progress which calls for the training of skilled manpower needed in our developing industries. This implies that vocational and technical education cannot be sacrificed to any appreciable degree without adversely affecting the government's efforts of improving the country's economy. In the history of developing countries, the relation of education and economic progress constitutes a vicious circle where overemphasis on one works to the detriment of the other. It is either developing economy first to have sufficient money for education or education first to facilitate economic development, or perhaps the simultaneous development of both. Perhaps our main problem boils down to determining and maintaining the proper balance between, or the proper integration of, general education and technical or professional education.

To comprehend Dr. Javier's position, let us take into consideration the two main aspects of the education of the Filipinos — the general education and the vocational education aspects. General education focuses on the development of the total personality of the individual and his preparation for effective living and participation in a democratic society. Vocational education, on the other hand, is concerned with the development of certain skills needed in certain activities for earning a living. Hence, general education may be looked upon as liberal education and vocational education as professional education.

Some Filipino frontier thinkers on education, such as Francisco Benitez, former dean of the College of Education of the University of the Philippines and one time Secretary of Education, former Education Secretary Putong, former President Vital Tan of the University of the Philippines believe that Philippine education should be reoriented toward a general education curriculum. According to Benitez the evidences of education in the Filipino are the power to do, to support himself and contribute to the wealth of our people, acquaintance with the world's progress, especially with that of his race, people and community, together with love of our best ideals and traditions; and refined manners and moral

conduct, as well as power of growth. Putong argues that it would be a mistake to think of giving specialized training without first building a solid foundation for general culture. Vidal believes that there is a need for Filipinos to think straight and this is attained through general education.

Other leading educators and economists such as Dr. Sixto Roxas, outstanding Filipino economist and at various times chairman of the National Council and the Program Implementation Agency of the Republic of the Philippines and the Diokno Committee Report advocate vocational education. They believe that the training of more skilled manpower through a revitalized program of vocational education is the only salvation of Philippine economy. Dr. Roxas observes the preponderance of education, commerce and liberal arts graduates, on the one hand, and the comparatively small number of graduates in scientific and agricultural fields, on the other; the majority of the graduates in the first-named fields are women, many of whom will not be available for employment in later years, and the too heavy a concentration on the higher types of skills and not enough on the "middle" manpower skills, that layer in between scientists and professionals at top level and the broad base of semi-skilled workers, which includes laboratory technicians, engineering assistants, medical technologists, etc., and much of the people's existing skill is under-utilized or badly distributed among occupations and among regions. The Diokno Committee Report stresses that unemployment is still a problem in the Philippines.¹²

Harbison and Myers, writers on economics, made a study of the relation of education and economic growth in 75 countries classified as advanced, semi-advanced, partially developed and underdeveloped.¹³ According to this study, countries with higher levels of education are economically more developed than those where the level of education is comparatively lower. Philippines was not included in this study, because, after a study of the Philippine statistics on

¹²Diokno Committee Report (Com. Rep. 2513, Phil. Senate) p. 6.

¹³Frederick Harbison & Charles A. Myers, *Education Manpower & Economic Growth* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), pp. 23-172.

the level of education and the G.N.P. (gross national product) or economic productivity Harbison and Myers found out, to their great surprise, that the relation of these factors in the Philippines is the reverse of the findings in all the 75 countries. They discovered that while the level of education or the ratio of student population in the Philippines is high second to that of the United States and should easily classify the Philippines as advanced — the G.N.P. is low and classifies the Philippines as an underdeveloped country.

As to the course of curriculum change in the Philippines, some believe that there should be a balanced and coordinated program of general education which provides an adequate background in the liberal arts to insure more effective training of the youth in democratic citizenship, on the one hand; and vocational education which provides the youth with technical skills and competencies needed in our developing industries and in keeping abreast of modern technological progress on the other.

Some critics on education merely suggest questions to ponder when changing curriculum in the Philippines.¹⁴

1. How can we revise school programs so that students learn more about our culture rather than about foreign rulers who, until recently, controlled our country?
2. How can the curriculum be changed so that our schools produce manpower that would enable us to fashion our national, economic, political and social lives best and meet the needs of a modern world?
3. How can it be taught? (This includes both teaching methodology and teaching materials and equipment)
4. What should be taught? (This would entail inspection of the objectives of the curriculum)

¹⁴Lourdes G. Serrano, "The Need to Reorient Management Program in the Business Collegiate Curriculum" *Comment*, West Negros College, Bacolod City, June 20-21, 1975.

5. How well are the students reaching their goals? (Evaluation, appraisal or assessment)

Whatever should be the direction, the Philippine school curriculum must change to adapt to the changes occurring today and in the future. This change must be directed by the needs of the Filipinos. Change must not happen by chance. In other parts of this world, we now have a million people employed full time, every day, whose business is to make change. We have scientists, engineers, social scientists, psychologists — and all of them are busy in changing the world. They are producing new methods, new materials, new machines, new products, new markets—all of which represent endless opportunities to the people engaged in curriculum development who must keep pace with progress and make research which is progress on purpose. Today the flow of research is not only technological research but all kinds of research such as in the social sciences. This explosion of technology has caused new levels of education, new standards of living, and new ways of thinking. Curriculum developers must be intelligent enough to recognize how their period differed from the previous one. They must have courage to break with the limitations of a past age in order to come up with new ideas. Many a million dollar idea of curriculum development has been wasted because it ran into the inertia of a lot of educators who were dedicated to worshipping the sacred cow of how things used to be done.

Curriculum developers have to walk a tightrope between change and stability. The question is, "How much change... How much stability?" What is the right mixture? Unmanaged change becomes chaos. Unmanaged stability becomes stagnation. Curriculum development, if it is going to go any place, has to be like the four wheels of an automobile — its parts all have to get together. The staff, the administration, the students, the teachers, and so forth, all must move in the same general direction at the same speed. You can not go anywhere if one wheel has the brake on.

Last but not least, curriculum developers must use experience. Experience is a tool. It has very little value by itself. Its real value depends on the skill and intelligence of

the person who is holding it. What can he do with it? A curriculum developer can use his as a spring-board to leap into the future, or he can use it as a rear-view mirror to focus his attention on the past. If he uses it as a rear-view mirror, it is about as valuable as a parachute that opens on the second bounce. The combined experience of curriculum school administrators, teachers, students, parents, and others can be a tremendous asset or a tremendous liability depending on what they do with it. It can, indeed, be a potential to pioneer the future or it can be a prison that confines it to the past.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Define briefly the following:
 - a. Change
 - b. Client systems
 - c. System elements
 - d. Change element
 - e. Change agent
 - f. Resistance to change
2. Discuss the strategy for curriculum change.
3. Discuss the work conference method.

14

Approaches To Curriculum Design

There are three commonly used approaches to curriculum design. These approaches are "subject-centered curriculum," "child-centered curriculum," and "problem-centered curriculum." Let us take a brief significant look at each one of them.

I. The Subject-Centered Curriculum

The subject-centered curriculum is organized on the basis of separate and distinct subjects, each of which embodies a body of knowledge and skills. The learner is expected to acquire this body of knowledge and skills.

II. The Child-Centered Curriculum

The philosophy underlying this curriculum design is that the child is the center of the educational process and the curriculum should be built upon his interests, abilities, purposes, and needs. This type of curriculum emerged from the extensive research carried on in the early twentieth century by John Dewey and his followers. A new respect for the child, a new freedom of action, were incorporated into

curriculum building in the child-centered school. Common characteristics of programs founded on the new philosophy were the "activity program," the "unit of work," and the recognition of the need for using and exploring many media for self-discovery and self-direction.

III. The Problem-Centered Curriculum

The problem-centered curriculum is conceived as the framework in which the child is guided toward maturity within the context of the social group. It assumes that in the process of living, children experience problems. The solutions to these problems enable children to become increasingly able to attain full development as individuals capable of self-direction, and to become competent in assuming social responsibility. It attempts to guide children in the recognition of problems and in seeking solution. Problems and their solutions through broad and deep experiences become the core of the problem-centered curriculum.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Differentiate the following:
 - a. Subject-centered curriculum
 - b. Child-centered curriculum
 - c. Problem-centered curriculum

15

Diagnosis Of Needs In Curriculum Development

If curriculum development is to be a rational and a scientific rather than a rule-of-thumb procedure, there should be some valid criteria on which to base its structure. The first important step in determining what the curriculum should be for a given population is to diagnose its needs.

Diagnosis is an essential part of curriculum development in order to attune it with the needs of the times and of learners, and to help determine which objectives to stress. In fact, diagnosis should be a continuous part of on-going curriculum and teaching. The continuous need to accommodate different types of learners and to introduce new materials or a new emphasis demands that these adjustments be made according to diagnostic checks on what the learners know and can understand, what skills they have, or what mental processes they have mastered. Diagnostic evidence is also needed to gear plans and expectations to the upper limits of potentiality.

Diagnosis of the Learners

The curriculum should be developed to enhance the desirable uniqueness of individuals. It should be organized in terms of the learners' interest, ability, and activities. The learner should be made the starting point, the center. It is he who would determine both the quality and quantity of learning. The nature of the learner must be made the science of learning. If the aim of curriculum leaders is to let the learner grow in terms of knowledge, habits, skills, abilities, and attitudes, his original nature and experiences must be made the starting point in accomplishing such growth. This factor involves the matter of individual differences which should also be taken into consideration in the organization of the curriculum. That children differ in intelligence, interests, abilities, habits, skills, and attitudes is an accepted principle in education. The problem is to adjust individual of varying learning rates to this reality. Organizing the curriculum to meet individual differences is compatible with democratic principles, and with the growing conviction that individualization must deal with the quality and quantity of learning.

We must also know a great deal about the learners' status in the attainment of educational objectives and their abilities: cultural backgrounds, motivational patterns, and the content of their social learning, such as the particular meanings they bring to school, their particular approach to learning tasks, and the expectations they have of themselves and of others. Curriculum makers also need to know what differences there are in the mental systems of learners, in their approaches to problem solving, and in the functioning of their intelligence. Other factors to be considered by curriculum leaders are the learners' interest span, social maturity, enthusiasm, creative urges and areas of conscious interest.

The reasons why diagnosis of the learners is an important determinant of the curriculum are the following:¹ 1) The

¹ J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander, *Curriculum Planning for Modern Schools* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966).

maximum development of each individual, within the framework of the common welfare is the essence of schooling; 2) A person is truly educated only as he develops to the fullest extent possible his unique talents and capacities; 3) The welfare and advancement of the social group depend on the maximum development of the human potentialities of each member comprising the group; 4) The nature of our nation in years to come depends on the skills, insights, knowledge, and character of the individuals who will comprise that society; 5) The motivational syndrome of the individual himself — his drives, his needs, his perceptions, his self-concepts, his expectations, and his aspirations—constitutes one of the primary bases for the selection and development of learning experiences in the school program; 6) The program of the school and the learning experiences selected for pupils at all levels must be adapted to the maturity, capacities, and abilities of the learner; and 7) Evaluation of the pupil's growth and development and the extent of his attainment of the behavioral goals of education must take account of his own capacities, abilities, talents and potentialities.

Diagnosis of Social Needs

Since the school is established by a society to serve its needs, the content of the curriculum should deal with the nature, background, and needs of that society. The needs of society can not be fully explained without taking into consideration the nature and needs of the individuals that compose it. It can not be denied that the individual can realize himself as an individual only in relation to the society in which he lives. In the selection and organization of subject-matter, the needs of the individual and of society should receive proper emphasis. This approach is more consistent with the modern educational philosophy and the psychology of growth and learning. To do this, the course of study must be organized around the changing nature and developmental needs of learners and persistent life situations found in the culture. The organization of the curriculum should be based on the conditions, problems, and needs of society, and on the real concerns, problems and interest of the learners. It should also

be concerned with the improvement of living and learning conditions in the school and in the society.

The reasons behind the importance of societal diagnosis as a determinant of the curriculum are the following:² 1) Teachers and curriculum leaders themselves are participants in the society and usually have been thoroughly educated in the culture of the group for whom they plan a school program; 2) The school inculcates the values, ideals, beliefs, traditions, and mores of the social group; 3) The school educates its pupils to live in a particular society at a particular time in its group life; 4) The culture shapes learners' development and personality, and determines their educational needs; 5) Curriculum planning and teaching should take account of the social as well as the innate aspects of pupil motivation; and 6) The relative importance of the knowledge and concepts to be learned by the young is culturally determined.

Other things which curriculum planners and curriculum developers should know about society are the following: 1) The fundamental beliefs, values, and moral principles of the people; 2) The mores, traditions, expectations, and value patterns of the citizens of a school community; 3) The philosophy, points of view, and recommendations on education of pertinent professional, civic, and patriotic organizations, and of leading authorities and officials in the field of education; 4) Social, economic, and political conditions; 5) The home and family situation of the learners; 6) Legal mandates, requirements of superior agencies, and admission requirements of colleges, universities, and other post-secondary educational institutions; and 7) The psychology and sociology of cultural change.

Diagnosis of Achievement

Diagnosis of achievement is determining how well students have achieved important educational objectives. The

²*Ibid.*

scope of the objectives determines the scope of this diagnosis. It may include such matters as what concepts and information students have mastered, what patterns of thinking they find easy or difficult, what maturity in attitudes and feelings they possess, which skills they can or can not use, and what their interests are.³

Information derived from diagnosis of achievement can be used to establish standards; to locate the causes of weaknesses and strengths in the attainment of students. It describes not only the end product of achievement but also the processes by which the answers are obtained and the root-causing flaws in processes. It helps gauge the level of attainment that is possible and bridge the gap between knowledge of the general needs of students and of the particular needs of a given group. It facilitates evaluation of progress. To serve these aims, diagnosis of levels of attainment should be as comprehensive as are the objectives of the curriculum.

Diagnosis of Values

Because of the wealth of the materials and the limited time available, curriculum developers must select the subject-matter most valuable for the particular learners they are considering. In geography, for example, it is more worthwhile to learn and understand the products, industries, and transportation system than to do a useless listing of chartered cities and capitals. In health education, it would be more valuable if emphasis were given to the memorization of the names of the muscles and bones. Subject-matter of relative value rather than preparatory value should be taken into consideration in curriculum development.

Diagnosis of School Facilities and Resources of the Community

In curriculum development the school materials and facilities and the resources of the community are indispensable. Certain types of illustrative materials and equipment

³Hilda Taba, *Curriculum Development Theory and Practice* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1962).

greatly facilitate learning and are very valuable aids in attaining the related objectives.

Likewise, the resources of the community can be made a part of the educational facilities for carrying on the program of the school. The resources of the community should be utilized to enrich and vitalize the program of the school and its curriculum and to give reality and concreteness to learning. In other words, the curriculum must be alive and dynamic, adapted to the circumstances and experiences of the learners. The activities in the curriculum should be indigenous to the community. Information regarding the recreational facilities, health conditions, occupations, and the physical features of the community will also prove valuable in the determination of the school program and activities.

Diagnosis of Curriculum Problems

Curriculum developers must also find out the causes of underachievement, the difficulties encountered in teaching, or the evident failure of the curriculum to reach a considerable portion of the learners.

A suggested procedure is as follows: 1) Problem identification; 2) Problem analysis; 3) Formulation of hypotheses and gathering of data; and 4) Experimenting with action.

Tools for Diagnosis of Curricular Needs

There are many tools for making diagnosis of curricular needs.⁴ One is the *open-ended classroom interview* which consists of asking the class questions designed to elicit the meaning certain things have for them, what they are familiar with, or descriptions of experiences they have had which can be used to interpret their background and their feelings toward or understanding of certain phenomena or concepts. Other informal diagnostic devices are open-ended questions

⁴Ibid.

and themes, unfinished stories and incidents, records of discussions, records of reading and writing, observation and recording of performance, special assignments and exercises, sociometric tests, surveys, diaries and diagnostic programs.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Discuss the following
 - a. Diagnosis of the learners
 - b. Diagnosis of social needs
 - c. Diagnosis of achievement
 - d. Diagnosis of values
 - e. Diagnosis of school facilities and resources of the community
 - f. Diagnosis of curriculum problems

16

Formulation Of Objectives In Curriculum Development

Any activity which is intentional, like the curriculum, should be based for its maximum effectiveness upon the origins of the intentions, that is, upon the valued objectives of those organizing and participating in the activity. Intentional, deliberate, organized activities presuppose a concentration upon some things rather than others, a making of choices, an establishment of priorities.

Four basic questions in curriculum construction which delineate the substantive elements of the curriculum are the following:¹ (1) the educational ends with suggest both (2) the educational experiences or learning opportunities and their organization into organizing centers for learning and (3) the instruments for evaluation.

Curriculum developers today recognize the need to translate educational aims into specific objectives which suggest the process and content elements of learning. A continuing issue is how specific a pool of objectives which can

¹Ralph W. Tyler, *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press: 1950), p.

serve as a reference for classroom selection and modification should be. It seems effective that the pool of objectives must be sufficiently specific to guide instructional decisions in the curriculum and since these objectives must be enumerated in a rational order, it must propose some kind of organizational plan to the classroom teacher.²

Educational Aims and Educational Objectives

There are two kinds of educational aims: (1) *Specialized* educational aims which establish criteria to be met by prospective technicians who render service to others, and (2) *General* educational aims which do not impose minimum standards of achievement, since these serve all men in their individual needs for adjustment and self-fulfillment.

Educational aims are broad and vague; they must be progressively translated into clear and specific statements, that is, *objectives*, in order to enhance consistency of interpretation by different workers. An *educational objective* is directly derived from an educational aim and is formulated for students who are identified according to their level of education, for example, primary, intermediate, secondary, collegiate or graduate level. An *instructional objective* is suggested by an educational objective and is generated to meet the specific needs and interests of learners identified according to their level of education, their community, and their school or class.

Characteristics of Educational Objectives

Rational curriculum development demands that educational objectives meet the following requirements:³

- 1) *Comprehensive*. Full implications of educational aims may be retained in the objectives in the processes of derivation among the substantive elements and of transaction among the curriculum developers at the various levels of planning.

²Dolores G. Garcia, *Curriculum Theory Application* (Quezon City: Philippines: Phoenix Press, Inc., 1973), p. 3.
³*Ibid*, p. 15.

2) *Consistency*. Logical faithfulness of objectives to aims as well as to other educational objectives must be maintained. The different objectives must reinforce each other and be supportive of the educational aims.

3) *Attainability*. The objectives should be achievable by the students. For this purpose, results of studies in psychology may be used in predicting the attainability or not of objectives.

4) *Feasibility*. Educational objectives must be evaluated in the light of practical considerations, including teacher competence, availability of instructional materials, time allotment, expense involved, and the prejudices of the community served by the educational system.

Functions of Educational Objectives

Educational aims are stated on general levels in order to provide an orientation to the main emphasis in educational programs. These aims describe the school-wide outcomes. The educational objectives, however, are more specific ones which describe behaviors or results to be attained in a particular unit, a subject area, a course, or a grade-level program. Thus, while one may consider the development of nationalism a school-wide objective, each of the school subjects may contribute to this development in a different way, and hence needs to be guided by a more specific statement of this aim, such as "to understand the law of supply and demand," or to perceive the importance of buying local products to the Philippine economy."

The function of the educational objective is to guide the making of curriculum decisions on what to cover, what to emphasize, what content to select, and which learning experiences to stress. This function of educational objectives is essential in arriving at a serviceable guide to curriculum development. Naturally it should be consistent with the general aims and express the vision of the educational aims.

Guidelines in the Formulation of Educational Objectives

Here are some guiding principles in formulating desirable educational objectives:

1. Educational objectives must be clearly conceived and clearly stated. Statement of educational objectives which are vague serves no purpose and may even mislead the teacher who implements them in the classroom. To illustrate: the statement "education for the development of a perfect gentleman" is so vague that almost every teacher would have a different interpretation of it.
2. A statement of objectives should describe both the kind of behavior expected and the content or the context in which that behavior applies.
3. Complex educational objectives need to be stated analytically and specifically enough so that there is no doubt as to the kind of behavior expected.
4. Educational objectives should also be so formulated that there are clear distinctions among learning experiences required to attain different behaviors.
5. Educational objectives should be developmental, representing roads to travel rather than terminal points.
6. Educational objectives should be reasonably comprehensive so as to include all the areas of growth. Sound education believes in the total development of the learner. To emphasize intellectual development alone and neglect the other phases of growth, would result in unbalanced development. Educational objectives should cover the emotional and social life, physical and mental development, as well as moral and ethical life.
7. Educational objectives should be realistic and should include only what can be translated into curriculum and classroom experience.
8. The scope of educational objectives should be broad enough to encompass all types of outcomes for which the school is responsible.

9. Educational objectives should reflect both individual and group needs.

10. Educational objectives should be flexible; that is, they should be capable of change to meet changing social conditions which are characteristic of the present dynamic society.

11. Educational objectives should be limited to the aims and purposes which the school is willing to assume.

Sources of Educational Objectives

There are three main sources of educational objectives. They are as follows:⁴

1. Objectives are derived from *felt needs, social values and ideals*. Educational programs of societies grow out of the matrix of the needs, practices, ideals, and aspirations of those societies. Educational objectives must emerge from continuous studies of contemporary society, changing conditions and trends, society, social values and ideals, and growing needs and demands.
2. Educational objectives are derived from *studies and researches made regarding learners and the learning process*. It is imperative that objectives should also be derived from studies of learners, what their needs, maturation level, and interests are and how learning takes place. Curriculum leaders should use the information when formulation objectives.
3. Educational objectives grow out of a *philosophy of education*. The philosophy of education of curriculum developers influences their curricular emphasis, their procedures, their curriculum organization, as well as their educational objectives.

Educational Objectives in the Philippines

In the Philippine educational system, the fundamental aims of education are provided in Section 3 of Article XIV of

⁴N. Sagull et al., *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development* (Manila: Acenas Printing Press, 1965), p. 142.

the 1987 Constitution which states that (1) All educational institutions shall include the study of the constitution as part of the curricula. (2) They shall inculcate patriotism and nationalism, foster love of humanity, respect for human rights, appreciation of the role of national heroes in the historical development of the country, teach the rights and duties of citizenship, strengthen ethical and spiritual values, develop moral character and personal discipline, encourage critical and creative thinking, broaden scientific and technological knowledge, and promote vocational efficiency. Article II Section 17 under State Policies of the present constitution states that "The State shall give priority to education, science and technology, arts, culture and sports to foster patriotism and nationalism, accelerate social progress, and promote total human liberation and development.

A separate article which Article XIV deals on Education, Science and technology, arts, culture and sports. This constitution also spells out in Article XV under the heading Family in Section 1 that "The State recognizes the Filipino family as the foundation of the nation. Accordingly, it shall strengthen its solidarity and actively promote its total development.

The objectives were formulated "with a view to accomplishing an integrated, nationalistic and democracy-inspired educational system in the Philippines."

The Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education which conducted several studies on our educational system in 1970 has restated the national development goals and the goals of education as follows:

National Development Goals

1. To achieve and maintain an accelerating rate of economic development and social growth.
2. To assure the maximum participation of all the people in their attainment.
3. To strengthen national consciousness and promote cultural values in a changing world

Aims of Education

The educational system should:

1. Provide a broad general education that will assist each individual in the peculiar ecology of his own society to -
 - a. Attain his potential as a human being
 - b. Enhance the range and quality of his participation in the basic functions of society
 - c. Acquire the essential educational foundations for his development into a productive and versatile citizen
2. Train the nation's manpower in the skills required for national development
3. Develop the high-level professions that will provide leadership for the nation, advance knowledge for improving the quality of human life
4. Respond effectively to the changing needs and conditions of the nation through a system of educational planning and evaluation

It is noteworthy to mention that the objectives of Philippine education evolved from the Pre-Spanish Period through such milestones in our history as: Spanish Regime, Revolutionary Period, American Regime, Commonwealth Period, Independence to the present. Restated and reformulated through varying periods of our national life, they have contributed, to some degree, to the formulation of our present objectives of education.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Enumerate the requirements of educational objectives.
2. What are the sources of educational objectives?
3. Discuss the national development goal on the basis of its relevance to the present situation.

17

Selection And Organization Of Content And Learning Experiences In Curriculum Development

The selection and organization of the content and learning experiences of a curriculum involve criteria other than objectives, such as their validity and significance, the making of proper distinctions between the various levels of content, and decisions about the level of development at which to introduce it. It involves, furthermore, consideration of continuities and sequences in learning and of variations in the capacity to learn.

Curriculum organization is the systematic arrangement of content and educational learning experiences for the effective employment of human and material resources for the attainment of educational objectives. The design or curriculum organization is determined largely by the increased knowledge of how learning takes place, the characteristics and needs of the learners as they grow and develop, infor-

mation about the ideals of culture, social needs and problems, and statement of objectives of education.¹

The learning experiences should be selected and organized so as to fit into a larger whole and contribute to the development of those behavior traits that are desired. In the process of organizing the learning experiences there is a need for unified and well-balanced activities and experiences as well as proper scope and sequence. The task of selecting and organizing learning experiences involves more than applying certain principles of learning. It involves ideas about such matters as strategies of concept attainment and sequences in formation of attitudes and sensitivities. To the extent that learning activities are used to implement some objectives, the planning of learning experiences becomes a part of a major strategy of curriculum building instead of being relegated to incidental decisions made by the teacher at the moment of teaching. Problems such as how to translate the content to be learned into appropriate learning experiences and how to project learning experiences that accommodate variations in ability to learn, in motivation, and in mental systems must be faced here.

Curriculum organization refers to the structure and form of the curriculum. To the extent that the curriculum organization contributes to the effective implementation of the activities, and experiences needed to serve the objectives of the school, to that extent is the curriculum organization desirable.

Types of Curriculum Organization

Let us classify the different curriculum patterns into three major types: 1) *Traditional Curriculum Patterns*; 2) *Integrative Curriculum Patterns*, and 3) *Unified Program*.

The Traditional Curriculum Patterns consist of the *Subject curriculum*, *Correlated curriculum* and *Broadfields curriculum*.

The *Subject Curriculum* is an organization in which the school subjects constitute the basis for organizing the school

¹O.N. Seguil et. al., *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development* (Manila: Aenas Printing Press, 1968), p. 159.

experiences of learners. There is a multiplicity of subjects with content in each selected on the basis of logical arrangements, with little regard for the concerns of the learner, and with memorization of the text as the dominant method. The logical systems of knowledge arranged and systematized by subject specialists are utilized as the subject matter of learning. They are simplified and adapted to the abilities and interests of learners. The textbook is the indispensable tool around which the teaching is centered. Both the content and the learning experience to acquiring it are divided and organized by the logic of the respective subject areas. Part of the philosophy of the subject curriculum is that there is a hierarchy of priority among the subjects according to their value as mental discipline.

The *Correlated Curriculum* is one that articulates and establishes relationships between two or more subjects on the basis of a topic or a theme, or teaching similar topics in two or more subjects simultaneously in an effort to help students gain a better understanding of such topics. For example, history and geography may be taught so as to reinforce each other. In this kind of curriculum, the traditional subject divisions are still present, but the time schedule is made flexible so that the teacher can increase or reduce the time given to a subject or even omit it altogether when the needs and purposes demand. Under this organization just as many subjects are taught.

The *Broad-Fields Curriculum* is essentially an effort to overcome the compartmentalization and atomization of the curriculum by combining several specific areas into larger fields.² It is also subject-centered and the basic concepts are the same as those underlying the specific subject organization. As a rule it involves five to six curriculum subjects. Related subjects are fused together into one and given a large block of time. For example, History, Geography, Civics, Character Education and Health are combined into Social Studies. Within this broad field or area, the teacher integrates the subject matter to establish relationships or articulation. Fusion occurs when a field has been unified to such an extent

²Hilda Taba, *Curriculum Development Theory and Practice* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962).

that the chosen course are retained but are taught in relationships to each other and adapted to the growth of the learners.

The broad-fields curriculum divides the school day into periods for broad fields, such as language arts, social studies, science and health, arithmetic, and arts and crafts instead of providing a separate period for each specific subject, such as reading, spelling, penmanship. This organization has several advantages over the separate-subjects type of organization. First, it provides for longer periods of uninterrupted work and makes pupil-teacher planning easier. Second, it makes it easier for pupils to see the relationship existing between subjects such as spelling and writing.

The *Integrative Curriculum* entirely eliminates school subject division and broad fields of subject matter and organizes the learning experiences and the work of the school around the learners' needs, interests, abilities, major functions of social life, and normal activities of learners. It aims to foster integration of the learner. It is learner-centered as well as socially oriented. It is called "integrative" because the end it seeks is the integration of the individual both within himself and with his environment.

The Integrative Curriculum represents a conscious response to the need of harmony and unity where frustration, insecurity, and unhappiness prevail.³ An integrated behavior, which is the end of this kind of curriculum, means that the organism acts with unity and with mutually helpful support of all its parts in the achievement of a purpose. The concept applies to physical, emotional, and intellectual aspects of behavior. There is integration of learning when the process of unifying experiences in order to make them contribute effectively to the formation of an integrated personality occurs. The Integrative Curriculum is a pattern of organizing learning experiences to promote integration.

The Integrative Curriculum has taken three forms, which differ slightly from one another in the selection of a basis for organization the daily program of the school and in

³L.L. Hopkins (Ed.), *Integration: Its Meaning and Application* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1937), p. 9.

the extent to which the framework of the curriculum is planned in advance. They differ in points of emphasis and method of organizing learning experiences. Below are descriptions of its three patterns:

The *Learner-Centered Curriculum* is one that organizes its learning experiences and content around normal child activities such as exploring, listening, story telling, playing, singing, and constructing. It is focused on the learner as the center of activities in the school.

The *Experience Curriculum* is one that places emphasis on the immediate felt interests and felt needs of the learner and not on the anticipated needs and interest. There is need here of cooperative planning of the curriculum with the learner so that the teacher can discover his genuine interest and needs. Thus, the first step involves the learner's own choice of an activity or area of interest on which he desires to work. The second step takes place when the learner confers with the teacher and tells him what he wants to do. The teacher is responsible in bringing the learner to a realization of the scope of the area selected, of his responsibilities, and of the kinds and amount of labor which will be involved. The third step is an exploration by the learner of the materials he will need, both those of a subject-matter nature and those of the learning experiences, such as visiting a water supply sources or staying in a farm. During this step, the teacher suggests and supplies aids and refers the learner to different kinds of materials. In the fourth step the learner fuses his experiences and activities, intellectual and otherwise, into the acquisition and mastery of his chosen area of interest. He clarifies his concepts and works out solutions for his problems. For the final step the learner has to exhibit and explain clearly the results of his experience, make an oral or a written illustrated report of it, take a standard or teacher-made test upon core aspects, or do two or more of these satisfactorily as evidence of his progress.⁴

The Experience Curriculum does not have a general framework, no course of study, and no pre-planned curriculum guide. The planning is made by the teacher and the learner

⁴J. Minor Gwynn & John B. Chase, *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends* (London: The MacMillan Company, 1939).

in terms of the demands of the immediate situation.

The *Core Curriculum* is also called the Social Functions or Areas-Of-Living Curriculum. It is a pattern in which learning experiences are organized on the basis of major functions of social life or aspects of living.

The Core Curriculum is intended to enable the learner to study problems that demand personal and social action in the contemporary world. The Curriculum is centered upon life today. The central idea is to see that the learner is afforded guided experience appropriate to his maturity in all the significant aspects of living. Required of all students in the school, the core curriculum is intended to serve the general education needs of the learner in a manner not possible through the traditional subject curriculum. In other words, the intent is to integrate various subjects into a coherent framework of learnings that could and should be shared by all, but no special emphasis is to be given to personal and social problems over other kinds of common learning. However, core curricula later emerged that had a central focus on contemporary social problems, the rationale for them being that the core should be that part of education which all citizens of an interdependent culture must share. An excellent example of the application of this concept in the Philippine public schools is the community school. The major areas of community living vary from school system to school system. They are usually decided upon by a group of school officials, curriculum specialists, and teachers. The area of living suggest to the teachers the scope of the curriculum.

There are two types of Core Curriculum. One type is based upon the common problems, needs, and interests of the learners within a framework of societal problem areas. Although this type draws heavily from various sources of organized subject matter, the purpose is to use material from all pertinent areas of knowledge to solve common and persistent life problems. Teachers often work together in teams to develop one or more resource units for each problem area. Because teachers and students can not rely on the textbooks, carefully developed resource units and a rich variety of appropriate library materials are necessary to the success of

this core approach. The second type of core curriculum is based upon teacher-student planned activities without reference to any formal structure. In some cases the students and teacher formulate the problem areas cooperatively. The problem areas, in turn, serve to establish the nature of the learning units to be developed by the class. In comparison to the first type of core, in which the problem areas and resource units are preplanned for the students, the second type of core curriculum leaves the teacher and students free to determine the problem areas and learning activities they choose to engage in. While both core types require highly resourceful teachers, the second type is particularly demanding because the teacher cannot rely on any predetermined problem areas. Without highly resourceful teachers, and in the absence of an unusually rich collection of learning materials in a wide variety of problem areas, a *laissez-faire* situation may result. Relatively few schools in the Philippines have attempted this type of core approach. Most curriculum developers, however, supplement the core with required courses in specific disciplines or areas of knowledge, which are offered for purposes of general education but in the context of the subject curriculum. The common practice is, in addition to the core studies and other subjects which comprise the general education program, the students pursue specialized studies in academic or vocational areas, and exploratory studies through elective courses.

A simple schematic representation of the relationship of the core to other studies within the total educational program framework is presented in Figure 2. The distribution is hypothetical and is not intended to represent a model arrangement. The day is divided into ten modules, although the schedule may include more modules. A flexible schedule may be provided within this framework so that the distribution of time devoted to the various studies is not identical each week. For example, physical education and laboratory sciences may be offered three days per week in larger time blocks.

Within the curriculum framework in Figure 2, some of the specialized and exploratory studies could be discipline-centered, while others might be organized as broad fields.

Thus, within the total curriculum framework, it is possible to combine several modes of curriculum organization. For example, in addition to core studies that are organized according to personal-social problems, a high school student might take discipline-centered courses in advanced algebra and chemistry as part of his specialized academic studies, along with a discipline-centered course in sociology and an interdisciplinary course in the humanities as part of his exploratory and enrichment studies. The teacher of sociology might want to correlate some of the work in his discipline with the core studies (horizontal articulation), while also building on the learnings derived from a Philippine history course taken by all students during the preceding school year (vertical and horizontal articulation). Similarly, the chemistry teacher would draw upon the students' learnings from course work taken previously in biology, general science, and algebra.

MODULES	GRADES				SPECIALIZED STUDIES (Academic and prevocational)	SPECIALIZED STUDIES (Academic and vocational)
	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	CORE STUDIES (Personal-social problems)++					
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

* General Education
++ Includes general-education studies in subject fields such as Mathematics

FIGURE 2 - Relationship of Core Studies to the Total Curriculum Design.

Undoubtedly the decline in the proportion of schools offering learner-centered types of core may be partially attributed to the difficulty in finding teachers who were committed to such approaches and who were sufficiently resourceful in working with students on life problems. Teachers and curriculum developers also have tended to be oriented toward subject fields and textbooks. Relatively few teachers were prepared to deal with the broad problem areas of the core curriculum. Undoubtedly, team teaching arrangements would have been helpful, but few schools were ready or able to implement team teaching in their core curricula.

The third major pattern of curriculum organization is the *Unified Program*. According to William B. Ragan, there should be a balance between extremes in educational theory and educational practice.⁵ This is what he called "common sense point of view" in curriculum organization. He contended that there should be a balance between the direct teaching of subject skills and unified learning experiences based on problems which are life-centered. In other words, there should be a logical as well as a psychological organization of learning experiences. Learning, according to the Unified Program defenders, should be organized in terms of persistent life situations as well as on the basis of organized body of knowledge when this is needed.

Scope and Sequence in Curriculum Organization

The total breadth of the activity in a subject-field is a referred to as the *scope*. This determine the extent or limit of activity or coverage. In the subject curriculum, the scope is inherent in the grade placement of activities. Since the emphasis is on the subject matter, the logical order of the subject matter field is systematically arranged and allocated its grade placement. However, from the progressive education point of view, scope lies in the range of needs and problems with which every learner deals in some measure. The scope of the curriculum suggests to the teacher the experience units she or he may adopt. It may be based on the major social functions or areas of living, themes, or centers of interest.

⁵American Association of School Administrators, *American School Curriculum* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1953), pp. 65-66.

The placement of curriculum content or learning experience from the standpoint of time is referred to as the *sequence*. It connotes continuity of learning experiences. The succession of units based on the maturity and experiences of learners is the sequence of the curriculum.

Determination of the sequence of the learning experiences is important to prevent undue duplication and to assure proper balance in the program. There should be a balance between what is socially and intellectually significant and what is interesting to the learners. Knowledge of the scope of the curriculum assists in the selection of learning experiences and instructional materials.

There are three things which determine the scope of the curriculum. They are: 1) the basic activities in which human beings engage; 2) the values society fosters and 3) the major problems society faces.

The sequence, on the other hand, is determined on the basis of the development needs of learners living in a given environmental community. The changing aspects of persistent life situations as the learners grow from childhood to adulthood also influence it. For the purpose of putting the right sequence in the curriculum, there should be a continuous study of the local environment so that continuity of learning experience is assured. However, there should be flexibility in the sequence so as to permit the teacher to begin where the learners are.

To give an illustration of the scope and sequence, let us take a look at the scope of the unified program in the elementary schools in the Philippines as suggested by the Bureau of Public Schools Bulletin No. 9, s. 1951; and the sequence suggested by the UNESCO Consultative Educational Mission in the Philippines in its report in 1948.

SCOPE

1. Economic Security
2. Peace and Order
3. Hygiene and Sanitation

4. Home Beautification
5. Food Production
6. Recreation
7. Civic Life
8. Moral Life

SEQUENCE

Grade I & II	III	IV	V	VI
Home & family life & living in our schools	Living in our town & province.	The Filipino people and their past.	The Filipino nation and its resources.	The Philippines in the community of Eastern & Western Hemispheres & in the emerging work community.

Guidelines in Curriculum Organization

A curriculum development program emerges out of an accurate picture of what the curriculum is now doing. The program is initiated by seizing upon existing criticism or dissatisfaction, or by bringing up shortcomings for discussion, or by introducing a new departure in education. The program will originate, ideally, from some current appraisal, or criticism, or dissatisfaction, some suggestions concerning a new departure, some individual experimental work under way.

To effectuate a good curriculum development program, curriculum organization must be well done. In view of this, here are some guidelines for this purpose.⁸

⁸O.N. Sagul *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 188.

1. Curriculum organization should take into consideration the needs, interests, and abilities of the learners as well as the social needs, problems and resources of the community. Some ways of doing this are by making an appraisal of the products of instruction, both subject-matter achievement, and personal and social growth; by initiating a community survey to determine needs, facilities, possibilities, or determining the validity of certain community criticisms of education; by actively seeking the comments, critical and otherwise, of the community through opinion polls of parents, other laymen, and the learners; and by seizing upon any current discussion of a new departure in education, or important research findings.

2. Curriculum organization should provide for continuity in the learning experiences of the learners. The content or experience must be related intrinsically to a method by which it can be learned. The learning experiences must be clearly perceived, retained, built over time, can be put to work, enhance the being of the learners and affect their behavior.

3. The curriculum should be so organized as to permit the individual teachers and their learners to plan the learning experiences best suited to their needs and interests and in conformity with the general framework of the curriculum which is cooperatively set up by the school and its staff. Experience is the rendering of its occurrence meaningful. Learning experience must be the result of deliberate awareness, of willed attention to cause, effect, and consequence, of cognitively weighing evidences and values, and of affective explorations and judgments. Learning experience is the encounter of a whole being with the whole dimension of a person, an act, a situation, or a process. The curriculum must make learning mobilize experience, create experience, re-create experience, and we even dare to say, exploit experience. For this reason, the curriculum must not only be systematically organized but must also be creative, and opportunistic.

4. Curriculum organization should provide for the development of fundamental skills through direct teaching and also integrative activities based on problems and needs of broad social significance. Learners, in general, constantly

conceptualize, explore, and reconceptualize. They respond eagerly to their individual and societal felt needs. They derive systems from what they learn and do not impose systems upon the unknown.

5. Curriculum organization should be done in such a way as to provide varied types of activities for a balance day of living for all learners. The test of an effective curriculum organization lies in the quality of learning experiences that learners achieve and in the effectiveness with which they apply what they learn in actual living in the community.

6. Curriculum organization should be around a number of big topics, problems, experience, or units that bring in all necessary and related details where they belong logically associated and vitally related to the main thought. When the curriculum is organized intelligently, reflective thinking, instead of rote memory, takes place. In other words, the curriculum should be woven into a related functioning whole and not as isolated or independent topics or units. Likewise, difficult subjects or things harder to grasp should be organized to promote the meaningful integration of knowledge. A genuine learning experience draws from all pertinent areas of knowledge in the arrival at the solution of a problem. This principle is opposed to the fragmentary learning program which tends to separate learning into discrete categories. Parts can be understood only in relation to the whole.

7. There should be coherence and at the same time perspective in curriculum organization. The problem of developing meaningful synthesis and perspective becomes increasingly necessary and increasingly difficult with the creation of new knowledge and new specialties. In an effort to view the curriculum in a coherent perspective, some curriculum theorists have proposed that the various areas of knowledge be grouped according to certain common properties. For example, Phenix classified the areas of knowledge into several "realms of meaning." One realm, designated as "symbolics," is seen to encompass ordinary language, mathematics, and various nondiscursive forms of expression such as gestures and rituals. Under the realm of "empirics" are the physical and biological sciences. In the realm of "esthetics"

are the various arts and literature. Areas that are comprehensively integrative, such as history and philosophy, are classified under the realm of "synotics." Phenix also designates realms, such as "ethics," those experiences that are beyond the province of given academic disciplines.

Unfortunately, such proposals fail to give us the coherence and perspective needed in curriculum construction because their classificatory limits are artificial and misleading. Can aesthetics be ascribed exclusively to the arts and literature, and not to the sciences? Are the sciences simply a matter of empirics? Creative acts in the sciences are not devoid of aesthetic and emotive experience.

For similar reasons, the proposal of Broudy, Smith, and Barnett of reducing the curriculum in such a way that aesthetics, symbolics, sciences, and so on are classified as separate domains, is of doubtful validity. However, their inclusion of "moral problems" in the curriculum presents opportunities for interrelated and integrated studies that are indeed life-relevant. Such studies can give coherence and perspective to a curriculum in general education that would otherwise be fragmented and discipline-centered.

The promising possibilities of utilizing the discipline principle for cross-disciplinary, multidisciplinary, and interdisciplinary studies are yet to be exploited effectively in making the curriculum relevant to the learner and the problems of the wider society. At times, the curriculum content drawn from various disciplines will have to be resynthesized into new interdisciplinary combinations. At other times, the integrity of each discipline will be maintained, but cross-disciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches will need to be followed. In any case a reorganization of both the content and the framework of the curriculum will be required if fragmentation is to be avoided and if coherence and balance are to be attained.

Steps in Curriculum Organization

Here are the steps in curriculum organization:

1. consideration of the educational aims to be achieved
2. formulation of educational objectives
3. selection and organization of the content
4. procedures or methods to be used to accomplish aims
5. the selection of the techniques for the evaluation of outcomes
6. the selection of references and materials to be used by the learners and by the teachers
7. determination of specific grade outcomes and standards of attainment

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Describe the different types of curriculum organization.
2. Enumerate the guidelines in curriculum organization.
3. What are the steps in curriculum organization?

18

Evaluation In Curriculum Development

To evaluate is to determine the value or worth of something, and worth is expressed in relation to some type of criterion. Some *types of criteria* used in evaluating the curriculum are the following:¹

1. *Aims and Objectives as Criteria.* The evaluative criteria is an evaluative approach to school evaluation by which the use of the school's own philosophy and educational aims are set as standard. The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards for secondary school evaluation was first published in 1940, with 1950 and 1960 revisions. This has been widely used by secondary schools throughout the United States as a basis for self-study and accreditation. This study has developed a proven way of recognizing that schools which are quite different may be equally good. This involves the basic principle that a school should be evaluated in terms of what it is striving to accomplish, that is, its philosophy and objectives and in terms of the extent to which it is meeting the needs of the students who are enrolled or for whom it is responsible.²

¹J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander, *Curriculum Planning For Modern Schools* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966).

²National Study of Secondary School Evaluation, *Evaluative Criteria*, 1960 Edition, Washington, D.C.: The Study, 1960, pp. 3-4.

When broad aims and specific objectives have been generally agreed upon and when the complex and varied tasks of the schools have been identified, intelligent evaluation can take place. Without agreement of broad purposes, common values, and the need for diversity, attempts to evaluate schools will inevitably lead to dispute and frustration. It is as futile to check the accomplishments of the curriculum against purposes that have not been previously established as it would be to expect a man to return from a place where he had not been.

2. *Achievement standards as criteria.* Certainly standardized tests can and do yield data of great significance in curriculum evaluation.

3. *Comprehensive, Externally Developed Criteria.* Statements of aims and objectives that have been adopted from some source outside the curriculum development group and that are used for curriculum evaluation are in themselves externally developed criteria. Reports and recommendations of national, regional, and state groups and even of individuals may also be treated as criteria and used to evaluate the curriculum.

4. *Locally Developed Criteria.* Some school faculties, both elementary, secondary, and system-wide, use their own statements of beliefs or criteria, usually developed with reference to the statements of others as suggested in their materials. The use of locally developed criteria is significant in the sense that there is better understanding of the curriculum and its evaluation which accrues through faculty study of possible criteria and final formulation of its own set. Development of such a set of criteria includes not only simple checking of the vocabularies and mechanics of published statements but also efforts to apply the criteria studied to determine whether they really fit the situation and whether there are features of the program not covered by the existing criteria.

Steps in Evaluating the Curriculum

A systematic enumeration of basic steps in evaluating curriculum was proposed by Gronlund (1968), which is

summarized as follows:³

1. Identification of the instructional objectives or the exact learning results desired
2. If necessary, operational statement of these objectives, that is, specification of the process and content elements in case instructional objectives are not precisely stated
3. Selection of instruments for measuring or description of learning results expected
4. Administration of the instruments and analysis of the outcomes to determine the extent to which the expected learning results have been attained

Evaluation may be both quantitative or numeral and qualitative or verbal. An example of quantitative evaluation is statistics based on how many words a learner can spell in a given list, or how many basic folk dance steps a learner can execute. An example of qualitative evaluation is giving verbal descriptions of expected learning results.

Evaluation thus proceeds from (1) *data collection* activities such as appraisal of pupil progress, follow-up studies of learners, use of opinion polls, and experimental studies, to (2) *data analysis* and then to (3) *interpretation*.

Techniques of Evaluation

A categorization of evaluation techniques developed by Sjogren⁴ in 1970 might be useful for curriculum evaluation. It includes measurement of inputs or antecedent variables, (2) outcomes or results, and (3) transactions or processes.

Formative evaluation is done when pupil achievement or written tests are administered during preliminary tryouts of an educational program in order to improve a proposed curriculum. Furthermore, decisions about modifications and improvement of the curriculum may be guided by the teacher's informal observation and reports during the preliminary

³As quoted in Dolores G. Garcia, *Curriculum Theory Application* (Quezon City, Philippines: Phoenix Press, Inc., 1973), p. 42.

⁴As quoted in *Ibid.*

testing of a course on difficulties that pupils encounter, the time period they spend to learning specific content, and the topics which interest them and which are within their background of experiences.⁵

Guides and protocols may be used as evaluation instruments to alert the observer and the reader of observation reports to important classroom variables so that observation may be replicated with consistent results. It also promotes objectivity in assigning value to what is observed. The classification of observational instruments is according to the degree of inference required of the observer and the reader. Inference is considered here as the process intervening between the objective data seen or heard and the coding of those data on an observational instrument.⁶ There are two kinds of observational instruments: 1) *Low-inference measures* such as category systems and 2) *High-inference measures* such as the rating system. In the first kind, the items stress specific, identifiable, and relatively objective behaviors and are recorded as frequent counts. These items may include: "the learner takes initiative in participating in the discussions" or "the learner takes part in the discussions when his ideas are asked." In the second kind, the behaviors must be inferred as occurring "consistently," "sometimes," "seldom," etc. Such behavior items may include "initiative," "enthusiasm for creative activities," or "cooperation."

Summative Evaluation is terminal evaluation and it involves judgment of a finished product such as a teaching machine or a curriculum on the market, and assessing whether it is better than another or the best among others of its kind. Summative evaluation may be undertaken through *comparative evaluation* or *noncomparative techniques* such as *payoff evaluation*.

A paradigm for systematizing comparative evaluation proposed by Popham in 1968 consists of the following:

1. Identification of the specific instructional objectives. These contain behavioral and content components which

⁵Lee J. Cronbach, *Evaluation for Course Improvement*. Norman E. Greshund (ed.), *Readings in Measurement and Evaluation: Education and Psychology* (New York: Macmillan, 1968).

⁶Rosenbush, 1970, p. 281.

serve as criteria for needed tests (tests using objectives as standards) or from the program itself.

2. Grouping the objectives according to (a) those common to both programs being compared, (b) those unique to one program, and (c) those unique to the other program.
3. Development of test items for each category of objectives. Here we must decide how many test items may sufficiently serve as an index to the degree of attainment of each set of objectives. In general, there is a need for more test items when there are more objectives. However, there are some objectives requiring more test items than others, thereby changing the numerical proportion.
4. Putting together the three sets of test items in a three-part examination. The original grouping of items may be retained so that the common items and the items unique to the program not completed are encountered in that order.
5. Assignment of values to the three sets of objectives. This involves the consideration of priorities. Values must be quantified to reduce subjectivity and imprecision.
6. Assignment of a random sample of students to each of the two programs being compared. The tests designed are administered to these students upon completion of the programs.
7. Selection of the appropriate program on the basis of the performance of the learners on each section of the examination and the values assigned to each part.

Payoff evaluation is the examination of the effects of the instrument or curriculum on student learning by comparing the results of pre- and post-tests or determining the relationship between the scores of the experimental group and those of control group on specified criteria. Three activities recommended by Scriven (1967) are the following:⁸ (1) examine regularly the goals based on evidence provided by developmental activities which may suggest the modification and, perhaps, the accommodation of new goals; (2) develop a pool

⁸As quoted in D.G. Garcia, *op. cit.*, p. 45.

⁹Michael Scriven, *The Methodology of Evaluation*. R.W. Tyler, R.M. Gagne, and M. Scriven (ed.), *Perspectives in Curriculum Evaluation*, (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1976), pp. 39-83.

of test items with the goals or objectives as criteria; and (3) judge the consistency among the proposed ends and the test-item pool by resource persons, including subject specialists, a logician, an educational psychologist, and a curriculum expert.

Another evaluation technique is *Intrinsic Evaluation* which refers to the assessment of the educational program or the curriculum itself. Here we examine the merits of the educational aims and objectives, the efficiency of the means such as instructional procedures and devices, and the consistency between ends and means with the help of a logician, a subject specialist, a curriculum expert, and an evaluation expert. In order to realize such an examination, we must procure information (1) about the pupil, including his mental capacity, socio-economic background, and past performance, (2) about the training and efficiency of the professional staff, and (3) about society's values, culture, and problems. Other sources of data are school records, interviews, and questionnaires.

Another technique is the *Cost-Benefit Study* of an educational program which is mainly the figuring out of the opportunity cost, that is, the cost of foregoing the next best alternative.⁷⁰ Decisions revolve around the selection of a program of value which is comparatively superior to another. We can not underestimate the importance of curriculum evaluation which suggests whether time, effort, and funds should be invested in a particular program of instruction by an educational system.

As a last remark regarding evaluation, we state that not a single method but a complement of methods in evaluation must be used in making a decision on the appropriateness of a curriculum package.

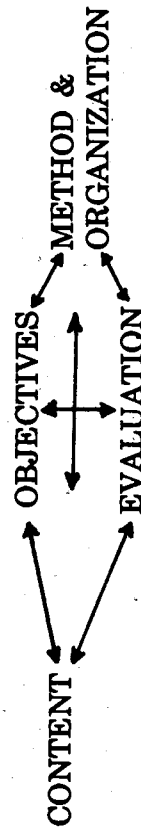


FIGURE 3: RELATIONSHIP OF THE DIFFERENT ELEMENTS OF THE CURRICULUM

⁷⁰Kaufman *et al.*, 1969 as quoted in D.G. Garcia, *op. cit.*, p. 471.

Marks of a Good Curriculum

Here are some marks of a good curriculum which may be used as criteria for evaluation purposes.¹⁰

- I. A good curriculum is systematically planned and evaluated.
 1. A definite organization is responsible for coordinating planning and evaluation.
 2. Steps in planning and evaluation are logically defined and taken.
 3. Ways or working utilize the contributions of all concerned.
- II. A good curriculum reflects adequately the aims of the school.
 1. The Faculty has defined comprehensive educational aims.
 2. The scope of the curriculum includes areas related to all stated aims.
 3. Each curriculum opportunity is planned with reference to one or more aims.
 4. In planning curriculum opportunities from year to year and in each area, teachers consider the total scope of aims.
- III. A good curriculum maintains balance among all aims of the school.
 1. The curriculum gives attention to each aim commensurate with its importance.
 2. The total plan of curriculum opportunities in basic areas, school activities, and special interests reflects careful planning with respect to all aims.
 3. Guidance of each individual helps provide him with a program which is well-balanced in terms of his needs and capacities.

¹⁰J. Galen Saylor, *et al.*, *op. cit.*

4. The school organization, schedule, and facilities help in giving appropriate attention to each aim.
5. Classroom activities and schedules are arranged so as to provide a balanced program of varied learning activities.

IV. A good curriculum promotes continuity of experience.

1. Provisions are made for the smooth transition and continuing achievement of pupils from one classroom, grade, or school to another.
2. Curriculum plans in areas which extend over several years are developed vertically.
3. Classroom practices give attention to the maturity and learning problems of each pupil.
4. Cooperative planning and teaching provide for exchange of information about pupil's learning experiences.

V. A good curriculum arranges learning opportunities flexibly for adaptation to particular situations and individuals.

1. Curriculum guides encourage teachers to make their own plans for specific learning situations.
2. Cooperative teaching and planning utilize many opportunities as they arise to share learning resources and special talents.
3. Time allotments and schedules are modified as need justifies.
4. In accordance with their maturity, pupils participate in the planning of learning experiences.
5. The selection of learning experiences reflects careful attention to the demands of the learning situation.

VI. A good curriculum utilizes the most effective learning experiences and resources available.

1. Learning experiences are developed so that pupils see purpose, meaning, and significance in each activity.
2. Needed available resources are utilized at the time they are relevant and helpful.
3. Use of the right learning resource for each pupil is encouraged.
4. Teachers discriminate wisely between activities which pupils carry on independently and those in which teacher-pupil interaction is desirable.

VII. A good curriculum makes maximum provision for the development of each learner.

1. The program provides a wide range of opportunities for individuals of varying abilities, needs, and interests.
2. Extensive arrangements are made for the educational diagnosis of individual learners.
3. Self-directed, independent study is encouraged wherever possible and advisable.
4. Self-motivation and self-evaluation are stimulated and emphasized throughout the learning opportunities of the school.
5. The curriculum promotes individual development rather than conformity to some hypothetical standard.
6. The school attempts to follow up its former students both as a service to them and for evaluative data.

New trends in Curriculum Evaluation

Glass and Worthen (1972) define curriculum evaluation as the process of obtaining information for judging the worth of an educational program, product, procedure, or educational

objective, or the potential utility of alternative approaches designed to attain specified objectives. In their monograph supplement to the journal *Curriculum Theory Network* they affirm that the evaluative activities include the following:

- o determining what ought to be in a program
- o setting up standards
- o looking at the roles of individuals involved in the change process
- o becoming sensitized to political aspects of the situation

Evaluation is no longer merely a process of measuring the extent to which goals are being achieved. The evaluator is now concerned with the appropriateness and importance of those goals. In the formative (planning) phase he assists in determining alternative means for reaching goals, in defining possible consequences, and in allocating resources. Starting with a definition of program standards makes it possible to compare those standards with actual performance in a final summative evaluation.

Process or transactional evaluation can aid ongoing innovative programs. It focuses on the individuals in a changed situation by analyzing the organizational disruption that results from innovations. Likewise the politics of the curricular setting are a crucial consideration. While an evaluator should stay away from involvement in political causes, he should be sensitive to such realities as the use of evaluation as tactical weapon, unacknowledged political goals, and effects on participants.

Part two of the monograph presents three comprehensive frameworks for curriculum evaluation. One is a curriculum/student monitoring system for the formative evaluation of school programs. Another collects and analyzes student progress data. The third uses systems analysis techniques to aid in future decision-making, extending the earlier model devised by Daniel Stufflebeam and Egon Guba.

The third part of the monograph treats various aspects of evaluation methodology:

- o the distinction between evaluation and research activities
- o interdisciplinary contributions to evaluation
- o strategies for optimizing resources
- o instruments for analyzing curricular materials
- o procedures for formative and summative evaluations

Worner (1972) argues that many principals have failed to convince parents and boards of the potential of an instructional program because of vague and imprecise evaluation data.¹² Planning-Programming-Budgeting Systems provide the type of data that help principals in making difficult decisions on program expansion, program elimination, and program maintenance. This approach enhances the knowledge of key school administrators about the effectiveness of instructional programs by identifying program strengths, flaws, and alternatives.

A speech prepared by Rush and other (1972) reports a systematic attempt to train and use classroom teachers and administrators in the operation of a curriculum evaluation model.¹³ The data indicate that competent professionals can indeed be trained to play an effective role. In turn, their training can be used as an in service component of an overall evaluation. This professional group can then deal with final evaluation reports.

An "expected opportunity loss" model is advanced by Tanner (1970) as a decision-making technique. The model formulates alternatives for decision-making under uncertainty and weighs the probable or possible opportunity loss. It subjectively ranks courses according to their expected contributions to the primary objective of the total program. Objective data are gained from component costs, but less emphasis is placed on these components than in traditional cost-effectiveness models. The minimum loss is evaluated as the optimum decision.

¹²Roger B. Worner. "Evaluating Instructional Programs." *NASSP Bulletin*, 56, 366 (October 1972), pp. 17-26.

¹³Donal E. Rush, and others. "Cooperative Curriculum Evaluation: Application of a Theoretical Curriculum Evaluation Model." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1972. 10 pages.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. What are the criteria for evaluating the curriculum?

Part Six

Recent Dimensions In Curriculum Development

The recent dimensions in curriculum development consist of a number of innovations relevant to the curriculum. These are the new ideas designed to meet changing needs and conditions made since the establishment of a modern formal educational system in the Philippines in the early 1900s. Some of these innovations such as the integrative method of the 1950's and the conceptual and process approaches of today have been patterned after educational policies and practices in the United States. The other innovations are results of the assessment of Philippine needs and problems such as the community school movement, bilingualism and the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction, the barrio high schools, and the work-education program.

Before we examine each of the recent dimensions influencing the curriculum, let us briefly give the directions in curriculum reform which are the following:

1. Attention is drawn farther away from the teacher in the direction of the learner.

2. The emphasis is upon the learner and only indirectly and secondarily upon subjects, materials, and activities.
3. Whatever is taught must be understood by the learner to be in some definite manner vitally related to the achievement of his purpose.
4. The organization of the curriculum should begin with vital concerns of the present and relate these concerns with the past as the past is recognized as essential to an understanding of definite concerns of the present.
5. The organization of the curriculum should lead the learner to project the broad next steps from the events of the present and immediate past.
6. Textbooks become source materials rather than ends in themselves.
7. The gradual elimination of the artificial barriers that set off one subject from another in present curriculum practice.
8. The broad organization of materials and activities into unit situation most likely to result in significant learning experience on the part of the pupil.
9. More thorough integration of the life of the school with that of the home and the community.
10. The recognition that the outside class activities of the school are often more significant for learning than the traditionally recognized activities.
11. The experience approach requires the teacher to draw upon a wide range of varied resources in order to meet the different learning situations arising in the normal life of the learner.
12. Teachers, to contribute in maximal degree to the education of the pupil, must know intimately the home and community environment of the learner.

13. Teachers must be versatile in the use and adoption of different methods to meet varied learning situations.
14. Teachers must have a much more rigorous background of training both in its extent and its breadth.
15. The teacher must have experienced life broadly and deeply to be a guide and interpreter of life.
16. Teachers must have a more practical internship experience similar to that of the physician to meet the demands of the new curriculum.
17. Every teacher must be well grounded in the broad area known as the social sciences.
18. Primary emphasis is drawn from academic scholarship to pedagogical and academic scholarship.
19. There is a move from the involvement of only academic-scholars and teachers to the involvement of all levels of decision-makers in the schools, including parents, students, and scholars, but with special emphasis on the teachers' participation.
20. There is a move from child-, society-, or discipline-centered curriculum to the total curriculum and humanistic curriculum.
21. There is a move from selling prepackaged programs to truly experimental programs.
22. Focus is drawn from the means of education to the ends, aims, objectives of education.
23. There is a move from the tendency to teach everything to establishing priorities.
24. Focus is drawn from the gifted and the deprived students to all students.
25. There is a move from offering one course at a time to higher education and adult education as well.
26. There is a move from mere in-service training of teachers to continuing career development of teachers.

19

The Conceptual Approach

The phenomena of knowledge explosion, obsolescence, changing complex world, wide range of abilities in the classroom have led to the formulation of the conceptual approach in education.

The conceptual approach may be considered either as a way of organizing the curriculum or a way of developing concepts through scientific inquiry. Since we are interested in the first one, we will define the conceptual approach as a method of organizing the curriculum around basic concepts and generalization.¹ Concept is the categorization or classification of things, events, or ideas. We should not expect the learner to instantly grasp a concept. He should first be led into learning such concept in a hierarchical and developmental pattern. We should start with specific facts which, when connected and interrelated, may be used to form concepts with a low level of abstraction. Let us cite an example cited by Dr. Leonardo D. de la Cruz:² All objects of nature utilized by men are grouped together and given a symbol - *natural resources*. The basis for the classification is the attribute "gift of nature." *Natural resources* is a mental image; it is an abstraction. And being an abstraction, it cannot be easily comprehended by

¹Leonardo D. De la Cruz, "The Conceptual Approach in the New Social Studies," *Junior Citizen*, Teacher's Edition, Vol. III, Issue No. 1 (Aug. 20, 1973), p. TE-7.

²*Ibid.*

beginning learners. We should start, therefore, with specific facts which, when connected and interrelated, may be used to form concepts with low level of abstraction such as narra, acacia, and alibang-bang are "shade trees." Orange, chico, and atis are fruit trees. The concepts *shade tree* and *fruit tree*, together with other related minor concepts, should first be attained by a learner before he can fully develop the concept of *tree*. But *tree* is only one of the many subconcepts of the concept *natural resources*. Before the learner can attain the concept of natural resources, he should first develop its other subconcepts the concepts of land, power, minerals, and water, for instance.

The relationship and interrelationship of concepts result into generalizations. Take for example the statement "Natural resources are indispensable for the development and progress of a nation." This is a generalization and the concepts *natural resources*, *development*, *progress*, and *nation* are interrelated.

The foundational concepts and generalizations of a discipline are often referred to as *structure*. The focus on structure is imperative for, as Paul Todd observes, "every minute 2,000 pages of books, newspapers, or reports are published somewhere in the world."⁷³ Since it is impossible for any man to know every important bit of information, it is important that instruction is focused on the fundamental ideas or on the concepts and generalizations of each major branch of knowledge. In the social studies, the structures of history and the social sciences have been utilized as integrating disciplines and the other subject matter fields function as supporting disciplines.

Since concepts and generalizations are abstractions that grow from one's experiences, the process of conceptualizing is subjective; it is personal to the learner. It is something only the conceptualizer or learner can do. It is not memorizing what someone else thinks a specific concept is. Conceptualizing means examining and reflecting on similar experiences in order to identify their common elements and build an

⁷³Paul Todd, *The Social Studies and the Social Sciences* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962), p. 285.

orderly image of them.⁴ In this sense, concept attainment is, more challenging than fact learning. It requires the learner to continually think. He is, for instance, made to compare, discriminate, and judge things and events in the course of their cognition and effective experiencing. Since experiencing is an ongoing process, then one's concept of anything is hardly ever absolute.

Content, that, is concepts and generalizations, and process are inextricably connected. It is impossible to process nothing as it is equally impossible to do nothing to content. Hence content and process are interrelated.⁵

The strategy preferred in the conceptual approach may be generally described as inquiry which is mainly premised on the idea that due to the fast "turnover" of knowledge, it is better to stress the "how to learn" rather than "what to learn." David Kellum affirms that the supreme accomplishment of the inquiry approach is that it trains students how to think and it gets them into the habit of thinking.⁶ Carpenter comments on the inquiry method in this way:

"The inquiry approach views the learner as an active thinker—seeking, probing, processing data from his environment toward a variety of destinations along paths best suited to his own mental characteristics. It rejects passiveness as an ingredient of effective learning and the concept of mind as a reservoir for the storage of knowledge presented through expository instruction directed toward a pre-determined, closed end. The inquiry method seeks to avoid the dangers of note memorization and verbalization as well as the hazard of fostering dependency in citizens as learners and thinkers ..."

Dr. Leonardo de la Cruz has something to say regarding

⁴Barry K. Beyer and Anthony N. Penna, *Concepts in the Social Studies*. NCSS Bulletin No. 45, 1971, p. 87.

⁵Sydney Lester, "A New Theory of Instruction for Teachers of the New Social Studies," in *Social Science Record*, A Journal of the New York State Council for the Social Studies (April, 1971), p. 43.

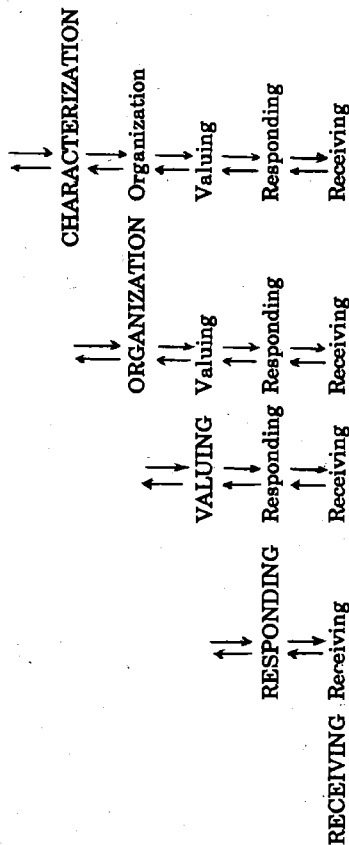
⁶David F. Kellum, *The Social Studies Myths and Realities* (New York: A Search Book: Sheed and Ward, 1969), p. 106.

⁷Helen McCracken Carpenter, "The Role of Skills in Elementary Social Studies," *Social Education*, (March 1967).

the appropriateness of the inquiry method for the Filipinos:

The "inquiry mode" of learning is probably even more imperative for Philippine schools, since only about 55.8 per cent of Filipino youth stay in school up to the sixth grade, only about 25.3 per cent manage to reach high school, and only about 11.5 per cent complete college. Therefore, the sooner Filipino children are taught how to continue to think and learn by themselves, the more self-reliant Filipinos could be harnessed by our schools.⁸

The conceptual approach concerns not merely cognitive but also the affective side. It leads the learner into the realm of valuing and attitude formation and/or reformation, as the case may be. It aims at the *characterization* level, the stage where learners can be said to have internalized the value and are not merely professing about the value they have chosen, but are behaving accordingly. Below is Bloom's scheme:



The experiential method in the conceptual approach is based on three basic educational principles, as stated by Pine and Horne:⁹

1. Learning is change as a result of an experience which is personally meaningful and relevant to the individual.
2. Learning is both an intellectual and an emotional process.

⁸Leonardo D. De la Cruz, "The Conceptual Approach in the New Social Studies," *Junior Citizen*, Teacher's Edition, Vol. III, Issue No. 2, (Aug. 27, 1973).
⁹Gerald Pine and Peter Horne, *Laboratories in Human Relations* (Revised 1969) NYL, Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, NEA, Washington, D.C.

3. Learning is a cooperative and collaborative process. Fritz Perls describes this process beautifully when he affirmed:

"Learning is discovery. There is no other means of effective learning. You can tell a child a thousand times that the stove is hot. It doesn't help. The child has to discover for himself."

The conceptual approach aims at developing a thinking-feeling-acting man.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Discuss the conceptual approach of organizing a curriculum.

20

Community School Education

The movement to community school education stems from a variety of concerns about the learner and societal structures. People are realizing how socioeconomic conditions, regional prejudice, and a multitude of subtle environmental factors have a dramatic bearing on one's ability to learn. There is also a growing recognition that learning is a lifelong process and the right to education should not be limited to the young. Community school education represents a serious and wide-scale attempt to respond to these factors through specific programs and activities and through a general reorientation of the community's attitudes toward schools.

The Nature of a Community School Education

Kerensky (1972) defines community education as a process that "puts meaning into the notion that people can and should make an input into the educational system that serves their community."¹ He emphasizes that, as a process, community education lends itself more to description than to definition.

The community school transforms the traditional role of the neighborhood school into that of a total community center

¹V.M. Kerensky. "Correcting Some Misconceptions about Community Education." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 54, 3 (November 1972), pp. 153-160.

where education is considered a lifelong process for which the individual and the society are jointly responsible. Hughes perceives the underlying premise of the community school to be the belief "that the schools belong to the people, and that local resources can be harnessed to attack community problems."² Thus the school may serve a four-fold role as:

- o an educational center where learner and adults have optimum opportunities for study and learning
- o a neighborhood center for cultural and recreational activities
- o a center for social services
- o a center of neighborhood and community life assisting citizens in the study and solution of neighborhood problems

Dr. Cecilio Putong defines a community school as one *succinctly* with, and intimately related to, the life of the community in which it is located; a school of, by, and for the community.³ Trinidad and Gaffud affirms that the community school is "a school that integrates the education of the child with that of the adult toward home and community betterment; it is a school that utilizes the material, human, and institutional resources of the community as part of the educational facilities so as to make school learning functionally related to the realities of life; and it is a school that aims to develop children, youth and adults to become useful members of society through continuous participation in democratic living."⁴

The community school emphasizes parental involvement, stresses education as a continuing process open to adults as well as to children, and directly confronts its environment to clarify unique neighborhood characteristics while providing for their better integration into the entire community. The movement is young; no one is sure yet what these schools should do but there is a widespread conviction

³John R. Hughes, editor. *The Community School and Its Concepts*. (1972).

⁴Quoted in BPS Bulletin No. 17, s. 1950.

⁵Venancio Trinidad and Miguel B. Gaffud, *The Philippine Community Schools* (Quezon City: Bookmark Printing House, 1959), p. 111.

that community school education can be a valuable force for revitalizing our society. By serving as a forum for citizen expression and an encourager of community action, the community school promises real solutions to the problems of alienation and cynicism afflicting both our youth and our adults.

Community Education and Community Schools

While there exists some confusion in the definition of community education, community schools, and neighborhood schools, Baillie and others (1972) offer a good general description of each term.⁵ *Community education* is a concept based on a process of education for children, youth and adults. The process refers to the organization of the community into appropriate size units to facilitate interaction, identification of local resources, and involvement of people in the solution of their own problems and the problems of the community. It is an effort to capture a sense of community without eliminating its pluralism.

Community schools are vehicles that provide opportunities for community involvement and decision-making. They are for the entire community and are often located in the neighborhood school. (They need not be in the neighborhood schools to be community schools).

There are major distinctions between the *neighborhood school* and the *community school*. Both may offer similar programs, services, and activities, yet the community school concept is premised on the ultimate goal of community involvement and participation and is not necessarily based in the individual's neighborhood. The neighborhood school is usually oriented to skill attainment, personal enjoyment, and individual self-enrichment for a particular age group at a school in the individual's immediate surroundings.

⁵Susan Baillie and others. *The Potential Role of the School for Integrating Social Services* (Syracuse, New York: Educational Policy Research Center, Syracuse University Research Corporation, 1972).

The Philosophy of Community School Education

Community school education is life-centered. It looks at individual differences related to most community participation. Its concept of human nature is neither good nor bad. It stresses environmental conditioning and group achievement. The teacher's role is to impart direct learning process for most effective group participation. As Totten (1972) states: "The community educator is committed to the idea that people learn from the total environment. That is, the entire community is the school plant. All the people are potential teachers. Everything in the community is a potential resource.⁵ The method employed is group responsibility and group planning geared to community concerns; grappling with solutions to community problems; and development or responsible community participation.

It advocates a flexible curriculum based on social process and community needs, training and experience in community action programs, and community activities. It gives major emphasis to the local community. Its measurement of outcomes and achievements is the subject matter and personality values plus achievement in community information.

Community school education believes that the best way to learn the art of living is from life itself in its community setting. Its program is dynamic, constantly changing to meet emerging community needs.

It is noteworthy to mention here that community education has been initiated primarily by private sources and that local communities have had to rely on their own initiative to develop financial and non-financial support for their programs. The people who live with community education programs are also involved in developing them.

⁵Fred W. Totten. "Community Education-Best Hope for Society." *School and Society*, 98, 2328 (November 1970), pp. 410-413.

Strategies for Establishing Community School Education

Carrillo and Heaton (1972) outlined the strategies for establishing community education into fourteen steps which are as follows:⁷

1. Request information and/or assistance from an existing center for community education development.
2. Schedule a meeting involving a cross-section of interested school district personnel, community representatives, and community agency representatives to consider the application of community education to community life.
3. Schedule a meeting with the appropriate school district central administration personnel and school principals.
4. Schedule an exploratory meeting with the appropriate school district officials.
5. The development steering committee members may wish to send a representative group to visit an existing community school.
6. Schedule meetings with the entire staffs of school buildings where principals have indicated an eagerness to provide leadership in the establishment of pilot community schools.
7. Schedule meetings with community residents and community agency personnel in school communities which may be potential sites of pilot schools.
8. Following these steps in the developmental process, the board of education and/or supportive agencies formally adopt the concept of community education and decide to establish a pilot community school.

⁷Tony S. Carrillo and Israel C. Heaton. "Strategies for Establishing a Community Education Program." *Phil Delta Magazine*, 54, 3 (November 1972), pp. 165-167.

9. Select a community education coordinator for the pilot school.
10. Release the appointed community education coordinator for appropriate community school education training, if he has none.
11. Implement the initial phases of the community school program.
12. Establish a community advisory council.
13. Initiate a detailed study of the wants and needs of the community.
14. Establish a plan of pre-evaluation, continual evaluation, and post-evaluation.

Community School Education and Curriculum Development

The community school is organized around basic life concerns and problems of living. It must reach out into all aspects of country life. It should experiment with "genuinely life-concern-centered curriculums" that might effectively respond to and help focus the need of today's society for a true sense of "common-unity." Curriculums might explore basic life-activity areas such as securing food and shelter, protecting life and health, exchanging ideas, sharing in citizenship, enriching family living, and asserting personal identity. By emphasizing learning about present problems and future possibilities, this approach might better integrate education and living.

Some principles in curriculum development for community schools can serve as guidelines. They are the following:⁹

1. The primary function of the curriculum is to minister to the needs of living in the community.
2. The materials of instruction must be drawn from community life and its environment.
3. The curriculum should preserve and develop only

those elements of the social heritage that are vital to the realization of the people's ideals.

4. The curriculum should train the individual for intelligent participation in the school and in the economic, and political life of the community, the province, the nation, and the world.
5. The characteristics of growth and development of Filipino children must be determined and used in grading and organizing the curriculum.
6. The curriculum should be organized on a broader and more functional basis. The trend is definitely toward the organization of the curriculum on broader units, themes, problems, etc.
7. The local school people — the teacher, principal, supervisor, and superintendent — must be given increasing freedom and latitude in developing the curriculum.
8. In every phase of the curriculum and in every stage of its development, the ideals of democracy must be preserved.
9. Curriculum development should be a group enterprise in which the teacher, school administrator, supervisor, curriculum expert, and layman make contributions.
10. The curriculum should be centered in a study of community structure, processes, and problems.¹⁰

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Differentiate community education from community school.
2. What are the strategies for establishing community school education?

⁹*Quarterly Bulletin of the Philippines Association of School Superintendents*, Vol. II, Nos. 1, Sept. 1952.

¹⁰WPS Bulletin No. 17, s. 1950.

Bilingual Education And The Use Of The Vernacular As Medium Of Instruction

The question of what language to use in the classroom has been one of the most persistent problems in Philippine education. At the introduction of the American school system in the country, the first question that the educators had to tackle was the medium of instruction. After long debates, English was adopted as the language of the schools and the Philippines launched a bold experiment on human understanding.¹

With regard to teaching in the vernaculars, the Monroe Commission recommended experimentation in the use of the vernacular but it was only in 1948 that such experiment was undertaken in Iloilo. Favorable results revealed that the local dialects could be used to a greater advantage by children in the early stages of their education. With this result the superintendents of schools approved a wider use of the vernacular in the schools. This change in traditional policy was primarily aimed for the wider benefit of the children and

¹Antonio Isidro, *Trends and Issues in Philippine Education* (Quezon City: Alamar-Phoenix Publishing House, 1968), pp. 199 ff.

the nation that even the private schools and the press showed interest in this emerging educational practice.

With the use of the vernaculars the influence of the schools can easily penetrate the life at home and the activities in the communities.

The Board of National Education also presented a policy recommendation on the language of instruction, namely:

1. That Pilipino be the main language of instruction at the elementary level with provision for the use of vernacular languages in the first two grades.
2. That Pilipino and English be the languages of instruction at the secondary and higher levels.

To insure the success of the program, the recommendation also provides "that intensive teacher education programs be introduced, both pre-service and in-service to train teachers in the use of Pilipino and the vernacular languages as media of instruction".

The Bilingual Program of Instruction

Upon the recommendation of the National Board of Education and in consonance with the constitution of 1973, the Bilingual Education Policy was enunciated officially in Department Order No. 25, series 1974, on June 19, 1974 by the Secretary of Education and Culture, in order to develop a bilingual nation competent in the use of English and Pilipino. Bilingualism in the schools is defined operationally as the separate use of English and Pilipino as media of instruction in certain subject areas from Grade I to 4th year High School. The subject areas are divided into Pilipino Domain and English Domain or the English Block and Pilipino Block.

PILIPINO DOMAIN:

Social Studies, Social Science, Character Education, Work Education, Health Education and Physical Education.

ENGLISH BLOCK:

Science and Math
Art and Music

English and Pilipino will still be taught as language subjects.

The timetable stipulated and relevant to elementary schools demand actual implementation by the beginning of school year 1978-1979, roughly four years from thence, with the school allowed to make the transition earlier if feasible.

The shift is mandatory in the following grades:

1978-1979 Grades I, II, III, IV (Primary)
1979-1980 Grades V, VI (Intermediate)

So as to prevent a bottleneck, it would be advisable to adopt either one of the following timetables:

MODEL A

1975-1976 Grade I
1976-1977 Grades I, II
1977-1978 Grades I, II, III
1978-1979 Grades I, II, III, IV
1979-1980 Grades I, II, III, IV, V, VI

MODEL B

Grades I and II
Grades I, II, III
Grades I, II, III, IV
Grades I, II, III, IV, V
1979-1980 Grades I, II, III, IV, V, VI

Since there is no definite ruling on Grade VII, we would probably have to make inquiries from the Department of Education and Culture.

The historical background of this bilingual policy is as follows: The 1973 Constitution made Pilipino and English as official languages of the country. In a speech delivered on May 7, 1973, at the Marikina School of Arts and Trades for Pilipino supervisors of the school system, the President enunciated a policy of bilingualism. He strongly urged the group to develop

a bilingual nation-competent in the use of both English and Filipino and this became the basis of the creation of the National Board of Education Policy on bilingualism in the schools. The Board commissioned the Director of Public Schools, Dr. Liceria Brillantes Soriano, to form a committee to study the formulation of guidelines for implementation. In turn, this committee appointed a sub-committee to do a nationwide survey of manpower and materials resources to gauge the readiness of the system to undertake this important change. The survey committee called SCOB (Survey Committee on Bilingual Education) drafted the instruments, and with the help of the Research Guidance and Evaluation Division of the Department of Education, Bureau of Public Schools, administered the survey during the months of March to May of 1974.

On the basis of this survey results, as well as the recommendations of the Soriano Committee, the National Board of Education gave some guidelines, which have become incorporated into Department Order No. 25.

The call for new materials under the bilingual education program is a call for materials in Filipino for the content areas of social studies/ social sciences, character education, work education, health education and physical education. Under the DEC ruling, approval of future books in the above areas will be given only if they are written in Filipino. In fact, there are already materials available, mostly translations, and of varying quality.

The hardest of all in the implementation of the program will be the hiring of competent teachers to teach in Filipino or to teach content subjects using Filipino as the medium of instruction. This problem becomes all the more acute in non-Tagalog speaking areas.

The principal of the school will have to hire competent faculty who can impart content in the social sciences in Filipino. Unfortunately we have no standardized tests as yet to really gauge the communicative competence of our teachers in Filipino. Until such tests are developed, we have to rely on informal observation, interviews, and perhaps performance during class demonstrations. We should likewise seri-

ously think of importing talent from Tagalog-speaking areas to implement the policy, at least for the time being.

In addition to curricular modification, a public relations campaign for acceptance among parents, students, and teachers, access to materials in Filipino, hiring of competent faculty and/or re-training of current faculty, we must build into the program a systematic program of evaluation to monitor our results.

In organizing a bilingual program for the elementary school, in compliance with the DEC Order No. 25, series 1974, the following will be needed:

- a modified time-table

- a suggested blocking of time according to language domain

- a public relations campaign for acceptance on the part of parents-materials in Filipino for the stipulated areas and teachers able to teach in Filipino in the stipulated subject areas

- a continuous formative and summative evaluation program

- a time-table of implementation with a time-scale extending from 1975-1976 to 1979-1980

- a good coordinator to oversee the program

Hopefully, our schools will then be educating the bilingual Filipino of the future "competent in the use of both English and Filipino", for he will need both to function in our society and our world in the future. He will need English as a language of wider communication and to gain access to the accumulated wealth of reading materials in science and technology which he will need to develop himself and our country, he will need Filipino not only to express his native identity but because in today's Philippine society, to make contact with all strata of society, one needs Filipino for survival - in labor relations, in politics, in assemblies - calling forth a manifestation of self-identity, in internalizing the faith

and the acceptance of the mystery of salvation, in conceptualizing the values and elements of his own culture.

Following is the text of the present Constitution (which was approved in a plebiscite held in 1987) as regards to our national language which is Filipino. It is worthy to note the emphasis given by the framers of this constitution for the development and enrichment of our national language for instruction as a medium of communication in all government offices. While English is still adopted as a means of instruction and communication, the use of Filipino, which is now adopted and implemented by the Department of Education and Culture and Sports, is expected to benefit the great majority of Filipinos in terms of better understanding and greater involvement in the affairs of government.

Article XIV Section 6 of the 1987 Constitution has the following text on Language.

Section 6. The national language of the Philippines is Filipino. As it evolves, it shall be further developed and enriched on the basis of existing Philippine and other languages.

Subject to provisions of law and as the Congress may deem appropriate, the Government shall take steps to initiate and sustain the use of Filipino as a medium of official communication and as language of instruction in the educational system.

Section 7. For purposes of communication and instruction, the official languages of the Philippines are Filipino and, until otherwise provided by law, English.

The regional languages are the auxiliary official languages in the regions and shall serve as auxiliary media of instruction therein.

Spanish and Arabic shall be promoted on a voluntary and optional basis.

Section 8. The Constitution shall be promulgated in Filipino and English and shall be translated into major regional languages, Arabic, and Spanish.

Section 9. The Congress shall establish a national language commission composed of representatives of various regions and disciplines which shall undertake, coordinate and promote researches for the development, propagation, and preservation of Filipino and other languages.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Discuss the bilingual program of the Department of Education and Culture.

Individualized Education

There exist various systems of individualized instruction. When the school selects both the learning objectives and the media for attainment, the category is termed *Individually Diagnosed and Prescribed Learning*. When the school determines what is to be learned but allows the learner freedom to determine how he will attain the objectives, the category is termed *Self-Directed Learning*. In situations where the learner selects the objective but the media are determined by the school, the category is termed *Personalized Learning*. If the student selects both *what* is to be learned and *how* to learn it, the category is termed *Independent Study*. These are the four approaches to individualized instruction.¹ Let us discuss further the several systems or modes of individualized education.

Individually Prescribed Instruction

In Individually Prescribed Instruction, the learning objectives and the media for attaining those objectives are carefully programmed and a sequenced and detailed listing of behaviorally stated instructional objectives is prescribed for the child.² These objectives are determined as the child

¹Jack V. Edling, *Individualized Instruction: A Manual for Administrators*, (Corvallis: Teaching Research Division, Oregon State System Division, Oregon State System of Higher Education, 1971), p. 2.

²*Individually Prescribed Instruction*. (Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1971).

places himself on the learning continuum by taking tests in each subject matter area. Then learning materials are geared exactly to the objectives and are such that pupils can proceed quite independently with a minimum of direct teacher instruction.

There is a requirement, however, that each pupil's work be guided by written prescriptions prepared to meet his individual needs and interests. Individually Prescribed Instruction hinges on a wealth of materials, sequentially ordered for systematic progress toward behavioral goals. The progress of the pupil is then evaluated daily through the use of curriculum-embedded tests.

In this system the teacher spends little time teaching a group, and much of his time is spent evaluating pupil performance, diagnosing pupil needs, and preparing learning prescriptions for each child. In other words, most of the time is spent helping individual pupils. To ensure that each child's prescriptions are effective in moving him toward fulfillment of his behavioral objectives frequent staff conferences are held.

This system may be implemented in a self-contained classroom structure, or children may move from one learning area to another.

The main objectives of the system are to enable each pupil to work at his own rate through units of study in a learning sequence, to develop in each pupil a demonstrable degree of mastery, to develop self-initiation and self-direction of learning, to foster the development of problem-solving thought processes, and to encourage self-evaluation and motivation for learning.

In the United States IPI program materials are available in mathematics, reading, spelling, science, and social education.³ IPI mathematics features a variety of instructional materials and diagnostic instruments for both teacher and student — including placement tests, self-instructional materials, multi-media modes of instruction, and a support

³Robert G. Scanlon, *Progress Report* (Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, Inc., May, 1972).

system for staff development in the use of the IPI program.⁴ The most recent version of IPI science, Science Curriculum for Individualized Learning (SCIL), involves three instructional modes titled Exploration, Invention, and Discovery. A student interest inventory provides the teacher with the basis for placing the student in invention lessons. The student then applies what he has learned in the invention lessons. This management system requires the student to make choices which lead to pre-determined outcomes.

The IPI social education program is termed Social Encounters and Research Curriculum for Humanization (SEARCH). It contains five psycho-social functional domains: self-realization, governing, producing and consuming goods and services, utilizing environments, and interpreting and generating ideas and events. Its goal is to help the student understand reality well enough to develop a healthy self-image, constructive interpersonal relationships, competence and creativity in the five areas of human function, and independence in dealing with his environment.

IPI also features computer-assisted instruction, a field operation which is responsible for developing and field testing materials and strategies for administrators, teachers, and teacher aides; a nationwide network of individualized schools; and a program of individualized learning for adults.

The findings of the IPI evaluations were that parents perceived that IPI learners were more highly motivated, self-directed, and independent than non-IPI pupils, and that IPI had a positive effect on middle-level pupils' self-concepts, creative tendencies, and attitudes toward school.⁵ With respect to the cognitive domain both formative and summative studies show that IPI students achieve as well as or better than non-IPI students on standard tests.⁶ They demonstrate higher achievement than non-IPI students on IPI tests.

⁴Ronald E. Hull, "Selecting An Approach to Individualized Education" *Phi Delta Kappan*, Nov. 1978, pp. 169-178.

⁵T. Jerome Rookey and Alice L. Valdes, *A Study of Individually Prescribed Instruction and the Affective Domain* (Research for Better Schools, Inc., October, 1972).

⁶Jack V. Edling, *Individualized Instruction*. op. cit.

Individually Guided Education

Individually Guided Education features the multi-unit organizational structure, a model of instructional programming for the individual learner, a model for measurement and evaluation, a program of home/school communications, and continuing research and development.⁷ IGE demands the restructuring of the school organization. Instruction of pools of different aged children becomes the responsibility of units or teams of teachers. Multi-unit combines theory and practice regarding instructional programming for individual learners, horizontal and vertical organization for instruction, role differentiation, shared decision-making by groups, and open communication.

The multi-unit program requires the principal to assume greater and more direct responsibility for developing improved educational practices, managing the pre-service and in-service teacher education activities in his building, and administering research and development activities. There must be a unit leader or lead teacher, a career teacher who chairs unit meetings and performs a liaison function between the team and the principal, consultants, and parents.

The IGE system attends to differences in a child's rate and style of learning, level of motivation, and unique educational needs. Curriculum materials are geared to the instructional objectives as they are selected by the staff for each child, based on his characteristics as a learner. It also provides a design for measurement and evaluation that includes preassessment of the child's readiness, assessment of his progress, and final achievement. Tests inform both the child and the teacher regarding the attainment of learning objectives. Home/school communications are attended to in order to ensure that the school's efforts are reinforced by the interest and encouragement of parents and other adults.

In the United States, IGE program materials are available in reading, mathematics, and motivational procedures

⁷H. J. Klausmeier, M. R. Quilling, J. S. Sorenson, R. S. Way, and G. R. Glasrud, *Individually Guided Education and the Multi-Unit Elementary School, Guidelines for Implementation* (Madison: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, 1971).

in the Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development,⁸ the Developing Mathematical Processes,⁹ and the Individually Guided Motivation.¹⁰

Inasmuch as IGE curricula are at different stages of field testing, evaluations have been reported in terms of the extent to which each program has attained its goal.

Program for Learning in Accordance with Needs

Program for Learning in Accordance with Needs or PLAN is a computer-managed educational system,¹¹ since in order to develop a suitable educational program for each learner, a great deal of information must be processed efficiently and each learner must plan an educational program suited to his values, interests, and potential abilities.

In this system the overall educational program is broken down into sets of behavioral objectives which can be assigned as learning tasks to the individual learner. Early in the year, the teacher confers with each learner about his general program for the year.

About five objectives are grouped together in a module, and each objective requires approximately two or three hours to achieve, thus making the module about a two-week segment of instruction. The teacher, on the basis of his knowledge of the main curriculum demanded, indicates which objectives are required and which are recommended; while the learner, relying on his own knowledge of his aptitudes, skills, and abilities, and his long-range goals and interests, selects optional objectives.

⁸Wayne Otto and Eunice Aakov, *The Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development* (Minneapolis: National Computer Systems, Inc., June, 1970).

⁹Thomas A. Romberg and Mary E. Montgomery, *Developing Mathematical Processes: A Different Kind of Individualized Program*, a report from the Project on Analysis of Mathematics Instruction, The Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, University of Wisconsin, February, 1973.

¹⁰IGM (Madison: The Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, University of Wisconsin, 1973).

¹¹*Description of Project PLAN* (New York: Westinghouse Learning Corp., 1969).

The PLAN system adapts itself to materials the school already has on hand. The learner uses the Teaching-Learning Units best suited to his own learning style to achieve that particular objective in the module.

Monitoring and evaluating pupil progress is done by using specific test questions related to the objectives in a particular module. When the desired mastery level has been realized, a learner moves to the next Teaching-Learning Unit, but if test results indicate more work is needed, the learner goes back and reviews or does further work before retaking the test.

Data from an evaluation done by D. Lipu and M. Steen¹² revealed that PLAN learners spent more time in individualized activity than did control learners.

The Open Classroom

The Open Classroom Approach is more free and unstructured than any of the systems presented above. Its primary objectives are to help the learner how to think, to form judgments, and to discriminate. Its objectives are developmental in nature and center around the quality of human interaction, which in turn leads to achievement in conventional and humanistic terms.

In the Open Classroom Curriculum, the emphasis is on each learner's interests and style, lots of informal verbal interaction among the learners, an abundance of fascinating concrete materials, and a teacher as a stimulator. There is no real difference between one subject in the curriculum and another, or even between work and play. A few learners may be in "family" groups of children of various ages and in all schools they will each have a wide choice of materials and activities — some commercial, many homemade — to which they can devote their attention where and for as long as they wish. There are generally no required subjects and no required assignments that learners must, at some time, con-

¹²Dewey Lipu and Margaret T. Steen, *Assessment of the PLAN Teacher Development Program* (New York: Westinghouse Learning Corp., final report, spring, 1970).

centrate upon. There are generally no examinations or report cards as such. Rather, parents are given, "histories" reporting what the learner has accomplished. Discipline is relaxed, and when a learner causes a disturbance, the teacher does his best to find more appropriate materials and approaches rather than deny the privilege of independence to the learner who may need it most.¹³

There is evidence that learners in open classroom settings do have different experiences from learners in traditional classrooms.¹⁴

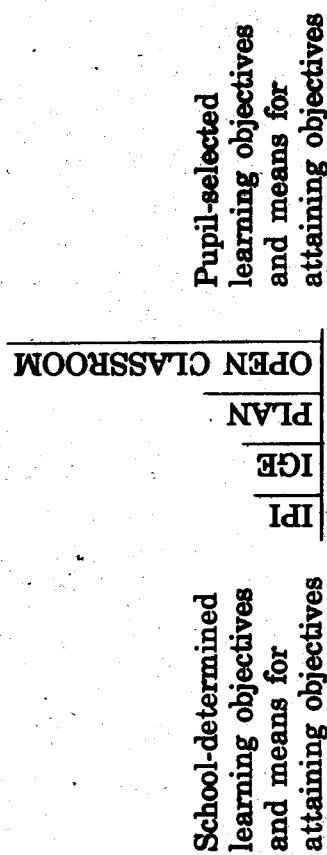


FIGURE E. CONTINUUM OF INDIVIDUALIZATION PROCEDURES

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Define individualized instruction.
2. Discuss the following approaches to individualized instruction.
 - a. Open classroom approach.
 - b. Individually guided education
 - c. Individually prescribed instruction.
 - d. Learning program based on needs.

¹³H.J. Walberg and S.C. Thomas, *Characteristics of Open Education: Toward an Operational Definition* (Newton, Mass.: TDR Associates Inc., 1971).

¹⁴*Ibid.*

Non-Graded Curriculum

The Non-Graded School is one that denies the limitation of grade structures and is organized so that the individual learner may develop his academic and creative talents as rapidly or as slowly as his abilities permit. Adequate provision for individual pupil differences is at the heart of the non-graded school concept.

Learners would spend two, three or four years in each school, three being the average. Progress in each academic areas\ would be continuous.

The program for various schools can overlap since a learner may very well be considerably ahead in one area and not in another. This should not create a problem if the content program is set up on a continuum. Each teacher would simply continue the program of instruction for each learner at the point where the pupil discontinued work in the previous school.

The learner who is able to move ahead rapidly in all areas and whose overall maturity seems to indicate his readiness may move on to the next school block. He is the learner who could complete the average three-year program in only two years.

In the case of a learner who is advanced academically but who shows other indications that his needs would be met

better within his peer group, the accelerated move to the next level would probably be not wise. Here again, the flexible curricular program would allow the learner to pursue advanced academic work while remaining with his chronological peers. The less able learner, too, benefits from the flexibility non-grading provides. He might spend four years in primary school, and through this added year and a somewhat less intense approach to his early learning, find every ensuing year a welcome experience rather than a hurdle. The older, physically more mature primary learner still academically slow, might be moved on to the next level so that he remains with his peers, but every attention would be given to keeping his program at a level consistent with his abilities.¹

The Philosophy of a Non-graded Program

A non-graded school organization is a vertical one which provides for the continuous progression of all learners with the recognition of their variability in all aspects of their development.

It uses a philosophy of education which makes possible the adjusting of teaching and administrative procedures to meet differing social, mental and physical capacities among children. It uses an organizational plan which eliminates grade levels, promote flexibility grouping and continues progress and permits the utilization of meaningful individualized instruction.

Each learner is uniquely different. Meeting individual differences is not a technique; it is a way of living. It is imperative that each learner be able to live with himself. Each must understand his assets and use them constructively. He must discover his shortcomings. He must develop a sense of self-protection sufficient to keep him functioning at an efficient level.

¹Lee, I. Smith, *Teaching in a Nongraded School* (New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1970), pp. 30-37.

Goals and Objectives of a Non-Graded Program

Some of the purposes for adopting this program are the following:

- o To provide an opportunity for every individual to learn according to his own growth pattern
- o To establish for each learner a pattern of success in school experiences
- o To eliminate artificial grade barriers so that the faster-moving learner will not have to mark time
- o To permit the slower-moving learner to progress with satisfaction and success at his own rate
- o To permit each learner to be taught at his best learning level
- o To provide for each learner a curriculum adapted to his growth pattern

These purposes lead to the establishment of the following specific goals of a non-graded school:

- o To help each learner find satisfaction in learning
- o To help each learner realize that subject matter skills are tools he should use in meeting and solving problems
- o To help each learner develop self-confidence
- o To help each learner think imaginatively and openly explore his ideas
- o To help each learner free himself to explore the resources of the school, both human beings and materials, as well as his own resources
- o To help each learner assume responsibility for his own learning
- o To help each learner become self-directed and self-disciplined

The Non-Graded Curriculum

The curriculum in a non-graded school assumes that the particular group of learners for which it is planned are human; the program must be broad and flexible to meet the challenge of the ability and interest of all of the learners as human beings.

Opportunity for self-acceptance and self-discovery is the essence for making the curriculum real and meaningful. In planning the curriculum to focus on the individual learner, the following concepts should be kept in mind:²

- o There are differences, as well as similarities, among individuals.
- o Learning is evidenced through a change in behavior.
- o The most meaningful learning takes place through the process of discovery.
- o Individuals draw relationships from their background of experiences.
- o Individuals react to stimulus and initiate action at their own rate and depth.
- o Learning takes place best when the individual has the freedom of choice.
- o Each learner is in the continual process of individual growth.
- o Each learner has rights and responsibilities as a member of a group.
- o There is a direct relationship between meaningful learning and amount of intra-personal involvement.
- o Learning situations may be provided at many levels in a variety of groupings.
- o The school environment must be one which encourages a feeling of belonging.

²Rosalia N. Aberin, "The Nongraded Program: An Educational Innovation." Unpublished manuscript. Graduate Studies, De La Salle University, 1976.

- o Each learner must have opportunities to think and work as an individual, as well as a member of a group.

- o Learning takes place best when an individual assumes responsibility for his own program of instruction.

The curriculum, then, becomes an organized series of experiences which have been decided upon in terms of the needs of the learner and which provides for his continuous growth and development toward desirable goals or behavioral objectives. The purpose of these learning activities is to enable the learner under the direction of the school to acquire and develop skills, abilities, understandings and attitudes which will help him live effectively and happily in his environment.

Evaluation in a Non-Graded Program

Evaluation forms a crucial part of the operation of any non-graded school program. Evaluation must be a continuous process, and the only way it can be accomplished with objectivity is for the teacher to have a file on each learner and to use a series of checklists and inventories in addition to the usual kinds of achievement tests that the teacher constructs or buys from a publisher. In addition to the daily observation, certain milestones should be established so that the teacher and the learner can set their sights for a more formal kind of evaluation. The final activity for each level should be such a milestone. For most learners, however, the major subgoals of each level should likewise have milestone evaluations.

In any evaluation of the learner's performance, his capacity for achievement guides the teacher's expectancy. Academic capacity is often measured through I.Q. tests or previous performance in schools. Thus the teacher will not create a negative impact by informing a learner with a fairly

low expectancy, that he is on par with the other learners. He must always be evaluated in comparison with himself. The primary question is: Is he responding at a speed and at a level that coincides with his own native capacity and the background that he brought to the learning task?

The learner should be personally involved in evaluating his achievement to gather evidence on himself. He should be asked about his own opinion of his performance. Did he do what he set out to do? Is his work representative of what he can do? Is there some way that he can improve or stimulate better response? In group work, the learner's classmates will offer an evaluation if given an opportunity, but the teacher must provide the group with some criteria on which to judge the performance of the members.

Reports to the parents and to the school are likewise a necessary part of the evaluation. They should indicate the achievement the child has made along the sequence of objectives, as well as qualitative remarks about the learner's works. If the parents and the school know what tasks the learner has performed, then they can provide continuing direction and assistance without boring the learner with unnecessary repetition or without skipping important steps. The home report could contain suggestions about books that may help the learner or about his interests and ways of relating those interests to his reading. Checklists similar to those used in the classroom could form part of the home report to indicate what learning is taking place.³

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Describe a non-graded school in terms of its curriculum, operation, promotion and evaluation.

³Paul R. Mort, *The Individual Pupil* (New York: Avenue Book Company, 1958), pp. 115-120.

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Work-Value-Oriented Curriculum

Department Order No. 6, s. 1972 entitled "Adoption of a Work-Oriented Curriculum in Philippine Schools has as its objective the maximization of the school's contribution to the attainment of national developmental goals and educational objectives.¹ The national developmental goals are the following:²

1. To achieve and maintain an accelerating rate of economic development and social progress
2. To assure the maximum participation of all the people in the attainment and enjoyment of such growth;
3. To strengthen national consciousness and provide desirable cultural values in a changing world

In a work-value-oriented curriculum, the content of the subject is modified to relate it to the dominant economic activities or products of the community.³ It suggests activities which will enable learners to apply and test classroom learnings in real life setting.⁴ These activities must have their impact on an aspect of either economic or social development. Take for example the concept "community" in a first year class. To this concept, an activity such as beautification of

¹Department Order No. 6.

²Presidential Decree 6-A.

³Bureau of Public Schools Memorandum of June 13, 1973 - "Instituting Administrative and Curriculum Adjustment for a More Development Oriented Curriculum.

⁴Department Order No. 53, s. 1973 - Youth Civic Action Program.

surroundings would be relevant and proper for a work-oriented curriculum. The learner through such an activity gets involved in it which he realizes is important for the development of his community.

The basic rational of the work-oriented curriculum is its enrichment with accent on work experiences and skills with the objective thrust on the development of desirable attitudes towards the dignity of labor.⁵

Work is a value not yet internalized by Filipino learners. It is often interpreted as menial, when in reality work means any exertion or effort directed to produce or accomplish something productive or operative activity.⁶ Thus, the curriculum must also be value-oriented.

If values are to be internalized by the learners, such that they are committed to them, they should be able to individually conceptualize them. A value-oriented curriculum is one where values are acquired through an inquiry-oriented valuing.⁷ This means the development of reflective thinking during the process of valuing.

GUIDE FOR REVIEW

1. Discuss the work-oriented curriculum.

⁵Jose R. Vergara, "Vocational Education and Work-Oriented Curriculum Education," *Philippine Artisan*, May 26, 1973.

⁶The Random House Dictionary of the English Language.

⁷Dr. Leonardo D. De la Cruz, "Work-Value-Oriented Curriculum," *Junior Citizen*, Teacher's Edition, Vol. III, Issue Number 7, September 10, 1973.

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Secondary Education Development Program (SEDP)

Rationale for the SEDP

As mentioned in the paper of Director Esperanza A. Gonzales of the Bureau of Secondary Education, Department of Education, Culture and Sports, entitled "THE 1989 SECONDARY EDUCATION CURRICULUM", when the first graduates of the New Elementary School Curriculum (NESC) come to the high schools in 1989, they will have

"basic intellectual skills and learning tools to continue learning and the values for successfully living lives in the society".

This new secondary education curriculum in effect is designed to continue pupil development started by PRODED. The same paper revealed research findings indicating a need to improve student performance in science, mathematics and communication arts and that ineffective teaching, inadequate facilities and instructional materials contribute to unsatisfactory student performance and finally the need to improve also policy-making and increase the internal efficiency of the system.

It becomes obvious therefore that the SEDP aims to continue what was started in the elementary grades to high school to improve the quality of graduates, broaden accessibility to quality secondary education and promote equity in the allocation of resources, especially at the local level.

Why the need to change the 1973 Revised Secondary Education Program

On the basis of the findings revealed by a series of institutional surveys, a number of problems cropped up among which were:

1. The multi-disciplinary and inter-disciplinary approaches which were good features of the 1973 revised curriculum were not reflected in the instructional materials or in the classroom processes;
2. The desire to develop among students good work attitudes fell short of expectations; and
3. The conceptual approach to problem solving in the social sciences proved ineffective for learning the content of social science subjects, etc.

Legal and Other Bases of the 1989 SEDP

The 1987 Constitution in Article XIV Sec. 1 states that "The State shall protect and promote the right of all citizens to quality education at all levels and shall take appropriate steps to make such education accessible to all." Sec. 3 (1), (2), Sections 14, 19 and Art. XV Sec. 1 which were cited in the previous chapters expressly stated education-related constitutional requirements serving as the primary legal bases of the 1989 SEDP.

D No. 6-A and Batas Pambansa Blg. 232 otherwise known as Education Act of 1982 clearly spells the need for the kind of education that will continue general education started in the elementary grades; prepare learners for college and prepare learners for the world of work.

This curriculum is supportive of the Medium Term Development Plan targets and the values development thrusts in accordance with the Values Education framework of the DECS. **Main Components and Goals of the SEDP.**

The 1989 SEDP aims to improve the quality of education and covers curriculum development, staff development, and physical facilities development. SEDP will focus on the following strategies:

1. Curriculum reform
2. Provision of quality textbooks/teachers' manuals on a 1:1 basis
3. Provision of science and work education equipment
4. Staff development (short and long term)
5. Assistance to private education
6. Research studies on NCEE, barangay high schools, career guidance, etc.

To effect efficiency in the system, the SEDP will also focus on:

1. research studies on school location and distribution, financing schemes, teachers' salaries and benefits, etc.
2. training of administrators
3. strengthening of management and evaluation system

In addition to this, SEDP will also undertake or expand the school building program, service contracting scheme and other alternative delivery systems.

Objectives of the New Secondary Curriculum

After going through the new secondary curriculum, the students shall:

1. develop an enlightened commitment to the national ideals by cherishing, preserving, and developing

moral, spiritual and socio-cultural values, as well as other desirable aspects of the Filipino heritage;

2. obtain knowledge and form desirable attitudes for understanding the nature and purpose of man and therefore, of one's self, one's own people, and other races, places and times, thereby, promoting a keen sense of self, of family and of national and international communities;
3. develop skills in higher intellectual operations and more complex comprehension and expression activities and in thinking, intelligently and critically and creatively in life situations;
4. acquire work skills, knowledge and information and work ethic essential for making an intelligent choice of an occupation or career, and for specialized training in specific occupations;
5. broaden and heighten their abilities in and appreciation for the arts, science and technology as a means for maximizing their potentials for self-fulfillment and for promoting the welfare of others.

Scope and sequence of the curriculum

There are eight subjects from first year to fourth year. These are:

1. English
2. Pilipino
3. Mathematics
4. Science and Technology
5. Araling Panlipunan
6. Edukasyon, Pangkatawan, Kalusugan at Musika
7. Technology and Home Economics
8. Edukasyon sa Pagpapahalaga (Values Education)

Work experience as the 9th subject was tried in the pilot schools for three years. The try-out experience showed that the "work ethic" component of work experience could be integrated with Values Education, while its "technology" component with Home Economics and Technology.

Values Education will be taught as a separate subject and shall be integrated in all the other subject areas.

Technologies will be made a visible component of the different subject areas, especially Science and Technology and Home Economics and Technology.

Subject Area Description

1. The subject areas of Filipino and English shall place a strong emphasis on the development of critical thinking skills and communication competence.
2. Araling Panlipunan (Social Studies) shall be taught from the Philippine perspective. The area of study for the first year is Philippine History, Asian History in the second year. Economics in the third year and World History in the fourth year.
3. Mathematics will include higher level of competencies in preparation for technology courses introduced at the tertiary level.
4. In Science, the focus in the first year shall be General Science, Biology in the Second Year, Chemistry in the third year and Physics in the fourth year.
5. Arts will be added in the third and fourth years to Physical Education, Health and Music.
6. The implementation of Technology and Home Economics as a new subject area will be deferred. The teaching of Practical Arts as currently practice will continue except in the try-out and leader schools.

SUBJECT AREA	UNIT CREDIT	NO. OF MINUTES
English	1	40
Filipino	1	40
Mathematics	1	40
Science and Technology	1.5	60
Araling Panlipunan	1	40
Edukasyon Pangkatawan, Kalusugan at Musika, Sining (III, IV)	1	40
Technology (I, II) and Home Economics (III-IV) Practical Arts for SY (1989)	2	60
Edukasyon sa Pagpapahalaga	1	40

Curriculum, Validity, Relevance and Effectiveness

This new curriculum was tried out in 80 pilot schools representing seven (7) types of secondary schools, namely:

- barangay - vocational
- municipal - private secretary
- provincial - private non-sectarian
- city
- Try-out classes were regularly monitored and evaluated twice.
- Studies to determine the effectiveness of teaching and learning were conducted.
- These studies included surveys of students' teachers', and administrators' perceptions on the new textbooks, medium of instruction, time allotment and new subject areas.

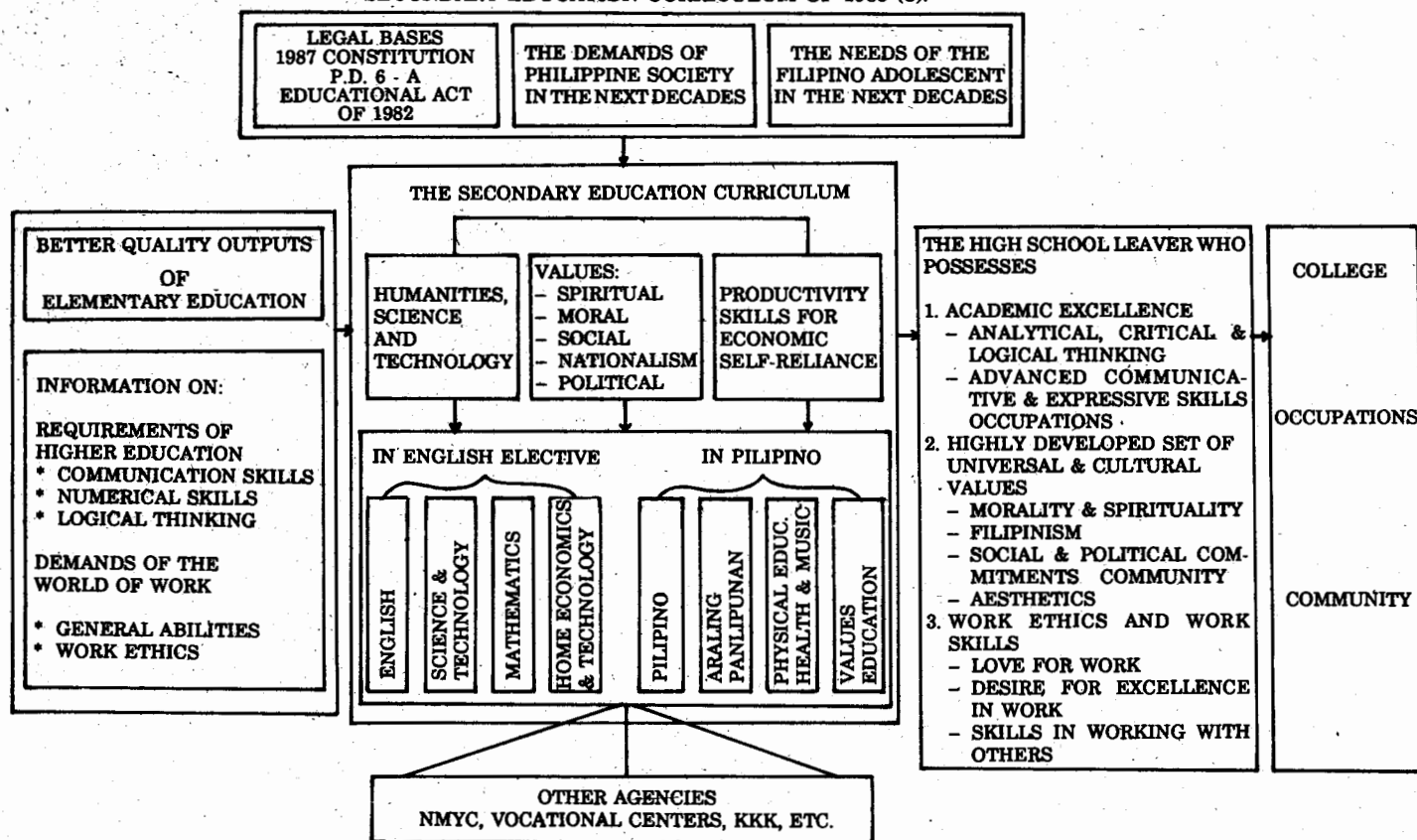
To be prepared for the effective implementation of the new curriculum, staff development programs were undertaken, including the training by selected centres of public and private school regional trainers; leadership training for secondary school principals/administrators for both public and private schools; and there will be mass training of first year teachers for both public and private schools in April-May, 1989. Among the centres are the Philippine Normal College for English, Filipino and Values education; UP College of Education for Social Studies, Health and Music; UP ISMED for Science and Mathematics; TUP for Technology and Home Economics and Work Experience; UP SPEAR for Physical Education; and Maryknoll College for Values Education.

With all the other areas of concern and operation well taken care of, the Filipino youth is looking forward to this new Secondary Education Curriculum. It should however be borne in mind that some slacks and weak links may show up in the process that must be attended to promptly by all concerned. Having been tried out and tested with good results, let us all hope that this will enable us to effect the much needed change in the quality of education and our graduates.

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FIGURE 1 - THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
FOR THE
SECONDARY EDUCATION CURRICULUM OF 1989 (3).



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The Co-Author

Felizardo Y. Francisco has been the Vice President of Guzman Institute of Technology since 1977 and the Officer-in-Charge of Guzman Institute of Electronics since 1979. He finished his Bachelor of Science in Industrial Education (BSIED) in 1966 at the Central Luzon Polytechnic College (CLPC) in Cabanatuan City, major in Stationary Engineering; Master of Arts in Education and Doctor of Education at the Manuel L. Quezon University.

He taught Automotive Mechanics from 1966 to 1969 at the GIT Technical Department and Vocational-Auto-Mechanics from 1968 to 1976 at the Division of City Schools, Manila. He was head of the GIT Auto-Mechanics Department from 1969 to 1972 and its Technical Director from 1976 to 1977.

He has attended various conferences sponsored by the Department of Education, Culture and Sports, the Philippine Association of Private Technical Institution, Inc. (PAPTI) and industrial establishments on technical and vocational education. He has been regularly invited as resource speaker in Science and Technology by civic organizations and public and private schools. He has authored and co-authored eleven (11) technical books. Among them are *From Skilled Worker to Trainor Handbook*; *Certified Plant Mechanic Reviewer for Internal Combustion Engine, Refrigeration and Airconditioning and Machine Shop Practice*; *Automotive Trouble Shooting Fundamentals*; *Automotive Trouble Shooting Operation and Maintenance*; *Automobile Power Train and Running Gear System*; *Internal Combustion Engine*; *Car Tune-Up Maintenance and Trouble Shooting*; *Trends and Issues in Technical and Vocational Education*; and *Basic Mensuration*.